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DEMOCRATIC THEORY AND GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIA

ABAH, E. O. (Ph.D), KSU[*] , ZHIZHI ABLE[†] & USMAN ABUBAKAR[‡]

ABSTRACT

Democracy for now is the best system of government in the world. This is because democracy has the potentials of ensuring peaceful change of government and panacea to violent conflict. The fact that human development performance can be enhanced through the quality of a democracy has made scholars to see democracy as the sin qua non for development. However, many countries, especially the developing countries have not been able to maximize the dividends of democracy due to their inability to practice well when there is sound knowledge of the theories of democracy. Hence, this study is an examination of the theories of democracy. The study utilized secondary data such as text books, journals and internet materials. The study found that the most recent political developments throughout the world provoked interests in the theory of democracy. The study therefore recommends that leaders, especially those of the developing countries should always abide by the principles of democracy as it is the only way the benefits of democracy can be maximized.

KEY WORDS: Democracy, Democratic theories, Political participation, Good governance and Dividends of democracy.

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

i. The Concept of Democracy

Disagreements abound among social scientists on the concept of democracy. To some, it is government by the people in which the supreme power is vested in the people, exercised and directed by them or electoral system. To others, it is the institutionalization of human freedom.

The concept of democracy originated from ancient Greece. To the Greeks, 'Demos' mean the people, 'Kratos' means government or rule. Since the

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period of ancient Greek City States, scholars and practitioners have defined democracy variously. The former president of the United States of America, Abraham Lincoln, as quoted in Schumpeter (1967), defined democracy as the: government of the people for the people and by the people". Schumpeter (1967) sees democracy as:

Institutional arrangement for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to decide by means of competitive struggle for the people's votes. In Schumpeter's view, democracy means formation of electoral body, formation and registration of political parties, registration of voters, vying for political positions, voting on election etc.

For Sarton (1965) democracy is the power of people and rule of the people. To Sartori, democracy is people oriented. That is to say, a situation where power belongs to the masses that ultimately elect people that represents them. Apadoria, (1975) contends that democracy is a system of government in which the people exercise the governing power either directly or through representatives periodically elected by them.

Marx and Engels (1981) define democracy as the dictatorship of the proletariats. To the authors, democracy is a system, which the ruling class uses to exploit the masses. In other words, they disagree democracy is government of the people, for the people, and by the people. The pillars of democracy, Eze (1999:152) include: sovereignty of the people, government based upon consent of the governed, majority rule; equality before the law; due process of the law; constitutional limits on government., social; economic and political pluralism, values of tolerance, pragmatism, cooperation and compromise.

Electoral Participation and Procedures in Nigeria: trends, problems and implications for democratic process.

This section looks at electoral participation in Nigeria which has been characterized by violence. Attempts will be made to present an overview of electoral violence in Nigeria and its implications for democratic process.

The history of political violence including electoral violence in Nigeria could be traced to the colonial period. This means that thorough understanding of

the problem of electoral violence in Nigeria requires situating it within its political history. Scholars have argued that colonial settings laid the foundation of future political conflict in Nigeria. This argument was hinged on a number of British political experiments in West Africa in general and Nigeria in particular among which were, the introduction of the elective principle in 1922 and on the emergence of the 1946 Richards Constitution.

For instance, the elective principle, though to a very large extent was nonviolent, was too limited with income and residential qualifications, and could be a potential basis for violence (Omotola, 2007). This argument could be corroborated with what happened when elections were held into the regional Houses of Assembly in 1931 across the country. The elections which were held based on the then electoral system introduced by the 1951 constitution led to widespread dissatisfaction among majority of Nigerians in 1952. Thus, in 1953, there was increase in the intensity of political agitation (Falola, Mahadi, Uhomoibhi and Anyanwu, 1991).

The 1946 Constitution paved the way for the division of the country into three regions in which each region was dominated by a major ethnic group. For example, the Hausa-Fulani dominated the Northern region, while the Yoruba and the Igbo dominated the Western and Eastern regions respectively. Thus, within each region, there were numerous other so-called minorities which were at a considerable disadvantage as far as political power was concerned.

The emergence of political development in 1950s marked the genesis of electoral violence in Nigeria. In 1951, elections were held into the regional Houses of Assembly based, on the introduced electoral system of the 1951 Constitution. This electoral, system created a widespread dissatisfaction among Nigerians (Falola et al, 1991). The first and immediate post-independence electoral violence in Nigeria occurred during the 1964 general elections which was the first election to be conducted after independence. The Northern People's Congress (NPC) needed the elections to consolidate its power at the centre. The Action Croup (AC) also needed it in order to dislodge Chief S.L Akinlola from power in the West. The National Council of Nigerian Citizens (NCNC) on its own also wanted to improve its bargaining strength in the East. It became obvious that all the major political parties were adequately anxious to participate in the elections (Falola et al, 1991). By the middle of 1964, two major political alliances had, emerged

from all the maneuvers. The NPC and the NNDP founded the Nigerian National Alliance (NNA). The AG and the NCNC constituted themselves into the United Progressive Grand Alliance (UPGA). The 1964 federal election was contested between these major alliances (Ige, 1995). Two main coalitions contested these elections: the Nigerian National Alliance (NNA) made up of the NPC and some other minor
Parties; the United Progressive Grand Alliance (UPGA) comprising the NCNC, AG, NEPU and UMBC (Falola, et al, 1991), The campaigns by these coalitions generated much bitterness, acrimony and violence, (specially in the west. The elections which were said to have been impassively rigged through different means led to widespread violence/conflicts in the west following the announcement of results by the (‘chairman of Federal Electoral Commission in person of Mr. Esua. This argument could be corroborated with the address of President Azikiwe and the then Inspector General Police, Mr. Louis Edet.

Azikiwe in his dawn broadcast to the nation expressed the head of state’s condemnation of the way and manner the electioneering was conducted and is disappointment. According to him, the politicians in power have no right employ instruments of power in order to perpetuate their stay in office. The president cited instances where Nigerian citizens had been deprived of their constitutional right to freedom of association. He warned the politicians that: [If they have decided to destroy our national unity, they should summon a round table conference to decide how our national asserts should be divided or it is better that we should disintegrate in peace and not in pieces” (Anifowose, 1972). In a similar view, the Inspector General of Police, Louis Edet made a nation-wide broadcast reporting that incidents involving violence had reached alarming proportions. He appealed to the politicians to protect Nigeria’s enviable reputation as a bastion of democracy in Africa (Anifowose,1972).

The attendant violence, including arson, looting, killing, wanton destruction of properties and the total collapse of public order especially in the western region, was unprecedented. For example, at Ishokun, Ilesha, twenty school children were murdered on the ground that they were In town to combat an impending riot. Also, at Isho, a village few miles from Owo, sixteen people

were killed. As it was in the west, so also it went on in the Middle Belt. A good example was the second Tiv riot of 1964 (Anifowose, 1972),

The last straw that broke the camel's back was the elections into regional assembly in the west in October 1965. The announcement of the election results by the Federal Electoral Commission, which led to the victory of Chief S.L Akintola of the Nigeria National Democratic Party (NNDP) as against the wishes of many people who expected that Chief Adegbenro of the UPGA led o large-scale widespread violence in the whole of western region on the jround that there were irregularities in the election results. The decision of the federal government to recognize the election thus gave Chief Akintola the lower to form a new government. This however made UPGA to embark on a spontaneous and violent demonstration known. as "operation wet e'' - an operation which required the spraying of houses, cars and persons with petrol i and then setting fire on them (Ige, 1995). There were series of protests and demonstrations carried out hy angry students, market women, farmers and other groups in most towns and villages throughout the western region, and these were accompanied by looting, arson, killing on an unprecedented scale I... and burning ,of houses, vehicles and shops. Anti-governmental placards were displayed, party slogan- Awo! Awo! UPGA! UPGA! -as well as war songs were advanced. In some cases, the demonstration ended in clashes with anti-riot police squad, who did not hesitate to shoot. A typical song by the angry demonstrators was ''E jeki a mura ogun, eleyi 1 on. je iya (let us prepare for war, this is an insulting behaviours) (Anifowose, 197 2). The high rate of electoral violence (pre and post) following the 1964 and 1965 elections were said to have contributed in no small measure to the collapse of the first Republic (Osaghae 1998; Akinwumi 2004). The electoral process of the Second Republic (1979-1983) equally led to various cases of electoral violence across the whole of Nigeria. The most important one was the second election that was conducted after the first administration in 1983. The structure of politics, despite the alteration in the structure of the federation from three (and later four) regions of the first republic, to nineteen states, was still largely driven by ethno-religious forces, where each party maintained its stronghold in a given regional/ethnic domain (Omotola, 2007). For example, the National Party of Nigeria (NPN) dominated the Northern region, the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN) dominated the Western region while the National Council of Nigeria Citizen (NCNC)

dominated the Eastern region (Abimbola & Adesote, 2012). The National Party of Nigeria (NPN), obviously NPC's , successor, controlled the federal government between 1979 and 1983. In the 1983 elections, it wanted to extend its reach to other regions, either by hook or by crook. The attempt to achieve this underscored the massive rigging of the 1983 elections, which resulted in an unprecedented outbreak of violence in the Western region, where the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN), AG'S successor, held sway (Omotola, 2007). In the then Oyo and Ondo States, the two UPN states were declared for the NPN. This announcement led to unprecedented violence, in which a writer simply described it as 'the house of war' (Barbarinsa 2002). Although Ondo state was later returned to UPN at the Election Tribunal, series of violence that accompanied the disputed election results following various cases of alleged irregularities in the conduct of the election led to the collapse of the second republic; thus giving the military the opportunity to seize power on 31 December 1983.

This discourse would be incomplete without having a look at the aborted

Third Republic prior to the Presidential election in 1993, the local government and gubernatorial elections had already been conducted in preparation for the birth of the Third Republic. It is a known fact that Nigeria, since independence has never had any peaceful election devoid of violence and other electoral vices. Thus, the 1992/1993 elections were 'no exception. Meanwhile, the circumstances that led to the aborted Third Republic revealed that Gen. Ibrahim Babangida, a dictator, in spite of his long transition programme, had no intention Of handing over power to the civilian. This became known when he annulled the June 12,1-1993 presidential election which was internationally acclaimed as free and fair, and as well described by local observers as the fairest election in the postcolonial Nigeria. The annulment of the election caused series of crises especially in the Western part of Nigeria championed by some groups such as NADECO among others. The post electoral violence which followed the annulment of the June 12, 1991 election was what forced Gen. Ibrahim Babangida to form an Interim National Government (ING) headed by Ernest Shonekan, who was. latter overthrown, in what was regarded as peaceful coup of November 17 1993 General Sani Abacha (the maximum dictator). This development made the Third Republic an aborted republic (Abimbola & Adesote, 2012)

The military from then remained in power until May 29, 1999 after several attempts to democratize. Suffice it to say that between independence in 1960 and 1999 when civilian rule was restored, Nigeria produced only two elected governments and both were overthrown in military coup de'tats before completing a second term in office. Since the restoration of civil rule, attempts have not been made by politicians to deepen and strengthen democracy. Instead, Nigeria has only added to its. history of fraudulent and violent elections. The 1999, 2003 and 2007 general elections that .brought President Olusegun Obasanjo and later late President Umaru Yar' Adua to power were marred by such widespread violence and fraud. For example, this was how the US-based Jimmy Carter Centre for democracy which monitored the 1999 election as an international observer concluded its report on the outcome of the presidential election like the other before it ''it is not possible for us to make an accurate judgment about the outcome of the presidential election" (HRW, 2007). In the same vein, the 2003 elections were more pervasively and openly rigged than the flawed 1999 polls, and far more bloody.

These events set the stage for the 2007 elections, which both domestic and foreign observers succinctly described as the worst in Nigeria's history ranking among the worst conducted anywhere, in the world in recent times (HRW's interviews with voters and observers on the April 2007 elections). For instance, the US-based National Democratic Institute (NDI) stated in its post-election statement that the electoral process "failed the Nigerian people" (NDI, 2007). The Human Rights Watch (2007) which monitored the election in its report said the Nigeria's failed April 2007 polls cast a harsh and very overt light on patterns of violence, corruption and outright criminality that have come to characterize Nigeria's political system, and on the extent to which officials and institutions at all levels of government accept, encourage and participate in those abuses (HRW, 2007). The 2007 general elections had come and gone with all its attributes, and the 2011 general elections did not fundamentally depart from the previous elections, except that the degree of rigging was hot as monumental as the previous elections. Nigerians are now afraid of future elections especially the elections that are just few days away.
A look at the global trends and challenges to democratic transition and consolidation shows dearth of knowledge on the principles of democracy.

This manifests in the wrong practices of democracy especially in the developing countries. There are three major ways in which democracy has been and is being wrongly practiced. Firstly, is the issue of non-elected public officials making critical decisions that are largely outside the purview of elected officials. For example, much of economic policy, particularly the decisions of relatively independent central banks, fall into this category (Samarasinghe, 1994). The second one is the issue of electoral malpractices. One of the cardinal tenets of participatory democracy is orderly change of government through credible, free, fair and periodic elections. In most developing countries, institutions of the state such as the police, the military and even the electoral body collude to manipulate the electoral processes in favour of certain candidates. There are instances where individuals have won elections from the prison custody as in case of senator Omisore of Osun state and Governor Ahmefuna Orji of Abia state, contrary to the provision of the Electoral Act (Ogbonnaya, Omoju and Udefuna, 2012). The situation where elections are marred with monumental irregularities and malpractices does not depict democracy. The third one is the arbitrary use of power by the political leaders without resourse to constitutional dictates and provisions. The first in these series was the manner in which Odi Community in Bayelsa State was massacred under the huge loss of property and death of hundreds of people, mainly women and children (Yagboyaju, 2010).

Besides, the most recent political developments throughout the world have provoked interests in the theory of democracy. This makes it necessary to explore some of the major theoretical issues about democracy. Thus, the aim of this paper is to examine theories of democracy with special emphasis on the principles of democracy that countries and political actors could adopt to ensure good governance so that the people can enjoy the dividends of democracy.

ii. POLITICAL THEORIES OF DEMOCRACY

WHAT IS A THEORY?

It is important to answer this question on a more basic line. Thus, it is very important here that we know the etymology of theory. The word theory is a Greek word *theorein,* which means to look upon, to observe, to consider, to contemplate; and the noun *theoria* meant looking at, looking more closely,

observation, consideration, insight and scientific contemplation. The goal of these activities was to ascertain truth. The basic meaning of the word is still valid and underpins most of our modern definition of theory, including the definition of theory conveyed by this study. Theory is a higher form of generalization which has a wider application and enables prediction about a given phenomenon (Akpotor, 2000). The goal of theory is to explain something which has occurred with a view to dealing with problems which arose or may arise as a result (Cohen, 1968). The possible functions of theory can be indicated by stating that they can be indicated by stating that they can be basically descriptive, analytical or explanatory, and to a certain degree predictive as well, and inherently Prescriptive. A scientific theory must be consistent with the facts, otherwise it is mere fiction. Theories can be verified by experiments or by methodological observation. Theory can serve two purposes; one is simple, direct response; to be a guide to help solve the problem within the terms of the particular perspective which was the point of departure. The other is more reflective which gives rise to theorizing and its relation to the other is more reflective which gives rise to theorizing and its relation to the other prospective …..and to open up the possibility of choosing a different valid perspective from which the problematic becomes one of creating an alternative world (Cox, 1991).

Theory is as necessary as it is unavoidable. Without it, it would be impossible to learn or to act in consistent fashion; without generalizations and abstractions, the world exist for us only as a chaotic patch word of discrete, disconnected experiences and sensory impressions.

DEMOCRATIC THEORIES

Theories of democracy attempt to make democratic concepts operational by prescribing how democracy might be realized, in what institutional form, and the content of democracy. Thus it focuses on the procedural (input) aspect of the political process. Democratic theories provide answers to the perennial questions that plague the field of democratization studies. Such questions include:

a. Why is democracy so prominent in the world today?
b. What is the meaning of democracy?
c. Will democracy continue to expand?

d. Why is democracy succeeding in some countries and failing in other countries?
e. Are current forms of democracy sufficient to give voice to the people in an increasingly fragmented and divided world?
f. Who leads in democracy?
g. What types of non-western democratic theories are there?
h. Should democrats always defend democracy?
i. Should democrats be fearful of de-democratization, post democracies and the rise of hybridized regimes?

In view of the above, we can confidently say that democratic theories provide the means for essential debates on democratic issues to germinate and develop. Democratic theories also share the view that each member of the political community carries elementary rational capacities that are sufficient to judge the conduct of government. According to Fung (2007), democratic theories describe the values and principles that should guide collective decisions about social problems. The importance of theoretical framework in a study also lies in the fact that social science research is theory based and its operations are guided by relevant principles of human behavior (Goode and Hat, 1952). In modern political thought, traditionally the theories of democracy are categorized on how they conceptualize the people, citizenship, majority, and minority.

Elite Theory

The elite theory is a philosophical explanation of the role of the leadership in governance as it affects public policy including all socio-economic and political matters. The theory maintains that public policy reflects the values and preferences of the elite rather than demands of the masses. Elite theory directs attention to the source of policy flow and whose interest public policies serve. The major proponents of this theory are Gaetano Mosca (1858-1941), Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1023), and Robert Michels (1976-1936). The theory posits that a small minority, consisting of members of the economic elite and policy-planning networks, holds power and that this power is independent of a state's democratic elections process. According to Dowse and Hughes, (1983), elite theory is premised on a number of assumptions:

1. The society consist of two categories: the selected few, who are capable and, therefore, have the right to supreme leadership; and the vast masses of people who are desired to be ruled;
2. That the majority of human beings are apathetic, indolent and slavishly uninformed about what goes on in the administrative system and permanently incapable of self-government. That is, the elite decides on the structure, the personnel, the process of public policies of the administrative system; and
3. Hence, the structure, substance and output of the administrative system may be viewed as the preferences and values of the governing elite.

According to the elite theorist, important government decisions are made by identifiable and stable minority that shares certain, usually vast wealth and business connections (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998). Although the voters appear to control the government through elections, elite theorists argue that powerful few in society manage to define the issues and to constrain the outcomes of government decisions to suite their own interests. Thus, elite theorists believe that some nation states like United States are not democracy, but an oligarchy where government power is in the hands of elite (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998). While some believe that elites are bulwarks of democracy; protecting it from the dangers of totalitarianism, the sole source of value and element of democratic consolidation and political stability and constituting integrating force in the society without which it may fall part; other believe that elites are chief threat to the survival of democracy (Dowse and Hughes, 1983). This prompted Janda, Berry and Goldman (1998) to state that elite theory describes a government that operates in an undemocratic fashion.

The point of departure here is that elite theory attempts a realistic explanation of the source of policy by predicating it in the elite rather than the masses. Hence in democratic states public policies are seen emanating from the elite i.e., political, administrative economic leaders.

This theory is flawed because it is contradictory to democratic tents that lend credence to participation, openness, accountability and freedom in all spheres of societal life. The theory is also distasteful to may because it rules

out the more ideal aims and outcomes that are regularly voiced by intellectuals, mass movement leaders, and even loosely predicted by social scientist. Elite theory has no place for the spread of new values that dispose human beings toward a consistent and thorough altruism.

Liberal Theory of Democracy

The central idea of liberal theory of democracy is how to design a political system which encourages individual participation and enhances moral development of citizens. Some of the proponents of this theory include John Locke, J.J. Rousseau, John Stuart Mill, Montesquieu and other Liberal writers whose theories advocate private liberty, natural rights, social justice, majority rule and private property (Oddih, 2007, cited in Kwasau, 2013). The major argument of the theory is that democracy is based on majority rule. The basic features of liberal democratic theory are: (a) acceptance of capitalism, (b) free, fair and periodic elections based on universal franchise, (c) emphasis on civil liberties or individual rights such as freedom of speech, assembly, press and religion, (d) competitive party system as opposed to one party system, € pressure groups (f) rule of law, (g) separation of powers and checks and balances, (h) abhorrence of revolutionary approach to change of government etc (Kwasau, 2013). In addition, there must be recognition of minority rights, respect for the constitution, more than one party competition for political power and periodic elections through which the people exercise their wills (Yunusa, 2013).

Critiques have argued that, liberal democracy is an integral part of the capitalist system; therefore, it is class-based and not democratic or participatory.

PLURALIST THEORY OF DEMOCRACY

This is a theory put forward to explain interest group influence on public policy. Pluralist theory connects democracy to power held by special interests he leading proponents of this theory include; J. N, Figgis (1866-1919), G. D. H. Cole (1889-1959) and H. J. Laski (1893-1950) (Hirst, 1993). Pluralist theory holds that people with common interests form organized groups to promote their causes and influence the political agenda. The theorists argue that in a diverse society such too many interest exist to allow any one coherent group of elites to rule. In other words, governments

decisions are made in an arena of competing interests exist to allow any one coherent group of elites to rule. In other words, government decisions are made in an arena of competing interests, all vying for influence and struggling to speak for the people that they represent. This theory maintains that no single group, industry, or government agency dominates politics. It also asserts that a healthy competition exists in the development of the policy agenda and in the selection of the policy makers. According to his theory, because of the competition between the varied and diverse interest, no single interest is likely to have its view win consistently over others.

There tends to be little overlap between those leaders who participate most influentially in one policy area and those who are influential in other policy areas, and what linkage there is tends to come from popularly elected political officials (especially political executives and party leaders) who, by the nature of their jobs, must exercise leadership (or ac as brokers) in a number of different policy areas. There is no single, unified "power elite", but rather there are many competing power elites with different backgrounds, values and bases of support in the broader society.

PROCEDURAL DEMOCRATIC THEORY

Procedural democratic theory set forth principles that describe how government should make decisions. The theory came up with four principles; Universal participation, political equality, majority rule and government responsiveness to public opinion to guarantee that election are democratic and that elected representative should respond to public opinion. These principles address three distinctive questions:

1. Who should participate in decision making?
2. How much should each participant's vote count?
3. How many votes are needed to reach a decision? (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998).

Procedural democratic theory that all adults within the boundaries of the political community should participate in government decision making. According to the theory, all votes should be counted equally. The theory also holds that a group should decide to do what the majority of its participants want to do. Believing that the principle of responsiveness is absolute, the theory argues that government should do what he majority of people wants,

regardless of what that is (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998). This theory has been accused of possessing criteria that can produce undesirable social policies that prey on minorities. However, the minority's right can be protected by limiting the majority rule; either by requiring a two-third majority when decisions must be made on very important matters or by putting the issues in the constitution, far beyond the reach of the majority rule.

SUBSTANTIVE DEMOCRATIC THEORY

Substantive democratic theory emphasizes on the substance of government policies rather than the procedure followed in making such government policies. The theory argues that in a democratic government, certain principles must be embodied in government policies. There is a general consensus by most substantive theorists that:

1. Government policies should guarantee civil liberties (freedom of behavior such as freedom of religion and freedom of expression); and
2. Civil right (power or privilege that government may not arbitrarily deny individuals, such as protection against discrimination in employment and housing).

Substantive theories agree that these basic criteria underlie democratic government and its policies.

Substantive democratic theory has been criticized because it does not provide clear, precise criteria that allow us to determine whether a government is democratic.

PUBLIC CHOICE THEORY

Public Choice theorists attempt to examine the system of government in which the people governed define their government by means of a constitution; it is concerned with the decision-making behaviors of voters, politicians and government officials. Public choice theory is a branch of economics that developed from the study of politics based on economic principles. James Buchanan, (winner of the Nobel Prize in Economic Science, 1986, for work in Public Choice) and Gordon Tullock are credited with being the primary developers of Public Choice Theory. Their book,

Calculus of Consent, published in 1962, is still the classic piece on this subject (Shaw, 2012).

Public Choice theorists argue that rational people would mutually agree upon limited government also known as 'social contact' and that politicians are primarily motivated by self-interest. The theorists believe that politicians have a vested interest in growing government well beyond social contract. Public Choice scholars looked at the ways politicians interact with each other, the voters, and their supporters to achieve their own goals. Vote-trading, "log-rolling", wealth transfers, etc. are a few of the methods they use to obtain their own selfish ends – and, occasionally, the wants of the citizens.

In addition to voters and politicians, public choice also analyses the role of bureaucrats in government. Their incentives explain why many regulatory agencies appear to be "captured" by special interests. Capture occurs because bureaucrats do not have a profit goal to guide their behavior. Instead, they usually are in government because they have a goal or mission. They rely on the legislature for their budgets, and often the people who will benefit from their mission can influence legislature to provide more funds. This is why Niskanen (1973) posited hat the behavior of public sector bureaucrats is at the heart of public choice theory, "while they are supposed to work in the public interests, putting into practice the policies of government as efficiently and effectively as possible, public choice theorists see bureaucrats as self-interest, putting into practice the policies of government as efficiently and effectively as possible, public choice theorists see bureaucrats as self-interest utility-maximizes, motivated by such factors as: "salary, prerequisites of the office, public reputation power patronage and the ease of managing the bureau". Thus, for Niskanen, self-interest is the sole motivator. To buttress this point further, Downs Anthony also added that the heart of all public choice theories is the notion that an official at any level, be they in the public or private sector, acts at least partly in his own self-interest, and some officials are motivated solely by their own self-interest. For him, broader motivations such as pride in performance, loyalty to a programme, department or government, and a wish to best serve their fellow citizens may also affect a bureaucrat's behavior, and the level to which self-interest plays

a role in decisions is different for each of five bureaucratic personality types that he identifies (Downs, 1967).

The most important contribution of Public Choice Theory is that is recognizes that politicians are motivated by self -interest, just like every other person in the society. It is important to mention here that a politician's self -interest is more serious than that of other people in the society. This accounts for why politicians change dramatically and fall short of the peoples' expectations, especially in developing countries where the self-interest action of the politicians have sent many youths into armed robbery, militancy, kidnapping, political assassins and terrorism, just to improve the political situation of the politicians. As a matter of fact, most developing countries in Africa are having so much trouble with their democratic government today because they are losing sight of the reality that politicians are self-interested and the public is not challenging them with the instrumentalities of the law.

MAJORITARIAN THEORY OF DEMOCRACY

Majoritarian theory of democracy focuses on the will of the majority. The theory interprets government by the people as government by the majority of the people. The popular election of government officials is the primary mechanism for democratic government in the Majoritarian theory of democracy. Dahl (1989) views majoritarianism as the foundation of a democratic system, and therefore enumerates four major arguments in favour of majoritarian governance: it maximizes self-determination, it is the necessary consequence of practical requirements, it is more likely to produce correct decisions, and it maximizes utility (Dahl 1989).

The theory argued that he citizens are expected to control their representative's behavior by choosing wisely in the first place and by electing or voting out public officials according to their performance. Majoritarian theorists contend that citizens can control their government if they have adequate mechanism for popular participation. The theory assumes that citizens are knowledgeable about government and politics, that they want to participate in the political process and that they make rational decisions in voting for their elected representatives (Janda, Berry and

Goldman, 1998). Thus, majoritarian theorists see election as a means for deciding government policies (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998).

Critics however contend that if permanent minority groups are present in the society, they can have a chance to get their preferred policy outcomes enacted.

DELIBERATIVE DEMOCRATIC THEORY

Deliberative democratic theory is a normative theory that suggests ways in which we can enhance democracy and criticize institutions that do not live up to the normative standard. For the fact that the theory is anchored on the conceptions of accountability and discussion, it is regarded as an expansion of conceptions of accountability and discussion; it is regarded as expansions of representative democracy. Deliberative democratic theory looks at the social, economic, political and historic conditions necessary for healthy deliberation as well as the attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs required of participants. The main argument of deliberative democratic theory is that deliberation can change minds and transform opinions. The theory also maintains that individual autonomy is very important as it afford citizens the equal opportunities to offer and accept the reasons that justify collective rules and actions.

According to Cohen (1996), certain individuals liberties are necessary for citizens to form and judge views autonomously, prior to and in the course of political deliberation. Sunstein (2002) stressed that deliberation sharpens our disagreements, intensifies social competition and polarizes opinion. Thus many believe that deliberation under the right conditions will have a tendency to broaden perspectives, promote toleration and understanding between groups, and generally encourage a public-spirited attitude (Gutmann and Thompson 1996). Freeman (2002) also added that when the process of deliberation applies not just to the formation of policy, but to its specification and implementation, talk can make government more competent. Deliberative democratic theorists argued that deliberative democracy favours institutions that subjects political decisions making to reason. Cohen (1996), Gutmann and Thompson (1996) and Richardson (2002) believe that the conventional institutions of civil society, political parties, representative legislatures, courts, and administrative agencies can be reformed to create a

complex political division of labour that advances the values of self-government through the reasoned rule of equal citizens.

TRADITIONAL THEORY OF DEMOCRACY

Traditional theory of democracy promotes majority rule without violating minority rights, maintaining the willingness to compromise, and recognizing the worth and dignity of all people. Traditional theory of democracy holds that governments for all types, including democracies, derive their power from the consent of the governed.

Traditional democratic theorists argue that everyone has the right to participate in government. This participation can occur either by direct or representative vote. In a direct vote, the people approve public policy themselves. This situation works well on a small scale, as in a town meeting. In a representative vote, a group of elected officials acts on behalf of their constituents. This type of vote is used at the state and national levels determine public policy. For voting to be effective at any level, people need access to information, so they can make informed decisions. The U.N. General Assembly's 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights put it succinctly by stating, "The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of the government" (https://www.brainscape.com).

DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIA

A critical look at the practice of democracy in Nigeria vis a vis the above theories of democracy, shows a negation of democracy. According to John Ikubaje quoted in Obukohwo (2007) democratic governance in Nigeria seems to be exactly opposite of what democracy by Nigerian leaders. Democratic governance in Nigeria is characterized with exclusion or non-participation of citizens in governance, lack of accountability, transparency and responsiveness on the part of government officials, absence of checks against abuse of power disrespect for the rule of law, inequality before the law, absence of promotion and defense of human rights etc. election into political offices in Nigeria are usually not the peoples' choice. Gbadebo (2001) described all previous elections into different elective offices in the country since the time of independence in 1960 as grave manipulation against the will of the electorate. To buttress this point further, the Transition Monitoring Group TMG described the 2003 election thus:

> *While the voters waited and persevered in the polling stations to cast their votes, the political class and the political parties had different ideas. The voters wanted their votes to determine the winner of the election, while the political class wanted to corrupt the process and rig their way into elective office on the whole, the result can be said to marginally reflect the choice and will of the Nigeria people (TMG, 2003, cited in Adejumobi and Agbaje, 2006:39).*

Nigeria's democracy also lack respect for fundamental human right. It is noted for its extra-judicial killing, unlawful detention and other series of human right abuses. Any acct of torture or extra-judicial killing is a violation of human right not compatible with tenet of democracy. In Nigeria, gunshots and horse whips are still instrument of compliance or obedience used by the security forces, while torture is on regular basis employed by the police force to extract confessional statements from suspects. It is for this reason that United States of America refused to sell combatant air craft named 'Cobra' to Nigeria, on the basis of the allegation that Nigeria's defense defence forces have been violating human rights of Boko Haram suspects when captured or arrested (Soriwei and Adepegba, 2014). It is important to mention here that the killing of the former Boko Haram leader Muhammed Yusuf cannot be instances fromn being a primary cause of the rampage by the sect. maybe if the leader was alive things would not have gobe worse (Ajah, 2011). According to Alonge and Anegbode (2011), apart from the fact that useful information would have been gathered from Muhammed Yusuf, his hasty killing infringes on his fundamental human rights as enshrined in the chapter 4 of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Another area where democratic practices run contrary to the tenets of democracy in the above theories is in the area of disrespect for the rule of law. John (2011) described Obasanjo's administration as "the worst" when it comes to executive lawlessness. A good example is the refusal of Obasanjo to pay all the statutory allocation due to Local Government Council in Lagos State on the order of the Supreme Court. However, it was Yar' Adua's regime that later enforced the Supreme Court order, paying Lagos State money worth 108 billion naira (Adenyi, 2011).

The judiciary has not escaped the vagaries of the abuse of the rule of law. It has been under attack by the general public for its breach of public trust by judicial pronouncement that tend to appear externally influenced. A reference point is the case of AbdulrashidMaina who was asked to pay 750,000 naira by the judiciary for embezzling 30 billion naira police pension fund.

The imposition of electoral candidate on the people is also common with Nigeria's democracy. This usually happens where Incumbent President or Governors have vested interest in some persons, and they go to any lent; including breaching of constitutional provision and disenfranchisement of some persons to ensure that their choice candidate emerge victorious. This act is in contrary to the tenet of democracy and does not help democratic development in any way. As a matter of fact, for a nation desirous of progress and economic transformation, Nigerians, especially the leaders must at all-time imbibe deeply the principle of democracy as postulated by theories of democracy.

CONCLUSION

From the above theories of democracy, it is obvious that democracy means governments established by and with the consent of the people. It also shows that democracy connotes the acceptance of the people's will as supreme in governance of public affairs. It is also obvious that the constitution is very essential in a democratic government as both the leaders and the led are expected to obey the constitution. In a democratic government, leaders are chosen by the people through election; hence elections should be free and fair. Since the development of any nation is tied to the extent to which its government and/or governance is democratic, leaders are expected to master the theories of democracy. Mastering the theories of democracy involves considering every aspect of democratic principles; free and fair elections, obedience to the constitution, acceptance of the people's will during elections and paying constant attention to the will of the majority who elected them to make laws. As a matter of fact, leaders must carefully study the theories of democracy so as to uncover their true meaning and significance, not just taking them at face value.

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STAFF TRAINING AND EFFECTIVE SERVICE DELIVERY: CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

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ABSTRACT

This paper examined the challenges and prospects of staff training and its effect on effective service delivery, using the University of Benin as a case study. It was argued that the human capital is the most important factor in an organisation, hence the need for training and development of employees to ensure effective service delivery in an organisation. However, the focus was on the challenges and prospects of staff training in an organisation. Specifically, the aim of the article was to find out the challenges of staff training in the University of Benin, the impact of these challenges on effective service delivery and proffer solutions to the challenges. The human capital theory was deployed to explain the importance of employee training in an organisation. The study relied on secondary sources of data. Such as recorded statistics, journals, books and internet materials. It was discovered in this research that inadequate funding and absconding of staff after training are the major challenges of staff training which also impacts on effective service delivery in the University of Benin. This paper therefore concluded that the challenges of staff training affects effective service delivery and commitment of staff to an organisation. It went further to recommend among others that funds should be harnessed for staff training

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and that staff should be rewarded after acquiring and utilising training skills on their jobs effectively.

KEYWORD: Staff training, Effective service delivery, Human resource, Organisation, Motivation

INTRODUCTION

The most important resource of an organisation is the human factor. For the full potential of the human factor to be realised, the organisation's management must give a considerable attention to the development of its human resources. It is the duty of the human resource management of an organisation to find out the need for staff development and the type of development needed by the workers. Although there are different practices of human resource management geared towards the development of the human resources, training is one of the main activity to ensure qualified, flexible, and proactive employees (Aroge, 2012) and achieve high organisational productivity (Ajayi & Leidner, 2010).

Staff training is a continuous effort designed to improve employees' competence, capacity and performance. It is an effort initiated by an organisation to foster learning among its workers and oriented more towards broadening an individual's skills for future responsibilities. For workers to be more efficient and effective in an organisation, the organisation must invest in the training process. However, training vary from organisation to organisation in relation to the degree of external environmental change, the degree of change in the internal environment, current suitable skills on the job and the level to which the management considers training as a motivating factor in the workplace.

In order to succeed in a business or in a career in a modern economy, there is need for people to be flexible in their work and constantly change the range of skills they use at work. The only way to achieve this is through training. Studies have also shown that workers put in their best if their needs are identified and met. Aibieyi (2010), explained that training can assist, motivate and create a sense of accomplishment which generally brings progress and build ones confidence on the job. It is therefore of primary importance that organisations must ensure the effective training of its

personnel, since the goals of an organisation can only be met by the workers, for it to meet up with the dynamics of business.

Service delivery on the other hand is the process whereby workers or employees handle their affairs to fulfill their duties. These services should be delivered in an effective, predictable, reliable manner. Effective service delivery involves creating a win-win situation for both an organisation company and its customers. To do this, a company must provide its customers with value for money and time. As a result of doing this, the customers can derive maximum benefits from the services or products provided by an organisation. Kingman-Brundage as cited in Nzenwata (2020) opined that service delivery system effectiveness is closely related to the level to which a system's goal have been achieved. An effective service delivery system therefore is the one that is capable of delivering the outcome for which it was originally designed and developed (Mahoney, 2008).

Goodman and Harris (2015) observed that the main focus has been on improving individual task performance on the basis of speed, accuracy, and time needed to learn, and have used these to estimate individual productivity. This simply means that in order to achieve effective service delivery, there must be learning and re-learning. This is where the need for training comes in. it can therefore be aid that in order to achieve effective service delivery, workers must be trained and re-trained in line with the expectations of their jobs.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of every organisation is to maximise output and make profit. However, this can only be possible when the human resources of the organisation are well motivated to put in their best to ensure effective service delivery. Staff training has been identified as one of the factors that motivates and equips workers for effective service delivery in an organisation. However, despite the presence of training in virtually all public institutions in Nigeria, effective service delivery still remains a big issue in public institutions. This study therefore identified some of the challenges and prospects of staff training and their impact on effective service delivery. To achieve this, the chapter was divided into five sections. The first section encompasses the introduction and statement of the problem. The objectives

of this study, theoretical framework and the literature review made up the second section. The third section focused on explaining the impact of staff training on effective service delivery. Section four discusses the challenges of staff training and the impacts on effective service delivery. Lastly, the conclusion and recommendations were captured in fifth the section. In all these, the University of Benin was a major focus.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- Determine the impact of staff training on effective service delivery
- Determine the challenges of employees' training in the University of Benin
- Determine the impact of the challenges of employees' training on effective service delivery of staff in the University of Benin
- Make appropriate recommendations

LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the major components in the coordination and management of work in an organisation is the management of human resource, the job of the human resource management is to properly manage employees at work. Shen (2014) referred to Human Resource Management as including all of management activities and decisions that influence the relationship between an organisation and its employees which are the human resource. In the same view, Beardwell and Holden (2013), argued that it is the responsibility of the human resource management that will bring about organisational growth and development. Krietner (2015), also observed that no matter how carefully employees are screened, typically, a gap remains between what the employee does know and how they should know it. The concept of training therefore requires not only a careful planning, but a more emphasis on employee development because an organisation that is desiring to gain the competitive edge will need extensive labour and effective training of its human resource.

Flowing from the foregoing, human resource professionals believe that an organisation is only as good as its employees. This understanding suggests that training should be more specifically responsive to employees training needs (Noe, 2008). Arguing in the same line, Bratton & Gold (2000) affirm that successful corporate leaders recognise that their competitive edge in today's market place is their people. Some authors have also argued that the

purpose of training is to develop the capacities of employees and by extension represents an investment in human resources (Ulrich & Lake, 2010). Cole (2011) states that one way to prepare the organisation for the future was to train and develop its manpower so as to be able to cope with new demands, new problems and new challenges. According to Nunvi (2006), training programs are directed towards maintaining and improving current job performance while development seeks to improve skills for future jobs. In other words, the idea of training is the need for a greater productivity. The purpose of training therefore is to improve the skills, competence and expertise of workers in an organisation in order to boost organisational productivity and profit.

Training in an organisation requires a systematic approach. Increase in employees' productivity have been linked to their ability to acquire new skills and knowledge through training. It is therefore important that a careful procedure must be adopted in the training of employees in order to achieve high organisational productivity and growth. Based on this notion, Infande (2015) identified four procedures that managers can use to determine the training needs of employees in their organisations:

a. Job requirements analysis. The skills and knowledge specified in the appropriate job description are examined. The employees without the skills needed are candidates for a training program.

b. Organisational analysis. The effectiveness and successes of an organisation are analyzed to determine where differences exist. For instance, members of a department with a high turnover rate or a low performance record might require additional training.

c. Performance appraisals. Here, each employees work is measured against objectives established for his or her job.

d. Human resource survey. Managers as well as non-managers are expected to describe what problems they are experiencing at their workplaces and, what actions they believe can be taken to solve the problems. Immediately the training needs are identified, the human resource department must initiate the appropriate training effort, to

close the gap between expected and actual results. This may also depend on circumstances like; developing a training plan, designing a training lesson, selecting trainer and preparing the trainers.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This paper adopted the theory of human capital to explain the importance of staff training and effective service delivery. There are different schools of human capital, however the theories of Becker, Bowles and Spence applies more to the issue of training and effective service delivery of workers. The Becker's theory on human capital was formulated in 1962 and it is directly useful in the production process. These include school education, training, attitude towards work, and others. It explains that developing the human capital increases a worker's productivity in all tasks. In the same line, Bowles explained in his human capital theory of 1975 that the main role of schools is to instill in individuals the knowledge to approach life (Kern, 2009). More so, Spence's theory of 1973 explains that observable measures of human capital are more a signal of ability than characteristics independently useful in the production process (Spence 1973). The deduction from these three human capital theories of Becker, Bowles and Spence is that human capital is the ability of the worker to increase productivity and this ability can be acquired through learning. Human capital development therefore refers to acquired stock of knowledge or characteristics a worker has that contributes to his or her efficiency and effectiveness.

The human capital theory (re-)introduced the view that education and training represent investment in future productivity and not just consumption of resources. In this perspective, firm and workers alike depend on investments in human capital to increase competitiveness, profits, and pay. Although the benefits are obvious, these investments come at a cost. The theory of human capital is used to analyse the effects of developing the human capital on productivity and income (Becker, 1962). In addition, McNabb and Whitfield (1994) explained that the acquisition of human capital through education and training is an investment in the sense that the individual and/or organisation foregoes current income for increased earnings potential in the future. Accordingly, human capital is considered to be a resource that can provide a competitive advantage to the extent that

Human Resource practices produce skilled employees who provide value to the firm. Although there is a strong belief that training is related to organisational-level outcomes (Klein & kozlowski, 2000), the theoretical rationale for this relationship has seldom been the focus of training research.

Applying the above expressions to the focus of this work implies that the human capital is very essential in an organisation. Furthermore, it is very important to develop the human capital through training and development in order to yield effective service delivery. However, the process of human capital development comes with a cost which may sometimes pose as challenges to the training process and effective service delivery as well.

IMPACT OF STAFF TRAINING ON EFFECTIVE SERVICE DELIVERY

Staff training is a form of specialised education aimed at giving trainee a particular or specialised knowledge, skill and attitude which he must possess to effectively perform in a given position. In line with this, Aroge (2012) explains that staff training involves the acquisition and changing of specific skills, knowledge, attitude and social behavior for the purpose of an occupation or work. Training is the preparation for an occupation or for specific skills which is job or task oriented rather than personal. Training means to help employees apply compliance concepts to their jobs. However, in the UNIBEN, both the academic staff and the non-academic staff are allowed to go for training from time to time to update their knowledge and gain more competence on their job. Staff training therefore is an avenue to acquire more and new knowledge and develop further skills and technique to function effectively.

In addition to the above, there are two methods of training often practiced in the University of Benin. They are: off the job training and on the job training. Off the job training is a process of acquiring skill and knowledge at a location different from the employee's office. This includes seminars, conferences and workshops. Seminars and conferences are training programs organised by professional association and groups to keep themselves abreast of the latest skill, rules and regulations in their profession. On the job training on the other hand, allows for the worker to be trained in the actual working sceneriois.it is necessitated by rapid changes in the work

environment and are often short term courses that are conducted by organisations to keep the employees updated with latest developments and emerging challenges.

Modern organisations seem to have defined effective service delivery in terms of optimum utilisation of human and material resources; minimum wastage and avoidance of rework; and quantitative and qualitative production at lower cost (Ilyas, Kadir &Adnan, 2017). Training solves the problem by exactly explaining the job description, and reduction of duplication of efforts in the work place (Cyril 2012). Bouwman (2013) explains that training programs helps employees to get better skills and understanding of their job which goes a long way in reducing their chances of making mistakes while at work. In the UNIBEN for example, staff who have gone for training, tends to show more knowledge and understanding of their job than the ones who do not go for training (Department of Human Resources and Staff Training, University of Benin, 2020). Training therefore facilitates organisation to recognise that its workers are not performing well and thus their knowledge, skills and attitudes need to be molded according to the goals of the organisation. It is also important for employees to possess a certain amount of knowledge related to different jobs.

CHALLENGES OF TRAINING IN THE UNIVERSITY OF BENIN

Organisations are surrounded by different political, economical, social and technoloigical challenges to which they need to pay attention regardless of their size, location and industry (Nolan, 2002). These challenges influence the internal activities of organisations including the training and development of employees. Training and development of employees in an organisaton is faced with several challenges such as; high cost of training programmes, lack of experienced training personnels, and more (Alemu, 2017). However, in addition to these challenges, this research consulted the document record of staff training in the University of Benin to find out the challenges of staff training in the institution. It was discovered in the University of Benin that one of the major challenges of staff training is the absconding of staff after training. This is evidenced in the table below:

Table showing the statistics of staff training in the University of Benin (2016-2019).

Staff Training feedback	Academic Staff	Non-academic Staff	Total
No. of staff who were supposed to go for training	310	382	692
No. of Staff who were still on training	148	190	338
No of staff who are supposed to have resumed	162	177	339
No. of staff who have resumed after training	151	82	233
No. of staff who did not resume after training	11	95	106
No of staff who deferred their training leave	-	5	5
No of staff who withdrew from training	-	3	3
No of staff who suspended their training	-	7	7

(Source: Department of Human Resources and Staff Training, University of Benin)

The table explains the challenges of staff training in the University of Benin through the statistics of staff training report of the University of Benin from 2016 to 2019. From the statistics above, a total of 692 staff of the University of Benin were supposed to go for training between 2016 and 2019. However, 5 of the staff deferred their training, 3 staff withdrew from the training while 7 staff suspended their training. From the table above, it can be observed that 106 of the 339 staff who were supposed to have resumed did not return back to their jobs thereby creating so many lags in the university. This coupled with the 338 staff who were still on training leave, simply means that there were 444 positions that were not actively occupied as at that time. More so, the positions hitherto occupied by those absconded staff will have to be filled with new staff, thereby causing some stress to the institution until qualified employees are source to replace them.

Another problem of staff training observed in this study is that of insufficient funding. It was observed that some of the employees who go for training, contributed to their training from their personal finance due to the fact that the school cannot fully fund their training. This is not far from the reason why some may not return back to their duties after the training because they

will prefer to go with better opportunities outside the school. Some employees are discouraged to go for training outside the school confines because they know they will have to spend more outside than acquiring the training within the school (Department of Human Resources and Staff Training, UNIBEN, 2020). The implication of this to both the employee and the school is that the employee would be limited to the knowledge offered by the school and continue to recycle the same knowledge.

The challenges of staff training and the impact on effective service delivery therefore include the following:

- Poor funding for training by organisations will discourage workers from embarking on training, thereby limiting their knowledge and exposure.
- Flowing from the first problem, most staff are unwilling to apply or utilise the knowledge they acquired from the training on their jobs, they would rather charge the organisation or institution to pay for such new ideas because they have spent a lot in acquiring such knowledge. This will affect knowledge dissemination.
- Another major problem of staff training is the absconding of staff. In the University of Benin for example, there are a lot of cases where staff who went for training, both in the academic and non-academic staff category, do not return back to the institution. Some of the reasons being that they got better opportunities elsewhere after or during the training, or they decided to start their own organisations with the knowledge acquired from the training. Absconding of staff can lead to instability in the organisation which will in turn affect effective service delivery.

CONCLUSION

This paper recognised the fact that the human resource is the most important factor of an organisation which by implication requires to be well managed by the human resource management of an organisation. It identified training as a means of improving the human resource of an organisation for effective service delivery. Hence organisations must invest on their human resources by way of training and developing its workers in order to meet up with the dynamic business environment.

The benefit of training employees was stretched further by applying the human capital theory which explains that training is very important in every organisation but it comes with a price (challenges). The paper examined the challenges of employee training by studying the case of the University of Benin. The findings from the study shows that some of the major challenges of staff training that affects effective service delivery include the issue of availability of funds and absconding of staff after training. These challenges have huge impacts on both the employees' service delivery and the organisational productivity.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Flowing from the above, it is important to tackle the challenges of staff training to ensue effective service delivery in an organisation. The following are some of the recommendations/prospects:

- Employees should be encouraged to embark on other developmental courses that could impact on their general performance and increase organisational performance. This can be done by harnessing funds from the government and other international organisations for staff development.
- Resources meant for staff training and development should be judiciously and strictly utilised for that purpose
- Staff who are going for training should be made to sign a bond to return back to their duties after training.
- Organisations should make provision for the assessment of workers based on the training they attended. More so employees who are able to deliver better skills and knowledge on their jobs after training should be compensated.
- The terms and conditions of workers should be made more attractive to motivate workers to return to their various jobs after training.

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HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT ON ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE: ISSUES, CHALLENGES AND INTERPLAY IN KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY, ANYIGBA NIGERIA.

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ABSTRACT

The study titled "Human Capital Development Performance: Issues Challenges and Interplay in Kogi State University" is intended to examine the establishment and the core mandate of the university, the extent of compliance with achievement in conformity with global practice. It was nevertheless discovered that certain interplay arising from government interferences rendered the institution as shadow of its mandate. The study concludes that a more improved human capital development through routine or regular evaluation of human capital development programme is a must and a requirement.

INTRODUCTION

Human Resources are the most valuable assets of any organization. With the machines, materials, land and money, nothing get done without human effort. The potentials of human efforts are simply what are termed Human Capital. These are the set of people that an organisation hires to achieve her set goals and objectives. (Abiodun 2012).

Therefore, the effectiveness and success of an organisation lies on the people who form the workforce of the organisation. It follows therefore, that for the employees in an organisation to be able to perform their duties and make meaningful contributions to the success of the organisational gaols, they need to acquire relevant skills and knowledge (Abiodun 2012). Human

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Capital Development is thus, the systematic acquisition of relevant skills, knowledge and expertise in other to be able to function effectively, efficiently and optimally in an organisation for the overall success of that organisation.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY AND THE CORE MANDATE

Accordingly, Kogi State University, Anyigba was established against the statistical data that every year, less than one-third of the annual total number of prospective students from Kogi State seeking admission into universities in the country are able to get placements. Moreover, it is accepted that Kogi State is educationally backward (KSU 2008). This does not necessarily suggest that, upon being established, only indigenes of Kogi State would be admitted as students or employed as staff by the university. Thus, the university formally came into being on November 18, 1999. The bill establishing the university was signed into law by the then Executive Governor of Kogi State, Late Prince Abubakar Audu.

Kogi State University, Anyigba was established as a centre of academic excellence that will stimulate accelerated development through research and Human Capital Development. The university was designed to primarily meet the needs of Kogi State, the nation (Nigeria) and the globe in high-level human capital and development. Its philosophy was premised on academic and intellectual excellence. Accordingly, the philosophy and objectives of Kogi State University, Anyigba includes the following:

1. As an institution of high learning committed to scholarly pursuits with special relevance to the development of Kogi State in particular and Nigeria in general.
2. To provide training that is relevant to the social, cultural, economic, scientific and technological needs of Kogi State in particular and Nigeria in general.
3. To encourage the advancement of learning at the highest level.
4. To provide course of instruction and other facilities for acquisition of knowledge in all fields.
5. To encourage and promote scholarship and conduct research in all areas of learning and human endeavour.

6. To act as centre of academic excellence that will stimulate development through research and human capital development and to relate its activities to the local environment.
7. To undertake any other academic pursuits for accelerated development in the new millennium. (KSU, 2008).

Therefore, the importance of Human capital to the establishment, growth and development of any organization cannot be over-emphasized. Kogi State University, Anyiba as an academic institution needs quality Human capital whether as academic staff or as non-teaching supportive staff.

The vision of Kogi State University, Anyigba is to be a highly rated academic centre of excellence and leadership for a better world. Conversely also, the mission of the university is to advance appropriate and effective learning and explore the frontiers of knowledge through (a) effective teaching, research and dissemination of research-based knowledge

(b) positively influencing and nurturing local, national and international partnerships and integration and

(c) serving as positive model in learning, teaching and research. (KSU 2016)

As stated earlier, for Kogi State University, Anyigba, the core of human capital constitutes the academic staff who are involved in teaching and research supported by a large numbers of non-teaching staff. Unfortunately, in recent times, there seems to be a huge problem in the human capital that is seriously affecting her development and the overall performance of the University such as, salaries and allowances are irregular for those in the pay-roll while great percentages are left un-paid for upwards of two (2) years and above. A major consequence of these includes: low morale to work, brain-drain and inability of the University to achieve her vision and mission. (Atiomo, 2012).

A case in point, as a matter of concrete example, is the slow pace of postgraduate programmes. For instance, the 2017/2018 session whose sales of application advert went out on the 3rd of Dec 2017, is yet to take off in October 2018. Most departments lack, the very senior cadre of academics-the Professors, Readers and Senior Lecturers. In 2017, there was a mass lay-

off of about 150 academic staff by the State Government arising from the ASUU/State Government face-off. Perhaps, in the bid to remedy that great vacuum, there was a mass recruitment exercise, but unfortunately, almost 95% of those recruited are lower level lecturers: Graduate Assistants and Assistant lecturers (KSU Establishments Office, 2019). No doubt, these and many more are bound to affect the quality and performance of the University if the trend continues unabated. This is what forms the basis for this study.

Further more, in established organizations, especially tertiary institutions; both the services of academic and non academic staff are employed to contribute to the overall success of the institution. But despite the fact that various studies have been conducted to assess human capital development on employees in organizations, few or none has been carried out on Kogi State University, Anyigba where employees, especially both academic and non academic staff continue to show dissatisfaction after the appraisal exercise.

ISSUES, CHALLENGES AND INTERPLAY

The early developmental stages of Kogi State University, Anyigba was characterised by a myriad of anomalies. Besides the over-bloated student population, academic staff strength and quality in the university was grossly inadequate to support viable academic programmes. According to (KSU 2008), in terms of numerical strength, while the National Universities Commission (NUC) student/staff ratio stood at 24:1, the student/staff ration for Kogi State University, Anyigba as at June 2005 stood at 80:1. It stated that this was more than the number of ratio prescribed by NUC per lecturer.

However, it is instructive to mention here that, the NUC updated Basic Minimum Academic Standard (BMAS) 2019 has the following Staff: Student ratio. Management and Administration= 1:30, Education= 1:30, Engineering and Technology= 1:15, Agriculture- 1:15, Law= 1:15, Sciences= 1:15.

It went further to state that, in terms of quality, it was a scandalous situation to have Assistant Lecturers as Heads of some Departments. It was equally unbelievable that some departments did not have a single Ph.D holder as lecturer (KSU 2008), a situation that that is totally un-acceptable in a university. The consequence of this ugly situation was the abysmal failure of

NUC accreditation exercises'. No programme of the university, after five years of her existence had full NUC accreditation. It was a thoroughly demoralised and confused university community whose reputation and public image had plummeted. In fact, it was termed a 'glorified secondary school' (KSU 2008).

Thus for the university to survive in such volatile environment, the quality of the human element ought to be attended to and continuously upgraded through training and development. The provision of service especially as does academic institution like Kogi State University, Anyigba requires up-to-date knowledge and Information from givers (lecturers), beneficiaries (students) and administrators hence, the need for the establishment of a process of learning, training and re-training which is here-in termed Human Capital Development. As Fajana (2012) puts it, in most of today's organisations, the ability to learn and change faster than the competitor is the key to survival.

OVERVIEW OF KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY, ANYIGBA

Kogi State University, located at Anyigba, is the state-owned university of Kogi, Nigeria. It was established in 1999 by Prince Abubakar Audu, the former governor of the state. At the time of its establishment, it was known as Kogi State University, it was named Prince Abubakar Audu University (PAAU) in 2002 and later renamed Kogi State University in 2003 (KSU).

Professor S.K. Okwute (Professor of Chemistry) was the pioneer Vice Chancellor (2000 - 2005). Professor F.S. Idachaba (OFR), Professor of Agric-Economics, took over between 2005 and 2008.

Professor H. Isah (Professor of Chemical Pathology), from Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, took over in October 2008 to September 2015. Then Professor M.S. Abdulkadir (Professor of Economic History) from Bayero University, Kano took over from October 2015 to April 2020. The incumbent Vice Chancellor, Professor M.O. Tenuche (Professor of Political Science) took over from April, 2020 to date. It is on record that she is the first female Vice Chancellor and the first indigenous staff of Kogi State University, Anyigba to get to this exalted position in the University system.

Kogi State University commenced academic activities in April, 2000 with six faculties: Faculties of Agriculture, Arts and Humanities, Law, Management Sciences, Natural Sciences and Social Sciences. The university established Faculty of Medicine in 2012 with extensive office and laboratory complexes. Unfortunately, it could not scale the hurdle of accreditation; therefore, it was converted into the College of Health Sciences offering courses in Basic Medical Sciences. The Centre for Pre-Degree and Diploma Studies was established in 2010 to run diploma and pre-degree programmes. Students of the pre-degree programme could gain admission into the degree programme if they are successful in the internal examination and JAMB/UTME but are excluded from the Post-UTME examination.

The university offers the following courses across her eight (8) faculties: **College of Health Sciences** (Department of Anatomy, Department of Community Health, Department of Human physiology, Department of Ear, Nose and Throat, Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Department of Pharmacology and Department of Medical Biochemistry);

Faculty of Agricultural Sciences (Department of Animal Production, Department of Agric Economics & Extension, Department of Crop Production, Department of Food nutrition and Home sciences, Department of Fishery & Aqua culture, Department of Forestry & wild life and Department of Soil & Environmental Management);

Faculty of Law (Department of Public Law and Islamic Law);

Faculty of Arts & Humanities (Department of Arabic Studies, Department of Islamic Studies, Department of English and Literary studies, Department of History and International Studies, Department of Philosophy, Department of Religious studies and Department of Theatre Arts);

Faculty of Social Sciences (Department of Economics, Department of Geography & Environmental Management, Department of Sociology, Department of Mass Communication and Department of Political Science);

Faculty of Natural Sciences (Department of Biological Sciences, Department of Biochemistry, Department of Chemistry, Department of Earth Sciences, Department of Mathematical Sciences, Department of

Computer Sciences, Department of Micro Biology and Department of Physics);

Faculty of Management Sciences (Department of Accounting, Department of Business Administration, Department of Banking and Finance and Department of Public Administration) and

Faculty of Education (Department of Arts Education, Department of Educational Foundations, Department of Business Education, Department of Kinetics & Physical Education, Department of Social Studies and Department of Science Education). About 98% of the courses offered in the university are accredited by the Nigeria University Commission (NUC).

The university is said to be one of the best in Africa, with some of its departments being ranked by Nigerian professional bodies. In 2010, the Faculty of law was pronounced as the best in Nigeria, and has remained among the best in subsequent years. Also, its department of Geology has been rated as one of the best in Africa, alongside Obafemi Awolowo University, and the University of Ibadan. Presently, it hosts a library which is home to a large collection of expensive specialized books, materials, and a Geological station, both contributed by Shell Petroleum Development Company in appreciation of the department's exceptionally-strong intellectual capacity development attitude (Ojo, 2016).

The university also boasts of facilities which according to NUC, (2016) are accessible to students for academic research, a privilege very uncommon among Nigerian state universities. Despite funding which is not as large as those coming from the federal government, (as is, with state universities), it has been named the university with the best implementation of resources for development by Knowledge for Impact Foundation.

The university has been very popular in the corporate world for producing highly intellectual students or typical geniuses, employed by these corporate organizations.

Often, major companies have often written to the school for granting exceptionally-intelligent graduates with grades like First class and Second class upper division or even graduates with Second class lower divisions. In

this, the University has responded: "that is how they measured us against the school's standard". The Institution started with a student population of about 700 in 2000, but which as at 2009/2010 admission exercise has grown to about 16,000, and now stands at 50,000 in 2016. It is also known as one of the fairest universities in its admission exercise, admitting students strictly by merit.

It has been ranked as Nigeria's fastest developing university, and one of such, in Africa. Although not as popular as its federal counterparts like the University of Lagos, Obafemi Awolowo University, and Ahmadu Bello University, Kogi State University has been named by many multinational Corporate bodies as one of Africa's BEST universities based on the exceptional intellectual pedigree of its employed graduates (UNC, 2016).

Thus, in response to changes in human life, organizations have embraced the notion of human capital development as a good competitive advantage that will enhance higher performance. Human capital development becomes a part of an overall effort to achieve cost-effective and employee performance. Hence, institutions need to understand human capital that would enhance employee satisfaction and improve performance. Although there is a broad assumption that human capital has positive effects on employee's performance, the notion of performance for human capital remains largely untested. Hence, this study attempts to look into the connection between human capital development and organisation's performance with particular reference to Kogi State University, Anyigba

The Academic Ranking of Kogi State University Anyigba according to Nigeria University Commission (2019) ranked Kogi State University Anyigba in 42 position. The ranking is relying solely on research indicators", and "the ranking is heavily weighted toward institutions whose faculty have adequate learning facilities. It does not measure "the quality of teaching or the quality of humanities.

The Nigerian university system is a necessary tool in this dialectic for determining the extent to which investment in human capital can be used in transforming and improving performance in Organisation. Despite the huge investment made in human resources in Nigeria so far, the performance of

the Nigerian Universities has remained generally disappointing. This is not to say that there has not been any transformation or any impressive achievement (Lawal,2014).

University rankings are rankings of institutions in higher education which have been ranked on the basis of various combinations of various factors. None of the rankings give a comprehensive overview of the strengths of the institutions ranked because all select a range of easily quantifiable characteristics to base their results on. Rankings have most often been conducted by magazines, newspapers, websites, governments, or academics.

In addition to ranking entire institutions, organizations perform rankings of specific programs, departments, and schools. Various rankings consider combinations of measures of funding and endowment, research excellence and/or influence, specialization expertise, admissions, student options, award numbers, internationalization, graduate employment, industrial linkage, historical reputation and other criteria. Various rankings mostly evaluate on institutional output by research. Some rankings evaluate institutions within a single country, while others assess institutions worldwide. The subject has produced much debate about rankings' usefulness and accuracy (Aderounmu, 2007). However, the importance of university ranking can not be over-emphasised. Although it does not indicate level of performance, it does speak volumes that the university is being recognised world-wide.

The expanding diversity in rating methodologies and accompanying criticisms of each indicate the lack of consensus in the field. Further, it seems possible to game the ranking systems through excessive self-citations (Almendarez, 2011) or by researchers supporting each other in surveys. UNESCO has questioned whether rankings "do more harm than good", while acknowledging that "Rightly or wrongly, they are perceived as a measure of quality and so create intense competition between universities all over the world (Aswathappa,2008)

The Human Resources &Labour Review (HRLR), which measure the performance of top universities' graduates in Nigeria, sadly, Kogi State University was not really ranked based on these (Barney,1991). The High Impact Universities Research Performance Index (RPI) is a 2010 initiative

by Nigeria University Commission (Baruch, 2001). that studies university research performance. The pilot project involved a trial of over 1,000 universities or institutions and 5,000 constituent faculties (in various disciplines) worldwide. The top 500 results for universities and faculties were reported at the project website (Brum, 2007).

The project promotes simplicity, transparency and fairness. The assessment analyzes research performance as measured by publications and citations. Publication and citation data is drawn from Scopus. The project uses standard bibliometric indicators, namely the 10-year g-index and h-index. RPI equally weighs contributions from the five faculties. Kogi State University, Anyigba could not find her foot among the Nigeria University that was ranked based on Research performance.

Hence, the main problem is to expose those variables that are inherent in human potentials that when proper investments are made in human capital development, and such skills are wisely and usefully exploited, productivity is ensured and thus ensuring performance in Organisation.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

For human capital development on organisational performance to achieve its primary objectives in any setup particularly in Kogi State University, to achieve designed development goal, the inputs and outputs of the institutions must be unambiguously specified to rhyme with international standard. It is also worthy of note that the institution must not lose sight of different output indicators with rapt attention. This is in view of the fact that the university performance is measured; taken into cognisance that the effectiveness and success of every organisation is a function of the people who form the workforce. It is hoped that Kogi State University, and it's workforce will henceforth beginning tot experience a more improved human capital development through regular evaluation of human capital development programme.

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HERDSMEN ACTIVITIES, A COG IN THE WHEEL OF AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA: A CASE STUDY OF KOGI STATE

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ABSTRACT

The study titled "Herdsmen Activities, A Cog in the Wheel of Agricultural Development in Nigeria, A Case Study of Kogi State (2015-2020)" is intended to examine herdsmen activities generally in Nigeria. The research examines the effect of herdsmen activities and its attendant ripple effect on agricultural development in Nigeria. The study employs both primary and secondary sources of data collection. The study therefore recommends amongst others that federal government should engage peace and conflict resolution experts in dealing with issues of Herdsmen-Farmer Crises. The study as well concludes among others that herder-farmers' conflict has created an atmosphere of uncertainty, insecurity and breakdown of economic activities.

INTRODUCTION

Agriculture in Nigeria is the most important sector of the economy from the standpoint of rural employment, sufficiency in food and fibre, and export earning prior to the discovery of oil (Towoobola, et.al 2014). The above assertion is based on the fact that as at independence in 1960, little was known of petroleum as a source of revenue for the Nigerian economy. There was sustained emphasis on agriculture such that Nigeria was a major exporter of agricultural products like palm produce, cocoa, groundnut, cotton and rubber. In addition to these cash crops, the national agricultural system produced enough food crops such as yam, cassava, maize, millet, sorghum and soya beans so that there was practically no

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need for food importation. Hitherto, agriculture accounted for over60% of the nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Francis and David, 2012).

According to Akinwumi (2014), in the 1960s, before the discovery of oil, Nigeria was known to be a major agricultural producer in the world. Between 1962 and 1968, export crops were the country's main foreign exchange earner. Nigeria was number one amongst crops producers in countries like Malaysia and Indonesia producing such crops like palm oil and groundnuts, even ahead of the US and Argentina. Nigeria's status with 47% in these products which made her as an agricultural centre has declined steeply. While Nigeria once provided 18% of the world demand of cocoa, second in the world in the 1960s, that figure has drastically reduced to 8%. Also the country which has known to produce 65% of tomatoes in West Africa has become the leading importer of tomato paste.

Despite the poor performance of the agricultural sector which is below economic expectation, the sector is still capable of aiding socio-economic development of people living in rural areas, most especially in the northern states as they engaged more in agriculture in order to sustain themselves, and traded within their capacity or capabilities for profit. However, the on-going Boko Haram insurgency has affected the rural agricultural economy the northern, part of Nigeria, hence, this work is an appraisal of the impact of Boko Haram insurgency on the agricultural sector of the Nigerian business environment.

In Kogi State, there have been instances of conflict between cattle herders and crop farmers in Igalamela/Odolu Local Government Area (LGA), Ibaji, and Ofu over crop destruction by cattle, killing of a herder and stabling of a farmer, respectively, following reprisal attacks on different occasions (personal communication). Thus, Gbaka (2014), rightly states that significant loss of lives and property has occurred in many parts of Nigeria including Katsina, Plateau, Taraba, Kogi, Kwara, Nasarawa, Adamawa, Gombe, Yobe, Kebbi, Zamfara and Sokoto states in the north; Oye State in the South-West; Abia State in the South-East; and Delta and Edo in the South-South. In the past eight years, conflict accounted for 615 deaths out of a total of 61,314 fatalities in the Nigeria Watch database (Olayoku, 2014).

It was the Governor of Benue State, Samuel Ortom who first warned that the sustained attacks on Benue communities by suspected herdsmen could lead to food insecurity in the country (The Guardian Saturday Magazine, 17 March 2018). Ortom stated this at the Government House in Makurdi, during a courtesy call by the Presidential Committee on Rehabilitation of communities affected by farmers and herdsmen crisis. Since then, many Nigerians, including security and agricultural experts have issued similar warnings. The former Minister of Finance and one time presidential candidate, Chief Olu Falae, was purportedly abducted by Fulani herdsmen with whom he was reported to have been having squabbles over farm issue. This has once again brought to the fore concerns over constant hostility between Fulani herdsmen and farmers across the country (Bakare, 2015). Farmers in the agrarian communities of Benue state have abandoned their farmlands and fled to safer climes because of herdsmen's attacks. They are today living as internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) at various IDP camps in the state. The situation is not different in neighboring Kogi, Taraba and Plateau states. Currently, farmers in most of the affected states who have been displaced from their farms and homes by the herdsmen are recounting their ordeal. Their lamentations are not only pathetic, but also tragic and inhumane. It is also very unfortunate that the killings are taking place at the peak of harvest for farmers in the affected areas, a situation many believe many cause food scarcity in the country, if not properly and quickly addressed.

Despite the aforementioned, these herders are major contributors to agricultural development. The Fulani are the major providers of milk and meat in Nigeria. Their contribution to the dairy and meat industry is phenomenal and about 90% of the cattle in Nigeria are owned by the Fulani and they contribute about 3.2% to Nigeria's gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Abass, 2012). The Fulani are also responsible for the provision and hides and skin in Nigeria.

Given the foregoing scenario and the challenges posed by herdsmen activities for socio-economic development of Kogi State and Nigeria at large, this study was carried out to examine the activities of herdsmen and how it relates to the agricultural development of Kogi State, while identifying the major factors responsible for the incentive farmers/herders conflict and its agricultural implications on the state and proffer solutions.

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

The Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2000) defines agriculture as the science or practice of farming. Abayomi (1997) noted that agriculture "involves the cultivation of land, raising and rearing of animals for the purpose of production of food for man, feed for animals and raw materials for industries. It involves cropping, livestock, forestry and fishing, processing making of these agricultural products". Broadly defined, Agriculture is the science of farming including cultivation of the soil for the growing of crops and the rearing or animals to provide food, wool and other products. Agriculture and other related products are regarded as the main economy drivers of third-world countries as opposed to manufacturing in developed nations as a historical contact of the duo, Agriculture is the science, art and occupation of cultivating the soil, producing crops and raising livestock. Agriculture is considered as the only fulcrum of civilization; hence, it is regarded as the only natural wealth. It is the food we eat, the clothing we wear, the material of our homes, the garden around and to a large extent, the determinant of our traditions and values.

THE CATTLE HERDING SYSTEM IN NIGERIA

Cattle herding is dominated almost entirely by the Fulani tribe in Nigeria. Iro (1994) gave a vivid documentation of the herding system of the Fulani in Nigeria, and most of what is presented hereunder was derived from his account. According to him, herding is a daunting task, and contrary to widespread belief, it is not the delight of the Fulani, they herd not as a matter of choice, but as a necessity. Iro (1994) found that about 75% of the sampled nomadic pastoralists maintained that cattle herding is not only toilsome, but also becoming increasingly strenuous.

Describing the annual herding cycle of the Fulani cattle herdsmen, Iro (1994) stated that the herding season begins with southward movement of the herd and along rivers and stream valleys from October to December-marking the end of rainy season and beginning of dry season. January to February is the harmattan season that is characterized by longer grazing hours, herd splitting, and more frequent visits to stable water sources. These thus increase southward movement of the herds. The months of March and April are usually the toughest for the herdsmen and their cattle, as it is the hottest period in the grazing calendar. Indeed, they now herd their cattle only in the evenings and nights (Riesman, 1977). May

and June signify the end of dry season and vegetation begins to appear. This also marks the beginning of northward movement of cattle herds.

From this period up till September, which is the peak of rainy season, though characterized by cattle-breeding, more milk production and shorter grazing hours, cattle herding coincides significantly with arable crop production emanating in farmer-herdsmen conflict during this period. The resultant increase in competition for arable land has often times led to serious manifestation of hostilities and social friction among the two user-groups in many parts of Nigeria.

FARMERS-HERDSMEN CONFLICT

Social Conflict is a global phenomenon. From Europe to America, Africa to Asia, conflicts are common phenomena. Africa has experienced and is still experiencing conflicts of grave proportions among several ethnic and religious communities across the states. In West Africa, conflicts between farmers and nomadic cattle herders have been a common feature of economic activities for ages (Oh et al., 2018). The Nigerian state has witnessed series social conflict and violence. These conflicts are such as the Biafran war, the Zaki-Biam massacre, the Odi massacre, the Niger Delta violence, operation Wetie, the Modakeke-Ife war, Maitatsine religious uprising, the Fulani-Birom clashes in Jos, the Bauchi religious riots, the Boko Haram terrorist activities, the Shiite group massacre in Zaria and the recent Fulani herdsmen terrorist activities which pervades every region of the country. These acts of conflicts have largely disrupted the state of peace and development in the Nigerian state. In Nigeria, over the past decade, with increasingly violent flare-ups spreading throughout central and southern states; incidents have occurred in at least 22 of the country's 36 states. The most recurrent among these crises involved the Fulani herdsmen and farmers which, apart from the human casualties, has cost the nation over 27 billion dollars between 2012 and 2018 (according to UK-based Mercy Corp, 2018).

The cattle herders/farmers' conflict in Nigeria has become so pervasive and has led to loss of lives and properties. Many farmers and herders have lost their lives and herds while others have experienced dwindling productivity in their herds. In most of these encounters, citizens are regularly killed and the destruction or loss of property leaves an already endangered populace even poorer. There have been repeated and bloody clashes between the cattle herdsmen and host communities for several years. These clashes according to BBC (2016) have claimed thousands

of lives within a period of twenty years. It is further stated that in 2014, over 1,200 lives were lost which made these set of people the world's fourth deadliest militant group (Okoli and Atelhe, 2014).

North Central Nigeria continues to witness, almost on a regular basis, violent clashes between and among her numerous ethnic nationalities. Farmers and cattle herdsmen conflicts have become common occurrences in middle belt states such as Benue, Plateau, Nasarawa, Kwara and Kogi states. According to the scholar, in 2008, there were 31 reported cases of cattle herders/farmers conflict while in 2009 the fatalities soared to 83 all occurring most primarily in the north central states of the country. In 2010, it was also observed that the occurrence of cattle grazing violence dropped to 39 fatalities with most of the cases occurring in the north central but sad enough, in the following year, the occurrence rose to 116 fatalities with the highest occurrence being in Plateau state and the most sustained, lasting five days occurring in Benue State. In a newspaper study of crisis in Nigeria between 2005 and February 2017 found that conflicts over agricultural land use between farmers and herdsmen accounted for 45 percent of all reported crises. In February 2016 there was an attack on farmers in Benue State which according to reports killed some 300 people (BBC, 2016). According to one report, in 2016 over 2,000 people were killed and tens of thousands displaced in Benue and Plateau states alone The clashes between the farmers and herdsmen in the region had resulted to an estimated death toll of approximately 2,500 people in 2017, these clashes are becoming as potentially dangerous as the Boko Haram insurgency in the north east (International Crisis Group ICG, 2017).

ANTECEDENTS OF FULANI HERDSMEN IN NIGERIA

In January 2013, Fulani herdsmen attacked some villages in Nasarawa State, killing 10 people and displacing over 5000 people. In a fresh attack on some villages in Nasarawa State, about 33 people were killed in November 2014 (http://naijagist.com/Fulani-gunmen-attack). More attacks by the armed Fulani herdsmen came in 2016. Duru (2016) reports a gruesome attack on Agatu Local Government Area of Benue State in February 2016 in which about 7000 people were driven from six villages by the Fulani herdsmen. The villagers observed that despite heavy gunshots by the herdsmen, no military or security presence was felt. Over 200 persons were killed and houses were razed. In April 2016 there was a renewed attack on Agatu by the armed herdsmen. Statistics from the Benue State

Emergency Management Agency indicates that no fewer than 30 persons died in the renewed violence.

Mamah et al., (2016) reveal the activities of Fulani herdsmen in Enugu State in April 2016. The herdsmen attacked UkpabiNimbo in Uzo-Uwani Local Government Area on 25 April 2016, killing over 40 people. Survivors fled to neighbouring communities. Two days later after the UkpabiNimbo attack, there was another attack by the Fulani herdsmen in Umuchigbo community in Enugu East Local Government Area of Enugu State. It is clear that the deadly escapades of arms-bearing herdsmen are becoming increasingly unsettling. They have left their footprints in virtually every part of the country. In their recent outings, they have been very unsparing of the Iammunities (Ede, 2016).

Militants from the Fulani ethnic group are believed to have killed at least 1229 people in Nigeria in 2014, according to the latest Global Terrorism Index, which ranked African nations as the world's third most terrorised countries. The Fulani militants, together with the terror group Boko Haram, were responsible for more than 7000 deaths that occurred in Nigeria in 2014. While Boko Haram is predominant in the news related to terrorism in Nigeria, little is known about the attacks and abductions by the Fulani herdsmen (Ludovica, 2015).

Adetula (2016) says that according to statistics provided by the Institute for Economics and Peace, 1229 people were killed in 2014, up from 63 in 2013, and Benue State seems to be the hardest hit in recent times. Barely 5 days before the end of Governor Gabriel Suswam's administration in May 2015, over 100 farmers and their family members were reportedly massacred in villages and refugee camps located in the Ukura, Per, Gafa and Tse-Gusa areas of the state. According to reports, in July 2015, suspected herdsmen attacked Adeke, a community on the outskirts of the state capital, Makurdi. In December 2015, 6 persons were killed at Idele village in the Oju Local Government Area. A reprisal attack by youths in the community saw 3 Fulani herdsmen killed and beheaded.

In February 2016, as a result of a clash between herdsmen and farmers in Benue State, 40 more people were killed, about 2000 displaced and not less than 100 were seriously injured (Duru, 2016). Most recently, more than 92 Nigerians were massacred by suspected Fulani herdsmen in Benue and Niger States. Also, before

this time, there were reported attacks by the Fulani pastoralists in the southern states of the country, including Enugu, Ekiti and Ondo States.

The Igbo Youth Movement, IYM, has lamented that Fulani herdsmen have killed 710 other Nigerians, excluding the 48 Agatu people in Benue State in the last 10 months, without the federal government addressing the issue. The statement signed by the founder of the IYM and leader of the South-East Democratic Coalition, Evangelist Elliot Uko, entitled, 'Ten Months of Carnage', read: 'Between June 2015 and April 2016, Fulani herdsmen have killed over 710 Nigerians (excluding [the] Agatu incident) in 48 recorded incidents, the highest in recent years' (Emeka and Clifford 2016).

Another deadly attack was that of the 2016 southern Kaduna massacre, which some nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) have labelled as genocide against southern Kaduna indigenes. Ajijah (2016) relates that the Catholic Archdiocese of Kafanchan says that the unrest in southern Kaduna State has claimed 808 lives. Moreover, 53 villages have so far been attacked and 57 people injured, according to the church. Governor Nasir El Rufai said the attackers were foreign Fulani herdsmen, who were avenging past attacks on them and their livestock. Mr Yakubu said 4 local government areas have been attacked, with 808 people killed and 1422 houses, 16 churches, 19 shops and one primary school destroyed (Ajijah 2016).

However, the Miyetti Allah Cattle Breeders Association, the umbrella organisation of herdsmen, notes that it has lost no fewer than 6000 cows to the crisis in southern Kaduna (Ibenwa and Uroko 2017). Garba (2017), reports that the National Emergency Management Agency said that 204 people have been killed in the southern Kaduna crises. Moreover, the clashes between Fulani herdsmen and locals in southern Kaduna have lasted for months.

The latest now is an attack on farmers and other people living in Jos, Plateau State, on Saturday 24 June, at 11 pm by Fulani herdsmen. Most Nigerians described the incident as most painful and deeply regrettable. News agent Idegu (2018) reports that no fewer than 86 persons were killed that weekend when gunmen suspected to be Fulani herdsmen attacked many communities in Plateau State. Police Spokesman Terna Tyopev, who confirmed the figure, said 8 persons were hospitalised and about 50 houses were razed. He added that 6 suspects were

arrested. Yusuf also reports that Berom Villages-Xland, Gindin Akwati, Kura Falls, Nghar and Ruku-were completely sacked (p. 37). However, more people might have died because many families buried their dead before the police arrived. Tyopev added that some bodies were deposited at the Jos University Teaching Hospital mortuary and security had been tightened in the affected villages to restore peace.

On Tuesday, 26 June, 2018, Nigerian Television Authority International reported in its 9 pm news that over 200 people had been killed in the conflict between the Fulani herdsmen and farmers in Jos, Plateau State, on Saturday, 24 June, and that this was the highest death toll so far in the history of conflict between the Fulani and farmers.

CAUSES OF HERDSMEN-FARMERS CONFLICT IN NIGERIA

Empirically, evidences have revealed various reasons for the continued conflict between herdsmen and farmers in Nigeria. Some of the factors that influence the conflict include;

Human Factor:

The damaging or intentional grazing on crops has been pointed out as the most predominant cause of conflict between farmers and herdsmen (Adebayo and Olaniyi, 2008). In a recent study, Adeoye (2017) found deliberate grazing of cattle on crops, farmers' encroachment on grazing reserves, water holes and cattle paths and indiscriminate bush burning by herders as notable causes of conflict between the groups in parts of North central Nigeria. Similarly, Bello (2015) enumerated the major causes of herdsmen-farmers conflict in Nigeria. He argued that destruction of crops by cattle and other property (reservoirs, irrigational facilities and infrastructure) by the herdsmen themselves are the main direct causes for conflicts cited by the farmers. Burning of rangelands, fadama and blockage of stock routes and water points by crop encroachment are important direct reasons cited by the herdsmen while increasing rate of cattle theft which is often accompanied by violence, antagonistic perceptions and beliefs among farmers and herdsrnen could compound conflict situation, especially due to failing institutions and fierce competition for resources (Bello, 2015).

Ecological Factor:

The encroaching desert to the traditional abode of the pastoralists in the Sahel region has been identified as a factor for the continued clash as herders migrate southward where the grass is much lusher and often intrude into spaces long claimed or cultivated by settled farmers (Olaniyan et al., 2015). In Nasarawa State, the situation has been exacerbated by the phenomenon of climate change which dynamics tend to have been aggravating natural resource conflicts across the region (Okoli and Atelhe, 2014). Climate change and desert encroachment have made southward movements even more inevitable and confrontations with southern farming communities more frequent (Nwosu, 2017).

Blench (2006) attributes farmers-herders conflict to competition over natural resources and over access to grazing and water resources and suggests that, because herders now farm and farmers have herds, competition for the same natural resources has increased. The semi-arid zone has always been more populous than the Middle Belt, and the initial expansion of cultivation was in this zone. As the pressure on arable land in the semi-arid zone increased, soil fertility decreased and farmers were obliged to move to regions of uncleared bush or to increase their holding size. As a consequence, more and more farmers began to settle further and further south in the lightly settled sub-humid zone (Blench, 2006). Farmers and pastoralists who are the main agricultural practitioners in Nigeria depend on water resources to sustain their vocations. In recent times, access to water and grazing land have become more competitive and has led to violent conflicts on a regular basis between farmers and herdsmen. Jacobs (1980) noted that fresh water scarcity and insufficient rainfall are causes of social conflict between farmers and herders in Nigeria.

The Institute for Peace and Conflict Resolution in conjunction with United Nations Development Programme (IPCR-LTNDP, 2012) traced the cause of the conflict in Guma and Makurdi LGAs of Benue State to the material needed for existence or survival which is the green of the land and fresh water. As the pastoralists need this for grazing and drinking purposes; the farmers at the same time need it for farming activities; thus they usually clash.

Ethno-religious factor

Another major reason for the conflicts between farmers and pastoralist is the ethno-religious dynamics of the social relations between these groups of resources

users. The ethnic dimension comes to play in the conflict between two broad ethnic groups, the pastoralists who are majorly of the Fulani extraction with an entirely different set of practices and way of life of the sedentary farmers who are made up of a variety of ethnic groups (Blench 1984; Shetimma and Tar, 2008). Language barrier and religious intolerance are also a major colouration to the conflict. The indigenes of these North Central state are predominantly Christians while the settlers are of the Islamic religion. Hence, this often leads to escalation of conflict between pastoralist and farmers because of the ethno-religious alignment of the herdsmen and farmers.

Political Factor

Burton (2016) noted that government's silence or negligence on the need for increased grazing space has influenced the conflict. He also argued that the request is not new as the Fulani herdsmen have previously called on the government to rectify the situation. He maintained that there has been little action on the part of the government to resolve these problems and some quarters believe that it is just being politicized for selfish gains. The herdsmen therefore have grown restless and their impatience has culminated into violent actions.

Demographic Factor

Nyong, (2010) observed that the expansion of population can be seen as a cause of the herders- farmers conflicts in Nigeria. With the expansion of population, the rate of food production would naturally increase and to meet that increasing demand, it is natural for the farmers to encroach into marginal lands that had been the traditional pasture routes for the cattle. This has therefore heightened struggle between livestock and agricultural production which, more often than not, result in the escalation of conflicts. Hence, as population grows, more land is being cultivated and less is available for posture; forcing Fulani to migrate and tramp on crops cultivated by farmers.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT OF HERDSMEN-FARMERS CONFLICTS IN NIGERIA

Clashes between cattle herders and crop farmers have been a major cause of increasing violence and general insecurity in Nigeria. According to Abba and Usman (2008) is that of food security. In all the states under consideration, particularly Taraba and Benue states, the majority of those displaced are women and youths who make up substantial part of the farming community, just like in

Nasarawa, Kaduna (Southern Kaduna) and Plateau States. The instability caused by the incessant conflict, will likely lead to food shortages for the communities that depend on subsistence farming. Conflicts resulting from the use of Fadama land may also jeopardize huge financial investment by government, Africa Development Bank and World Bank in the Fadama projects nationwide (Ardo 2004).

Similarly, Ofuoku and Isife (2009) identified socio economic effects of herders/farmers conflict to include;

> *Reduction in output and income of crop farmers as a result of the destruction of crops by cattle and indiscriminate bush burning as many Jhrmers lost part or the whole of their crops. This meant reduced yield which translated into low income on the part of the farmers who take farming as a major occupation. This tends to negatively affect their savings, credit repayment ability, as well the food security and economic welfare of urban dwellers that depend on these farmers for food supply. This discourages the farmers and rural/agricultural development.*

Also, Adebayo and Olaniyi, (2008) noted that the impact of the herders-farmers conflict has been observed to lead to the displacement of the farmers from their places of origin. They have thus become Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) with a far-reaching impact on farming activities. Because the people displaced are peasant farmers they often depend on others to give them land to plant crops on a smaller scale than what they have cultivated before. This has often led to low agricultural yield mainly to support their existence at a subsistence level. Their economic wellbeing is thus tempered with because of this conflict. Their cash crops production has reduced, their subsistence level also has dropped.

Other socio-economic implications include displacement of communities, refugee problems, and increase in crimes, famine, malnutrition, illnesses and death. The conflict also has substantial economic effect on government revenues. As reported by Mercy Corps (2015), the Federal Government of Nigeria was losing about $13.7 billion revenue annually as a result of farmers/herders conflict in Benue, Kaduna, Nasarawa, and Plateau States, while the affected States were also losing about 47% of their internally generated revenues annually. The consequences of herders/farmers conflict on the economy, according to Dulta and Husain, (2009) include driving out of foreign investors, decrease in availability of productive

labour and diminished skilled manpower, resulting in poverty, underdevelopment, unemployment and misery. Abass (2012) maintains that the socio-economic consequences of herders-farmers conflicts are usually eminent. Conflicts between the crop farmers and nomadic farmers or grazers create some mistrust, tension and open confrontations between the opposing groups. Reduction in income and output of crop farmers occur as a result of indiscriminate bush burning and destruction of crops by cattle which lead to either partial or total loss of crops by the farmers. The effect on crop yield therefore has negative impact on the affected farmer's income with its summary impact on the overall agricultural income. This tends to negatively affect farmer's savings, credit repayment ability, as well the food security and economic welfare of urban dwellers that depend on these farmers for food supply, thus, farming and rural/agricultural development is discouraged.

Lederach in Audu (2013) further identified three different effects of herders-farmers conflict in a deeply divided society: Firstly, cohesion and identity in a contemporary conflict tend to form within increasingly narrower lines than those that encompass national citizenship. In a conflicting society, people seek security by identifying with something close to their experience and over which they have control. In today's settings that unit of identity may be clan, ethnicity, religion, geographic or regional affiliation, or a mixture of these.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Having looked into herdsmen activities on agricultural development in Nigeria with Kogi State as case study, it is obvious that these activities have wreaked havoc on our agricultural development and there is need to curb them. The main aim of every herder or farmer is good harvest which means good and bountiful farm produce on the part of farmers and robust and healthy animals for herders. This has led to competition for the available resources (land, water etc) leading to clashes that result in loss of crops, produce storage and cattle.

Traditional rulers who have been worried about the effect of these clashes on agricultural development and the overall effect on our nation made attempt to resolve the issue but their authorities were disregarded. With this lack of respect on the part of the herders, more cases of sexual harassment of women and contamination of stream by cattle began to surface.

Consequently, the socio-economic implication of these activities which includes loss of produce storage, reduction in output and income of farmers, loss of house and properties, and low revenue generation by the government thereby resulting in infrastructural damages have been on the increase.

This herder-farmers' conflict has therefore created an atmosphere of uncertainty, insecurity, breakdown of economic activities and migration of people to safer places.

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

i. Federal government should engage peace and conflict resolution experts in dealing with issues concerning herdsmen-farmer crises. This will enable effective dialogues, negotiations and of course a win-win resolution, while encouraging early warning mechanism.

ii. Government should adopt community policing model to forestall peace in the rural areas- as it will enable the police and the community members detect when the herdsmen gain access into the communities to attack residents. Community policing seeks the effective community engagement in the provision of solution to policing issues and also developing partnership in the maintenance of safety and security in the society.

iii. Governments at all levels should promulgate legislations outlawing open grazing of cattle while encouraging herders to establish ranches for their cattle.

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EXPLORING THE INTERFACE OF MIGRATION AND HUMAN TRAFFICKING: IMPLICATIONS FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

The paper discusses the consequences of migration and the evil effects of Human Trafficking, particularly in Nigeria and other parts of the world. It draws a nexus between migration and human trafficking. The paper traces the origin of human trafficking to the colonial slave trade era characterized by forceful moving away of men and women from one area to another, particularly from Africa or Nigeria to European Countries by Coercion. Most of the female trafficked are used as sex workers, and are subjected to involuntary services such as debt bondage, slavery and plantation workers. The paper is of the opinion that though slavery has been outlawed, but human trafficking has continued unabated. Those who are involved in it see it as a lucrative Endeavour not minding the hardship it brings to human life. The paper notes that people do not just migrate for the sake of migrating; there are certain factors which make people to migrate to other areas which include hunger, poverty, bad climate and bad policies of government in Nigeria. The paper adopts the state fragility theory and leptons urban biased theory to discuss the problem of Human Trafficking in Nigeria. The fact is that if the situation in Nigeria was good and favorable, citizens would not have been migrating to other favorable areas but since the situation is not favorable the citizens have to look for an alternative means of livelihood hence the governance theory. The paper adopts the secondary method of

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research in sorting materials for the paper. In summary, it is contended that government should intensify the war against human trafficking and through other international collaboration the trafficking in Human beings will reduce. The paper recommends the way forward to include action plan of internal monitoring and implementation of all legal laws against trafficking. It further recommends that centers for training, counseling and provision of better standard of living and amenities will help to reduce the problem of migration and human trafficking.

KEYWORDS*;* Migration, Human trafficking urban biased theory, Slavery and Counseling.

INTRODUCTION

Human trafficking has become a cause for concern in most third world countries particularly Nigeria. It is a talk of the moment because of its damaging and evil effects. Eki Igbinedion (2006), sees Human Trafficking as the act of inducement by force, fraud, or coercion, or in which the person induced to perform such act has not attained 18 years of age or the recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision or obtaining of persons for labour or services through the use of force or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary services, debt bondage or slavery.

Human trafficking is another form of Migration whereby persons are either induced or otherwise taken to another country particularly Europe where they were used for forced labour. The issue of migration is not the case; the point here is that people can migrate to another area for different reasons whether for safety or for greener pastures. Migration is part and parcel of human existence and history, though it gained prominence during the period of industrial revolution in Europe, just as it is now during the period between 2016 and 2020s in Africa and Nigeria. During the period of industrial revolution much goods were produced in Europe at that time and they needed a place where they could sell or exchange what they had and get new goods. Migration took a negative tone where it resulted in trade in human beings which led to the underdevelopment of Africa. According to Fichter (2004:181), Migration is the relocation and mobility of people across an area. Mayodan Larousse Encyclopedia (1971) see Migration as the relocation of individual under the influence of economic, political and social

reasons one of which is associated with increasing cases of depression and anxiety among displaced workers due to unemployment which may lead to migration. There was a certain period in the Nigerian history before and after the first and second republics when there was massive brain drain in Nigeria. A situation where the most educated and learned Nigerians had to relocate to Europe and America for greener pasture created a serious cause for concern for the Nation State of Nigeria. So also, unemployment and job loss could cause certain percentage of Nigeria to relocate to America and Europe in search of job and favourable condition of living (Catalono et al 2011). This situation can also give room for trafficking where people can be deceived into travelling abroad in search for better living. Example in June 22, 2005, a United States court in Honolulu, Hawail sentenced kil soo lee to 40 years imprisonment for holding more than 200 victims from China and Vietnam as forced labourers at his factory in America (Samoa, UNFPA, 2008). This situation also explains what is going on in Europe particularly, Italy where large numbers of Nigerian girls have been deceived to travelling to Italy for jobs where they have ended up becoming sex workers. Even when most of them know what the job issue there is, that it is sex business, they nonetheless decide to agree to go because of unemployment and hunger issues in Nigeria.

It needs to be remarked that both Migration and human trafficking are twin conditions that never occur in a normal situation. Although we agree that migration have been part of human existence but people don't just migrate for migrating sake, something tends to push people to leave their places of abode to another place. There is also a situation of search for better condition of living.

Trafficking in terms of its origin is traceable to era of the slave trade which resulted in the impoverishment and underdevelopment of Africa. With the resultant effect of partition and colonization of Africa, the continent of Africa being sources of cheap labour for the development of Europe and the new world, while Africa was impoverished. It created a demarcation between Europe and Africa; Africa became underdeveloped and a third world, while Europe and America became the industrialized Nations, using the cheap labour from Africa. Even in recent times, visas were only granted to people

from Africa and Asia to come to America to work in their plantations as a source of cheap labour.

In colonization era, the Europeans made it impossible for Africa to develop, as its resources and products were transported abroad for the development of Europe and America while Africa and Asia remain impoverished making them third world. At the end of colonization, when it became impossible for them to continue their exploitation, they decided to hand over to their representatives in Africa who will be making returns to them, thereby giving them power to continue to be in charge and determine the rate of development in Nigeria and Africa. Even when the Europeans had handed over power to indigenes of Africa, but in actual fact they are still in charge. This is the reason why their representatives called the African Political elite still steal money and transfer such monies abroad for self-keeping and banking such movies are used for the development of Europe while their own area is impoverished.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATIONS

Human trafficking is a transnational crime that is not peculiar only to a particular region. Thousands of victims are killed in civil conflict for refusing to submit to force labour or sexual slavery, trying to escape or from diseases contacted or abuse endured during their enslavement (ILO/IPEC, 2014), the African Charter on Human and Peoples Right (1981), the major human right instrument in Africa made provisions for the prohibition of human trafficking in Africa. It provides that every individual shall have the right to respect of the dignity inherent in a human being and to the recognition of his legal status. All forms of exploitation and degradation of man particularly slavery, slave trade, torturer, and cruel inhuman or degradation treatment in so far as it affects the dignity of man. To this end, trafficking of persons is a degradation of human dignity should be prohibited.

On the other hand Agawan (2008) pointed out the evil effect of Migration in the sense that it changes and influences the basic life of the people at all levels from economic perspective to culture being a social movement in its essence. In other words, according to him, Migration is not only the relocation of people on a site but it is also a phenomenon closely associated

with many elements of social structure including poverty, hunger and underdevelopment. Migration as a phenomenon or factor is described by some sociologist as an issue which affects the generality of the society. It engenders other societal problems in the citizens where they migrate to and it effects interaction processes such as adaptation cooperation and conflict take place (Brett, 2006:10) Most of the war-stricken zones of the world today, the nations closer to them suffer massively because of high influx of people seeking to survive due to hunger while Thomas (2007) states that Migration is the movement of individual or social group from one place to another in order to settle, while Woodruff (2007), states that Migration includes the permanent movement of individual or groups beyond symbolic and political boundaries towards new settlement areas and societies. The point here is whenever an individual relocates to another area whether for economic factor, war or because of forced labour or other pressing conditions like hunger etc, the general life style of such an individual will never be the same.

(Awake, June 22 2002), was of the opinion that many of the young girls who allowed themselves into trafficking for sexual purposes never originally, wanted to do so or allowed themselves to be involved. It is the situation they found themselves caused them to do so. According to Awake, many young prostitutes want to marry and dream of a prince charming, while there are complex situation that lead to their taking up the life of a prostitute. It states that most of them were raped in their own homes (Agbu, 2003).

However, there is this belief that the most acceptable causes of human trafficking are the greed for money and wealth, both on the part of the trafficked and the trafficker when you see the young people talking about how to make it and become rich, the first thing that comes to their minds is how to travel abroad. Sometimes they see their fellow young people driving big cars and talking big, and them they are tempted to follow the tread.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Migration and human trafficking have never been a natural phenomenon. It is always as a result of problem of life caused by some group or quest for personnel and selfish drives that has given room for migration and human trafficking. Though slavery has been abolished yet the trade in human beings continued, whereby women and children are normally the object of attacks

and capture. In Nigeria and most countries in Africa, hundreds of thousands of people both men, women and children are constantly taken in to forced labour and sexual exploitation abroad. Most of them die on the high seas and desert in the quest to migrate illegally. Young men and Women knowing the situation around them decide to take the risk to migrate to Europe and America due to hunger and joblessness in Nigeria. Most of them suffer untold hardship on the road and sea. The worse of it is that their captors or people dealing on this evil business put them under dangerous oath and conditions which they must fulfill before they are set free with many forced to work for their abductors until their lives are wasted (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2003).

The Traffickers exploit the aspirations of persons living in poverty and seeking better lives abroad to deceive them, they use dramatic improvements in transport and communication to sell men, women and children particularly young girls into situations of forced labour and sexual slavery with virtually no risk of prosecution (European Commission, 2007). There is this belief that migration of Africans to Europe is a natural response to the severe pains and plunder inflicted on the continent by the forces of globalization and capitalism. In an attempt to address the imbalance created by globalization and to prevent Africans seeking economic refuge by migrating to Europe and other developed nations see such move as debt relief and development aid that provide only cosmetic solution to the problems of underdevelopment in Africa that generate migration in the first place. In Africa there are far reaching consequences of migration than the gains. Women are still considered property in some places, hence they may be sold into marriages, women may also be coerced into working in brothels, sweetshops, construction sites and illegal migration workers may be subjected to sexual violence, horrific living conditions, threat against their families and dangerous workplaces. Human trafficking no doubt has become a serious business in most third world nations, particularly Nigeria and most countries in the coast of West Africa. The dangers posed by this illegal and illicit trade in human beings drew attention of the United Nations fund for population activities (UNFPA) which in their international workshop in Bratislava organized in October, 2002, established a link between trafficking and the violation of reproductive health and right.

FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR MIGRATION AND TRAFFICKING

It has been noted earlier, that the balkanization and partition of africa was the remote reasons for the dependent nature of Africa and Asian countries today, Africa supplied the Europeans with human cargo often through European raids on African coast for slaves who were taken to the European plantation to till the land stolen from the owners, the red Indians. In return the Africans received the guns and gun-powders and this began the process of dependency and underdevelopment. It is estimated that over (5 million) five million Africans were carried away as slave during the process. The European impoverished Africa by carting away the strong and able bodied men and women while the sickly and weak were left behind.

Another serious factor responsible for migration is that of corruption by African leaders (Ebeku, 2005). The Central Bank of Nigeria Report for the year 2005 stated that Nigeria received up to 99.6% of its total export revenue from oil, making it the most oil dependent economy in the world. According to this report, of the ₦5.547 trillion earned in 2005, ₦4.75 trillion came from oil, while only ₦785 trillion came from non-oil sources. Unfortunately, there is little or nothing to show for this, because of corruption hence poverty is ravaging the whole Nation state which has given rise to migration and relocation to other European areas. According to the above report, Nigeria is the 6th world largest exporter of oil and Nigeria oil is the second best in the world yet Nigeria is poor due to corruption. This is the reason why some African governors when they steal money through corruption there illegal funds are stocked away to Europe and America hence the land continues to be underdeveloped and impoverished. The options for the citizens who have opportunity, is to migrate to Europe and America where it is assumed erroneously that there are opportunities and Jobs waiting for them to do and get hard currency, while the ladies resort to sex business on realizing that the expectations are not met.

EFFECTS OF MIGRATION/HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Migration and human trafficking have serious negative effects on the home country where they abandoned. It leads to brain drain (Beine et al 2011) a situation where most of the highly educated people move away or relocate to other countries what will happen to their home country. It will lead to

educational backwardness, illiteracy and poverty. This is why for some times now the developing countries complain that their scientists, nurses, doctors, engineers and other relevant personalities have vanished to other countries particularly Europe and America. This is the reason why some argue, that Europe and America should pay some compensation to Africa in form of reparation for slave trade (House of Common 2004).

Sometimes, Most of these migrants are subjected to much untold hardship, which resulted to death and sickness. On the negative side, many remittances receiving household decrease their labour market participation which ultimately could create dependency on these flows similar to some type of international welfare system.

It leads to an increase in the level of crime or criminality people can always take to crime when there is nothing to do, armed robbery becomes the other of the day, since they must eat to survive and take care of their family members by so doing the host countries will be in danger of their lives and properties. A typical example of this is the activities of Hausa/ Fulani influx in the Southern States of Nigeria. Some of these Fulani's are from Benin and Chad republic where they migrate to Nigeria in search of food and job. Most of them now have turned into criminals and kidnappers causing serious and untold hardship on the area where they are residing.

Perez-Armendariz (2010), says that migration and Trafficking have become a serious problem in the developing world today because the boundaries between the urban and the rural areas are getting very blurred thereby affecting the states concerned.

The practice of human trafficking has promoted the sustenance of illicit activities and organized crime as traffickers are often highly successful because of links with other transnational crimes, trafficking in arms, drugs and other contrabands, which provides them with safe and tested routes, access to cash and known corrupt officials to bribe. They easily trick their victims into travelling to another country in their search for better life by creating false travel and employment agencies to give their operations an air of legitimacy. In this way, the profits from human trafficking strengthen criminal groups and thereby find other illicit activities, while undermining

government attempt to establish rule of law. Human trafficker's, thieves, drug addict, smugglers are known to use the same method, routes and corrupt officials to transport humans, drugs and stolen goods to lucrative markets. It is also possible that some terrorist groups are profiting from human trafficking.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

The theory to explain this work is the state frigidly theory, the state fragility theory, according to Hanson (2003), tries to explain the failure of state to perform the functions necessary to meet citizen's basic needs and expectations. For example it is the duty of the state to provide and protect the citizens from attacks and inversion. The state should provide the based needs of the people, in situation where corruption has taken a high tone and his become the order of the day in Nigeria the citizens have no option than to migrate to another area for survival where the state has failed in its duty to protect the citizens this is the reason why there is high level of human trafficking despite the laws made to combat them. A situation where the political class and state leaders steel money and transfer them abroad while the citizens are languishing in hunger and poverty, the option available to the citizens will be to migrate to another area and while some will take to human trafficking. Some section of citizenry may decide to embark on certain level of crime such as Human Trafficking prostitution and Migration with intension to commit crime such as transnational boarder crimes, Herdsmen killings including Fulani Migrant activities in the southern states of Nigeria all these happen simple because their expectation from the state were not met and because they were denied major opportunities like employment. In other words, when the state fails in its responsibility to provide for the needs of the people, and where the people could not trust the government of the day, then the state becomes very fragile and any little issue could result to into a very serious problem and it becomes as reason for Migration, such as brain drain in Nigeria and the early eighties and nineties in Nigeria which is as a result of the fact that their basic needs such as provision of adequate food, housing, employment etc are not met this could weaken the state. Similarly, when the educated elite and the uneducated class expect the government to protect them and give them job, provide social integration, address their inadequacies, ensure equity and social justice as well as regional autonomy

and others, the absence of these critical expectations could seriously lead to brain drain, Migration and other social evils and crimes like Human trafficking, prostitution and kidnapping and these could affect the integrity of the state.

Fragile state according to Olsen (2000), therefore are usually described as incapable of security, maintenance of law and order. When the legitimacy of the state is in question, based on the fact that the citizens are not carried along and the policies of the state are out of congruence with the expectation of the population, such a state is referred to as a fragile state. This explain the situation in most third world countries where these are large number of their citizens migrating to other areas and high level of Human trafficking and other levels of crimes. Kew (2006), describes a country that is failing or at a high risk of failing because it lacks the authority to protect its citizen from human trafficking and brain drain and to provide the basic necessities of life as a fragile state. The urban biased theory states that the reason why there is migration is because of the disparity in development between the urban and the rural areas hence Migration People will always migrate if the situation in the rural areas are not comfortable, the government of the day is also responsible for people migrating from one area to another because lack of development. Equally, human trafficking also take place because the same reason of lack of development hunger and poverty when this are the case people have no option than to take the alternative which is to migrate to other area and other will take to woman trafficking.

Way forward

As stated earlier, there are basic factors that encourage both migration and human trafficking and other crimes in Nigeria. The major reasons are that of poverty, hunger and unemployment. The resultant effect of these is under development. If these issues are corrected and Jobs provided for the citizens of the state, brain drain will reduce and migration and human trafficking will be reduced.

The most dangerous factor is corruption. It is sad to say that Nigeria is poor in the midst of plenty. Nigeria is the 6th world largest producer of oil yet the citizens are poor due to corrupt leaders. If the large quantity of money stolen by the leaders which they transfer abroad is committed into the use to

establish industries for the teaming population of the people crime will reduce and the people will be happy with the leaders.

There should be a comprehensive mobilization of the uneducated citizens to a services duties and reduced occupational approach that will make them understand how to be self-reliant without depending on the government for everything.

It is believed that through enlightenment and sensitization campaigns, different sectors of the public will be educated on the evils effect of trafficking in human beings and its related consequences. The target population will be the women, youth and school children. Information can be disseminated through the market women unions. Youth associations, transport association etc.

There should be a plan Action to encourage member states to participate in measures taken to prevent trafficking in persons, protect and support victims of Trafficking, promote awareness, raising activities and to establish cooperation for law enforcement officials of borders, share data among ECOWAS nations and the United Nations. The plan of Action focuses mainly on criminal justice related response to trafficking in persons.

There should be serious diversification of the economy from oil to other areas, so that the country will move away from monoculture economy that is dependent on oil to agriculture.

CONCLUSION

Though human trafficking is a transnational crime that is not peculiar to Nigeria alone, the manner by which it is carried out in Nigeria has violated human rights and in the cause of its practice the social and moral foundation of our society has shifted from the norms from which it was based. According to (ILO/IPEC, 2014) Human trafficking also carries with it problems of social exclusion and crime for families and communities, as trafficking weakens ties of parental affection, undermines extended family relationships, and decreases the family's influence and control over the child.

It is clear that because of the problem of unemployment and joblessness, most of these migrate and the trafficked provided sheep labor for the areas

they found themselves. Most of them are ready to adjust to any filthy condition where they were located. As stated earlier one of the social movements of every human population is migration from one settlement to another depending on development and availability of economic resources the major factor is that there is a problem that existed which gave rise to migration, and the problem are hunger, poverty and underdevelopment.

Finally, the Nation state and leadership policies determine the level of development. Where corruption is the order of the day Nigeria with it resultant poverty, unemployment and hunger, the rate of migration and human trafficking will be on the increase.

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ASSESSMENT OF ALTERNATIVE SOURCES OF REVENUE GENERATION FOR SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA (2010-2018)

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ABSTRACT

There is a compelling need for Kogi State Government to align with the Federal Government's Economic Transformation Agenda in order to ensure effective restructuring of its economy from subsistence to industrial economy. The failure of the various State Governments to sustain the economy has led to increasing hunger, diseases, unemployment and all forms of social vices in the State. The study is an assessment of alternative sources of revenue generation for sustainable economic development in Kogi State. It aims at assessing the effect of harnessing new potential sources of revenue generation on a more sustainable basis through economic transformation and technologically driven methods. To achieve this, the researcher drew a sample size of 400 respondents using Anova as a tool, while questionnaire were distributed to the areas arrived at by proportional equal allocation. It employed both primary and secondary methods of data collection. Data were analyzed by using simple percentages and tables, while exploring relevant theories such as systems and modernization theories as explanatory tools. Three hypotheses were formulated and tested using chi -square (X_2) method. The study recommends amongst others that agriculture and industrial sectors should be adequately funded, priority attention is given to policies and programmes designed to boost food production, incentive schemes should be made functional while public-private sector partnership be encouraged.

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INTRODUCTION

In Nigeria's fifty four years of political independence, the country's economy and Kogi State in particular, has continued to be confronted with many socio-economic challenges that task the ingenuity of policy makers and the development partners. The Nigeria Civil War of 1970s, the severe drought of the early 1970s and the emergence of the oil boom in 1970, unemployed youths and women quest for white collar jobs constrained the capacity of agricultural and industrial sectors to fulfill their traditional roles in the economy (Onah, 2011). Kogi State is not endowed with huge natural resources or investment potentials yet the State is flooded with abject poverty, hunger and mass unemployment.

Since time immemorial, poverty remains one of the serious threats to human development. Since then, people started adopting different strategies to eradicate poverty in their midst. In fact, poverty has become one of the serious issues not only to the developing countries but also to the developed ones. In essence, poverty has attracted attention of scholars, government and international communities. The situation is so glaring that the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) report in 2005 shows that more than 1.2 million people, one in every five on earth survive on less than US $1 per day. While its 2008 report as observed by Ibrahim and opportunities to employment and provides awareness among the citizens. Indeed a country with more educated people has less poverty. Not only that health contributes to poverty eradication, for the fact that a country with a healthy population is a wealthy nation, and any country that fails to provide sufficient health service to its citizens may leads to low productivity, low savings and investment which may automatically lead to cycle of poverty.

Federal and State Government had in the past initiated programmes of action which guide their plan of actions. The choice of such programmes as public policies guide their actions towards the achievement of national and states development. Therefore, previous government administrations had introduced a number of reform measures or policies such as Operatoin Feed the Nation (1976), Structural Adjustment Programme (1983), Green Revolution (1984), National Directorate of Employment (1989), River Basin Development Authority (1992), National Orientation Agency (1993),

Universal Basic Education (1999), Economic Transformation Agenda with vision 20:2020 (2011), among others. Some of these policies were either abandoned or failed while some of them were implemented in line with the directives of the international organizations like the United Nations, World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) (CBN, 2008).

Accordingly, the International communities for the promotion of good governance across the globe adopted the freedom of poor developing countries like Nigeria from extreme poverty and multiple privations that gave birth to Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) and President Jonathan's vision 20:2020 Economic Transformation Agency for Nigeria (Chime, 2012). The MDGs strategic models of development is set to address a wide variety of issues concerning poverty, education, gender equality, health, environment and global partnership for development while the transformation agenda was necessitated by the need to correct the flaws in the nation's and states pursuit for sustainable economic development. It is intended to address issues where there is absence of agreed policies. In alliance with their agenda, Kogi state government was poised to address priority development policies and programmes designed to transform the state and its Ministries, Department and Agencies (MDA's) from federal allocation to resources driven economy. It was in line with the visions and policies of the transformation agenda and the goals of the MDGs that in 2006, the Kogi state government gazette tax laws to guide the actions and inaction of the state towards new tax laws and investment potentials. The study is an assessment of Alternative Sources of Revenue Generation for Sustainable Economic Development in Kogi State, Nigeria.

THE CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT - THE CHALLENGE IN NIGERIAN

Development refers to advancement through progressive changes in economic, social, cultural, technological and political conditions of a society, leading to an improvement in the welfare of the citizens. No society can develop if there is a high level of poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, malnutrition. Adelakun, O.A. (1986). Child mortality, political instability and inequity in income distribution Nigeria has been involved in development planning since 1962. The first national development plan

covered the period from 1962 -1968. The rolling plan approach has been adopted and a number of three-year rolling plans have been executed.

The country is, therefore, not lacking in ideas in terms of what constitutes development. The outcomes of the various development efforts, however, indicate that, there have been serious problems with the implementation or development plans considering the social and political aspects of poverty, which had impacted on the people very severely.

OVERVIEW OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF KOGI STATE

Kogi state which came into being in 1991 is one of the thirty-six (36) states of Nigeria and was created out of the defunct Kabba Province of the defunct Northern Region. There are 21 local government councils which are further subdivided into three (3) senatorial zones.

The socio-economic characteristic of the state reveals that the state economy is largely rural with the bulk (90%) of the population living in rural areas. Over 80% of the total populace are engaged in traditional agricultural practices. Informal sector activities undertaken on a small-medium scale include trade and commerce in agricultural and manufactured goods, tailoring services, auto repairs, metal works, carpentry, food processing, and masonry, (KO-SEEDS 2004). The structure of the state economy has not changed significantly over the years in spite of the relative economic development that has taken place in the country since independence.

As in many rural economies, the state is characterized by the inadequate existence of the various socio-economic infrastructures essential for economic development. Like in most poor economies, Kogi state is devoid of adequate access and availability of food health care system; conducive educational environment, structures and facilities; good/safe, potable drinking water; all- season motorable roads; electrical source of energy; modern market structures and facilities; environmental/ecological and sanitation control etc.

Kogi State is blessed with enormous human and material resources. All known indices of underdevelopment about such as illiteracy, infant mortality, poor medical facilities and corruption are prevalent in the Kogi

State socio-economic system. The resultant effect of the above scenario is ridiculously low and depicted standard of living and mass poverty amongst the populace. The situation as always been of immense concern to successive Nigerian governments, attempts have been made in the past to address this worrisome state of affairs and such attempts delivered no significant dividend to the target beneficiaries of the programmes.

Studies have shown the earlier programme aimed at poverty alleviation such as Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), better life for rural women, family support programme (ESP) etc. failed not a result of conception but an account at haphazard non-focused and blurred implementation process in some cases. The entire programme was hijacked by buccaneers in the corridors of power. The result has always been dismal performance of such programme, all these programmes were intended to fight poverty by helping to develop the country's industrial and social infrastructure as well as provide soft loans to encourage investment in the development of the abundant local resource especially in the rural sector. The rural sector plays a significant role in the development process in Nigeria as it employees over 85% of the working population and account for over 70% of the non-oil expects (Vision 2010 Report, 1997). Activities/NAPEP achievement from January 2001, NAPEP intervened in a number of projects. So far about 140,000 youth have been trained in more than 190 practical hands on trades over a period of 3 months. Every trainee in this intervention project was paid N3, 000 per month while N3, 500 was the understanding that beneficiaries would subsequently set up their own business in line with the skills they have acquired. To actualize these 5,000 beneficiaries were resettled with assorted tailoring and fashion design equipment. Also under the mandatory attachment programme for unemployment graduates, N40,000 beneficiaries were attached in 2001. Each of who was paid a monthly stipend of NI 0.000. The installation of equipment under the rural telephone project is currently in progress, while KEKE NAPEP project is currently being rigorously implemented.

This study offers:

i. A vehicle with a powerful deist engine and a fuel tank capacity of 10.5 liters.

ii. A vehicle with a passenger capacity of four (4) people.

iii. A vehicle with a play load capacity of 320kg, which is concerned with providing unemployed youth opportunities in skills acquisition, employment and wealth generation. To achieve this, the scheme was further subdivided into capacity acquisition programme, mandatory attachment programme and credit delivery programme.

iv. Rural infrastructure development scheme (RDS), the objective of this scheme is to ensure that the provision and development of infrastructure needs in the areas of transport, energy, water and communication especially in rural areas. The scheme was broken into four (4) parts; the rural transport programme, the rural energy programme, the rural water programme and the rural communication programme.

Others areas in which (NAPEP) made effort at alleviating poverty in Kogi State include:

1. Training of 2,500 people in tailoring and fashion design.
2. The delivery of KEKE NAPEP is three wheeler vehicle project involving 500 units distributed to the three senatorial districts.
3. The delivery of informal micro credit ranging from Nl0,000 beneficiaries most of whom were women.
4. Establishment of youth information center across the three (3) sensational district.
5. Aid to destitute homes.
6. Direct assistance to victim of natural health deformities.
7. Inauguration of the Kogi State agency for poverty reduction.
8. Supply of “Ibro Tryson” another form of KEKE NAPEP to ease transportation of person and farm produce at the rural areas.

REASONS FOR FAILURE

Although most of the decisions and measure of NAPEP are positive and men intended, it is unfortunate that less than 50% of these decisions have been

fully implemented and aims fully achieved. These can be analyzed from the decisions made and even the measure adopted.

1. The "KEKE/NAPEP" and "Ibro Tryson" are highly substandard transportation facility that can perform close to nothing compared to what is meant for.

2. The purchase and supply of facilities through contract has been cornered into another device of detaching the agency government.

3. The distribution of amenities to the less privileged does not actually get to the less privileged.

4. The distribution of farm chemicals like fertilizer and others as far from reality as they are sold at exorbitant rates too high for target farmers to afford.

5. Distribution and aids to vit1m of natural deserter and klatch problems are politicized to favour only supporters of the ruling party and just a few privileged supporters.

6. The government has converted the NAPEP to another making venture.

7. The scent initiates at the local government areas are ore observance of national protocol but no extension of fraudulent hand to party stalwarts at the local government levels.

8. Despite the inauguration of NAPEP, and their unending message of provision on employment, unemployment rate is still very high revealing un-achievement of the agencies.

This is not to say that there is a total failure. But compared with the intention, little has been achieved. Reasons include:

- Poverty
- Fraud
- Poor policy formulation and coordination
- Policy discontinuity
- Unhealthy rivalry among agencies/institution
- Lack of genuine commitment to course

- Selfishness

Conceptual analysis of poverty has been from two broad perspectives. Poverty is having insufficient income to meet the minimum standard of living. It exist when income and disposable resources such as wealth are inadequate to support a minimum level of well-being (Ogwumike, 1991; 105-12, Ravallion and Bidami, 1994;75-120, Like, 1996;1-4, OgwuMile, 1991;105) or household lacks sufficient income to satisfy its need for shelter, food, clothing, education and transportations. Fields (1 989;2) consider the poor to be those whose income falls short of an established poverty line, while Obadan (1996;83) defined poverty as the condition in which the standard of living of a household or expenditure level below which individuals are regarded as poor. These definitions analyzed poverty from the economic stand point. And is a common practice among economists (Obadan, 1996; 83-110, Pacchioli, 1996; 5). Such analysis implicitly assumes that the cure of poverty is earning enough financial capital or income measures however do not necessarily depict an improvement in the living condition of people and though useful, it only provides a limited picture of well-being (World Bank/FOS/NPC, 2000).

Poverty equally means lack of access to resource required by an individual to maintain certain minimum number of activities such as the capacity to stay alive; enjoy good or decent living, reproduce, live a healthy life, interact socially or have knowledge (Desai, 1992; 3). For an individual to be capable of these activities he/she must have access to such resources as personal income wealth, clan water, health and educational facilities as well as physical assets. Poverty is a situation where people have little or no resources of land, knowledge, skill, health, capital and social physical necessities assets and income (Chamber, 1997:25) or malnutrition lack of clean water, adequate sanitation o low life expectancy.

From the foregoing, it is obvious that the concept of poverty is wide and varied. Its multi-dimensional in nature (economic, social, psychological, political and cultural dimensions) made it possible to arrive at a universal consensus of its meaning (Hemmer, 1994:8-11). Poverty may thus be conceptualized as a condition characterized by economic physical/materials as well as psychological deprivation suffered by an individual or household.

The economic component refers to the inability of an individual to earn an income above an established poverty line or an income required or the basic necessities of life such as food, clothing and shelter.

2017 REVIEW REVENUE ON REGISTRATION OF BUSINESS PREMISES:

(Pool Betting Game of Change, Trade Fair, Co-Operative Registration and Auditing Subjects to Upward review from time to time to meet up Internally Generated Revenue (IGR)

Table 1: Registration/Renewal Fees of Business Premises

S/ No.	Business Names	Old Rate ₦	New Rate ₦	Renewal ₦
1	Private Hospitals	20,000	30,000	15,000
2	Dispensary Maternity, Home Nursing Clinics, Optical/Pathology and Ex-ray	2,000	30,000	15,000
3	Pharmacy shops	10,000	20,000	10,000
4	Patent/Proprietary medicine vendor license	5,000	10,000	5,000
5	Hotels between 1-20 rooms	2,000	40,000	20,000
	21-50 rooms	50,000	100,000	50,000
	51 rooms and above	100,000	120,000	60,000
6	Five Star Hotels	100,000	300,000	150,000
7	Petrol 1-2 pumps	30,000	40,000	20,000
	1-4 pumps	40,000	50,000	25,000
	1-5 pumps	80,000	100,000	50,000
	6 and above pumps	100,000	140,000	70,000

8	Motor spare part dealer	10,000	20,000	10,000
9	Motorcycle spare part dealer	10,000	20,000	10,000
10	SAW Mills	40,000	10,000	50,000
11	Bench Saw millers	20,000	30,000	15,000
12	Plant Seller/dealer	10,000	15,000	7,500
13	Building material dealer/seller	20,000	40,000	20,000
14	Cement company	100,000,000	12,000,000	6,000,000
15	Cement dealer/seller	20,000	40,000	20,000
16	Motor dealer/seller	100,000	200,000	100,000
17	Motorcycle dealer/seller	50,000	100,000	50,000
18	Private nursery/primary schools	10,000	20,000	10,000
19	Private secondary schools	20,000	40,000	20,000
20	Higher institutions (private)	500,000	1,000,000	500,000
21	Commercial banks	100,000	200,000	100,000
22	Micro Finance bank	40,000	80,000	40,000
23	Surface tank kerosene dealers	20,000	30,000	15,000
24	Limited liability company (medium)	50,000	100,000	50,000
25	Limited liability company (big) 1	70,000	140,000	70,000
26	Limited liability company (big)2	100,000	200,000	100,000
27	Partnership/distributorship	30,000	60,000	30,000

28	Sole proprietorship	10,000	15,000	7,500
29	Solid mineral miners	-	50,000	25,000
30	Private radio TV station	100,000	200,000	100,000
31	Pooling centre/game of Chance	10,000	30,000	15,000
32	Package water producer	20,000	20,000	10,000
33	Traveling agency	10,000	10,000	5,000
34	Restaurant (a) small (b) big	12,000 24,000	22,000 48,000	12,000 24,000
35	Fast food/confectioneries (a) small (b) big	5,000 12,000	10,000 24,000	5,000 12,000
36	Bakery	10,000	20,000	10,000
37	Block industry	10,000	20,000	10,000
38	Tailor/fashion design	2,000	4,000	2,000
39	Welding/fabrication	5,000	10,000	5,000
40	Insurance investment	50,000	50,000	50,000
41	Security agency (private)	10,000	20,000	10,000
42	Interior decorators	10,000	20,000	10,000
43	Clearing agents	10,000	20,000	10,000
44	Beer/spirit sale (a) big (b) small 20,000	30,000 20,000	60,000 40,000	30,000 20,000

45	Bookshops/ stationeries stores	7,000	14,000	7,000
46	Supermarkets	50,000	80,000	40,000
47	Physiotherapy	7,000	14,000	7,000
48	Rental services	7,000	14,000	7,000
49	Agro service/chemical	5,000	10,000	5,000
50	Boutique (a) small (b) big	10,000 20,000	20,000 40,000	10,000 20,000
51	Launder/dry cleaners	10,000	15,000	7,500
52	Printers (large)	12,000	24,000	12,000
53	Printers (medium)	10,000	20,000	10,000
54	Printer (small)	5,000	10,000	5,000
55	Lawyers/Architect/accountants	50,000	70,000	35,000
56	Refrigerator/radio/electronics repairs	3,000	6,000	3,000
57	Nutritional food supplement food	10,000	15,000	7,500
58	Health, firms/fitness centre	10,000	20,000	10,000
59	Embalmment centres	7,000	14,000	7,000
60	Acupuncture clinic (inpatients)	40,000	8,000	4,000

Source: Kogi State Internal Revenue Gazette, 2018.

Table 1.1 above shows the reviewed revenue of old and new rate respectively as an alternative source of revenue to the state.

Table 1.2:

NEW AREAS (NON EXISTENCE) OF TRADE FAIR LEVIES/FEES AT LOCAL LEVEL		
S/NO.		**₦**
1	Participation/Certificate fee	150,000
2	Pravilion fee	10,000
3	Gate fee	100
4	Social Amenities	15,000
5	Labour dues	5,000
6	Security levy	10,000

Source: Kogi State Internal Revenue Gazette 2018.

Table 1.2 above shows new revenue areas explored by this government. This again is an additional source of revenue to the state.

This table i.e. tables 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5 below shows new areas explored in 2017 amongst others in Kogi State as additional alternative source of revenue in Kogi State.

Table 1.3

Non Existence Ministry of Education		
S/NO.		**₦**
1	Establishment of school fee	10,000.00
2	Registration and operation certification	
3	Secondary/primary and nursery	75,000.00
4	Primary and nursery	25,000.00
5	Renewal of registration	10,000.00

Source: Kogi State Internal Revenue Gazette 2018.

Table 1.4: Pollution Tax New Areas

Contaminant Fees for Effluents		
S/No	**Contaminant**	**Fee Per Ton Discharged**
1	Ammonia	300.00
2	AOX	600.00
3	Arsenic	600.00
4	BOD	600.00
5	Chlorine	4600.00
6	Cyanide	600.00
7	Fluoride	693.00
8	Metals	600.00
9	Nitrogen and Nitrates	300.00
10	Oil and grease	70.00
11	Other petroleum products	70.00
12	Other solids	120.00
13	Phenols	600.00
14	Phosphorus and phosphates	600.00
15	Sulphates	120.00
16	Suphides	600.00
17	Suspended solids	120.00
18	Other contaminants	120.00

Source: Kogi State Internal Revenue Gazette 2018.

Table 1.5:

CONTAMINANTS FEES FOR AIR EMISSIONS NEW AREAS		
S/No.	**Contaminant**	**Fee Per Ton Discharged**
1	Ammonia	213.00
2	Asbestos	213.00
3	Carbon Monoxide	110.00
4	Chlorine and Chlorine Oxide	110.00
5	Fluorides	453.600
S/No.	**Pollutant**	**Range/Ton**
1	SO	300.00
2	NO	688.00
3	YOC	118.00

Source: Kogi State Internal Revenue Gazette 2018.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The study strongly addressed the theoretical and empirical issues in the Assessment of Alternative Sources of Revenue Generation for Sustainable Economic Development in Kogi State, in agricultural and industrial sectors, the analysis of distortions, the phenomena of the continued poor state of the State economy amidst abundance of natural resources, distortions in economic management, economic transformation and the global economy.

In view of the above stated research findings, the following recommendations are made to ensure that Kogi Slate and its citizens will henceforth enjoy a more improved infrastructural and social services provisions on sustainable basis through evaluation of agricultural and industrial potentials.

(i) There must be adequate funding of infrastructures and other social services sectors in order to improve the state of the economy. The State needs to mobilize sufficient funds from financial institutions, individuals and sometimes collaborate with the private sector for the development of basic infrastructures. Most infrastructures like road constructional rehabilitation, water supply and power supply would require a huge injection of capital fund. These infrastructural requirements could be met through joint finding of selected projects between the State, Federal, Local Governments and nongovernmental organizations on agreed terms;

(ii) Kogi State Government should review its obsolete policies on investment plans and non-oil sector resource. The new policies on Agriculture and Industry must be technologically driven and in accordance with the present economic transformation agenda. The formulated policies and programmes must provide consistent, legal, financial, institutional and adequate regulatory framework that will accommodate private sector participation as synergy for accelerated economic transformation;

(iii) There is the need for the State Government to partner with the private sector and international organization through the adoption of public private partnership (PPP). This model of infrastructural development will involve the combination of both the strengths of the public and private sectors on agreed terms. In this regard, the financial and human resources can be effectively mobilized by the parties to the project for a timely execution.

After the empirical analysis of data, the following findings were made:

(i) Kogi State policy on Assessment of Alternative Sources of Revenue Generation for Sustainable Economic Development in Kogi State, Nigeria has not been able to provide adequate infrastructures and social services to the people of the State. In case of social amenities like water supply, the people have resorted to providing private water borehole while those in the interior still trek long distances to the stream to obtain safe drinking water;

(ii) The State's transformation has not enhanced citizens access to basic facilities like adequate food security, manufacturing and investment

benefits. Farming system has remained subsistence which can hardly provide enough food for the teeming population; road side chemist shops and unregulated private hospitals are still being patronized because the public health centres and general hospitals are either inaccessible to people or do not provide efficient services due to shortage of qualified personnel, equipment and drugs;

(iii) Kogi State New Revenue Generation has not been able to address the massive infrastructural requirements that will boost food production, stimulate industrial development and funding gap. Evidence of poor condition of living, hunger and high incidence of unemployment rates still abound in the State, while some respondents appreciated the efforts of new tax system, majority of them however, expressed dissatisfaction with the buying o plenty cards for election.

(iv) The state does not partner with the private sector to fast-track development in agriculture, industry and investment. The implication of this result is that economic development in these sectors has remained at its lowest ebb;

(v) That the farming system in Kogi State is not technologically driven. The subsistence system of farming is still being practiced with the use of out-dated equipment like hoes, cutlasses, knives, among others which cannot enhance food production;

(vi) That loans granted to farmers to boost food production have not resulted in improved farm yield. The implication is that the funds were diverted by the beneficiaries to other personal uses which had no positive effect to agricultural development in the State;

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WORKING EQUIPMENT AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN MICRO-FINANCE INSTITUTIONS IN BAMBILI, CAMEROON

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ABSTRACT

The work environment which encompasses several factors impacts on the way the employees perform their work. A comfortable and all- inclusive workplace environment will boost the employees' performance hence boosting the organizational performance. This research examined the effect of working equipment on employee performance in microfinance institution in Bambili, Cameroon. The research was guided by the objective; i) to examine the effect of working equipment on Employee Performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon. The study used a cross-sectional research design and it involved a total population of 143 respondents; out of which 105 were identified as the sample size. Simple random sampling and purposive sampling techniques were used to determine the participants in the study. Findings indicated that; training and development significantly affects employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon. The researcher concluded that; training and development enables employees to progress from a present state of understanding and capability to a future state in which higher level skills, knowledge and competencies are required, employees can be allowed to take on responsibilities that are important to the company, and acquire roles

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within the social framework of the organization, but they are expected to always act with the best interests of the company in mind, hence creating a good relationship between employees and the management,. Recommendations were; Micro-Finance Institutions should develop good training plans, and this will help to cater for issues surrounding quality of services, contract compliance, and customer service issues can be resolved internally before going out. The contribution to knowledge was that it is a fact career traning and development can be used to increase the level of employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon. The following are the common strategies which can be used by the Micro-Finance Institutions to measure employee performance levels; timeliness, quality of Service and feedback.

KEYWORDS: training, career development, workplace environment, employee performance

INTRODUCTION

Globally, the success of any organization is closely related to employee performance within that organization. The quality of the employees' workplace environment has an impacts on their motivation level and hence performance (Heath, 2016).The numbers of micro and small enterprises and those working in the informal sector of the economy are growing rapidly around the world since 19th century which account for the bulk of new employment and for the majority of the working poor. In assessments of workplace environment and employment conditions, with issues such as health and occupational safety, maternity protection, work-family issues, homework, time spent at work, wages and income, work organization, sexual harassment, violence at work, workload, worker's welfare facilities, housing, nutrition and environment, the millions of women and men within micro and small size enterprises and the informal economy face perhaps the greatest problems among the working population (Rinehart, 2004). Conducive workplace environment ensures employee's wellbeing which will enable them exert themselves to their roles with full commitment that may translate to higher performance (Akinyele, 2007).

In Africa, many research studies have been conducted regarding the impact of workplace environment on employee performance. Levert, Lucas and

Ortlep (2014) conducted a research study on South African nurses and found high fatigue on three levels: emotional exhaustion, de-personalization and low personal accomplishment. They attributed the nursing burnout to a high

Workload and other organizational factors within the hospital. In addition, Noble (2003) states that more attention should be given in identifying and dealing with workplace condition because when employees have negative perception to their environment they sometimes suffer from chronic stress. The workplace environment of any organization or institution generally includes three sub-environments. These are technical, human and organizational environments. Technical environment comprises tools, equipment, infrastructure and other technical elements; the human environment comprises peers, and colleagues with whom employees relate, team and work group, interactions, the leadership and management, while organizational environment, on the other hand, includes systems, procedures, practices, values and philosophies (Opperman, 2012). Work environment of an organization can also be categorized into internal and external work environment. The totality of these environments has an influence on the employee performance of microfinance institutions.

In Cameroon, the factors of workplace environment began changing as a result of changes in many factors such as the social environment, since the 1990s, information technology and the flexible ways of organizing work processes (Hasun & Makhbul, 2015). When employees are mentally stable (that is physically and emotionally) they will be motivated to work and their performance outcomes shall be increased. Moreover, a good workplace environment helps in reducing counterproductive behaviors such as number of absenteeism, theft and thus can increase the employee's performance which intern leads to increased productivity at the workplace (*Boles et al*.2004). Workplace environment is argued have an impact immense on employee's performance being either with negative or the positive outcomes (Chandrasekar 2011).

In the world today, there are international organizations that fight for the rights of employee. Most people spend forty to fifty percent of their lives within a confined environment, which greatly influence their mental status, actions, abilities and performance (Dorgan, 1994). A better workplace environment will lead to better outcomes and increased productivity. Better

physical condition of office will boosts the employees and ultimately improves their productivity. Various studies of multiple offices and office buildings indicated that factors such as dissatisfaction, cluttered workplaces and the physical environment are playing a major role in the loss of employee's performance (Briner, 2014).

1. CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIV*E*

Workplace Environment: Many scholars have attempted in recent past conceptualizing independent workplace environment Friedrich Engels (1845) and Henry Mayhew (1861). It could be defined as the settings, situations, conditions and circumstances under which people work. Further it's been elaborated by Briner (2014) as a very broad category that include the physical setting within the work place which includes heat, equipment's etc, characteristics of the job itself (e.g. workload, task complexity), broader organizational features (e.g. culture, history) and even aspects of the extra organizational setting (e.g. local labor market conditions, industry sector, work-home relationships). It therefore seems that workplace environment is the total of the interrelationship that exists amongst the employee's as well as employers and the environment in which these employees work which usually includes the technical, the human and the organizational environment.

According to Opperman (quoted in Yusuf and Metiboba 2012) gives consideration which needs to be taken into account when defining workplace environment which includes the technical environment, the human environment and the organizational environment. According to Yusuf and Metiboba, technical environment refers to tools, equipment, technological infrastructure and other physical elements used within the workplace. The human environment includes the peers, others with whom employees relate, team and work groups, interactional issues, the leadership and management. The term workplace environment is used to describe the surrounding conditions in which an employee operates.

Employee Performance: Sinha (2001) stated that employees' performance depends on the willingness and also the openness of the employee's desire of doing their job. He also stated that by having this willingness and openness of the employees in doing their job, it could increase the employees'

performance which also leads to the productivity. Stup (2003) also explained that to have a standard performance, employers will need to get the employees to do their task on track so as to achieve organizational goals. By having the work or job done on track, employers could be able to monitor, observe and help them to improve their performance.

Employees will always be contended when they feel that their immediate environment states are in line with their obligations (Farh, 2012). Chandrasekar (2011) stated that the type of workplace environment in which employees operate determines whether or not organizations will attain its goals and objectives. The workplace environment consists of physical factors which include the office layout and design among other factors; while the psychosocial factors made up of working conditions, role congruity and social support. Other aspects of the workplace environment are the policies which include employment conditions.

A better physical workplace environment boosts employees' performance. Employees in many organizations are faced with working problems related to workplace environmental and physical factors. It has been argued by Pech and Slade (2016) that the level of employee disengagement is increasing and it has become an area of interest for employers to make the workplaces an environment that positively influence workforce. Employees' comfort on the job, determined by workplace conditions and environment, has been recognized as an important factor for measuring their productivity (Leblebici, 2012). In today's dynamic and competitive business world, a healthy workplace environment makes good business sense. Managers should not just focus on the employees' pay packet with the assumption that it is proportionate to performance (Heath, 2016). Organizations deemed as a positive place to work will have a competitive edge over the others.

Employee performance refers to job related activities expected of a worker and how well those activities were executed (Leblebici, 2012). Employee performance is the process of creating a work environment or setting in which people are enabled to perform to the best of their abilities (Heath, 2016).

This study was guided by three theories, Taylor's (1911) theory, Maslow's (1943) Hierarchical level of need, Herzberg's (1959) two factor theory.

Taylor (1911) asserted that one of the most important motivator of workers is salary and wages. According to Taylor, "non-incentive wage system will lead to low performance". He said that if employees are to receive the same wage irrespective of their individual contribution to the goal, they will work less and that employees will think working at a higher rate means fewer employees may be needed which discourages employees to work more (Gardner and Lambert 1972). While, Maslow (1943) argued that people work to survive and live through financial compensation, to make new friends, to have job security, for a sense of achievement and to feel important in the society, to have a sense of identity, and most especially to have job satisfaction. All employees that have job satisfaction are high performers in their respective workplaces and finally, Herzberg's theory maintains there are factors within the workplace that leads to job satisfaction, but if absent; they don't lead to dissatisfaction but no satisfaction.

Those factors that motivate people can change over their time, but "respect for me as a person" is one of the top motivating factors at any stage of life. He distinguished between those factors that motivates for example, challenging work, recognition, responsibility which give positive satisfaction, and hygiene factors that do not motivate you if present, but in their absence demotivation arises they include, status, job security, salary and fringe benefit. The theory is sometimes called the "Motivator-Hygiene Theory. Herzberg's research proved that people will strive to achieve 'hygiene' needs because they are unhappy without them, but once satisfied the effect soon wears off - satisfaction is temporary. Nowadays same as in recent past, poorly managed organizations fail to understand that people are not 'motivated' by addressing 'hygiene' needs. People are only truly motivated by enabling them to reach for and satisfy the factors that Herzberg identified as real motivators, such as achievement, advancement, development, etc., which represent a far deeper level of meaning and fulfilment.

2. EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Working Equipment and Employee Performance

Workplace equipment's and facilities are some of those things provided for the safety, welfare, health and personal hygiene needs of employees. They include toilets, shelter, seating, dining rooms, change rooms, drinking

water, personal storage and washing facilities. Which include work environment facilities such as workspace, temperature and air quality, lighting and flooring.

A study by Roelofsen (2012) argued that improving the workplace environment reduces the rate of complaints and absenteeism while increasing performance of employees and thus increased productivity. There is adequate empirical evidence linking workplace conditions to job satisfaction (Wells, 2014) Providing amenities and facilities for the health, safety and welfare of employees is an important employer duty. However, it is only a part of an employer‘s duty to provide and maintain a working environment that is safe and without risks to health. Amenities and facilities are linked to the health, safety and welfare of employees within the organization. This compliance code addresses duties to provide amenities and facilities. It does not provide guidance on other employer duties to provide the highest reasonably practicable level of protection against risks to health and safety of employees within any organization. Workplace amenities and facilities are things provided for the health, safety, welfare and personal hygiene needs of employees. They include toilets, shelter, seating, dining rooms, change rooms, drinking water, personal storage and washing facilities. They also include work environment facilities such as workspace, temperature and air quality, lighting and flooring.

The employer within the organization will take various measures to ensure the safety of its employees in terms of the work equipment’s made available to them. During the selection of the workplace equipment the employer within the organization shall pay attention to the specific working conditions which exist at the workplace, especially in relation of safety and health of the workers. If risks cannot be fully eliminated during the operation of the work equipment, the employer shall take appropriate measures to minimize them. Furthermore, the workplace equipment should be in line with relevant Community directives and/or the minimum requirements laid down for example, General minimum requirements applicable to work equipment additional minimum requirements applicable to specific types of work

Throughout its working life, the employer shall keep the workplace equipment compliant by means of maintaining the equipment adequately. The employer will make sure ensure that the workplace equipment is been installed correctly and is operating properly by inspection/testing of the work equipment (initial, after assembly, periodic and special) by competent persons. The results of inspections will be recorded and kept for the purpose of the organization.

If the use of work equipment is likely to involve a specific risk the employer shall ensure restricted access to its use, and allows of any modification by expert personnel only. Ergonomics and occupational health aspects shall be taken fully into account by the employer. The employer shall provide it employees with comprehensive information and adequate knowledge (e.g. written instructions) on the work equipment, detailing: the conditions of use, foreseeable abnormal situations, any additional conclusion drawn from experience. Employees shall then be made aware of dangers relevant to them. Within any organization the employer shall ensure that its employees receive adequate training, including risks and specific training on specific-risk equipment's within the organization

3. METHODOLOGY

This study employed a cross-sectional research design. Cross-sectional design allowed the study of the population at one specific time and the difference between the individual groups within the population to be compared. It also provided for the examination of the co-relationship between the study variables (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). The study also used Survey design; this was used to collect data from a large sample of respondents. This study also followed a descriptive research design, whereby qualitative and quantitative research approaches were used to gain insight to variables; it was descriptive in that it described the characteristics of respondents.

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One sample statistics:

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.479[a]	.430	.228	.43141
a. Predictors: (Constant), Working equipment				

ANOVA[b]						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.151	1	20.151	108.275	.000
	Residual	67.558	363	.186		
	Total	87.709	364			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Working equipment						
b. Dependent Variable: employee performance						

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.687	.096		17.652	.000
	Working equipment	.362	.035	.479	10.406	.000

a. Dependent Variable: employee performance

Regression analysis results in the model Summary table indicated that the working equipment significantly affect employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon at a rate of 43% and this was

indicated by r-squared of 0.430, hence implying that the existence of working equipment at the work place significantly has an effect on employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon.

The ANOVA table indicated a positive significant effect working equipment have on employee performance and this was indicated by the positive F-value=108.275 and Sig-value=.000, since the sig. value (0.000) was less than 0.05 and which is the maximum level of significance required to declare a significant effect. This implies that working equipment highly affect employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon. Still this implied that lack of working equipment may reduce the level of employee performance.

The coefficients table indicated that considering the standard error, working equipment significantly affects the employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions (β=0.362, Sig=0. 000).

Regression analysis results in the Model Summary table indicated that interpersonal relationship accounted for 30.7% on employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon and this was indicated by r-squared of 0.307 implying that interpersonal relationship significantly affect employee performance at rate of 30.7%.

The ANOVA table indicated that interpersonal relationship significantly affect employee performance and this was indicated by the F-value=13.955 and Sig-value=.000, since the sig. value (0.000) was less than 0.05 and which is the maximum level of significance required to declare a significant effect. This implies that interpersonal relationship highly affect employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon.

The coefficients table indicated that considering the standard error, interpersonal relationship significantly affect the employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions (β=0.193, Sig=0. 000).

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

According to the findings working equipment have a positive significant effect on employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon. Hence concluding that providing the working equipment to

workers reduces the rate of complaints and absenteeism while increasing performance of employees and thus increased productivity, since providing amenities and facilities for the health, safety and welfare of employees is an important employer duty.

The study offers some recommendations that if pursued properly, will serve to improve the performance of employees' levels.

Micro-Finance Institutions should develop good training plans, and this will help to cater for issues surrounding quality of services, contract compliance, and customer service issues can be resolved internally before going out.

The researcher recommends that there is a need for psychological guidance for employees. This can ensure that all personal issues that employees have are ironed out especially within the right time frame. Also, it will allow the employees always have a place to look up to for assistance whenever they needed it.

The researcher recommends that there is a need for Micro-finance institutions to motivate the employees by providing working equipment to the employees, this encourage these employees to improve on the quality of services offered to clients and other stakeholders such that these clients can appreciate the quality of services offered, hence improving performance.

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INDIGENOUS WOMEN IN INFORMAL TOURISM SECTOR IN ILE-IFE

ALUKO O.A (Ph.D.)‡‡‡‡‡‡

ABSTRACT

Cultural tourism is seen as vital ingredient for the development and promotion of not only communities but culture across the globe, thus there is a need to harness cultural tourism so as to appreciate its potentials to addressing poverty and employment. This paper examined the impact of Olojo festival on SDG1 among women in the informal sector of the tourism industry in Ile-Ife. Primary source of data was through administering questionnaires to fifty respondents, who were women. Data were analyzed using simple charts and percentage. The result revealed that not all informal sectors identified benefited from the festival and also the major challenged faced by both the food and drinks vendors where the hijacking of the event by large firms. The paper concluded that other cultural and historical sites in the town requires more marketing planning so that the people in Ife will not depend on one festival that take place once in a year.

KEYWORDS: Cultural tourism, tourism development, olojo festival, poverty and sustainable development goals

INTRODUCTION

Rogars et al (2008), Willis (2011) and Elliot (2013) have all argued that the three depiction pillars of sustainable development namely; economic, social and nature are not adequate given the current wave of globalization instead a new pillar which is cultural diversities and gender differences should be included. This reason for this is not far-fetched; cultural diversities and gender differences are the roots of a sustainable way of life and respect and care for cultural diversity and gender differences as well as ecological integrity, can help boost the development of any society Elliot (2013). This

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new argument challenges governments in Africa with diversities in culture to embrace the development of tourism in Africa as a way forward to attaining SDG 1.

In addressing the germane focus of sustainability in relation to the economic, social, environment and culture, African countries adopted a framework known as the African Agenda 2063 framework of African Union. One of the highlights of the framework is using Hospitality/Tourism as a means for delivering Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (https://au.int/en/agenda2063/goals). The choice of tourism as a tool for achieving the SDGs goals is born out of the reality that African is blessed with rich educational and cultural heritages that can aid the realization of the SDGs 1 and 8. Today, tourism has become integral to both globalization and sustainable development of any country; this is so because tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world, thus making tourism a new bride embraced for global revenue. For instance, the total contribution of tourism to the world economy revealed that there has been a steady increase from US$6.03 trillion in 2006 to US$ 8,27 trillion in 2017; while global international tourism revenue grew from US$ 475 billion in the year 2000 to US$ 1.34 trillion in 2017 (www.statista.com). Also, The total contribution of tourism to the world economy revealed that there has been a steady increase from US$6.03 trillion in 2006 to US$ 8,27 trillion in 2017; while global international tourism revenue grew from US$ 475 billion in the year 2000 to US$ 1.34 trillion in 2017 (www.statista.com). In 2018, Europe ranked first in the number of tourist with 716 million people and revenue of $571 billion; Asia was in the second position with 348 million tourists and $442 billion accrued from tourism, Americas 216 million tourists to be third with a revenue of $338 billion while Africa followed with 68 million tourists. Though Africa was ahead of Middle East (59 million tourists) in the ranking, revenue generated from tourism in Middle East ($73 billion) was higher than Africa ($38 billion) (https://www.unwto.org/). This implies that tourism serves as an integral part of development in many countries. However, the degree to which tourism expansion and advancement has been planned by countries varies significantly (UNCTAD, 2017).

It is therefore not surprising that many countries like France, United Kingdom, South Africa, United States of America and United Arab Emirate and Nigeria inclusive are investing in tourism.The Nigerian government is increasingly recognizing the need to diversify her economy from petroleum and agriculture, to tourism. Tourism is seen as another sector that could help in turning the Nigerian economy around (Dalat, 2010) by generating employment, alleviate poverty and promote the economic well-being, thereby creating another opportunity for women's life to be improved. To achieve this, government is promoting through revamping all cultural and historical monuments that represents the nation's cultural heritage. In 2016, the efforts of government paid off with Nigeria recording a total of 5 m tourists in ranking 68th in the world while in Western Africa; it ranked 9th and
also generated around 1.47 billion US Dollar in the tourism sector alone which is approximately 41 percent of all international tourism receipts in Western Africa (https://www.worlddata.info). In 2017, the tourism industry contributed 2.6 billion US dollar to the Nigerian economy, while in 2018, the industry contributed 1.9 billion US dollar (www.macrotrends.net). This implies that there was a steady increase from 140.35% increase from 2016.

The efforts at promoting cultural tourism and gender inclusive in the tourism industry have gained weight in women employment in the industry. The working paper of International Labour Organisation (ILO), 2013 revealed that women constitute 75.4% of the labour force of the tourism industry in Nigeria but in reality women in rural communities in the country still remain poorer than men in the country. Though there are studies on women in the formal sectors of tourism; there are however paucity of study on women in the informal sector of the industry in the country. This study therefore focused on women and cultural tourism in Ile- Ife Osun State of Nigeria, with a view to examine the impact of Olojo festival on SDG1 among women in the town, women make up of 26.25% of the total population of rural dwellers with men constituting 25.97, the resultant implication of this is that the gender composition of the poor is varyingly towards a greater share of women (Narasaiah, 2001). Thus there is a need to include gender in cultural tourism in order to address SDG1 among women in communities. The first section of this paper is the introductory part of the paper; the second section

is a review of literature on cultural tourism and Olojo festival. The third section is the methodology while the concluding section is a discussion on the findings.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CULTURAL TOURISM

Culture, in its widest sense, provides a set of material and symbolic resources that are abundant in supply (arguably infinite), and highly mobile (Rojek & Urry, 1997). "The resource of culture is certainly at the basis of international tourism and indeed has facilitated its growth and allowed various societies and sections of societies to participate in the development process" (Robinson& Smith, 2005). Ezenagu, (2020) further explained that managing cultural resources is problematic because it is a way of life, tangible and intangible expressions and manifestation of society's values and beliefs. Increasingly, various forms of intangible heritages are being mobilized for tourism purposes and experiencing living heritage is a particularly enriching experience for both tourist and the community.

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2016), cultural tourism is "movements of persons for essentially cultural motivations such as study tours, performing arts and cultural tours, travel to festivals and other cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art, and pilgrimages." Richards (1996) also defined cultural tourism as: the movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs. These definitions clearly gave us the purpose of cultural tourism which is to understand and appreciate the different cultures that exist. Just like Imoukhuede, (1991), argued that people embark on cultural tourism to have a feel of alien cultures, with their complements of original ancient civilization, music, arts, handicraft, historic monuments and architecture. It is the totality of the way of life evolved by a people in their attempts to meet the challenges of living in their environment, which gives order and meaning to their social, political, economic, aesthetic and religious norms and models of organizations, thus distinguishing a people from their neighbors. Cultural tourism involves

movement from one place to another; it doesn't mean that we need to travel out of the city we live in before we engage in.

In Nigeria cultural tourism is a rich aspect of life in most communities; there is hardly any state without one cultural heritage or cultural festival that attracts tourists from within and outside theses communities. For instance, the Osun Festival and Olojo festival in Osun state, the new yam festival in the east and the Arugungu festival in the northern part of the country. In the developing and promoting cultural tourism in Nigeria, the federal government in partnership with both the state and Local government is expected to finance cultural tourism through the renovation of cultural and historic sites and also the development of templates for marketing and preservation of cultural tourism. Unfortunately, it is disappointing that cultural tourism is not receiving the attachment or analyses it deserves; the potentials of these cultural sites has been not been fully harnessed by stakeholders in cultural tourism. The reasons for this ranges from the biases among the people based on religious beliefs; paucity of funds, security challenges, taboos associated with cultural tourism in some communities to lack of trust among the different stakeholders in the community and government (Aref, Gill & Farshid 2010)

WOMEN, CULTURAL TOURISM AND POVERTY

Many may argue that though Africa is still struggling with some SDGs, but they have been able to achieve tremendous progress on issues that borders on hunger, poverty and gender equality in work place. In reality, the pace is relatively slow and accomplishing these goals may be a mirage if adequate measures are not taken. The growth, success and survival of SDGs is no doubt dependent on the active participation of the people in issues that borders on development; it is therefore essential that women as stakeholders in sustainable development of any community or nation should be given adequate consideration since poverty is higher amongst them. In addition the realization of SDG1through cultural tourism requires a greater participation of women in decisions that cam alleviate poverty among women and youths in the community. Cultural tourism no doubt promotes of greater cooperation among women

Also, in the International Labor Organisation publication of 2019 tourism is described as "labour-intensive and employment-generating sector, especially for those with limited access to the labour market. It can be significant for women, youth, migrant workers and rural populations in developing and least developed countries". The growing market trend of tourists seeking cultural and natural attractions in rural areas gives LDCs a strong comparative advantage. This trend is particularly relevant to LDCs since three quarters of people in extreme poverty live in rural areas (UNESCO, 2011).

OLOJO FESTIVAL

A discourse on Olojo festival will be incomplete without considering the historical perspective of Ile-ife. Ife known as the source is believed to be the cradle and source of modernization of the Yoruba people of western part of Nigeria. Also, Ife accommodates more than 300 deities recognized by the Yoruba and every of these deities have a special day of celebration. For instance, Itapa festival for Obatala and Obameri, the Edi festival for Moremi Ajasoro, and the Igare masqueraders. But the most popular celebration is the olojo festival which attracts tourist from both within and outside Nigeria.

Olojo festival is a seven days event that comes up in October every year to appreciate and celebrate the lives of sango and Oduduwa for the creation of Yoruba kingdom. The festival rites includes

- The seclusion of Ooni of Ife from people: during this period the king will speak with no one but remain in a fast with prayers to the ancestors and women sweeps the palace floors to wade off evil spirits.
- The king wears the Are crown after the fast and prayer and then proceed to the ancestral and culturally symbolic places within the land to offer prayers.
- He then moves to the palace for the remaining ceremony which includes receiving of guests

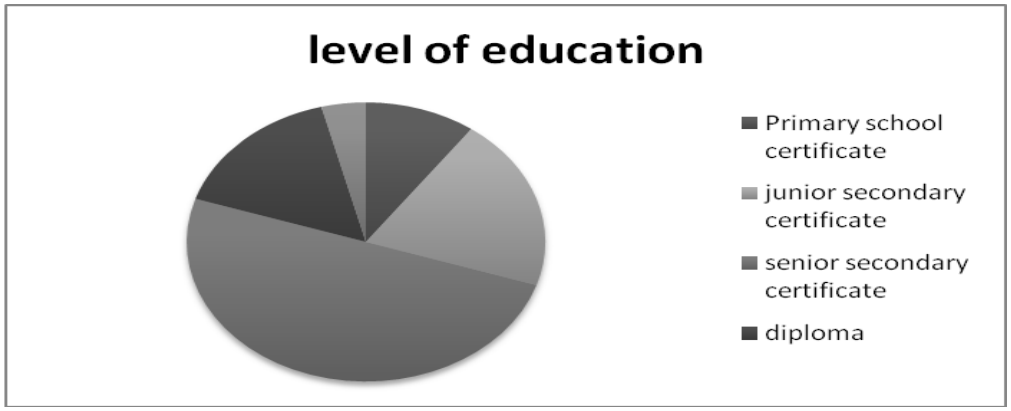
METHODOLOGY

This paper used primary source of data, through administering a structured questionnaire to women with business around the palace of Ooni of Ile-Ife.

The palace area is a busy business area for small business owners before and during the festival. The respondents were randomly selected based on what they were trading in and these respondents were totaling fifty. The questionnaire was distributed equally among street food vendors, drinks vendors, textile vendors, arts and craft vendors and footwear vendors. Data collected were analyzed using simple charts and percentage.

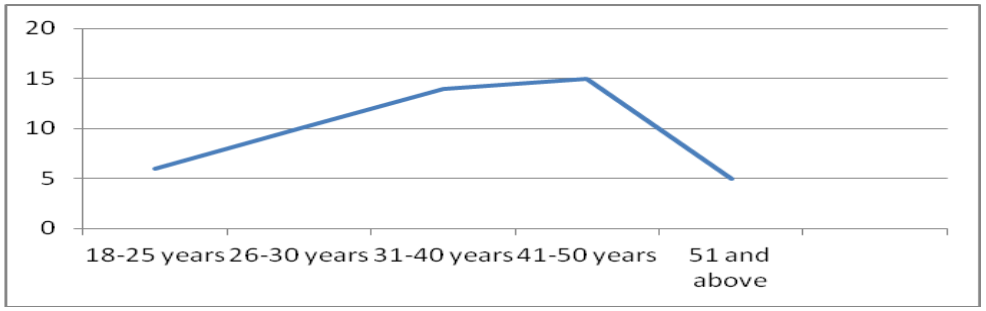
Findings and Discussions

Figure1: level of education among the women



The figure above shows that majority respondents who are small business owners were senior secondary school certificate holder (25); while those that had Junior Secondary certificate were 10 respondents while only 2 of the respondents had university education. This implies that most of the women involved in the informal sector of tourism industry in the Ile-ife are predominantly disadvantaged in their level of education.

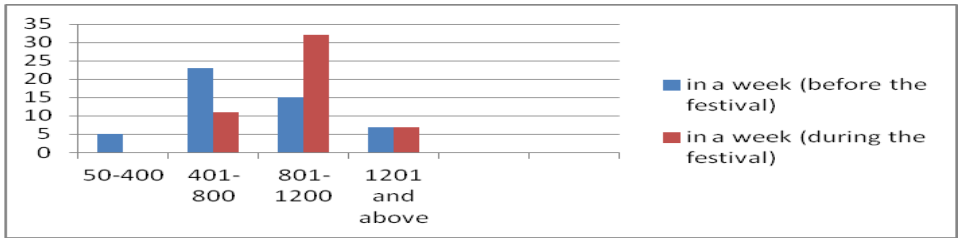
Figure 2: Age distribution of the women



Source: field work, 2019

The figure above revealed that 30% of the respondents were between 41-50 years; while 28% of the respondents were between 31-40 years. The ages between 18-25yrs and 51 and above recorded the lowest with 12% and 10% respectively. This indicates that small business owners within the study area were predominantly women with their active years.

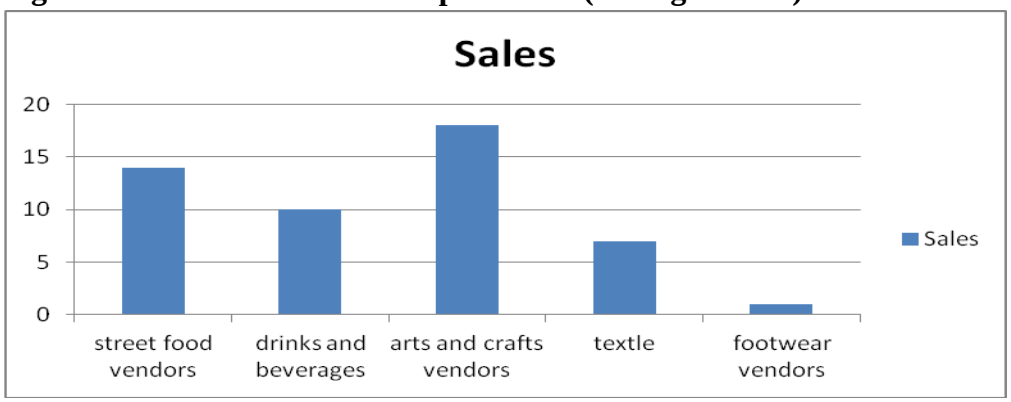
Figure 3: Income per week in Naira (before and during the festival)



Source: fieldwork 2019

The figure above clearly stated that these women earn more during the festival but with an exemption the respondents (7) earning 1200 naira before the festival did not experience an increase due to cultural tourism. But respondents (32) between an income of 801 naira and 1200 naira increase tremendously during the festival. It is clear though cultural tourism boosted the incomes of majority of the respondents the same cannot be said for 14% of the respondents. The figure 4 below revealed that 26% of the respondents from the arts and crafts (souvenir) sold more than the respondents in the street food business (28%) and Drinks (10) respectively. Respondents selling footwear (2%) did not experience a significant increase in income.

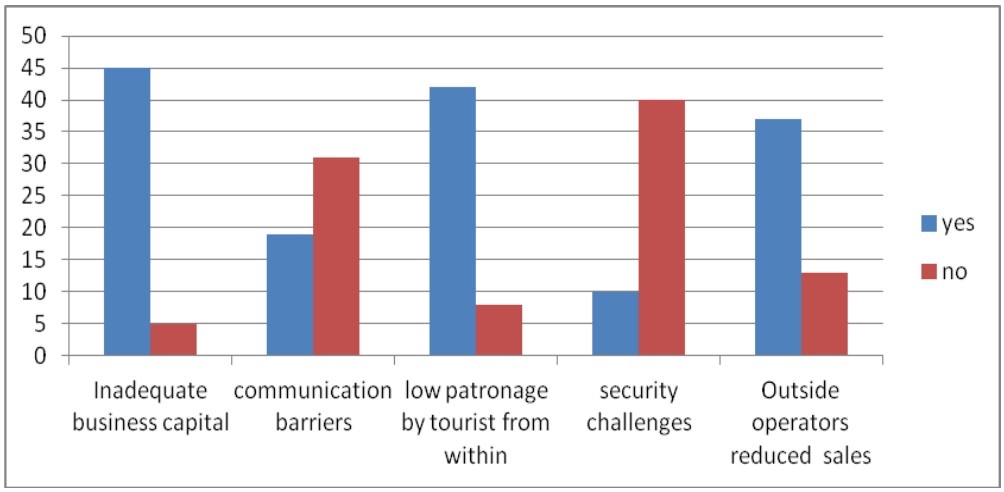
Figure four: increase in income per sector (during festival)



Source: field work, 2019

Also 90% of the respondents believed they would have earned more from cultural tourism, while 6% of the respondents disagreed that they could have earned more.

Figure 5: challenges faced by the respondents



Source: field work, 2019

The figure above showed the major problem facing women in tourism industry in Ile-ife is inadequate capital (90%) for their businesses while the least of the challenges faced is security challenged (20%). This implies that security is tight around the event area. The figure also revealed that vendors/ sponsors affect the sales of the small business (74%) during the festival and 84% of the respondents believe that people from Ife and environs do not engage in cultural tourism during this festival.

The indigenous women studied showed that these women are hard working and they conduct their business based on their own understanding and knowledge of the environment they live in. The fact is that the business cannot compete and survive in a global competitive environment and thus, the cycle of poverty continues to thrive.

CONCLUSION

The development of cultural tourism though an expensive venture needs more attention from stakeholder from the government and the various communities. It is therefore necessary for these stakeholders women

inclusive ; to embrace the potentials cultural resources can deliver and then remove biases that dissuade women from been actively involved in decision that can help curb poverty in their midst.

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INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN MICRO-FINANCE INSTITUTIONS IN BAMBILI, CAMEROON

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ABSTRACT

The work environment which encompasses several factors impacts on the way the employees perform their work. A comfortable and all-inclusive workplace environment will boost the employees' performance hence boosting the organizational performance. This research examined the effect of interpersonal relationship on employee performance in microfinance institution in Bambili, Cameroon. The research was guided by the objective; i) to examine the effect of interpersonal relationship on Employee Performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon. The study used a cross-sectional research design and it involved a total population of 143 respondents; out of which 105 were identified as the sample size. Simple random sampling and purposive sampling techniques were used to determine the participants in the study. Findings indicated that; training and development significantly affects employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon. The researcher concluded that; training and development enables employees to progress from a present state of understanding and capability to a future state in which higher level skills, knowledge and competencies are required, employees can be allowed to take on responsibilities that are important to the company, and acquire roles within the social framework of the organization, but they are expected to always act with the best interests of the company in mind, hence creating a good relationship between employees and the management,. Recommendations were; Micro-Finance Institutions should develop good training plans, and this will help to cater for issues surrounding quality of services, contract compliance, and customer service issues can be resolved

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internally before going out. The contribution to knowledge was that it is a fact career traning and development can be used to increase the level of employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon; The following are the common strategies which can be used by the Micro-Finance Institutions to measure employee performance levels; timeliness, quality of Service and feedback.

KEYWORDS: training, career development, workplace environment, employee performance

INTRODUCTION

Globally, the success of any organization is closely related to employee performance within that organization. The quality of the employees' workplace environment has an impacts on their motivation level and hence performance (Heath, 2016).The numbers of micro and small enterprises and those working in the informal sector of the economy are growing rapidly around the world since 19th century which account for the bulk of new employment and for the majority of the working poor. In assessments of workplace environment and employment conditions, with issues such as health and occupational safety, maternity protection, work-family issues, homework, time spent at work, wages and income, work organization, sexual harassment, violence at work, workload, worker's welfare facilities, housing, nutrition and environment, the millions of women and men within micro and small size enterprises and the informal economy face perhaps the greatest problems among the working population (Rinehart, 2004). Conducive workplace environment ensures employee's wellbeing which will enable them exert themselves to their roles with full commitment that may translate to higher performance (Akinyele, 2007).

In Africa, many research studies have been conducted regarding the impact of workplace environment on employee performance. Levert, Lucas and Ortlep (2014) conducted a research study on South African nurses and found high fatigue on three levels: emotional exhaustion, de-personalization and low personal accomplishment. They attributed the nursing burnout to a high workload and other organizational factors within the hospital. In addition, Noble (2003) states that more attention should be given in identifying and dealing with workplace condition because when employees have negative perception to their environment they sometimes suffer from chronic stress.

The workplace environment of any organization or institution generally includes three sub-environments. These are technical, human and organizational environments. Technical environment comprises tools, equipment, infrastructure and other technical elements; the human environment comprises peers, and colleagues with whom employees relate, team and work group, interactions, the leadership and management, while organizational environment, on the other hand, includes systems, procedures, practices, values and philosophies (Opperman, 2012). Work environment of an organization can also be categorized into internal and external work environment. The totality of these environments has an influence on the employee performance of microfinance institutions.

In Cameroon, the factors of workplace environment began changing as a result of changes in many factors such as the social environment, since the 1990s, information technology and the flexible ways of organizing work processes (Hasun & Makhbul, 2015). When employees are mentally stable (that is physically and emotionally) they will be motivated to work and their performance outcomes shall be increased. Moreover, a good workplace environment helps in reducing counterproductive behaviors such as number of absenteeism, theft and thus can increase the employee's performance which intern leads to increased productivity at the workplace (*Boles et al*.2004). Workplace environment is argued have an impact immense on employee's performance being either with negative or the positive outcomes (Chandrasekar 2011).

In the world today, there are international organizations who fight for the rights of employee. Most people spend forty to fifty percent of their lives within a confined environment, which greatly influence their mental status, actions, abilities and performance (Dorgan, 1994). A better workplace environment will lead to better outcomes and increased productivity. Better physical condition of office will boosts the employees and ultimately improves their productivity. Various studies of multiple offices and office buildings indicated that factors such as dissatisfaction, cluttered workplaces and the physical environment are playing a major role in the loss of employee's performance (Briner, 2014).

1. CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE WORKPLACE

Environment: Many scholars have attempted in recent past conceptualizing independent workplace environment Friedrich Engels (1845) and Henry Mayhew (1861). It could be defined as the settings, situations, conditions and circumstances under which people work. Further it's been elaborated by Briner (2014) as a very broad category that include the physical setting within the work place which includes heat, equipment's etc, characteristics of the job itself (e.g. workload, task complexity), broader organizational features (e.g. culture, history) and even aspects of the extra organizational setting (e.g. local labor market conditions, industry sector, work-home relationships). It therefore seems that workplace environment is the total of the interrelationship that exists amongst the employee's as well as employers and the environment in which these employees work which usually includes the technical, the human and the organizational environment.

According to Opperman (quoted in Yusuf and Metiboba 2012) gives consideration which needs to be taken into account when defining workplace environment which includes the technical environment, the human environment and the organizational environment. According to Yusf and Metiboba, technical environment refers to tools, equipment, technological infrastructure and other physical elements used within the workplace. The human environment includes the peers, others with whom employees relate, team and work groups, interactional issues, the leadership and management. The term workplace environment is used to describe the surrounding conditions in which an employee operates.

Employee Performance: Sinha (2001) stated that employees' performance depends on the willingness and also the openness of the employee's desire of doing their job. He also stated that by having this willingness and openness of the employees in doing their job, it could increase the employees' performance which also leads to the productivity. Stup (2003) also explained that to have a standard performance, employers will need to get the employees to do their task on track so as to achieve organizational goals. By having the work or job done on track, employers could be able to monitor, observe and help them to improve their performance.

Employees will always be contended when they feel that their immediate environment states are in line with their obligations (Farh, 2012). Chandrasekar (2011) stated that the type of workplace environment in which employees operate determines whether or not organizations will attain its goals and objectives. The workplace environment consists of physical factors which include the office layout and design among other factors; while the psychosocial factors made up of working conditions, role congruity and social support. Other aspects of the workplace environment are the policies which include employment conditions.

A better physical workplace environment boosts employees' performance. Employees in many organizations are faced with working problems related to workplace environmental and physical factors. It has been argued by Pech and Slade (2016) that the level of employee disengagement is increasing and it has become an area of interest for employers to make the workplaces an environment that positively influence workforce. Employees' comfort on the job, determined by workplace conditions and environment, has been recognized as an important factor for measuring their productivity (Leblebici, 2012). In today's dynamic and competitive business world, a healthy workplace environment makes good business sense. Managers should not just focus on the employees' pay packet with the assumption that it is proportionate to performance (Heath, 2016). Organizations deemed as a positive place to work will have a competitive edge over the others.
Employee performance refers to job related activities expected of a worker and how well those activities were executed (Leblebici, 2012). Employee performance is the process of creating a work environment or setting in which people are enabled to perform to the best of their abilities (Heath, 2016).

This study was guided by three theories, Taylor's (1911) theory, Maslow's (1943) Hierarchical level of need, Herzberg's (1959) two factor theory. Taylor (1911) asserted that one of the most important motivator of workers is salary and wages. According to Taylor, "non-incentive wage system will lead to low performance". He said that if employees are to receive the same wage irrespective of their individual contribution to the goal, they will work less and that employees will think working at a higher rate means fewer

employees may be needed which discourages employees to work more (Gardner and Lambert 1972). While, Maslow (1943) argued that people work to survive and live through financial compensation, to make new friends, to have job security, for a sense of achievement and to feel important in the society, to have a sense of identity, and most especially to have job satisfaction. All employees that have job satisfaction are high performers in their respective workplaces and finally, Herzberg's theory maintains there are factors within the workplace that leads to job satisfaction, but if absent; they don't lead to dissatisfaction but no satisfaction.

Those factors that motivate people can change over their time, but "respect for me as a person" is one of the top motivating factors at any stage of life. He distinguished between those factors that motivates for example, challenging work, recognition, responsibility which give positive satisfaction, and hygiene factors that do not motivate you if present, but in their absence demotivation arises they include, status, job security, salary and fringe benefit. The theory is sometimes called the "Motivator-Hygiene Theory. Herzberg's research proved that people will strive to achieve 'hygiene' needs because they are unhappy without them, but once satisfied the effect soon wears off - satisfaction is temporary. Nowadays same as in recent past, poorly managed organizations fail to understand that people are not 'motivated' by addressing 'hygiene' needs. People are only truly motivated by enabling them to reach for and satisfy the factors that Herzberg identified as real motivators, such as achievement, advancement, development, etc., which represent a far deeper level of meaning and fulfilment.

2. EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Interpersonal Relationship on Employee Performance

Employee job performance is one of the most important factors within business environment which helps in maintaining and increasing performance for companies (Elangovan, & Xie, 1999; Spreitzer, 1995). Job performance of employee could be defined as the extent to which an individual completes the duties that are required in a given position, which he or she occupy within an organization. Some of the common responsibilities of supervisors are to delegation of work and to give information or advice to subordinates on how to go about their work. In

acknowledging that it is the duty of supervisors to ensure that employee job performance is at maximum potential, it should be noted that it will be advantageous for managers in all trades and industry sectors worldwide to understand what types of employee-supervisor interactions are associated with employee job performance. Knowledge regarding the possible association between supervisor-employee relationship and job performance would enable the implementation of more effective systems for management, and subsequently, better productivity for the company through increased job performance.

This assessment seeks to evaluate examples from current research to understand the relationship between four dimensions of employee-supervisor interaction perceived organizational support (POS), trust in the supervisor (TS), leader-member exchange (LMX), and reward systems (RS)], and employee job performance. Research on the associations of these variables shows varied results because of the difficulty in ruling out extraneous variables in the workplace. However, researchers generally agree that perceived organizational support can act as a foundation for interaction with supervisors that allows other beneficial constructs, such as trust, to begin to develop. For example, an employee that is usually is usually grateful to receive help from a supervisor may see the help as annoying or unnecessary if the employee were in an unsociable

Moreover, employees tend to measure interactions with their superiors as positive or negative to create a global perceived organisational support assessment of how they rank at their company (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2012). An organization is really a complex system that has no physical body of its own, so if an employee is to feel a sense of support, it will result from interactions with other individuals within the company. Supervisors act as the face of the organization, giving employees feedback and advocating on behalf of their company. High perceived organisational support is established when an employee feels that s/he has more desirable interactions with their supervisors than non-desirable ones (eg: more compliments than complaints). In this respect, Rhodes and Eisenberger (2012) stated that favourable treatment from a supervisor is synonymous with support from the organization, which raises perceived organisational support among

employees. They continued to explain that increasing perceived organisational support is generally achieved through better treatment of employees in areas such as fairness, support, rewards, and favourable job conditions, and that extending these gestures seems to be recognized as a sign of high perceived organisational support by the employees who receive them, regardless of the reward or managerial system in place at that organization (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2012). In other words, whether the company has an organizational hierarchy, team management, positive reinforcement, or negative reinforcement method of management, employees tend to view fairness, support, rewards, and favourable job conditions as signs of perceived organisational support.

When employees feel that they are appreciated and receive rewards for service to their company, their motivation to continue receiving rewards increases and levels of job performance increase (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2012). Perceived organisational support acts as an emotional reward to employees for their continued loyalty and high job performance. These effects are exaggerated if the employee feels that the reward/support was voluntarily given to them (eg: a promotion for accomplishment in work duties), and reduced if the employee feels that such reward or support was simply a matter of policy (eg: government imposed mandatory pay increases; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2012). In this respect, the psychological state of employees acts as a moderator in the perceived organisational support to job performance relationship. Furthermore, current mood often affects the way support is received. For example, an employee that is usually grateful to receive help from a supervisor may see the help as annoying or unnecessary if the employee were in an unsociable mood.

Additional benefits of perceived organisational support include a ‚positive relationship between POS and organizational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993), in-role performance (Eisenberger, Huntington, et al., 1986; Eisenberg, Fasolo, et al., 1990), organizational and citizenship behaviour (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 2017) and a negative relationship with absenteeism‘ (Eisenberger et al., 1986 as cited in Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2015, p. 775). Furthermore, research

concludes that high perceived organisational support is a predictor of happier, more productive employees, and when high perceived organisational support is present, employees report higher levels of perceived established trust (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2012; Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Cameron, 1999).

Trust is an essential factor in the acceptance of duties and information from supervisors. Generally, whether an action was performed on an employee's own volition, or it was requested by a superior, an employee is expected to ‚know better' than to act in ways that are unfavourable to the company and will be held accountable for any resulting consequences. If an employee feels that his/her supervisor may give incorrect information or a task that will not benefit the company, the employee may take extra precautions and/or be reluctant to perform when working (Elmuti, 2017). This behaviour could result in slower task completion (Elmuti, 2017). In this scenario, the lack of trust established acts as an impediment to employee productivity, and consequentially results in losses for the company in the form of wasted employee time. McAllister (1995) stated that trust is ‚a variable seen as critical to organizational coordination' (as cited in Gómez & Rozen, 2001, p. 57). When TS is very low subordinates may disregard directives from their supervisors out of fear that the information given to them is unreliable. In order to optimize the efficiency of the delegation of duties, it is important for supervisors to gain the trust of their employees.

Showing competence is one of the first and most important things that a supervisor can do to begin establishing trust with subordinates. Elangovan and Xie (1999) reported that perception of supervisors has an impact on many employee outcomes related to production. They went on to explain that perception of a supervisor has a positive correlation with motivation and a negative correlation with stress in employees (Elangovan and Xie, 1999). The hiring process is the first sign of trust and acceptance of an employee by a manager, and it is generally expected that trust will be reciprocated by the employee. Quinn, Reed, Browne, and Hiers (2017) explained, ‚When one moves into the managerial structure of the large corporation or firm, one is not just moving into a 'job' but into a bureaucratic setting that contains its own social and cultural environment and rules of behaviours.

Employees are allowed to take on responsibilities that are important to the company, and acquire roles within the social framework of the organization, but they are expected to always act with the best interests of the company in mind. The supervisor is responsible for insuring that work performed by subordinates effectively adds to the productivity of the company, so if the employee fails in his/her duties, so does the supervisor. As trust in an employee increases, supervisors tend to respond by providing the employee with job enlargement, the intentional increase in the duties and responsibilities of the employee. To ensure that employees recognize job enlargement as a sign of trust, the assigned work must be given with a corresponding increase in responsibility. When employees are given more work duties without increased responsibility, it may indicate to the employees that they did not do enough work or that they are being punished. On the other hand, if more work is delegated and responsibility is increased, employees are likely to see it as a sign of appreciation and trust in their performance, which translates to a boost in self-esteem and motivation to perform (Gómez, & Rosen, 2001). In assessing the necessary factors for trust in the workplace, it is apparent that trust accumulates over time through events that allow the respective parties to evaluate and revaluate each other based on their actions. The goal for the supervisor is to keep the employees' interest in remaining a part of this system, and the goal of the employees' is to gain more power within it (Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008). In the organizational hierarchy, the only way to gain power is through empowerment bestowed by a supervisor.

3. METHODOLOGY

This study employed a cross-sectional research design. Cross-sectional design allowed the study of the population at one specific time and the difference between the individual groups within the population to be compared. It also provided for the examination of the co-relationship between the study variables (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). The study also used Survey design; this was used to collect data from a large sample of respondents. This study also followed a descriptive research design, whereby qualitative and quantitative research approaches were used to gain insight to

variables; it was descriptive in that it described the characteristics of respondents.

Effects of Interpersonal Relationship on employee Performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon

One sample statistics:

Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.193[a]	.307	.035	.47942

a. Predictors: (Constant), interpersonal relationship

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.207	1	3.207	13.955	.000[a]
	Residual	82.514	359	.230		
	Total	85.722	360			

a. Predictors: (Constant), interpersonal relationship

b. Dependent Variable: employee performance

Co-efficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.239	.113		19.761	.000
	Interpersonal relationship	.164	.044	.193	3.736	.000

a. Dependent Variable: employee performance

Regression analysis results in the Model Summary table indicated that interpersonal relationship accounted for 30.7% on employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon and this was indicated by r-squared of 0.307 implying that interpersonal relationship significantly affect employee performance at rate of 30.7%.

The ANOVA table indicated that interpersonal relationship significantly affect employee performance and this was indicated by the F-value=13.955 and Sig-value=.000, since the sig. value (0.000) was less than 0.05 and which is the maximum level of significance required to declare a significant effect. This implies that interpersonal relationship highly affect employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon.

The coefficients table indicated that considering the standard error, interpersonal relationship significantly affect the employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions (β=0.193, Sig=0. 000).

4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the findings interpersonal relationship has a significant effect on employee performance in Micro-Finance Institutions in Bambili, Cameroon. Therefore concluding that employees can be allowed to take on responsibilities that are important to the company, and acquire roles within

the social framework of the organization, but they are expected to always act with the best interests of the company in mind, hence creating a good relationship between employees and the management.

The study offers some recommendations that if pursued properly, will serve to improve the performance of employees' levels.

Micro-Finance Institutions should develop good training plans, and this will help to cater for issues surrounding quality of services, contract compliance, and customer service issues can be resolved internally before going out.

The researcher recommends that there is a need for psychological guidance for employees. This can ensure that all personal issues that employees have are ironed out especially within the right time frame. Also, it will allow the employees always have a place to look up to for assistance whenever they needed it.

The researcher recommends that there is a need for Micro-finance institutions to motivate the employees by providing working equipment to the employees, this encourage these employees to improve on the quality of services offered to clients and other stakeholders such that these clients can appreciate the quality of services offered, hence improving performance.

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CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF CAPITAL FLIGHT FROM DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: IMPLICATION ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

This work examines the causes and consequences of capital flight and its implication on sustainable development in Nigeria. Given the fact that capital Flight is a diversion of domestic savings away from domestic real investment, the pace of growth and development in the economy is retarded. The conclusion is that capital flight is depriving the Nigerian economy of substantial and critical financial resources needed for investment and building of social capital and this affects sustainable development. The recommendation is that monetary authorities should strengthen monetary and fiscal policies to further reduce inflation rate, boost confidence in the domestic currency and thereby stem the tide of capital outflow from the economy. Corruption must also be tackled at all level to enable real development to take pace and be sustained. Key words: capital flight, developing countries and sustainable development.

INTRODUCTION

The term "capital flight" arouses emotions in some quarters. Some analysists view capital flight as symptom of a sick society while others view capital flight as the cause of heavily indebted countries inability to recover from their present debt problems. Capital flight is regarded by others as a pejorative description of natural, economically rational response to the portfolio choices that have confronted wealthy residents of some indebted countries in recent years, (Lessard and Williamson, 1987).

According to Pastor, (1990) in general, it is believed that investors from all countries whether developed or developing, will base their

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investment decisions on the relative returns and risk of such investment at home and abroad. To him, there -are possibly, a number of valid reasons why capital flows from developing countries is labeled as "capital flight".

The general presumption in economic that capital should flow towards capital-scarce countries. Any flow in the opposite direction, i.e. from developing to developed countries is not only unusual but abnormal; 2. This second reason is related to a policy issue. For example, what is important is the extent to which those assets held abroad could be utilized at home to reduce the level of external indebtedness and relieve the inherent liquidity problems brought about by debt service obligations. A critical analysis of Nigeria's public and private sector shows the predominance of capital flight.

THE CONCEPT OF CAPITAL FLIGHT.

The major constraint to consensus on a definition of capital flight is traceable to the difficulties involved in distinguishing between those flows that can be considered "normal" and those that fall in the category of "flight capital". A distinction is often made between capital flight and so called "normal" capital flows. Normal capital outflows are defined as the legal capital outflows, while all legal capital outflows based on the desire to place assets beyond the control of domestic authorities are labeled capital flight (Dooley, 1988). However, separating capital flight from normal portfolio diversification and trade transaction is fraught with difficulties (Eggerstedt *et al.*, 1995) and could involve some elements of value laden judgment (Ojo, 1992) which explains in part, the variations in definitions of capital flight. Yet, we must note that capital flight is different from capital export which is normal phenomenon and can foster growth and generate employment in addition to providing solution to other national economic problems (Grigoryev and Kosarev, 2000).

Capital flight is capital that flies; (Walter, 1987; Kindle Berger, (1987). Normal capital flows on the other hand, refer to flows that correspond to ordinary portfolio diversification of domestic residents. According to Cuddington (1987), capital flight refers to short-term private capital

outflows. It involves "hot money" that responds to political and financial crisis, heavier taxes a prospective tightening of capital or a major devaluation of the domestic currency arising from a high misalignment of the currency, in the Morgan Guarant Trust Company, (1986), an expansive definition is adopted where capital flight is the reported and unreported acquisition of foreign assets by the non-bank private sector and elements of the public sector.

Capital flight at the broad extreme has been defined to include all private capital outflows from developing countries (Kahn and Ul Hague, 1987) while at the narrow extreme, it includes only illegal capital exports (Lessard and Williamson, 1987). The broad perspective takes into consideration all private capital outflows from developing countries be they short term or long-term, portfolio or equity investments, could be termed capital flight. This is because developing counties are generally considered to be short of capital and should therefore be net borrowers in the development process, supplementing domestic savings with the external finance. Thus, Berger (1987) and waiter (1987) broadly define capital flight as all capital that "flees" irrespective of the motive. Alternatively, capital flight can be considered as the change in the private sector net foreign assets (World Bank, 1985; Erbe, 1985; Morgan Trust, 1986 Chang and Cumby, 1991).as for Ndikumana and Boyce (2002), capital flight is resident's capital outflows, excluding recorded investment abroad.

On the whole, in agreement with Chang and Cumby, (1991), to distinguish between capital flight and normal capital flows, two brad approaches are often used:

1. An identification of specific episodes or counties that are characterized by abnormally adverse economic conditions for investment and consider all estimates of the acquisition of external claims by the private sector as capital flight.
2. Distinguishing capital flight from other capital movements by considering capital flight to consist of the acquisition of external claims that are not reported to the domestic authorities (Chang and Cumby, 1991).

One cannot but therefore agree with them, that there exists more than one viable definition of capital flight and the appropriate choice will depend on the policy questions that are more pertinent to the country for which capital flight is being estimated and the period under consideration.

THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable development as used here can simply refer to the process of making the development of a place to continue without becoming less, (Hornby 2002). But we must note that development is only meaningful when it serves to increase access of people to basic necessities of life. People as the ultimate objectives of development must be made to participate in defining their own priority needs to proofer solutions to their own problems and make tangible investment in their solutions. Only then, can real development take place.

CAUSES OF CAPITAL FLIGHT

The causes of capital flight are many. There are economic causes and however, other non-economic causes which though important, are often ignored. These various causes can be grouped under relative risks, exchange rate misalignment, financial sector constraints or repressions, fiscal deficits and external incentives (Khan, et al, 1987) and disbursement of new loans to less development countries (LDCS), (Cuddington, 1987). The non-economic causes of capital flight according to Ajayi (2005), include among others, varying risk perception, exchange rate misalignment, financial sector constraints and repression, fiscal deficits, weak institutions macroeconomic policy distortions, corruption and extraordinary access to government funds. All these impact on sustainable development.

DEVELOPING COUNTERS: THE CASE OF NIGERIA: The issue of capital flight from developing countries like Nigeria has received appreciable attention over the years. Concerns have been expressed about the causes and consequences of capital outflows from Nigeria and most sub-Saharan African countries because it denies them of financial resources for appropriate economic domestic resources in the search for economic growth.

A critical analysis of Nigeria's public and private sector business shows the predominance of capital flight. This is because, a careful examination of the structure and operations of the Nigerian economy clearly show that far from the public sector being dominant this sector is often used by a rapacious private sector, most of which are owned by office holders to misappropriate public resources, (Yusuf Bala Usman, 1991). The process has a particularly devastating effect on the economy because the huge profits, rents and interest made by the organization, some of which belong to public office holder, are rarely productively invested in Nigeria due to their semi-legal and illegal origin. They are either hoarded or invested abroad.

Since independence Nigeria's development plans have been following the colonial pattern imposed on her by the British. At independence, Nigeria had an economy organized primarily for the export of primary commodities and the importation of finished manufactured goods. The economy was dominated by a corporate private sector made up of a handful of European trading companies for whom the colonial government of Nigeria was established to provide protection and support. Since the major goal of these trading companies was to operate their export and import business to make profit to take out, and pay to their foreign shareholders, the economy was basically geared to facilitate capital flight from Nigeria.

The private sector then, was made up of small-scale individual and family enterprise and these trading companies, and it produced most of the gross domestic product (GDP) and was the source of most government revenue and foreign exchange earnings, through various forms of taxation. The marketing boards regulated the exports of some of the crops, and retained some of the surpluses for the government. From the late 1950, the regional and federal government embarked on expanding transport, education and health facilities, the utilities, modern housing and the administrative infrastructures. This increased the size of the public sector. But the economy remained oriented to the export-import operations controlled by European trading companies and

the increasing number of Lebanese and Nigerian importers and exporters.

Little was invested in manufacturing. The railway ports, roads, waterways, electricity and communication, were only developed to the extent that they served these export-import operations which were geared towards ensuring that capital generated in Nigeria, was taken out for investment elsewhere. This capital drain itself limited the extent of the maintenance and development of these infrastructures; hence, the grossly undeveloped of Nigeria's railway and water ways, which are the essential backbones of any efficient transport system necessary for modernizing agriculture and for industrialization.

The civil war (1967-1970) necessitated reconstruction and rehabilitation and the increase in rents and royalties earned by the government from crude oil exports resulted in the 2nd national development plan (1970-1974) which massively expanded the role of the public sector.This expansion continued under the 3rd national development plan (1974-1980) but was not accompanied by any substantial improvement in the structure, size, patriotism and the planning and execution capacity of the public service. The attempt to cleanse and sanitize it by the mass purges of 1975-1976, did not succeed because the top military and civilian leadership of the country, in both the public and private sectors failed to measure up to the standards of discipline, probity and patriotism, asserted during the short period of that regime.

The public service therefore, came to render less and less services to the public. Attempt continue to this day, to misrepresent and lament that efforts to make the Nigerian public service to serve Nigerian interest, an effort which, whatever its shortcoming, was necessary because of the extent to which public and national interest became subordinated to private, individual and foreign interests between 1970-1975. The public service became primarily a conduit for well-connected individuals and companies in the private sector to milk public resources. This was done primarily through import-export transaction, involving the transfer of Nigeria), exchange to other countries.

With the expansion of crude oil production from the early 1970s, the government not only came to control massive amounts of money from the rents, royalties and taxes obtained from the crude oil exports, but it came to command over 90% of the exchange earnings of the country. The domination of the economy by exporters and importers, primarily interested in taking capital out of Nigeria, became exporters and importers, primarily interested in taking capital out of Nigeria, became even more entrenched, this time, as part of a large system of the recycling of the large amounts of money paid to exporters by the oil importing countries of Europe and the United States of American.

In Nigeria, the system worked through contracts for construction and supplies with high import content through other forms of transactions which often involved no import at all, but merely the fraudulent transfer of Nigerian petrodollars into private accounts abroad.The system worked so effectively against Nigeria that when between 1979- 1981 oil prices were getting to $40 per barrel, the outflow of petrodollars from Nigeria exceeded the massive inflow (Bala Usman 1997) the onset of economic crisis of Nigeria. The rate of increase of the outflow of Nigeria's foreign exchange earnings was higher than the rate of increase of the inflow, while the burden of external debt was also rising.

With or without a fall in the earnings from oil export, the Nigerian economy in the early 1980s, was heading major crisis particularly because the high-level import-dependence had undermined real investment in agriculture and manufacturing. The investments that were announced were largely paper transactions to take out foreign exchange. From 1982-1986, various forms of "austerity" projects, closure of factories and cuts in social sector expenditure, and limits to budget deficit. These only made matters worse. In 1986, structural adjustment programme (sap) promoted by the World Bank and the international monetary fund (IMF), was imposed on Nigeria. The programme was explicitly based on reliance on what are called "market forces" with a debt repayment programme and an exchange for the naira which facilitated further outflow of foreign exchange from Nigeria and which entrenched the flight of capital from the country. All of us could see the

damage and devastation they inflicted on the country. These two organs of imperialism did not allow us to see the actual realities of the wreckage which their dogmatic position caused the Nigerian economy.

This situation has not changed much because, the cycles of military dictatorships interspersed with coups and counter coups, and later involving civilians, only help to empower those who control financial and commercial transactions in the public and private sectors, particularly import and export, and depowers those engaged in the actual domestic production of goods and services. It helps to perpetuate capital flight. These elements, as can be seen in petroleum products and fertilizer, for example, actually block and place obstacles on the path of transactions which involve real domestic investment and production.

CONSEQUENCES OF CAPITAL FLIGHT:

It is therefore, very obvious that capital flight from Nigeria like other developing countries, not only aggravates the shortage of resources for development; it also indirectly leads to a decline in growth. Growth is reduced partly because investment has been diverted abroad and also because necessary imports are limited by the foreign exchange drain from both the flight itself and the fact that earnings on such assets are often not repatriated (pastor, 1990). In agreement with Forgha, (2008) and Valeria Gusarova, (2009) in their respective studies of Cameroon and some other developing counties, capital flight adversely impact real economic growth. Beja, (2006), is also of the view that capital flight presents the possibility of cutting off a nation from external sources of funds. Consequently, it becomes more difficult to implement economic policies, and improve the social conditions of people.

Finally, like Deppler and Williamson (1987), our conclusion is that capital flight leads to a net loss in investment and growth. In other words, given the fact that capital flight is a diversion of domestic savings away from domestic real investment, the pace of growth and development in the economy is retarded.

CONCLUSION:

Capital flight has a negative impact on economic growth and sustainable development in Nigeria. As distinct from capital export which is a normal economic phenomenon that does not affect the economy significantly from global perspective. Capital flight presents a danger and leads to the impoverishment of the economy.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Monetary authorities should strengthen monetary and fiscal policies to further reduce inflation rate, boost confidence in the domestic currency and thereby stem the tide of capital outflow from the economy should also initiate polices that would encourage stable and realistic exchange rate regime in order to reduce investors' preference for foreign assets over domestic assets. The fight by the present government against corruption must continue at all levels to enable real development to take place and be sustained. Diversification of the economy is necessary to reduce overdependence on crude oil, to enable Nigeria sustain the tempo of her development if she must meet up the modern challenges of globalization.

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THE IMPERATIVE FOR SECURITY-SENSITIVE HIGHER EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

The status of insecurity in Nigeria today calls for global concern. From the deteriorating insecurity caused by Boko Haram insurgency to kidnapping for ransom, Fulani herdsmen killings and armed robbery, the Nigerian state has become theatre of the Hobbesian war against all. Nigeria is indeed undergoing gross lawlessness governed essentially by insurgency. The spite of insecurity has left a biggest toll on the tertiary educational sector in Nigeria. The serene environment required for conducive and sustainable learning has been overtaken by chaotic activities from external environment on the universities and other tertiary sector. Security-sensitive Planning as essential management function is urgently needed to stern the wave of insecurity in Nigerian tertiary sector. This research attempts to examine empirically the imperatives for security–sensitive planning for higher levels of education in Nigeria. To grabble with the work effectively, the research shall adopt descriptive analysis as the methodology for this research. This tool of analysis shall be adopted to interrogate the degree of security-sensitive planning undertaken by management of the tertiary sector.

Findings of the research will focus on the underlying factors impinging security sensitive planning in Nigerian tertiary sector. Essentially, three types of plans can be adopted by management in the pursuit of organizational goals, namely: operational, tactical and strategic plan. These planning types are interrelated and are required to deal with security challenges in tertiary education in Nigeria. The research recommends the adoption of strategic management principles in managing security challenge in the Nigerian tertiary education. Furthermore, the research will recommend the appropriate policy and security-sensitive planning that would

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best solve the ever-growing problem of insecurity in Nigerian tertiary sector in particular and Nigerian insecurity in general.

Key words: Security, imperative, Security-sensitive, Higher education, Strategic planning.

Introduction

The status of insecurity in Nigeria today calls for global concern. From the deteriorating insecurity caused by Boko Haram insurgency to kidnapping for ransom, Fulani herdsmen killings and armed robbery, the Nigerian state has become theatre of the Hobbesian war against all. Nigeria is indeed undergoing a lawless society governed essentially by insurgency. The spite of insecurity has left a biggest toll on the tertiary educational sector in Nigeria. The serene environment required for conducive and sustainable learning has been overtaken by chaotic activities from external environment on the universities and other tertiary sector. Security-sensitive Planning as essential management function is urgently needed to stern the wave of insecurity in Nigerian tertiary sector. Several studies have been undertaken on need for secure environment in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. For instance, Dagogo (2005) carried out a study on the role of security agents in curbing crimes in higher institutions in North East Nigeria using four universities and three polytechnics. The sample was 900 respondents who were purposively selected for the study. The data were analyzed using population t-test and the result revealed that training and re-training of security personnel significantly affect their level of service delivery. Odidison (2004) found out in his study on factors responsible for insecurity in Nigerian tertiary institutions using 500 security personnel that lack of training of security personnel was one of the factors that significantly accounted for the insecurity in Nigerian institutions. Amoatemaa, Kyeremah and Arthur (2017) conducted a study on students' perception of campus safety in Ghana. Using 224 respondents, findings showed that 87.5% of the respondents indicated that students felt safer during the day time than night time. Also, it showed that isolated places and poorly lit areas of campus posed security threats. However, from the review of literature, it is observed that there is no research conducted on security-sensitive planning and

management in higher education institutions in Nigeria hence the intellectual gap which this study intends to fill.

It is against this background that this study is conducted to examine the imperative of security-sensitive planning and management in higher educational sector in Nigeria. Thus this paper is organized as follows:

Section 2 (i) examines the literature review discussing the current status of insecurity in Nigeria, section two (ii) continues with review of literature focusing on insecurity in Nigerian tertiary educational system, Section 3 discusses the methodology of the study while Section 4 looks at planning and management of insecurity in tertiary education sector, section 5 concludes and recommends on the way forward.

Literature Review

i. The current status of insecurity in Nigeria

In modern history, internal strife has burdened Africa's most populous nation, Nigeria. After independence, Nigeria experienced frequent coups and long periods of autocratic military rule from 1966 until 1999 when a democratic civilian government was established. The past fifty years, in particular, have witnessed numerous coups as well as regional, religious, ethnic and secessionist violence. Another reason for insecurity is the act of piracy in the Niger Delta which seems to have characterized much of the current period of democracy. In the past two years, however, new forms of discord, distrust, have emerged in which religious extremists, armed militant, and ethnic militia groups threaten to bring about greater insecurity than those that preceded them. The older forms of militia groups have metamorphous into armed groups and have intensified their activities. Recently, there have been high incidences of insecurity that have resulted in deaths and psychological trauma for individuals and families in the country. This requires the citizens to be much more security conscious considering the threat by religious extremists to bring about greater insecurity than those that preceded them. Other security indices also include the persistent tension between the north and the south of Nigeria, growing unrest in the Niger Delta area and other parts of the country resulting in rise in violent incidents and kidnappings. Ethnic tensions, religious differences, unemployment and numerous social and political grievances are all fueling the unrests in Nigeria

and contributing to flashpoints for violence and creating insecurity in the country. This paper is an attempt to establish security-sensitive planning and management in the tertiary education sector in Nigeria. The next section discusses the causes and the rise in violent incidences which have characterized the Nigerian higher education sector in recent times; highlighting the implications to learning, teaching and research in the tertiary education sector.

Causes of insecurity in Nigeria: There is a dramatic increase in violence, terrorism and the like, in Nigeria today. Lawless sects are raising the tempo of their campaign in various parts of the country. We hear of series of bombings, shooting and killings, kidnappings, armed robbery, arson and so on. These take place from north to south, east to west and almost on daily basis. The phenomenon 'insecurity' has been extended to cover other spheres like economic and political insecurity. In this paper, our concentration will treat the topic holistically - as it affects the life and property of the citizenry. Let us now examine the cause of this problem.

1. Porous borders – the free flow of migrants from other countries to Nigeria through our unguarded borders allows criminals to enter the country without check.

2. Proliferation of Arms and Ammunitions: Several arms hauls have been ceased at our air and sea ports, some in very large quantities. This is not good for the country. These arms and ammunition end up in the hands of criminals who apply same in their nefarious activities in the country thereby making life insecure for the people of their locality.

3. Illegal Armed groups – Illegal importation of arms and ammunitions has made possession of arms by individuals and groups very easy. We can name groups like Niger Delta Militants, Oodua Peoples Congress, 'Bakassi Boys', MASSOB that possess arms and ammunitions.

4 Oil Bunkering–Nigeria being one of the largest oil producing nations suffers from the activities of illegal oil bunkering. This activity is promoted by the spate of insecurity in the country. This is back-up with criminals who

are ready to die in Nigeria water-ways. This therefore makes the coastal areas of our oil producing states unsafe.

5 Labour activists – Early in 2012 the Nigerian Labour Congress call for a nationwide strike as a result of increase in price of fuel by government. They accused the government of insensitivity to the suffering of the people as well as ignoring the insecurity challenges in the country. Peaceful protests by Labour and other civil society groups have severally been high-jacked by miscreants and inflicted pains on people and made life in our cities insecure.

6 Kidnapping – this is another visible sign of insecurity in the country. The perpetrators of this crime do not spare anyone in this new wave of crime that seems to have supplanted armed robbery and other non-contact crimes. Since this act began in Nigeria, aged, children, male and female have been kidnapped for ransom. This has made life unbearable to the citizens. People now live in fear of falling victims to these criminals.

ii. Insecurity in Nigerian tertiary educational system

The university is a learning organization and as such attracts students, staff and other stakeholders who have one thing or the other to carry out in the university environment. Hence, the issue of security comes to play. The university exists as a complex organization with heterogeneous identity comprising people from different backgrounds with distinct views and divergent goals that make it susceptible to varied security threats. Oladikpo, Awoyinfa and Adefarakan (2018) define security as the degree of protection against danger, damage, loss, and criminal activity. In the same vein, Oni (2016) considers security in the university as the protection of tangible and intangible assets of the institution from all forms of danger. The tangible assets as indicated by the author include; the physical structures, books in the libraries, electronic gadgets, all stakeholders, the players involving the regular and occasional visitors to universities. On the other hand, intangible assets include intellectual property, research data, classified information, integrity, peace of mind, the image of the university and so on. The main aim of security according to Tari (2004) is to ensure safety and security of staff, students and visitors, protecting the property and assets of the university, investigating and detecting crime, reducing incidence of reported crimes and the apprehension and prosecution of offenders. Globally, there is a rising

wave of insecurity and the universities are not spared from this problem. The rising wave of insecurity in universities has been a source of great concern recently. In the 60s, 70s and up to 80s, educational environments were relatively peaceful for teaching-learning process to go on without hindrance. However, the situation has changed since in the 90s. Recent happenings have shown that university environments are not so safe for the students and for the school personnel any more due to some threatening security challenges. In line with this Mensah, Baafi, Arthur, Somuah, and Mprah (2019) observed that university campuses are no longer safe havens. Similarly, Enang (2019) noted that university communities in recent times have been infested with all manner of criminalities which, quite sadly, paint an opaque and rather disheartening picture. Abdullahi and Orukpe (2016) and Enang (2019) observed that theft, cultism, kidnapping, rape, room break-in, office break-in, cell-phone snatching, stealing, violent demonstration by students, vandalism and other forms of assaults are major security challenges on campuses. Caleb (2013) also noted that cultism has proved to be a major concern for even existing security agencies on campuses. In the same vein, Oladipo, Awoyinfa and Adefarakan (2018) observed that the existence of cultist groups on campus have made life unsafe and scary to both staff and students. It is asserted that the cultist possess, in many cases, more deadly and functioning weapons than campus security agencies and often use supernatural and mystical powers in their activities. Besides, many cult members are users of hard drugs, and can act in unthinkable ways when they are under its influence. Cultists are implicated in robbery, killing of innocent students, as well as academic and non-academic staff, arson, rape, extortion, kidnapping, blackmail and all kinds of inhumane practices. Oladipo et al. (2018) further enumerated the activities of cultists to include, harassing any non-member who snatches a member's girlfriend or sugar daddy (as in the case of a female cultist), harassing female students who refused their advances, as well as, harassing any lecturer who insists on merit for passing examination. They also engage in factional struggles for supremacy that often results in bloody clashes among cult groups, during which period lives are sometimes lost. This has made Ibrahim (2013) to posit that, higher institutions of learning which ought to be ideal places for training of the minds have become war zones where cult groups unleash their terror in the community. According to Badiora (2017), "the spectra of crimes on the campuses of tertiary

institutions in Nigeria have grown to an alarming rate and level, that it has remained a permanent issue in national discourse" (p. 180). Unfortunately, this has adversely affected the academic and social life of both staff and students on campus. These waves of crises have brought additional responsibilities for the school authorities to provide adequate security. In the past, security officers were expected to be reactive–checking on potential risks and responding when something happened. However, as observed by Rosenbery (2014), "a security officer is an integral, proactive part for creating a safe environment, preparing for all hazards, as well as, actively promoting a safer place to study, work and visit. Perhaps the most dramatic paradigm shift in security operations is the change from security officers being behind-the-scene enforcers and responders, to serving as collaborative promoters of the college's culture (P.1)". In corroboration, Beard (2010) noted that an open and proactive approach to identifying and mitigating risk is crucial in building a safety culture in which members' perceptions are positive. In the same vein, Lawrence (2007) posited that school security has changed, requiring well-developed security and safety plans, as well as, proper risk management, together with well-articulated strategies and procedures to protect schools from crimes and threats. As a way of finding solution to increasing security challenges in universities, the Federal Government of Nigeria in a one day workshop organized for Deans and Deputy Deans of Students Affairs of Federal Institutions in Nigeria in 2016, on the theme "Towards the effective security/safety on campuses", tasked the participants to take the issue of security seriously by fashioning out solutions to the seeming intractable security challenges facing the nation/university. The workshop was part of the series of security/safety seminars to sensitize management officers in tertiary institutions about security management with a view to reducing insecurity to the barest minimum in the campuses (Idoko, 2017). Every university has a responsibility to protect itself, the students, staff and other customers who visit the university for transaction in one form or the other, from all forms of danger. The National School Board Association (2013) identified the responsibility of all schools to include, giving adequate safety and security against disasters, accidents, injuries, as well as, prepare proactive plans that investigate perceived threats and disasters. It is in this regard that every university has a well-established security unit, whereby security personnel

are employed to handle the school security and ensure that lives and properties are protected and secured. The duties of these security officers include protection of lives/property, surveillance, gathering and dissemination of security intelligence, among others. University campuses as observed by Schneider Electric (as cited in Abdullahi and Orukpe, 2016) are dynamic environments with constant activity, which require an effective security unit that would address the protection and safe guarding of students, staff, visitors, faculty, property and facilities on campus. Good security services not only help to prevent crimes, but also contribute to a positive image of the institution by creating a safe and welcoming environment for students, staff, and visitors. Maintaining security in any organization is a complex issue and the quality of security services depend on a number of factors, one of which is the caliber of staff. A casual observation indicates that some personnel employed in the security units hardly had any formal training on security matters. As a result, it not only exposes their client to serious security risk but also the security personnel themselves as well, when there are security threats. As a matter of policy, the chief security officer in a university must have basic training in any military or paramilitary organization, however, many other security personnel have no professional training whatsoever on crime prevention, e-security, security intelligence, aborting crime or reading crime motive of prospective intruders. Another major impeding factor in the maintenance of security on campus is that most security personnel on campus do not wield gun and, as a result, university campuses are left vulnerable to the menace of criminal-minded individuals who carry guns and conduct their operations without any hindrance. Besides, most security units lack necessary facilities and modern technologies needed to fight crimes on campus. Security personnel cannot discharge their duties effectively without adequate facilities. It is also observed that most institutions of learning are porous and do not have perimeter fencing, which is critical in preventing access by intruders, securing assets, and protecting personnel or buildings. Safe-guarding the academic environment for educational activities is very important. It is for this reason that Okebukola (as cited in Youdeowei and Iruoma, 2015) posits that “no safe school, no future for the world”. The author gave three reasons to justify this assertion as follows; (i) The dream of harnessing the power of education for achieving goals in health, food, employment, enrolment, energy, security will come to

naught.(ii) Without safe schools, education for all will remain a pipe dream (iii) Quality education yearned by all countries of the world will be hindered. Xaba (2014) describes safe school environment as one that is not dangerous and possess no threats to physical, emotional, psychosocial and psychological well-being of the occupants. In other words, it is an environment that is secured and free from threat and danger. The need to re-position the security personnel in the universities to effectively discharge their duties in relation to the emerging security issues and challenges cannot be overemphasized. The rising students and staff population, together with new crime types bring about more responsibilities on the security personnel, which calls for new strategies to tackle them. This is needful because as cautioned by Gomme and Micucci (1997), the perception of campus as a dangerous place may erode the quality of academic and social life for students, faculty, as well as, undermining a school's ability to attract and retain both clientele and personnel. Some Cases of Security Threats in Nigerian Educational Institutions In recent past, Nigeria has recorded incidents of security threats in educational institutions as follows: 1. In 2011, students of University of Calabar went on rampage over increase in school charges, destroying buildings, facilities, cars and entering staff residential areas to destroy houses and staff properties worth millions of Naira. The security personnel were over powered by the rioting students. This incident resulted in the loss of academic months (Ekpoh, 2018).

In 2012, about 40 students of Federal Polytechnics Mbubi were massacred by Boko Harram terrorist group. 3. In 2013, students of university of Abuja demonstrated over non-provision of adequate laboratory facilities for medical and engineering students, which led to failed accreditation. 4. In 2013, students of University of Uyo rioted against school authorities due to increase in intra-campus transport fare, as well as, insufficient lecture halls. This led to the destruction of school properties on campus and also the loss of a students' life. 5. On August 16th 2013, a female student of Abia State University was held hostage for over one hour and gang-raped by persons suspected to be cultists. 6. On 18th December 2013, suspected cultists attacked and killed Dr. Segun Onabanjo, a Senior Lecturer in The Department of Sociology of Olabisi Onabanjo University (OOU), Ogun State. 7. On 3rd April 2015, Mrs. Awala George, a lecturer in University of

Port Harcourt was kidnapped but later freed by police operatives eight days later (Oni, 2016). 8. On April 14th 2014, about 276 girls were abducted from Government Secondary School, Chibok. The girls were in the process of writing their school certificate examination. This particular incidence attracted global condemnation. Some of the girls have been released while others are still in captivity till date. 9. In July 2015, an 18 year old admission seeker in University of Lagos was raped by a lecturer. 10. In August 29, 2015, a 4th year law students of the University of Calabar was sexually assaulted by her lecturer. 11. In the University of Calabar Staff Quarters, lecturers were attacked and three persons were kidnapped on May 23rd 2016. The incidence of 23rd May led to one week withdrawal of service by academic staff. 12. In July 2016, a female under-graduate of Babcock University, Ogun State, kidnapped her friend in order to make money from the parents (Oladipo et al 2016). 13. In 2017, a Professor in the Department of Zoology, University of Calabar was kidnapped by gunmen while he was jogging in campus at about 6.40 am. The kidnapped lecturer was dragged for over 100 meters on the road by his abductors amidst intense gun shooting, before whisking him away to a waiting boat at the Big Qua River that borders the university. 14. On 16th January 2017, two suicide bombers attacked University of Maiduguri, killing three people including a professor. 15. On 19th February, 2018, 111 secondary school girls from Government Girls Science and Technical College, Dapchi, Yobe were abducted. 16. In May 2019, a final year male student in Cross River State University of Technology was butchered in the classroom by persons suspected to be rival cultist group. 17. On February 17, 2020, an Associate Professor in the Institute of Public Administration, University of Calabar was kidnapped in his house. The sum of N50 million ransom was demanded by his abductors. 18. In April 2020, three students of university of Port Harcourt were kidnapped, killed and subsequently buried in a shallow grave. 19. On 27th May, 2020 some suspected assassins entered University of Calabar staff quarters and killed a policeman on duty and escaped with his gun. The suspects escaped without being apprehended. All these incidents are just the tip of the iceberg of security challenges in institutions of learning. It is an indication that school environments are under siege of security threatening incidents. In most of these attacks, the school security personnel are never well prepared to prevent or intervene in the security threats. There are many

other incidents and some were never reported, hence the true extent of the situation may never be known.

Methodology

The research adopts descriptive analysis as the methodology for this research. This tool of analysis shall be adopted to interrogate the degree of security-sensitive planning undertaken by management of the tertiary sector.

Planning and management of insecurity in tertiary education sector in Nigeria

A number of researches have been conducted to examine issues of security threats in Universities and other institutions of learning. For instance, Dagogo (2005) carried out a study on the role of security agents in curbing crimes in higher institutions in North East Nigeria using four universities and three polytechnics. The sample was 900 respondents who were purposively selected for the study. The data were analyzed using population t-test and the result revealed that training and re-training of security personnel significantly affect their level of service delivery. Odidison (2004) found out in his study on factors responsible for insecurity in Nigerian tertiary institutions using 500 security personnel that lack of training of security personnel was one of the factors that significantly accounted for the insecurity in Nigerian institutions. Amoatemaa, Kyeremah and Arthur (2017) conducted a study on students' perception of campus safety in Ghana. Using 224 respondents, findings showed that 87.5% of the respondents indicated that students felt safer during the day time than night time. Also, it showed that isolated places and poorly lit areas of campus posed security threats. The findings further indicated that bushy areas, lack of close circuit television (CCTV), absence of police patrols and emergency phones to call the security officers, were the major factors contributing to students feeling of insecurity on campus. In another study by Chekwa, Thomas and Jones (2013) using 20 college students, it was found by 85% of the respondents that burglary was the number one crime committed on campus. Also, the security features that the respondents considered most important as a deterrent to criminal activities in the order of importance were; security officer, cameras, emergency call boxes and lighting. Audi Audible emergency alert system was not considered as a factor in preventing crimes in the study. Another

study by Ozmen, Dur and Akgul (2010) on school security problems and ways of tackling them found that there were various problems threatening school security, which included lack of family interest, inadequate physical condition, and disruptive school environment, among others. The study recommended the development of emergency action plan to handle threatening and destructive conditions, as well, as building emergency communication line to link up necessary units and organizations to receive timely support and help in threatening situations. Oladipo et al (2018) examined institutional factors that served as threats to personnel security in University of Lagos and found that there existed a strong positive relationship between school location, school culture, school facilities and personnel security, while a weak, positive correlation existed between school climate and personnel security. The study concluded that hostile school environment, over-stretched and inadequate learning facilities, indiscipline, outdated security framework, poor staff and students' safety and security awareness, inadequate capacity building for security personnel, poor funding of institutions and so on, were the major determinants of security lapses on campus. Badiora (2017) assessed patterns of crime on campuses: A spatial analysis of crimes and concerns for safety at a Nigerian University. Findings showed the five most frequently occurring crimes on campus to be; stealing and pilfering, room break-in, sexual harassment, cultism, and drug offences. In another study by Paul and Igwebuike (2018) on security challenges and management strategies in secondary schools, it was found that kidnapping, armed robbery, militancy, drug abuse, vandalism, theft and cultism were some of the security challenges experienced in the schools studied in Aba Education Zone, Abia State. From the review of literature, it is observed that there is no empirically tested research on security-sensitive planning and management challenges in universities in Nigeria hence the relevance of the present study. There are reported cases of stealing, vandalism, raping, killing, kidnapping and numerous other crimes in university campuses. There are cases of cultist clashes in campuses whereby human lives are lost. On a number of occasions, thieves and armed robbers have attacked students' hostels and staff quarters, stealing properties. In view of these happenings, one is inclined to wonder whether security personnel who are specifically employed to protect lives and properties are no longer effective in the discharges of their duties. Some factors could be responsible for the apparent

lack of capacity by security personnel to cope with contemporary challenges. For instance, it is evident that some security personnel under study do not have adequate and regular training to cope with the advanced level of criminality that is on the increase in university campuses and are therefore unable to operate modern security gadgets with efficiency. Also, most of the security personnel do not have formal training on security management. Besides, the few that are professionals do not have opportunity for capacity building programmes to update their skills and knowledge in crime management. It is generally observed that the security personnel lack basic facilities to use and combat crimes and, as such, are easily overwhelmed by the criminals. It is from this perspective that a research on security-sensitive planning and management in tertiary sector becomes imperative. Essentially, three types of plans can be adopted by management in the pursuit of organizational goals, namely: operational, tactical and strategic plan. These planning types are interrelated and are required to deal with security challenges in tertiary education in Nigeria. In order to fully understand and appreciate the concepts and applications of operational, strategic and tactical plans a brief explanation of these concepts are provided below:

> Firstly, Operational plans (also known as contingency plans) sit at the bottom of the totem pole; they are the plans that are made by frontline, or low-level, managers. All operational plans are focused on the specific procedures and processes that occur within the lowest levels of the organization. Managers must plan the routine tasks of the department using a high level of detail. Secondly, Strategic plans are designed with the entire organization in mind and begin with an organization's mission. Top-level managers, such as Chief Executive Officers design and execute strategic plans to paint a picture of the desired future and long-term goals of the organization. Essentially, strategic plans look ahead to where the organization wants to be in three, five, even ten years.

Strategic plans as a reserve of top-level managers, serve as the framework for lower-level planning. Thirdly, Tactical plans support strategic plans by translating them into specific plans relevant to a distinct area of the organization. Tactical plans are concerned with the responsibility and functionality of lower-level departments to fulfill their parts of the strategic plan. With reference to the application of these plans to security planning and

management in tertiary education sector, it implies that top management of each of the higher education should adopt strategic planning in the management of security challenges in the higher education sector. They should adopt plans that cover the entire educational institution while encouraging inputs from lower levels of management such as departments or units to set up their operational and tactical plans for detailed execution of routine tasks as part of their responsibility. Top management must involve other levels of management in designing of security sensitive planning and hold each level of management responsible for results. This planning approach was collaborated by a management expert Peter Drunker in his thesis on Management By Objective (MBO).

Conclusion and recommendations

Unsafe School Environments does not augur well for academic programmes to thrive, because, security is a necessary precondition for the goals of education to be achieved. It is the responsibility of every institution to guarantee a conducive, secure and threat-free environment for effective teaching and research to take place. The security department in the university has the onerous task of protecting the students, staff, and all customers who visits the University for any kind of transaction, from all forms of danger. As pointed out by Enang (2019), effective security architecture in a university must be ahead of others in developing counter-measures to all possible threats in the environments, whether real or perceived. In the same vein, Ibrahim as cited in Faithful and Mbiraeye (2016), contend that an educational institution with an insecure environment is susceptible to distractions and possible disintegration. Thus, it behooves the university management to strengthen their security unit and intelligence net-works to contain the numerous security challenges and threats in institutions of learning.

The security challenges in tertiary educational sector constitute serious threats to safe academic environment and hinder academic activities. The elimination of these threats from the universities should be paramount for meaningful academic work to thrive. The university management must be proactive in creating and sustaining a peaceful, threat-free environment through the following:

1. The security unit should be well funded and equipped with modern technology by the university management.

2. Provision of sufficient surveillance vehicles. This will be very useful in timely fighting and containment of criminal activities on campus.

3. Access into the university environment should be checked. Currently, people who have no business in the school are found everywhere. Access should be restricted.

4. All identified cultists should be rusticated from the institution by the university management. Linkages should be established with other institutions of learning so that such students are denied re-admission. Also, students arrested on involvement in heinous crimes should be suspended and handed over to law enforcement agencies for prosecution.

5. Management of the university should consider as utmost importance the installation of CCTV at strategic locations to monitor movements of persons for possible detection of criminal activities within the institution.

6. Security units in the university should be well staffed with qualified personnel. Recruitment of security personnel should be tailored towards getting those with experience and passion. Security department should not be an all comers affair.

7. Regular security- training and retraining programmes should be organized for all security personnel to sharpen their skills and acquaint them with modern trends in intelligent gathering, crime detention and security operation.

8. Security is every body's business; hence there is need for security awareness by both staff and students in order to stay safe.

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ASSESSMENT OF THE STATUS OF HUMAN SECURITY REFORMS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR GLOBAL CONFLICT AND INEQUALITY

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Abstract

This research examines the current reforms in human security by the United Nations vis-à-vis global inequality and attendant threats to world peace. According to United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the concept of Human security has been defined as 'freedom from fear and freedom from want…' If human development works toward expansion of opportunities-then human security looks at ways of dealing with avoiding, mitigating and coping with threats. The development of the human security framework by the global 1994 Human Development Report (HDR) of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) was a pioneering step. The report shifted the focus of security from the protection of the state and its borders by military means to the protection of individuals from a wider range of threats to their well-being and security, and by a wider range of measures and policies, from the local and community levels to the national and international arenas. HDR 1994 defined human security as including "…safety from such chronic threats as hunger, disease and repression, and protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily lives, whether in homes, jobs or communities." The strength and appeal of human security is not only in its new elements but in the growing inability of traditional concepts of security to generate adequate responses to many of the new causes of insecurity in the world today, particularly in the post-cold war situation. Recent reports for and by the UN-notably by the Secretary-General's High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change, and the Secretary-General's own report revealed urgent need for state actors and policy makers to focus on all elements threatening human peace and security. This study therefore looks at human security as antidote to global war and insecurity.

Key words*:* Status, Human security, Reforms, Global, Inequality

Introduction

The current quest for global equality as essential part of human security has been gaining more and sustained awareness among scholars, policy makers and the international community. However, the current status of human security in the globe shows there are ever yawning gaps in human security which has led to another wave of violence across the globe. A good example

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could be found in African continent with widespread human rights violations and attendant human insecurities in recent times. In Nigeria, for past several weeks youths have taken to the streets in Lagos, Abuja and other cities in protests to demand for security amidst the extra-judicial killings by the disbanded Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS). This phenomenon no doubt is a product of long years of inhumanities and insecurities experienced by Nigerians. The growing trends in human insecurities in Nigeria are not different from other African countries in the continent. Other continents in the globe had their own share of human insecurities. It is disheartening to note that the ever growing trends in insecurities across the globe are products of ever yawning gaps or inequalities between the rich and the poor. Security seemed to be arranged for the rich sections of the society at the detriment of the poor members of the society.

A closer examination of human security and inequality nexus revealed that the present status of human security across the globe is still very low or at best very poor. This paper is divided into five sections will take a cursory examination of human security and inequality nexus and the implications and current status. Consequently, the paper is organized as follows: section one looked at introduction, section two examines human security concept and United Nations Agenda, section three explicates the reforms in human security, section four discusses the present status of human security plagued by gross inequalities in the social and economic system and section five concludes and recommends.

Human security concept and United Nations Agenda

The concept of Human security has been defined as 'freedom from fear and freedom from want…' If human development works toward expansion of opportunities-then human security looks at ways of dealing with avoiding, mitigating and coping with threats.

The development of the human security framework by the global 1994 Human Development Report (HDR) of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) was a pioneering step. The report shifted the focus of security from the protection of the state and its borders by military means to the protection of individuals from a wider range of threats to their well-being and security, and by a wider range of measures and policies, from the local

and community levels to the national and international arenas. HDR 1994 defined human security as including "…safety from such chronic threats as hunger, disease and repression, and protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily lives, whether in homes, jobs or communities." The strength and appeal of human security is not only in its new elements but in the growing inability of traditional concepts of security to generate adequate responses to many of the new causes of insecurity in the world today, particularly in the post-cold war situation. Recent reports for and by the UN-notably by the Secretary-General's High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change, and the Secretary-General's own report, In Larger Freedom- have greatly enhanced the notion of human security as a useful tool of analysis, explanation and policy generation. Nonetheless, there are still doubts about and opposition to the concept, especially among persons writing within the framework of international relations and political science. The primary bone of contention among the critics of the human security framework relates to the definition of the concept. The critics appear to focus on five difficulties:

i) Human security, they argue, merely involves renaming problems that have already been recognized in other contexts and that already have perfectly good names. What is gained by combining them under a new label?

ii) Human security does not have any definite boundaries, therefore anything and everything could be considered a risk to security. This makes the task of policy formulation nearly impossible.

iii) Human security, when broadened to include issues like climate change and health, complicates the international machinery for reaching decisions or taking action on the threats identified.

iv) Human security risks engaging the military in issues best tackled through non-military means.

v) Human security under the UN risks rising hopes about the UN's capacity, which it cannot fulfil. A different objection, shared by some who otherwise welcome human security, arises from the insidious cooption of the phrase 'human security' to justify the introduction of draconian and excessively harsh foreign and domestic policies, and to brand the exercise of unprovoked force

as a measure of achieving human security. Despite such criticisms and challenges, the application of the human security framework as a policy tool has increasingly been gaining currency within policy circles since 1994. This paper looks at evidence from UNDP's National Human Development Reports, which have become an invaluable tool for socio-economic analysis. Human security has been a main theme in a dozen or so NHDRs, predominantly in countries that have either just emerged from conflict, or are still grappling with lingering but still major elements of national (and in some cases, regional) insecurity. In several of these reports, the strengths of the human security approach shine through, enabling contextualized multidimensional analysis of interconnected factors. Through a detailed analysis of these reports, this paper identifies some interesting and useful applications of the human security framework. In particular, the reports of Afghanistan, Latvia, Macedonia and Bangladesh, Nigerian, etc. are reviewed in depth, as each makes strong contributions to the conceptualization of human security within a national context.

Reforms in human security

The reforms in human security could best be approached by the various efforts made by the United Nations to ensure peace and security of member states and the international community. The evolutions and various advances in human security by UN are therefore the focus of the next part of this paper as presented below:

The United Nations was born into a world emerging from the shadows of war and hitherto unimagined destruction. The organization was founded on the ideals of peace and justice, with an international system of law and procedures that would replace military aggression and war with negotiation and collective security. Although the UN was fundamentally constructed around the concept of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind…." The dominant concept of security at the time was state-centric, privileging the instruments and agents of the state, carrying

forward the principles of state sovereignty as first articulated in the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648. The UN principles for security were initially focused on ways in which the structures and practices of the modern state might address threats to its sovereignty. These threats encompassed compromises to territorial integrity, issues surrounding political stability, military and defence arrangements, and economic and financial activities. The behavior of states was understood 'rationally' as the pursuit of power. To that extent, the security calculus was based on a zero-sum outcome, with gains on one side coming only as a result of losses on the other. This 'realist' approach to security was most sharply applied in relations between the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics from the onset of the Cold War in the 1950s. In the years that followed, attempts to mediate between the US and the former USSR probably presented the most difficult test for the UN and its mandate. Operating in a world perilously close to a devastating nuclear confrontation forced the organization to develop innovative and creative solutions to seemingly intractable problems, such as limiting the threats posed by the nuclear arsenals stockpiled by each superpower. The UN's role in disarmament led to the establishment of standards such as the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (1968), the Anti-Ballistic-Missiles Treaty (1972), the Biological Weapons Convention (1972) and the Chemical Weapons Convention (1993). Since the principle targets of these weapons were communities and, by extension, individuals, it could be argued that although states had the principal responsibilities for action, individuals and communities were ultimately the main beneficiaries of these UN-led initiatives. World military expenditures rose over most of the decades after the UN was founded, prompting a succession of proposals by member states to reduce military spending and to transfer a proportion of the resources saved into development in developing countries. France made the first such proposal in 1955, suggesting that 25 per cent of the resources released should be allocated to an international fund for development. This was followed by other proposals from the Soviet Union and Brazil. In 1973, the General Assembly adopted a resolution calling for a 10 per cent onetime reduction in the military budgets of the Permanent Members of the Security Council-with 10 per cent of the saved sum being allocated for economic and social development in third world countries. The UN special sessions on

disarmament and development in 1978, 1982 and 1987 all came up with similar proposals. With the end of the cold war and the demise of the Soviet Union by 1991, the UN's strategy for dealing with conflict shifted from containment to prevention. In 1992, the UN Secretary-General issued 'An Agenda for Peace, Peacemaking, and Peace-keeping'. Early optimism for a more peaceful world, however, was dashed by a rising number of conflicts in developing countries. These were overwhelmingly internal conflicts, though sometimes national groups received external support. Most of these conflicts were outside the inter-state mound espoused by the realists. The causes of these conflicts were seen to be linked to non-state and non-traditional factors such as internal socio-political conditions, rapidly deteriorating economic conditions, environmental threats, identity politics and powerful organized crime rings. In an attempt to address these transformations, the UN system once more engaged with alternative views of security, articulating the concept in terms of a re-framed emphasis on the empowerment of individuals by addressing systemic policies and practices that contributed to insecurity. Despite having embodied the concept of collective security since its inception and having witnessed the transformation of the concept beyond its original parameters during the cold war competition of superpower interests, the UN increasingly championed alternative approaches to development and security. In fact, this alternative focus on people as the referent object of security is evident in the UN initiatives on human rights almost from the beginning. The unanimous adoption of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the subsequent creations of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966), the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (1966), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) can all be seen as elements of alternative perceptions of security. Each of these conventions and covenants focused on various vulnerabilities and threats experienced by individuals. The entry into force of these regimes laid the groundwork for more fundamental questioning of dominant ideologies about security and for broadening the concept into new areas more directly linked to human rights and individual concerns. By the start of the 1990s, the UN had substantively engaged with a plethora of new issues through its policies and programmes. Following the end of the cold war and the collapse of the existing East-West

stalemate, the presence of decentralized and non-conventional threats to security had become more the norm than the exception. It thus became increasingly necessary to adopt an approach that attempted to be both holistic and contextual. History and experience had shown that although the notion of security was at the forefront of many debates, how this concept was interpreted and viewed differed greatly from region to region, community to community, and individual to individual. It was in this context that the concept of human security was first put forward. The concept of human security emerged as part of the holistic paradigm of human development cultivated at UNDP. The 1994 global HDR argued that the concept of security has "for too long been interpreted narrowly: as security of territory from external aggression, or as protection of national interests in foreign policy, or as global security from a nuclear holocaust. It has been related more to nation states than to people. This narrow approach was categorically widened to include the safety of individuals and groups from such threats as hunger, disease and political instability; and protection from "sudden and hurtful disruptions in patterns of daily life. The report went on to further identify seven core elements that-when addressed together-reflect the basic needs of human security: economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security. The evolution of human security also had the support of Oscar Arias, former President of Costa Rica and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize, who linked human security with proposals for a Global Demilitarization Fund. Designed to provide support for disarming and demobilizing armed forces, re-integrating military personnel into society, and other measures to promote arms control and civic education for democracy, this effort would become an integral element for increasing human security in many countries. After 1994, the concept of human security became a central theme of a number of governments through their foreign and defence policies. In particular, the Canadian, Japanese and Norwegian governments led the way in institutionalizing human security concerns into their respective foreign policies. According to a Canadian government report, "human security means safety for people from both violent and non-violent threats. It is a condition or state of being characterized by freedom from pervasive threats to people's rights, their safety, or even their lives."18 In its foreign policy

statement, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for Japan urges states, international organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society to work towards eliminating threats to each and every person. In 2001, the Commission on Human Security, chaired by Nobel Laureate Amartya Sen and the former UN High Commissioner for Refugees Sadako Ogata, was established to explore the concept of human security and to make recommendations for policy. The 2003 report of the Sen-Ogata Commission noted that human security complemented state security because its concern was focused on the individual and the community-whose agency and well-being represented an integral part of state security. Achieving human security therefore included not only protecting people but empowering people to fend for themselves. The Sen-Ogata report focused on a variety of actors who were either insecure or faced the threat of insecurity. By devoting chapters to people caught up in violent conflict, migrants, people recovering from violent conflict and economic insecurity, the report aptly illustrated the endless plethora of cases and causes of human insecurity in the post-cold war era. By 2005, human security had been made the organizing theme of two important UN reports—the report of the Secretary-General's High Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change issued in December 2004, and the Secretary-General's own report In Larger Freedom, issued a few months later for the World Summit in September 2005. In spite of failures to agree on a number of issues, the Summit reached consensus on three matters of importance for human security:

i) On the establishment of a Peacebuilding Commission, with details to be worked out by the spring of 2006;
ii) On a new Council for Human Rights, to restore credibility and legitimacy; and
iii) On the principle of the responsibility to protect and the right to intervene.

Human security represents an effort to re-conceptualize security in a fundamental manner. It is primarily an analytical tool that focuses on ensuring security for the individual, not the state. Exploring options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals thus becomes a central goal of policy recommendations and actions. In line with the expanded definition of human security, the causes of insecurity are subsequently broadened to

include threats to socio-economic and political conditions, food, health, and environmental, community and personal safety. Policy initiatives generated through the application of the human security framework have incorporated considerations far beyond the traditional focus on military force, greatly reducing the emphasis on armies, if not replacing them altogether. Human security is therefore: people-centred multidimensional interconnected universal in principle, human security reflects the aggregate gains as a result of the mitigation of each and every factor that contributes to insecurity. In practice, as recognized by the report Human Security Now, there is a need to focus on a core of insecurities within each specific context. A country-by country approach, as with the NHDRs, helps to do this. For example, realizing human security in Afghanistan can and should involve policies that address democratic governance, transnational crime, human rights, poverty and basic needs. The human security needs of the people of Mozambique could and likely would include protection from external regional conflicts, socio-economic exploitation, civil unrest stemming from ethnic identities, civil unrest stemming from ethnic identities, poverty, and public health issues such as HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis. Each of these country cases therefore represents sub-sets of human security, linked together by the common condition of insecurity—which manifests itself in decidedly different terms in both Afghanistan and Mozambique. In each case, the drive to eliminate insecurity is informed by considerations of human development and human rights, and not strategic calculations of power and military gains/advantages. Through this framework, it would therefore be possible to develop a collection of policies that successfully address the specific insecurities in each country, while ensuring that the primary beneficiaries of these policies are individuals, not the state. As a result, state security becomes a direct reflection of the perception of the security of the state's citizens. It is important to recognize when the human security framework is most useful in its analysis. For instance, attempting to locate human security within the superpower rivalry of the cold war world order does not demonstrate the theoretical strengths of this framework. As such, in cases where security threats to the state are addressed through actions aimed at external state-based actors, traditional security studies appears better situated to undertake effective analysis. For example, the overthrow of Saddam Hussein's Iraqi regime by the US-led coalition is far better understood through a traditional security lens. The resultant impacts of US Army actions on the population of Iraq, however, are much better understood through the human security framework. Although it is debatable whether a human security approach to engage with the Saddam Hussein regime may have yielded greater benefits in the long run, it is very clear that the

implementation of a human security framework in post-conflict reconstruction could have greatly improved the situation of Iraqi citizens.

Present status of human security

The Present status of human security can be seen in the metamorphosis of human security evidence in the topical importance in the context of globalization. While its external appearance contains central tenets of the conception of security in the 20th century, human security has become increasingly sensitive to characteristics which are indissoluble from the loss of state capacity and legitimacy regarding the use of violence. These features have a direct influence on the contemporary conception of global threats. This article provides an in-depth examination of the discursive logic behind the notion of human security from the United Nations perspective, as well as how this connects with the recent characterization of new global threats. However, the current status of human security in the globe shows there are ever yawning gasps in human security which has led to another wave of violence across the globe. A good example could be found in African continent with widespread human rights violations and attendant human insecurities in recent times. In Nigeria, for past several weeks youths have taken to the streets Lagos, Abuja and other cities in protests to demand for security amidst the extra-judicial killings by the disbanded Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS). This phenomenon no doubt is a product of long years of inhumanities and insecurities experienced by Nigerians. The growing trends in human insecurities in Nigeria are not different from other African countries in the continent. Other continents in the globe had their own share of human insecurities. It is disheartening to note that the ever growing trends in insecurities across the globe are products of ever yawning gaps or inequalities between the rich and the poor. Security seemed to be arranged for the rich sections of the society at the detriment of the poor members of the society.

A closer examination of human security and inequality nexus revealed that the present status of human security across the globe is still very low or at best very poor. This enables us to establish a multidimensional taxonomy of developed and developing countries that could help us to better understand the new discursive framework of global threats and human security. Finally,

some implications of these findings for the current debate on the selected countries will be a subject for further research.

Conclusion and recommendations

As the discussion so far has illustrated, the human security approach presents policy makers and academics with a further opportunity to improve fundamentally the living conditions of many of the world's most vulnerable people. For the very reason that a human security framework presents a significant departure from previous approaches to the analysis of security, major gains could be realized through policy level changes. A key advantage of this new approach is that human security holds the potential to improve people's lives across a number of areas simultaneously. The methodology makes it possible to achieve multiple objectives through holistic engagement of one policy area. As a consequence, in recognizing that the perception of insecurity is necessarily a result of a number of socio-political/economic causal factors, this framework strives to realize qualitative and quantitative change across a number of interrelated factors. This is further reinforced by the concept's deep-rooted ideals of positive human rights and universal human development. The value-added of this process is the degree of positive improvements and/or gains in many impacts. State-centric approaches occasionally reduce security to zero-sum calculations, whereby gains by one actor are possible only through losses by another actor. In these situations, a human security approach allows for a positive-sum game in which all actors can realize greater security. In effect, by changing the focus of its security calculus to individuals, states themselves have the potential to become more secure. It is these features that have increasingly given currency to the human security approach in academic and policy analysis. The methodology of the human security approach has already been put to effective use in a number of policy settings. For instance, in a survey conducted in 2002/2003, Latvians identified economic/income uncertainty and access to health care as the two most pressing threats to their security. Policy conclusions contained in Latvia's 2003 NHDR on human security elaborate on a multi-stakeholder employment strategy consisting of both formal sector employment initiatives and a comprehensive government led social security network. Not only does such an approach substantively address the perception of income insecurity, it also reduces the fear of access

to adequate health care at the same time. Lesotho's 1998 NHDR also sheds light on cross-cutting issues when developing its policy recommendations. The report identifies issues such as democratic institutions and practices, government reform and decentralization, anti-corruption measures, women's empowerment and the rejuvenation of civil society. Based on these issues, the report provides a number of policy recommendations, including a framework on improving governance and empowerment by undertaking a comprehensive decentralization programme, strengthening legal statutes on corruption, implementing an integrated environmental protection strategy and reallocating funds for social services expenditure. The report notes that "these measures must be implemented in a holistic manner, as they are all related and complementary." These two examples illustrate the policy potential that the human security framework has to address substantively perceptions of fear and vulnerability. Individual perceptions of fear and vulnerability have presented significant challenges to policy makers. One of the main reasons for this impasse is the inability of most traditions of security analysis to differentiate between state concerns and individual perceptions, or between real as opposed to perceived threats, and to contextualize such analysis. International agendas often do not coincide with local perceptions of fear and insecurity, focusing instead on the interests of dominant states and institutional agendas. In total contrast, a human security agenda derives its policy concerns from individual concerns, and mobilizes the state apparatus to achieve these objectives. This has two significant consequences on the question of linking global debates to local concerns. First, the human security approach exposes the inadequacy and misguided nature of domestic policies that have been largely guided by global trends. It brings out their lack of coherence with human perceptions of security needs at local levels. As the South Africa 2003 NHDR points out in its conclusion "…the government's share of national income needs to benefit the poor favorably in a number of ways: an improved social security system, expenditure on education, social infrastructure, land reform and the provision of social services, and the provision of a comprehensive response to HIV/AIDS." As a result, the South African Government's decision to increase defense expenditure by five per cent to over US $38 million is immediately called into question. In this way, new thinking about security often leads to the conclusion that "territorial security is far less important, for

example, than poverty and inequality; it is not consistent with present or conceivable future threats faced by the nation; and military expenditure hinders economic growth and thereby development." Second, human security allows for a more nuanced understanding of the impacts of globalization on particular national agendas. As the Latvian 2003 NHDR has shown, despite an increase in focus on terrorism among the countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States, Latvian citizens continue to remain more concerned about internal social security policies than about strategies to combat terrorism in the region. Government policy has not reflected this perception, choosing instead to focus on international political considerations in the formulation of national security policy. This move to identify linkages between the global and local is finding a voice in the increasingly sympathetic landscape of academic and policy circles. The vigorous academic debate also demonstrates the potential of the human security framework to challenge established traditions in theoretical security studies. The multitude of recent UN reports on the need to incorporate human security and development considerations at the global and local levels bear testament to this changing focus. The Secretary-General's report In Larger Freedom demonstrates this emphatically and incorporates concerns arising in both global debates and local perceptions. The increasing number of governments incorporating human security into their foreign and international development policies adds further currency to the efficacy of the approach. Human security is an idea whose time has come.

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See also ul Haq 1995. 13 See Amartya Sen 1999. 14 NorthSouth Roundtable 1990. The high-level participation in the Roundtable may account for some of the positive reception accorded to the analysis of human security presented in the 1994 global HDR four years later. The meeting in Costa Rica included Oscar Arias, then President of Costa Rica; Robert McNamara; President Obasanjo of Nigeria; Jim Grant, Executive Director of UNICEF; Maurice Strong, later Secretary-General of the Rio Conference on Environment and Development; Inga Thorsson, Minister of Disarmament in Sweden; and Brian Urquhart, former Under-Secretary-General responsible for Special Political Affairs. Richard Jolly chaired the conference. There were a number of high-level specialists like Mary Kaldor, Julian Robinson, Herbert Wulf, Anthony Sampson and Kennedy Graham. 15 UNDP 1994, p. 22.

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