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**Africa's Leadership Question and Impediments to South-South Cooperation in Africa:
Implications**

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Abstract

This paper examines the continuous debates around Africa's leadership question and how this impedes on South-South cooperation in Africa. It pays particular reference to the decades of North-South relations and how the asymmetrical relations between the North and South have largely favoured the North at the expense of the South. With more and more southern states feeling the pinch of poor economic outlook as reflected in growing poverty and misery levels, the paper argues that Africa's leading states needed to remove all stumbling blocks of deepening relations by jointly pushing for solutions to Africa's challenges. It is against this background that this paper using deductive approach examines the contentious issues creating hegemonic struggle between Nigeria and South Africa. It draws implications over the failure of Africa's leading states to speak in one voice and concludes that Africa's challenges were better solved by African states hence, the need for more cooperation among states therein. The paper recommends the institutionalization of a framework for Nigeria and South Africa to act as spokesperson for the continent on issues affecting it in particular and sub-saharan Africa in general. It also recommends the streamlining of the objectives of ECOWAS and SADC in order to strengthen the African Union for better performance.

Keywords: Africa Leadership Question, South-South Cooperation, Cooperation, North-South Relations, Asymmetrical Relations

1.0 INTRODUCTION

For decades running, the asymmetrical nature of relationship between the North and the South has questioned the rationale for their continued relations and collaboration. Though, north-south relations cannot be jettisoned in its entirety, the new international economic order and the changing dynamics of international politics presupposes that the South must derive maximum benefits from its relations with the North otherwise it may seek a review of it. While relations between the North and the South can be said to be double edged, both as partner and debtor nation, relations have

been largely skewed in favour of the North due to better economic indicators, advancement in technology, advanced democratic systems on the part of the north. On the part of the South, low gross domestic product (GDP), growing debt burden, and poor state of economy etc are some of the factors that account for the disparity.

This imbalance and skewed nature of relations between the North and South has led to the clamour for a North-South dialogue (Akinboye & Ottoh, 2007). The dialogue is intended to address the imbalances and unfavourable conditions. But, convening a north-south dialogue has been an uphill task. Rather than even things up, the parameters and conditions have continued to widen hence, the call for South-South cooperation as an alternative to North-South relations. Indeed, south-south cooperation has come as an alternative for developing countries to deepen areas of existing cooperation and collaboration among themselves while seeking new frontiers to solve common developmental problems.

On the surface, South-South cooperation appears as the most plausible tool to redressing the asymmetrical relationship between the North and South. But this is not without some encumbrances and impediments due to rivalry and competition among leading states thereby frustrating existing relations. Due to perceived leadership gap in Africa, and the bid by leading states to fill this void, achieving full scale cooperation between countries of the South divide have been somewhat difficult. It is with this background that this article attempts to examine the contentious issues between Nigeria and South Africa in their bid for leadership of Africa. The contentious issues creating hegemonic struggle between Nigeria and South Africa include membership of multilateral fora including BRICS, G20 and OPEC Africa's permanent representative at the United Nations Security council, acquisition of military resources and hardware in Africa, influence in the region amongst others. This analysis of these issues would form the focus of this article which has been sectionalized into six sections. The first section examines membership of multilateral fora while the second discusses the debate over the United Nations Security Council. The third section examines the leadership and influence at the African Union as another contentious issue while citizens' inter-relations is another. The penultimate section discusses the implications of all contentions of south-south cooperation while the final section concludes the work.

Membership of multilateral organisations

At the centre of the discourse over the impediments to south-south relations is the membership of multilateral fora outside the continent of Africa. Games (2013) pointed out some of these organisations to include G20 and BRICS and OPEC just to mention a few have been contentious and debatable. The membership status of the contending states would be analysed within the context of this article.

2.0 SOUTH AFRICA’S MEMBERSHIP OF BRICS

The BRICS is a forum for facilitating cooperation and synergizing between select economies around the world. Its membership consisting of Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa is a forum for exchanges, seeking assistance and building stronger economies among member states. With membership cutting across four continents namely South America, Europe, Asia and Africa, the body is a trans-continental body seeking to build strong economies of member states. An examination of the membership of BRICS reveals that South Africa is the only African representative alongside China, Russia and India and Brazil. More contentious is the kind of influence China and Russia wields being permanent members of the United Nations Security Council, the same organ of the United Nations which has been a basis of contention between the two states. Ordinarily, South Africa’s membership of BRICS could be interpreted to mean her elevation above Nigeria in ranking and significance thereby sparking more debate about Africa’s leadership question and the bid by leading states to occupy the position. This point is further corroborated by Egwemi and Ochim (2016) who observed that South Africa’s membership of economic blocs such as BRICS and G20 clearly serve as avenues to achieve the drive for continental leadership. This assertion if it is anything to go by not only put spanner in wheels of bilateral relations between Nigeria and South Africa but also cast doubts on possible south-south cooperation.

The inference drawn from this analysis is that South Africa’s membership of BRICS clearly puts it ahead of Nigeria, a development which impedes on seeking more areas of cooperation through South-South economic framework. Closely related to South Africa’s membership of BRICS is its membership of G20.

South Africa's membership of G20

In a similar fashion, the membership of the group of twenty nations otherwise known as (G20) put another spanner in the drive for south-south cooperation on the African continent. The G20 is an international forum for the governments and central bank governors of member states to discuss issues pertaining to the promotion of international financial stability (Ramachandran, 2015). The influence wielded by the G20 as seen in the increasing importance of solid economic base which itself is a function of financial stability to determine strength and viability of states within the international system sets non-participating states apart. As long as strong and viable economies remain a determinant of power equilibrium, economic blocs like G20 will remain relevant in determining market stability and measuring growth of member states.

The membership base of the G20 including Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, South Korea, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States and European Union consists of industrialized and key players in global economy who determine the direction of global trade and commerce (Heinbecker, 2011). Its membership drawn from the worlds' largest advanced economies and emerging economies, representing about two-thirds of the worlds' population accounting for 85 percent of global GDP and over 75 percent of global trade is a force to reckon with globally (G20, 2015). South Africa's growing influence is made more evident as the only African representative in that economic bloc consisting of major actors in international politics and global economy.

It therefore stands to reason that South Africa's membership of the G20 bloc is not only a reflection of her acceptance by other global actors, but also an attestation to the fact that she enjoys some degree of influence and international recognition ahead of its competitors. Though, South Africa's membership of G20 is contentious, its strong economy and development of key sectors among other key determinants clearly puts it ahead of its peers in Africa. South Africa's exclusive membership of G20 is hereby interpreted to mean her acceptance by key players in the international system. This recognition connotes supporting Pretoria's bid for leadership position in Africa and also questioning the relevance of other members of the big Five states in Africa including Algeria, Egypt, Ethiopia and Nigeria (Akinterinwa, 2012).

The recognition accorded South Africa however throws up some pertinent questions including; Is Pretoria deserving of the global recognition it has received since 1994? Does South Africa's increasing role and involvement at the global fora not confer on her the leadership of Africa? In answering these two questions, this article will put up two arguments. First is that South Africa's rise to prominence is not sudden, and only a function of multiple indicators including relatively stronger economy, infrastructural development, development of science and technology, military industrial complex (capacity to produce arms and ammunitions locally) among others. Secondly is the acquisition of both hard and soft power usually referred to as smart power.

Hard power according to Wilson (2008) involves the deployment of military force, coercive diplomacy and economic sanctions to exert power and influence over and above other states. This is usually the case with United States of America in dealing with some its perceived adversaries including Pakistan, North Korea, Cuba, Iraq, Iran to mention a few. Similarly, scenarios played out in the military invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq by the allied North Atlantic Treaty Organisation led forces. On the continent of Africa, South Africa had participated in peace missions under the auspices of the African Union and United Nations organization including Burundi, Angola, Nepal, Sierra Leone to mention a few (Tetenyi, 2014). It also deployed economic sanctions against erring states including Nigeria during the Abacha regime over gross human rights abuses and incarceration of political prisoners (Wapmuk, 2010). Similarly, economic sanctions were imposed on Zimbabwe as part of plan to force out former President Robert Mugabe who had held sway from independence in 1980 (Grebe, 2010).

The other variant of hard power, soft power involves the use of persuasion other than force or coercion in shaping long-term attitudes and preferences in shaping world politics and ensure recalcitrant states are made to change their positions without force or coercion (Ikenberry 2004; Nye, 2004). The utilization of both hard and soft powers are increasingly playing important roles in contemporary international relations (Wagner, 2014). It is some of these sustained efforts that has earned Pretoria respect and recognition putting it ahead of her peers on the continent. Just as South Africa's membership of G20 and BRICS serve as impediments to South-South cooperation, so also, is Nigeria's membership of OPEC which is perceived as another factor in the power play?

To fully exhaust the analysis on membership of multilateral fora as an impediment to south-south cooperation, Nigeria's membership of OPEC is also examined.

Nigeria's membership of Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)

The Organisation of Petroleum Exporting countries (OPEC) is a 13-member organization consisting of states with large and sufficient oil deposits serving as one of the mainstays of their respective economies. Incidentally, crude oil exports which accounts for over 70% of Nigeria's export earnings thereby serving as the mainstay of its economy. It is on record that the discovery of crude oil in the Niger-Delta region in the 1970s and Nigeria's subsequent membership of OPEC contributed largely to the development initiatives or leadership roles it took shortly afterwards including the nationalization of Barclays Bank, British Petroleum as well as participation in international peacekeeping missions just to mention a few. The proceeds which accrued from crude oil sales also bolstered her foreign policy objectives of dismantling all remnants of colonial rule and white minority rule in Southern Africa (Ajala, 1992).

Today, OPEC remains a powerful cartel involved in world politics and global economy determining the pricing and supply of crude oil as well the stability of the international oil market. The growing importance of regular crude oil supplies to the global market makes OPEC a key player in international politics especially as it concerns fixing of crude oil prices and supply quota. Over the years, the attraction by world powers to Nigeria's oil has been a source of strength and attention from world powers and subsequently conferring on Nigeria some degree of influence and power on one of the producers of best quality crude in the world (Adetula, 2014). The logic from this analysis is that Nigeria's membership of OPEC provides her the platform to interact with major players and key actors in world politics and economy. Her recognition as the third highest producer of crude oil and one of producers of fine quality crude has favoured Nigeria for decades. Though, OPEC as a body remains a major player in ensuring the stability of the international oil market, the development of alternative sources of energy have raised concerns about the continued relevance of OPEC and its member states. With the instability of the oil market putting further pressure on the member-states, countries with alternative energy sources have sought for alternatives. Consequently, the instability of oil prices has exposed Nigeria's economy to uncertainties especially against the backdrop of the development of alternatives to fossil fuel and

the discovery of crude oil deposits by other African states. In the final analysis, the exclusive membership of South Africa and Nigeria to peculiar organisations clearly serves as impediments to deepening cooperation and strategic partnership. It is yet to be seen what the affected states make of their membership of these bodies. Apart from membership of international fora frustrating South-South cooperation, there is also the contest over Africa's representative on the proposed expansion of the United Nations Security Council. This would form the next focus of this paper.

The United Nations Security Council (UNSC)

One of the most strategic international organisations that commands global membership, followership and recognition is the United Nations organisations. The founding of the United Nations organization in 1945 was necessitated due to the outbreak of the Second World War and the need to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war (Akindele, 2000). In meeting one of its core objectives, the United Nations organization since inception had prevented the outbreak of another world war though there have been pockets of skirmishes, inter-state wars creating tensions and apprehensions the world over. To perform its functions more effectively, there arose the need to expand the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) been the most strategic organ of the United Nations organization. Its significance in terms of maintenance of international peace and security accounts for why it is referred to as the power house of the world body (Imobighe, 2012).

Following some review and evaluation of the performance of the UNSC, some calls were made for its enlargement for better performance and improved output (Imobighe, 2012). The reform of the UNSC which started during the tenure of Kofi Annan (2000-2010) following a release of the report of 16-member High-level panel on ways of enhancing the UNO is yet to materialize (Imobighe, 2012:243). Following that plan, Nigeria, Algeria, Egypt and South Africa indicated interest to fill the slot for Africa. Of all the countries that indicated interest in Africa, Nigeria and South Africa appeared as the frontrunners for the coveted seat (Aribisala, 2013). The bid to secure a permanent seat at the UNSC has thus heated up the debate and aided their diplomatic face-off (Egwemi & Ochim, 2016).

Essentially, their bids to secure a permanent seat at the United Nations Security Council constitutes an impediment south-south cooperation because Africa has only a slot. Nigeria's credentials

including participation in UN peace keeping missions, contribution to dismantling all vestiges of colonialism and minority rule in Africa, population strength, promotion of democratic governance and service of the black component of humanity among others (Ade-Ibijola, 2015; Aribisala 2011; Imobighe, 2012) when put side by side with South Africa's credentials including infrastructural development, military hardware, and involvement in peacekeeping activities under the United Nations and African Union adds more impetus to the debate (Aribisala, 2011). Without mincing words, the race for the UNSC have not only strained relations in the post-apartheid era especially since 2003 but also constituted a clog in exploring other areas of cooperation.

While the debate over who represents Africa on the UNSC rages on, it is however important to note that other states on the continent are still in the race for the coveted seat if the reform pulls through. It is against this backdrop that this paper argues that Africa's problems would not be solved by external actors hence, the need for African states to close ranks and jointly approach Africa's developmental challenges through appropriate frameworks. The next in this debate is the leadership of the continent.

3.0 LEADERSHIP AND INFLUENCE AT THE AFRICAN UNION

For leading states in Africa, gaining some level of influence on the continent remains one strategy for spreading their tentacles outside the continent. The Africa Union (AU) formerly Organisation of African Unity (OAU) formed in 1963 represents a common front for states in Africa to fast-track regional integration among members. At a time when some states were under colonial occupation, the Pan-Africanism movement ensured the dismantling of all colonial legacies of states including Burundi, Botswana, Rwanda, Somali, Liberia, Angola, South Africa, Sierra Leone and Guinea Bissau (Lamido, 2000). It was in line with this goal that minority rule in Southern Africa was vigorously fought culminating in the collapse of apartheid in 1994. South Africa's subsequent admission as a member of the Organization of African Unity not only increased the membership base, but also represented a victory against political repression.

In order to give more bight to the AU, Akindele (2007) submits that Nigeria and South Africa played prominent role(s) in the transition of OAU to AU in 2001. The transition was informed by the need to promote regional co-operation, maintain peace and security and seek more relevance as a continental body in the contemporary political system (Akinboye & Ottob, 2007). This

synergy however did not prevent both states from having sharp disagreements- such include the political crisis in Libya, Coted' Ivoire and Libya in 2003, 2010 and 2013 respectively (Games, 2013). Others include the proposed relocation of the headquarters of the African Union from Addis Ababa to Pretoria, the election of the African Union commission chairperson in 2012 and the election of African Development Bank President among others just to mention a few (Akindele 2007; Games 2013); situations that that added impetus to the questions and debates about Africa's leadership status. The former and latter's influence in Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and Southern African Development Committee (SADC) no doubt creates further tension over who had the propensity to expand that influence across the continent having established some degree of influence at the sub-regional level. As it is, it is yet to be seen what becomes of relations at the regional levels in the near future, but it is worthy of mention of that these disagreements between Africa's power houses are only a setback for African continent. Considering the multiplier effect of this on the participating states, it is needful to state that exerting undue influence on the continent by any of these power houses will not serve any purpose. For example, a look at the collaboration among nations to fight the coronavirus is just another example of what benefits are abound if nations seek collaborative efforts to solve common problems, This paper acknowledges the efforts the government of Nigeria and South Africa in combating the coronavirus pandemic and submits that such cooperation should be encouraged to solve other nagging issues affecting the continent as a whole rather than resort to exercising control over other states in Africa which had the tendency to cause more harm than good. The next in line in the issues impeding south-south cooperation in Africa is relations among citizens of member states.

Citizens' Inter-relations

The end of minority rule in South Africa and the consequent influx of migrants from Africa and out of Africa ensured that the rainbow nation became host to persons from different countries and backgrounds including an estimated 800, 000 Nigerian immigrants (Bhardwaj, 2017). This huge number of migrants ensured the huge presence of persons who chose to either work or study in the former apartheid enclave. What was not envisaged was the ability of South Africa to accommodate the new arrivals and make sure they were no frictions. A consequence of this oversight is the inhumane treatment meted out to African migrants including Nigerians who were either visiting or resident in South Africa. Over time, Nigerians were subject of attacks sometimes leading to

violence and arson, xenophobic attacks and extra-judicial killings (Olupohunda, 2013). The unfriendly and sometimes fatal reception received by Nigerians raises fundamental questions about the value of bilateral relations and cooperation among both states if citizens of other nations are not guaranteed safety and security overseas. The poor reception given to Nigerians was observed by Akinterinwa (2011) who observed the unfriendly attitude towards Nigerians in South Africa while their businesses were either grounded or looted. The unfriendly and sometimes harsh reception on Nigerians are setbacks for bilateral relations or even increased interaction. With threats of retaliation against South African nationals and interests, it can be seen that there were still irritants in relations between both states. Some of the instances of inhumane treatment meted out to prominent Nigerians included former President Olusegun Obasanjo in 2006 who was accused of carrying hard drugs, former Minister of health, Dr. Kema Chikwe and Professor Wole Soyinka who were denied entry on the grounds of not having yellow fever vaccinations cards, a prerequisite for entry into South Africa (Obayuwana, Daka, Olajuwon & Shadare, 2012). Though, the incidences involving the two were resolved, the actions were evident of poor citizen's interactions between the two frontline states.

On the part of inhumane treatment meted out to ordinary Nigerians, Olupohunda (2013) reported sustained attacks on African migrants including coordinated xenophobic attacks on Nigerians in 2007, 2008, 2013, 2015 and 2017 2019 and 2020 claiming several lives and destroying means of livelihood (Kumolu, 2017; Olupohunda 2013; Smith 2020; Tinubu, 2015). Though, the attacks received global condemnations, it speaks to the unstable nature of relations and some of the irritants to increased cooperation between both states. These situations if not addressed poses grave implications for sustained relations between Nigeria and South Africa especially against the backdrop of what improved cooperation and collaboration can achieve for the continent as a whole. Though, the paper is not oblivious of triggers of tension between Nigeria and South Africa, a sustained cycle of hostility and suspicion would hurt relations substantially and possible reverse the gains made over the years. Unless and until these issues are addressed, they will continually undermine existing relations on one hand and put the framework for a south-south cooperation in abeyance. As nations' belonging to the South divide, both should determine what they want from their existing relations in particular and how this can be translated better outcome for the continent

as a whole. It would be important to draw implications from what Nigeria and South Africa make of their existing relations.

4.0 IMPLICATIONS

Having examined some of the contentious issues, it will be important to draw important lessons and implications for African states in particular and nations of southern divide in general. With the possibility of escalation of tensions between both states if the gaps are not substantially closed, the goal of forging a common front for Africa may be not be realizable in the foreseeable future. The implication therefrom is that low level of literacy, high poverty rate, low standard of living, low life expectancy and low technological development (Ola, 1997) all of which account for the disparity between the North and the South may not be addressed. But in the event that nations in the continent work harmoniously together, it would not only be of immense benefit to the continent and even open up more opportunities such as establishing a framework for South-South cooperation as an alternative to North-South relations which have been largely favored the west who populate the North.

The first implication is that in the event that the debate about who leads Africa rages on, the platform to open a framework for south-south cooperation will be greatly eroded. That ultimately will not serve the interest of the continent or sub-saharan Africa in general. Even though, the leading states in this contest has the capacity to stand alone, such has the tendency to undermine existing relations and whittle down the possibility of exploring other areas of cooperation which could serve the greater interest of both states in particular and the continent in general.

Considering the myriad of challenges confronting African states, some of which dates back to colonial days, it has become apparent that Africa needed home-grown solutions to its indigenous problems. How then can African countries rally round to seek answers to these multifaceted problems if two of the continent's leading states are logged in a leadership tussle? Does this not jettison south-south cooperation which has the potentials to get Africa out of the woods? Considering the gap that exists between Africa and the rest of the world, is the unresolved leadership question in Africa not serving as impediment to South-South cooperation because a lingering leadership contest is an anathema to cooperation at that level? So, the import here would

be to put to rest the leadership question once and divert the energy towards more positive areas such as south-south cooperation.

There is also an implication for the African Union. How the continental body hopes to achieve south-south cooperation is yet to be seen due to its failure to fully integrate the economies of member states even after its transition from OAU to AU. It is important to note that the goal of integrating African states should not just be in the name Africa Union (AU), the goal must go beyond just the appellation but involve proper integration of economies, systems and cultures for meaningful results. With the European Union example readily available, the continental body remains shylock in this regard. It is instructive to note that the goal of achieving South-South cooperation cannot be borne by two or more states. The regulatory framework and Marshall Plan needed to be developed by the African Union and religiously implemented by member states. While this paper is not oblivious of some efforts to integrate member states through the proposed unified passport, currency and central bank among member states (News Agency of Nigeria, 2015), more need to be done to reduce the incessant jostling for prominence among leading states in Africa. As the debates around the exploitative nature of relations between the north and south continue and the prospects of establishing a framework for south-south cooperation, there are however lessons for states in Africa, some of which will be analyzed.

Having identified these issues and how they impede on cooperation, it would be important to make some deductions. The volatility of relations has far reaching implications on trust and confidence, two ingredients to strategic cooperation and collaboration. Cooperation in this regard includes deepening relations in all areas of that would serve as impetus for south-south cooperation in order to change the narrative.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

What has been done in this paper is to examine Africa's leadership question and how the debate stands as an albatross to deepening bilateral relations. It was argued that as members of the south divide, it was obvious that Nigeria and South Africa were working at cross purposes with respect to putting in place a formidable framework for strategic partnership among members of the south divide. This creates uncertainties about new areas of cooperation or even putting in place a

framework for south-south cooperation. As the second largest continent after Asia, African states needed to deepen existing relations and cooperate more by ensuring its developmental challenges are solved with home grown solutions. Providing home-grown solutions would include pursuing goals that advance the interest of the continent. By advancing Africa's interest over and above personal interest, the much needed framework for actualizing south-south cooperation in Africa would have begun in earnest. It is against this that the following recommendations are put forward.

First is the institutionalization of a framework for Nigeria and South Africa to act as spokesperson for the continent on issues affecting it. This would help counter the antics of world powers who prefer to see a disunited Africa where leading states will not speak in one voice. Similarly, the paper advocates for the streamlining of the objectives of ECOWAS and SADC as part of measures to strengthen the African Union. A stronger regional body would not only provide the regulatory framework for an enduring synergy between member-states of the region, but also remove all encumbrances to more interaction. In the final analysis, the paper recommends for improved interactions between peoples of Africa especially nationals of Nigeria and South Africa, considered as the leading figures capable of driving south-south cooperation considering the records of trade and exchanges between them. Such high-level interactions will ensure Abuja and Pretoria spare no effort to advance the interest of the continent as part of efforts to effectively remove all impediments and encumbrances to south-south cooperation in Africa.

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Gendered Environmental Knowledge among Farmers in Rural Areas of Kano, Nigeria

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the environmental knowledge and perception of environmental change among different groups of land users in 2 communities in rural Kano, Kano State, northern Nigeria and to analyse the gendered dimensions of these perceptions. The study examines perceptions of changes to soil fertility and crop yield, vegetation change, and rainfall. The data collection methods were qualitative and included individual interviews, focus group discussions (FGD) and key informant interviews (KII). The data was analysed qualitatively by coding and thematic analysis. Using gender disaggregated data; we consider the factors which influence these perceptions including ecology, socioeconomic conditions and culture. The study also found that decline in crop yield and soil fertility was the most important change perceived by both men and women in the 2 communities selected. Rainfall variability was considered normal. Vegetation was perceived to be decreasing in Yadaï but not significantly changed in Behun, and this is linked primarily to fuelwood in the study areas. The study concludes that in particular, gender is an important variable in farmers' environmental knowledge and perceptions of soil, rainfall and vegetation change. But local context and socioeconomic factors are important factors as well. The study recommends institutional support to cope with environmental change, and that local knowledge and perceptions of change need to be taken into account in designing policy interventions

Keywords: Gender, Environmental Knowledge, Farmers, Rural Areas, Kano

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This study examines the environmental knowledge and perception of environmental change among different groups of land users in some areas of rural areas of Kano State, Nigeria, namely men and women in 2 selected communities. To analyse the gendered dimensions of these perceptions, the paper discusses perceptions of changes to soil fertility and crop yield, vegetation change and rainfall and use gender disaggregated data, it explores the differences and similarities between the

perceptions of women and men in the 2 study communities and considers the factors which influence these perceptions including ecology, socioeconomic conditions and culture.

A central aspect of an analysis of environmental change is the examination of the environmental knowledge of men and women. Environmental knowledge includes knowledge of soil types and characteristics, vegetation-including trees, shrubs and grasses, their different uses and types, soil fertility and quality (Ansong, 2019). Many studies of perceptions of environmental change employ the theory of constructivism, meaning that people use their social interactions and personal experiences and observations to construct their perceptions of environmental change (Pyhala et al, 2016, Hasanah et al, 2019). According to these studies, their environmental change perceptions were influenced by biophysical, economic, social and cultural conditions that people live in and experience and their environmental knowledge. Pyhala et al (2016) further note that local perceptions of environmental change should be understood as part of wider knowledge systems which have evolved locally as a result of repeated interactions with the environment and an integration of local values, socioeconomic conditions and culture. This can cut across different social differentiations such as age, gender and class.

In a study of local experts' perception of environmental change in south western Nigeria, Ayeni et al (2016) used a participatory learning approach (PLA) to investigate environmental changes (typified by climatic conditions, deforestation and surface water changes) in the woodland savanna and rain forest zones. They found changes in climatic condition and deforestation in the last 30 years and a decline in surface water. Combest-Friedman et al (2012) assessed local perceptions of changing environmental conditions in Philippines and found that perceived environmental changes include an increase in rainfall and rainfall variability, an increase in intensity and frequency of storm events and sea level rise, and concluded that the factors that most affected perception include social status, economic standing, and resource dependency. In Burkina Faso, West et al (2008) used ethnographic interviews, focus groups, and participant observation to elicit local perspectives on rainfall trends from farmers. Their study revealed that farmers perceive a decrease in both overall seasonal rainfall and the number of 'big rains' during the rainy season over 30 years, and these were corroborated from nearby meteorological stations. Rodríguez-Carreras et al (2014) in their study on environmental perceptions in Catalonia found that there is a variety of perceptions on landscape and social transformation and there was a decline in the economic viability of forest

products. In the study by Deressa et al (2009) in Ethiopia, farmers' choices and options were influenced by level of education, gender, age, and wealth of the head of household; access to extension and credit; information on climate, social capital, agroecological settings, and temperature. In Cross River, Egbe et al (2014) showed that rural people perceived environmental change to include poor crop yields, reduced soil fertility, increased flood, and poverty and food shortage.

This paper contributes to knowledge by using gender disaggregated data to study environmental perceptions and knowledge in rural Hausa communities, in an area where women farmers are in a minority.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

The research methods were primarily qualitative that combined conventional and ethnographic approaches such as interviews and focus group discussions with key informant interviews. The study communities were Yadai in Gabasawa LGA and Behun of Dawakin Kudu LGA, both in rural areas of Kano State. A total of 44 farmers and farm managers were questioned individually and in gender differentiated focus groups about their knowledge of soils and vegetation as well as their perceptions to change in these domains. The data was coded and analysed qualitatively using thematic analysis. Both communities are typical Hausa communities and broadly represented patterns of land tenure, soils, population and livelihood diversity of the larger Kano area but with sufficient variations in ecology and custom to allow comparisons to be made.

3.0 RESULTS

Soil Knowledge

In separate focus group discussions men and women identified soil types and properties in the two communities. Soil names largely reflected their physical characteristics such as colour and texture. The details of this identification are illustrated in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: Knowledge and Characteristics of soil types identified by men and women in Behun

	Soil Type	Description	Crops Suited
Women	Jigawa/Rairayi/Fara	Sandy, white	Millet/ Local cowpea
	Tapo	Muddy, Dark	Rice/Sorghum
	Jangargari/Jar Kasa	Red, very fertile	Pumpkins, improved cowpea, maize, groundnuts Suitable for most crops,
Men	Jigawa/Rairayi	Sandy, white	Millet/Groundnut/Sorghum
	Tapo,	Muddy, dark,	Rice/Sorghum
	Gargari/ Jangargari	Red, moist/fertile	Maize, pumpkins, groundnuts,
	Tsakuwa/Burji	Stony	Not suited to most crops/ Gurjiya
	Kitsendamo	Sticky, moist, not local to Behun	Suited to most crops

Table 2: Knowledge of Soil types by men and women in Yadai and their characteristics

	Soil Type	Description	Crops Suited
Women	Jigawa/Fara fara	Sandy, white	Millet, cowpea, groundnuts

	Tapo	Muddy, fertile	Rice, sorghum, vegetables
Men	Jigawa/Rairayi	Sandy, white	Millet, cowpea, sesame, groundnuts
	Tapo	Muddy, high-water retention, dark	Rice, onions, okra sorghum, vegetables
	Jangargari	Red soil, not local to village	Suitable for most crops

Source: Field Survey 2021

Knowledge of Vegetation

Vegetation is important to agricultural activities and to wider livelihoods in both communities and among both men and women. Among all the focus groups, the top four trees mentioned were the same, mangwaro (mango), dorawa (locust bean), tsamiya (tamarind), and kuka (baobab).

Table 3: Identification of useful vegetation by men and women in Behun

	Trees	Use
Women	Dorawa	Eat fruit, Sell bean,
	Mangwaro	Shade
	Kuka	Eat/Sell fruits, Shade
	Tsamiya	Eat/Sell leaves & fruit
	Sabara	Eat/Sell
	Kargo	Medicinal
	Maina	Shade/Firewood Shade
Men	Dorawa	Eat/ Sell, Shade
	Mangwaro	Eat/Sell fruits, Shade
	Kuka	Eat/sell leaves & fruit

	Tsamiya	Eat/Sell
	Kanya	Eat/Sell fruits, Burn
	Kargo	Burn
	Marke	Burn
	Maina	Building Material

Source: Field Survey 2021

Table 4: Identification of useful vegetation by men and women in Yadai

	Trees	Use
Women	Dorawa	Eat, Sell
	Mangwaro	Eat, Sell
	Tsamiya	Eat, Sell
	Kuka	Eat, Sell
	Dinya	Eat,Sell
	Kadanya	Eat, Sell
	Zogale	Eat, Sell
	Lalle	Sell, Cosmetic
Men	Dorawa	Eat/ Sell, Shade
	Mangwaro	Eat/Sell fruits, Shade
	Maina	Shade, Building
	Kuka	Eat/sell leaves & fruit
	Tsamiya	Eat/Sell
	Kanya	Eat/Sell fruits, Burn
	Kargo	Feulwood

Source: Field Survey 2021

Perceptions of Soil Fertility

Yadai Women & Men

The main manifestation of environmental change, according to almost all the men and women interviewed, is the reduction in the productivity of the land and consequently in the crop yield over time. A female farmer commented;

The crop yield has definitely decreased. In the years past, before times changed, a woman could get a whole rumbu (granary) of grain from her harvest, hers alone, from 1 or more farms. But now times have changed the soil changes according to the times and by the will of Allah. You have to put taki or fertilizer, if you don't want to waste your time. It has always been the case that you need taki to farm. (Female farmer)

There was a strong consensus among the men and women of Yadai about soil fertility levels and their effect on crop yield. The majority of the men and women interviewed perceived a decline in soil fertility and crop yield. Soil is described as being “cold” ‘dead’, ‘tired’ or even ‘disturbed’. Men complained that there was a marked decline in yield, and that they produced significantly less food than they did in the past and this applied particularly to the main food crops of millet and sorghum. Men and women expressed the decline in crop yield in the number of *damis* (bundles) of grain produced. Farmers acknowledged increasingly the number of *damis* of grain they produced were not sufficient to feed their families for a whole year. Farmers gave a variety of reasons for the perceived decline in soil fertility and subsequently in crop yield. Constant farming on a piece of land due to a reduction in fallow, an increase in population, dam construction, sign of the times, wind erosion, and constant ploughing. Many men believed that the continuous farming yearly on a piece of land reduced its fertility; a form of soil nutrient mining. They also acknowledged that an increasing population put a strain on existing finite land resources. A quote from a middle-aged male farmer articulates some of these reasons:

I do not really know what caused the soil fertility to decline. It might be that there has been too much farming going on. The land was much stronger in the past, and did not need so much taki, or even fertiliser. In the past a piece of land could go for 5 years without being farmed, but

now Allah has swelled the population, so much that the land we have is not sufficient for everyone. If a piece of land is not allowed to fallow for 1 or 2 years but is farmed continuously year after year, then of course the yield will not be good, unless you apply a lot of taki or some fertiliser.

(Male farmer)

Farmers also linked the issue of soil fertility and crop yield to the availability of taki and fertiliser. Consequently, they felt that to get a good yield, they had to use much more *taki* than they did in the past, and to supplement it with fertiliser when they could. It appears that availability of *taki* and fertiliser is the biggest single issue that the farmers believe they face in relation to soil fertility. Many men mentioned the decline in livelihoods brought about by the damming of the river Huda upstream and how that affected village life, especially in the dry season.

Behun Women & Men

There was no indication that the women interviewed in Behun perceived a decline in soil fertility at all. They considered their crop yield to have increased because of increased inputs of *taki* and chicken manure and small quantities of fertiliser. Environmental change defined by vegetation change and soil degradation did not appear to be an immediate problem to them. More pressing to them was the ability to garner enough resources for wages, manure, and sometimes fertiliser to get good yields and make a profit.

For men in Behun, various reasons were proffered for declining yields - change in rainfall patterns, lack of sufficient *taki* and fertiliser, and even divine retribution for societal immorality. Many men blamed *zamani* (the times). Many believe that human action can and does influence rainfall patterns, but not in the conventional sense, such as in the comment below;

People now are more corrupt and sins are plenty, so the land suffers. It used to be that rainfall was sufficient. You could go for ten days after a bout of rainfall still reaping its benefits. But now there are many sins in the world, even murders are commonplace now. So, it has affected everything including farming. But this is all from Allah. It is his

punishment, what you get now from the land cannot be compared to what you got before. (Male farmer)

The importance of inputs- taki, fertiliser, seed varieties, and technology came through in many discussions. Some men believe that certain factors can mitigate decline in crop yield, and can even be turned to improved yield. New seed varieties and the availability of poultry manure from commercial ventures have meant that farmers are able to increase their inputs into the land. It seems productivity has declined for those farmers with less access to these inputs.

One thing of note though is that many male farmers both actually think that the soil does not change - that it is not the inherent properties of the soil that have changed per se, but external conditions that have affected the way they interact with the land. Somewhat contradictorily men who see an increase in crop yield and those who perceive a decrease both feel the soil itself has not got much to do with it. The soil in the village is seen as (relatively) fertile soil, which with the right inputs, will produce a good yield. Effectively, the soil produces an output commensurate with the inputs- organic, labour, financial resource- that is put into it. Some of the men comment:

There is nothing wrong with the soil, it has remained the same. The rainfall has decreased though, so that has affected our yield. Times have changed, but the soil does not change, only the times (male farmer).

Comparisons of Perceptions

In both communities' women's relations with natural resources and their involvement in agriculture is impossible without the involvement of men. In Behun, where almost all the women are farm managers and do not work on fields this relationship is mediated by men to a much larger extent than in Yadai, where they actually work on fields. Among the men and women of both communities, the most consistent answer to the question of crop yield was its variability, especially the phrase, 'some years there is more and some years there is less'. Uncertainty appears to be the norm, as is the case in most dryland communities. Rainfall variability is crucial and responses about fluctuating crop yields mirrored the variability of rainfall.

In Yadai, both men and women perceive there to be a marked decline in crop yields and this is blamed on a number of similar things by both men and women. Men mentioned about getting 20 bundles of grain in the past and now getting just 10 while women mentioned getting 5 or 3 bundles.

This is a vivid reflection of their differential access to land and size of land holdings, and also differential access to other resources. Women emphasized the agency of nature – rainfall when talking about crop yield, and men emphasized human agency- constant farming, and cost and availability of fertilisers. This also reflects differential access, women have little access to *taki*, and fertiliser, so they play a smaller role in their farming output than rainfall. Men own *taki* and have a somewhat erratic access to subsidised fertiliser, so this has a greater effect on their crop yield than it does on the women's. Women in both communities share a complete lack of access to subsidised fertiliser. Though women in Behun buy fertilisers in the market when they can, in Yadai they hardly do.

These differences also reflect the typology of farmers in the villages – women farmers in Behun are relatively well off, they have to be to expend the considerable resources needed to farm, especially to pay for wage labour; while in Yadai women who farm are poorer women with fewer alternatives, and work the land themselves. Behun women's perception of good yields is a reflection of the opportunities they have and also of choice. While they make a conscious choice to farm to make a profit, Yadai women feel they have to farm to earn some income. The proximity of Behun to larger markets in neighbouring towns and to Kano city, and the remoteness of Yadai also affect these perceptions. In Behun there are other options for improving soil fertility management; urban waste from Kano known as *shara*, and poultry manure from nearby commercial ventures are available options. Higher annual rainfall also means better growing conditions.

Perceptions of Rainfall Change

The most common refrain about rainfall in both communities was '*sometimes there is more and sometimes there is less*'. This is unsurprising since the defining characteristic of drylands is low, erratic and highly variable rainfall. This spatial and temporal variation is the most important determinant of environmental change in the drylands, and Mortimore (2001) note that this is evinced by the smallholders themselves. Crop production relies on the amount and timing of precipitation. As a result, farmers in the region are involved in the complex process every year of negotiating the rain, and rainfall variability is the dominant environmental risk facing smallholders in the region (Mortimore, 2001). In both communities they acknowledged the variability of rainfall and its effect on yield. Implicit in this is an acceptance that there is precious little they can do about

it. Rainfall determined the crop yield, and there was nothing they could do about the amount of rainfall in any given year, it was an independent variable that they had no control over.

Sometimes the rains come and we plant, but then Allah reduces the amount of rain such that they stop growing, and the crops dry. Sometimes Allah brings bountiful rain, and sometimes not. When the rains are good, the yield is high and when they are not the yield is low. When the rainfall is low, or it is late, the seeds do not grow as they should. They start to grow, and then the rain stops, and that becomes a loss. (Male farmer)

It has been suggested that climate variability can exacerbate degradation where there are failures in resource management (Hulme et al, 2000). Uncertainty and variability in rainfall are still the norm in the research area.

Changes in rainfall and its distribution impacts heavily on the farmers because the timing of the start and the end of rainy season and the adequacy of the rainfall are the most critical driving forces of production systems in the study area (Mortimore, 2001). Local people's conceptualisation of soil fertility often correlates with the variability of rainfall in that importance of soil nutrients to soil fertility diminishes when the rainfall is good, and when rainfall is poor the soil nutrients become more important to farmers. Mortimore notes rainfall is the main variable beyond farmers control in agricultural production and reduction in rainfall could be a factor contributing to perceptions of environmental change.

Factors Influencing Perceptions

Gender

Gender is an important factor in these perceptions because it determines access to those external factors that influence perceptions of degradation in both communities. The important elements of these perceptions and their relationship to gender are discussed below. They include rainfall, and ecology, religion, inputs of *taki* and fertiliser, land, labour, cultural factors and management strategies. The different spaces that men and women inhabit can result in gender differentiated knowledge about the environment, and can explain men's more widespread and women's more local knowledge (Agarwal 2000; Jewitt 2000). Gender is an important factor governing what goes in the soil. The lack of access that women have to these resources of *taki* and fertiliser makes them

vulnerable to effects of environmental change and hinders their ability to adapt or adjust. However, men are affected by these same limitations and vulnerabilities as well. Differential access to land, where men have more permanent rights and women borrow land, and restrictions on women's mobility can act as barriers to the accumulation of environmental knowledge. It also suggests that men have wider knowledge than women about many agricultural processes.

Socio-Economic Factors

Farmers recognise complex interactions of yield, soil fertility and technology, so their perceptions may reflect changes in social and economic factors differs from farmer to farmer (Gray & Morant 2003). This familiar refrain of a lack of agricultural assets and means to purchase inputs is evident in the study areas. Agricultural production is seen by many women as a way of generating income, but many women lack the resources such as land, and the capital needed to acquire inputs like organic and inorganic fertiliser. These same constraints also apply to the men. A succinct comment from a male farmer sums up the different issues of soil fertility management. 'It is what you put in the soil, and what Allah brings from the sky'. They are also affected by environmental degradation and share with women the indignities of economic and social oppression and of poverty (Demetriades and Esplen, 2008).

Factors such as labour and capital play a major role in perceptions of environmental change, especially of soil fertility, but the most important determinant of yields that a farmer can control are *taki* and inorganic fertilisers. According to Mortimore et al (1990) a crucial objective of smallholder farmers land use is the maintenance of fertility of their soils. At present, livestock production is the strongest link in smallholder farming system in northern Nigeria, because of the production of *taki*, and because farming is low input and low output. The issue of soil fertility is paramount in small holder farming systems in Africa and access to fertiliser whether organic or inorganic is a key factor in farming. There was a consensus among all farmers, men and women, that *taki* alone is no longer enough. Fertiliser is seen as a chemical gold, the magic elixir that transforms soil and results in a good crop yield. All believed that without fertiliser, yields will remain low, and indeed often are, because inorganic fertiliser is expensive, often unavailable or and available in insufficient quantities. Every man interviewed felt that with enough fertiliser, yields would improve dramatically and that even though *taki* was not sufficient anymore the

addition of fertiliser was capable of making up the deficiency. The men of Behun just like all the other groups believe that fertiliser is vital for improved yield, if they could have access to it.

Perceptions of Vegetation Change

Yadai Men & Women

More than half the women interviewed believed there to be a decline in the tree cover in the area, and this they firmly attributed to anthropogenic causes, mainly people cutting down trees to sell them. They suggest that this had happened more often in the past but had been declining in recent years.

I think there has been a decrease in the number of trees here. It used to be that there was a lot more trees here. But people started bringing big machines to cut them down, and trucks to take them away. In the past dorawa was left to bring forth its fruit and we ate them and used the seeds for kalwa. But people love money more than they love trees now (female farmer).

The decrease of vegetation is attributed more to economic conditions and need for money than to natural causes. Other women suggested an apparent increase in the number of trees in the area, both in the village and on farms. For women who perceived an increase, it was also largely due to the government programme of planting trees although natural factors also came into play.

However, in focus group discussions as well the majority view was that there was no significant decline in tree cover. They perceive an increase in certain species, and no decline in others. This apparent contradiction with majority of the individual views may be because in the focus group, discussion about trees and vegetation might have brought the tree planting campaign of the government to mind and they answered accordingly, while personal circumstances influenced individual interviews.

A majority of the men interviewed expressed the view that natural vegetation was declining for a variety of reasons. The most common reason given was people cutting down trees to sell for firewood, or selling their trees to others who then cut them down. A second reason given was the clearing of previously uncultivated land to make way for new farms. However, several men interviewed were at pains to mention that they personally did not cut down trees, because they knew the value of trees, even though they knew people who did. This suggests men are more aware

of the government projects in the village and the problems they purport to address, especially the emphasis on planting new trees and protecting old ones.

There has been a decrease definitely, because when you go round places where there used to be trees, you find that there are not much more now. And it is a shame, because where the trees exist, the crops grow better because they shield them from the effect of the wind. Yes, where there are trees, the crops are better than the one without trees near it. (Male farmer)

Several of the men interviewed saw a connection between tree cover on a farm and productivity. They believed that loss of tree cover had a negative effect on farms, in particular by exposing crops to the effect of wind.

Behun Men & Women

The women of Behun perceive no decline in tree cover in their village and surrounding ones. In fact they believe that many tree species are thriving, and even increasing. They acknowledge that trees are cut down sometimes, but only dead trees and trees which have grown too big and are stripped back in the process of farm clearing. Among the women of Behun therefore, the overwhelming opinion is that tree cover is not declining, and tree resources-wood, fruits, medicine-are ample.

The men of Behun hold similar views about vegetation change to their women. In general, they do not believe that tree cover is declining. Their responsibility as fuel providers means that men would to a certain extent associate vegetation change with the availability of fuelwood.

They were also well aware that though this might not be a pressing concern for them, it could be a problem in other areas and were careful to stress that this was a characteristic feature of their locality. One male farmer comment:

We have a lot of trees in this area, despite the fact that many are cut down for firewood. We have been blessed with many trees and a good soil. I have not noticed a decrease in trees because even when we cut down the trees there are already others growing that will replace them.

Trees grow very quickly in these parts. When we go to other places, we are surprised at how few trees they have got. (Male farmer).

However, some men conceded that there has been a change in the landscape because land around the village which used to be common resources has been sold off and woodland has been cleared to make way for new farms. This presumably would have led to a substantial change in landscape in the area, but it did not seem to have impacted greatly on their ability to provide fuelwood.

Comparison: Men & Women's Perception of Vegetation Change

The general view among both men and women of Yadai is of a general decrease in tree cover and both groups attribute it to human agency- mainly economic conditions forcing people to cut down their trees to sell. This perception of the influence of economic conditions on vegetation change appears to be widespread in the Kano, as noted by Maconachie & Binns (2006). In Wezels (2000) study of gender differentiated perceptions of vegetation in Niger, he noted that women had a better perception about species that were newly introduced or that had increased, while men perceived disappearance or decrease. In Behun the overwhelming perception was that vegetation is increasing. Though some men did concede that woodland was being cleared to make way for farms, and they were no longer able to get wood from forests, this did not seem to have a significant impact on the availability of fuelwood for majority of the men, as their farm trees were sufficient in providing it. According to Maconachie (2006) there is concern in the Kano about a decline in certain species, especially closer to urban areas. A study by Naibbi (2013) used a time series analysis of Landsat satellite images of the northern Nigeria covering a period of about three decades, and found a significant reduction in vegetation, mainly due to lack of alternative energy sources to fuelwood in the region.

4.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The study, in line with Deressa et al. (2009) and Egebe et al. (2014) has shown that men and women's perceptions of environmental change are related to their gender, their socioeconomic circumstances, and also to ecological characteristics of their particular environment. The different local contexts of Bemun and Yadai means that perceptions may differ based on local conditions. The most important indicator of environmental change mentioned in the study was decline in soil fertility and crop yield. Food and fuel are undoubtedly two of the most important goods the

environment provides, and a steady decline in the yield of crop was an important indicator of a change in environmental circumstances. There are differences and similarities between how land users in both communities view environmental degradation and the factors that account for their differences and similarities- e.g., ecology and socioeconomic conditions. Both men and women focus on the importance of agricultural inputs to soil fertility. The ‘good’ soils in Behun and ensure that Behun women do not perceive a decline in fertility, though some men, constrained by economic circumstances do. In Yadai, drier ecology and remoteness to markets are importance influences on perceptions.

In this regard, environmental change is locally contextual. Similar to other studies on environmental perception mentioned in the literature review, gender, local environmental knowledge, socioeconomic factors and biophysical factors all contribute to shaping and constructing perceptions of environmental change.

The study recommends institutional support to help local farmers cope with environmental change, especially with regards to agricultural inputs, and the consideration of local soil and vegetation knowledge and perceptions in the design of appropriate interventions.

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Inequality, Poverty, Injustice and Africa Unity, Which Way Forward in the 21st Century

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Abstract

Africans have a proud history of fights against injustice, from colonialism to apartheid. Inequality, poverty and injustice affect each other directly and indirectly through their link with economic development. Social inequality is shaped by a range of structural factors, such as geographical location or citizenship status, and are often underpinned by cultural discourses and identities defining, for example, whether the poor are deserving or undeserving. Social inequality may be very low in simple societies as few occupy social roles and statuses which others do not have access to, but the daily life of the chieftain is very much like the daily life of any other tribal member. However, the inequalities, injustices and poverty of modern Africa is to be fought in the areas of quality public services, unequal income distribution, indispensable means to democracy and prosperity. It discovered that the reasons for Africa's poverty hinges on lack of industrialization, tax evasion, and tax havens but mainly on corruption that is widespread across Africa of which many political leaders are responsible. They let corruption erode our ability to address inequality, poverty, injustice and even unemployment, and in the long run corruption cannot but prevent development. African unity can only be possible when suggested polices are embraced which includes, but not limited to strengthening good governance and institutional capacity, promoting employment and strengthening the ability of the poor to participate in decision-making, and production process, guarantee the poor have access to basic social services, promote good governance, reinforcing effectiveness and guaranteeing equity, improving the living conditions of vulnerable groups, improve the health status of the general public, promote education and vocational training with the aim of developing human capital, promote environmental sustainability and civilian security. The culture of deprivation and modernisation theory explained this work while the source of data collection is qualitative from journal and internet sources.

Keywords: Inequality, Poverty, Injustice, Development, Modernization

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The African Union (AU) was established on July 8, 2001 while its predecessor Organisation of African Unity (OAU) was established in 1963. This was to accelerate the process of integration in the continent, and also address the social, economic and political problems that derive from Globalization. The unity provided by the AU, and the African leaders increasingly being elected through democratic means providing more stability to the African continent, thus making it more

appealing to foreign investment. According to NEPAD, Africa's natural and human resources could lead to equitable and sustainable growth if harnessed properly, reversing the impoverishment caused by slavery, economic mismanagement and with a focus on health, education, science and technology and skills development, building and improving infrastructure, including information and communication technology, energy, transportation, water and sanitation, promoting diversification of products and exports, particularly with respect to agro-industries, manufacturing, mining, mineral benefits and tourism, accelerating intra-African trade and improving access to markets of developed countries; and improving the environment Green, (2017).

Acemoglu (2010) posits that the problem for Africa is a combination of a slow pace of poverty reduction and an increasing global share of the number of children born. It is projected that sub-Saharan Africa will be home to 35 percent of the world's births in 2030, up from 29 percent today. Meanwhile, economic gains made by countries are not necessarily translating to poverty reduction. Some countries are managing to decrease inequality and others are witnessing the gap between the rich and poor grow. Reducing poverty and totally eliminating extreme poverty (usually defined, though the precise dollar amounts are debated, as a person living on less than \$2 per day) is the primary goal of the international community as stated in the United Nations' recently adopted Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The latest World Bank poverty update by Andres, Tony, Christoph, Daniel, Minh, Schoch & Viveros (2021) estimates that the pandemic and global recession may cause over 1.4% of the world's population to fall into extreme poverty, the report also finds that many of the new poor will be countries in Africa that already have high poverty rates. Poverty reduction has been slowest in these African fragile countries, the report notes; significant number of people will slip below poverty line. Also, rural areas are more likely to remain much poorer, although the urban-rural gap has narrowed.

The picture on African inequality is complex as the AFDB (2012) report has shown that seven of the 10 most unequal countries in the world are in Africa, most of them in southern Africa. Excluding these countries and controlling for GDP levels, inequality is not higher in Africa than elsewhere in the world. The household survey data do not reveal a systematic increase in inequality across countries in Africa. But the number of extremely wealthy Africans is increasing.

Differences between urban and rural areas and across regions are large. Intergenerational mobility in education and occupation has improved, but remains low. Poverty is increasingly concentrating in Africa, according to a London-based think tank. By 2030, if current trends continue, sub-Saharan Africa will be home to 90 percent of the world's children living in poverty Ferreira and Ravallion (2008).

UNICEF (2016) discovered that the African children living on less than \$1.90 a day in 2030 alone will number 148 million, with children making up nearly half of all people living in poverty worldwide, hence in the next 15 years the face of world poverty will increasingly be the face an African child which is the burden of poverty, inequality and injustice. Changing this picture will take more than declarations at U.N. summits and will require development that will address inequality, poverty and injustice.

Hence, our first concern is to redefine the whole purpose of development. This should not be to develop things but to develop man. Human beings have basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing, health, education. Hence, any process of growth that does not lead to their fulfillment-or even worse, disrupt them is a travesty of the idea of development. In line with the the declaration of Seers (1969):

The question to ask about a country's development is therefore; what has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then, beyond doubt, this has been a period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result "development" even if per capita income doubled (Eme & Emeh, 2012)

However, five urgent priorities for African countries are to be met in order to address inequality, poverty and injustice according to the world economic forum, and they are COVID-19 vaccination equity, getting Africa ready for a global role, harnessing the opportunities afforded by the Africa continental free trade, the need to accelerate Africa's digital transformation and the need to finance Africa's green transition. It is against this backdrop that this paper is written.

Definition of terms

Inequality: Inequality occurs when resources in a given society are distributed unevenly, typically through norms of allocation that engender specific patterns along lines of socially defined

categories of persons. It is the differentiation preference of access of social goods in the society brought about by power, religion, kinship, prestige, race, ethnicity, gender, age, sexual orientation, and class. The social rights include labour market, the source of income, health care, and freedom of speech, education, political representation, and participation Sernau, (2013). Social inequality is linked to economic inequality, and usually described on the basis of the unequal distribution of income or wealth.

Poverty: Poverty means not having enough money for basic needs such as food, drinking water, shelter or toilets. There are different ways to measure poverty and the World Bank says that extreme poverty is when someone has less than US\$1(one dollar) a day to live on while moderate poverty is when people have to live on less than \$2 a day.

Injustice: The quality or fact of being unjust, inequity, violation of the rights of others. The Collins dictionary defines injustice as unfairness, discrimination, prejudice and bias while Wikipedia defines it as a quality relating to unfairness or undeserved outcomes. The term may be applied to a larger status quo.

Development: Development refers to a process of change through which an increasing proportion of a nation's citizens are able to enjoy a higher material standard of living, healthier and longer lives, more education, and greater control and choice over how they live. Development is generally believed to rest on rising levels of labor productivity, which can be achieved through the application of science, technology, and more efficient forms of economic and managerial organization.

Modernisation: Modernisation is a progressive movement of development towards technologically more complex and integrated forms of modern society. This theoretical backdrop is essentially evolutionary in nature as countries are envisaged as being at different stages of a linear path that leads ultimately to an industrialised, urban and ordered society (Alberto and Long, 2000).

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The results of Alesina and Rodrick (1994), Bourguignon (2004), and Birdsall (2005) show that developing countries with high inequality tend to grow more slowly while Ortiz and Cummings (2011) shows that 131 countries for which they could estimate, the change in Gini index values

between 1990 and 2008, have increased levels of inequality experienced and are slower in annual per capita GDP growth over the same time period. They noted a lack of data for national wealth, they build an index using Forbes list of billionaires by country normalized by GDP and validated through correlation with a Gini coefficient for wealth and the share of wealth going to the top decile. They find that many countries generating low rates of economic growth are also characterized by a high level of wealth inequality with wealth concentration among a class of entrenched elites. They conclude that extreme inequality in the distribution of wealth globally, regionally and nationally, coupled with the negative effects of higher levels of income disparities, should make us question current economic development approaches and examine the need to place equity at the center of the development agenda UN (2013).

Ostry, Berg & Tsangarides (2014) reject the hypothesis that there is a major trade-off between a reduction of income inequality (through income redistribution) and economic growth. If that were the case, they hold, the redistribution that reduces income inequality would on average be bad for growth, taking into account both the direct effect of higher redistribution and the effect of the resulting lower inequality. Their research shows rather the opposite: increasing income inequality always has a significant and, in most cases, negative effect on economic growth while redistribution has an overall pro-growth effect (in one sample) or no growth effect. Their conclusion is that increasing inequality, particularly when inequality is already high, results in low growth, if any, and such growth may be unsustainable over long periods which create poverty and injustice in the long run.

3.0 INEQUALITY, POVERTY, INJUSTICE IN AFRICA

Using World Bank (2014) data on PovcalNet, it can be observed that across most of Africa, except North Africa, the proportion of the population living below the extreme poverty line is similar on average, at 39.0-46.0 per cent of the population. This is significantly higher than the poverty rates in the other developing regions of South Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC). For example, the proportion of people living in extreme poverty in Central Africa is 2.5 times that of South Asia and 4.6 times that of LAC. Clearly, there are marked variations in poverty levels across the different countries. Four of the most populous countries in Africa namely, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Democratic Republic of the Congo and United Republic of Tanzania are home to almost half of

Africa's poor, which inextricably links Africa's progress in reducing poverty to the performance of these countries.

Furthermore, the depth of poverty in Africa is more extreme. For those living below the poverty line in Africa, the average consumption level is only US\$0.70 a day, considerably below the level in other regions, which are all nearly approaching the \$1-a-day level (Africa Progress Panel, 2014). This can also be seen where around two-thirds of the population in the four African regions, excluding North Africa, that are living below the \$2-a-day poverty line are living in extreme poverty; around one-third live on \$0.25 to \$2 a day. In contrast, in South Asia, 60.0 per cent of the poor live on average incomes of \$1.25 to \$2 a day.

Inequality is as expected an important factor mediating the growth-poverty relationship. Higher initial inequality has been shown to hamper the poverty-reducing effects of growth (Ravallion, 1994; Fosu, 2009). In particular, Fosu's (2009) calculations of income-growth elasticities for 30 countries over the 1977-2004 period reveal substantial variation in the estimates, from 0.63 in Namibia, a highly unequal country, to 1.4 in Ethiopia.

Patterns of inequality in Africa

There are a number of socially defined characteristics of individuals that contribute to social status and therefore contributes to inequality, poverty and injustice within a society. Significant inequalities in income and wealth are found when specific socially defined categories of people are compared. Among the most pervasive of these variables identified by Gini (1936) are sex/gender, race, and ethnicity. This is not to say, in societies wherein merit is considered to be the primary factor determining one's place or rank in the social order, that merit has no effect on variations in income or wealth. It is to say that these other socially defined characteristics can, and often do, intervene in the valuation of merit.

Gender inequality

Gender as a social inequality is whereby women and men are treated differently due to masculinity and femininity by dividing labor, assigning roles, and responsibilities and allocating social rewards. Sex-and gender-based prejudice and discrimination, called sexism, are major contributing factors to social inequality. Most societies, in Cobham et al (2013) even agricultural ones, have some sexual division of labour and gender-based division of labour tends to increase during

industrialization. The emphasis on gender inequality is born out of the deepening division in the roles assigned to men and women, particularly in the economic, political and educational spheres. Women are underrepresented in political activities and decision making processes in most states in both the Global North and Global South Collins (1998).

Gender discrimination, especially concerning the lower social status of women, has been a topic of serious discussion not only within academic and activist communities but also by governmental agencies and international bodies such as the United Nations. These discussions seek to identify and remedy widespread, institutionalized barriers to access for women in their societies. By enforcing artificial separations between the social and economic roles of men and women, the lives of women and girls are negatively impacted and this can have the effect of limiting social and economic development Struening (2002).

In many societies there are groups, especially rural women, youth, indigenous peoples and ethnic minorities that face deeply rooted inequalities. Gender inequalities are very pronounced in sub-Saharan Africa, and North Africa. The agricultural sector is a case in point. Women in agriculture and rural areas have one thing in common across regions: they have less access than men to productive resources and opportunities. The gender gap is found in the case of many assets, inputs and services such as, land, livestock, labour, education, extension and financial services, and technology. It imposes costs on the sector, the broader economy and society, as well as on the women themselves.

Global Issues

A variety of global issues like HIV/AIDS, illiteracy, and poverty are often seen as "women's issues" since women are disproportionately affected. In many countries, Stanley (2011) discovered that women and girls face problems such as lack of access to education, which limit their opportunities to succeed, and further limits their ability to contribute economically to their society. Women are underrepresented in political activities and decision making processes throughout most of the world. As of 2007, around 20 percent of women were below the \$1.25/day international poverty line and 40 percent below the \$2/day mark. More than one-quarter of females under the age of 25 were below the \$1.25/day international poverty line and about half on less than \$2/day. Women's participation in work has been increasing globally as asserted by UN (2013) but women

are still faced with wage discrepancies and differences compared to what men earn. This is true globally even in the agricultural and rural sector in developed as well as developing countries.

Structural impediments: These are social and psychological obstructions to women's ability to pursue and advance in their chosen professions which often result in a phenomenon known as the glass ceiling, which Ortiz, Isabel & Matthew Cummins (2011) refers to as unseen and often unacknowledged barriers that prevent women from rising to the upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievements. This effect can be seen in the corporate and bureaucratic environments of many countries, lowering the chances of women to excel. It prevents women from succeeding and making the maximum use of their potential, which is at a cost for women as well as the society's development. UN (2012) maintains that ensuring that women's rights are protected and endorsed can promote a sense of belonging that motivates women to contribute to their society. Once able to work, women should be entitled to the same job security and safe working environments as men. Until such safeguards are in place, women and girls will continue to experience not only barriers to work and opportunities to earn, but will continue to be the primary victims of discrimination, oppression, and gender-based violence Henshall (2004).

Inequalities in Health care

A lack of health equity is also evident in Africa, where the importance of equitable access to healthcare has been cited as crucial to achieving many of the Millennium Development Goals. Health inequalities can vary greatly depending on the country one is looking at. Health equity is needed in order to live a healthier and more sufficient life within society. Inequalities in health lead to substantial effects that are burdensome for the entire society. Inequalities in health are often associated with socioeconomic status and access to health care.

Health inequities can occur when the distribution of public health services is unequal. For example, in Indonesia in 1990, only 12% of government spending for health was for services consumed by the poorest 20% of households, while the wealthiest 20% consumed 29% of the government subsidy in the health sector Grant (1994). Access to health care is heavily influenced by socioeconomic status as well, as wealthier population groups have a higher probability of obtaining care when they need it. A study by Makinen et al. (2000) found that in the majority of developing countries they looked at, there was an upward trend by quintile in health care use for those

reporting illness. Wealthier groups are also more likely to be seen by doctors and to receive medicine. Health care is not a right, it is a commodity that can be purchased through private insurance companies (or that is sometimes provided through an employer). The way health care is organized in the U.S. contributes to health inequalities based on gender, socioeconomic status and race/ethnicity Sargeant (2011).

Social status differences in health care are a primary mechanism of health inequalities. Wright et al (2010) while Guessous (2014) finds that privatization gives individuals the 'power' to purchase their own health care (through private health insurance companies), but this leads to social inequality by only allowing people who have economic resources to access health care. Citizens are seen as consumers who have a 'choice' to buy the best health care they can afford; in alignment with neoliberal ideology, this puts the burden on the individual rather than the government or the community which ultimately results to injustice is accessing affordable healthcare by the poor.

Inequality and economic growth: Of the factors influencing the duration of economic growth in both developed and developing countries, Berg (2011) insists that income equality has a more beneficial impact than trade openness, sound political institutions, and foreign investment. The concept of economic growth is fundamental in capitalist economies. Productivity must grow as population grows and capital must grow to feed into increased productivity. Investment of capital leads to returns on investment (ROI) and increased capital accumulation. Recent research, by Ortiz, Isabel & Matthew Cummins (2011) particularly over the first two decades of the 21st century, has called this basic assumption into question.

Global inequality

Milanovic (2011) points out that overall, global inequality between countries is more important to growth of the world economy than inequality within countries. While global economic growth may be a policy priority, recent evidence about regional and national inequalities cannot be dismissed when more local economic growth is a policy objective. The recent financial crisis and global recession hit countries and shook financial systems all over the world. This led to the implementation of large-scale fiscal expansionary interventions and, as a result, to massive public debt issuance in some countries. Governmental bailouts of the banking system further burdened fiscal balances and raises considerable concern about the fiscal solvency of some countries. Studies

by Rosling (2013) showed that through at least 2011, the GDP gap, while still wide, appeared to be closing and, in some more rapidly developing countries, life expectancies began to rise. However, there are numerous limitations of GDP as an economic indicator of social "well-being" as postulated by Manios et al (2016).

Theoretical Explanation: Culture of deprivation and Modernisation theory were used to explain this work.

Cultural Deprivation Theory

Cultural deprivation theory holds that some groups, such as the lower social classes have inferior norms while the middle and upper class have norms and values that help their educational achievement and employability. It is a term referring to the absence of certain expected and accepted cultural phenomena in the environment which results in the failure of the individual to communicate and respond in the most appropriate manner within the context of society. Proponents of this theory argue that the culture of the people in the working class is inherently deficient and inferior to the middle class. This deprivation results from the working class remaining poor and unable to leave their class to higher classes. It is an attribute of the social class structure of the society. How the middle class gain cultural capital through primary socialization which helps them succeed in a capitalist system of the society compared to the working class who have been socialized differently without this culture capital making them to live in a state of apathy. Hence each class in the social spectrum ends up reproducing the class system of their parents which either keeps them in poverty or helps them succeed Morais (2019).

Modernization Theory: Modernisation theory originated from the ideas of German sociologist Max Weber (1864-1920), which provided the basis for the modernisation paradigm provided by Harvard sociologist Talcott Parsons (1902-1979). The theory looks at the internal factors of a country while assuming that with assistance, "traditional" countries can be brought to development in same manner more developed countries have been. It is used to explain the process of modernization within societies and is a model of a progressive transition from a pre-modern or traditional to a modern society.

To address this development deficit of Africa, it is important commit to the ideas of (CAP) Common African Position (2015) development Agenda which postulated the following principles, namely;

a. **Practice Inclusive growth that reduces inequality:** This states that there have to be a dedication to accelerated, stable and sustained inclusive growth that creates decent and productive employment that rapidly reduces inequality, nurtures sustainable social protection programmes, facilitates economic diversification, strengthen resilience to external shocks and fosters rapid inclusive, resilient and sustainable socio-economic development leading to eradication of poverty.

b. Sustainable agriculture, food self-sufficiency and nutrition

1. Enhance the production, storage, transportation, availability, accessibility, utilization, safety and quality of food.
2. Improve the productivity of smallholder agriculture and livestock through extension of technological support, small scale irrigation schemes, rural infrastructure, credit and social services.
3. Support modernization and diversification of agricultural sectors through private sector participation in agriculture; agri-business development value chains, improved agro-industry linkages to land, and sustainable land management practices.

c. Diversification, Industrialization and value addition: In achieving this, it is vital to

1. Develop the private sector and strengthen the produce capacity of the informal sector to ensure a more active contribution to industrialization and value addition.
2. Relocate and reinvest wealth generated from extractive and other primary commodity sectors into sectors that prioritise value addition promote job rich growth and ensure fair taxation.

d. Developing the Services sector: Developing the service sector is vital for generating decent employment, optimising and upgrading our industrial structures and other important sectors of African economy. The important role that the service sector can play in facilitating economic transformation and recognizing the weak linkages between the service sectors of the economy is noted which can be done through;

1. Improve linkages between the services and real sectors, inter alia, through strengthened support to the agricultural sectors, improved broadband internet services, and strengthened telecommunication backbones of the service sector.
2. Stimulate homegrown innovations in service delivery, which includes improving the quality and efficiency of public services, modern logistics, high-tech services culture, e-commerce, tourism and health-related services.
3. Accelerate international development exchanges and cooperation in this sector.

e. Infrastructural Development: Accelerating Africa's infrastructural development which is pivotal to connect African people, countries and economies as well as to help drive social and economic development. In this regard, the following is critical:

1. Develop and maintain reliable, sustainable, environmentally friendly and affordable infrastructure in both rural and urban areas with a focus on land, water and air transport and storage facilities, clean water and sanitation, energy, waste management and information and communication technologies (ICT).
2. Implement infrastructure projects that facilitate intra-African trade and regional and continental integration including with the assistance of the international community, enhancing research and technological development.
3. Promote the delivery of infrastructure programmes to generate local jobs, strengthen domestic skills and enterprise development as well as enhance technological capability

The role of governance and industrialization in reducing inequality, poverty and injustice in Africa

Simply put, "governance" means the process of decision making and how decisions are implemented (or not implemented). According the World Bank (2015) the concept of good governance consists of many dimensions including political stability, and accountability, government effectiveness, regulatory quality and control of corruption. All of these dimensions matter for agriculture. Political stability, the absence of violence and the rule of law are essential preconditions for agricultural development. Violent conflicts are often linked to unequal access to land and other natural resources. In political systems that lack voice and accountability, the rural

poor face acute difficulties when attempting to influence the political agenda, resulting in low political attention in using agriculture for development.

According to Freedom House (2014), there were only four full electoral democracies in Africa in 1990, which increased to 20 countries by 2014. Good governance is perhaps the single most important factor in eradicating poverty and promoting development. Efforts to promote agricultural development and food security in African countries where they are most needed are often hindered by a lack of good governance.

The former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan once said “Although governance is difficult to measure, the evidence from cross-country analysis is unambiguous: governance is instrumental for affecting progress towards development.” For instance, better governance is positively associated with higher investment and growth rates. Government effectiveness, an efficient bureaucracy and an equitable rule of law are associated with increased economic performance, adult literacy and lower infant mortality. High levels of corruption, on the other hand, are linked with poor governance and poor development prospects that would have led to industrialisation.

Industrialisation has been a campaign promise across the African continent with its acknowledged ability to bring prosperity, new jobs and better incomes for all, yet the continent is less industrialised today than it was four decades ago. Infact, the contribution of Africa’s manufacturing sector to the continent’s gross domestic product actually declined from 12% in 1980 to 11% in 2013, where it has remained stagnant over the past few years, according to the UN Economic Commission for Africa (2012). Kingsley Moughalu, a former deputy governor of the central Bank of Nigeria implored African countries to reject the misleading notion that they can join the West by becoming post-industrial societies without having first been industrial ones.

4.0 THE REASONS FOR AFRICA’S POVERTY, INEQUALITY AND INJUSTICE

Africa’s poverty, inequality and injustice are not only caused due to lack of industrialization, tax evasion, and tax havens but also mainly by corruption that are widespread across Africa of which many political leaders are responsible. They let corruption erode our ability to address inequality, poverty, injustice and even unemployment, and in the long run corruption cannot but prevent development through the following avenues;

Weak institutions:

The kind of political and economic institutions run in Africa is responsible for the high level of poverty on the continent says Prof. Kenneth Kalu of Ryerson University, Canada. He said African institutions were predatory and exploitative in nature, which tended to exploit the commonwealth for the benefit of tiny elite group. He maintained that institutional failure created poverty Rilwan (2018).

Lack of industrialization

The impact of resource-led growth on industrialization and structural change in sub-Saharan Africa should not be underestimated, despite rising economic growth there has been a slack in investment, low capital formation, low technological change, a movement of labour away from industry into agriculture and a negative net effect of international trade flows on demand expansion in most African countries between 2000 and 2009.

Corruption and Tax evasion

Corruption is widespread across Africa of which many political leaders are responsible. Gupta et al (1998) specified an inequality model using Gini coefficient to measure income inequality and several other indices of corruption. They ascertained that increasing income inequality due to corruption reduces economic growth and thereby aggravate poverty. They also found that tax evasion and its exemption in favour of wealthy elites can reduce the tax base and leads to more income inequality as well as diverting benefits from poverty reduction measures due to poor targeting of social programmes. Karstedt (2001) in her study of 35 OECD countries tested corruption against income distribution. Results showed that countries with high income inequality have high levels of corruption, while those with high levels of secondary education and a high proportion of women in government positions have experienced decreasing levels of corruption.

Poor Industrialization Policies and Weak Infrastructure

The “Economist” sees things differently in its analysis of why Africa has failed to industrialise, it observes that while many countries de-industrialize as they grow richer, many African countries are de-industrializing while they are still poor, partly because technology is reducing the demand for low-skilled workers. Another reason says the magazine, is the weak infrastructure; lack of

electricity, poor roads and congested ports which drives up the cost of raw materials and shipping out finished goods.

5.0 RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

In order to foster growth, justice and reduce inequality, there are several policy actions that typically aim to develop human capital and infrastructure, improve competitiveness, foster economic diversification, and promote private sector development, encompass cross-cutting areas that are viewed by government officials as important determinants of growth. They include,

Education and human capital development

Poverty is a hurdle in the way of a country's progress. One way of helping lower poverty is by educating poor people and empowering them in areas of self-development, so that they can start contributing to a nation's economic development.

Education teaches the poor about their rights and may show them the path to become an important part in growth and expansion of the country. Vienna Declaration also tells this fact. One of the most important things that are needed to make a country richer is for the Government to want to help poor people do better. Without this it is hard for people to become better off. Differences in educational attainment are important because they predict gender gaps in employment and earnings. According to the International Labour Organisation's (2012) Report on Global Employment Trends for Women, only 14.0 per cent of working women in Africa are in wage employment compared to 29.0 per cent of employed men (ILO, 2012b). Only fewer than 40.0 per cent of working women are contributing family members, compared to 80.0 per cent for men. Income is associated with empowerment and decision-making power within households, where women remain disadvantaged.

Bridging the gender gap

A comprehensive analysis of how gender inequality is impeding progress on human development in Africa has been conducted by UNDP (2016). Overall, gender inequality in social services (e.g. health and education services) translates to lower economic opportunities for women, in particular, and society as a whole. As the economic status of women improves, so does the economic status

of entire families. In fact, gender inequality in the labour market alone costs sub-Saharan Africa about \$95 billion annually between 2010 and 2014 (UNDP, 2016).

Good governance

In developing countries, where agriculture plays an important role in the economy, there is a tendency toward poor governance, which goes along with poverty and injustice. This is of particular concern when the public sector is most needed to provide guidance in realising rural development. Moreover, many large donors concerned with aid effectiveness employ good governance indicators when they select countries that qualify for Official Development Assistance (ODA). This presents a dilemma for agricultural-based African countries, as they are often less eligible for assistance because of poor performance in terms of good governance. With the world increasingly turning its attention to issues of governance, there are grounds for optimism towards change.

Rural development

Since labour in Africa primarily involves activities related to working on land in rural areas (typically low-earning work), employment in the current context (self-employed agricultural work with associated inadequate earnings) will not be sufficient to narrow income distribution and thus reduce income inequality. In the first instance, since agriculture is so central to the average African economy, policies designed to promote growth in this sector, increase its global competitiveness and essentially serve as mechanisms for reducing the incidence of poverty among workers and income inequality are critical.

Transformative industrial policy

Transformative industrial policy for Africa is a call for policy imagination and creativity in crafting policies. Ha-Joon Chang, an economist at the University of Cambridge and the co-author of the ECA publication “Transformational industrial policy for Africa” urges African policy makers to avoid being bound to any single theoretical policy. Hence African countries need to have the self-confidence to develop alternative policies and stick to them. However, Adeyemi Dipeolu, an economic adviser to Nigeria’s Vice president, Prof. Yemi Osinbajo told participants at the report launch in Addis Ababa that African policymakers are hesitant to take alternative to policies for fear of dictates and conditionalities of the West.

Social inclusion

Africa's projected demographic changes have two main implications on its labour force. First, most of the world's working-age population growth will emanate from Africa. From 10.0 per cent of the global labour force in 2010, this is set to increase to 15.0 per cent by 2030 (ILO, 2011). Second, most of this growth will originate from young workers in Africa, who are primed to stream into the labour market at an average annual rate of over 2.0 per cent in the 2010-2030 period. This represents both the opportunity for potential growth and the challenge of promoting growth that is job-creating. Large numbers of predominantly young people are entering Africa's fast-growing cities in search of employment; the majority end up in urban self-employment or unemployment. Rendering the informal sector, a more sustainable form of employment, creating linkages to the formal sector and providing an enabling business environment for this sector to thrive are essential to a more equitable growth path.

Policy Interventions for Poverty Reduction

The survey of poverty reduction strategies in Sub-Saharan Africa suggests that anti-poverty policies and programs are usually designed to achieve a variety of pro-poor outcomes. In particular, these include improving access of the poor to basic social services such as education, healthcare, housing, and drinking water, strengthening and expanding social security coverage, increasing employment and other income-generating opportunities for the poor, and reducing income and non-income inequalities Barber (2005).

Human and institutional development

Turning to the current global labour market landscape, Borat (2013) shows that of the 3 billion people in the global labour force, only half of them are in wage employment, which is loosely defined as employment in which one earns a wage, either formal (officially recognized contract) or informal (oral/implicit contract). Individuals are not in formal wage employment but, rather, are self-employed Cullati et al (2018). This indicates that the incomes of most of the employed in Africa are directly dependent on the profits of their enterprise, which are typically more variable than income from wage employment. Also unique to the region is that, on average, 56.0 per cent of the labour force works in agriculture, compared to 25.0 per cent of the labour force in other non-

agricultural sector. Finally, growing Africa's currently minuscule wage employment base must be a key strategy to reduce inequality and grow domestic economies for African governments.

In conclusion, industrialisation is very important in tackling Africa's poverty, inequality and injustice. This has become evident among countries like Ethiopia, Rwanda and to a lesser extent Tanzania who have proved adept at navigating the bumpy path to industrialization. The common thread among them is that they have embraced policies that target and favour their own manufacturing industries. In addition to pursuing what experts call a developmental state model, under which government control, manage and regulate economies, they have adopted investor-friendly policies thereby creating massive employment which has not only helped greatly in reducing poverty and unemployment but also feelings of apathy and injustice among the lower class.

However, the survey of poverty reduction strategies in Sub-Saharan Africa suggests that anti-poverty policies and programs are usually designed to achieve a variety of pro-poor outcomes. In particular, these include improving access of the poor to basic social services such as education, healthcare, housing, and drinking water, strengthening and expanding social security coverage, increasing employment and other income-generating opportunities for the poor, and reducing income and non-income inequalities. More specifically, pro-poor interventions take several forms in Sub-Saharan African countries, including unconditional and conditional cash transfer programs, in-kind transfer schemes, and public works programs. In addition, a number of countries on the World Bank's latest list of Fragile and Country Affected Situations have generally embedded peace and security consolidation, state-building, and institutional development in their poverty reduction framework which is a welcome development and the way forward for Africa and Africa's unity.

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The Role of Economics in Assessing Sustainable Development: A Theoretical Discourse

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Abstract

The paper examines the role economics as a discipline play in assessing sustainable development. Nations all over the world come across mammoth, exigent as well as formidable challenges as they strive to achieve sustainable development. As these countries attempts to make sustainable development realizable, the task of economists cannot be underestimated. This is owing to the fact that an understanding and knowledge of economics is essential in creating employment openings, decreasing inequality levels, making the standard of living better, alleviating the level of poverty amongst others. A lot of scholars in the economic literature have made strong arguments that more time should be dedicated to increase our knowledge of sustainable development and this certainly involves an in-depth integration of economics. As a result, governments especially in less developed countries ought to make sure that the field of economics is given significant consideration in all areas to facilitate the realization of sustainable development goals in their economies

Keywords: Sustainable Development, Economics, Standard of Living, Inequality Levels, Poverty Levels, Employment Opportunities

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Sustainable development as a concept is rooted inside the idea of development, perception of basic necessities of life and the thoughts of forthcoming generations. The quintessence of sustainable development is sold from the triple end line idea, involving stability between three pillars of sustainability – environmental sustainability which focuses on retaining the value of the environment needed for performing commercial activities that are cost effective to improve the worth in people’s lives; social sustainability that endeavour to guarantee civil liberties and fairness,

safeguarding ethnic uniqueness, reverence for religion, race and diversity of cultures; as well as financial viability required to sustain the various forms of capital needed for earnings and inhabiting standards. When these pillars maintain equilibrium, the realization of a comprehensive sustainable development occurs though, the necessary circumstance is difficult to pull off, due to the fact that in the course of realizing its targets each pillar of sustainability has to show consideration for the pastimes of various pillars to avoid disproportion (Klarin, 2018).

Sustainable development is an idiom we often hear used occasionally in order to emphasize our idyllic imagination of the future – devoid of all the problems that the world populace confront in the present day. When development satisfies the requirements of the present-day generation barring conceding the capability of future generations to satisfy their own need, it is said to be sustainable. According to the World Commission on Environment and Development (1987), sustainable development is development that meets the requirements of the present devoid of compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own necessities. Sustainable development comprises of four interconnected, inextricable, intertwined and indivisible aspects – society, surroundings, way of life and economic system (UNESCO, 2021). Nations globally in September 2015, adopted seventeen Sustainable Development Goals (SDGS) which include: no poverty; zero hunger; good health and wellbeing; quality education; gender equity; clean water and sanitation; affordable and clean energy; decent work and economic growth; industry, innovation and infrastructure; reduced inequalities; sustainable cities and communities; responsible consumption and production; climate action; life below water; life on land; peace, justice and strong institutions; and partnerships to achieve a better and more sustainable future for each and every one (Take Action for the Sustainable Development Goals, n. d.). These SDGs tackle the universal challenges we encounter, including inequality, environmental degradation, climate change, poverty, peace and justice. These are just a small amount but they exemplify precisely the concerns which we are struggling to get rid of. In spite of this, owing to the comprehensive description of the term Sustainable Development and the severity of the circumstances which it considers to resolve, a lot of people regard it as a theoretical, unattainable concept normally taking into contemplation the appalling imageries of over polluted oceans or the desperation of their life state of affairs as a result of being born female. Nonetheless, an in-depth comprehension of this area and its challenges is completely needed in our present-day environment

and can aid in living a more cognizant as well as humane life. According to Polasky, King, Levin, Carpenter, Daily, Ehrlich, Heal & Lubchenco, (2019), the major question of sustainable development is what method, approach or study do we use in earmarking planet earth's limited resources to fulfill the dreams of the present-day generations, that is devoid of surrendering the aspirations of prospective generations. An economic method, approach or study is imperative in providing answers to this key question of sustainable development.

Economics as a subject arguably ought to play a vital role in the realization of sustainable development. A conventional description of economics looks at how it allocates resources due to scarcity of resources and its fundamental objective is in what manner should limited resources be apportioned to meet insatiable wants. It examines production, exchange, distribution, trade and consumption of commodities, which aids development by increasing standard of living through the provision of essential human requirements (Imoisi & Ntoidem 2017). In addition, a knowledge and understanding of economics is indispensable in comprehending how the subject really matters in achieving sustainable development by means of reducing poverty, ensuring gender equity, increasing economic growth, preserving our ecosystem and climate, supporting innovation in renewable energy, promoting responsible consumption and production amongst others. There are several areas of specialization in economics such as development economics, macroeconomics, environmental economics, ecological economics, behavioural economics, health economics and useful resource economics with enormous literatures that are applicable to sustainable development. Utilizing the ideologies and doctrines of these specializations in economics as well as pragmatic and experiential outcomes ought to be a crucial concern in the pursuit of fulfilling the goals of the human race for a demure existence given the limited resources globally.

Certainly, wide-ranging literatures by economists offers major insights into quite a few components of sustainable development. For instance, in assessing the significance of various government establishments and domination for sustainable utilization of communal property resource, Ostrom (2010) utilized numerous macroeconomic models to emphasize the cost of governance. Also, Arrow, Dasgupta, Goulder, Mumford & Oleson (2012) defines and measures comprehensive assets, wide-ranging capital and their relevance to sustainable development. The huge function of economic activities in sustaining development cannot be overemphasized, hence

there are pressing calls for integration of economics to a greater extent into the hub of sustainable development, and for further integration of sustainable development into the crux of economics (Polasky et al. 2019).

This study is significant to individuals, firms and government particularly the United Nations (the organization in charge of formulating Sustainable Development Goals). It will help the United Nation's department of economic and social affairs in preparing, planning and formulating robust economic policies as well as analysis that will spur the realization of sustainable development in nations particularly third world countries like Nigeria. Other studies of this nature have focused on the function of economics in achieving sustainable development but this article not only did that but also looked at the economic theories of the founding fathers of economics and how they related it to sustainable development in order to get an in-depth understanding of the subject matter.

2.0 SIGNIFICANCE OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable development is a difficult subject matter to get an agreement on for the reason that it entails an extensive variety of issues. Owing to the detail, technicality as well as complexity of this topic, it is appropriate to take a look at its significance holistically to be able to understand it effortlessly. As a result of the rapidly growing population globally, in the future additional factors of production will be required with the intention of containing it and, regrettably, the resources that we take advantage of currently are not all renewable. Population is the key element increasing sustainable development campaigns. Thus, the significance of sustainable development can be seen from this viewpoint.

The upsurge in population globally implies that people will have to struggle for the limited basic amenities of life such as food, shelter, clothing and water. Sufficient provision of these essential necessities more or less completely depends on arrangements that have the capacity of upholding them for a long period of time. If governments are resolute on using fossil fuel-based sources of energy rather than renewable and green alternatives, the price, cost along with the environmental impacts of making these fundamental requirements would become problematic. A population that is growing rapidly requires agriculture have to draw level. Discovering methods to provide for over and above 3 billion people worldwide can be overwhelming. If similar untenable farming,

sowing, irrigation, crop-dusting, reaping and garnering practices are employed in the future, they may demonstrate to be commercially and monetarily encumbering bearing in mind that fossil fuel resources are anticipated to come to an end. Sustainable development concentrates on agricultural systems, means and techniques that are sustainable, for instance, operational planting practices coupled with crop rotation to foster yields that are above average while preserving the reliability of the soil, which supplies food for the teeming populace.

Managing climate change is another significance of sustainable development. The procedures of sustainable development can alleviate climate change. These procedures strive to cut down the utilization of fossil-based sources of crude oil, such as fuel, diesel, kerosene, natural gas, and coal. These fossil fuel sources of energy are unmaintainable in view of the fact that they will diminish in the future and are to blame for the discharge of greenhouse gasses. Furthermore, unsustainable development along with overconsumption habits significantly affect biodiversity. The ecosystem lifecycle is conceived in such a manner that species rely one another for existence. For example, plants generate oxygen that human beings require for respiration. On the other hand, human beings breathe out carbon dioxide that plants require for growth and production. Unsustainable development procedures such as release of greenhouse gasses into the atmosphere destroy a lot of plant species bringing about a decrease of atmospheric oxygen. This is not beneficial for human beings. Sustainable development procedures promote the utilization of renewable energy sources as well as carbon-based farming methods that do not discharge any greenhouse gas to the atmosphere.

Undeniably, the practices of sustainable development possess the capacity to create economies that are financially sustainable to a greater extent globally. Developing economies that cannot access fossil fuels can purchase renewable forms of energy to drive their respective economies. From the growth and advancement of renewable energy technologies, these nations can provide sustainable employment opportunities in contrast to limited job opportunities based on fossil fuel technologies.

The Major Challenges of Sustainable Development

Having emphasized the significance of sustainable development, it is as well imperative to recognize that it does require loads of concerted endeavour and, like numerous incidents in life, it

does include several challenges in front of itself. Moreover, it is crucial to state that sustainable development is just as cogent in developing and developed economies, regardless of them contending with polarly contrasting sides of the spectrum. Developed economies might be advanced, however, that does not inevitably suggest that they are sustainable and for such nations, the key objective is to free their community of concerns such as environmental responsibility, social inequalities as well as waste management.

Universally, nations come across enormous, importunate and overwhelming challenges in their pursuit to achieve sustainable development. Some of these challenges include: Insufficient financial resources to design, plan, organize and implement sustainable development; In countries that is besiege by war, for instance, Ukraine, sustainable development is often impossible since there are other primacies at hand; Natural incidences, for instance, floods, droughts, volcanoes, earthquakes, etc., are threats to sustainability since they can damage specific components of infrastructure and amenities; The governmental disagreement between immediate profit and investment concerning technologies that are deemed sustainable; Corrupt practices by government officials particularly in developing countries; Inadequate efforts at the community level; rise in food and energy prices; the COVID 19 pandemic etc. If these challenges are adequately addressed, then the realization of the sustainable development goals becomes less difficult.

3.0 PROMINENT ECONOMISTS THOUGHT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Adam Smith, John Maynard Keynes, and Milton Friedman are three prominent economic scholars whose opinions are seen by other economists over time as setting the base of the present-day society. What is common to these economists formulating these theories as well as proffering solutions for development globally is that they lived in different eras. This is particularly germane as soon as it comes to sustainability concerns and the recent circumstances. In 1987, there was a universal treaty that we are dealing with a future that is unsustainable, specifically concerning reduction of resources as well as environmental challenges. During the era of the first economic scholars, reduction of resources was not a substantial problem. A lot of individuals were poor and did not possess land, nevertheless, on a wider scale, the land existed, but the people did not have access to them. If woodland were cut for the purpose of providing heat, individuals may well go

to another woodland and cut it down. Two centuries ago, population globally was approximately over one billion and the discharge of CO₂ was not a severe problem.

During the 18th century, the Industrial Revolution occurred and its major effect on the economy is related with the shift from hand-crafted production to mass production of commodities in industrial units. Steam engine invention as well as gaining access to low-cost iron fabrication technologies, accelerated the process of industrialization. Leaving the rural areas to urban centres to get employed in industries along with the progress of international trade established the origin for the non-sustainable society we have presently.

Adam Smith and Sustainable Development

Smith lived during the early stages of industrialization and this might have affected his curiosity, interest and applicability in human behavior and morals related with economics and business. He made a case for the benefits of mass production. Despite the fact that this would bring about a number of individuals, the owners of capital, becoming wealthy, likewise, he maintained that the increase of goods would raise the standard of living of the bulk of the populace, i.e., the poor people. According to Smith, government ought not to intervene with taxes and regulations in order to preserve income for the wealthy. These wealthy owners of capital would have compassion for the labourers and the general populace and distribute their capital and riches owing to decent morals, not for the reason that they are obliged to. Social acknowledgement and admiration would be their incentive and benefit for such an attitude. The market will automatically correct itself, with no government intervention, is recognized by the allegory “The Invisible Hand”. His opinion was that this type of free market, an unfettered market with limitless progress, would guide individual interests to achieve a shared objective.

In the era of Adam Smith, there was no limitation of resources, absence of mass production globally and the populace was merely a small part of what it is currently. Climate change, global warming and biodiversity hazards were not serious concerns. Nowadays, people still deliberate if the idea of an “Invisible Hand” is truly operational, however, nearly every one of us will concur that the propositions of Smith’s hypothesis, the possibility of limitless growth along identical lines as these days, is certainly not the case. His principle that the wealthy will in due course reason past their own egotism and distribute as well as be considerate with their money has been backed to a

certain degree. Nevertheless, although philanthropists such as Bill Gates, Mike Bloomberg, George Soros, Warren Buffet etc. give back to the needy and encourage communal possessions, these instances are more exemptions than a general trend (Hodak, 2007).

It is obvious that Smith's paradigm, in any case, the manner it was explained, neglects significant rudiments and realities at the moment. Our present-day unsustainable condition is evidence that the "Invisible Hand" has not steered our development in the path of sustainability. For this reason, Smith's theory has to be reconsidered and all-encompassing to be applied in the quest for sustainability.

John Maynard Keynes and Sustainable Development

John Maynard Keynes is recognized as the father of macroeconomics. During his time, the condition in most societies was that of unemployment, poverty, and depression after the first World War. His opinion was that the government had to intervene in the society to get it up and working. As a result of unemployment, individuals did not have incomes to make purchases, and when there was insufficient demand, there was no use in producing commodities. In accordance with his theory, the government have to create demand with emphasis on public goods, like roads, rails, as well as give loans with low rate of interest. This would create employment opportunities and, in the end, increase aggregate demand for other consumer goods. Furthermore, in his view, international regulations as well as intervention will form the basis for development that is beneficial to each and everyone.

The amount of government regulations in an economy nowadays are all-encompassing to a great extent than the era of Keynes. In addition, we as well observed that with the non-sustainable development we encountered in previous decades, government interventions, at least those that have been carried out up to now, have not been entirely successful. His case for international cooperation, partnership, alliance and coalition is nonetheless more crucial than ever. While Keynes contended for cooperation globally on a monetary level, extra cooperation on environmental and social concerns are vital to unravel global challenges. Besides, the neoclassical idea that human beings for most part try to maximize utility, is disputed. At present, the social and environmental challenges are extremely obvious. For those individuals who have satisfied their key basic needs, social and environmental concerns are becoming more and more significant.

Thus, a case could be made that these variables should also be incorporated into the neoclassical model. Or, on the other hand, that the neoclassical model, which ignores or underestimates environmental issues and importance, ought to be discarded as an impediment to achieve sustainable development.

Keynes also anticipated that a hundred years forward, the living standard of people would be at a point where not a single person have to fret about employment or making money (Kolbert, 2014). Supposing no significant wars as well as no significant rise in population, the economic problem might be resolved. Today, almost hundred years afterwards, we can verify that his prediction is not satisfied. Nevertheless, Keynes he was right on his forecast of quite a few issues, although he underrated humans' greed. Like Adam Smith, key variables associated to environmental challenges and adverse effects of manufacturing are lacking in Keynes model. Furthermore, both assumed that at a particular consumption level, when individuals' needs are satisfied, they would be gratified, assist others, not engage in greed, and incessant escalation in reckless consumption. Regrettably, individuals are not as upright, moral and honourable as they projected us to be.

Milton Friedman and Sustainable Development

Milton Friedman is a renowned American economist and a huge adherent of the free enterprise economy. Thus, his principles are consistent with the beliefs of Adam Smith. Though, on the basis of his opinions on the idea of corporations and their objectives as well as responsibilities, he has turned out to be a keystone for corporate responsibility entitlements.

Similar to a lot of the eminent economic scholars, their name frequently acts as a sign for economic ideology. As soon as Adam Smith is mentioned, people visualize the free enterprise or market economy and once a reference to John Maynard Keynes is made, people mull over the necessity for government intervention and regulations. When talking about Milton Friedman within the framework of corporate responsibility and sustainability, people may perhaps believe that his input to economics are contrary to such responsibilities. Maintaining this view would imply that the individual certainly did not read the entire piece in the New York Times that he/she is making reference to.

The paper, with the incendiary heading “The Social Responsibility of Business is to Increase its Profits”, truly backs the assertion that firms have a social responsibility; provided that it is connected with profit making. Although the main idea is not simply to consider philanthropy after profits are obtainable, but instead render responsibility as part of the essence of the business.

The business manager ought to function as an agent for the company, not the main leader, and not expend the income of his bosses or the time or energy he has signed to dedicate to their principles. There is an ethos in quite a lot of nations, and particularly in the United States of America (U.S.A) where philanthropy is normal. A lot of companies bequeath quite a few proportions of its net profit to charity organizations. By contributing to foundations that comprises of, for instance, the employment of workers can bring about enhancements in worker’s corporate regard, respect, loyalty as well as dedication. This once more can have an impact on improved employment performance and profit. But if the contributions are connected with the Chief Executive Officer’s private interest, which time and again is the state of affairs, this is not an act that is suitable for the company on the whole as well as its profit.

The corporate manager has a duty to make so much money as possible while complying with the fundamental rubrics of the society, both those symbolized in principle as well as those exemplified in moral norms. Nearly everyone concur that corporations have a duty to abide by prevailing laws and guidelines; despite the fact that this is not the case at all times. Friedman was of the view that this is an input, as obeying laws is more vital than charity or philanthropy.

Currently, practicing sustainability is truly turning out to be a moral norm. There are instances of several companies, which surpass what they are lawfully obligated to do; because it is valuable business. For instance, companies are concentrating on the efficacy of energy as well as decrease of the emissions of carbon dioxide. There are inadequate guidelines and regulations that require companies to turn out to be more energy efficient entities. Nevertheless, carrying out investments in more effective heating technical know-how could be valuable business in addition to been beneficial for the environment, hence reducing the emissions of carbon dioxide.

Behavioural Economics and Sustainable Development

Changes in the behaviour and activities of individuals in connection to the milieu are required so one can obtain sustainable development. A lot of the significant environmental issues arises when

individuals who pursue their own self-interest bring about extremely ineffective outcomes because they pay no attention to peripheral detriments (or plusses) of their moves on others. Behavioural economics plays an important role in understanding what motivates the behavior of an individual or group, how do one structure incentives in order to modify behavioural trends appropriately, and the way to employ and implement policies and traditions to accomplish suitable communal upshots (Carlsson & Johansson–Stenman, 2012; Kotchen & Segerson, 2019). A number of urgent concerns and issues that would gain due to a more immersion of economists include the following.

i. Behaviour Economics and Personal Options Concerning Environmental Outcomes

What do we learn from behavioural economics regarding how to change behaviour to make commodities for the community available or internalise externalities? Is the plea to remain worthy eco-friendly curators, facts concerning overall operation in relation to associates, pecuniary inducements, legal guidelines and rules that are efficient in encouraging further pro-environmental behaviour (Brandon, List, Metcalfe, Price, & Rundhammer 2019)? Do pecuniary inducements crowd out nonpecuniary inducements for guarding the surroundings or strengthening inherent impetus (Frey & Jegens 2001)?

ii. Societal Exchanges and Group Behaviour Concerning Environmental Outcomes

Human beings are by nature social. Economics has examined the behaviour of man in seclusion for a long-term length; however, there is a profusion of proof from social sciences that social interactions have an impact on choices individuals make. How group interaction influences choices as well as environmental outcome is a vital area of research (Hauge, Brekke, Nyborg, & Lind 2019).

iii. Imperil, Insecurity, and Lasting Corollaries

How do individuals deal with imperil, ambiguity in addition to uncertainty as well as what elucidations will this have for concerns related to our surroundings which might be intrinsically complicated, with corollaries that are not easy to apportion opportunities (Anderies, Mathias & Janssen 2019)? Are individuals narrow-minded, and even if they are, can they be inspired to make sacrifices now or undertake present day sacrifices in order to offer generations to come with blessings?

iv. Environmental and Institution Policies Design

Ecological concerns traverse the range from internal (e.g., collective utilisation) to external (e.g., global warming, land desertification, etc.) and contain complicated response between societal and ecological structures (Ferraro, Sanchirico & Smith 2019). Well planned organisations can offer inducements that steer operation closer to preferred effects, or if not properly planned can result in deprived aftermaths (McDermott, Meng, McDonald, Costello 2019). How can we create an efficient transnational eco-friendly agreement for all-encompassing ecological concerns in a biosphere of nation-states? How do we efficaciously make communal commodities available and make externalities internal every time governments are non-existent, feeble, or incompetent? When does expenses for bionetwork inputs by ecological groups bring desired outcomes (Grant & Langpap 2019; Jack & Jayachandra 2019)? What does the proof from behavioural economics tell us regarding suitable environmental policy as well as institutional design?

The Perception of Sustainability as an Economist

There is an expansion of outlines for the consideration of sustainability. A well-known method symbolizes sustainability within the setting of three pillars namely: ecological, social and economic (Adams 2006). Basically, this idea suggests that the concept of development sustainability can best be done while every pillar is supported in overall performance with the others. Though this approach offers a practical classification of the pertinent elements of sustainability, it isn't easy to process, specifically for the reason that it does not have a methodical basis to produce assessment regarding exchanges among the three pillars. Depending on the framework employed, application of the universal concept of sustainability can take up diverse forms. For instance, within ecological frameworks, sustainability can be seen as the capability of biological systems to uphold their roles as well as procedures over time. This point of view concentrates on capital that usually and frequently emphasizes the uniqueness of a number of raw materials and the civil liberties of non-human beings. From an economic outlook, sustainability is regularly considered to have been realized if societal welfare is well-maintained over a time frame (Arrow et al. 2004). More often than not, welfare is broadly described. Besides efficient utilization of commodities, made feasible via effective manufacturing, welfare comprises of environmental and household services as well as other non-market outcomes, for example, social connectedness

In a situation in which through the years, welfare is at least sustained, the attainment of sustainability can be via retaining the stock of total capital. The stock of capital is generally labelled as the efficient base that offers the prospect from which welfare eventually originates. It is derived from all societal capital resources turned out (e.g., machineries, roads), natural (e.g., minerals, ecosystems), human (knowledge, education, skill) and social (establishments and interactions that manage communication among human beings). Natural capital is valued by people due to the services it offers, which include the gains from the knowledge that such natural capital is in existence.

From an inherent explanation of sustainability, comes the postulation that there is every possibility of reduction of natural capital, except the society finances different types of capital (to make up for this reduction) so the entire stock of capital does not dissipate through the years. This presumes that one-of-a-kind sorts of capital are locums. For instance, the accumulated capital can be enhanced by investment in produced capital to counterbalance a deficit of natural capital. Correspondingly, the buildup of human capital by means of completion of academics in addition to skill acquisition can be a produced capital proxy. In addition, innovations in technology can bring about an upsurge in the effectual capital stock, thus facilitating production with smaller amount of tangible capital inputs. This replaceability supposition lies at the nucleus of the sustainability debate, and is briefly discussed below

The important characteristics of the way sustainability is explained ought to be with the extent of welfare that is deemed sustainable. The sustainability principle of making welfare continuous concentrates on modifications in welfare over the years instead of if the maximum potential stage of welfare is accomplished at any time (Arrow et al. 2004). Therefore, in ideology, the success of continuous welfare at the level of subsistence intake may well bring to fruition this explanation of sustainability (Stavins, Wagner & Wagner 2003). An all-encompassing and more evocative outlook of sustainability further necessitates assets to be utilized and apportioned efficaciously over time along with production been performed at a lowest possible cost and funds, incomes as well as capital are channeled to those key zones that plays significant role in achieving welfare (Stavins, Wagner & Wagner 2003). Taking into consideration the productivity of the economy at every moment, economic sustainability therefore is explained as allotment of assets/resources

through the years, in a manner that offers utmost welfare for the present-day and forthcoming generations.

4.0 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND SUSTAINABILITY

Sustainable improvement involves measures on ways to concurrently cut down the level of poverty and make the living standard better as well as maintaining or enhancing fundamental natural capital required for future wellbeing. A large amount of the works in development economics focuses on alleviating poverty. Research in development economics is essential in making progress on sustainable development. A number of the urgent concerns that will take advantage from the grander involvement of economists include the following.

i. Measures of Sustainable Development

Generally, a number of economists have formulated various appraisals of inclusive wealth that endeavours to evaluate the worth of all properties, capital, assets etc. comprising of manufactured, communal and natural capital (Dasgupta 2001; Arrow et al. 2004; Managi & Kumar 2018). A tricky dilemma with pragmatic appraisal of inclusive wealth is aptly evaluating capital for which there is no marketplace cost. Presently endeavours to assess inclusive wealth comprises merely a fragment of natural capital, normally including just natural capital costs connected with commodities that are natural. Can complete assessment of inclusive wealth that comprises steady hard-to-cost varieties of natural capital be estimated?

ii. Integrating Development and Environment

Is there any connection among reduction of poverty and the surroundings? Are there win–win consequences that alleviate poverty and enhance the features of the environment or are there predictable exchanges? Are expenses for the uses of the ecosystem guaranteed method for advancing environmental outcomes in developing countries (Jack & Jayachandran 2019)? Is the key impact of financial improvement to impose additional pressure on the ecosystem via enhanced utilization of sources and effluence after a comprehensive manufacturing and consumption, or is leap-frogging alternatives obtainable in order to bring about co-advantages vs. exchanges? Will intensified pressure bring about crossing tipping points as well as disastrous upcoming effects, and in what way does a society have to get by when facing of such scenario (Besley & Dixit 2019)?

On the other hand, does better technological advancement and investment in the control of pollution, together with less growth in the populace which takes place at greater tiers of income be more important than the scale effect? Is there a major responsibility of safeguarded regions in shielding biodiversity and possible acclimatization to changes in weather against transformation of surroundings to absolute human utilization? What diverse mode of financing could be advanced to expedite change from unmanageable utilization of natural assets to sustainable utilization of these assets?

iii. The Role of Invention

From the time when the Industrial Revolution began, invention and expertise have stimulated economic growth and development as well as improved living criteria. Nevertheless, due to the fact there is no charge for a good number of services offered by the environment as well as physical capital, invention inducements tilt towards keeping or adding to physical capital then the environment packages they offer. To encourage pro-environment invention, is it essential to evaluate ecology amenities as well as physical capital or, on the other hand, is it appropriate to supply unequivocal inducements for invention to improve physical capital as well as ecology amenities?

iv. Equity issues.

Cumulative measures such as inclusive wealth over and over again conceal distributional concerns of who gains and who doesn't from further economic growth and development. Are there means to symbolize supply concerns in a reasonable method in cumulative economic processes such as inclusive wealth? On the other hand, is it suitable to separate proceeds and expenditures by group and give extraordinary attentiveness to the most deprived group in the society? If the planet gains from safeguarding different types of ecosystems in less developed countries such as wetlands, grasslands etc., what methods will facilitate less developed nations to safeguard universal communal commodities

5.0 CONCLUSION

Globally, countries encounter huge, urgent and daunting challenges in their quest to achieve sustainable development. The role economics plays in these economies as they endeavour to achieve sustainable development cannot be overemphasized. This is because a study of economics

is fundamental in alleviating poverty, reducing the level of inequality, generating employment opportunities, improving the standard of living etc. Robust cases have been put forward by numerous scholars in the literature to dedicate more exertions to make our knowledge as well as understanding of sustainable development better and this undoubtedly involve far-reaching integration of economics right from the rudimentary stage. Thus, governments at all levels, particularly in developing economies should ensure that economics as a discipline is given substantial attention at all spheres owing to the fact that its task in ensuring that development is sustainable is significant and cannot be quantified.

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Impact of Economic Freedom and Human Capital Investment in Sub-Saharan Africa

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Abstract

In the process of developing human capital, certain factors influence the level of human capital investment including the factor of how free the nation is. Thus, this study examined the relationship between economic freedom and human capital investment in sub-Saharan African countries from 1995 to 2020. The empirical model of the study was analysed within the framework of pooled mean group (PMG) estimator given that the variables have mixed order of integration. Empirically, the study documents that there is evidence that all the variables except trade freedom and property right have a positive relationship with life expectancy rates in the long run. On the other hand, there is evidence that trade freedom, tax burden, and investment freedom have a positive relationship with government spending on education, while property right, business freedom, government integrity and financial freedom have negative relationship with government spending on education. Following the empirical evidence documented in the study, it is suggested that sub-Saharan African countries should focus on enhancing the quality of economic institutions to improve their health outcomes. This may include policy reforms that support a robust legal system, protect property rights, promote free trade, and stabilise the macroeconomic environment. Also, countries with limited political freedom can witness improvement in government revenue through encouraging economic freedom.

Keywords: Life Expectancy, Government Spending on Education, Economic Freedom, Human Capital Investment

JEL Classification: J24

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Arthur Cecil Pigou first coined the concept of human capital investment (HCI) when he associated investment in human capital with material capital and that enables the concept of human capital

investment to gradually entered economic literature. In his definition of capital, Adam Smith described HCI as "the acquired and usable skills of all the inhabitants or members of the community," highlighting the importance of talents in productive activity. Following that, in the 1960s, economists from the Chicago School, Schultz (1961), popularized the term "human capital investment" by emphasizing the importance of education and training as sources of investments that could boost the productivity of individuals, firms, and nations around the world.

As a result, maximizing human capital is required in the shift from the subsistence economy to the traditional economy, which is based on production, and now to the knowledge economy, which is based on ideas and innovation. To establish the value of human capital in the modern innovation-driven approach to understanding economic growth dynamics, Romer (1990) employed human capital as a crucial factor in his modelling work. Following that, greater emphasis has been placed on the increasing necessity of human capital investment in achieving global economic sustainability, with some International Financial Organizations leading these campaigns, such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund.

The World Bank started the Human Capital Project in 2018 with the goal of encouraging developing nations to create, execute, and assess more effective policies to boost human capital investments (World Bank, 2018). As a result, the focus of the 2019 World Development Report is 'the changing nature of work,' which highlights public policy investments in human capital as a means of tackling changing skill requirements and new business models driven by increased technological innovation. The development of human capital investment can be improved through investment in education and health.

On the variable of government spending on education, Amakom (2015) noted that public expenditure on education significantly impacts economic performance more in developed economies than the SSA. Archer (2017) re-iterated that education is a long-term investment that requires consistently adequate financing. It is not a short term, one-off, quick win. The major returns to investment in education accrue over ten or more years (when a child completes his or her education and contributes to society). Still, it is just one of many important variables that explain the degree of economic freedom. Hence, the contribution of other productive sectors of the economy cannot be over-emphasized. However, it is pertinent to note that Governments in

different countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) do budget and spend a lot of money on education every year. Still, little is known about the effect of such spending on education, especially primary school enrolment, which forms the basic educational foundation (Oseni, Akinbode, Adegboyega & Babalola, 2020).

Household education expenditure is also an essential component of human capital investment in children. In China, the rising child education expenditure and the subsequent financial burden on families have attracted much research and policy attention in the recent years. Empirical studies provided new evidence on the education expenditure level, ratio of expenditure to household income, and in-equality in this expenditure. First, education expenditure incurred outside the school significantly contributed to increasing household education expenditure. Second, compulsory education programs are effective in curbing in-school education expenditure; however, it does not prevent the rapidly increasing education investment outside school. Third, education expenditure disproportionately increased with family income. In other words, a larger share of the income earned by lower income families is spent on children's education, compared to higher income families (Chi and Qian, 2016). One of the tragic consequences of low economic freedom in Sub-Saharan Africa is its correlation with the lack of food security and poor nutrition, which can be attributed to the region's political instability, high infant mortality rates, disease outbreaks, childhood learning disabilities, and frequent famines (Heritage Foundation, 2021).

On the other hand, the issue on economic freedom arose during the first half of the 20th century, as a result of the collapse of freedom to international trade due to trade protectionist policies embarked upon by some countries and to a lesser extent monetary distortions that accounted for the contraction in economic liberty of different countries especially the developing economies. These factors greatly affected trade liberalisation efforts of most of the regional economic organisations such as the OECD, EU, ECOWAS, etc. In an attempt to achieve global economic recovery from the devastating effect of economic shocks, the World Economic Forum began the discussion on economic freedom. Debates on economic freedom had undergone a considerable transformation since economic freedom indexes had been published and data on economic freedom had been published by some research Institutes such as the Frasier Institute, Heritage Foundation and other research organisation (Gwartney, Lawson and Hall, 2012; Miller and

Kim, 2015). Hence, the amount of data gathered on several countries of different continents have been of tremendous value as it seems to provide some bases for explaining the fundamental question raised by Adam Smith in the 17th Century- Why some countries are economically prosperous than others.

On the other hand, economic freedom is a critical aspect of human well-being and a vital feature of any free civil society. The Frasier Institute defines economic freedom as a term composed of personal choice, voluntary exchange, freedom to compete, and property protection. While the Heritage Foundation defined economic freedom as “the absence of government coercion or constraint on the production, distribution or consumption of goods and services beyond the extent necessary for citizens to protect and maintain liberty itself.”

Heritage Foundation (2018) defined economic freedom as the absence of government coercion or constraint on the production, distribution, or consumption of goods and services beyond the extent necessary for a citizen to protect and maintain liberty itself. It is measured through an index comprised of 10 components. It ranges from 0 to 100. The increasing number of an index represents the increased economic freedom.

Thus, the definition of Economic Freedom (EF) therefore comprises all forms of material autonomy that give birth to human and national liberty. These liberties include rights of production, distribution, or consumption of goods and services. The highest form of economic freedom provides an absolute right of property ownership; fully realized the freedom of labour, capital, and goods and a total absence of coercion or constraint of economic liberty beyond the extent necessary for citizens to protect and maintain freedom itself (Heritage Foundation, 2018). Thus, Economic Freedom encompasses freedom of choice enjoyed by individuals in acquiring and using economic goods and resources. Advancing economic freedom entails developing growth-inducing pro-market policies that will benefit the most significant possible number of people rather than the selected few.

Ironically, most of the Sub – Saharan African countries are experiencing economic growth but weak and slow structural transformation process which is mainly evidenced by the extent of human capital investment and economic freedom. This study investigated the impact of economic freedom on human capital investment in Sub- Saharan Africa (Jaiyeoba, 2015). Therefore, in order to

stimulate the strategic need for human capital investment in SSA, the study raises some questions which were answered through empirical findings:

- i. What is the effect of economic freedom on life expectancy rates in Sub – Saharan Africa?
- ii. Is the size of government spending on education explained by the level of economic freedom in Sub- Saharan Africa?

The remainder of this study is organised as follows; Section 2 discusses the review of empirical literature; Section 3 presents the data and empirical model; Section 4 discusses the findings of the study and Section 5 gives the conclusion and policy recommendations.

2.0 REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

Several researches have investigated the relationship between economic freedom and the quality of life. Though, there is a consensus in the literature that higher economic freedom enhances the quality of life (Esposito & Zaleski, 1999; Graafland, 2020; Graafland & Compen, 2014; Okunlola & Akinlo, 2021; Sharma, 2020). However, this study examines which aspects of economic freedom affect life expectancy rates amongst the Sub-Saharan African countries.

Esposito & Zaleski (1999) suggested that economic freedom is subject to diminishing marginal productivity. Based on their study, they asserted that differences in economic freedom not only have a significant effect on life expectancy, but also affects future changes in life expectancy rates. However, economic freedom does not impact on literacy rates as countries with low literacy rates, economic freedom has no impact on literacy rates as a result of the fact that most of the people may be unaware of the freedoms they have as a result of ignorance and illiteracy. However, in countries with high literacy rates, economic freedom has significant impact on literacy rates.

Graafland & Compen (2014) investigated which aspects of economic freedom drives life satisfaction and asserted that there exists a positive relationship between life satisfaction and the quality of legal system while life satisfaction is negatively related to small government size. Depending on the type of economic freedom indicators used income per capita was found to be responsible for the positive influence of the quality of the legal system on life satisfaction while trust is found to mediate the positive influence of small government size on life satisfaction.

Graafland (2020) further investigated the relationship between economic freedom and economic well-being using bivariate correlation analysis from which he asserted that economic freedom is strongly correlated with education, housing, income, safety, and environment and has a relatively small correlation with civic engagement and work—life balance. However, long-term orientation is positively correlated with all areas of Better Life Index except work—life balance. These findings applied to some selected OECD countries with no reference to developing economies in the SSA. However, Okunlola & Akinlo (2021) filled this gap by examining the role that the level and changes in economic freedom play in promoting quality of life in Africa. They asserted that change in economic freedom has an inverse relationship with the quality of life in Africa, but the level of economic freedom has a positive association with the quality of life in Africa.

Sharma (2020) put forward a research question that does economic freedom improve health outcomes in sub-Saharan Africa? The author also agreed that higher levels of economic freedom reduce mortality rates and increase life expectancy in Sub-Saharan Africa. Hence, all areas of economic freedom, except government size, have significant and positive effect on health outcomes. Aligning with a priori expectations, the study revealed a negative relationship between economic freedom and infant mortality rates which implies that countries with greater economic freedom exhibits lower mortality rates. However, economic freedom and life expectancy rates have positive association. However, economic freedom has a negative association with the other two dependent variables of under – five mortality rate and neo – natal mortality rates in the selected SSA countries.

There is a consensus in the economic literature that quality knowledge and skills of population plays a leading role in the economic growth, employment status and the earnings of workers in countries that improve educational quality (Feldmann, 2021; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2012; Woessmann, 2015). Thus, government spending on education is also considered as a proxy for measuring human capital investment in some economic literature.

Zaman, Saleem, Ahmad, & Khan (2017) investigated the effects of some economic freedom indicators on higher education reforms in selected SAARC countries. They asserted that ‘freedom from corruption’ increases government spending on higher education and literacy rate in

Bangladesh while trade freedom, property rights, financial development and government spending increase tertiary school enrolment in India.

Feldmann (2021) further examined Economic Freedom and People's Regard for Education using data on 48 countries, found that people in economically freer countries care more about education than those in 'mostly unfree' and 'repressed' economies. He posited that inadequate education portends the most serious problem for 'mostly unfree' and 'repressed' countries, as parents worry about their inability to give their children quality education. Hence, government spending on education is a critical factor to be considered in measuring the impact of economic freedom on human capital investments. It is expedient that the funding by the government should cover both primary, secondary (with particular emphasis on female secondary education) and tertiary levels as these levels have been found crucial to measurement of human capital investment. Thus, Feldmann, (2021) concluded that human capital investment is enhanced when government spends on education at all levels, as to enhance economic freedom.

There are few empirical works of literature regarding Economic Freedom and human capital investment to the best of my knowledge. Only four previous papers (see Dawson, 2003; Aixalá & Fabro, 2009; Banerjee et al., 2012; Feldmann, 2017). Drifting from the focus of existing studies, this study examines the dynamic relationship between economic freedom and human capital investment in sub-Saharan African countries using life expectancy and government spending on education as proxies for human capital investment.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This study employed *ex-post facto* research design to investigate the impact of economic freedom on human capital investment in Sub-Saharan Africa through the use of life expectancy rates and government spending on education. Trade freedom, property rights, tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, government integrity, and financial freedom are among the economic freedom metrics utilized in this study.

The study examined the impact of economic freedom on human capital investment (HCI) within two empirical models. The measures for HCI, namely life expectancy and government spending on education, were premised on the fact that it captured access to knowledge (Nikolaev, 2014).

The first empirical model examined the relationship between economic freedom and life expectancy rate in sub-Saharan African countries and the model is given as:

$$LEXP_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 TF_{it} + \alpha_2 PR_{it} + \alpha_3 TB_{it} + \alpha_4 IF_{it} + \alpha_5 BF_{it} + \alpha_6 GI_{it} + \alpha_7 FF_{it} + U_{it} \quad (1)$$

Where LEXP = Life Expectancy, TF = Trade Freedom, PR = Property Rights, TB = Tax Burden, IR = Investment Freedom, BF = Business Freedom, GI = Government Integrity and FF = Financial Freedom. $\alpha_0 - \alpha_7$ represent the estimates, U is the error term, and *it* is the cross section and the time series.

The second empirical model analysed the impact of economic freedom on government spending on education in sub-Saharan African countries and the desired model is given as;

$$LGSON_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 TF_{it} + \alpha_2 PR_{it} + \alpha_3 TB_{it} + \alpha_4 IF_{it} + \alpha_5 BF_{it} + \alpha_6 GI_{it} + \alpha_7 FF_{it} + U_{it} \quad (2)$$

Where LGSON = Log of Government Spending on Education, TF = Trade Freedom, PR = Property Rights, TB = Tax Burden, IF = Investment Freedom, BF = Business Freedom, GI = Government Integrity and FF = Financial Freedom. $\alpha_0 - \alpha_7$ represent the estimates, U is the error term, and *it* is the cross section and the time series.

To achieve the major objective of this study which is to examine the dynamic impact of economic freedom on human capital investment of sub-Saharan African countries, the study examines the time series properties of the data using Panel unit root test, the long-run co-integrating relationship will also be examined using the Panel co-integration techniques and the dynamic heterogeneous panel pooled mean group (PMG) is estimated to elucidate the short run and long run relationship between the dependent and independent variables. In this study, the PMG model was adopted since the study investigates the dynamics of economic freedom and human capital investment in Sub-Saharan Africa. The PMG technique is preferred in this work over other panel estimation techniques because it can be with variables that have different order of co-integration. In order words, whether the variables are all I (1), I(0) or a combination of both, the PMG is applicable. Also, both the long-run and short-run can be simultaneously estimated for a large data set with a large time dimension

and large cross-section. Finally, the PMG model also produces consistent coefficients despite the presence of endogeneity because it includes lags of the endogenous and exogenous variables (Pesaran, Shin and Smith, 1999)

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results from Table 1 presented the descriptive statistics below:

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Mean	Max	Min	Std. Dev.	Jarque-Bera	Prob	Obs.
LEXP	56.84	74.51	31.04	7.16	1.00	0.61	520
GSON	4.86	13.22	1.44	2.12	127.08	0.00	520
PR	42.20	76.50	10.00	15.50	12.96	0.00	520
GI	32.65	70.00	7.00	13.78	10.99	0.00	520
TB	72.74	92.70	41.00	10.03	19.62	0.00	520
BF	57.86	85.00	26.80	11.40	8.91	0.01	520
TF	62.70	89.00	20.00	13.91	85.57	0.00	520
IF	50.25	90.00	10.00	15.00	6.37	0.04	520
FF	45.56	70.00	10.00	14.60	1.94	0.38	520

Source: Author's computation (2021)

The result of the descriptive analysis presented in Table 1 shows that the mean value of the series is positive indicating that the variables are increasing over time. The maximum and minimum values of the variables show that the variables have different values over time, while the standard deviation value of the variables showed that all the series are susceptible to changes over time given that the standard deviation value is far from the mean. Finally, the Jarque-Bera statistics that examined the normality of the variables showed that only life expectancy rate and financial freedom are normally distributed over time because their probability values are greater than 0.05

Table 2: Panel Unit Root Tests

The estimation process began with panel unit root test using the Philip-Perron test results as displayed in Table 2 below:

Variables	LLC	IPS	Remarks
BF	-0.101	-0.036	
ΔBF	-8.883***	-10.246***	I(1)
FF	0.015	-0.618	
ΔFF	-8.076***	-11.396***	I(1)
GI	-1.153	-1.724	
ΔGI	-10.946***	-12.396***	I(1)
GSON	0.989	-1.009	
ΔGSON	-7.320***	-13.427***	I(1)
IF	2.248	2.203	
ΔIF	-5.934***	-8.213***	I(1)
LEXP	1.818	1.641	
ΔLEXP	-7.856***	-10.232***	I(1)
PR	2.937	2.488	
ΔPR	-9.343***	-10.684***	I(1)
TB	0.077	-0.553	
ΔTB	-8.097***	-9.713***	I(1)
TF	-1.024	-2.449**	I(0)
ΔTF	-10.591***	-13.361***	

Source: Authors' computation (2021)

The variables used to examine the impact of economic freedom on human capital investment in selected twenty sub-Saharan African countries were subjected to panel unit root testing because the dynamic heterogeneous panel estimators require the stationarity of the series. Two panel unit root tests of Levin, Lin and Chu test and Im, Pesaran and Shin test were employed. The unit root tests result reported in Table 2 shows that Life Expectancy Rate (LEXP), Government Spending on Education (GSON), Property Right (PR), Tax Burden (TB), Investment Freedom (IF), Business Freedom (BF), Government Integrity (GI), and Financial Freedom (FF) were stationary in their first differences I(1) except for Trade Freedom (TF) which is stationary at level I(0). Arising from the panel unit root test where there is mixed order of integration, this further alludes that the PMG methodology is appropriate.

Table 3: Economic Freedom and Life Expectancy Rates in Sub-Saharan African

Following this, it examines the behaviour of the variables through panel unit root testing. After the confirmation of order of integration of the series, the Pedroni residual panel co-integration tests is applied to confirm the long run relationship between the variables, as shown in Table 3 below:

Pedroni Residual Panel Co-integration Test		
Statistic	t-statistics	Prob
Panel PP-Statistic	-8.859	0.000
Panel ADF-Statistic	-3.490	0.000
Group PP-Statistic	-10.109	0.000
Group ADF-Statistic	-7.584	0.000

The study examined the long-run co-integrating relationship between economic freedom and life expectancy rates using four different versions of Pedroni residual co-integration test, the results in Table 3 showed that the null hypothesis of no co-integration is rejected at the 1% significance level. Thus, there is evidence of a long-term equilibrium between economic freedom and life expectancy rates of selected sub-Saharan African countries. The result is in conformity with the findings of previous studies (such as Esposito & Zaleski, 1999; Graafland, 2020; Graafland & Compen, 2014; Okunlola & Akinlo, 2021; Sharma, 2020) that life expectancy has long run relationship with economic freedom.

**Table 4: Panel Pooled Mean Group for Economic Freedom and Life Expectancy Rates
Dependent Variable: Life Expectancy Rates (LEXP)**

Lastly, the panel pooled mean group (PMG) was considered to elucidate the short run and long run relationship among the variables, as displayed in Table 4 below:

Panel A: Long-Run Estimates				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Stat	Prob
TF	-0.008	0.039	-0.208	0.835
PR	-0.390	0.053	-7.303	0.000
TB	0.119	0.032	3.765	0.000
IF	0.047	0.016	3.035	0.003
BF	0.157	0.042	3.729	0.000
GI	0.040	0.027	1.508	0.132
FF	0.174	0.042	4.118	0.000

Panel B: Short-Run Estimates

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Stat	Prob
C	67.754	16.607	4.080	0.000
D(TF)	0.097	0.099	0.986	0.325
D(PR)	-1.185	0.657	-1.804	0.072
D(TB)	-0.174	0.494	-0.353	0.725
D(IF)	0.018	0.094	0.195	0.845
D(BF)	-0.259	0.204	-1.269	0.205
D(GI)	0.135	0.196	0.689	0.492
D(FF)	-0.092	0.108	-0.848	0.397
ECM	-0.860	0.272	-3.167	0.000
Panel C: Diagnostic test		Statistic	Prob	
Wald Test		55.833	0.000	

Source: Authors' computation (2021)

From the results in Panel A of Table 4, there is evidence that tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, government integrity and financial freedom have a positive relationship with life expectancy rates, while trade freedom and property right have negative relationship with life expectancy rates. Furthermore, there is evidence that property right, tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, and financial freedom have significant relationship with life expectancy rates of the selected sub-Saharan African countries. Conversely, there is evidence that the trade freedom, and government integrity do not have significant relationship with the life expectancy rates of the selected sub-Saharan African countries in the long run.

In addition, the result shows that in the short-run trade freedom, investment freedom, and government integrity have positive but insignificant relationship with life expectancy rates, while property right, tax burden, business freedom, and financial freedom have negative but insignificant with life expectancy rates. In addition, the estimated coefficient for the ECM_{t-1} reported in Panel B of 4 is negative and statistically significant ($ECM = -0.860$, $t\text{-test} = -3.167$, $p < 0.05$). This implies that deviations from life expectancy rates equilibrium path are corrected by nearly 86 per cent over the following year. In other words, the adjustment process is relatively fast in the selected sub-Saharan African countries. The statistical significance of the ECM_{t-1} confirms the presence of long-run equilibrium relationship between economic freedom and life expectancy rates from the Pedroni residual cointegration test reported in Table 3. Finally, the Wald Chi-Square Statistic of 55.833 with a probability value of 0.000 is statistically significant at 5 per cent level, this implies that the null that economic freedom has no effect on life expectancy rates in selected countries of sub-

Saharan Africa was rejected and that the alternative hypothesis that economic freedom has significant effect life expectancy rates in Sub-Saharan African countries was accepted.

The result conforms with the findings reported by Graafland & Compen (2014) investigated which aspects of economic freedom drives life satisfaction and asserted that there exists a positive relationship between life satisfaction and the quality of legal system while life satisfaction is negatively related to small government size. Graafland (2020) further investigated the relationship between economic freedom and economic well-being using bivariate correlation analysis from which he asserted that economic freedom is strongly correlated with education, housing, income, safety, and environment and has a relatively small correlation with civic engagement and work—life balance.

Table 5: Economic Freedom and Government Spending on Education in Sub-Saharan African

Pedroni Residual Panel Co-integration Test		
Statistic	t-statistics	Prob
Panel PP-Statistic	-10.815	0.000
Panel ADF-Statistic	-10.434	0.000
Group PP-Statistic	-11.254	0.000
Group ADF-Statistic	-9.307	0.000

The study all examined the long-run co-integrating relationship between economic freedom and government spending on education using four different versions of Pedroni residual co-integration test, the results in Table 5 shows that the null hypothesis of no co-integration is rejected at the 1% significance level. Thus, there is evidence of a long-term equilibrium between economic freedom and government spending on education of selected sub-Saharan African countries. The result is in conformity with the studies of Feldmann (2021); Hanushek & Woessmann (2012); Woessmann (2015).

Table 6: Panel Pooled Mean Group for Economic Freedom and Government Spending on Education

Dependent Variable: Government Spending on Education (GSON)

Panel A: Long-Run Estimates				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Stat	Prob
TF	0.040	0.013	3.108	0.002
PR	-0.010	0.013	-0.723	0.470
TB	0.014	0.015	0.933	0.351
IF	0.005	0.011	0.435	0.664
BF	-0.018	0.017	-1.067	0.287
GI	-0.012	0.016	-0.711	0.477
FF	-0.001	0.009	-0.154	0.877
Panel B: Short-Run Estimates				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Stat	Prob
C	1.095	0.369	2.964	0.003
D(TF)	-0.007	0.018	-0.385	0.700
D(PR)	-0.035	0.032	-1.100	0.272
D(TB)	-0.021	0.047	-0.447	0.655
D(IF)	-0.014	0.024	-0.601	0.548
D(BF)	-0.034	0.024	-1.465	0.144
D(GI)	0.000	0.023	0.014	0.989
D(FF)	-0.035	0.035	-0.993	0.321
ECM	-0.641	0.055	-11.694	0.000
Panel C: Diagnostic test		Statistic	Prob	
Wald Test		7.794	0.000	

Source: Authors' computation (2021)

From the results in Panel A of Table 6, there is evidence that trade freedom, tax burden, and investment freedom have a positive relationship with government spending on education, while property right, business freedom, government integrity and financial freedom have negative relationship with government spending on education. Furthermore, there is evidence that trade freedom has significant relationship with government spending on education of the selected sub-Saharan African countries in the long run. Conversely, there is evidence that the property right, tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, government integrity and financial freedom do not have significant relationship with the government spending on education of the selected sub-Saharan African countries in the long run.

In addition, the result shows that in the short-run government integrity have positive but insignificant relationship with government spending on education, while trade freedom, property right, tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, and financial freedom have negative but insignificant with government spending on education. In addition, the estimated coefficient for the ECM_{t-1} reported in Panel B of 6 is negative and statistically significant ($ECM = -0.641$, $t\text{-test} = -11.694$, $p < 0.05$). This implies that deviations from government spending on education equilibrium path are corrected by nearly 64 per cent over the following year. In other words, the adjustment process is relatively fast in the selected sub-Saharan African countries. The statistical significance of the ECM_{t-1} confirms the presence of long-run equilibrium relationship between economic freedom and government spending on education from the Pedroni residual co-integration test reported in Table 5. Finally, the Wald Chi-Square Statistic of 7.794 with a probability value of 0.000 is statistically significant at 5 per cent level, this implies that the null that economic freedom has no effect on government spending on education in selected countries of sub-Saharan Africa was rejected and that the alternative hypothesis that economic freedom has significant effect government spending on education in Sub-Saharan African countries was accepted.

These findings correspond to the results reported by Zaman, Saleem, Ahmad, & Khan (2017) that investigated the effects of some economic freedom indicators on higher education reforms in selected SAARC countries. They asserted that ‘freedom from corruption’ increases government spending on higher education and literacy rate in Bangladesh. Also, Feldmann (2021) concluded that human capital investment is enhanced when government spends on education at all levels, as to enhance economic freedom.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the relationship between economic freedom and human capital investment in sub-Saharan African countries from 1995 to 2020. It adopted life expectancy rate and government spending on education as proxies of human capital investment while trade freedom, property rights, tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, government integrity and financial freedom were adopted as the measures of economic freedom. The study focused on twenty (20) SSA countries, selected based on their income group. That is, six countries from the upper-middle-income countries, seven lower-middle-income countries and seven low-income countries. The

countries are Namibia, Botswana, Gabon, Mauritius, Equatorial Guinea, South Africa, Angola, Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Senegal, Eswatini, Lesotho, Togo, Rwanda, Uganda, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Burkina Faso, and Benin. The empirical model of the study is analysed within the framework of pooled mean group (PMG) estimator given that the variables have mixed order of integration.

Empirically, the study documented that there is evidence that tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, government integrity and financial freedom have a positive relationship with life expectancy rates, while trade freedom and property right have negative relationship with life expectancy rates. Furthermore, there is evidence that property right, tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, and financial freedom have significant relationship with life expectancy rates of the selected sub-Saharan African countries. Conversely, there is evidence that the trade freedom, and government integrity do not have significant relationship with the life expectancy rates of the selected sub-Saharan African countries in the long run. In addition, the result shows that in the short-run trade freedom, investment freedom, and government integrity have positive but insignificant relationship with life expectancy rates, while property right, tax burden, business freedom, and financial freedom have negative but insignificant with life expectancy rates. On the other hand, there is evidence that trade freedom, tax burden, and investment freedom have a positive relationship with government spending on education, while property right, business freedom, government integrity and financial freedom have negative relationship with government spending on education. Furthermore, there is evidence that trade freedom has significant relationship with government spending on education of the selected sub-Saharan African countries in the long run. Conversely, there is evidence that the property right, tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, government integrity and financial freedom do not have significant relationship with the government spending on education of the selected sub-Saharan African countries in the long run. Meanwhile, the result shows that in the short-run government integrity have positive but insignificant relationship with government spending on education, while trade freedom, property right, tax burden, investment freedom, business freedom, and financial freedom have negative but insignificant with government spending on education.

Following the empirical evidence documented in the study, it is suggested that sub-Saharan African countries should focus on enhancing the quality of economic institutions to improve their health outcomes. This may include policy reforms that support a robust legal system, protect

property rights, promote free trade, and stabilise the macroeconomic environment. In addition, policies that raise urbanisation, increase immunisation, and lower the incidence of HIV are likely to produce a substantial improvement in health outcomes. Also, countries with limited political freedom can witness improvement in government revenue through encouraging economic freedom. However, political liberty without economic freedom may not provide the desired outcomes. This scenario emphasizes the importance of new democracies attempting to free markets, uphold property rights, stabilize currencies, and reduce government involvement in the economy.

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Availability of Educational Infrastructure and Access to Universal Basic Education in Kogi State, Nigeria

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Abstract

This paper examines the availability of educational infrastructure and access to Universal Basic Education (UBE) in Kogi State, Nigeria. Available data shows that the number of Nigerian school aged children that are out of school is the highest in the world relative to national population. This is a social problem. The study is descriptive. It adopted a survey method to obtain primary information in addition to secondary information. The research population includes heads of the 2595 primary and junior secondary schools in Kogi State. A sample size of 364 was obtained using the Taro Yamane formula. The schools were then stratified into the State's nine (9) Federal Constituencies from which a random sample was systematically obtained. The instrument for data collection was the Universal Basic Education Assessment Questionnaire (UBEAQ). The UBEAQ consist 12 closed ended questions with responses based on Rensis Likert's five scale options. Validity of instrument was based on face and content values while reliability was established through the use of test and re-test method with a reliability coefficient of 0.75. The research question from which the hypothesis was derived is; Is there a significant relationship between availability of educational infrastructure and access to UBE in Kogi State, Nigeria? Data was presented using frequency distribution table while the hypothesis was tested with chi-square. Findings showed that, educational infrastructures have not been provided as required and available infrastructure has not enhanced 100% access to UBE in Kogi State, Nigeria. The study recommends that, in order to increase enrolment rate, expand rate of transition and enhance access to Universal Basic Education (UBE) in Kogi State, Nigeria, there

must be adequate funding, enduring political will, expansion of educational infrastructure and adoption of maintenance culture for the existing dilapidated educational infrastructural facilities.

Keywords: Education, Educational Infrastructure, Access, Universal Basic Education

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1975, aimed to bridge Nigeria's intellectual deficit and correct regional, rural and gender imbalances in the educational system. The UPE was a failure in some parts of the country and was discontinued partly because of paucity of funds, inadequate qualified teachers, insufficient number of schools, inadequate educational infrastructural facilities, lack of political will as well as shoddy preparation by government for sustainable implementation (Ogunsanmi & Ibimiluyi, 2014; Domike & Edward, 2014).

The Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme was established by the Federal Government in 1999, as another effort at making education an instrument for planned change in Nigeria. The programme was an antidotal step towards combating the nation's pervasive level of ignorance and fulfilling the provision of Article 26 of the United Nations (UN) declaration that everyone has a right to education. It provides for the right of the child to basic education and that, every child of school age (06 -15 years) should have access to free, uninterrupted, compulsory and qualitative nine years formal education. These provisions were in tandem with the objectives of Education for All (EFA), UN Millennium Development Goal (MDG No. 2) and the current Sustainable Development Goal (SDG No. 4).

Despite the laudable policy formulation and strategies deployed for effective national implementation including increased funding, expanded infrastructure and tuition free enrolment, report by UNICEF shows that the number of school aged children that are out-of-school in Nigeria has risen from 10.5 million in 2013 to 13.2 million by 2017 (Obiezu, December 11, 2018). Such gloomy statistics is worrisome for public policy analysts and the implementers of the UBE programme at both national and state levels. Kogi State has a population of about 4.4million, 1.98million or 49% of the population is below 15years of age (KSG, 2016) which is higher than the population of African countries like Lesotho 1.89m, Gambia 1.88m and Gabon 1.80m (Worldometer, 2020). Such a huge army of children without adequate access to basic education is a social problem.

In 2004, Kogi State Government launched her Human Development Agenda (HDA) as a platform for the implementation of the Universal Basic Education (UBE). To guarantee uninterrupted access to basic education, the state planned to strategically expand educational infrastructure through the establishment of schools as well as construction and renovation of classrooms and other educational infrastructure (KOSEEDS, 2004). Despite the several provisions, management processes and planned strategies, an assessment of the performance of government strategies in the realization of the UBE objectives show that, the expected 100% enrolment and the 100% transition from primary to junior secondary school through the construction and expansion of educational infrastructure like schools, classroom blocks, laboratories and libraries as well as instructional materials have not been realized.

A recent study by Achor, Olokwu and Ejeh (2018) on the impact of teacher preparation and infrastructural facilities on the implementation of lower basic education in Nigeria shows that out of the 20 listed infrastructural facilities, only 3 i.e., playfield, teachers' books and first aid boxes were available in the Idah Educational Zone (Idah Federal Constituency) of Kogi State. Furthermore, in the 2014/2015 session, only 415,817 or 21% of school age children were enrolled in primary and junior secondary schools (JSS) in Kogi State. In the same year, the transition from primary to secondary school was just 37.62% (KSG, 2016). The statistics above represents massive dearth of educational infrastructure which is an evident challenge to access of school aged children to quality basic education. The inadequate provision of educational infrastructure to enhance 100% enrolment and 100% transition from primary to secondary school, reduce poverty and ignorance as well as impact positively on the acquisition of basic skills for life-long living represents a social problem that requires research intervention for solution.

The primary objective of this study therefore, is to examine the relationship between the provision of educational infrastructure and access to UBE in Kogi State. The question; is there a significant relationship between availability of educational infrastructure and access of school aged children to universal basic education in Kogi State, Nigeria? The large children population in Kogi State and the generally high population of out of school children in Nigeria due to inadequate provision of educational infrastructure has made the relationship between educational infrastructure and access of school aged children to universal basic education in Kogi State significant.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Concept of Education

Education involves the deliberate impartation of knowledge, skills, values and ways of living from one individual, society and generation to another. Emile Durkheim (1858-1917), gave a functionalist perspective of education as a functional facilitator of learning and sustaining the values and belief system of society in order to produce and nurture a society-fit man that will maintain value consensus as well as teaching specialized skills (Karl, 2017, August 22). Thus, education performs dual prominent purposes in society; an agent of preservation and an agent of change. It enhances an individual's capacity for independence as well as survival in an ever dynamic and changing world. Basic education is a functional tool and it represents the fulcrum upon which life-long skills for self reliance are built.

Adeyanju (2010) captures the positive nexus between education and development when he posited that, there cannot be any positive change and development without educational transformation. Adeyanju (2010) added that, no society can grow beyond her levels of education. The functional role of education in Nigeria as a medium par excellence for national development is clearly stated in the National Policy on Education (FGN, 2013). The Policy re-affirmed that; education shall continue to be accorded a significant role in national transformation programme because education is the most important agent of change. It added that, any remarkable development in the intellectual and social outlook of any society must be preceded by educational revolution (FRN, 2013). As espoused by Dewey (1966) that education is itself growth leading to further growth, the Nigerian government conceived education as a precursory requirement for national development thus, it emphasizes the centrality of the role of basic education to the success of the Nigeria's education programme (FGN, 2013).

Objectives of Universal Basic Education (UBE)

The UBE aims to provide qualitative nine (9) years of basic education as a strategy for reducing national ignorance, illiteracy and poverty, and thereby achieve national development. The specific objectives include;

- i. Developing in the entire citizenry, a strong consciousness for education and a strong commitment to its vigorous promotion.

- ii. Providing compulsory, free and universal basic education for every school aged Nigerian child.
- iii. Drastic reduction in the incidence of school dropouts through improved quality and efficiency.
- iv. Promotion of basic education for those whose schooling have been interrupted.
- v. Ensuring the acquisition of appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, manipulative communicative as well as life skills that include ethical, moral and civic values for lifelong education and useful living (FGN, 2004; and UBEC Online, 2010).
- vi. Specifically in Kogi State, the objective is to achieve 100% enrolment and 100% transition from primary to secondary school before 2015.

Strategies for Enhanced Access to Universal Basic Education (UBE) in Kogi State

In Kogi State of Nigeria, the national objectives of the UBE were integrated into the Human Development Agenda (HDA). The strategies include;

- (i) making the UBE compulsory, universal and tuition free.
- (ii) Provision of basic infrastructure and training for the realization of UBE goals at the school levels including building of classrooms, libraries, offices and laboratories, as well as provision of sources of power, sources of water, classroom furniture as well as tangible physical education materials and audio-visual communication aid for teaching (KOSEED, 2004; UBEC Guidelines, 2010).

Determinants of Educational Access in Nigeria

Access to education means making education attainable and available to the entire citizenry of a nation or state without discrimination or hindrances by circumstances of geographical location, demographic characteristics, physical status, as well as socio-economic and cultural backgrounds (Okeke in Handsome, 2018). It involves government admittance of education as a right to every child and providing for the requirements including infrastructure that guarantees children's access to quality UBE (FGN, 2003; FGN, 2004; and UBEC, 2010). It also involves respect for the various international declarations and frameworks for action on basic education for all including, United Nations Child Right Convention (UN, 1989), Jomtien Declaration (1990), New Delhi Declaration (1990), its Re-affirmation in (2000) and Dakar Framework (2000). Furthermore, ensuring access involves international cooperation and collaboration for the implementation of inter-African

regional plan of action for basic education for all during the first and second African Decades for Education (1997-2006 & 2006-2015).

At the execution level, enhancing access involves the provision of;

- i. an environment that enables teaching and learning including infrastructural facilities, classrooms, libraries, laboratories, home economic centers, farmlands, playgrounds as well as other facilities and the complementary equipment,
- ii. legal framework,
- iii. administrative machinery, and
- iv. finance for facilities that enhance every child's access to quality basic education.

Nexus between Educational Infrastructure, Funding and Access to UBE in Nigeria

The Incheon Declaration (UNESCO, 2016), urged the less developed countries, Nigeria inclusive, to commit 15%-20% of annual public expenditure or 4% - 6% of gross domestic product (GDP) to education. Empirical reports show that, of the E9 countries to which Nigeria belong since 1993, the average annual budget appropriation to the education sector is 20% except for Nigeria. According to the Budget Office, Nigeria's annual appropriation for the education sector between 2011- 2019 show the following distribution, 2011 (9.90%), 2012 (9.75%), 2013 (10.21%), 2014 (12.05%), 2015 (12.28%), 2016 (9.17%), 2017, (7.41%), 2018; (7.14%) and 2019 (7.10%) (FRN, 2016; Olaseun, 2018; John & Olaleye, 2019).

The nexus between educational funding, educational infrastructure and access to UBE is that inadequate funding stifles expansion of educational infrastructure which limits opportunities for enhanced enrolment, transition and unhindered access to UBE in Nigeria, Kogi State inclusive. Poor release of fund from the Federal Accounts Allocation Committee (FAAC) limits the capacities of states and local governments to expand UBE infrastructure and enhance access.

However, even when funds are available, they are not timely accessed. UBEC Report (2018) shows that 24 out of 36 states in Nigeria failed to access the N47bn UBE grant for 2015-2017 due to inability to generate required matching grants. The Report further shows that no state accessed the 2018 grant as at September 2018 (Olaleye, 2018). Indeed, Kogi State did not access the UBE Fund for 2016 and 2017 until 2018 (Boluwaji, 2019). The import of the above is that, the lack of political

will by State governments to access UBE funds hinders educational infrastructural development and access to UBE.

One debilitating consequence is that pupils are compelled to receive lessons under trees as available classrooms are overcrowded (Oyeniran, 2014; Agbowuro, 2018). UNICEF (2017) shows that teacher-pupil ratio stands at 1:90. A basic education system with such problems cannot increase access, mitigate poverty, ignorance and unethical conducts. It can't also revolutionize the educational system to leverage sustainable national development.

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on the social systems theory by Talcott Parsons (1951). Parsons describes a social system as a network of social interactions between action units including the environment. The social systems theory derived from the general systems theory by Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1968). The systems theory observes a phenomenon as integrated and interacting parts and activities where the subsystems and subunits are indistinct but are rationally connected towards achieving a shared goal as a whole supra-system (von Bertalanffy, 1968; Capra, 1966; and Mele, Pels and Polese, 2010). Every system is characterized by goals, conversion process and feedback mechanism (Bethany, 2000).

Kogi State is an action point in the Nigerian federation as UBE is a subsystem of the Nigerian educational system. The goal of UBE is to enhance access to 9years of uninterrupted basic education for every Nigerian child of school age (06-15years). Relevant educational infrastructure, pupils, funds, implementation guidelines, agencies for supervision and policies are among the inputs from the environment that are invested in the conversion process. The feedback is the extent to which the objectives of 100% enrolment and 100% transition from primary to junior secondary schools have been achieved. Of significance is that the outcome of the implementation of the UBE programme in Kogi State impacts on the performance of the Nigerian educational system and national development.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

Population of Study: The population of this study is the total number of principals and head-teachers of the 2595 junior secondary schools (J.S.S) and primary schools in Kogi State. Stratified sampling technique was used to group the schools by the three senatorial districts. 346 sample schools were systematically and randomly selected in order to ensure widespread distribution as

well as give equal chance of selection to the respondents. The Taro Yamane sampling size determination formula was used.

Instrument: The Universal Basic Education Assessment Questionnaire (UBEAQ) was the primary instrument for data collection. It was validated based on face and content values. The reliability of the instrument was determined through test and re-test methods at an interval of four weeks. The Pearson product reliability co-efficient was used to correlate the responses and a reliability coefficient of 0.75 was obtained. The UBEAQ was administered on the 346 head-teachers and principals to obtain opinions about the availability of educational infrastructure and access to UBE in their schools. 315 responses (91.04%) were retrieved. Secondary sources include; texts, policies, implementation guidelines and several publications both online and offline.

Data Presentation: Data retrieved through UBEAQ was presented on a frequency distribution table. Based on the Likert’s five (5) point scale, the correctness of a statement is rated strongly agree (SA) or agree (A) while incorrect statements are rated as disagree(D) or strongly disagree (SD).Undecided (UD) represents respondent’s indecision about the correctness of a statement. The frequencies were summarized into percentages. The hypothesis was tested using the chi-square test at a predetermined 0.05 level of significance.

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The research question is; is there a significant relationship between educational infrastructure and access of school aged children to universal basic education (UBE) in Kogi State, Nigeria?

Table 1. Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
	ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE * RESPONDENT OPINION	3753	100.0%	0	0.0%	3753

Table 2. Availability of Educational Infrastructure and Access to UBE in Kogi State

ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	CLASSROOM BLOCKED ARE PROVIDED, CONSTRUCTED AND RENOVATED	Count	RESPONDENT OPINION					Total
			SA	A	UD	D	SD	
		Count	45	124	19	52	75	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	14.30%	39.40%	6.00%	16.50%	23.80%	100.00%
		% of Total	1.20%	3.30%	0.50%	1.40%	2.00%	8.40%
	LIBRARIES AND LABORATORIES ARE CONSTRUCTED AND RENOVATED	Count	11	33	20	84	165	313
		Expected Count	46	81.3	25.1	88	72.6	313
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	3.50%	10.50%	6.40%	26.80%	52.70%	100.00%
		% of Total	0.30%	0.90%	0.50%	2.20%	4.40%	8.30%
	TEACHING AID AND EQUIPMENT FOR EXPERIMENT ARE PROVIDED	Count	63	80	30	108	34	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	20.00%	25.40%	9.50%	34.30%	10.80%	100.00%
		% of Total	1.70%	2.10%	0.80%	2.90%	0.90%	8.40%
	HOME ECONOMICS CENTRE AND EQUIPMENT ARE PROVIDED	Count	23	105	15	97	75	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	7.30%	33.30%	4.80%	30.80%	23.80%	100.00%
		% of Total	0.60%	2.80%	0.40%	2.60%	2.00%	8.40%
	AGRICULTURAL LAND, TOOLS AND EQUIPMENT FOR PRACTICAL ARE PROVIDED	Count	30	64	29	110	82	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	9.50%	20.30%	9.20%	34.90%	26.00%	100.00%
		% of Total	0.80%	1.70%	0.80%	2.90%	2.20%	8.40%
	COMPUTER AND ICT FACILITIES ARE PROVIDED	Count	34	40	27	80	139	320
		Expected Count	47.1	83.1	25.7	90	74.2	320
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	10.60%	12.50%	8.40%	25.00%	43.40%	100.00%
		% of Total	0.90%	1.10%	0.70%	2.10%	3.70%	8.50%
	THE SCHOOL HAS A SOURCE OF POWER SUPPLY	Count	61	75	38	84	57	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	19.40%	23.80%	12.10%	26.70%	18.10%	100.00%
		% of Total	1.60%	2.00%	1.00%	2.20%	1.50%	8.40%
	THE SCHOOL HAS A SOURCE OF WATER SUPPLY	Count	72	80	23	70	40	285
		Expected Count	41.9	74	22.9	80.1	66.1	285
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	25.30%	28.10%	8.10%	24.60%	14.00%	100.00%
		% of Total	1.90%	2.10%	0.60%	1.90%	1.10%	7.60%
	CHAIRS, BENCHES AND DESKS ARE PROVIDED FOR THE PUPILS	Count	50	102	23	84	56	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	15.90%	32.40%	7.30%	26.70%	17.80%	100.00%
		% of Total	1.30%	2.70%	0.60%	2.20%	1.50%	8.40%
	NUMBER OF PUPIL IN THE CLASS DO NOT EXCEED 35 - 40	Count	45	101	10	84	75	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	14.30%	32.10%	3.20%	26.70%	23.80%	100.00%
		% of Total	1.20%	2.70%	0.30%	2.20%	2.00%	8.40%
	THE SCHOOL HAS SPORT GROUND AND FACILITIES	Count	68	120	25	80	22	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	21.60%	38.10%	7.90%	25.40%	7.00%	100.00%
		% of Total	1.80%	3.20%	0.70%	2.10%	0.60%	8.40%
	AVAILABLE INFRASTRUCTURE ENHANCES ACCESS TO QUALITY UBE (HIGH RATE OF ENROLMENT AND TRANSITION)	Count	50	51	42	122	50	315
		Expected Count	46.3	81.8	25.3	88.5	73	315
		% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	15.90%	16.20%	13.30%	38.70%	15.90%	100.00%
		% of Total	1.30%	1.40%	1.10%	3.30%	1.30%	8.40%

Total	Count	552	975	301	1055	870	3753
	Expected Count	552	975	301	1055	870	3753
	% within ITEMS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCES TO UBE	14.70%	26.00%	8.00%	28.10%	23.20%	100.00%
	% of Total	14.70%	26.00%	8.00%	28.10%	23.20%	100.00%

Source: Field Survey, 2021

From Table 1 above, 53% of the respondents jointly agree that classroom blocks were constructed and renovated while 41% disagree. Likewise, 80% did not agree that libraries and laboratories were provided. On the provision of teaching aid and equipment for experiment, the responses were even at 45% respectively, while 10% were undecided. Furthermore, 55% jointly disagree that home economics centers and equipment were provided. 61% disagree that agricultural land, tools and equipment were provided. Only 24% agree that computers and ICT facilities were provided.

On the provision of source of power supply, 43% agree that their schools have while 45% disagree. 48% agree having a source of water supply while 35% disagree. 48% agree that chairs, benches and desks were provided for the pupils, 46% also agree that the number of pupil in each class does not exceed 35-40, 51% disagree while 3% were undecided. 60% of the respondents agree that their schools have sports grounds and facilities while 32% disagree. Finally, 32% jointly agree that available infrastructure has enhanced access to quality UBE in their schools while 55% disagree and 13% were undecided.

Test of Hypothesis

Hypothesis: The relationship between educational infrastructure and access to Universal Basic Education (UBE) in Kogi State, Nigeria, is not significant.

From the analysis carried out using SPSS, the obtained chi-square test is:

Table 3 Chi-Square Tests

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	548.541 ^a	44	.000
Likelihood Ratio	548.072	44	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	53.577	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	3753		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22.86.

Note: Sig.= Significance a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .20.86 $\chi^2_{calculated\ value} = 584.541$, Asymp. sig. value = 0.000, $\alpha = 0.05$

The output above suggests that there is association between availability of educational infrastructure and access to Universal Basic Education (UBE) in Kogi State, Nigeria.

Decision: Since $P_{value}(0.000) < \alpha(0.05)$, it implies there is a relationship between educational infrastructure and access to Universal Basic Education in Kogi State.

Discussion of Findings

Findings show that majority of the head teachers and principals were of the opinion that though classroom blocks were provided, they were inadequate. Likewise, libraries, laboratories, chairs, benches, desks, teaching aids as well as apparatuses and equipment for practical teaching were inadequately provided in many schools. These agree with Ambe, Agbor & Okon (July, 2018) who found that the inadequate availability of educational infrastructural facilities like school blocks, classrooms, libraries and laboratories have marred the successful implementation of UBE in Cross River State. From findings, Kogi State Government has not made available the required infrastructure to support enrolment and transition from primary to JSS. In 2014/2015 session which was the projected year for 100% enrolment and transition, only 21% and 37% were achieved respectively (KSG, 2016). Indeed, there was a drop in primary school enrolment from 33,295 in 2012/2013 session to 28,633 in 2014/2015 session (KSG, 2016). This suggests that without availability of educational infrastructure, free tuition as a strategy for enhanced enrolment and transition in universal basic education program is a failure. The non-availability of equipment for practical teaching also suggest that most teaching activities would be teacher centered and not student centered thereby limiting the enthusiasm and participation of pupils in the teaching and learning process.

The non-availability of agricultural land for demonstration farms, home economics centers and equipment to support practical teaching is contrary to the content of the UBE curriculum that aims at encouraging pupils to embrace agricultural enterprise and vocations as a way of life. The School to Farm Programme in UBE Schools was introduced 19 years after the launch of UBE (The Nation, Nov. 19, 2019). This is evident lack of government commitment to the successful implementation of UBE. A study by Olibie, Nwabunwanne, and Ezenwanne (2013) found that the lack of equipment have compelled teachers to seek alternative instructional materials for home economics curriculum delivery in upper basic education level in Nigeria. Teachers are challenged by how to

locally improvise instructional materials that would replace cooking gas, oven and other items that can arouse and sustain students' optimism and enthusiasm in learning. The non-availability of relevant infrastructure for imparting practical knowledge is a denial of access to acquisition of vocational skills and extra-curricular training which are potential sources of living and key to poverty reduction and self reliance.

The lack of playgrounds, courts, tracks, balls, other play materials agrees with the findings of Lawanson (Nov., 2011) that the lack of games facilities and the dilapidated state of existing ones impede the implementation of the UBE programme. The eroded and rough surfaces of available playgrounds threaten effective participation in sporting activities and thus limit the psychosocial development of the pupils.

Only 24% of the schools possess ICT materials (computer, TV, video, radio, phone and other communication materials). This agrees with Lawanson (Nov.,2011) that found lack of computer to be a bane of successful implementation of the UBE programme. The implication is that pupils are denied access to the rudiments of ICT and computer literacy thereby limiting their abilities and capabilities to function effectively in the emerging ICT based knowledge driven world. The inadequate provision of power and sources of water agrees with Odey (Oct., 2018) who found that availability of power generation (electricity, generator and solar) and sources of water supply (pipe borne, bore hole and well) in junior secondary schools (JSS) of Ebonyi State was ratio 1:12 and 1:3 respectively. The lack of power hinders the utility of machines and electronic teaching aid thereby denying the pupils access to quality UBE. Further, the inadequate sources of water denies the pupils access to proper hygiene training which is central to the national moral and ethical standards of cleanliness.

Based on the findings above, the availability of educational infrastructure in Kogi State has not met the stipulated minimum standard by the UBE Implementation Guideline that could support the effective implementation of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme. Overcrowding in class and overcrowding in the use of the inadequate facilities cannot enhance access to quality UBE. It is therefore, inferred that the non-availability of educational infrastructure has not enhanced access to UBE in Kogi State, Nigeria.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The strategy of expanding educational infrastructure to enhance greater access to UBE has not been a success in Kogi State as the rate of enrolment and transition from primary to Junior

Secondary Schools have not peaked at 100%. The non-availability of educational infrastructure is evidence of lack of enduring political will on the part of the Kogi State Government to commit adequate financial resources to the development of UBE infrastructure thereby making the objectives and the strategies for their realization more of rhetoric. The UBE programme as a subsystem must be successful if the entire educational system is to remain a fundamental and effective instrument for Nigeria's national development and if the objectives of the sustainable development goals are to be achieved by 2030. Therefore, the following recommendations are proposed;

- (1) Government should expand educational infrastructure through the establishment of new schools as well as construction of new classrooms, laboratories, libraries, and playgrounds. Teaching aids, desks and chairs as well as other instructional and communicative materials including ICT should be provided in schools with alternative sources of power and water supply.
- (2) Adequate funding is central to provision of educational infrastructure. Adequate educational infrastructure can only be achieved through government commitment to allocating the required international standard of 15% - 20% of her annual public expenditure to educational development.
- (3) State Governments should muster the political will to pay counterpart funds in order to access the billions of UBEC funds that have not been assessed. Accessing the fund is an alternative source of financing which would boost the expansion of Universal Basic Education (UBE) infrastructure.
- (4) Government should embark on renovation of schools and adopt a maintenance culture for the preservation of the several dilapidated UBE schools, laboratories, libraries, home economic centers, playground and other educational infrastructure as a means of expanding existing capacity, ensuring availability and enhancing greater access to UBE.

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United States Foreign Policy and Transnational Economic Processes of Africa: Issues and Options

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Abstract

One of the most significant post-war developments in the world economic system is the increased integration of developing countries with the world capital markets. While components of the global economy have become increasingly interconnected, policies and advances in industrial market economies have impacted the worldwide economic environment. This study therefore examines U.S. Foreign Policy and Transnational Economy of Africa. Premised on narrative and analytical methods, the study adopted a purposive sampling of some foreign policy events between the U.S and Africa between 1993 to 2021. Findings revealed that US foreign policy on Africa is hinged on the American national interest while Africa nations' ability to attract Foreign Direct Investment from U.S have been premised on the availability of natural resources and the size of local markets.

Keywords: Foreign Direct Investment, Development, Policy, Transnationalism

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Integration of developing countries with the world capital markets is one of the most significant post-war developments in the world economic system (Eugene, Christopher, and Charles, 2007). It is instructive that in contrast to the dominant role of the developed countries in world trade, shares of the developing countries in this arena have been relatively small. Accordingly, the disparity in growth performance between developed and developing nations has resulted into the dominance of developed states in global commerce with substantial repercussions for the functioning of the international economic order. (Kennedy, 2008).

As a result, the increased prominence of direct foreign investments has been one of the most significant shifts in the post-World War II era (Milanovic,2016). For instance, Transnational

Corporations (TNCs) accounted for the majority of global direct investment. Likewise, multinational corporations have therefore evolved to become the primary agent of accumulation on a worldwide scale since 1945, when foreign investments began to emerge as a key factor in the international system (Malone, David, Khong, and Yuen, 2003). In the same vein, while the focus of foreign direct investment in Africa has traditionally been on natural resource export, the millennium has moved this focus in recent years. Hence, the rise in the global investors' presence in critical areas of development in Africa (Moore, 2015).

It is worth noting that in spite of interdependent status of the world economic order in which no country, no matter how amply endowed with resources, is so absolutely self-sufficient, it is disturbing that international economic order has become untenable with relations between the developed (North) and developing (South) been perpetually characterized by unhealthy dependency and gross inequality (Robinson, 2012). Globalisation has thus meant prosperity only for the chosen few of the industrialised countries (Barkan, Elliott Robert, 2013). Conversely, power had infiltrated Africa's dimension of international relations and therefore leading to a greater influence of strong states on the domestic and foreign policy of weaker states. Consequently, states such as Nigeria, Egypt, South Africa, Ethiopia, and Algeria have attracted attentions of some of the great power states (Decker, 2001).

On the other hand, globalisation of the world economy accounted for increased trade in goods and services (Milanovic, 2016). Studies have over the years shown that states from the North globe have economic growth due to their past economic relations and international trades between the 19th and 20th centuries (Robinson, 2012). In this line, strong growth rates of nations such as Southeast Asia and Japan, the United States, and the BRICS countries – Brazil, India, China, and South Africa – have been linked to global economic growth. Moreover, multifaceted competitions between the United States and China have dominated foreign policy debates across the world (Mills, 2001). Accordingly, United States gained leverage over China as a result of its efforts to facilitate agreements and construct organizations such as the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, and the World Trade Organization.

Equally, many people have pondered the influence of globalisation on Africa. Some have viewed it as the one that encourages economic growth and diversification in African countries in order to

foster political stability, gender equality, and cultural development (Milanovic,2016, Robinson, 2012). Other researchers have found that liberalization has had negative and severe consequences in African countries. Likewise, the desire for African nations' economies to expand had prompted most governments to explore methods for participation in global trade, investment and liberalization. It is against this background that the study examined U.S. Foreign Policy and Transnational Economy of Africa. Premised on narrative and analytical methods, the study adopted a purposive sampling of some foreign policy events between the U.S and Africa from 1993 to 2021.

2.0 CONCEPTUAL DISCOURSE

Foreign policy has been described in a number of ways by academics, but they are all connected. In the word of Halvard (2019), foreign policy could be seen as a blueprint for a country's foreign engagement and relationships with other countries and international organizations. Hence, the objectives that a state's authorities strive to achieve overseas (Eugene, Christopher, and Charles, 2007). In the same way, foreign policy encompassed principle that describe specific goals which states pursue at the international arena following their interactions with other international actors (Akinboye &Ottoh, 2005). As a result, foreign policy entailed aggregations of stated goals with respect to the world outside the borders of a specific social unit, as well as a set of strategies and tactics to attain these goals (Bennett & Paletz, 1994).

In contrast, transnationalism and globalisation are terms frequently used interchangeably. It is important to note that globalisation creates a system in which the world is regarded as a global village of interdependence (Milanovic, 2016). As a result, several definitions of transnationalism exist, but majority of them emphasized on cross-border exchanges, connections, and practices, therefore eclipsing national geography as the primary reference point for activities and identities. As a result, transnationalism develops a greater relationship between individuals, groups, and societies across borders, resulting in changes in both origin and destination countries' social, cultural, economic, and political landscapes

Scholars also viewed transnationalism as the most common term used to describe immigrants who relocate from one country to another (Dunn,2010). Nevertheless, transnationalism is described as a set of human activities and social structures that transcend national borders (Bachmann-

Medick,2016). Human activities and institutions are established in this way, and they transcend national borders. Thus, cross-border interactions, relationships, and activities are at the heart of transnationalism. Similarly, transnationalism therefore includes multiple linkages and interactions that connect individuals and institutions beyond national borders (Faist, 2016).

3.0 UNITED STATES FOREIGN POLICY IN AFRICA (1993-2021)

United States (U.S.) has had a long history with Sub-Saharan Africa, dating back to the transatlantic slave trade and even before the country's independence. However, official connections between the two nations remained restricted for generations until the post-World War II independence of a wave of Sub-Saharan African countries (Malone,2003). Although, each administration of US had its own foreign policy style, it is interesting to note that the 9/11 event has influenced American policy toward Africa (Kennedy, 2008). Following the 9/11 attacks, the United States' focus on Africa moved from battling communism to confronting terrorists, many of whom had previously operated freely in the region. Indeed, global powers have focused not just on economic interests in developing countries, particularly in Africa, but also on security, military support, and humanitarian aid.

Meanwhile, the fall of the Soviet Union and the uncertainty of the post-Cold War world resulted in a series of foreign policy crises that tested Bill Clinton's (1993-2001) diplomatic skills. During the Clinton administration, Africa saw impressively high engagement and the formulation of a partnership vision based on consultation and bold policy measures. (Eugene, Christopher & Charles, 2007). It could be recalled that outgoing President George H. W. Bush had ordered American soldiers into Somalia in Eastern Africa only weeks before Clinton entered office. However, in October 1993, some American troops were murdered and their remains were brought from the streets of Mogadishu, Somalia. Hence, the fading and withdrawal of public support for American mission. Consequently, Clinton announced a complete withdrawal of American personnel, which occurred in March 1994. U.S presence in Africa was further strengthened when the Clinton administration established the position of Secretary of State for Global Affairs in order to draw attention to a number of key issues that disproportionately affected Africa (Olsen, 2017). In this vein, issues such as environmental degradation, terrorism, drugs, population policy, international health risks such as HIV/AIDS, and trans-border and inter-continental migration were

all needed to be addressed by the new office. It is against this backdrop that the officials from the State Department applauded the Nigeria-led ECOMOG peacekeeping deployment in Liberia with \$29 million and \$200 million in humanitarian supplies to Amos Sawyer's administration in Monrovia through relief NGOs (Murray, 2007)

Moreover, President Clinton signed the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) which had been at the center of US economic policy and commercial engagement with Africa. For nearly 1,800 items, AGOA allows qualifying Sub-Saharan African countries duty-free access to the US market. Accordingly, U.S educational institutions are performing research on a range of African issues while partnering with local colleges and universities on the continent (University of California Television, 2008).

President Bush (2001-2009) provided more humanitarian help to Africa than any other president, averaging more than \$5 billion each year. His administration's assistance was mostly focused on combating the continent's two major global health challenges: HIV/AIDS and malaria. President Bush introduced a new project called the Millennium Challenge Account (MCA) in March 2002. This was intended to raise U.S development aid by 50% over the following three years, resulting in a \$5 billion yearly increase by 2006. Hence, the Bush's efforts on HIV/AIDS and malaria to the landmark peace accord between Sudan and South Sudan in 2005. In 2003, Bush established the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR), which committed \$15 billion over five years to HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, and research. The United States was also a leader in contributions to the Global Fund on AIDS under the Bush administration.

Equally, the 9/11 terrorist attacks against the United States on September 11, 2001, and the succeeding war on terror were some of the most significant events impacting US foreign policy during the presidency of George W. Bush (2001–2009). On February 6, 2007, the then-US President George W. Bush formed the United States Africa Command. After years of deliberation inside the Department of Defense, which recognized Africa's growing strategic relevance, the decision was made. Accordingly, foreign policy of the former President of United States, George Bush on Africa included a strong emphasis on trade. In this vein, crude oil accounted for \$11 billion in 2002 or 61 percent of all African imports to the United States. Likewise, Sub-Saharan Africa provided 18% of U.S. oil imports in 2001.

In 2010, President Obama launched the Young African Leaders Initiative (Yali) to help young people on the continent prepare for leadership positions by providing training, networking, and skills development opportunities. Likewise, the Obama Administration started the Doing Business in Africa (DBIA) initiative in 2012 to make the US government's resources more accessible to the private sector in the United States and African public and private sector partners. Equally, President Obama launched the Power Africa initiative in 2013 to try to double access to electricity across Sub-Saharan Africa by using renewable energy. Since its inception (Power Africa) in 2013, the programme has aided governments in increasing trade within Africa and between Africa and the United States, as well as lowering trade obstacles throughout the continent.

In addition, the United States hosted two Global Entrepreneurship Summits (GES) in Africa, one in Morocco in 2014 and the other in Kenya in 2015, exhibiting both North and Sub-Saharan Africa's innovation and economic prospects. At the US-Africa Leaders' Summit in 2014, President Obama unveiled the Partnership on Illicit Finance (PIF): an effort co-led by the U.S and Senegal which brought African partners and the US together for the purpose of addressing issues of corruption and other financial crimes. Taking these and other efforts into account, the 2014 U.S.-Africa Business Forum (USABF) was co-hosted by the U.S. Department of Commerce (Commerce) and Bloomberg Philanthropies with \$33 billion in commitments, including \$14 billion in private sector deals and commitments to support economic growth across Africa. On a historic-cost basis, US direct investment in Africa increased by more than 70% from \$37 billion to \$64 billion between 2008 and 2015. Building on US-Africa Business Forum, the US Government has increased its economic engagement and presence in Africa.

Likewise, Former U.S. President Donald J. Trump facilitated 'Prosper Africa' which was created to help American businesses conduct business in Africa. The bipartisan Better Utilization of Investments Leading to Development (BUILD) Act which established the United States International Development Finance Corporation (DFC) to replace and enhance the Overseas Private Investment Corporation's (OPIC). BUILD increased the investment cap from \$29 billion under OPIC to \$60 billion under DFC.

4.0 IMPACTS OF U.S FOREIGN POLICY ON TRANSNATIONAL ECONOMY OF AFRICA

African nations' ability to attract Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has been influenced by the availability of natural resources and the size of local markets (FDI). In emerging and transitioning nations, FDI has long been considered as a source of economic development, modernisation, income growth, and employment (Peter,2009). Despite daily declarations of liberalization policies, emerging nations, in particular, have depended heavily on FDI to attract investment. As a result, there have been more initiatives to enhance macroeconomic growth and other welfare-enhancing activities. Hence, the heavy investment from many multinational firms (UNOSSC,2016). For developing countries, the major trade benefit of FDI is its long-term contribution to the process of integrating the host economy more closely into the global economy, a process that is likely to involve higher imports as well as exports. It is worth mentioning, however, that the numerous administrations of the United States have different approaches to Africa trade and investment prospects for the United States. Correspondingly, Africa has continued to have enormous economic potential and offers which are rewarding opportunities for local and international partners seeking new markets and long-term investments

Equally, Africa had been a major investment destination for several businesses and top U.S. sectors, contributing to American jobs and growing the revenue base of various cities and states. Often, increased two-way trade and investment between Africa and US are seen with great excitement. For instance, Alabama Commerce Secretary Greg Canfield conducted a trade and development mission to South Africa and Tanzania in 2015, praising South Africa as a "powerhouse on the continent" and an expanding market with a wide range of interests for Alabama exporters. Likewise, Africa is fundamental region to many American corporations' global portfolios. In this vein, Exxon-Mobil, based in Dallas, has a wide African portfolio, including assets in Nigeria and Angola, as well as a part in Mozambique's large LNG project. Moreover, in 2018, Africa accounted for 20% of Coca-Europe, Cola's Middle East, and Africa division's volume sales.

The creation of the new US International Development Finance Corporation (DFC), the reauthorization of the Export-Import Bank (EXIM), and the launch of Prosper Africa and the new

Prosper Africa Trade and Investment (PATI) programme were all key policies and initiatives implemented by the Trump administration to strengthen the government's ability and support US commercial engagement in African markets. Prosper Africa has therefore represented the United States' economic strategy to the continent.

African students and instructors enrich the educational experience of U.S. students while also contributing to the growth of state's economies around college and university campuses. Since 1950, about 1.6 million African students have enrolled in American colleges and institutions. In 2019, African students made a \$1.7 billion contribution to the American economy. On the other hand, while partnering with local colleges and universities on the continent, US educational institutions are conducting ground breaking studies on a number of themes in Africa.

Furthermore, the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA), which was established in 2000 and is now extended through 2025, has long led to the success of US attempts to promote commerce with Africa. Correspondingly, nearly 91 percent of AGOA imports into the United States were duty-free in 2013. In 2013, 91 percent of imports from AGOA nations were duty-free in the United States. The African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) provided preferential trade incentives, which boosted export-import commerce between the two nations. Wheat, automobiles, machinery, kerosene, lubricating oils, jet fuel, civilian aircraft, and plastics are among the products exported by the United States to Nigeria as a result. Similarly, crude oil, cocoa, cashew nuts, and animal feed were among Nigeria's exports to the United States. (Jones,2015). Between 2001 and 2014, total two-way commerce between the US and AGOA nations were expanded, reaching over \$100 billion. AGOA's economic gains, however, were constrained in two respects. First, some measures existed before AGOA and were not changed by the law. Second, AGOA exempts sugar, tobacco, dairy, cattle, and processed agricultural items including dried garlic, canned peaches, and apricots from duty-free entry. Conversely, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) spent \$15 billion on overseas aid in 2001, with \$1.7 billion invested in Africa. Furthermore, USAID spent \$41 billion globally in 2014, with \$10 billion going to Africa. The US-Africa Leaders' Summit was launched in August of 2014 by Obama's administration. The summit resulted in three major initiatives: Power Africa, which aims to improve Africa's electric grid; Trade Africa, which focuses on economic development in East Africa (and a few other

countries on the continent); and the Young African Leaders Initiative (YALI), which provides internships to young Africans at businesses and government institutions. The US-Africa Leaders' Summit was unusual as it brought together the president of the United States and delegates from practically every African country. The White House unveiled \$33 billion in promises targeted at strengthening US connections with Africa, which was one of the summit's key centerpieces. However, because some of the promises came from corporations like Coca-Cola, GE, Marriott, and IBM, it may be stated that one of the Summit's main legacies was to signal a move away from government-led US-Africa connections and toward more private-sector-led relationships.

Moreover, the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA), the President's Malaria Initiative, the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR), Power Africa, the Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC), and the Young African Leaders Initiative (YALI), among others, have clearly made their mark, with a roadmap for charting a foreign policy course that aligns with the aspirations and values of African publics while remaining consistent with Americas' interests. Likewise, the United States Africa Command which took over responsibility for U.S. military operations have contributed to security in Africa.

5.0 CONCLUSION

United States' (US) foreign policies have been powerful tools in the state's arsenal for pursuing her goals. America national interest had therefore become the major hub for diplomatic relations across the world. Often, implementations of America foreign policy in Africa have resulted into win- win outcomes for both African states and U.S. Despite insistence of American interest in the foreign policy, foreign direct investment had propelled the economy of Africa states. Correspondingly, Africa nations' ability to attract Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) from U.S is premised on the availability of natural resources and the size of local markets. As a result, multinational firms are one of the most significant international economy drivers of Africa with a stimulating impact on emerging business trends, worldwide competitiveness on international markets, and the economy of states and nations wealth among others.

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United States (US) war on terror and socio-political developments in Afghanistan: Lessons for Africa

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Abstract

This paper examines the United States war on terror and its effect on the socio-political developments in Afghanistan; with consequent lessons for Africa. The paper further identified some motivating factors of terrorism and deployed the theoretical frame work of ‘General Strain Theory’ to situate the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States. The response of the US to the attacks constitutes a major world counter terrorism effort with far reaching consequences on Afghanistan and other countries known to have harboured terrorist elements. The secondary source of data collection was employed in this study. Our findings include heavy loss of human lives and a colossal destruction to the infrastructure in Afghanistan; in like manner, the economy of Afghanistan came its lowest ebb. The war intended to wipe out Islamic faith propelled terrorism using Afghanistan as its base, and later spread to various hideouts in neighboring Islamic states of Pakistan, Syria and Iraq. The paper in conclusion rejects a resort to extremism in advancing an ideological belief and advice for a people centred counter-terrorism as against one that depends entirely on military might.

Keywords: ISIS, Mujahedeen, Terrorism, Al-Qaeda and Taliban

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In more recent times, terrorism has assumed an enduring feature among the Arab world largely occasioned by extremist resistance to the civilization of the west considered inimical to the tenets of Islam. Various parts of the world have embraced terrorism as a mark of high resistance against western civilization. Islamic terrorism has gradually become a global challenge as it constitutes a genuine treat to peace and stability in various parts of Africa.

Terrorism is nurtured through protests, massive indoctrination and radicalization of the psyche of adherents, and eventually unleashed violence on their victims. The September 11 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States and the consequent devastating effects it brought to America and mankind prompted then United States president George W. Bush to declare ‘the war on terrorism’ and made it the center piece of US foreign policy, a war the United States fought with agility and a far-reaching determination (Jenkins, 2004)

The UN security council adopted resolution **1267** of 15th October 1999 declaring al-Qaeda and Taliban as terrorist organizations and imposed sanctions on their funding, travels and arms shipment as the first global response to addressing the menace of terrorism. This action prompted the dispersal of al-Qaeda and its leaders from Afghanistan and Pakistan to Sudan and returned to Afghanistan again in mid-1990(Gannon, 2001).

The global counter terrorism strategy is a clear initiative adopted under the Security Council resolution **1373** of 28 September 2001 designed to further respond to act of terrorism emerging in global affairs. The strategy established a counter terrorism center to monitor efforts to co-ordinate and counter acts of terrorism soon after the 9/11 terrorist attacks in the United States. It has an office known as office of counter-Terrorism that leads and co-ordinate all UN strategies to prevent and counter terrorism and all violent extremisms throughout the globe. The strategy among other things sends a clear message denouncing every act of terrorism and resolve to apply every practical step, either individually or collectively to combat the menace. (Rosand, et al, 2009) opined that US war on terror occurred in stages as well as on multiple fronts. These phases are discussed hereunder:

The first approach of the US involves setting preliminary targets where credence was given to diplomatic pressure – mounting, intelligence gathering, imposition of economic, financial and political sanctions against terrorist elements and their sponsors, the declaration of terrorist organizations and outlawing their existence, establishing coalition of allies and creating law enforcement co-operation.

The objectives of this study include unearthing the socio-political challenges of terrorism with particular reference to Afghanistan, the US rebuilding efforts in Afghanistan and the lessons Africa should derive from the global challenges of terrorism. The methodology applied in this study is the analysis carried out on secondary sources of data collection otherwise called the documentary or library research design.

2.0 CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

i. Islamic state of Iraq and the Levant (ISIS)

This is the sunni branch of Islamic faith-based organization formed by Abu Musab Al-Zarqawi in 1999 and assumed global attention in 2014 after US declared on terror over Afghanistan. In October 2006 ISIS joint Al-Qaeda and jointly transformed into Islamic state in Araq on April 8 2013. By June 2014 ISIS declared itself a caliphate and changed to IS (Islamic state) and exercise control over Libya, Egypt, Algeria, Saudi Arabia and Yemen in January 2015. Its reverberating influence spread up to South Asia and since 2015, extended its tentacles to Northern Nigeria upon collaboration with Boko Haram. Since March 2019 its headquarters has remained in Syria with Al-Baghuz Fawqani as its spiritual leader. IS, since 2014 has remained a theocracy, a proto-state jihadist group desirous of putting all territories under its foothold and under one central Islamic government (Adam, 2014).

ii. Terrorism

Terrorism as a concept assumes various definition from various scholars which nonetheless share common interpretation. Jenkins (2004) defines terrorism as the conscious use of violent means to create an atmosphere of fear designed to achieve a set objective. Acts of terrorism which are usually complex, controversial with devastating socio-political, consequences can be of either rightist or leftist leanings, sponsored by nationalistic or revolutionary tendencies, in some cases laced with religious, or ethnic or other sentimental colorations. Terrorism was first coined to describe the widespread violence that greeted the French revolution between 1789 and 1799, organized by the French revolutionaries against their conservative opponents (Livesey, 2001).

Although terrorism is not commonly defined, the extent to its reliance on fear separates terrorism from both conventional and guerrilla warfare. Terrorism becomes readily available when direct military victory is considered Impossible. This perception prompted some social scientists to link guerrilla warfare to “the weapon of the weak” and terrorism to “the weapon of the weaker”. Apart from its association with the dramatic, violent and high profile attacks on soft targets, terrorism largely leverages on hijackings, hostages takings, mass and indiscriminate shootings, car bombings and suicide bombings (Penney 2011).

iii. Mujahideen

This refers to all muslims who fights for the course of the Islamic states. The term was first used in India in the 19th Century to describe the muslim resistance to colonialism but applied in the 20th century to describe Islamic fundamentalism in Iran and Afghanistan. Mujahideen combines Marxism and Islamic fundamentalism to advance their course of Action- promoting the Islamic faith (Lupel, 2009). It is this group that deployed guerrilla tactics to counter the invading Soviet forces in Afghanistan and eventually overthrew the Soviet-imposed communist government between 1978-1992.

iv. Al-Qaeda

This is a sunni sect Islamic fundamentalist network established in Peshawar, Pakistan in 1988 by Osama bin Laden and several other Arab militants during the Soviet's invasion of Afghanistan. The group applied the jihadist approach to propagate the Islamic faith of extremism through out the territories under its control. It has various Islamic based state allies such as Pakistan, Islamic Emirate of Afghanistan and non-state allies like Taliban and Islamic state (IS). Al-Qaeda, since June 2011 is under the leadership of Ayman al-Zawahiri, upon the death of Osama bin Laden by the invading US forces.

v. Taliban

This is a jihadist political movement founded in Kandahar Afghanistan in September 1994 by Islamic clerics namely Mullah Omar and Abdul Ghani Baradar. This Islamic fundamentalist group introduced the Islamic code as the ideology of states and imposed it on all citizens of Afghanistan. Taliban had firm control over nearly 3-quarters of Afghanistan from 1996 -2001 when it was overthrown by the United States upon its declared war on terror. It has nonetheless recaptured Kabul and eventually seized power once again over Afghanistan on 15th August 2021 upon the exit of the US invading forces. This marked the end of the 20-year US 'war on terror' over Afghanistan. The Taliban has reintroduced Islamic creed as the way of life of all Afghans.

Theoretical Framework

Criminological theories, properly formulated, can provide the context for explaining terrorism and its causes in general terms. This strand of theories claims that terrorists are angry over certain

issues to the extent of getting frustrated. The theory discussed here under shall provide the needed understanding to the discourse.

General Strain Theory

This is a theory of criminology developed by Robert Agnew in 1992 (Paternoster,& Mazerolle,1994). The theory offers an appropriate understanding of the causes of terrorism. Agnew (1992) argues that both ‘strain’ and ‘grievances’ are the main precursor on terrorism which he attributes to the emergence and spread of various terrorism acts. He identified modernization neo- imperialism and neo-colonialism; deep rooted inter-ethnic hatred, financial and military supremacy of the US and the western world, religious disputes, racial discrimination, human right violation harsh state authoritarianism etc. are breeding grounds for terrorism to fester (Onwudiwe, et al, 2016). Generally, this theory attributes terrorism to a violent response against a failed political process and ethnic or religious adversaries among diverse and fundamental issues.

The theory defines issues that instigate or radicalize terrorist, their operational activities and the attendant effect of terrorism in a clear and unambiguous manner. The theoretical framework of this paper therefore shall be advanced under the above discussed theory.

Terrorism as a Global Challenge.

The emergence of terrorism to the 18th century Europe and has remained wide spread up to the 21st century with nearly all continents of the world recording various cases of terrorism. Terrorism index of countries, a survey published by trading economics .com in 2021 provides sufficient data to understand trend of terrorism in various countries of the world.

Below are three tables indicating 2020 terrorism index survey reports of selected 5 countries each in 3 continents namely; Asia (Arab), Africa and the West (Europe & America), picked in ascending order of severity, to show how pervasive terrorism has become in global affairs. The fourth table is the author’s ranking of terrorism among the countries examined in the three tables, after a synthesis

Table One:

Arab Countries

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Countries</i>	<i>Continent</i>	<i>2020 Terrorism Index</i>
1.	Afghanistan	Asia	9.59
2.	Iraq	Asia	8.68
3.	Syria	Asia	7.78
4.	Yemen	Asia	7.58
5.	Pakistan	Asia	7.54

Sources: Trading Economics, Terrorism Index countries, tradingeconomics.com survey published in 2021

Table Two:

African Countries

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Countries</i>	<i>Continent</i>	<i>2020 Terrorism Index</i>
1.	Nigeria	Africa	8.31
2.	Mali	Africa	7.05
3.	Egypt	Africa	6.42
4.	Libya	Africa	6.25
5.	Tunisia	Africa	3.86

Sources: Trading Economics, Terrorism Index countries, tradingeconomics.com survey published in 2021

Table Three:

West (Europe & America)

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Countries</i>	<i>Continent</i>	<i>2020 Terrorism Index</i>
1.	United Kingdom (UK)	Europe	5.16
2.	United States of America	America	5.26
3.	France	Europe	4.61
4.	Israel	Europe	4.32
5.	Germany	Europe	3.97

Sources: Trading Economics, Terrorism Index countries, tradingeconomics.com survey published in 2021

Ranking of Countries according to 2020 terrorism Index – Arab, Africa & Western Countries.

From the above three tables; we deduce as follows: -

Table four:

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Countries</i>	<i>Continent</i>	<i>2020 Terrorism Index</i>
1.	Afghanistan	Asia	9.59
2.	Iraq	Asia	8.68
3.	Nigeria	Africa	8.31
4.	Syria	Asia	7.78
5.	Yemen	Asia	7.58
6.	Pakistan	Asia	7.54
7.	Mali	Africa	7.05
8.	Egypt	Africa	6.42
9.	Libya	Africa	6.25
10.	United States	America	5.26
11.	United Kingdom	Europe	5.16
12.	France	Europe	4.61
13.	Israel	Europe	4.32

Source: Author's Computation

The place of Afghanistan in global terrorism.

The global war on terror describes the international military onslaught championed by the United State as a response to the September 11 terrorist attacks on US soft targets. The military campaign was primarily targeted at Al-Qaeda fundamentalists then with base in Afghanistan and its deep-rooted numerous franchise Islamic organizations. In other words, it was a war levied on all Islamic extremists who sponsored the September 11 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States of America.

What usually regarded as the post-cold war period ended abruptly on the morning of Tuesday September 11 2001 when the US declared war against international terrorism occasioned by the terrorist turning jetliners into weapon of mass destruction (Daalder & Lindsay, Dec 1 2001). President George W. bush made war on the terror the center piece of America's foreign and defence policy. The war fought against Islamic terrorists in Afghanistan not only became elongated but widespread, nasty and brutish with colossal loss of human and material resource because Osama Bin Laden's al-Qaeda terrorist network transcends Afghanistan borders.

Situating Afghanistan in the pre-US counter terrorism, Walsh (CNN, 7 Oct 2021) argues that US invasion of Afghanistan was primarily to control the economic fortunes of the country and its airspace. The country's infrastructural investments by the US are characterized by waste, fraud and abuse; as complaints were rife against the US reconstruction efforts in Afghanistan totalling

\$145 billion for the 20 years occupation. Walsh further accused the US for assuming indecent ways of life as civilization and refused to allow the Afghans exercise their rights and liberties over the conduct they considered vital to their existence. He felt so sad that the US never concede any liberty to Muslims to perform their Islamic creeds and reasoned that the unparalleled defeats they suffered in the hands of Taliban necessitated the massive propaganda they mounted on Taliban (Walsh, CNN 7 Oct 2021). To that extent, the validity of the US war on Afghanistan is partly justifiable and partly defeatist.

3. CHALLENGES CONFRONTING THE NEW TALIBAN GOVERNMENT OF A POST US INVADED AFGHANISTAN

Sewell (2021) reports that soon after the overthrow of the western backed Afghan government in October 2021, Taliban unilaterally formed an interim government contrary to Taliban earlier promise of a board base unity government and named Mullah Mohammed Hassan Akhud as its acting prime minister, with cabinet ministers and new top brass for the country's military.

Enormous challenges lie before the new Taliban- led government in Afghanistan ranging from fixing the damaged infrastructure left behind by the US inspired unity government headed by president Ghan, repaying huge financial debts it inherited and overcoming the daunting challenge of wielding unity among the inter- ethnic squabbles that tend to limit Afghan's steady growth and development.

The new cabinet has directed the commencement of issuance of passport and ID cards to Afghan's citizens. It is reported (state-run Bakhtar News Agency) that the new passports and IDs would be emblazoned with the name "The Islamic Emirate of Afghanistan" a name the new Taliban government has assumed as the official name for the country instead of the "Islamic Republic of the Afghanistan" the country's official name under the previous western backed Afghan government.

A challenge exists in a total of 38 new official appointments announced by Taliban supreme leader- Shaikh Haibatullah Akhundzada, which are all male religious clerics from the Pashtu ethnic group, amounting to disappointment for Afghans who Crave for a multi-ethnic interim government and one that includes women. Another challenge is in the complaint against appointment of a deputy-

prime minister, Mawlawi Abdul Kabir, a member of the Taliban's leadership council that served in key positions during the Taliban rule in Afghanistan in the late 1990s, an indication that the new government will perpetuate the old order in Afghanistan with a likelihood of the festering of Islamic extremism in Afghanistan.

Some of the notable reconstruction projects embarked upon in Afghanistan by the US has become albatross and the new Taliban government must commence a re-building process. The infrastructure that requires adequate attention include: -

The Tarakhil Power Plant

This plant was commissioned in 2007 as a backup generator for the capital Kabul, in case electricity supply from Uzbekistan was compromised. The project cost \$335 million to build an estimated annual fuel cost of \$245 million. This facility was reported to have been vandalized in the 2019 by the Taliban as they got frustrated over the slow pace of US troops withdrawal exercise (CNN, 7 October 2021).

A half-billion dollar fleet of Cargo planes that flew for a Year

In 2008, Pentagon acquired G222 – an Italian designed Airplane for Afghanistan's fledgling air force needed Cargo planes to the tune of \$549 million. After six years after delivering and launching, the 16 aircrafts were sold as scrap for \$40,251 out of a total cost of \$549million.

The \$36 Million Marines HQ in the Desert, neither Wanted nor Used.

In 2010, the US constructed a marine headquarters camp at Helmand, the deadliest part of Afghanistan, the project costs \$36 million. The project was never used and later stripped by the Afghans and eventually abandoned.

\$1.5 Million spent daily on Fighting Opium Production

The US spent \$1.5 million per day on counter-narcotics program spanning between 2002 to 2018; yet Opium production, from the 2021 report still went up in 2020 by 37% compared to the previous year.

\$249 million on an incomplete road Project

A multiple ring road project around Afghanistan was funded by multiple grants and donors totalling billion dollars during the war. A total of \$249 million have been paid to the contractor

with only 15% of the project delivered, as contained in the SIGAR audited report (CNN, 7 Oct 2021).

Terrorism in Africa

Terrorism is not restricted to Central Asia and the middle East, Africa and other parts of the world have received their fair share of the global scourge. The global terrorism index published in 2021 credits Africa with 31.5 percent of the global terrorist attacks assessment while Asia is recorded with 31.3 percent (Terrorism index survey published in 2021).

Evidence of incursion of terrorism into Africa in the 20th century has become legendary. Africa is severely affected by sub-state terrorism- a phenomenon that is deeply rooted in the crises being faced by a number of African states. Africa as the world's second largest and most populated continent in recent times have to grapple with this social phenomenon. While it is true that in the 20th century when colonialism held sway in Africa, the tendency was for weak, corrupt colonial backed regimes to brand their political opponents and independence promoters as terrorist; recent events in most African states are forced a rethink among scholars on the terror equation. Several African states now beset with the challenge of waging war on terrorism, not necessarily as state sponsored but largely as a phenomenon induced by social discontents and the unending sprout of religious bellicosity.

Terrorism in Africa is laced with complexities. If we accept terrorism as the application of violence and intimidation against un-armed civilians, then several African governments have committed acts of terror. It has become of normal occurrence for highly factionalized African states to witness insurgency as ways to resist states perceived oppression or to cow opponent within a given state to submission; which are all evidence of a failure to de-escalate conflicts.

The religious dimension to the festering of terrorism appears to have a firm root in Africa in recent times. The bombings of US embassies in Nairobi, Kenya and Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania in 1998 where over 200 people died are generally ascribed to terrorist acts of Al-Qaeda, thus focusing attention to activities of religious Islamic fundamentalists on African soil. Several bombings, attacks, kidnappings and massive destruction to infrastructure in North eastern Nigeria courtesy of Islamic terrorist organization named Boko Haram, an affiliate of Al-Qaeda has held Nigeria

hostage. In various parts of Africa, terrorism appears to fester on the paradigm of poor governance, structural failure, weak state security and high poverty rates as necessary impetus.

4.0 AFTERMATH OF US WAR ON TERROR: LESSONS FOR AFRICA

The fall with relative ease of the US inspired Afghan's government in October 2021 and a return to strict Islamic tenets in Afghanistan has renewed the thoughts that a possible victory of Jihadist terrorist groups in Africa is imminent. The sustained terrorist attacks on African states who are already groaning under weak institutions and the prevalence of corruptive tendencies puts a serious strain on their efforts to combat the rampaging terrorist. Countries such as Mali with its high corruption index, lack of political cohesion and compromised armed forces could be overwhelmed by jihadist groups anytime soon, the botched 2013 episode as a classic reminder.

In the same manner, Nigeria, the most populous country in Africa and with the strongest economy has been under severe attacks since 2002 by Boko Haram, a radical Islamic fundamentalist group with link to Al-Qaeda and IS, with little resistance from the Nigerian armed forces. The attacks have taken heavy tones on Human lives and inflicted heavy damage on state infrastructure in North east region of Nigeria, with a likelihood of reverberating same beyond the region they presently hold sway. Efforts of the Nigerian armed forces and a multi-lateral support of external armed forces have not succeeded to quell the terrorist onslaught. Again, weak and compromised armed forces, high corruption rate, religious bigotry of state actors provides the needed fuel to ignite and sustain the advancement of the Boko Haram Jihadists. On its trail African states concerned are been overstretched in re-building the collapsed infrastructure arising from terrorist attacks.

To restore stability in Afghanistan as well as African States bedevilled by acts of terrorism, primary focus must be shifted away from the quest to militarily subdue terrorist or insurgent groups to renewed efforts in tackling the indices of poor governance and stimulate the growth of development. In other words, political solutions to address socioeconomic challenges associated with military actions deployed to repress act of terrorism should be embarked upon. To make military action a stand-alone option is to prolong the crisis of development in terrorism prone states of the world. Further to prevent a continuous terrorist attack, the next generation of counter terrorism must be people centered, not a reliance on military might alone.

5. CONCLUSION

Terrorism remains a major challenge as the world continue to live in fear over its devastating effects on life, property and human development indices. Acts of Terror that is of common occurrence in Arab states courtesy of Islamic fundamentalism is now an exported commodity outside Asia and has become widespread with regular terrorist attacks in Africa in countries like Nigeria, Mali, Egypt and Libya as shown in this study. Thus, the world needs to unite to engender a sustainable global coalition to stamp out its existence from all corners of the world. In this connection, the United Nations should be far reaching in enforcing relevant anti-terror laws and promptly round up all terrorist elements and put them on trial. The United Nations and its specialized Agencies must also exhibit the needed commitments to mitigate the negative effects of terrorism throughout the globe.

This study has thus shown that terrorism is now a global social malaise with nearly all continents of the world receiving their fair share. Various acts of terror in various parts of the globe particularly the September 11 terrorist attacks on US took the world by the storm in terms of its intensity and the resultant damages. The effects, devastating as they are, received coordinated response from the US and its allies, which again left a trade mark of ruins and devastation in Afghanistan, the epicenter of the global war on terror.

Our findings also include colossal damage to the infrastructure in Afghanistan, unprecedented loss to human lives and a radical socio re-engineering of Afghan lives, courtesy of the US invasion, from Islamic creed of behaviours of Afghans to the embrace of democratic tenets of social behavior. African leadership must learn from the above and fight terrorism and enshrine a proper democratic order to forestall against the dissatisfaction from different ethnic and religious groups.

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Oil Price Shocks and Unemployment in Nigeria: A Non-Linear ARDL Approach

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Abstract

A developing country like Nigeria is heavily dependent on the crude oil exports as source of revenue as well as on refined oil as inputs for almost every industrial sector. Therefore, shocks in crude oil prices might affect macroeconomic stability and thus unemployment rate for the country. Similarly, shocks in domestic oil prices, increases inputs cost, consequently increasing production costs and unemployment rate. Existing literature has mostly focused on the relationship between unemployment and oil prices of developed countries. The current study uses the annual data from developing country Nigeria to investigate the relationship between oil price shocks and unemployment. The period of study is 1975–2020, making 45 observations of each variable for analysis and employing Non-linear autoregressive distributed lag (NARDL) method of analysis. The results of current study suggest the significant effect of crude oil price shocks and gross domestic product (GDP) on unemployment. There is asymmetry in the relationship between increase and decrease in crude oil prices since both coefficients are not equal hence, there is no equal and opposite effect for increasing and decreasing crude oil prices. However, the effect of decreasing crude oil price on unemployment was far greater than increasing crude oil price. This indicates that decreasing crude oil prices in Nigeria leads to higher job creation as compared to the amount of job destruction with the increase in crude oil prices. There is, therefore, the need for Nigeria to diversify her economy. Furthermore, diagnostic tests reveal that there is no issue of autocorrelation, heteroskedsticity, mis-specification, and non-normality at 5% level. It can be concluded from the results that crude oil price and GDP can be used in long-run to improve the forecasting of unemployment in Nigeria.

Keywords: Crude oil prices, Unemployment, GDP, NARDL.

JEL Classification: C22, E39, Q43

1.0 INTRODUCTION

There has been interest in understanding the causes and consequences of oil price shocks ever since the 1970s. Oil price shocks have been blamed for U.S. recessions and for higher inflation, for a slowdown in U.S. productivity in the 1970s, and for stagflation (Hamilton, 2003). The extant literature has suggested various transmission channels for the possible impact of oil price shocks on economic activity (Brown & Yucel, 2002). The rising oil prices leads to the increase in the prices of petroleum products, energy bills (consumers, industries, government) and production costs, consequently

increasing the unit production cost and lowering the productivity level. The decline in productivity directly affects the unemployment rate, real wage rate, product selling price, consumption level, investments, interest rate and inflation rate (Loungani, 1986). This association of oil prices with productivity and unemployment is not only valid for the manufacturing economies but also for the agriculture dependent economies (Uri, 1995). As Nigeria is an agricultural and oil exporting country, this association may or may not hold true for the Nigerian economy.

It is argued that unemployment is one of the important macroeconomic issues that all governments and economies face. It has both social and economic implications for all economies; hence governments try to adopt policies that help in increasing employment rate. Moreover, policy-makers study various factors and phenomena that may have effect on increasing unemployment and come up with new suggestions and policies to improve employment rate. It is believed that developed countries have lower unemployment rate than the developing economies (Fields, 2011), because of the government policies to increase employment.

The objective of this paper is to examine the impact of oil price shocks on unemployment in Nigeria from 1975 to 2020. A non-linear auto-regressive distributed lag (NARDL) model was employed for estimation. The paper is divided into five sections, following this introduction is section two which presents the literature review, theoretical and empirical discourse. Section three is the methodology and analysis of NARDL, while section four presented the results and discussed the findings. Finally, section five concludes the paper.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Framework

Concept of Oil Price Shock

The oil price shock as used in this study is the jolt, often unpredictable rise or fall in the international price of crude oil. There are economic theories of the transmission of oil price shocks, carefully distinguishing between the direct effects of an exogenous oil price shock and the indirect effects that may give rise to asymmetric responses of the economy, depending on whether the oil price shock is positive or negative. These are flow supply shocks (Hamilton, 2003) and flow demand shocks (Barsky & Kilian, 2002).

Concept of Unemployment

There is no universal standard definition of unemployment as various countries adopt definitions to suit their local priorities. Virtually all countries however use the International Labour Organization (ILO) definition, or a variant of it to compute unemployment. The ILO definition covers persons aged 15-64 who during the reference period (which is usually a week preceding the time the survey is administered) were available for work, actively seeking work, but were unable to find work (NBS, 2016).

The unemployment rate is expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons available for employment at any time. According to Briggs (1973) unemployment is the difference between the amounts of labor employed at current wage and working conditions, and the amount of labor not hired at these levels. Gbosi (1997) defined unemployment as a situation in which people who are willing to work at the prevailing wage rate are unable to find jobs. Unemployment is caused due to a lot of factors including economic recession or depression, overregulation which increases cost of operation and reduces profit of the businesses, lack of requisite skills and lack of information about job opportunities, among others.

Theoretical Discourse

Theory of Resource Curse

The resource curse concept was introduced by Richard Auty in his book “Sustaining Growth in Mineral economies” (1993). The resource curse refers to the phenomenon of worse economic performance in resource-abundant countries comparing to resource-poor countries (Auty, 1993). It can be seen that the definition of the resource curse is quite loose, and this causes loopholes in the whole theory of the resource curse. There is neither universally accepted resource curse theory nor explanation of this phenomenon. After the extensive literature review, three main resource curse models were identified: the Dutch disease, rent-seeking and institutions models.

The majority of the relevant research is based on these three models or their modified versions. The institutions model was used to analyze this study.

The Institutions Model

The following institutions model combines both institutions and rent-seeking in the analysis. Mehlum, Moene, and Torvik, (2006) developed institutions model, which focuses on the role of rent-seeking and institutions in resource abundant countries. Comparing to Tornell and Lane's (1999) rent-seeking model, Mehlum, Moene, and Torvik, (2006) consider that some forms of rent-seeking might be less harmful than others. Moreover, institutions model analytically connects institutions with rent-seeking making the model more developed. Still in institutions model, institutions are the decisive factor of how natural resources abundance affects economic growth (Mehlum, Moene & Torvik, 2006)). They wrote that natural resources abundance puts institutions to some kind of test, and thus Resource Curse appears only in countries with inferior institutional arrangements. The examples supporting institutions model are natural resources lead economic growth winners Botswana and Norway, which have good institutions and low level of corruption. However, countries with inferior institutions such as Nigeria, Venezuela, Mexico and Congo have worse economic performance comparing to Botswana and Norway. The mix of weak institutions and natural resource abundance causes the resource curse.

The main finding of the study by Mehlum, Moene, and Torvik, (2006) is that natural resources abundance does hinder economic growth only in countries with grabber friendly institutions, while countries with producer friendly institutions are not affected by resource curse. Thus, institutions model rejects the Dutch disease model's unconditional negative correlation between the resource abundance and economic growth. To fully understand the role of institutions Mehlum, Moene, and Torvik, (2006) incorporate rent-seeking and focus on the tension between special forms of rent-seeking and production.

The Asymmetry-in-effects theory of economic growth and Oil Price Shock.

The Asymmetry-in-effects theory of economic growth used the U.S economy as a case study. The theory posits that the correlation between crude oil price decreases and economic activities in the U.S economy is significantly different and perhaps zero. Mark, Olsen and Mysisen (1994), members of this school in a study of some African countries, confirmed the asymmetry in effect of oi price volatility on economic growth. Ferderer (1996) another member of this school explained the asymmetric mechanism between the influence of oil price volatility and economic growth by

focusing on three possible ways: Counter-inflationary monetary policy, sectoral shocks and uncertainty. He finds a significant relationship between oil price increases and counter-inflationary policy responses. Balke (1996) supports Federer's position/submission. He posited that monetary policy alone cannot sufficiently explain real effects of oil price volatility on real GDP.

However, this study adopts the nonlinear/asymmetric relationship theory of growth and oil price volatility because the estimation models the study used presumed nonlinearity and asymmetric relations among the variables.

Empirical Literature

The oil price shock of 1973 and the subsequent recession gave rise to a plethora of studies analyzing the effects of oil price increases on the economy. The early studies included Darby (1982) and Hamilton (2003), all of which documented and explained the inverse relationship between oil price increases and aggregate economic activity. Later empirical studies such as, Gisser and Goodwin (1986) and the study on Energy Modeling Forum as documented in Hickman et al. (1987)—confirmed the inverse relationship between oil prices and aggregate economic activity. Hamilton (1983) made a definitive contribution by extending the analysis to show that all but one of the post-World-War-II recessions were preceded by rising oil prices and those other business cycle variables could not account for the recessions. This is also evident in the 2008 economic meltdown.

If wages are nominally sticky downward, the reduction in GDP growth will lead to increased unemployment and a further reduction in GDP growth—unless unexpected inflation increases as much as GDP growth falls. The initial reduction in GDP growth is accompanied by a reduction in labour productivity. Unless real wages fall by as much as the reduction in labour productivity, firms will lay off workers, which will generate increased unemployment and further GDP losses. If wages are nominally sticky downward, the only mechanism through which the necessary wage reduction can occur is through unexpected inflation that is at least as great as the reduction in GDP growth.

Cuestas and Gil-Alana (2018) examine the effect of oil price shocks on unemployment in Central and Eastern Europe applying the NARDL methodology. They did this by disentangling oil prices movement by their sign and from there they analyze the separate effects of positive and negative

movements of oil prices on unemployment rates. They find that, although oil prices and unemployment are not correlated very much in the short-run, the effect of oil shocks on the natural rate of unemployment goes in the same direction, so that increases or decreases in oil prices increase and decrease the natural rate of unemployment.

Uri (1996) investigated the link between oil price volatility and unemployment in the United States between 1890 and 1994 using error correction method (ECM). The findings from his study show that oil price volatility and unemployment were cointegrated and that the speed of adjustment towards the long-run equilibrium would take 3 years from the short-run disequilibrium.

Raifu, Aminu and Folawewo (2020) investigate the relationship between changes in oil prices and unemployment rate in Nigeria, using linear and nonlinear autoregressive distributed lag approaches. Their findings from linear ARDL show that changes in oil prices have little or no significant effects on unemployment rate. The NARDL results indicate that an increase and a decrease in oil prices have an insignificant positive effect on unemployment in the short run. However, in the long run, an increase in oil prices worsens unemployment situation, while a decrease has insignificant reducing effect. They also find evidence of a long-run asymmetric relationship between oil prices and unemployment. The need for government to invest oil revenues in generating more electricity or in providing alternative sources of energy with the objective to reduce the costs of production of firms is recommended by them.

However, studies in Nigeria such as Olusegun (2008), Christopher and Benedikt (2006) and Philip and Akintoye (2006) did not find any significant impact of oil price shock on variables like money supply, price level, and output and government expenditure. The present study is unique because it presumed nonlinearity and asymmetric relations among the variables in Nigeria from 1975 to 2020.

Objectives

The main objective of this study is to examine the channels through which world crude oil price shocks transmit into unemployment in Nigeria. The specific objectives were:

- i. To estimate the effect of world crude oil price positive changes on Nigeria's unemployment rate.

- ii. To estimate the effect of world crude oil price negative changes on Nigeria’s unemployment rate.

3.0 METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

The study adopts a time series expo-facto research design. Time series expo factor research design is a method of research that can truly test hypotheses concerning cause-and-effect relationships, as well as combines the theoretical consideration with empirical observation.

ARDL is a new method proposed by Pesaran, Shin and Smith (2001) to circumvent the problems inherent in the existing procedures. The ARDL cointegration test is applicable regardless of whether all the variables are I(0) or I(1) or some are I(0) and some are I(1). It is applicable even if the sample size is small. ARDL is used for both (i) testing the long-run relationship and (ii) estimating the long-run parameters. ARDL model equation is specified as:

$$\Delta\gamma_t = \phi_0 + \delta_1\gamma_{t-1} + \delta_2X_{1t-1} + \delta_2X_{2t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^k \phi_{1i} \Delta\gamma_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^k \phi_{2i} \Delta X_{1t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^k \phi_{3i} \Delta X_{2t-i} + \mu_t \quad (1)$$

Where Y_t is the present value of dependent variable Y, Y_{t-1} is its lagged value of Y, X is independent variable or regressor and U is the error term. The lag length can be chosen based on an information criterion (AIC, SC) or serially uncorrelated errors. The following restrictions using Wald-F test can be tested, and comparison between the test with the lower and upper critical values (Bounds testing procedure) as given by Pesaran et al. (2001) or Narayan (2005) is made:

- i. If F-stat exceeds upper bound = There is cointegration.
- ii. If F-stat is below lower bound = There is no cointegration.
- iii. If F-stat within the bounds = It is inconclusive.

NARDL Setup

$$\Delta\gamma_t = \rho\gamma_{t-1} + \theta^+ X_{t-1}^+ + \theta^- X_{t-1}^- + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \phi_j \Delta\gamma_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} (\pi_j^+ \Delta X_{t-j}^+ + \pi_j^- \Delta X_{t-j}^-) + e_t \quad (2)$$

for j = 1, ..., q, where $\theta^+ = -\rho\beta^+$ and $\theta^- = -\rho\beta^-$

Where Y_t is the present value of dependent variable Y , and Y_{t-1} is the lagged value of Y , X is independent variable or regressor, θ^- is decreasing portion of X and θ^+ is increasing portion of X while U is error term.

Steps in NARDL

This empirical analysis follows four steps; namely, step one is concerned with the estimation of model (Eqn. 2) which can be estimated by standard OLS, ARDL (found in Eviews 10 or STATA). Step two is the establishment of long-run relationship between the levels of the variables y_t, x_t^+, x_t^- ; by means of a modified F-test, while using the bounds-testing procedure advanced by Pesaran et al (2001) and Shin et al (2011), which refers to the joint null, $\rho = \theta^+ = \theta^-$ in equation (2). In step three, using the Wald test, we examine for; long-run symmetry where, $\theta = \theta^+ = \theta^-$ and short-run symmetry which can take one of the following forms $\pi_i^+ = \pi_i^-$ for all $i = 1, \dots, q$ or (ii) $\sum_{i=1}^q \pi_i^+ = \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_i^-$. Finally in step four we use the asymmetric ARDL model (2) to derive the asymmetric cumulative dynamic multiplier effects of a unit change in x_t^+ and x_t^- , respectively on y_t .

Model Specification

Incorporating our macroeconomic model into the NARDL model in equation 1, and in simplified form, we have;

$$Y_t = a_0 + B_1 XIP + B_2 XIN + B_3 LGDP + U_t.$$

Where B_1, B_2 and B_3 are parameters of the variables,

Y is natural log of Unemployment.

XIP is natural log of Oil prices increasing portion.

XIN is natural log of oil prices decreasing portion.

$LGDP$ is natural log of real GDP.

Real GDP was chosen as a control variable as well as an asymmetric variable.

4.0 MODEL ESTIMATION

The following is the estimation command of the NARDL model in the STATA module:

nardl lun oil, p(2) q(2) horizon(2) deterministic(lgdp).

The estimation output is on table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: NARDL Results

Regression results (variables renamed):

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	4.67440355	9	.519378172	Number of obs = 45		
Residual	4.41199152	35	.126056901	F(9, 35) = 4.12		
Total	9.08639507	44	.206508979	Prob > F = 0.0011		
				R-squared = 0.5144		
				Adj R-squared = 0.3896		
				Root MSE = .35504		

_dy	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
_y						
L1.	-.6464291	.1620286	-3.99	0.000	-.9753646	-.3174935
_x1p						
L1.	.4395009	.1939868	2.27	0.030	.0456868	.8333149
_x1n						
L1.	-.7691019	.4094846	-1.88	0.069	-1.6004	.062196
_dy						
L1.	.1492502	.1542869	0.97	0.340	-.1639689	.4624693
_dx1p						
--.	.8877811	.2129623	4.17	0.000	.4554448	1.320118
L1.	-.2777741	.2090889	-1.33	0.193	-.7022471	.1466989
_dx1n						
--.	-.7141019	.5397172	-1.32	0.194	-1.809786	.3815822
L1.	.8582671	.7938565	1.08	0.287	-.7533473	2.469882
lgdp	-.4873246	.2102744	-2.32	0.026	-.9142044	-.0604448
_cons	11.81468	4.956892	2.38	0.023	1.751657	21.87771

Here the convergence coefficient is -0.64 which is negative and significant showing that if there is 1% random shock from independent variables the shock will be corrected 0.64% each time period.

This indicates that decreasing oil prices in Nigeria leads to higher job creation as compared to the amount of job destruction with the increase in oil prices.

While GDP is used as a symmetric variable, it is showing that increase in GDP will lead to decrease in rate of unemployment by 0.48% on average.

Table 4.4: Model Diagnostics

Model diagnostics	stat.	p-value
Portmanteau test up to lag 20 (chi2)	23.89	0.2470
Breusch/Pagan heteroskedasticity test (chi2)	.2563	0.6127
Ramsey RESET test (F)	2.309	0.0951
Jarque-Bera test on normality (chi2)	1.364	0.5056

Above diagnostic tests revealed that there is no issue of autocorrelation, heteroskedsticity, misspecification, and non-normality at 5% level.

Policy Implications

The results of current study suggested the significant effect of crude oil price shocks and GDP on unemployment. This has policy implication on macroeconomic management in Nigeria. Furthermore, since there is asymmetry in the relationship between increase and decrease in crude oil prices because both coefficients are not equal hence, there is no equal and opposite effect for increasing and decreasing crude oil prices. In fact, Nigeria has no control on international price of crude oil as it is exogenously determined. Hence, she cannot increase employment by increasing or decreasing crude oil price. However, the effect of decreasing crude oil price on unemployment was far greater than increasing crude oil price. This indicates that decreasing oil prices in Nigeria leads to higher job creation as compared to the amount of job destruction with the increase in oil prices. These findings confirm the argument that the crude oil industry is capital-intensive and as such, does not generate much employment. There is need for Nigeria to diversify her economy.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND POLICY OPTIONS

The study carried out an assessment of the effect of oil price shock on unemployment in Nigeria. It employed the NARDL estimation technique with a 45 year data point sourced from NBS, CBN statistical bulletin and World Bank’s World Development Indicators. Evidence from the study

supports the existence of long-run cointegration relationship among the variables (oil price increase, oil price decrease, GDP and unemployment). Findings from study showed that there is asymmetry in the relationship between increase and decrease in crude oil prices because both coefficients are not equal hence, there is no equal and opposite effect for increasing and decreasing crude oil prices. However, the effect of decreasing crude oil price on unemployment was far greater than increasing crude oil price. This indicates that decreasing oil prices in Nigeria leads to higher job creation as compared to the amount of job destruction with the increase in oil prices. These findings confirm the argument that the crude oil industry is capital-intensive and as such, does not generate much employment. There is need for Nigeria to diversify her economy to non-oil sectors as well as to ensuring that appropriate fiscal and monetary policy frameworks are put in place to stimulate economic growth which will in turn generate employment.

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Peacebuilding: A Conceptual Discourse on Broadening the Scope and Scale

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Abstract

The literature in the field of peacebuilding underscores a dynamic multidimensional exercise with variety of tasks that involve diverse instruments and actors, and has undergone series of changes globally. The objective of the paper is to tease out the conceptual imperativeness of the term by providing an overview of the various conceptualization and narration that have contributed to the understanding of peacebuilding and how it has been operationalize in relation to tasks, context and actors to expand the frontiers of knowledge. The paper begins with conceptual mapping and definition of the foundational trajectory and broadening the scope and scale of peacebuilding. Afterward, the paper positioned peacebuilding within the broader concept of security: human security, civil-military relations, security sector reforms, reconciliation, development, peace and conflict impact assessment (PCIA). The paper raised concerns about the enthusiasm in peacebuilding practices and the challenge of what criteria, standard and methodology that could be used to evaluate peacebuilding activities.

Keywords: Peacebuilding, Discourse, Human Security, Reconciliation, Theory and Practice

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Peace within the conflict web cannot only be kept or made, but can also be built by developing an architecture or a strategic framework that integrates development/humanitarian and security/regulation and approaches to reduce violent conflict and its debilitating impact. The outbreak of violent conflict demands an immediate response; however, it does require a long-term vision to respond effectively in order to transform such conflict. Thus, response to conflict depends on thoughtful actions to move from the alteration phase which include negotiation and cessation of hostilities to a consolidation phase, which is peacebuilding. The conceptualization of peacebuilding had an intellectual formation in which the term was equated, not only with a certain confused body of doctrine and scope, but also with general enlightenment of a better world to be built. Much of the extant literature on peacebuilding examined its complex character as a multidimensional exercise with variety of tasks that involve diverse instruments and actors. Thus,

the literature in the field of peacebuilding, as it were, provides a number of themes, specifically orchestrated to address the broad spectrum of issues involved in the evolution discourse and practice. For the purpose of this discourse, these themes can be categorized as conceptualization and definition of peacebuilding in the context of typology and history of broadening the scope and scale of peacebuilding in order to position peacebuilding within the broader concept of security: human security, civil-military relations, security sector reforms, reconciliation, development, peace and conflict impact assessment (PCIA).

2.0 DEFINITION AND CONCEPTUALIZATION OF PEACEBUILDING

The denotative and connotative dimension of the term peacebuilding as explained by extant literature is multifaceted and multidimensional, which like the term conflict poses intractable problems of identification, classification and analysis. According to Tschirgi (2003) the term peacebuilding “has broadened its scope in the 1990s to encompass the overlapping agenda for peace and development... Yet, peacebuilding remains an amorphous and evolving project that continues to be tested, contested and challenged by many quarters” (Tschirgi, 2003:1). Similarly, Schirch (2008) drawing from Robert Miller (2004) corroborate this fact when she surmised that the term “peacebuilding is in its etymological adolescence – it is gangly and undefined (Robert Miller cited in Schirch 2008:2). The field of peacebuilding is an aggregate concept which did not originate out of a central place. Rather, according to Lisa Schirch “the work of peacebuilding took root in different cultures around the world. It is not surprising then, that peacebuilding practitioners have developed different terminology” (Schirch, 2008:2). In this sense, the term peacebuilding has been defined and conceptualized in various ways by different scholars, policymakers and field practitioners in line with associated timeline, significant priorities and tasks involved. Consequently, there is a growing sense of confusion in terms of the terminology or language in the field of peacebuilding in relation to the challenges that confronts coordination efforts.

The conceptual origin of peacebuilding can be ascribed to the pioneering works of Johann Galtung, when he coined the term in one of his articles “Three Approaches to Peace: Peacekeeping, Peacemaking and Peacebuilding”. The article remains a scholarly antecedent of current developments of peacebuilding as it explores the objective of creating sustainable peace by addressing the root causes of violent conflicts. Galtung’s seminal essay provided a three-vertex

framework (Sarigiannidis, 2007:522) and represents the first account of the term in peace literature in relation to social change which others have built on. For instance, the International Peace Academy, among others, has followed Galtung's lead in defining peacebuilding as social change and development directed toward reducing inequity and injustice (Fisher, 1993:250).

Although the concept and aims of peacebuilding may overlap with those of peacemaking, peacekeeping and conflict resolution, peacebuilding as a concept remains a distinct idea. The UN concept of "peacebuilding underpins the work of peacemaking and peacekeeping by addressing structural issues and long-term relationship between conflictants" (Ramsbotham, Woodhouse and Miall, 2006:30). But more significantly, the 1992 presentation of *An Agenda for Peace* to by the then UN Secretary General, Boutros Boutros-Ghali marked a landmark departure when peacebuilding was introduced into its lexicon. Both Galtung and Boutros-Ghali discussed peacebuilding in connection with the related concepts and activities of peacemaking and peacekeeping (Atack, 2003:18). However, what was new in Boutros Boutros-Ghali's formulation, and what caught the world's attention, was a realization that the end of the Cold War opened new possibilities for international action (Tschirgi, 2004: 2). The concept as conceived then was predicated on a complementary scale with preventive diplomacy, peacemaking and peacekeeping in the critical related perspective with peacebuilding. Ostensibly, Boutros-Ghali saw peacebuilding as an integral part of the UN system to provide a seamless and comprehensive strategy for dealing with violent conflicts (Keating and Knight, 2004: xxxv).

Without a doubt, the UN conceptualization of peacebuilding since Boutros Ghali's definition has stimulated discourse that challenged and drew out critical issues that depict contending positions among scholars, organizations, practitioners and donor agencies. For instance, the inclusion of so many activities, levels and actors under the umbrella term peacebuilding, according to Liamazares (2005), "has rendered its definition so broad that it is in danger of becoming meaningless" (Liamazares 2005:2-3). Similarly, Ana Cutter (2005) corroborates this fact when she submitted that the "definition of peace-building tend to encompass such vast ranges of activities and actors that the term becomes useless" (Cutter, 2005:780). But for Lisa Schirch, peacebuilding is "strategic when resources, actors, and approaches are coordinated to accomplish multiple goals and address multiple issues for the long-term" (Schirch, 2008:8). According to her, the definition by Boutros-

Ghali has only “relegated peacebuilding to the post conflict phase of UN activities” (Schirch, 2008:10).

Haugerudbraaten (1998) identified that a fundamental definitional deficit was present at the outset of *An Agenda for Peace* and the precise definition of the term peacebuilding “has remained an unclear concept and has remained so ever since (Haugerudbraaten 1998:1). Furthermore, he acknowledged the inherent divergence and interpretation in explaining one single term, “yet more often than not, the definitions in the literature are either weakly elaborated or entirely absent ... that a comprehensive theory of peacebuilding is for now a far-flung effort” (Haugerudbraaten, 1998:1). However, in an attempt at shifting conceptual ambiguities, he placed a caveat to avoid the conceptual confusion with an obvious prescription “that for the concept of peacebuilding to realize the potential that is widely accorded to it, it is imperative that the term is employed with care and accuracy” (Haugerudbraaten, 1998:2). However, barely after two decades after Haugerudbraaten’s claim, the term has assumed a definitive path and framework to address political conflict, governance challenges, and structural roots causes of violent conflict. (Schirch, 2018:239)

3.0 BROADENING THE SCOPE AND SCALE OF PEACEBUILDING

The key document and foundational decision by the UN on peacebuilding is *An Agenda for Peace*. It has obviously stimulated increased interaction between peace and issues related to development, democratization and human security (Tschirgi 2004:2). Since its introduction in 1992, peacebuilding within the UN framework has undergone several modification and expansion. First in the series of such modification was the *Supplement to An Agenda for Peace* published in 1995. It was specifically intended to expand the UN concept of peacebuilding beyond the post conflict stage to include all phases of conflict. Second, *An Inventory of Post – Conflict Peace-Building Activities* was published in the 1996 as an outcome of UN inter-departmental task force to identify peacebuilding activities and tasks for the various UN agencies. The ambiguity in the earlier nature and scope of UN global peacebuilding appears to diminish with the delineation of various tasks in its 1994 successive publications of *An Agenda for Development and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Report on Human Security* as well as *An agenda for Democratization* 1996. The UN successive and continued quest to clarify the conceptual framework of peacebuilding

cannot be isolated from the peacebuilding vision of Boutros Boutros-Ghali. Notably, his contribution not only reshaped the term and UN peacebuilding activities but provided a seemingly prospect of expanding peacebuilding beyond the confinement of post-conflict situation. Thus, it became expedient for the UN to provide a normative framework for peacebuilding to avoid the continued assault and complicated challenge of implementing the integrated peacebuilding activity. Consequently, theory and practice have strove to avoid restrictive conceptualization that may paradoxically, undermine the prospects for sustainable peace

Prior to the various reviews, UN peacebuilding efforts between 1991 and 2001, especially in the 1990s, were integral parts and closely interlinked with its peacekeeping operations. The UN redefinition of peacebuilding and expansion of its scope were made through special Committees. One of such Committees was the Panel on United Nations Peace Operations in the year 2000, popular known as *Brahimi Report*. The *Report* noted the more recent origin of the term and concluded that “effective peacebuilding is, in effect, a hybrid of political and development activities at the source of conflict” (Brahimi Report, 2000: para 44). In this context, the Department of Political Affairs (DPA) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) were created to coordinate political and development outcomes respectively. Similarly, in 2003, the redefinition and modification of peacebuilding continued with the Committee on the Review of Technical Cooperation in the United Nations. The mandate of the committee was to “identify ways in which different parts of the UN system might properly work together to devise country specific peacebuilding strategies” (Tschirgi 2004:3). Essentially, the outcome of this particular review was the introduction of UN Peacebuilding Architecture consisting of the Peacebuilding Commission and Support Office in 2004 and Peacebuilding Fund in 2005. Suffice that it was a measure to fill the gap of institutional deficit in the UN system

Peacebuilding in its original concept attempt to devise strategic plans to assist societies recovering from violent conflicts, most studies on peace building interventions focus on preventive action and the related activities. Thus, it has been used in different contexts in relation to specific activities such as democratisation efforts, reconstruction of infrastructure, and reintegration of ex-combatants in post-conflict societies. For instance, Scholars like Luc Reyehler (1997) considers pre-conflict peacebuilding as a kind of early warning mechanism to monitor conflict triggers or

catalysts and address the underlying root sources of conflict, which may be considered as latent or a conflict situation that is still in ‘sleeping phase (Reychler 1997:61). Similarly, the works of Jean Paul Lederach, a prominent Mennonite scholar on peacebuilding, has contributed to the expansion of peacebuilding through a paradigm shift that is less than a radical approach as he proposes a different concept of peacebuilding with his conceptual frameworks, metaphorical construct, definitive statements, approaches and designs for conflict transformation and peacebuilding. For him, the focus of peacebuilding is the transformation of relationship. Oliver Richmond (2001) commenting on Lederach’s model of peacebuilding observed that “the problem-solving approach to conflict resolution is combined with a public, process-oriented approach in order to address the multidimensional nature of protracted social conflicts in the context of a nonlinear peace-building process” (Richmond, 2001:330). The later works of Lederach on peacebuilding proposes a strategy of engagement with a wider set of people and stakeholders at multiple level. In this sense, “engagement suggests continuous contact, consultation, deliberative dialogue inclusive of all views, and development of processes with a focus on understanding accurately the sources of violence and addressing them through a range of nonviolent change strategies (Lederach, 2018:242)

Another interesting form of peacebuilding found in the array of literature on peacebuilding is *interactive* peacebuilding. It is a hybrid form of conflict resolution which brings together influential and unofficial representatives of conflicting parties to engage in intensive dialogue for creative problem solving to reduce hostility and improve relations (Fisher, 1993:257). This form of interactive peacebuilding as pioneered by John Burton, Herbert Kelman, Leonard Doob, Edward Azar, Stephen Cohen, and others (Fisher, 1993:251), is seen by Montiville (1991:262) as the “foundation stone for the process of peacebuilding”. According to Fisher (1997), this is an interactive form of peacebuilding and “consultation is inherently a peacebuilding enterprise—an interactive method designed to reduce hostility and improve relations” (Fisher, 1993:257).

Many academics argue that peacebuilding is a manifestation of liberal internationalism and therefore imposes western values and practices onto other cultures. For instance, Mac Ginty argued that peacebuilding does project some overwhelming western culture onto the recipient state, such as the concepts of neoliberalism as a condition for recipients of aid to follow more closely than

Western countries do (Mac Ginty, 2011:38). Barnett *et al.* (2007) corroborates this fact in their argument that the promotion of liberalization and democratization may undermine the peacebuilding process of security, and, if stable institutions are not pursued concurrently (Barnett *et al.*, 2007:51). They went further to express their revulsion on peacebuilding organization for restricting its activities to supply – driven, rather they provide the peacebuilding service in which their organization specializes not necessarily those that the recipient most needs (Barnett *et al.*, 2007:54). While Paris (2002), challenged the conventional notion that peacebuilding is merely a technique for managing violent conflict or a form of international conflict management. He argues that the practice of peacebuilding has been considerably more charitable and consensual than the behavior of many colonial powers. According to him, there is, however, at least an echo of the mission civilisatrice in the contemporary practice of peacebuilding (Paris, 2002:653).

Human Security

Human security as an interrelated concept with peacebuilding is also relatively new because “the idea of security centred on the state has, in many respects, given way to an entirely new concept” (Klingebiel, 2006:1). Marco Di Liddo, (2021) defined human security as a “people-centred concept that seeks to address the root causes of insecurity. A peculiar feature of this approach is its "population-centred" essence, which allows us to identify, and consequently mitigate threats perceived as such by people in a given context” (Di Liddo, 2021:11, 20). The conceptual introduction of human security into peace and security lexicon by scholars and practitioners began soon after the United Nations Development Programme Report of 1994. The concept is predicated on the need for “a comprehensive and sustainable view of peace and security with emphasis on ‘root causes’ of conflicts, structural shift beyond that of ‘absence of war’ human protection and development” (UN Report, 2009:4).

The reconfiguration of post international world by global governance institution engendered the search for new security paradigm. The search opened up the debate on the broad spectrum of security in its subjective nature in relation to peacebuilding along the neorealist or structural and postmodernist or critical approaches. According to Richmond (2007), “security is far more complex than traditional realist and liberal approaches would have it, and human security, while not necessarily providing theoretical simplicity, at least opens up the debate about what would be

needed for a humanist, free-standing, and self-sustaining peace” (Richmond, 2007:465). Much of the literature underscored the relative preference of human security to state security in that “human security is ultimately more important than state security” (Booth, 1994:4). The works of radical scholars like Wilkins (1999), Nef (1999), King and Murray (2000) and Buzan (1991) represents the most relevant departure from and opposition to state centric approaches in favour of human security.

The human security paradigm in peacebuilding is based on the theory of human development as it recognized the interdependence between security and development (Katja, 2007:6) in relation to economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security. In this sense, the UNDP Human Development Report (1995) defined human security as “safety from chronic threat such as hunger, disease, and repression as well as protection from sudden and harmful disruption in the patterns of daily life – whether in homes or in communities” (UNDP, 1995:23). Conteh-Morgan (2005), underscores the relevance of peacebuilding aimed at alleviating human insecurity by transforming the social and political environment that fosters intolerable inequality, engenders historical grievances, and nurtures adversarial interactions. (Conteh-Morgan 2005:72).

The debate on peacebuilding and human security found a common ground in that the later, is centered on the protection of individuals. Beyond this consensus lie the divergent views that sustained the confusion about what threat should the individual be protected from. Two schools of thought can be identified from the literature; the first, which is narrower in its concept formed the basis of their argument on violent threat to individual to expound the ideals of human security based on “poverty, lack of state capacity and various form of socio-economic and political inequity” (*Human Security Report*). The second, conceptualized on a broad based human security, argued that for peacebuilding to attain its goal of human security, it must integrate broader development strategy to include “hunger, disease, and natural disaster because these kill far more people than war, genocide and terrorism combine” (History- Peacebuilding Initiative web page www.peacebuilding.org/index). Nevertheless, Luke Johns made it clear that “the theories that underlies the advocacy of a holistic approach to human security is that broadness facilitates coalitions, which, in turn, allow previously neglected issues to gain greater saliency in the international sphere” (Johns, 2014:2). Both approaches are complimentary and culminated in the

redefinition of traditional understanding of security and peace which have ultimately “informed the evolution of peacebuilding thinking” (History- Peacebuilding Initiative web page www.peacebuilding.org/index).

Civil-Military Relations

The peacebuilding cottage industry host several activities and themes, one of such themes is civil-military relations now found in the body of literature and debate on peacebuilding. It emerged from the search for a comprehensive approach in coordinating the many activities and interactions of actors in conflict situations especially the interface between military and humanitarian actors. Much of the literature focuses on the inherent challenges in the interface between military and humanitarian actors and the increasing concern to structure coordination of activities among different actors and organizations involved in the same goal of peacebuilding. The contributors to the debate essentially left out any discussion on causes and the reasons why humanitarian emergencies arise in the first place but focus primarily on the nature of relationship between civil and military worlds. A strong consensus was commonly found on the existence of two distinct worlds that were inextricably different from one another. The argument, therefore, was how best to enhance the interface without undermining peacebuilding (Inbody, 2009).

Agreed that the field of peacebuilding is not the core competence of the military and humanitarian actors, notwithstanding, its complex task of helping to create an environment germane to sustainable peace requires multiplicity of engagements and actors across society’s institutions of order and governance (Cotton, 2009). Undeniably, the military is inextricably involved in the security sector, the most critical area that is pivotal to peacebuilding in post – conflict society. The debate on peace support operation (peacekeeping and enforcement were the common ground for civil-military interaction) and the use of military force to end hostilities between warring parties and forceful imposition of peace on all parties were predominant. The works of authors like Edward Luttwark (1999), R. K. Betts (1994) and D. Rieff (1994) which are a continuum of structural and neo-realist approach advocated for forceful engagement without prescribing how military forces should be decisively engaged in relation to their role in emergencies and peace process. Their arguments, however, provided impetus for initial military perspective in peacebuilding. Much of this literature has a consensus at its core regarding the characteristics

problems of deploying the military in peacebuilding operations (Ali and Pincus, 2018). Blankshain (2020:4) posited that an understanding of the difference between normative argument – discussion of what ought to be ---and descriptive arguments ---discussion of what is, is pertinent in the study of the civil- military relations”

Most scholarly writing on civil-military relations took cognizance of the fundamental task of stabilization as the latent peacebuilding activity in an on-going violent conflict which calls for strict military competence. Ordinarily, the presence of the military at the initial stage of peacebuilding operations presupposes that the military will be “involved in some capacity during a peacebuilding operation” (Keatings and Knight 2005: xliv). Therefore, it is a “natural tendency for other organizations to fit around it rather than directly replace the tasks which it performs” (Clarke, 2009:9). In this sense, Danford W. Middlemiss (1998) attempted at developing a cooperative civil-military approach to peacebuilding. A sub theme in the civil-military discourse is, perhaps, the debate on civilian policing to maintain internal order in peaceful and just manner. The works of Chuck Call and Michael Barnett (2000); Andres Serbin and Andres Fontana (2005); Nibaldo H. Galleguillos (2005); Chetan Kumar (2005) and David Darchiashvili (2005) identified the more important topical issue “yet problematic aspects of post conflict reconstruction” (keating and Knights, 2004:xliv). The existing consensus is found in the crucial role of military and police force in the political, economic and cultural rebuilding efforts in post conflict societies. However, the overwhelming impression from much of the literature is finding the equilibrium in the delicate balance between military forces and civilian policing activities.

Security Sector Reform

Another related sub-theme of human security and civil-military relations in peacebuilding perspective is security sector reform (SSR) which David Clutter described as “a bastard child of Civil-Military relations and Development Studies” and an “ill-defined concept” (Fluri, 2003:16). Security sector reform is an aspect of the integrative process involving the larger, multidimensional, political and economic factors which form the societal fabric of post conflict peacebuilding. The consensus in the debate is that the concept of security sector reform needs to be a broad based design to address each context in a holistic manner but none prescribed a definite approach to be adopted. The plethora of SSR thematic thrust focused on “reducing the size, budget

and scope of the security sector and reforming it to become more transparent and accountable to its citizens” (Women Waging Peace: webpage). Broadly speaking, SSR is designed to address the challenges of proliferation of light weapons and small arms through weapons collection, munitions recovery, mine clearance, training and advice, demobilization of ex-combatants, child soldier reform and the promotion of regional security structure. The thematic debate of security sector reform tackles the challenge of operational guidelines, incoherence in the concept and the need to close the existing gap between its evolution and operational activities in the field. Yet again, security sector reform as a part of international effort to secure human security, is central to the politics of the state in fulfilling its constitutional role of providing security to its citizens.

One issue which has tended to broaden the debate on security sector reform is the increasing tendency to include political militias in the programme of downsizing the security forces after war, which have to be disarmed as part of the peace process. In this sense, David Chutter succinctly surmised that “disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR) programmes can play useful role in peace settlements, provided they are competently and successfully conducted but they are conceptually different from security sector reform” (2006:9). The confusion in the SSR debate turned more complex what had been an academic subject into one with extremely practical implications by civil-military relations (CMR) and development debates/theorists to undermine the objective of SSR. For instance, as Chutter notes that both civil-military relations and development theorists saw security expenditure as a drain in resources which could be better used elsewhere ... Neither group saw, except in the most abstract and theoretical of terms, any useful function for the security sector. (Chutter, 2006:6). The argument that is being pursued is that disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR) programmes are crucial to achieving a lasting peace. Therefore, DDR programmes should be an overall integrated recovery strategy that encompasses economic development, security sector reform, and justice and reconciliation.

Reconciliation

Another salient theme in the literature of peacebuilding is found in the debate on reconciliation. Reconciliation is a process as old as society itself, retributive justice and the mechanism to attain its goal in a society ravaged by war and violence. The critical objective of reconciliation in peacebuilding lies in the challenge of dealing with the reality of impunity and other debilitating

experiences locked into a vicious circle of gross violation of human rights. The concept is confronted with the challenges of creating a social space to address the past, the ordeal of loss and the grief that accompanies the pain and memory of injustice experienced, especially by innocent and vulnerable populations. Essentially, it is a critical ingredient necessary for restoring trust and introducing protective measures to deter its reoccurrence in the context of ‘never again principle’. It is in this sense that Adrian Little and Sarah Maddison observed that “peace-building is “a way of building sufficient trust to enable political co-operation to take place, thereby facilitating modes of reconciliation” (Little and Maddison, 2017, 150).

In many respects, the concept of reconciliation and academic/practitioners discussions of its place in the wide tapestry of peacebuilding reflects a normative approach based on theoretical and political assumptions. The literature on reconciliation expound on different formulations based on the impressions that the concept is fundamentally the same at all levels. Yet of course, much of the peace and conflict studies literature is too focused on agential understandings of the relationships between conflictual parties (Little and Maddison, 2017, 150 – 151). However, expanding literature in reconciliation further diverges on issues of what it is and how it works to raise debates such as: is it an end or a means, an outcome or a process, whether it is politically neutral or unavoidably ideological, and the extent to which it is conservative or transformative in orientation (Lerche, 2000: webpage). The works of notable scholars and practitioners like J.P. Lederach (1997), Johan Galtung (1998), Ronald Fisher (1998), Louis Kriesberg (1998, 1999), Herbert Kelman (1997), are based on extensive field experience and workshops on conflict resolution and have been consistent with the theory and practice of peacebuilding. They seem to build on the works of John Burton and acknowledge that “reconciliation must be proactive in seeking to create an encounter where people can focus on their relationships and share their perceptions, feelings, and experiences with one another, with the goal of creating new perceptions and a new shared experience” (Lederach, 1997:30). Their works have contributed notably to the realistic reshaping of peacebuilding through reconciliation. Across the various definitions of reconciliation found in the literature, the normative approach seem to be prevalent and provide strategic and practical suggestions for dealing with violent conflict and peacebuilding in divided societies. For example, John Paul Lederach argues that building peace requires a comprehensive approach. He described reconciliation as a quadri objective “where truth and mercy met and, where

justice and peace have kissed” (1997:53). Truth, mercy, justice and peace, are four key words identified by Lederach as thematic components that provide better understanding of reconciliation in peacebuilding perspective.

4.0 DEVELOPMENT AND PEACEBUILDING

The intersections of conflict, development and peace seeks to strengthen and deepen the process and commitment to addressing underdevelopment and reconstruction of post conflict societies. From our preceding review of themes and issues in the field of peacebuilding, we have seen how the concept of peacebuilding evolved and developed from the narrow meaning of political reconciliation to cover a broad spectrum of activities and sectors. The debate on the interrelatedness and interconnectedness as well as reframing development thought and practice as peacebuilding (Schirch 2004) in order to locate the respective peacebuilding and development paradigms into a common intellectual framework (Jantzi and Jantzi, 2009:78) by scholars, NGOs and bilateral and multilateral entities is still a viable narrative in official documents, literature and related guidebooks. While development and peacebuilding may overlap and intrinsically intertwine, development was contrived strictly as economic development in the sphere of governance and social issues. Peacebuilding, on the other hand, was mainly approached as an intangible process of building relationships and trust through intensive face-to-face interaction (Leonhardt, 2000:242). Granting that peacebuilding is somewhat inherent with mankind, peacebuilding analysis became internationalised in the early 1990s with the end of the Cold War (Paffenholz, Abu-Nimer and Mccandless, 2005:1). However, development has a slightly longer history than peacebuilding (Jantzi and Jantzi, 2009:78).

Jelena Smoljan (2003) identified two dominant approaches - the exclusivist and inclusivist, in the debate. The exclusivist approach considers them two distinct stages of a phased process, undertaken separately and under different conditions. The inclusivist approach, meanwhile, argues that they are mutually reinforcing and capable of operating simultaneously (Smoljan (2003:233). According to her, the inclusivist approach is gaining ground in the literature, and it contends that it is a more appropriate way of addressing the problems of post-conflict societies (Smoljan (2003:233). However, the dominant debate by theorists and practitioners is centred on the most appropriate development intervention (Desai, 2015). Jarikre (2021:146) argues that the

interrelatedness and interdependence of development and peacebuilding can also be discerned from the causal relationship between development and peacebuilding – “the dynamics of development as a phenomenon in peacebuilding process, conversely, the dynamics of peacebuilding rely on the functionality of development for peacebuilding outcomes in a conflict zone. For him, development transcends beyond its conventional goal into peacebuilding outcomes more visibly in fragile and conflict affected society (Jarikre, 2021:146)

Development theory in the field of peacebuilding overtly or covertly explains the dynamics of the process by which economic, political and social conditions impact on peace advancement. This presupposes that all peacebuilding and development programmes in a conflict region should contribute to the wider peace process” (Paffenholz et al, 2005: 2). Similarly, It is the contention of Peter Uvin therefore, that “whatever we are doing in the business of development is a form of conflict prevention or peacebuilding (Uvin, 2002:6). On the contrary, as Bush (2009:13) argued “If development equals peace, then conflict should decrease as a country or region develops, however, “this does not always happen ... in many cases, development itself creates conflict” (Bush, 2009:13). Scot Gates (2002) puts this in perspective when he suggested that economic growth generates political instability and an increased risk of armed conflict in very poor economies, but decreases this risk in richer economies (Gates, 2002:10).

The acceptance of development thinking and practice into peacebuilding gave rise to the need to assess ‘what, what not and why’ of peacebuilding works. Ultimately, “this has brought the issue of evaluation and impact assessment to the fore” (Menkhaus, 2004:3). Therefore, to determine the specific impact of a development project/activity in post-conflict societies is critical to develop and apply the appropriate measure to identify such impact. One of such measure is peace and conflict impact assessment (PCIA). According to Bush, PCIA of development projects “differs from ‘evaluation’ in the conventional sense because its scope extends far beyond the state outputs, outcomes, goals and objectives of conventional development projects and programmes. Rather, it attempts to discern a project’s impact on the peace and conflict environment” (Bush, 1998:7). Yet again, the positive linkages in the confluence of peacebuilding and development reveal the emergent challenge and gap in literature and practice in terms of what criteria, standard and

methodology that could be used to evaluate and assess the impact of development project in peacebuilding.

5.0 CONCLUSION

Generally speaking, the existing literature on peacebuilding is both diverse and open-ended, some assuming broad spectrum while others have limited outcome that are based on narrow aspects of peacebuilding. The literature on peacebuilding depicts an academic licence whereby its meaning is derived from the scholar's or practitioner's vintage position based on the objective(s) of the activity. Nevertheless, the growing spectrum of overlapping and conflicting definitions with identical similarities and differences in their concepts underscore consensus building in the terminology and expanding the frontier of such knowledge. The increased frequency and enthusiasm in peacebuilding as reflected in the contemporary period gained impetus from persistent search for strategic measures in the form of programmes, policies and practices to wean fragmented elements and resolve the spectre of conflicts in various regions of the world as well as forestall the renewal of hostilities. On a more practical note, the various contributions has ultimately expanded the scope.

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Personnel Management in Government Owned Establishment and its Challenges in Nigeria

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Abstract

This paper investigates personnel management in government owned establishment in Nigeria, the plausible challenges and the way forward. Ideally, in any organization, the most important phenomenon is to effectively manage the elements of the establishment. In essence, personnel management plays an important role on the growth and development of an organization. It aims to achieve efficiency, justice twin with the ability to develop into an effective organization where men and women who make up the organization contribute their quota to its success both as an individual and member of a working group. The fundamental problem that necessitates this study is that in Nigeria personnel management in government owned establishment is believed to be largely static, legalistic and ritualistic, which eventually led to the closure and malfunctioning of many establishments. It is against this backdrop that this study unearths the fundamental functions of personnel management and how it can fast-track national development. Bureaucratic theory is adopted to interrogate the discourse. In its way forward, it was posited that, corrupt practice in government owned establishments has severe consequences on the entire system of governance and sustainable development. The conclusion is that corruption needs to be eradicated in the public sectors and staff should be well remunerated and rewarded. Put differently, decent organizational structure alone, does not guarantee enhanced performance and increased productivity but with well-managed personnel.

Keywords: Corruption, Bureaucracy, Organisation, Personnel Management in Nigeria.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Conventionally, organizations around the globe whether formal or informal are characterized by the interplay of several variables that are often harnessed to achieve predetermined objectives. Triumph (2020), reiterates that among these variables include human beings, materials, money, machines, organizational plants, time and other resources. Hence, all these variables have a significant contribution that can make or limit the progress of the organization (Prachi, 2018 &

Agunwa, Valentine & Mercy, 2019). Importantly, however, human beings constitute the critical factor in an organisational growth and development. It is the persons who are available in an organization that controls every other variable in the organization. According to Singh (2012), just like human beings control other variables in an organization, they too, need proper management for improved productivity and work performance.

Ideally, the interest of government as an employer should be to secure efficient personnel in a bid to get the maximum work-done for a minimum expenditure. The employee is interested in getting a good pay packaged, proper work conditions, security of job and a handsome pension on retirement. Nevertheless, the general public is concerned with a system of personnel wherein all citizens will have an equal opportunity to enter the government service. Meanwhile, every organization around the globe is it public or private is more focus on the effective management of the workforce in the establishment. This is because human being is the center of all activities. According to Dibia (2014), the critical importance of personnel management lies in hiring of public employees often seems to bund up in rules, regulations, and “red tapes” that effective management is extremely difficult. All over the world, governments tend to be labour-intensive organization, government ministries, departments, agencies and corporations provide services, enforce laws, regulations and solve problems. All these activities require employees. In order to hire employees, government agencies must have a functional human resources or personnel management department and specialists.

Dibia (2014) rises a vital question that how well government works depends fundamentally on the quality of public employees and on how completely their talents and energies are put to use. This goes to show that human resources capacity building and staff welfare are the basic roles of the personnel management. Thus, the universal acceptance of the critical role of personnel in the achievement of organizational goals and appreciation of the various exogenous cum endogenous variables, which in turn inform, determine order and finally condition personnel activities. This reality was what led to the establishment of the Department of Personnel Administration, Personnel Management or Human Resource Management in any viable organization (Okoli, 2000). The reason being satisfaction of employees is a crucial phenomenon to the survival of any organizational aspiring toward a greater development and progressive height. Some scholars have

examined the underlying causes of job dissatisfaction, some of which are the problems faced by employees whether unskilled, semi-skilled or skilled usually attributed to inadequate salary, poor supervision, works environment, lack of commitment unfair company policies and section of job alternatives (Oghojafor & Adebakin, 2012)

From the foregoing critical and expository analysis, we submit that personnel management aim to achieve both efficiency and justice in a bid to develop into an effective organization. A growing organization is seen in the performance of its employees and this is ascertained with a good and workable administration structure that looks into the well-being of the employees (Prachi, 2018). Most organizations fail to take into account the loss of productivity and a decrease in customer satisfaction that results from poor personnel satisfaction and increased personnel turnover. However, for any organization to survive or grow, there is need for such organization to design programmes and develop its human resources to their fullest capabilities and maintain the commitment of the workers in the organization. Owing to the lapses of the foregoing criteria on personnel management, most government owned establishments have closed down, shamble or are in bad shape today.

2.0 CONCEPTUALIZATION OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

Various definitions have been offered by different scholars with regard to personnel management. According to Obisi (1996), personnel management is that field of management which has to do with planning, organizing and controlling various operative functions of procuring developing, maintaining and utilizing a labour force in such a way that (a) objectives for which the company is established are attained economically and effectively; (b) objectives of all levels of personnel are served to the highest possible degree; and (c) objectives of the community are duly considered and served.

In the opinion of Scoth and William (1977), opine that personnel management is that branch of management which is responsible, on a staff basis for concentrating on those aspects of operations which are primarily concerned with the relationship of management to employees. The objective is to attain maximum individual development, desirable working relationship between employers and employees and employees, and effective moulding of human resources is contrasted with physical resources. Dirks (1970) also see personnel management as the function concerned with

developing and utilizing the manpower resources of the business to the optimum extent in achieving the objectives of that business. To Armstrong (1980), personnel management can be viewed as obtaining, organizing and motivating the human resources required by the enterprise; developing an organization climate and management style which will promote effective effort and co-operation and trust between all the people working in it, and helping the enterprise to meet its legal obligations and its social responsibilities towards its employees with regard to the conditions of work and quality of life provided for them. Therefore, personnel management consists of the designing and implementation of policies and all the practices that can assist in promoting efficient utilization of human resources (Folayan, 1998). Personnel management also means that, viewing people as vital social capital.

Personnel management also includes human resource planning, job analysis, job design, acquisition, training and development, compensation, benefits and rewards, safety and health, motivation, employee participation in management, organization development, performance appraisal, job evaluation, human relations, employee counselling, personnel research and human resource information system (HRIS). Right placement of men and women in the right jobs is essential for effective personnel management. Human resources are the valuable assets of the corporate bodies. They are their strength. To face the new challenges on the fronts of knowledge, technology and changing trends in global economy need effective personnel management. Sheikh, (2009). Personnel management is a human function performed by specialists who look after the human resources (labour) needs of the enterprise. Onasanya (2005) personnel management, according to him, aims to achieve both efficiency and justice neither of which can be pursued successfully without the other. It needs to bring together and develop into an effective organization, the men and women who make up an enterprise, enabling each to make his own best contribution to its success both as an individual and as a member of a working group. It also seeks to provide fair terms and conditions of employment and satisfying work for those employed.

Personnel management is that part of the management function which is primarily concerned with the human relationships on a basis of the consideration of wellbeing of the individual, enables all those engaged in an undertaking to make their personal contribution to the effective working of that undertaking (see, Sharma, Sadana & Harpreet, 2011). Personnel managements is an important

element of the broader subject of human resources management, although in practice the two terms are frequently used interchangeably-emphasizing the facts that the people employed in a company are resources which are at least as important as financial and material resources and must be given careful and expert attention (Onyishi, 2012). According to Dibia (2014), personnel management is concerned with people at work and their relationship within the government. The personnel management involves planning for attracting, developing and retaining public administrators. Onasanya (2015), sees personnel management as “the responsibility of all those who manage people, as well as a description of the work of those who are employed as specialist”. However, personnel management is the management of people at work and relationships with employers in order to achieve organizational goals. People in an organization are the assets or capital of the organization. According to Obisi (1998) personnel management is the recruitment, selection, development, utilization of an accommodation of human resources by organizations. The human resources of an organization consist of all individuals regardless of their role, who are engaged in any of the organizations activities.

Abasili (2008) argues that personnel management is a code of the ways of organizing and treating individuals at work so they will each get the greatest possible realization of their intrinsic abilities, thus attaining maximum efficiency for themselves and their group, and thereby giving to the enterprise of which they are part, its determining competitive advantage and its optimum results. However, the central task and fundamental purpose of dynamic personnel management is to recognize the employee’s capacities and take responsibility to help them develop to their fullest potential. Abasili summarises personnel management as the art of acquiring, developing and maintaining a competent workforce in such a manner as to accomplish with maximum efficiency and economy, the functions and objectives of the organization.

Fundamentals of Personnel Management

The fundamental of personnel management deals with procuring, hiring, training, placing, utilizing and maintaining an effective workforce that will aid in the accomplishment of organisational objectives (Triumph, 2020). The responsibility for good personnel administration rests on every supervisor and manager in the organization. Personnel management is not a one-man responsibility nor can it ever be achieved by one individual. It is a cooperative endeavour that should stem from

a common feeling and concept and should progress in a unified coordinated manner (Vaghela, 2015).

The success and continuity of any organization is hinged on the active of personnel management. To ensure that the employees irrespective of level actively participate or involve towards organizational goals. At this juncture, let us examine some of the fundamental functions of personnel management, according to Folayan (1998). These are:

- **Manpower Planning:** Manpower planning forms the foundation of the process of obtaining the required work-force. It is the process by which an organization ensures that it has the right number of qualified people available at the right time, performing jobs that are useful to the organization.
- **Recruitment and Selection:** When personnel need have been determined through manpower planning, the next stage is recruitment and selection. This process covers recruitment, selection, placement and orientation so as to familiarize the employees with the work environment.
- **Employee Appraisal:** Employee appraisal, personnel or staff appraisal or performance appraisal is the process of determining the success, failures and effectiveness of employees of an organization towards the set objectives. Appraisal can be used for promotion and reward purposes, for determining training needs and counseling among other things.
- **Wages and Salaries:** Management pervades all level of human lives from the home to the office, the public service, government, the focus however, is men. Therefore, motivation should be the underlying factor for goals achievement in form of wage increases. The main objectives of wages and salaries are to attract potential employees to an organization, to motivate employees to perform, and to retain good employees.
- **Industrial Relations:** Industrial relations, labour relations, or labour management relations include initiating, and sustaining measures for peaceful and purposeful labour-management relations, designing and applying machinery for dealing with complaints, grievances and disputes in an organization. This personnel function is very important since how well or how effective the organization performs will depend to a large extent on the work environment, e.g. peaceful or otherwise.

- **Training and Development:** Worker's training and development should be vigorously pursued. The training and development cover both employee training and management development. Training is a short-term process of learning specific skills by junior and intermediate staff. Training is to equip individuals with the necessary skills to enable them to be more productive, gain promotion, to be redeployable in case of their being redundant, etc. Development is a long-term learning process especially designed to develop management staff in order to acquaint them with change in technology and management methods, all aimed at improving managerial effectiveness.

Dale Yoder mentions seven functions of personnel management, cited in Sharma, Sadana and Harpreet (2011). They are as follows:

- Setting general and specific management policy for organizational relationship and establishing and maintaining a suitable organization for leadership and cooperation.
- Collective bargaining, contract negotiation, contract administration and grievance handlings.
- Staffing the organization, finding, getting and holding prescribed types and number of workers.
- Aiding in the self-development of employees at all levels providing opportunities for personnel development and growth as well as for acquiring requisites skills and experience.
- Developing and maintaining motivation for workers by providing incentives.
- Review and auditing manpower management in the organization.
- Industrial relations research carrying out studies designed to explain employee's behaviour and thereby affecting improvements in manpower management.

Specifically, personnel management deals with the managerial function of estimating and classifying human resources requirements for meeting organizational goals through people at work and their relationships with each other. It involves strategies that ensure right number of staff, a right combination of talent, training, and performance in jobs (Agunwa, Valentine, & Mercy, 2019).

Having explored the critical aspect of personnel management and most importantly, the functions of personnel management, it is necessary to state that administration of personnel management has

a lot of functional implications to the organisational system. That is to say, it offers the organisational manager an opportunity to plan in advance the people he needs to employ that will be able to carry out skillfully, the activities of the organisation to achieve set goals (see, Prachi, 2018; Vaghela, 2015 & Singh, 2012). When proper manpower planning is not done, anything goes, and the organisation as a consequence, will not be able to determine the number of staff required, the qualification, and other skills needed. This will hinder the recruitment and selection process.

Recruitment and selection, on the one hand, if done in an unbiased manner by the government owned organisations or other private enterprises provides a platform for the right people with appropriate skills to be employed. However, a deviation from this will surely result in the employment of incompetent, unqualified and irrelevant personnel that will not be able to pilot the affairs of the organisation.

Be that as it may, employees need proper guidance if they must perform effectively. This means that it is not out of place for them to be orientated, trained, retrained, as well as appraised (Singh, 2012). It is one thing to possess skills and another thing to implement and adapt the skills to given situations. Not giving proper orientation to newly recruited staff may limit their functionality, their skills notwithstanding. They may perform duties anyhow against the acceptable standards of the organization. Hence, employees need to be promoted, remunerated, evaluated, disciplined and provided with the right tools, as well as enabling and conducive environment for work performance if the organization must achieve its intended objectives. Most of these variables are motivational in nature and can be used to raise, increase and boost employee morale and willingness to work.

The notion of discipline is another vital element of personnel management that has the capacity to boost the organisation output. In other words, it is vital for the organisation to shun unacceptable behaviour that does not conform to standards from employees. Discipline might also come alongside with punishment in some cases because the punishment is highly necessary for the manager to prevent unacceptable conduct from repeating again and to serve as a deterrent to other personnels in the organisation.

Frankly speaking, carrying out management of personnel functions in any organisation is very important and cannot be over-emphasized. It increases productivity, effectiveness, and efficiency in the organization. It helps the organisation to develop a healthy organisational climate where

workers feel a sense of belonging, unity, and love. This will make workers put in their best in performing duties that are vital for reaching ends. However, not carrying out personnel management in the organisation, has a lot of drastic effects. The organisation will be boring for all workers, every worker will be acting according to their will, and might even resort to forming small cliques to fight against the policies and programmes of the organisation. When all these and many more negativities arise in the organisation, the organization will be limited, and the prospect of goal attainment will be short-lived.

Theoretical Explanation

The relevant theory for this essay is the theory of bureaucracy. Owing to this, Max Weber's theory of bureaucracy is adopted. According to Weber, bureaucracy is the basis for the systematic formation of any organisation and is designed to ensure efficiency and economic effectiveness. It is an ideal model for management and its administration to bring an organization's power structure into focus. The term 'bureaucracy' has been widely used with invidious connotations directed at government and business (Triumph, 2020). Bureaucracy is an administrative system designed to accomplish large-scale administrative tasks by systematically coordinating the work of many individuals. Weber has observed three types of power in organizations namely: traditional, charismatic and rational-legal or bureaucratic. He has emphasized that bureaucratic type of power is the ideal one.

Specifically, the prism of Weber's bureaucratic organizations is the concept of administrative class. In his opinion, this aspect of bureaucracy generally has the responsibility for maintaining coordinative activities of the members. Again, is the concept of hierarchy. He conceives hierarchy as a system of ranking various positions in descending scale from top to bottom of the organisation. In bureaucratic organisation, offices also follow the principle of hierarchy, that is to say each lower office is subject to control and supervision by higher office. Thus, no office is left uncontrolled in the organisation. This is the fundamental concept of hierarchy in bureaucratic organisation. This hierarchy serves as lines of communication and delegation of authority. It implies that communication coming down or going up must pass through each position. Division of work is another emphasis of bureaucratic organisations. Work of the organisation is divided on the basis of specialisation to take the advantages of division of labour. In essence, division of labour tries to

sell the idea that each office has a clearly-defined area of competence within the organisation and each official knows the areas in which he operates so that s/he does not overstep the boundary between his role and those of others. Furthermore, it also tries to ensure that no work is left uncovered. A notable feature of bureaucracy is that relationships among individuals are governed through the system of official authority and rules. Put differently, official positions are free from personal involvement, emotions and sentiments. This goes to underscore the fact that decisions are governed by rational factors rather than personal factors. This impersonality concept is used in dealing with organizational relations, as well as relations between the organisation and outsiders. Lastly but never the least, are strict adherence to official rules and records in a bid raise the glory of the organisation.

The benefit of Weber's theory of bureaucracy is that there should be de-emphasis of hierarchy to get rid of the conventional organisational pyramid. Its central argument is that there is need to redesign organizations to enable cooperative decision making and promote collaborative problem-solving. Ultimately, authority should be decentralized and field units should be strengthening and given more authority for decision making. It is in the light of these advantages that this essay acclimatized with the theory of bureaucracy as propounded by Max Weber.

3.0 CHALLENGES OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN GOVERNMENT OWNED ESTABLISHMENTS IN NIGERIA

A number of mercenary of government intention on government owned parastatals have not been able to live up to expectation in Nigeria. This is due to many constraints; challenges they are confronted with. Government Corporation provides essential service to the public (Agunwa, 2019). However, the challenges of the personnel management in government corporation in most of the Third World Countries are basically center around its structure, and most times these challenges are politically designed for self-centered gain. Some of these challenges are as follows:

- **Institutional and Administrative Constraints:** There is refer to as the excessive bureaucracy in form of unnecessary restrictions and administrative bottlenecks, which have hindered good policy and level of development in both local and state government owned organisation.

- **Inadequate Infrastructure:** This is the lack of basic infrastructural support facilities and services particularly the frequent power cuts, fuel supply shortages, shortage of water supply and poor communication services that could enhance the organisational output.
- **Low Technical and Managerial Capacities and Skills:** Most government establishment have largely experienced and still experience a shortfall of skilled, technical and professional staff across various sectors (health, works and maintenance, infrastructural development). They often lack even their basic managerial capacity. The recruitment process of some staff in Nigeria has also been called to question with claims of it being influenced by favouritism, nepotism, ethnic and political consideration and other factors that unseat qualification experience and performance.
- **Lack of Fiscal Sustainability, Budgeting Expertise and Economic Mismanagement:** Despite the increase in the total amount of funds available to most of government owned establishments. Its economic and financial profile is still very poor, relatively to the development it is expected to carry out. Also, most of these establishments suffer from lack of sufficient technical expertise and ignorance of the budgeting process.
- **Corruption and lack of monitoring and Evaluation:** This is the fundamental bane of development in the Nigerian public service or establishment in general. The activities of corrupt practices carried out by different personnel remains a major constraint on the effectiveness of the establishment service delivery. However, funds meant for developmental purposes are mismanaged and cannot be accounted for. Often time, wide-scale embezzlement by officials of the establishment has made the needed development rendered them financially incapable to discharge their constitutionally assigned responsibilities. This is largely attributed to a noticeable absence of a workable framework.
- Another major challenge confronting government owned establishment is the lack of accountability and transparency. The concept of transparency is the process of decision making. According to Dibia (2014), the process that is open to public view and can be perceived as being free of interference from special interest groups or individuals at the top of government is what

transparency required. Thus, lack of accountability and transparency breeds corruption in the sense of abuse of public office for private or personal gain.

4.0 THE WAY FORWARD

Having examined personnel management in government owned establishment in Nigeria and its challenges, the essay recommends the followings:

- An understanding and adoption of formal and context specific aspects of recruitment and selection practices by government will help position the organizations at the forefront of socio-economic development;
- Adequate equipment and facilities should be provided to the staff in order to enhance their job commitment;
- Staff should be given adequate training according to the current content of the environment;
- Staff should be well remunerated and rewarded because the salary and wages has great and positive influence on employees' effectiveness and involvement;
- There should be a supportive and pleasant working environment internally in order to motivate the staff and get them work efficiently and effectively;
- Training and retraining programme should be organized more frequently for all cadres of workers in organization so as to maintain and sustain personnel and organizational effectiveness, as well as high productivity;
- Providing the necessary skills through general education and specialized training;
- Corrupt practice in the government owned establishment has severe consequences for the entire system, as well as the structures, functions and processes of public management. In order for establishment to achieve sustainable development, corruption needs to be eradicated in the public sectors by the government activities. The strong anti-corruption institution should be established;
- For organisation to be successful it must adhere to keeping good staff, gain employee and guest/customers loyalty that improve their market share, this can be achieved through the employment of best practice in employee and;
- There is need for pre-arranged and integrated employee's development strategy. This should involve career support, training on-the-job and off-the-job training programs that are tailored towards filling the identified skills, knowledge and attitude gaps in Nigeria's organizations.

5.0 CONCLUSION

This paper has examined the prism of personnel management in government owned establishments and demonstrated with empirical analysis their challenges that has become a recurrent feature in Nigeria. In essence, the nitty-gritty of this essay is that personnel management is inevitable because it is as important as the establishment of the organization itself. The need for personnel to be managed by the government of the day as the highest employer of labour in the Whole Wide World, cannot be over-emphasized. Therefore, every organisational manager should understand that the benefits of personnel management functions are dependent on the implementation of these functions during the staffing process as the foundation of all organisational progress. Thus, efforts should be made to perform these fundamental functions discussed in an objective manner. If adhered to, it can lead any organization to success, goal attainment and increased productivity.

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Herders And Farmers Conflicts in Kogi State Nigeria: Causes, Effects and the Way Forward

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Abstract

Conflict between herders and farmers continues to intensify and takes a more violent posture. Lives and properties have been lost and the situation does not call for optimism. The causes of this conflict, its effects and ways to resolve them are what this paper sets out to do. Using multi-stage sampling techniques-purposive and snowballing, one local government area was selected from each of the three senatorial districts of Kogi state. Forty-two respondents from each of the three selected LGA totalling one hundred and twenty-six respondents in all. The paper anchored on conflict theory and structural functionalist theory as framework. Using descriptive statistical tools, the major causes of the conflicts were crop damage by cattle, inadequate grazing reserves, land encroachment, lack of access to water points, pollution of water, killing of stray cattle, bush burning, cattle rustling, land tenure system and change in climate conditions among others; with effects ranging from destruction of lives and properties, general insecurity and lack of development. The paper recommends re-orientation for the two conflicting groups, user groups involvement in policies on land, demarcation, beaconing and full implementation of government owned grazing reserves and cattle routes, sensitization of some herders and amendment of land use policies.

Keywords: Conflicts, Development, Herders, Farmers, Insecurity

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One major problem confronting world peace today is the manifestation of conflicts in different dimensions across the globe. Conflicts are common phenomena from Europe to America, Latin America, Africa and Asia (Marshall and Gurr, 2005 in Jeona, 2008). Conceptualised in different ways by various scholars, conflict defies a glib definition. Ekong (2003) perceived conflict as simulated to that form of social interaction where the actors seek to obtain scarce resources by eliminating or weakening their contenders. Gyong (2007) defined conflict as the struggle for dominance or control of one person or group by the other in such a way as to subjugate or even eliminate the opponent. To Folger et al (2009), conflict is the interaction of interdependent people who perceive incompatible goals and interference from each other in achieving those goals. A

common denominator in the definition of conflict is disagreement over a common interest. It goes to show that conflict symbolises a struggle over a common interest that ends in all manners of disaffection that can lead to death and wanton destruction of properties in an attempt to out-do the opposition, to the achievement of one's own interest.

The experience of conflicts in Nigeria in the past had been a thing of serious concern. At present, it has become of grave proportions among several ethnic and religious communities across the states. These conflicts significantly vary in dimension, process and groups involved. While some conflicts arise between same resource user group such as between one farming community and another, others occur between different user group such as between herders and farmers or between forester and farmers. According to Adisa (2012), the most preponderant resource-user conflict is the herders- farmers conflict in Nigeria.

There are diversities in the nature of the conflicts between herders and farmers. These stem from conflict over access, use and management of land resources. As expected, urbanisation, and its attendant population explosion throughout northern Nigeria in turn led to the expansion of crop farming activities into areas used by herders for their livestock production. Abubakar (2012) succinctly put it that the phenomenon is particularly noticeable in northern Nigeria where the traditional pastoralist grazing area (Hurumai), stock routes, and water points have been turned into farming area over the years. The most frequent causes of conflicts between the nomadic pastoralists and sedentary farmers are illegal invasion of farms and destruction of crops by cattle particularly during the planting seasons and immediately after the harvesting period.

Abubakar (2012) showed further that Nigeria as an agrarian society cannot but witness this type of conflicts from the north through the middle belt, down south, east and west. Beyond the farmers-herder conflicts, the oil river has witnessed conflicts between oil exploration companies and fish farmers over oil spillage and its implications on aquatic lives. Gas flaring, fire out-break, toxic waste and degradation of the soil and its components, weather and bio-diversity difficulties occasioned by exploration activities are equally conflicts related to use of land resources.

Statement of the Problem

In the Nigerian land use Act of 1978, one of the policies (Nationalization policy) states that the land in Nigeria shall be available to all Nigerians in any state, local government, or district of their

choices for residential, agricultural, grazing, commercial or industrial purposes, irrespective of their states of origin, ethnic background, religious and political affiliation (Aboki, 2013). By this token, every individual, groups, community or society ought to be free to operate anywhere within the Nigerian nation-state. The implication of this type of land policy in use cannot be over-emphasized. It gives absolute freedom to all Nigerians over land.

Land as a fixed asset is bequeathed by nature with many resources, water and aqua culture, nutrients for crop production, feed for livestock, to mention but a few particularly as it relates to this discourse. Both the nomadic and sedentary groups are all farmers. While one deals with livestock, the other deals with crops. They both relate and depend on land for their survival. To this end, land is their meeting point, naturally.

This relationship has been a mutual one until population began to increase geometrically both on the part of human and livestock. This means, more crop production to feed the teeming population (which requires more land for cultivation) coinciding with even a more growth rate in the population of livestock (which also requires more land for grazing and more water points). This coincidence led to conflict of interests on the part of both herders and farmers. One's group interest is at the detriment of the other.

The quest to satisfy one's individual and group's interest occasioned crop damage by cattle, land encroachment, lack of access to water points, pollution of water, killing of stray cattle, bush burning, cattle rustling, change in climate condition, inadequate grazing reserves, among others. No individual or group would fold its hands to lose its source of survival (land) to another person or groups, hence attack, counter attacks or retaliation, destruction of lives and properties, insecurity among other effects. Reconciliation, though done intermittently, does not last as it is very difficult to balance the losses on both sides, as such, there is always a renewed conflict from time to time.

Under the guise of protection of lives of herders and their herds against wild animals as they transverse the nation through thick and thin forests, herders demanded for permission to carry weapons. First, locally made, at present, sophisticated weapons without scruples. On the part of the farmers, the claim for weapons for hunting big game in the forest also gave them permission for some sort of weapons. These two groups however, turn these weapons originally meant for protection against wild animals and hunting big games to use directly against each other. It

therefore, does not surprise anyone why conflict becomes very rife and incessant between these interdependent groups. Insensitivity is now applied in the meaning and interpretation of the 1978 land use Act to mean unrestrained freedom, no matter whose ass is gourd. Day-by-day, even as lives and properties are lost, these two groups are driven by the determination to revenge rather than seeking for a lasting peace. To this end, herders and farmers conflicts in Kogi state became imminent and unabated without recourse to the sanctity of life.

Objectives of the Study

The study aimed at providing a road map to a lasting peace between herders and farmers in Kogi State and Nigeria in general.

Specifically, the study has the following objectives to:

1. Find out the nature and extent of conflict between herders and farmers in Kogi State Nigeria.
2. Examine the factors responsible for the conflicts between herders and farmers in Kogi State.
3. Investigate the effects of the conflict between herders and farmers in Kogi State.
4. Recommend the strategies to reduce the conflicts between herders and farmers in Kogi State to the barest minimum.

Research Questions

1. What is the nature and extent of conflicts between herders and farmers in Kogi State?
2. What are the factors responsible for the conflicts between herders and farmers in Kogi State?
3. What are the effects of the conflicts between herders and farmers in Kogi State?
4. What are the possible solutions to the conflicts between herders and farmers in Kogi State in order to reduce its incidence to the barest minimum?

2.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study used a cross-sectional design as it covered several communities within Kogi State. With one local government from each senatorial district, Dekina (East), Okene (Central), and Kabba (West) purposively selected given the incidence of herders and farmers conflict and the volume of destruction of lives and properties. Snowballing sampling technique was adopted in each of the

three selected local government area (LGA) to get forty-two (42) respondents each from an LGA which brought the total respondents for the study to one hundred and twenty-six (126) respondents. That number was considered large enough for the purpose of data needed for the study. The respondents selected cut across herders, farmers, traditional rulers, police, heads of Miyyeti Allah association. With the help of six research assistants, personal interviews, focus group discussion (FGD) and questionnaire were used to generate the needed information. In the end, descriptive statistical tools were employed to analyse the data and conclusions were made, and based on that, the study came up with recommendations.

3.0 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Concept of Theory

A model is a figurative representation of a perceived object used to guide one in pursuit of knowledge. A model is also seen as a construction that shows relationships existing among variables. These relationships are depicted schematically or mathematically. Theoretical model is therefore, a broad system of explanation that is founded not so much on prior research findings but largely on untested and unproved assumptions about social realities (Ekong, 2003). The causes of conflict between cattle herders and crop farmers consist of inadequate grazing, land encroachment, lack of access to water points, killing of stray cattle, indiscriminate bush burning, cattle rustling, land tenure system, change in climate, Nigerian land use policy (1978) which gave rise to interpersonal conflict between crop farmers and cattle herders (the dependent variable) and is indicated by either one or a combination of following: dispute, confrontation, maiming and killings, destruction and displacement.

The Conflict Theory

The contemporary society is characterised by different schools of thought, each analysing social phenomenon from its own orientation. For the purpose of this study, the conflict theory was adopted to explain herders-farmers conflicts in Kogi state.

In its general usage the word or term “conflict” envelops view of difference and disagreement, strife and struggle. The conflict perspective or conflict theory was derived from the ideas of Karl Marx (1818-1883). The great German theorist and political activist believed that society is a dynamic entity constantly undergoing change driven by conflict. According to Marx, men, in the

social production of their existence, inevitably enter into definite relations which are independent of their will, namely relations of production appropriate to a given stage in the development of their material forces of production, the totality of which constitutes the economic structure of society. The fact that the dominant or ruling class (the bourgeoisie) controls the social relations of production, the dominant ideology in capitalist society is that of the ruling class. Ideology and social institutions, in turn, serve to reproduce and perpetuate the economic class structure; according to Marx, the real foundation upon which the superstructure of social, political and intellectual consciousness was built, has been the exploitative economic arrangement of capitalism. Marx believes that any social setting based on exploitative economic arrangement generated within it the seed of its own destruction (Marx, 1971).

In general, conflict perspective views society as made up of individuals competing for limited resources. Competition over scarce resources is at the heart of all social relationships. Competition, rather than consensus, is characteristic of human relationships. Broader social structures and organisations reflect the competition for resources and the inherent inequality competition entails. Some people and organisations have more resources (i.e. power and influence), and use those resources to maintain their positions of power in the society (Marx, 1971). According to the conflict perspective, society is constantly in conflict over resources, and that conflict drives social changes. For examples, conflict theorists might explain the civil rights movements of the 1960s by studying how activists challenged the racially unequal distribution of political power and economic resources. As in this example, conflict theorist generally sees social change as abrupt, even revolutionary, rather than incremental. In the conflict perspective, change comes about through conflict between competing interest, not consensus or adaptations. Conflict theory, therefore, gives sociologists a framework for explaining social change. All conflicts share common qualities. The first is that there is a kind of contact between the parties that are involved, secondly, the parties in conflicts perceive conflicting views and finally, one of the parties always wants to redress existing contradictions (Ofuoku and Isife, 2009).

The Structural -Functionalist Theory

The structural functionalism evolves from the ideas of Emile Durkheim (1858-1917). It was concerned with how societies maintain internal stability and survives over time. It sought to explain social cohesion and stability through the concept of “solidarity”. To Durkheim, in more

primitive societies, he refers to as “mechanical solidarity”; where everyone performing similar tasks that held them together by shared values, common symbols or systems of exchange. While in modern complex societies, members perform very different tasks, giving rise to a strong interdependency between individuals. Durkheim’s argument here is that modern societies are held together by organic solidarity which is based on the metaphor of an organism in which many parts function together for the sustenance of the whole. All social and cultural phenomena are therefore seen as being functional in the sense of working together to achieve the state of equilibrium and are perfectly deemed to have a life of their own.

Application of the Theories

Conflict theory is relevant in proving the fact that competition for access to natural resources between farmers and herders gives rise to conflict. It sets the background for the origin of the conflict in terms of access to the means of production.

The structural- functionalist on the other hand emphasizes the conditions necessary for the society to remain at equilibrium or balanced position. It stressed the need for interdependence of both the cattle herders and crop farmers on the use of common resources as well as specialised areas. There is clear demarcation between different types of conflict in farmer-nomadic herder relations. Hagberg (1998) in Tonah (2006) has likewise made a distinction between the various types of conflicts in farmer-nomadic relations. He differentiates between disputes among individuals and groups, conflicts of interest and violent conflicts. While dispute refers to disagreement between two or more persons or groups, violent conflict involves mayhem, the destruction and killing of persons and livestock, arising from a dispute. Every farming system such as the nomadic cattle herding has a boundary, which separates it from the larger system, the environment. The boundary represents the limits in the larger system. Farmers increasingly compete with nomadic herders for farmland, pastures, water, trees and the use of rangeland in general (Akpaki, 2002 in Ofouku and Isife, 2009).

Perceived Causes of Farmer-Herder Conflict

From the study, respondents were requested to identify what they perceived to be the causes of their mutual conflict. The positive responses were tabulated on a 5 points Likert Scale, from

strongly Disagree =1, Disagree= 2, Undecided = 3, Agree = 4, Strongly agree = 5. The cut-off point was the mean of the cumulative points 1-5 which was calculated as 3.

Crop damage by cattle: result from the study indicates that a very large number of the respondents (f=88) have strongly agreed that crop damage by cattle is one of the causes of their mutual conflict.

Encroachment of cattle tracts: similarly, the study result shows that, a very high number of the respondents (f=93) have agreed with encroachment of cattle tracts as one of the causes of the conflict. On the contrary, only a few herders (f=24) disagree.

Inadequate grazing reserves: the study result also indicate that a very significant number of the respondents (f=17) agree that inadequate grazing reserves is one of the causes of their mutual conflict. While none disagree, a few (f=9) remain undecided

Lack of access to water point: the result indicates that a significant number (f=50) of the respondents agree that lack of access to water point is among the causes of their mutual conflict, although many (f=47) disagree, few (f=29) remain mutual.

Killing of stray cattle: result shows that a significant number (f=56) of the respondents disagree as against those that agree (f=47) with killing of a strayed cattle being among the causes of their conflict, 23 remain undecided.

Indiscriminate bush burning: result from the study indicates that more of the respondents (f=59) agree that indiscriminate bush burning is among the causes of farmer-herder conflict while only 25 disagree and 42 remain undecided.

Cattle rustling: the result also revealed that, a high number of respondents (f=76) agree with cattle rustling as being among the causes of their mutual conflict. 36 disagree while 14 remain undecided.

Land tenure system: from the result, a significant number of the respondents (f=68) agree land tenure is one of the causes of conflict in the area. Only very small number (f=23) disagree, while the rest (f=35) remain neutral.

Pollution of water points: the result further indicates that majority of the respondents (f=45) agree with pollution of water points as a cause of farmer-herder conflict in the study area, 40 remain neutral, while only 41 respondents disagree.

Change in climate condition: indicate that majority of the respondents (f=71) and the farmers have agreed with change in climate conditions as one of the causes of conflict in the area, while only (f=33) did not. The climate change may be the reason why herders move from the north to the south, as a result of the movement, the destruction of crops take place.

4.0 MECHANISM EMPLOYED BY TRADITIONAL POLITICAL INSTITUTION IN MANAGING FARMER-HERDER CONFLICTS

Result shows the various methods of conflict resolution commonly employed in managing/resolving the farmer-herder conflicts in the study area. Greater percentage of the respondents (42.5% of farmers and 37.6% of herders) indicated amicable resolution as the most popular method of managing/resolving conflict followed by verbal warning with a score of 38.2% farmers and 36.0% herders. Payment of compensation (18.9% of farmers and 26.4% herders) was less popular in the survey area, so equally with the re-allocation of new plot which was hardly experienced. The pattern of result obtained is attributed to the leading role played by the informal institutions in resolving the conflicts.

Effects of Herders and Farmers Conflict

The effects of conflict between herders and farmers are summarised below;

1. Destruction of lives and properties
2. Insecurity
3. Food shortage/insecurity
4. Suspicion
5. General under-development

5.0 CONCLUSION

Given the situation on ground, there exists distrust between herders and farmers in conflict ridden zones of Kogi State. It has become fierce that individual farmers now fear going to their various farms alone especially towards sun set as they believe they could be murdered by herders. The same situation pervades on the part of herders who entertain fear grazing their cattle within the conflict zone. From the findings, socioeconomic variable such as age has significant implication on the conflict. This is because of the fact that farming and rearing of animals are predominantly

carried out by middle aged people within the range of 30-50 years, who are energetic and therefore more willing to participate in violent conflict than the elderly persons. Also, a very low level of formal education is peculiar to the respondents, which is not a healthy situation with regard to the conflict; this is because educated people are more likely to bring better understanding to issues than uneducated people. Despite the importance of education, many of the respondents have not embraced it. The major immediate causes of the conflict are crop damage and land encroachment. Cultivation of crops was extended into grazing reserve and cattle routes, while crops are being eaten and destroyed by cattle. This is an issue that has consistently been in the forefront of most of the farmer-herder conflict. Each party blaming the other, but the reality is that, land has been under pressure as a result of increase in population coupled with the problem aggravated by poor land tenure administration. As such, farmers view cattle tracts and grazing reserves as lands not possessed by anyone and can therefore be freely encroached. The herders on the other hand, have the believe that feeding their cattle at whatever circumstances is a superior and uncompromising right given to them by nature. One of the major threats to peaceful coexistence according to findings from group discussion with some traditional rulers is the damage caused by the influx of Udawa and Bukoloji cattle herders, who usually comes through Niger/Nigeria border. These types of herders do not recognise the existence of any boundary in terms of their grazing and they come in hundreds and are usually fully armed with modern guns. They move with thousands of cattle sparing no farm. At the same time, a mix of weather related factors has pushed farmers to cultivate more land each year, leaving the herders fewer places to water and graze their stock. The resulting contests have been responsible for the deaths of several hundred Nigerians. This calls for urgent attention. It is therefore, important for government at all levels to put more machinery on ground to encourage climate adaptation and mitigation. Also, Nigeria as a country should invest more in combating crimes and also research should be enhanced to combat desert encroachment, which in the long run may reduce the north-south movement of the herders.

The traditional rulers played a significant role in the management of herder-farmer conflict, but the abolishing of native authority followed by the establishment of 1978 land use act that vested the authority over land to government, has limited their efforts in the regard.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested for proper conflict resolutions between cattle herders and the farmers:

- i. Formal education for both the herders and the farmers should be encouraged through sensitization using individual and mass communication with the aid of extension agents and radio programmes respectively. Also, nomadic education and vocational training schools should be strengthened to perform better.
- ii. Government at all levels should explore better involvement of indigenous resources user groups in policies relating to natural resources management and utilization.
- iii. Survey, demarcation, beaconing and grazing of the government owned grazing reserves and cattle routes, to reduce pressure on the already overstretched reserves.
- iv. Farmers and herders should form more cooperative and associations that can represent their interest and enable them speak as a group. This may reduce the frequency of jungle justice by seeking redress from relevant authority whenever dispute arises.

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