INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT (IJHRD)

IJHRD Vol. 10 (1), MARCH, 2023

A Peer-Review Corpus Research Journal of College of Humanities & Social SciencesKampala International University Uganda.

A Peer-Review Corpus Research Journal of College of Humanities & Social Sciences, Kampala International University Uganda.

©2023 International Journal of Human Resource Development (IJHRD) Kampala International University, Kampala-Uganda.

All rights reserved. Apart from fair dealing for the purpose of research or private study, or criticism or review, and only as permitted under the copyright Act, this publication may only be produced, stored or transmitted, in any form or by any means, with prior written permission of the copyright holder.

ISSN: 2276-7290

Published by:
INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT (IAPA&M),
KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY,
KAMPALA, UGANDA.

EDITORIAL BOARD

Dr. Claire Mack Mugasa
Kampala International University
Kampala-Uganda

Prof. Emeka Akaezua Ph.D.
Vice-chancellor
International University of East Africa
Kampala-Uganda

Prof. Anyiwe Mercy Ada,
Department of Economics,
University of Benin,
Benin City.

Abah, E. O. PhD,
Kmpala International University
Kampala-Uganda

Managing Editor:
Prof. Ogbe, A. A, Ph.D.
University of Kigali
Rwanda

Ola, O. Ifatimehin
Department of Public Administration,
Kogi State University,
Anyigba, Nigeria

Editor-In-Chief
Prof. (Mrs) Motshegwa, B. (Ph.D.)
University of Botswana, Gaborone

Prof. Lydia Saleshando Ph.D.
University of Botswana

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

Prof. Lumumba Patrick, Ph.D.
Kenya School of Law

Prof. Oyetola Oniwide, Ph.D.
Kampala International University, Uganda

Prof. Chuks Okereke, Ph.D.
University of Reading United, Kingdom

Prof. Narenda K. Rustagi, Ph.D.
Howard University School of Business,
Washington, D. C. USA

ABOUT THE JOURNAL

Aims and Scope of the Journal

International Journal of Human Resource Development (IJHRD) is an open access indexed journal at: www.intl-academypam.org

Objectives of the Journal

International Journal of Human Resource Development (IJHRD) is an inter-disciplinary journal published bi-annually, in January and November, by the International Researchers Association, Kampala International University Uganda**.**

The Journal publishes empirical articles, critical reviews and case studies that are of interest to policy makers, scholars and practitioners in any field. The Journal puts particular focus upon issue that are of concern to the Third World. It is the goal of the Journal to advance knowledge in any field. It therefore provides a platform through which scholars and practitioners can share their views, findings and experiences. Articles submitted must be new, original and should not be under consideration for publication elsewhere. Contributions that discuss issues at the national, regional and global level are essentially welcome.

The International Academy of Public Administration and Management (IAPA&M), has the following institutional research collaborations:

- **. International Journal of Social and Management Sciences (IJSMS)**
- **.International Journal of Public Administration & Management (IJPA&M)**
- **International Academy of Public Administration and Management Review (IAPA&MR)**
- **.International Journal of Science and Technology (IJST) and International Journal of Human Resource Development (IJHRD)**

The journals are published in both print and online versions. The online versions are free access and download.

Paper Selection and Publication Process

1. Upon receipt of paper submission, the Editor sends an E-mail of confirmation to the corresponding author within 1-3 working days. If you fail to receive this confirmation, your submission/e-mail may be missed. Please contact the Editor in time for that.
2. Peer review. We use double-blind system for peer-review; both reviewers and authors' identities remain anonymous. The paper will be peer-reviewed by three experts; two reviewers from outside and one editor from the journal typically involve in reviewing a submission. The review process may take 2-3 weeks.
3. Notification of the result of review by E-mail.
4. The authors revise paper and pay publication fee
5. After publication, the corresponding author will receive a copy of printed journals.
6. E-journal in PDF is available on the journal's webpage, free of charge for download.

CALL FOR PAPERS

The editorial board of International Journal of Human Resource Development (IJHRD) invites papers for peer-review in the next volume of the journal.

It is an international, double-blind peer-reviewed, open-access journal. The journal is published in both print and online versions.

All papers related to the following topics are preferred: Public Administration, International Politics, Corporate Governance; Entrepreneurship, Science & technology, Governance and development studies, Human Resource Management, Sociology, Strategic Management Marketing; E-Business; Services, Information Technology Management Production & Operations Management, Financial Management; Decision Analysis, Management Research Methods & Managerial Economics

If you have any appropriate papers, please submit it at: info@intl-academypam.org

For more information visit our website: **www. intl-academypam.org**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE CONTEXT, TRENDS AND TACTICS OF ETHNO-RELIGIOUS CONFLICT IN PLATEAU STATE, NIGERIA 1

CLEMENTINA NGOZI ONYEBUCHI CHIAZOR PHD, ABAH, EMMANUEL OJOGWU PHD & OMALE, DANJUMA 1

WOMEN EMPOWERMENT PROGRAM: A PANACEA FOR POVERTY REDUCTION IN RURAL AREAS OF KOGI STATE..... 25

OMADA, MARGARET ONYEKUNIN PHD[1]& AGBAJI, HANNAH ENONEDEN[2] 25

EFFECTS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT ON EMPLOYMENT CREATION IN KOGI STATE 41

DR. ABDULLAHI MOHAMMED HABEEB, ABUBAKAR AMINAT,ABDULLAHI MOHAMMED MUKTAR & AHMED ABUBAKAR SEDIQ..... 41

MODERATING ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL ACCOUNTANTS IN CURBING CORRUPTION EFFECT ON HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA 63

EGBERE MICHAEL IKECHUKWU, Ph. D, AJAYI, TIJJANI AHMED Ph. D & EGBERE MICHAEL IKECHUKWU, PhD.; 63

EFFECTS OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP ON EMPLOYMENT GENERATION IN KOGI STATE..... 83

DR. ABDULLAHI MOHAMMED HABEEB, ABUBAKAR AMINAT, ABDULLAHI MOHAMMED MUKTAR & AHMED ABUBAKAR SEDIQ . 83

PROFITABILITY EFFECT OF LIQUIDITY RATIO OF NIGERIAN MANUFACTURING COMPANIES 101

EGBERE MICHAEL IKECHUKWU, Ph.D & AJAYI, TIJJANI AHMED Ph. D, ROTIMI, GRACE GIFT PhD & EGBERE MICHAEL IKECHUKWU, Ph.D.; 101

STATISITCAL PERFORMANCE OF HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT OF KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY, ANYIGBA (2009-2019)..... 115

OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph. D) , KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph. D) & -ISAIAH OJOCHENEMI MIRACLE 115

ASSESSMENT OF THE EARNINGS OF EDUCATED PEOPLE AND FORMATION OF HUMAN CAPITAL: THE INTRIQUES IN NIGERIA ... 125

KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph.D), OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph.D), OMOREDE, CHRISTIANA KAYINWAYE [PhD] , ULOKO , FELICIA & ISAIAH OJOCHENEMI MIRACLE 125

ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE OF KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY, ANYIGBA (2009-2019)..... 135

KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph. D) , OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph. D) & OCHIDI, ZEKERI..... 135

CHALLENGES OF HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY ANYIGBA..... 143

OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph.D), PAULINA, ADA AKPA (Ph. D), Aliyu

Abdullahi,PhD & KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph.D) 143
HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIAN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS, A THEORETICAL APPROACH 151
PAULINA, ADA AKPA (Ph.D) KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph.D), BENJAMIN FAITH UGBOJOIDE 151
& OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph.D) 151
HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIAN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS: AN EMPIRICAL APPROACH 167
OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph.D) KUMIJE, DAVID (PH.D), PAULINA, ADA AKPA (Ph.D) , DR.CHRISTINA NGOZI CLEMENTINA 167
AN OVER VIEW OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION TO HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIAN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS 181
KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph.D), OKWOLI, DANIEL MATTHEW (Ph.D) &CLEMENTINA NGOZI ONYEBUCHI CHIAZOr PhD 181
HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT ON ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE: ISSUES, CHALLENGES AND INTERPLAY IN KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY, ANYIGBA NIGERIA. 189
KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph. D) & OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph. D) &OMALE ANTHONY 189
OPEN GOVERNMENT DATA AND PUBLIC SERVICE PRODUCTIVITY ENHANCEMENT IN NIGERIA'S FEDERAL INLAND REVENUE SERVICE 201
EMMANUEL I. OKONMAH PHD, ADESOYE ISIAKA MUSTAPHA PHD & EDEGWARE, GIDEON JESUHOVIE MSC 201
CREATING A MELTING POINT TO DRIVE THE FUTURE WORKSPACE OF NIGERIA 221
DR. OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW & ALFRED, EBOH & OYIBO PAUL 221
TOWARDS THE APPLICATION OF AN ALTERNATIVE PARADIGM TO THE WEBERIAN IDEAL BUREAUCRACY IN THE NIGERIAN PUBLIC SERVICE 229
ADESOYE ISIAKA MUSTAPHA PHD; EMMANUEL I. OKONMAH PHD AND PATIENCE OMAMOR (MRS) 229
THE IMPACT OF POLICE INITIATIVE ON CRIME PREVENTION IN EDO SOUTH SENATORIAL DISTRICT, NIGERIA. 249
JOSEPH UNUFE, Ph.D & BARR. IMA-TINYAN OBARISIAGBON, Ph.D 249
A CRIMINOLOGICAL INQUIRY INTO THE INCIDEDNCE AND PREVALENCE OF CHILDREN AS HOUSE HELPS IN METROPOLITAN BENIN, SOUTHERN NIGERIA 263
BARR. IMA-TINYAN OBARISIAGBON, Ph.D 263

THE CONTEXT, TRENDS AND TACTICS OF ETHNO-RELIGIOUS CONFLICT IN PLATEAU STATE, NIGERIA

CLEMENTINA NGOZI ONYEBUCHI CHIAZOR PHD[1], ABAH, EMMANUEL OJOGWU PHD[2] & OMALE, DANJUMA[3]

Abstract

Plateau State is a complex unit accounting for about 54 of the 400-450 or so ethnic nationalities in the country. Keeping the peace among the various ethnic nationalities has always been difficult. Though there was crisis in 1994 over the creation of Jos South Local Government out of the existing Jos Local Government, but it was the violence of 2001 that shattered the illusion of the state as a 'land of peace and tourism' (Chinedu, 2005).

The collective violence in Plateau State began with urban riots in the state capital of Jos in September 2001. The conflict left over 1000 people dead and spread to rural areas of the Jos Plateau, where there was intermittent violence until the end of 2002 (Adam, 2008). The crises were persistent, recurrent and destructive in the Southern Senatorial Zone. The most affected areas were Kadarko in Wase Local Government, Yelwa in Shendam Local Government Area and Bakin Ciyawa in Quan Pan Local Government Area of the State (Danladi, 2005). This opened the way for numerous other crises involving ethno-religious killings and large-scale destruction of property in the different parts of the states before the Yelwa-Shendam Mayhem of 2004 that brought about the state of emergency. Flowing from the above background, this study is an attempt to explore the contextual implications of the Ethno-religious conflict in Plateau State, Nigeria.

Introduction

The Middle Belt, home of more than half of Nigeria's estimated three hundred ethnic groups, is one of the most volatile and politically explosive regions of Nigeria (Iro, 2011). It is not a formal region or state, rather as its name suggests, it stretches like a wide girdle across the hilly Central Plateau that separates the strongly Islamic cultures of the Hausa, Fulani and Kanuri people in the North from the mainly Christian Ibos in the South East and the South Western Yoruba who have embraced both religions. The Middle Belt is generally considered the birth place of Sub-Saharan Africa's greatest ancient artworks.

[1] Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City.
[2] Department of Public Administration & International Relations, Faculty of Socio-Economic Sciences, Cavendish University Uganda,
[3] Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, Prince Abubakar Audu University Anyigba Nigeria, Omaledanjuma839@gmail.com

Two millennia ago, the region was home to thriving iron working cultures, such as the Nok, which produced famous terra-cotta sculptures of human figures. These people are believed to have emigrated from what is now the Nigerian-Cameroon border area, the source of the Bantu language group that came to dominate much of Eastern, Central and Southern Africa (Osumah, 2011).

In pre-colonial days, the Middle Belt provided a vast reservoir of slaves for the Sokoto caliphate following the Jihad of Usman Dan Fodio. The Emirs made annual pilgrimage to the Sultan with hundreds and sometimes thousands of slaves in town. The result was a massive though largely undocumented internal migration and mixing of ethnic groups. The slaves' experience with Islam made them ripe candidates for conversion to Christianity. After the arrival of the British, the Middle Belt people embraced the new faith of Christianity and its offer of education as a way to raise themselves from their perceived second-class status and to declare their independence from the Islamic emirates. For the same reason, many Middle Belters enlisted in the Nigerian armed forces as a means of rapid social advancement (Iro, 2011).

Since Independence, the Middle Belt has been the scene of frequent flare-ups. The Nigerian and international media describe the frequent clashes as religious riots but, in fact, many of them stem from the minority ethnic groups' attempt to wrench themselves free from what they see as the domination by the Hausa-Fulani establishment. Other eruptions involve disputes between neighboring ethnic groups over land and access to political goods. The people of a given area often claim they are the 'indigenes' and that their enemies are the 'strangers' or the 'settlers' seeking to upset the mythical natural order of things (Osumah, 2011).

These controversies have cracked across the Middle Belt for as long as Nigeria has existed, and they have claimed huge numbers of lives. But they intensified in the 1990s as economic, political, and educational opportunities waned with the collapse of the national economy. Invariably the struggles in the Middle Belt at the end of the twentieth century continued to be argued on the basis of events that occurred hundreds of years before.

Plateau State is inhabited by an estimated 54 ethnic and national groups, many of which are sedentary and some of which are pastoralist. The leading sedentary ethnicities are the Afizere, Anaguta and Berom. Most of the sedentary communities are associated with the Christian faith. The paramount Chief of Jos, the Gbon Gwom Jos, is a Berom and a Christian. Among the Pastoralist communities, the Muslim Fulani and Hausa are the largest. Most of these groups are concentrated in Jos, Capital of Plateau State. This ethnic and sectarian composition of Jos is

important for an understanding of its recent history of cyclical violence and massive violations of human rights (Oluwarotimi, 2010).

The Jos Plateau is approximately 8,600 km. Out of this tin minning devastated an area of about 316 km, representing about 4% of the entire Plateau surface. The Jos Plateau has abundant tin ore and associated columbine mineral deposits. Long before 1880s, the local people mined and smelted tin stones in small traditional ways, which they used in timing brassware. In 1884, some British traders from the Royal Niger Company found out that the tin used by the Hausa metal workers was actually mined in Nigeria and not as they had thought from across the Sahara Desert. They traced the metal to the local smelters on the Jos Plateau. Consequently in 1886, the British government granted exclusive mining right over the Jos Plateau area to the Royal Niger Company.

Subsequently, the company carried out intensive expeditions in search of tin. These expeditions discovered substantial deposits of tin ore on the Plateau. Soon after that, several companies were established to work on the tin fields. Between 1909 and 1912, the number of mining companies increased from 1–40 and reached 139 by 1955. Throughout the period, the companies were engaged in aggressive open cast mining of tin, making Nigeria the world's largest exporter of tin and columbine at the time (Luke, 2010). The booming tin industry engendered the influx of people from different parts and ethno-cultural nationalities to Jos for commerce and tourism (Falola, 1998).

The town of Jos, a city established in 1915 as a tin transportation camp in early history was closely linked to the prosperity of the tin mining industry. Accordinv to the 1952 census figures, Christians formed 84.5 percent of the population of Jos town, with Muslims making 12 percent and adherents to traditional religions the remaining 3.5 percent. Today, Plateau State enjoys a majority Christian population of about 95 percent, while Jos town itself is overwhelmingly Christian (Umar Habila, 2010).

Cases, Trends and Tactics of Violent Conflicts

There had in the past been inter-ethnic rivalry to secure the domination of government by one ethnic group or combination of ethnic groups to the exclusion of others. Today, the Middle Belt States rely heavily on federal government allocations because they have few opportunities for internal revenue generation. The belt has the least number of industries, educational and other federal institutions. The Middle Belt peasants are among the poorest and most over-worked, because they produce the food that feeds the nation, but which is not enough to pay for the necessities or the luxuries of life (Agbese, 2007).

As noted earlier, Plateau State is a complex unit accounting for about 54 of the 400–450 or so ethnic nationalities in the country. Keeping the peace among the various ethnic nationalities has always been difficult. Though there was crisis in 1994 over the creation of Jos South Local Government out of the existing Jos Local Government, but it was the violence of 2001 that shattered the illusion of the state as a 'land of peace and tourism' (Chinedu, 2005).

The collective violence in Plateau State began with urban riots in the state capital of Jos in September 2001. The conflict left over 1000 people dead and spread to rural areas of the Jos Plateau, where there was intermittent violence until the end of 2002 (Adam, 2008). The crises were persistent, recurrent and destructive in the southern senatorial zone. The most affected areas were Kadarko in Wase Local Government, Yelwa in Shendam Local Government Area and Bakin Ciyawa in Quan Pan Local Government Area of the State (Danladi, 2005). This opened the way for numerous other crises involving ethno-religious killings and large-scale destruction of property in the different parts of the states before the Yelwa-Shendam Mayhem of 2004 that brough about the state of emergency.

Reprisal attacks were done with precision making violence to spread through thousands of square kilometers of the low lands. After clashes between Muslims and Christians in Yelwa (a commercial hub in Shendam Local Government Area) on the 26th of June, 2002, no fewer than 6 local government areas in the southern and central cenatorial zones of Plateau State were affected between June 2002 and May 2004. The violence also spilled over into some of the border villages in Taraba State, where militias and people internally displaced from Plateau State were camping. More than one hundred villages destroyed in attacks by well armed militias. The violence resembled guerilla warfare, without ever being principally directed against the state although, the army and mobile police were important targets and actors.

Mobilization occurred very quickly after the initial clashes in Yelwa. Armed groups emerged over a large area and violence soon spread. Local responses to the sudden insecurity varied, with many villages by necessity taking flight. In most instances, no prompting or elite manipulation was needed to mobilize people. Militias mobilize along religious or ethnic lines, typically with a localized support base, specific to each village. The fact that the violence was not contained raised doubts about the effectiveness and impartiality to the state. How and why did a seemingly localized conflict in Yelwa precipitate other outbreaks so rapidly in multiple local government areas?

The violence in Yelwa in 2002 and 2004 was linked to the wider conflicts in the low

lands, particularly Wase, and the same actors were involved in some of the main incidents. The local government areas (LGAs) directly affected by the violence were Wase, Langtang North and South, Kanam, Mikang and Shendam, as well as border villages in Taraba State.

The pattern of violence was internally variegated within the affected zone, but most of it occurred along religious lines, between Muslims and Christians or traditional worshippers. In the aftermath of the 2022 Yelwa clashes, some of the Tarok people living in Yelwa fled to Langtang South, where they are a majority. Tensions were raised as the impact of the violence on the Tarok in Yelwa was conveyed, and in the following days there were reprisal attacks against Muslims in Langtang South (Adam, 2008).

When the Plateau State Government conducted the November 27, 2008 council polls in Jos North Local Council, the violence that broke out on November 28, 2008 left over 400 people dead while property worth billions of Naira were destroyed in the process on both sides of the religious divide-the Moslems and Christians. Places of worships were not spread as mosques and churches were burnt (*The Guardian*, 2009).

In January 2009, Jose city and its environs witnessed another blood-spilling call. Residents witnessed another riotous atmosphere which caused much loss in terms of human and material resources. This was followed with the senseless massacre of innocent women and children at Dyemburuk (Dogo Nahawa) and other surrounding villages in Jos South and Barkin Ladi Local Government Areas.

The ugly trend reared its head again on July 17 when the sleepy, rocky, serene village of Mazah in Jos North Local Government Area was attacked by ‘unknown person’. Several lives mostly women and children as usual were lost, many injured, a church vandalized and residential buildings set ablaze (Ayuba and Marie-Theresa, 2010). The table below offers some insight into the character of dynamics of the conflicts.

Table 1: Dates of Violent Clashes

DATE OF INCIDENT	CAUSES	LOCATION	PERPETRATORS	CASUALTIES

1994	Local council election dispute between Christopher Sarki Jang and Teacher Usman	Jos	Moslem settler / Christian indigene	Destruction of lives and properties.
Friday September 7th 2001	Ethno religious. A woman who had disagreement with Muslims who were observing Friday's prayers.	Congo Russia of Jos North local council	Fulani / Muslims	About 1000 people were killed and properties destroyed.
June 2002	Ethno-religious	Yelwa	Fulani, Cattle rearers	71 natives of Yelwa
February 2004	Ethno-religious	Yelwa	Muslims	71 Christians including 47 who were massacred in church.
May 2004	Political; A particular ethnic group felt they were being cheated in the conduct of local council elections especially in Jos North.	Jos	Christians/ Muslims, Taroh, Jukun, Guemai and Kwalla ethnic groups and the Hausa Fulani	Loss of lives and properties. Declaration of a state of emergency, suspension of government Dariye's regime.
November 2008	Political; change of collation centre by	Jos	Party agents	Many lives and property were destroyed.

	PLASEIC			
January 2009	Reprisal; November 08' crisis	Jos	Muslims/ Christians	Scores were brutally hacked to death.
January 17th – 19th 2010	The disagreement among 2 groups of youths in Nasarawa Gwom areas over an attempt by a man to rebuild his house burnt during the Nov' 08' crisis.	Nasarawa Grom, Kuru – Jenta, Bukuru and so on	Youths	Several killings, burnings and destruction of properties.
January 17th – 19th 2010	The disagreement among 2 groups of youths in Nasarawa Gwom areas over an attempt by a man to rebuild his house burnt during the Nov' 08' crisis.	Nasarawa Grom, Kuru – Jenta, Bukuru and so on	Youths	Several killings, burnings and destruction of properties.
February 18th 2010	Protest as a result of alleged refusal to allow a lost relative to be buried at a burial ground.	Farin Gada area of Jos North local government area	Settlers	Killed an Igbo trader.
March 7th	Reprisal;	Dogon Na	Fulani herdsmen	Torching houses

– 9th 2010	attacks over the alleged killing in the January mayhem	Hausa, Retsat and Jeji villages		and hacking down villagers, killing mostly women and under aged children.
March 17th 2010	Ethno – religion	Byei village in Riyom local government area	Fulani herdsmen	Lives were lost among those slain were 6 women including a pregnant woman who was burnt with a child strapped on her back.
March 19th 2010	Clashes between security men and students	Jos campus of the Plateau State Polytechnic	Students and security men	Loss of lives, smashed cars.
March 25th 2010	A fracas after a football match	Bukuri area	Youths	Injuring innocent passerby.
April 6th 2010	Ethno-religious	Rwang Pam stadium, Nasarawa Gwom, Dogon Dutse and Dutse Uku areas.	Hoodlums	Deaths of many.
April 11th 2010	Reprisal attack of January 19, 2010	Kuru Jenta in Jos South L.G.A	Fulanis	Two houses were torched.

April 12th 2010	-	Dadin – Kowa area of Jos	-	An explosion that chopped off the hands of an 18 year old and injuring his two roommates.
April 18th 2010	Alleged response to a distress call in a short-out	Bisichi in Barking Ladi L.G.A.	Special task force.	Two peoples were shot dead.
April 19th – 20th 2010	Ethno – religion	Rim and Tass	Fulani herdsmen	12 people were killed and travelers attacked at the Abuja – Jos highway.
April 24th 2010	Ethno – religion	Yanshanu area in Jos	Mob	Two journalist were killed.
May 22nd – 23rd 2010	Ethno – religion	Tusum village of Barkin Ladi L.G.A.	Fulani herdsmen	Killing of innocent people, paralyzing the city.
June 6th – 9th 2010	Ethno – religion, over the Bann by the government on the operation of commercial motorcycles in the state.	Plateau state capital	Protesters	Attacked ECWA good news church.
July 17th 2010	Reprisal attack	Mazah, a hilly village in Jos North local government area	Fulani people	Seven people were killed, some houses and a church was torched.

October 25th 2010	Reprisal attack	Rawhinku village in Bassa local government area	Hoodlums	Six people including 2 women and 4 children were killed, injured innocent residents of the village.
November 3rd 2010	A rumor that explosives had been planted in the premises of the high court	Jos high court		
November 16th 2010	A clash with security men who tried to check reckless riding of motorcycles	Dogon Karfe area		A staff of the Plateau state water board was among those killed while several others were injured. A police van was smashed and shops along constitution hill road were vandalizes.
December 3rd 2010	Reprisal attack	Rikwe Chongu in Bassa L.C.A	Hoodlums	8 people were killed, 4 injured.
December 13th 2010	The erection of a fence round St. Michael Pri. Sch. by the Jos North L.G.A.	Nasarawa Gwom area	Youths	
December 13th 2010	The erection of a fence round St. Michael Pri. Sch. by the Jos North	Nasarawa Gwom area	Youths	

	L.G.A.			
December 20th 2010	Ethno – religion	Gongoshong village near K-Vom in Jos South L.G.A	Cattle rearers	Killed 3 people and theft of 40 cows.
December 24th 2010	Ethno – religion; leading to reprisal attacks	7 explosions occurred in two parts of the state capital on Christmas eve at Kabong on Zaria rd, and Eto Baba in Angwan Rububa, Jos	Jama'ata ahlus sunnah lid da' await wal jihad	Many dead and several scores injured.

Source: Abah's Field Survey, 2012

The year 2010 was an eventful year on the Jos Plateau area, in which an unprecedented number of lives were lost, persons displaced, and property destroyed. The year of unending tension for the people began with the January 17-19 crises which were sparked off by a disagreement among two groups of youth in Nasarawa Gwom areas over an attempt by a man to rebuild his house which was burnt during the November, 2008 crisis. February 18, 2010 saw another uprising in Farin Gada area of Jos North Local Government area alter some people protested the alleged refusal to allow them bury a lost relation at a burial ground in the area. Hundreds of people mostly women and children were massacred at Dogon Na Hauwa, Retsat and Jeji villages when suspected Fulani Herdsmen launched what was termed reprisal attacks over the alleged killing of their kith and kin in the January mayhem between March 7 and 9.

On March 17, 19 and 25, 2010 thirteen people were killed at Byrd village in Riyom Local Government Area by suspected Fulani herdsmen, A student of the Jos campus of the Plateau Polytechnic was killed and six others injured following a clash between the security men and a fracas after a football match in Bukuru area resulting in pandemonium respectively.

In the month of April alone, three people were allegedly killed in Jos after an inter-dominational service organized by the Jos North Local Government Area chapter of the Christian Association of Nigeria (CAN) held at the Rwang Pam Stadium on the 6“" The violence spread to Dogon

Dutse and Dutse Uku areas resulting in several deaths. On the 11th, two houses were attacked at Kuru Jenta in Jos South Local Government Area allegedly by the Fulani on a revenge mission over the killing of their relatives at the January 19th attack on the village.

These cases of violent conflicts were usually carried out at odd hours of the night and with different tactics (Taye, 2011). For example, 21-year old Ibrahim Abubakar was arrested by members of the Military Special Task Force in Jos for allegedly poisoning a well (Jude 2011). At other cases, reprisal attacks were carried out under the cover of night with the Victims having no premonition of what was to come. The lucky survivors watched as their loved ones were cut, clubbed, beaten and some shot to death (Isa 2010). At other instances, bombs were detonated leading to the loss of lives and properties.

Implications of Violent Conflict

Jos, the Plateau State capital is now akin to cold war period Berlin: A divided city. Except that unlike Berlin divided by post World War 2, powers, Jos city’s spasm is by choice of residents. The Christians and Moslems now live in enclaves where their kith and kin live. There is little or no conscious interaction. The two main religious groups’ adherents stalk each other and there. is no love lost between them. The city came to this sorrowful past since the Christmas Eve of 2010 when a series of bomb explosions rocked the city simultaneously. Since then, there have been other explosions and daily shootings resulting in countless deaths.

Along the line, there was an exodus of people from the state, those who opted to stay, moved to areas where fellow adherents of their religion were in dominance. The state has now been polarized along ethnic and religious divides. For example, the indigenes that are predominantly Christian stay in some settlements with other Christian settlers while the Hausa/Fulani extractions who are predominantly Moslems stay in some areas with other Moslems settlers. Some Christians have refused to visit their Hausa Muslim associates and vice versa for fear of being killed. Even before the last bomb blasts, residents have harbored the fear of something scary happening. There are instances of people missing in suspicious-circumstances and of others who were foolhardy enough to wander into “enemy territory” who never returned home. That was how 3 innocent journalists were brutally killed in 2010. They were reportedly stopped, questioned and slaughtered

without committing any known offence besides belonging to a different religion (Isa, 2010).

With the new introduction of dynamites and explosives into the fray, residents do not feel safe including the security agents because no one knows where a bomb has been planted. Residents may know when someone is fumbling with an object on the ground or the person's action or movement is suspicious and questionable. Besides all these, the residents of Jos and environs have imposed self-curfew. As soon as it is 7.00pm, the streets are almost deserted. That was why the governor had to issue a statement that he had neither imposed a curfew nor was he contemplating doing so. Yet, the night life in Jos is nothing to write home about. People are now scared more than before because in one of the recently affected areas in Angwan Rukuba, a social joint where people were drinking to usher in Christmas celebration was bombed.

Economic activities have also been paralyzed by continuous violent conflicts. Hotel operations in Jos are experiencing a drop in business activities following the prolonged crisis that has engulfed the state. Best Mildred, General Manager of Hill Station Hotel Jos said, "hotel business is completely dead in Jos, as you can see. The-hotel is empty. Few people occasionally come around and this is not good 'for the business". This was corroborated by Ajayi Dotu, Manager New Era Hotels, Jos, who said "New Era is experiencing zero patronage". According to him, the present situation is the worst ever (*Business Day* 2011:6).

The incessant violent conflicts and killings in Plateau State have led to internal displacement and serious refugee crisis in the state and neighboring states of Bauchi and Nasarawa respectively.

Responses and recommendations to Violent Conflicts

There is no denying the fact that Jos, the once peaceful tourist haven and capital of Plateau state, has become a metaphor for violence, a killing field where innocent citizens are slaughtered daily. Thus, there have been several responses to the violent conflicts pervading the Jos, Plateau.

Indeed, the crisis became a test case for the survival of the Nigerian Nation during the tempestuous month when late President Umaru Yar'Adua was lying critically ill at the king Fahd Hospital and Research Centre, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. There was a vacuum in the leadership resulting from Yar'Adua's inability to constitutionally transfer power to the then Vice President Goodluck Jonathan. Within this period, another crisis had erupted in Jos in January 2010, leading to the deployment of troops by Jonathan to quell the riots.

On February 1st, 2010, Jonathan inaugurated a committee mandated to critically examine the issues surrounding recurrent violence in the state, and work out modalities to ensure that crisis was resolved once and for all. The committee, initially made up of 15 members, had Solomon Lar, former governor of Plateau state, as chairman, with another state man Yahaya Kwande, as co-chairman. The initial 15 members were representatives of the indigenous Berom and Hausa-Fulani settlers. Later, it was expanded to include representatives of other settler ethnic groups from the southern part of the country.

Before this time, the state governments on their part had set up many commissions of inquiry to unravel those behind previous disturbances but the recommendations of such inquiries were never implemented. There was the Justice Rekiya Momoh Commission, the Justice Aribition Fiberisima Commission, the Justice Bola Ajibola Commission alongside another commission set up by the federal government headed by Gen. Emmanuel Abisoye, which did not see the light of the day as another crisis erupted just before the panelists could settle down to do their work. It quickly wound up.

After the 2008 clashes, two commissions of inquiry were set up respectively by the federal government and the Plateau state government. The federal panel was the one headed by Emmanuel Abisoye, a retired Major General while the Plateau panel was chaired by Bola Ajibola, a jurist of international repute. Both panels were dogged by controversy as there were accusations and counter accusations of bias and partisanship against both panels. This inevitably encumbered their work.

The Federal High Court in Jos on Thursday 16th December 2010, sentenced 15 persons to 10 years each for their part in the violent crisis in Jos on March 8th, 2010. Delivering the judgment, Justice A.L. Allagon said the prosecution counsel, Charles Maduenyi, proved beyond reasonable doubt that the suspects were guilty of the offences. The prosecution counsel said after the judgment that he was satisfied with the decision "I believe the judgment will serve as a deterrent to those who think that Jos is an environment of lawlessness. Our criminal law and justice will catch up with anyone who thinks he can disrupt the peace of the state at will. I also hope that this judgment will help to restore the peace to the Plateau" (*Business Day*, 2010:9).

As part of its contribution to end the protracted crisis, the National Institute for Policy and Strategies Studies (NIPSS); Kuru conducted a policy and action: oriented research into the-effective management of the perennial violence in the state capital and its environs. The study was aimed at promoting lasting peace in the state through practical intervention strategies in the crises. The Institute which is located near Jos said the unfortunate crises are worrisome because they have dire

implications on the peace, security and development not only on the state but also of the whole Nigeria (Isa, 2011).

Restive youths numbering 'about 300 have been drawn from the main conflict flash points of Jos North, Jos South and Bassa Local Councils of Plateau State to participate in an eight day induction training at the Citizenship and Leadership Training Came, Shere Hills, Lamingo, Jos. President of the Institute of Governance and Social Research (IGSR), Prof. Jonah Isawa Elaigwu, said the youths are from different backgrounds and religions and hoped that by the time they complete the program, their minds would have been purged of anything that is evil and dangerous. The theme of the workshop according to Elaigwu is ‘peace in Jos: Arresting the cycle of violence. He lamented that rich Nigerians use their wealth to generate more violence without investing it in meaningful ventures that would benefit the society (Isa 2011).

Similarly, the young Ambassadors for Community Peace and Inter-faith Foundation (YACPIF) has engaged youths in the legislative arms of Jos north and south local government areas in football competition aimed at forging unity among them. President of the non-governmental organization (YACPIF) Reverend Yakubu Pam, at the event, emphasized the need for cordial and peaceful co-existence in Jos, which has become a miniature Nigeria because of it plurality. Pam pointed out that his organization since inception has been able to bring thousands of Muslims and Christians youths together for “peace building” in the state.

The cleric at the Jos peace-cup competition at Bukuru mini stadium, said his organization has successfully brought peace to more than seven communities in Jos North, Jos South and Riyom local government areas of the state. He added that the diverse ethnic and community groups in the state must be told to embrace peace (Onoya, 2010).

References

Adam, H. (2008). “Social Mobilization and Collective Violence: Vigilantes and Militias in the Lowlands of Plateau State, Central Nigeria” in David Pratten (ed.) *Perspectives on Vigilantism in Nigeria,* Special Issue *Africa,* Vol. 78, No.1.

Adebanwi, W. (2007). “Territoriality and the Discourse of Ethnic Groups’ Clashes”, *Nationalism and Ethnic Politics,* 13, (2): 213-243.

Agbese, P. O. (2007). “The Middle Belt and the National Question in Nigeria” in Eghosa Osaghae and Ebere Onwudiwe (eds.) *The Management of the National Question in Nigeria,* Igbenedion University Press, Okada.

Adeniyi, M.O. (1993). "Religion and Politics: An Eye-Bird's View of Development in Nigeria" in Akamidu, R.A. et. al (eds.) *Religion and Politics in Nigeria,* Ilorin: Nigerian Association for the Study of Religion (NASR).

Agarwal, A. et al., (1994). *Principles of Political Science,* (Fifteenth Edition), New Delhi: R. Chand & Co.

Agbaje, O. (2005). "The U.S. Intelligence Report", *The Guardian,* Tuesday, June 14.

Aghedo, I. and Osumah, O. (2009). 'When the Panacea Becomes the Problem: The Niger Delta Question and the Federal Solution in Nigeria', *The Nigerian Journal of Politics and Public Policy,* Vol. 5, Nos. l and 2.

Aghemelo, T.A. and Osumah, O. (2009). *Nigerian Government and Politics: An Introductory Perspective,* Benin City: Mara Mon Bros & Ventures Ltd.

Ake, C. (1996). "The Political Question" in Oyeleye Oyediran (ed.) *Governance and Development in Nigeria: Essays in Honour of Professor Billy Dudley,* Ibadan: Agbo Areo Publishers, pp. 22-32.

Akindele, R.A. (2006). *'Modern Methods of Managing Violent Conflicts',* Ibadan: University Press Ltd.

Alanamu, S. A. (2004). "Ethno-Religious Conflict in Nigeria" in *African Profile,* Vol. 1, No. 1.

Albert, O. (1999). "New Directions in the Management of Community Conflicts in Nigeria: Insights from the Activities of AAPW" in Onigu Otite and Isaac Olawale Albert (eds.) *Community Conflicts in Nigeria,* Ibadan: Spectrum **Books.**

Alkali, R. A. (1997). "The World Bank and Structural Adjustment in Nigeria: Lesson for Vision 2010", *Africa Review,* Vol. 1, No.1.

Auty, R. M. (1993). *Sustaining Development in Mineral Economies: The Resource Curse Thesis.* London: Routledge.

Ayuba, P. and Marie – Theresa, P. (2010). "Plateau: Not yet at ease", *The Nation* on Sunday, August 1, 2010.

Bellahi, R. (1970). *Beyond Belief,* New York: Harper and Row.

Business Day (2010). "Jos Crisis: 15 Jailed 10 Years Each", December 19.

Business Day (2011). "Jos Crisis: Hotel Opertors Decry Lull in Business" January 23.

Business Day (2011). "STF and Jos" February 2.

Business Day (2011). "Release Jos Crisis Panel Report Now", March 2.

Chabal, P. *and* Daloz, J.P. (2006). *Culture Troubles: Politics and the Interpretation of Meaning,* United Kingdom: C. Hurst *and* Co. (Publishers) Ltd.

Chinedu, N.U. (2005). *State of Emergency as Crisis Management Strategy. The Case of Plateau State,* Kaduñá: Nigeria Defense Academy.

Coady, C.A.J. (1999). "The Idea of Violence" in Manfred B. Stager and Nancy S. Lind (eds.) *Violence and Alternatives. An Interdisciplinary Reader,* New York: St. Martins Press.

Coleman, J.S. (1986). *Nigeria: Background to Nationalism.* Benin City: Broburg and Wistrom.

Collier et. al (2003). *Breaking the Conflict Trap: Civil War and Development Policy,* Washington D.C: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank.

Danladi, J.G. (2005). *The Press, Emergency Rule and Conflict Management in Plateau State,* Kaduna: Nigeria Defense Academy.

Dawha, E.M.K. (1999). *'Yan Daba, 'Yan Banga and 'Yan Daukar Amarya: A Study of Criminal Gangs in Northern Nigeria.*

Deeka, M. (2003), "Movement for the Survival of Ogoni People and the Struggle for Democracy in Nigeria" in Tunde Babawale (ed.) *Urban Violence, Ethnic Militias and the Challenges of Democratic Consolidation in Nigeria,* Lagos: Malthouse Press Limited.

Dibie, R. (2000). *Understanding Public Policy in Nigeria: A Twenty-First Century Approach,* Lagos: Mbeyi & Associates (Nig.) Ltd.

Dowse, R. E. and Hughes, J. A. (1982). *Political Sociology,* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Egwaikhide, F.O. and Isumonah, V.A. (2001). "Nigeria Paralysed: Socio-Political Life under General Sani Abacha", *African Development,* XXVI, (3&4): 219- 241.

Egwu, S.G. (2001). *Ethnic and Religious Violence in Nigeria,* Jos: St. Stephen Inc Book House.

Ellis, S. (2003). "Violence and History: A Response to Thandika Mkandawire", *The Journal of Modern African Studies,* 41(3): 457-475.

Falola, T. (1998). *Violence in Nigeria: The crisis of religious, political and secular ideologies,* New York: University of Rochester press, Rochester.

Fayeye, J.O. (2006). "The Social Construction of Aggression: A Review of Inter-Religious Conflicts in Nigeria" in Hassan A. Saliu. Ayodeje Jimoh, Fearon, J.D. and Laitin, D.D. (2000) "Violence and the Social Construction of Ethnic Identity", *International Organization* 54 (4): 845-877.

Fred-Mensah, and Ben, K. (2000). 'Bases of traditional conflict management among the Buems of the Ghana-Togo border' in I. William Zartman (ed.), *Traditional Cures for Modern Conflicts. African Conflict 'Medicine'* Boulder, Colorado, Lynne Rienner Publishers.

Harnischfeger, J. (2003) "The Bakassi Boys: Fighting Crime in Nigeria", *Journal of Modern African Studies,* 41(1): 23-49.

Held, D. (1992). "The Development of the Modern State" in Stuart I-fall and Bram Gieben (eds) *Formation of Modernity,* Oxford Polity Press.

Human Rights Watch Report (2009), *Arbitrary killings by Security Forces,* submission to the investigative Bodies on the November 28th – 29th, 2008 Violence in Jos, Plateau State, Nigeria.

Humphreys, M. (2005). "Natural Resources, Conflict, and Conflict Resolution: Uncovering the Mechanisms" *Journal of Conflict Resolution,* 49(4): 508-537.

Ibeanu, O, *and* Luckjam, R. (2007). "Nigeria: Political Violence, Governance and Corporate Responsibility in a Petro-State", in M. Kaldor et al (eds.) *Oil Wars.* London: Pluto Press.

Ibrahim, J. (2003)."Organizing Civil Society for Conflict Management in Nigeria" in T.A. Imobighe (ed. *Civil Society and Ethnic Conflict Management in Nigeria,* Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.

Idahosa, S.A. (1997). "Issues and Problems in Nigerian Politics- Tribes, Ethnicism and Regionalism" in R.F. Ola (ed.) *Nigerian Political System,*

Inputs, Outputs and Environment, Benin City: Imprint Services, pp. 208-239.

Ikelegbe, A.O. (2005). "Engendering Civil Society: Oil, Women Groups and Resource Conflicts in the Niger Delta Region" in *Journal of Modern African Studies,* Cambridge University Press; 43, 2

Ikelegbe, A. (2006). "Beyond the Threshold of Civil Struggle: *Youth* Militancy and the Militia-ization of the Resource Conflict in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria", *African Study Monographs,* 27 (3): 87-122.

Imobighe, T.A. (2003A). "Introduction: Civil Society, Ethnic Nationalism and Nation Building in Nigeria" in T.A. Imobighe (ed.) *Civil Society and Ethnic Conflicts Management in Nigeria,* Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.

Imobighe, T.A. (2003B). "Ethnicity and Ethnic Conflicts in Nigeria: An Overview" in T.A. Imobighe (ed.) *Civil Society and Ethnic Conflicts Management in Nigeria,* Ibadan Spectrum Books Limited.

Iyaji, F. (1986). "The Primitive Accumulation of Capital in a Neo-colony: The Nigerian Case, *Review of African Political Economy* Vol. 35, pp. 27-39.

Isa, A. (2011). "300 Jos Youths Undergo Leadership Training", *The Guardian,* March 17.

Isa, A. (2011). "NIPSS Joins Search for Solution t Plateau Crises', *The Guardian,* Mach 17.

Isa, A. (2010). "Jos Crises: The Chasm Bows, Arrows, Guns or Bombs Won't Heal" *The Guardian,* December.

Isa A. (2010). "When Violence, Death Stalked the People on the Plateau", *The Guardian,* March 12.

Jega, A. M. (2002). "Tackling Ethno-religious Conflicts in Nigeria", *Newsletter of Social Science Academy of Nigeria,* September, Vol. 5, No. 2.

Jude, O. (2011). "Jos Crisis: Undergraduate Arrested for Poisoning Water Source" *The Punch,* March 16.

Le Billon, P. (2001), "The Political Ecology of War: Natural Resources and Armed Conflicts", *Political Geography,* 20: 561-584.

Leatherman, J. and Vayrynen, R. (1995). 'Conflict Theory and Resolution Directions for Collaborative Research Policy", *Cooperation and Conflict,* Vol. 39 (1).

Lijphart, A. (1977). The Power-sharing Approach', *Conflict and Peacemaking in Multiethnic Societies,* Joseph V. Monttvilled (ed.), Lexington: Lexington.

Luke, O. (2010). "Jos Massacre: Ecological Dimension and Way Out", *The Guardian,* March 30.

Mail, H. (2000). *The Peacemakers: Peace Settlement of Disputes Since 1945*, London: Macmillan Press.

Maier, K. (1999). *Nigeria: A Second Chance.* UNHCR/Centre for Documentation and Research: WRITENEF Paper No.14/1999, Geneva: UNHCR.

Maclver, R.M. (1946). *The Modern State,* London.

Meagher, K. (2007). "Hijacking Civil Society: The Inside Story of the Bakassi Boys Vigilante Group of South-Eastern Nigeria", *Journal of Modern African Studies,* 45 (1): 89-115.

Merkel, P.H. (1967). *Political Continuity and Change,*------: Harper, and Row Publishers.

Mustapha, A.R. (1986). "The National Question and Radical Politics in Nigeria" *Review of African Political Economy,* 13 (37): 81-96.

Mustapha, AR. (2007). "Institutionalising Ethnic Representation: How Effective is the Federal Character Commission in Nigeria?" University of Oxford, Centre for Research on Inequality, Human Security and Ethnicity, CRISE: Working Paper No. 43.

Newswatch (2010) "Jos Crisis is more than Religious" April 19.

Nnoli, O. (1978). *Ethnic Politics in Nigeria,* Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishers.

Nnoli, O. (1980). *Ethnic Politics in Nigeria,* Enugu: Fourth Dimension.

Obadare, E. (2007). "Religious NGOs, Civil Society and the Quest for a Public Sphere in Nigeria", *African Identities, 5,* (1): 135-153.

Obi, C.L. (2001). *The Changing Forms of Identity Politics in Nigeria Under Economic Adjustment: The Case of the Oil Minorities Movement of the*

Niger Delta. Upsalla: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet, Research Report No. 119.

Odey, M.O. (2005). *Religious Crises and Implications for the Democratic Process in Nigeria,* being paper presented at Nigerian Defence Academy National Conference on Crisis and Conflict Management in Nigeria Since 1980, 15th – 17th June.

Ogoh, A. (2004). "*Citizenship and Nation Making in Nigeria: New Challenges and Contestations*", CODESPIA and ICES.

Oluwarotimi, A. (2010). "Nigeria: Tackling the Challenges of Nationhood (2)" *The Guardian,* October 24.

Omeje, K. (2006). "The Rentier State: Oil-Related Legislation and Conflict in the Niger Delta", *Conflict. Security and Development,* 6, (2): 211-230.

Onoja, A. (2010). "Christian, Muslim Youths in Jos Nite", *Daily Independence,* December 27.

Onuoha, G.N. (2005). *Ethno-Religious Conflicts in Nigeria,* being paper presented at Nigerian Defence Academy National Conference on Crisis and Conflict Management in Nigeria Since 1980, 15th – 17th June.

Opperheim, R. (1964). *How Nations Negotiate,* New York: Harper and Row Publishers.

Orngu, C.S. (2008). "Incidences of Irredentism in Nigeria Since in 1999: Echoes of the Civil War" in Adejo, Armstrong Matiu (ed.) *The Nigerian Civil War: Forty Year After, What Lessons,* Makurdi: Aboki Publishers.

Osaghae, E.E. (2002). *Crippled Giant: Nigeria Since Independence,* Ibadan: John Archer.

Osaghae, E.E. (2007). "Fragile State", *Development in Practice,* Vol. 17, Nos. 4-5, August, pp. 691-699.

Osaghae, E.E. (1999). "Exiting from the existing State in Nigeria", *African Journal of Political Science,* 4, (l): 89-98.

Osaghae, E.E. (2002). "The Federal Solution and the National Question, in Nigeria", in A. Momoh, and S. Adejumobi (eds.) *The National Question in Nigeria Comparative Perspectives.* London: Ashgate Publishing.

Osaghae, E.E. and R.T. Suberu, (2005). "A History of Identities, Violence, and

Stability in Nigeria", University of Oxford, Centre for Research on inequality, Human Security and Ethnicity, CRISE Working Paper No. 6. University of Oxford: CRISE.

Osumah, O. (2010). *Fundamentals of Government and Politics: Concept, Issues and Analysis*, Benin City: Amfitop.

Osumah, O. (2009). "The challenges of conducting research in violent conflict areas", in *the Nigerian Army Quarterly Journal,* Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 146-174.

Osumah, O, and Okor, P. (2009). *Implementation of Millennium Development Goals (MGDs) and National Security: A Strategic Thinking,* being a paper presented at the 2nd International Conference on Millennium Development Goals and the Challenges in Africa held at Delta State University, Abraka, June 7-10.

Otite, O. (1990). *Ethnic Pluralism and Ethnicity in Nigeria,* Ibadan: Shaneson Limited.

Otite, O. (1999). "On Conflicts, their Resolution, Transformation, and Management," in Otite, O. and Albert, I.O. (eds.) *Community Conflicts in Nigeria: Management, Resolution and Transformation,* Ibadan: Spectrum Books.

Peel, M. (2005). "Crisis in the Niger Delta: How Failures of Transparency and Accountability are Destroying the Region", Chatham House: *Africa Programme,* 7 (1).

Peter, V.V. (1988). "Religion" in Barnard, A. et. al (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Social and Cultural Anthropology,* New York: Routhledge.

Ross, M. (1999). "The Political Economy of the Resource Curse", *World Politics,* 51: 297-322.

Saturday Vanguard (2011). "2010: Year of remaining rises in Plateau State", January 1.

Saadu (2006). Inter-*religious conflicts in Nigeria*, Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishers.

Sesay, A. et al (eds.) (2003). *Ethnic Militias and the Future of Democracy in Nigeria.* Ile-Ife: Obafemi Awolowo University Press.

Smith, D.J. (2007). *A Culture of Corruption: Everyday Deception and Popular*

Discontent in Nigeria. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Strauss, D.F.M. (2006). "The Rise of the Modern' (idea of the) State", *Politikon South African Journal of Political Studies,* Vol. 33, No. 2, pp. 183-195.

Suberu, R. (2006), "Federalism and Ethnic Conflict: The Nigerian Experience", in D. Turton (ed.) *Ethnic Federalism: The Ethiopian Experience in Comparative Perspective.* Oxford: James Currey.

Suberu, R. (2008). "The Supreme Court and Federalism in Nigeria", *Journal of African Studies,* 46, 3.

Taye, O. (2011). "2010: Year of Unending Crises in Plateau States" *Saturday Vanguard,* January 1.

Tell (2011:53). "Saving the Killing Field", *Tell* March 21.

The Guardian (2009). "How to Avert the Seven Year Recurring, Jos Crises", January 14.

The Guardian (2011) "How Bombs Were Exploded in Jos", December 26.

The Guardian, (2011), "Jos Crises: The Protector, his Problems", March 15.

The Nation, (2010), "Small Arms Scourge: Its Time Government Clamped Down on Illegal Arms Maker", October 14.

Thomas, A.N. (2008). "The Unfinished War: State Decay, Ethnic Militia and the Socialization of the Nigerian Civil War" in Adejo, Armstrong Matiu (ed.) *The Nigerian Civil War: Forty Year After, What Lessons,* Makurdi: Abok Publishers.

Turpin, J. and Kurtz, L. R. (1999) "Untangling the Web of Violence" in Manfred B. Stager and Nancy S. Lind (eds.) *Violence and Alternatives: An Interdisciplinary Reader,* New York: St. Martins Press.

Ukeje, C. and Adebanwi, W. (2008). "Ethno-Nationalist Claims in Southern Nigeria: Insights from Yoruba and Ijaw Nationalism since the 1990s", *Ethnic and Racial Studies,* 31, (3): 563-591.

Umar, H. and Dadem, D. "The Jos Peace Conference and the indigene/settler question in Nigerian politics" ASC, Leiden/University of Jos, Nigeria.

United Nations Development Programme, (2006). *Niger Delta Development Report.*

Abuja: UNDP.

Vanguard (2010) "Why We Struck, by Jos Terror Group", December 29.

Wale, A. (2004). *Democracy and Violence: The Challenge of Communal Clashes* Ibadan: University Press, Ibadan.

Watts, M. (2007). "Petrol-Insurgency or Criminal Syndicate? Conflict and Violence in the Niger Delta", *Review of African Political Economy,* 34, (114): 637-660.

William, R. (2004). "*The Roots of Sectarian Violence, and Its Cure*", New York: Lynnne Rienner Publishers.

Wolff, S. (2006) *Ethnic conflicts: A Global Perspective.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

WEBSITE

Adeleke, J. (2011) *Population in Nigeria 2000 – 2011* Retrieved on 5th August, 2011.http://www.google.com.ng/#hlen8source=hp8qmuslim/Christian

Bola, A. Committee Report (2008). On Jos Ethno-religious Riots Submitted to the State Government: http://allafrica.com/stories/201003.0800021.html. Retrieved from the net on January 17th, 2010 02: 10pm.

Elaigwu, I. (2010). "Enduring Peace in Jos: Breaking the Circle of Violent Conflict" in an Interview with Anza Philip in http://factoroidz.com/Joscrises-political-orreligious-motivated-isjustice retrieved on January 2 , 2010.

Plateau State Official Website
: http://webcache.googlesecontent.com:/search?q=casheeyho:en

Wikipedia.rg/wki/plateaustate+total+number+of+local+government. Retrieved on February, 2nd 2010.

WOMEN EMPOWERMENT PROGRAM: A PANACEA FOR POVERTY REDUCTION IN RURAL AREAS OF KOGI STATE

OMADA, MARGARET ONYEKUNIN PHD[1]& AGBAJI, HANNAH ENONEDEN[24]

Abstract

Poverty reduction remains one of the undaunting challenges facing humanity across the globe. Women empowerment no doubt presents a part of the solution to this hydraheaded social menace as women and children are the most affected by the scourge of poverty. Poverty in general and extreme poverty in particular has a significant gender dimension in developing countries including Nigeria. This study addresses the circular link between women empowerment and poverty reduction efforts in the rural areas of Kogi State, Nigeria. Women constitute the majority of the population below the poverty line of US$1 per day and are very often in situation of extreme poverty given the harsh realities of intra-household and social discrimination. The number of female-headed households multiplied in the urban and rural areas, women face a combination of increased family responsibilities and diminished economic prospects. Findings show that Kogi state efforts at combating the menace has not yielded the anticipated effective women Empowerment Programme. Also, majority of the women in the study area lack adequate education to participate or benefit from the programmes of Government. The causes of poverty amongst women identified included male domination, traditional values and beliefs, corruption, poor policy formulation and implementation, and non-functional Local Government system. To overcome the challenges of poverty therefore, the following recommendations were suggested: mainstreaming of gender concern across sector, women empowerment programme in worship centres should be robust and encompassing, free and compulsory education of the girl-child to enhance training, capacity building and skill development, gender justice through proper legislation that guarantee human right protection against traditional, cultural beliefs and other harmful practices and effective gender equality tracking, benchmarking and programmes should be priorities of every administration.

Keywords: Poverty, Women Empowerment, Poverty Reduction

[4] Registry Department,Kogi State University,Anyigba, Nigeria

Introduction

The challenges and the incidence of poverty have become a global phenomenon. Poverty reduction is the most difficult challenge facing Nigeria and its people and the greatest obstacle to the pursuit of sustainable socio economic growth. According to Ata-Agboni (2011), The growing incidence and the dynamics of poverty in Nigeria have polarised Nigeria society between the haves and the have-nots, between the men and the women, between the North and the south, between the educated and the uneducated. It therefore raises the relevant questions as to the origin and classification of poverty. In other to put the issue of poverty in proper perspective, it is important to isolate and exclude what Onimode, (2003) characterized as 'natural poverty' in the sense of being time-bound and generalized across the relevant population or nation. According to him, natural poverty implies when a country is still in a natural state of being underdeveloped, when the state of human knowledge and technology is very low, too low to harness the forces of nature for transformation and enrichment. This research is concerned with poverty as an 'induced phenomenon' that afflicts the vast majority of people especially women.

No doubt, the social structure of primitive societies did a lot of injustice to women. Women were regarded by men as inferior, second class and passive followers in the scheme of affairs. Hence, they were denied leadership positions, the right to equal cultural participation, as well as economic equality and social freedom. Consequently, women in society have been subjected to critical conditions of poverty, ill-health, low esteem, sexual exploitation and other forms of social depredation. Kogi Women Empowerment Network (KOWEN), (2012). Women are now taking their destiny into their hands in order to improve their status in the society through their efforts in the fields of politics, economy, education, arts, social roles, religion and culture, etc. This accounts for the significant impacts of very outstanding women like the Queen of England who was also the ceremonial President of Britain. Also was Margaret Thatcher the former Prime Minister and others, KOWEN, (2012). Here in Nigeria, In 1947 the National Women's Union was organised under the leadership of Mrs Funmilayo Ransome-Kuti of blessed memory, former Minister of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as Co-ordinating Minister of Finance and Economy Dr Mrs Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala and others.

The social dimension of poverty is largely a gender issue, since the greatest weight of poverty is borne by women and children from poor homes. According to Alese (2013), women constitute more than half of the country's population, however, trained women form an insignificant percentage of the total skilled force in Nigeria partly because they were not exposed to education early enough, a factor of incidence of poverty. Besides, there is high level of female illiteracy in Nigeria. Adelabu and Adepoju, (2007) as cited by Alese (2013). Many experience life that is a complex web of multi-roles and multi-tasks, which requires the average woman to conduct different roles at different times in a bid to fulfil her family's needs. These roles have been theoretically characterized as reproductive, productive, and community roles. For the women of Nigeria, these experiences are part of their

daily lives- and throughout their lives. According to Achor, (2001), women provide an estimated 60-70 per cent of the labour in agriculture through the production, processing, and marketing of food. They assist on family farms and are farmers in their own right. They are responsible for fetching water and fuel wood and act as 'the most important health worker for (their) children'. So, Nigerian women are in an important position to contribute to food security, nutrition, and overall health status of the family and the community, despite the fact that women in Nigeria produce most of the nation's food and are responsible for the survival of their family; they are inadequately recognized or rewarded for their efforts at any level. They experience social exclusion and violations of their human, civil, legal, and reproductive rights. In terms of their productive role, women suffer discrimination and marginalization through the denial of rights of land ownership and access to credit facilities and inputs. They are isolated and restricted at the community level through harmful cultural, traditional, and religious practices and are restricted and further marginalized in their role, (World Bank, 2010)

In year 2002, the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN), in a joint venture with UNICEF, published the findings of an analysis of the situation of women and children in Nigeria. Children's and women's rights in Nigeria: a wakeup call provided a comprehensive assessment of distressing burdens that poverty is imposing on Nigerian women. The publication recognizes the legal, regulatory, traditional, and cultural barriers that constrain seriously disadvantaged in all spheres. The assessment shows that women in Nigeria are among the poorest in sub-Sahara Africa and the developing world, (World Bank, 2010).

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

For this research to contribute to knowledge it cannot be treated in isolation. This means that it is necessary to review some literatures relevant to the study with a view to harnessing the common challenges and efforts to reduce poverty and to empower women. Also, the review of the literature will provide a proper understanding on how the study was treated in the past thereby revealing the gap in literature and prescribed the theoretical framework for the study.

Conceptual Framework

Concept of Women Empowerment

Empowering may be understood as enabling people especially women to acquire and possess power or resources, in order to make decision on their own or resist decisions that are made by others that affect them. A person may be said to be powerful when he/she has control over a large portion of power or resources in society such as personal wealth, land, skills, education, information, knowledge, social status, position held, leadership trains, capabilities of mobilization. The National Policy on Education (1986) suggested certain strategies to empower women. Accordingly, women became empowered through collective reflections and decision making which enable them to become agency of social change. The global

conference on Women Empowerment (1988), highlighted empowerment as the best way of making women partners in development. The Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) program was therefore initiated as a sub scheme of the national wide poverty alleviation program i.e., the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP). It aims at imparting self-reliance to rural areas through income generating skills along with group organization skills. Keeping this in view the year 2001 was celebrated as "The Women's Empowerment Year". Human resource development and empowerment of women unlock the door for modernization of society. Participation and control over resources of power are considered as the critical indicators in the process of development discharged by women especially in rural areas, they possess the least proportion of these resources and as a result they are powerless and dependent on the powerful and wealthy.

The Concept of Poverty

According to Mandela, (2007) Poverty is "Like slavery and apartheid, it is not natural; it is man-made and can be overcome and eradicated by the actions of human beings". The incidence of poverty is one of the greatest challenges confronting humanity in both developed and developing countries over the years. The extent, severity and characteristics may vary greatly within and across regions, and as they affect different social groups. The multi-dimensional nature of poverty has led to the establishment by government of several programmes and policies like National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS), Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and National Gender Policies (NGP) etc. to mention but a few. These public policies designed to tackle the problem of poverty in Nigeria failed to stem the rising tide of poverty for some obvious reasons; Confusion among policy makers on the approach to deal with the poverty situation in Nigeria, at different points in time, various programmes were conceptualized and implemented with the hope that they would impact on poverty in the country. No sooner had the programme taken up that changes in approach and nomenclature will subvert the focus and the intentions. For example, in 1999, the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) was launched, shortly after it was changed to Poverty Eradication Programme (PEP). While implementing PEP, the Federal Government of Nigeria embraced the Poverty Reduction Strategy Process (PRSP) initiated by the World Bank in 1999. Even before Nigeria could produce an interim Poverty Reduction Strategy paper, it abandoned the PRSP for the National Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS) (Igbuzor 2008). It eventually metamorphosed into National Poverty Alleviation Programme (NAPEP) in year 2000. Lack of participation by the poor for whom programmes and policies are implemented was a major reason identified as working against efforts of Government in reducing poverty in Nigeria. Onibokun and Faniran (1995) pointed that participation in the conceptualization, implementation, and evaluation of the programmes gives the people the pride of ownership of the facilities completed in the process of community development. Lack of co-ordination of various programmes and inability to target the poor and the vulnerable is yet another obstacle that renders public programmes inefficient and ineffective in Nigeria. There is always a

disconnect between programmes that should have impact on poverty situations and of harmonizing for a collective effort against the scourge of poverty. Poverty which was described as complex and multidimensional requires a multisectoral approaches in its eradication. In Nigeria, poverty is concentrated among unemployed youths, small farm house-holds, headed by informal sector workers, women and elderly persons without social safety nets (FOS, 1999). Poverty as a state of deprivation and is manifested in illiteracy, lack of access to water, poor housing and declining purchasing power. Poverty has deepened in Nigeria since the 1980s and many Nigerians, especially women, are worse off than they were in the 1960s. The incidence, depth and severity of poverty have tasked the extent to which the poverty reduction strategies in the country are synonymous with economic growth and development strategies. Hence, poverty reduction is one of the most urgent tasks facing the government. The critical challenge is, first, to have a clear understanding of the specific causes of, in this case female poverty, at the micro level, and to develop appropriate strategies to reduce – and in the long term - eradicate poverty

Causes of Poverty in Nigeria

Various scholars have attempted to describe factors that have exacerbated the poverty situation in Nigeria to include the following; Unstable political history, Lack of accountability, Mismanagement and corruption, Poor administration of justice, Poor policy formulation, implementation and evaluation, Lack of involvement of the poor, Dependence of the economy on the oil, Poor economic policies and management, Poor revenue allocation and distribution, Ethnic and religious conflicts and Poor infrastructures (Igbuzor, 2008).

Poverty Level in Nigeria

According to Obadan, (2002) Nigeria which is one of the richest 50 countries in the early 1970 has retrogressed to become one of the 25th poorest countries at the threshold of the twenty first century. It is ironical that Nigeria is the sixth largest exporter of oil and at the same time host the third largest number of poor people after China and India. Statistics show that the incident of poverty using the rate of US $1 per day increased from 28.1 percent in 1980 to 46.3 percent in 1985 and declined to 42.7 percent in 1992 but decreased again to 65.6 in 1996 (FOS, 1996). The 2004 report by the National Planning Commission indicated that poverty has decreased to 54.4 percent and that Nigeria fares very poorly in all development indices. World Bank report (2022) noted that the number of poor persons in Nigeria will rise to 95.1 million in 2022. The projected figure has had a four-year increase of 14.7percent from 2018/2019 figure of 82.1 million to the projected 95.1 million in 2022. This is largely due to the impact of Covid-19 crisis and the growing population among other factors such as economic melt-down.

Okon (2021) said that the political and economic inequalities in Nigeria have over the years promoted extreme poverty among women. Statistics on poverty in Nigeria indicate that 70 per cent of poor Nigerians are women. Indeed more than a half of rural women live below the internationally defined poverty line, lacking access to basic education, decent nutrition, adequate health and social services (FOS, 1997).

Nigerian women, like their counterparts in developing countries perform complex multiple roles as mothers, workers and managers of households, taking care of their husbands, children and members of their extended families. They perform the majority of the work in food processing and dominate the rural and urban informal sector activities. Yet less than 20 percent of women own their own farm lands, fewer than 10 percent have access to agricultural inputs and less than 5 percent have access to agricultural credits to enhance their productivity and incomes (Chinsman, 1998; UNDP, 1998). Women in the towns are engaged predominantly in the informal sector, in commerce and distributive trade.

Strategies for Women Empowerment in Nigeria

Promoting gender equality is globally accepted as a development strategy for reducing poverty levels among women and men which improves health and living standards and enhances efficiency of public investments. The attainment of gender equality is not only seen as an end in itself and human right issue, but as a prerequisite for the achievement of sustainable development. In line with the Nigerian National Gender Policy statement of 2006, gender parity, equitable access to resources and human rights guarantee are the key strategies on which the goals, principles and objectives of the policy rested. These goals were: educational capacity building and skills development, economic reforms and financial accountability, legislation and human rights protection, information and communication, policy, partnerships and programme reform. The overall goal was to build a just society devoid of discrimination, harness the full potentials of all social groups in order to achieve equitable, efficient, effective social investments and sustainable development. Gender mainstreaming, gender sensitive attitudes, value reorientation, social justice, improved productivity, economic growth, disaggregated data, evidence-based planning, human resources, equitable society.

According to Federal Ministry of Women Affairs (FMWA, 2006) The strategies for achieving the policy goal and objectives are premised on the 'dual agenda' principle, which perceives gender equity and equality as beneficial not only to individuals (women and men), but also essential for producing an effective and efficient system, both at the macro (national) and micro (organizational) levels. Recognizing the cross-cutting nature of gender issues, the delivery of the gender policy shall be channelled through the seven integrated strategies outlined in the table below.

Table 1: Integrated Strategies for Delivery of Gender Policy

STRATEGIES	EXPECTED OUTCOME
Policy, Partnerships and Programme Reforms	Mainstreaming of gender concerns across sectors and at all levels
Information, Communication and value Re-orientation	Increased Gender Knowledge, Attitude and Practice, Male involvement and positive gender culture
Capacity Building and Skill Development	Technical expertise and appropriate tools and instruments for sustained gender responsive development
Legislation and Human Rights protection	Gender Justice and guarantee of Human Rights
Economic Reforms and Financial Accountability	Enhanced productivity of all citizens and gender responsive policy and budget efficiency across sectors
Research, Data and Evidence-Based Planning	Reliable sex disaggregated data and vindicators
Monitoring and Evaluation	Effective gender equality tracking and benchmarking of progress

Source: Federal Ministry of Women Affairs (FMWA) Abuja (2006).

Table 1 above was seven point integrated strategies and the expected outcome outlined by the National Gender Policy Commission to deliver their mandate. These strategies ranging from economic policies such as Government Structural Programmes, poverty alleviation programmes, empowerment policy issues to marriage, household and women welfare such as high fertility, economic value of children, early marriage age, unpaid labour, and heading homes were all articulated. The strategies also considered women in economic life; backbone of rural economy, access to land, labour bottleneck, credit and other inputs. Women in employment; formal sector, informal sector women and social services; education, health and sanitation, mortality women legal rights and political participation

Strategies for Women Empowerment in Kogi State

Between 2007 and 2013, Kogi State sembarked on women empowerment programmes to reduce poverty. Some agencies saddled with the responsibility as identified are as follows: Kogi State Ministry of Women Affairs and Youth Development, Family Advancement Programme (FAP), Kogi Women Empowerment Network (KOWEN), Kogi State Community and Social Development Project, Kogi State Directorate of Rural Development (DRD) Kogi State branch of the Directorate of Employment, Kogi State SURE-P. It is important to note that none of these agencies were domiciled in the rural Areas: For example, Family Advancement Programme which was succeeded by the Kogi Women

Empowerment Network (pet projects of Kogi first ladies) were established solely to tackle the challenges of poverty amongst women, but whether the rural women whose interest the programme were designed for are benefiting is an issue that the study seeks to unravel. The Kogi State Community and Social Development Project which is funded in collaboration with the World Bank is making some impact on raising the standard of living of rural communities, even at this the involvement of women is minimal. In collaboration with the Kogi State Community and Social Development agency and taking into consideration some major concerns of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), some key indices for poverty measurement in Kogi State are; access to education, safe water, health facilities, immunization, land, credit facilities, electricity, unemployment, malaria incidence

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women's Rights (CEDAW)

One important and significant international response to the UN decade for women was the convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women's rights as human rights and demands their inclusion in all spheres. Article 1 of CEDAW calls on governments to abolish: *Any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.(UNSG, UNIFEM)*

Nigeria ratified CEDAW in 1995; but, while the provisions of the treaty enjoy international law, they are not yet part of Nigeria's domestic legal framework. Although the convention is not legally enforceable in domestic legislature, by the nature of the ratification Nigeria has accepted the obligation to be assessed in terms of its respect for the right of women and also in terms of its progress since ratification.

Women and the Constitution

The challenge to Nigeria's progress in terms of Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women's right (CEDAW) was article 2 of the Convention, which recommended the embodiment of these rights within the nation's Constitution. The 1999 Nigerian constitution does not identify the fundamental human rights of women as member of the community, its language and content are insensitive to gender, the constitution defines anyone over 18 years of age as an adult. However, in terms of marriage, section 29 (4) (b) of the constitution says, 'any woman who is married shall be deemed to be of full age'. Since there is no legal minimum age of marriage in Nigeria, a 10-year old child could be considered an adult if she is married. This does not only directly target women and discriminate against them, but has consequences for their physical development.

Employment Right

Nigerian women are under-represented in the paid workforce. According to

Ayodele, (2020) Women account for highest unemployed Nigerians, as unemployment report in Nigeria by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) shows that women are the worst hit with 12.2 million unemployed females as compared to 9.5million unemployed men. That number of persons in the labour force, people within ages 15-64, who are willing to work was estimated to be 80million of which males are about 41.6 million while females are 38.6 million. Female unemployment has risen to 31.6 percent from 26.6 percent in the third quarter of 2018, while male unemployment also rose to 22.9 percent from 20.3 percent in the same period. Underemployed females in Nigeria have risen from 25.9 percent recorded in 2018 to 31 percent in 2020. (NBS)

Gender and Development in Nigeria

There have been attempt at improving the development status of the women in Nigeria, but the various initiatives mounted for this purpose have produced transient results. While the Nigerian Constitution provides for gender equality and non-discrimination, women continue to suffer injustices and marginalization. This is often as a result of discriminatory laws, religious and cultural norms, gender stereotypes, low level education, and the disproportionate effect of poverty on women. Nigeria ranks lowly 139 out of 156countries in the world Economic Forum's Gender Gap Index and civil society groups have raised concerns that the country may be regressing in female representation in leadership. Ewang, A. (2019).

The Nigerian women's struggle which began in 1929 has not translated into a corresponding political presence in today's democratic arena. The marginalization of women is especially apparent in public and political spheres. According to the ministry of women's affairs, 68 per cent of voters are women; yet, under the current democratic administration the Nigerian women are under-represented at prominent government levels. It must be noted here that the mobilization of women for political participation enjoyed a greater recognition and government patronage under the transition to the Fourth Republic in Nigeria especially, under the Abacha regime Agaba, (2008). With the transformation of the Federal and State women commission to a full-fledged Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development and the formation of definite policies and programmes under the Family Support programme, the stage was set for active and improved women participation in politics and governance in Nigeria. Again, the women related Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have become parastatal of the Women Affairs Ministries, thus forging the interests of women politicians for effective participation in the on-going democratic process.

According to Genyi (2009), the launching of the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) under the General Abacha regime consolidated the gains of women empowerment and mobilization for political participation. The efforts of Maryam Abacha in lifting the national tempo of women development process to the international agitation for affirmative action remain the most outstanding women empowerment struggle in the history of Nigeria. She led a high-powered women delegation to the 1995 Beijing Women's Conference in China, a platform for action

and recognition that the process of women empowerment required the co-operation and participation of government, international organizations and society at large. The conference therefore called for an allocation of 30% appointive positions to women in all countries.

Land and Credit

According to Onibokun and Faniran (1995), Men in Nigeria have much greater control over resources than women do. In Africa, women produce 80 per cent of the food for the continent, yet they receive less than 10 per cent of the earnings or credit available to small farmers. There is scarcity of documentation about women's role in relation to land ownership and farming in Nigeria, but statistics on land registration show that 90 per cent of all land in the county was registered in men's names. Nigerian women have always worked on farms, yet have never been allowed to own any land. Their role is seen as solely domestic, and as such they are perceived as not warranting access to land. Lack of capital resources prohibits their access to credit and other forms of finance. Although this is increasingly being experienced by all rural poor people, the effects on women are compounded by the continued denial of their rights and the lack of recognition of their important role in the agricultural labour force, this has served to contribute to what is being termed as the 'feminization' of poverty. Customary law in Nigeria assists this process by further marginalizing women. There have been some government and community initiatives to assist women in obtaining micro-finance and credit in order to form co-operatives and self-help organizations. But, in this as in other spheres of life, cultural barriers and the high level of illiteracy among females throughout the country raise the odds against such ventures. The issue of gender equity and equality currently occupies the centre stage in international human rights agenda. As Sadik, (2000) rightly pointed out, 'gender equality was a matter reserved for visionaries' in the 1960s. She however, quickly added that even though remarkable success has been recorded in building consensus among government, international organizations and civil society on the issue of gender equality and reproductive health, 'there is a long way to go and much remain to be done before the consensus is fully realized from paper to practice.' The development goal of gender equality is to liberate the minds and spirits of women, to liberate their economics potentials and contribute to development. These are areas of importance in family circle because they determine the role each spouse play in the management of household resources and their children

Theoretical Framework – Liberal Feminism

This study adopted and used the liberal feminist framework based on ideology that feminism is the politics of equal right for women. It is also as system of critique and has as its central focus the system of patriarchy which can be described as a system of male authority, which oppresses women through its social, political, and economic institutions. Feminism is therefore a critique of patriarchy, on the other hand, it is an ideology committed to women emancipation. At the heart of feminist social analysis is the challenging of the public/private divide in politics, which has historically denied women access to the public political space and therefore

representation of their interests. Starting from a point of unity-sisterhood is global—feminism today is an ideology with many practitioners that have situated themselves on various theoretical intersections—Marxist feminists, anarchist feminists, radical feminists, liberal feminists.

Feminism, however, is not only a critique or an extension of, traditional ideologies but has also made significant contribution of its own in the field of theory and praxis. Feminist methodology, which arose from a tradition of 'consciousness raising' in the women's movement and by drawing upon women's subject experience to extend the boundaries of theory has, for example, found an important place in the field of methodological analysis. Issues such as race, sexuality, class, and ethnicity have served to disperse the idea of an essential 'woman' in which all women would recognize as themselves.

Feminism is not simply an ideology but a growing academic discipline. While this is making issues of gender accessible to women in education in a systematic way, its incorporated into academic curricula is also causing concern among many women who see the cutting edge of feminism- its political activism – being blunted in this process.

Different scholars have given various definitions to the term feminism Mazi, (1980) outlines the following definitions of feminism:

- eminism is a philosophy embracing politics, economics, literature, and indeed every aspect of the humanities and which seek to position women on equal footing with men, and in doing so to show how men have established and reinforced their historical dominance.
- eminism can be defined simply as the advocacy of women's right.
- eminism is any theory that persuades that women have been unjustly unequal to men because of the social meaning of their bodies. Such theories and movement abound.
- e can also see feminism as a female focused version of liberalism which intends to create its own religion based on "Feminist theology" which purports to free itself from "oppressive patriarchy".
- eminism is a range of contemporary theoretical perspective: political, legal, sociological psychoanalytical literary and with philosophical; in which men's experiences are examined in relation to actual and perceived different between the power and status of men and women.
-

eminism is a social justice movement in which issues of particular importance for women like domestic violence, pay equity, globalization, are analysed, understood and addressed from feminist perspective.

Origin of Feminism

The status of women in Nigeria is governed by the social ideology of patriarchy in which most household decisions are dominated by the male. Mundigo, (2000) noted that the system of patriarchalism, "the male was always defined as a very privileged human being, equipped with additional qualities which remained unknown to women. Men were assumed to be stronger, more intelligent, more courageous, more responsible, more creative and more rational." These viewpoints may be dismissed by some African/Nigerian feminists who represent ethnocentric western opinion. Yet, we must acknowledge the fact that they reflect important cultural benchmarks with which to measure the status of women in Africa. In Nigeria, for example, the revised population policy document acknowledges this fact as follows: The status of Nigerian women is lower than that of men. Prevailing cultural practices determine and sustain the low status of women. Beginning from childhood women are made to accept the superiority of men in all aspects of socio-cultural life. These viewpoints are responsible for the endemic rate of poverty amongst women in Kogi State.

DATA PRESENTATION

The study also revealed that women in the study areas hardly participate in the women empowerment programmes in the state. This is responsible for the ineffectiveness of the poverty reduction policies in the state. This informed the poor level of women's access to land and credit facilities measured in poverty baseline for Kogi state. The Liberal Feminism which is the thoeritical framework adopted for the study identified the need to help women overcome the established and reinforced historical dominance hence advocate women emancipation through education, politics, religion, legislation and every aspect of humanities in order to position women on equal footing with men.

The theoretical framework adopted for the study posit that women's plights have not been adequately addressed, therefore ideologies aiming at advances women's right, privileges, freedom and empowerment should be encouraged. Study revealed that the rural women are not aware of the activities of the Family Advancement Programme (FAP) and Kogi Women Empowerment Network (KOWEN) which were the pet projects. Other poverty reduction programmes of the state identified are Kogi State Community and Social Development (KSCSD), Kogi State SURE-P, Kogi State Directorate of Employment, Kogi State Directorate of Rural Development, Kogi State MDGs, the efforts of Kogi State government to reduce poverty have not sufficiently impacted on women because women empowerment has significant relationship with poverty reduction. This means that when women

are adequately empowered, poverty will reduce significantly.

The poor level of consciousness of women regarding their right to benefit from governance is a product of two factors. First, majority of rural women are intellectually poor, making them ignorant and unconscious of the activities of government. Secondly, the few educated women are uninformed and hardly participate in any empowerment projects let alone making demands. Women empowerment is one of the many strategies identified by all stakeholders nationally and internationally to reduce poverty amongst women and to mobilise them to face the realities of gender equality and mainstreaming at all levels of governance. The gap created by marginalization of women, male domination as entrenched by harmful cultural and religious attitudes and practices, high level of illiteracy amongst women are obvious indicators of the fact that a lot need to be done to emancipate womanhood from the web circle of poverty. The study revealed that the efforts of successive regime to reduce poverty has not produced desired results due to poor implementation of policies, corruption, misplaced priorities, lack of political will. Although many programmes of national and international organizations are earmarked to alleviate poverty amongst women in the rural areas most of them end up in the urban areas or they are being hijacked by political party faithful. Women in Nigeria have the capacity to reduce poverty and effect changes if empowered and motivated by virtue of their numerical and wilful strength. Since the majority of the poor women dwell in the rural areas, the Ministry of Women affairs should draw programmes that will address the grassroots perennial problems facing womanhood. The Ministry of Women affairs should therefore be saddled with the responsibility of ensuring an effective women empowerment programme rather than pet programme that lack focus and commitment. The way forward for the Nigerian woman is simply addressing the challenges listed above using the instrumentality of free access to resources like education and health facilities, encourage women in leadership, promote women organization, provide long term support, offer business training and skill acquisition programmes, provide credit facilities on small scale basis, encourage women to empower themselves and to be able to change the fortune of Nigerian women when implementation is achieved.

Education of girl-child must be given priority attention at all level if women empowerment programme is to achieve its aims and objectives. The ministry of women affairs should be given the autonomy it deserves to collaborate with the Local authorities and Ministry of Education to enforce free education, scholarships schemes and discouragement of early marriage amongst girl-child. The numerical strength of women does not automatically translate into better policies for female citizens therefore emphasis should be on quality borne out of education, skill acquisition, economic, political and socio-cultural empowerment

Recommendations

The recommendations of this study are as follows:

- Since women are the drivers of informal sector of the economy, mainstreaming of gender concern across sectors should be a priority attention

of every administration. Gender justice through legislation that guarantee human right protection against traditional, cultural, religious beliefs and practices should be encouraged

- Women empowerment programmes in worship centres should be robust and encompassing since these avenues are easily accessible to women at all levels
- Fighting illiteracy by way of free and compulsory education for the girl-child to enhance their capacity building and skills development should be the concern of all stakeholders.

References

Aborade, O. (1996), *Specification of Poverty Eradication in Nigerian Economy. Lagos, Nigeria*

Achor, U. J (2001), *Managing the environment in Popular Neighbourhoods: A manual for action,* Shelter Rights Initiative (SRI), Lagos

Alaba, Y. (2001), "People in Poverty" Ason Publications Badagry, Nigeria.

Ali-akpajiak, O. Sofo, C.A. and Pyke, T. (2000) "*Measuring Poverty in Nigeria"* Printed and Published by Oxfam GB, 274 Banbury Road, Oxford OX2 7DZ UK

Ibrahim J. and Igbuzor O. (2008) *can Nigeria meet the MDGS in 2015?* Published by the Centre for Democracy and Development European Union.

Nnoyelu, A. (2005), *"Gender, Poverty Eradication and Development in Nigeria"*. In Okeibunor, J. and Anugwom, E. (eds.). The Social Sciences and Socio-Economic Transformation in Africa: Essays in Honour of Professor D. S. Obiekeze. (Nsukka: Great AP Publisher)

Okon, E. (2021) Gender Inequality Promotes Extreme Poverty in Nigeria.

Onibokun & Faniran, (1995) *Women in Urban Land Development in Africa:* Nigeria, Ghana and Tanzania, centre for African settlement studies and development (CASSAD)

Onimode, B. (2003), *"Overview of Nigeria's Economic Policy and Implication of Poverty alleviation"* Ibadan, Nigeria.

Segun O. (2001), The Culture of Poverty in Developing Society. Ibadan: Evans Brothers Nigeria Publishers Ltd.

Sen, A. (2008), *Development as Freedom.* Oxford university press publishers. Oxford. Chiranjeevulu, T. (2003). *Empowering Women through Self-Help Groups - Experiences in Experiment,* Kurukshetra, March.

Gopalan, Sarala (2002). *Towards Equality - The Unfinished Agenda. Status of Women in India, National Commission for Women,* New Delhi.

Alese, O.D. (2013) Academic Journal of Inter-disciplinary Studies: Rome-Italy: MCSER publishing, Nov, 2013

Ata-Agboni, J. U and Ata, R. (2011), *Assessment of NEEDS in the Eradication of Poverty and Hunger in Nigeria.* Kogi State University Journal of Public Administration, May, 2011

Central Bank of Nigeria /World Bank (2019) *Nigeria's development prospects:* poverty assessment and alleviation study', 8 march 2019.

Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and youth development (FMWA) Abuja (2000), *National Policy on Women Abuja (2006).*

Kogi Women Empowerment Network KOWEN, (2012) A Performance Report of the activities and the impact assessment of women empowerement.

Kogi State Community and Social Development Project (KGCSDP), April, 2011. Manual on operational modalities for CSDP

Kpakol, M. (2004) Sustainable and Focused Job Creation. A Veritable Tools for National Poverty Eradication, A paper presented at SMCs Conference, Abuja.

Ugwuoke, C. (2003), "*Gender Issues in Poverty Amelioration in Nigeria", International journal of Social Inquiry.*

Krishnaraj, M. (2002), *Growth and Rural Poverty.* Economic and Political Weekly, September, 2002s.

Manohar, Sujatha (2002). Women's Empowerment - Law and Gender Justice. Paper Presented in the International Women's Day, 8th March 2001. Department of Women and Child Development, New Delhi.

The Hunger Project 2013 Ad www.thp.org/o Empower Women End Poverty and Hunger

(PDF) Women Affairs-Kogi State www.kgistate.gov.ng/media5242bd2ad25d8pdf

Extreme Poverty Reports –Detailed case study and reports NBS (2018/2019)

EFFECTS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT ON EMPLOYMENT CREATION IN KOGI STATE

DR. ABDULLAHI MOHAMMED HABEEB[5], ABUBAKAR AMINAT[6],ABDULLAHI MOHAMMED MUKTAR[7] & AHMED ABUBAKAR SEDIQ[8]

Abstract

Effect of entrepreneurship development on employment creation in kogi state. To Identify the effect of creating entrepreneurship on employment generation in Kogi State, to ascertain the relationship between the rationale for the adoption of creation of entrepreneurship and employment Creation in Kogi State, to assess the sufficiency of Income earned from creation of entrepreneurship to ensure poverty reduction, assess the effect of various management tools adopted by creation of entrepreneurs on employment generation in Kogi State. As a result of the societal numerous problem and the earnest quest for innovation makes creation of entrepreneurship the new business model. Creation of entrepreneurship is an approach by start-up companies and entrepreneurs, in which they develop, fund and implement solutions to social, cultural, or environmental issue. Creation of entrepreneurship is a platform or way in which people come together and work to create an equal, just and sustainable society. They should work to bring in positive social, economic and environmental outcomes for the society. Hence creation of entrepreneurship has significant effect on employment generation. Subsequently, the study recommended that government at all levels, private organizations and non- government organizations should embrace the concept of creating entrepreneurship and address the issues such as insecurity, acute unemployment, and abject poverty ravaging our society. More also, the concept of creation of entrepreneurship should be included as a separate branch of management courses in all tertiary institutions of learning.

[5] Department Of Business Administration, Kogi State University, Ayingba. Kogi State, Nigeria,E-mail: habibabdullahi@gmail.com,Tel: +2348036146393

[6] Department Of Business Administration, Kogi State University, Ayingba. Kogi State, Nigeria.,E-mail: abdminat@gmail.com,Tel: +2348060570723

[7] Department Of Business Administration.Kogi State University, AyingbaKogi State, Nigeria.,E-mail: abdullahimuktar39@gmail.com,Tel: +2348035744802

[8] Department Of Business Administration,Kogi State University, Ayingba Kogi State, Nigeria.,**Email: abusediq@gmail.com**

Introduction

One of the major indicator, of economic development in every country is growth in business and entrepreneurship activities (Tijani and Maji, 2019). This motivates the emergence of highly skilled entrepreneurs who engage in profitable small scale enterprises while also creating employment opportunities. Entrepreneurship is all encompassing and affects every major sector of an economy hence, the commitments of government or the state in creating an enabling environment for entrepreneurial activities can culminate in national development. Specifically, the concept of social entrepreneurship involves the identification of social challenges and the adoption of innovative and entrepreneurial approaches targeted at proffering short- and long-term solutions (Addou, Fahmy, Greenward and Nelson, 2010). Therefore, a proper understanding of how social entrepreneurship and the activities of social entrepreneurs shape national development, will obviously enable a state or the government of any nation to be at a vantage position to anticipate the positive impact this will have on national development (Schaltegger and Wagner, 2011).

This will in turn, facilitate the formulation of relevant and appropriate policies, targeted at motivating the activities of social entrepreneurs. Much of entrepreneurship literature particularly in the Nigerian context have laid emphasis on business entrepreneurship however, this has not been successful in changing and sustaining a new set of social values that motivate national development. Although, business entrepreneurs offer some new value(s) to the society in the form of innovative activities through the creation of firms. However, national development has been farfetched. Studies such as Addou, Fahmy, Greenward and Nelson (2010) supported by Garima and Saxena (2013) have showed that social entrepreneurship can be a panacea for sustainable development. In the Nigerian context studies such as Holmes (2012) supported by Moses and Olokundun (2014) focused on the role of social entrepreneurship in tackling social challenges and motivating sustainable development. However, there is a need to examine the role of social entrepreneurship and the state in stimulating national development particularly in Nigeria.

The dynamic economic conditions of the world today need flexible individual with entrepreneurial value, attitude and mental capacity for creative thinking and innovative behaviour that can provoke their venture spirit for timely generation of new ideas and ways of improving their businesses in meeting the demands of the environment. Such individuals who are able to drive through change are expected to possess the transformational capacity to embrace change and to steer business through crisis and chaos, to guide, integrate and initiate force. This force is however referred to as entrepreneurship Udu, 2008). Hisrich, (2002) sees entrepreneurship as

a process of creating something new of value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic and social risks, and receiving the resulting rewards of money and personal satisfaction and independent. In the same vain, Udu (2008) argue that entrepreneurship is a process by which economic and commercial activities necessary for the improvement of the standard of living of the society are created by entrepreneurs-individuals, corporation, institutions and government.

Iwu (2000) observed that during the colonial period, only few of Nigerians could boost of personal or family capital to start off any meaningful business. During the colonial era, the Nigerian businesses scene was dominated even at the grass-root levels by, foreigners. Theses foreign nationals had a better exposition from the Nigerian traders and subsequently left in 1960. Their departure gave Nigerians the opportunity in participating and shaping the country's economic development.

The federal government introduced indigenization and enterprise promotion Act. Of 1972 and it's revision in 1977 respectively. Again, the National Development plan which led to the introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in July 1986. Entrepreneurship constitutes a vital engine in the economic growth and development of nations; this is because it helps in the stimulation of indigenous entrepreneurship in Nigeria (Paul, 2013).

In addition, Nigerian government had subsequently established the following programmes in an attempt to assist entrepreneurial activities in the country. Bank of Industry (BOl) established in 2000, Small and Medium Industries Development Agency of Nigeria (SMIDAN), Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative and Development Bank (NACRDB) established in 2000, Macro Finance Bank in 2005, others include Family Support Programme (FSP), Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) and Obasanjo's programme on National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in 2001 with a start-up grant of six billion naira (Paul, 2013). The aforementioned programmes were designed to make the Banking industry contribute towards the effort of the government in stimulating economic growth, through fund mobilization, enterprise promotion and development for the entrepreneurs (Mustapha, 2013).

Statement of the Problem

High rates of youth unemployment represent both widespread personal misfortune for individuals and a lost opportunity for critical national and global economic development. Unemployment among youth has been shown to have lifelong effects on youth, income and employment stability, because affected young people start out

with weaker early-career credentials, and show lower confidence and resilience in dealing with labor market opportunities and setbacks over the course of their working lives (Grace and Obi, 2019). The recent economic crisis (Dwindling oil price, Dollar and Naira disparity) of 2016 and the Covid-19 lockdown saga has had a disproportionate effect on young people (Tijani and Maji, 2019)

There exist diverse economic, social and political problems at different magnitudes facing different local governments and states in Nigeria of which Kogi state is not excluded. These diverse economic, social and political problems have adversely affected the sustainable development of the countries, including the high unemployment rate they are currently facing. Unemployment has become a Nigeria anthem of the 21st century; the problem is becoming more complex each passing year in Nigeria. Unemployment, underemployment and rural-urban migration have enveloped the Nigerian labour market. This has been compounded by frightening number of graduates from Universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, mono-technics that leave school each year.

This has increased the rate of social vices like robbery, kidnapping, prostitution, human trafficking, child abuse and unfair labour practices experienced in Nigeria by the unemployed youths. National Manpower Board, (2009) in (Grace and Obi, 2019) opined that Nigerian labour market could barely absorb 10% of the over 3.8 million persons turned out by the Nigeria educational system annually.

The problem of this study revolved around the high rate of unemployment and low productivity among the citizens of Nigeria and how creation of entrepreneurship could help solve the problem of job and wealth creation in Nigeria this is so because, the present situation seems to give an impression of economic insecurity as a result of failure to properly engage people in the production process. This study was therefore necessary to fill the gap by examining the entrepreneurial development and urgent social intervention for all government strategies! programmes to have employment generation as an output towards economic security.

Research Question

This study attempts to find answers to the following questions:

i. What are the effect of social entrepreneurship on employment generation in Kogi State?
ii. What is the Relationship between the rationale for the adoption of Social entrepreneurship and employment generation in Kogi State?
iii. How does the sufficiency of Income earned from Social entrepreneurship

ensure poverty reduction?

iv. What is the effect of various management tools adopted by social entrepreneurs on employment generation in Kogi State

Objectives of the Study

The major objective of the study is to examine the effect of social entrepreneurship development on employment creation in Kogi State. Specifically, the main objectives are to:

i. Identify the effect of social entrepreneurship on employment generation in Kogi State

ii. Ascertain the relationship between the rationale for the adoption of Social entrepreneurship and employment Creation in Kogi State

iii. Assess the sufficiency of Income earned from creation of entrepreneurship to ensure poverty reduction

iv. Assess the effect of various management tools adopted by creating entrepreneurs on employment generation in Kogi State

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Entrepreneurs play a very important role in the development of a nation because they start business, provide jobs and use the indigenous resources of the country for better socio economic growth (Junejo, Rohra & Panhwar, 2008). Entrepreneurship has been considered a crucial mechanism of economic development (Acs & Armington, 2006; Cheng, Stough &Jackson, 2009). It has been described as the engine propelling much of the growth of the business sector as well as a driving force behind the rapid expansion of the social sector (Noruzi, Westover & Rahimi, 2010).

The term 'entrepreneur' was said to have been coined by the French economist Richard Cantillon in the early 18th Century who defined the term as an agent who buys means of production at certain prices in order to combine them into a new product (Schumpeter, 1951). The French economist Jean Baptiste was said to have given the term this particular meaning when he said, according to Dees (1998) that 'the entrepreneur shifts economic resources out of an area of lower and into an area of higher productivity and greater yield'.

Origin of creation of Entrepreneurship

The term creation of entrepreneurship was coined in 1981 by Bill Drayton, founder of Ashoka, the world's first organization to promote social entrepreneurship and latter promoted and popularized by Charles Lead beater. Drayton was influenced by the Vinoba Bhaves's Land Gift Movement, a champion of wealth redistribution by agitating for the transfer of land to the poor people in India. Drayton saw that

creating entrepreneurship employing creative measures, could lead to a significant change in the society for the better. Creation of entrepreneurship as a concept and practice predated the era of Drayton as overtime in society, numerous actors and promoters strongly advocated for programs and activities designed purposefully and intentionally to address the societal problems and challenges of their time.

Nayab (2011) identifies early notable people who evolved creative measures to solve social problems as Robert Owen (1771-1858) who pioneered the cooperative movement and improvement in working conditions in factories in Great Britain, Florence Nightingale (1820-1910) founder of the first nursing school and developer of modern nursing practice, Henry Durant (1829-1910) who lobbied for national voluntary relief organization which led to the establishment of the International Red Cross, William Booth (1829-1912) who established the Salvation Army and Frederick Law Olmstead (1822-1903) promoter of city parks across America. Others include Dr. Maria Montessori (1870-1952) who pioneered child education reform in Rome and John Muir (1838-1914) who pioneered the establishment of the national park system in America. In an attempt to explain the concept, Dees (2008b) postulated that the origin of social entrepreneurship can be broadly classified into two schools of thought and practice, the social enterprise school which says that social entrepreneurs operate a business venture to solve or address social problems and the social innovation school, which focuses on "establishing new and better ways of creating and sustaining social value".

Brilliant (2013) argues that the story of social change is as old as humanity and as he succinctly puts it, "trying to improve our children's future is as old as history". Social change and social movement has therefore, evolved over time employing differing tools and tactics but the determination has remained unchanged. The history of social movement is attributed to individuals who were engaged in debates, protest and other methods to address fundamental problems of society. From the change makers relying on philanthropy to survive to evolving creative business approaches to ensure sustainability in addressing social problems (Nayab, 2011), actors in the third sector have worked assiduously to address global challenges. But over time, more structured approaches were preferred such that in the contemporary society at present,

Concept of creation of Entrepreneurship, Creating Enterprise and Creating Entrepreneur

The theory and practice of creation of entrepreneurship has grown significantly. As reported by Osberg (2009), a search on Google in 2006 of the term creating entrepreneur returned 12400 results. In 2007, 100,000 results were returned, 2008,

7,500,000. By 2014, a search of the term returns about 131,000,000. In another research, Short, Moss and Lumpkin (2009) (as cited by Terjesen, Lepoutre, Justo, & Bosma, 2009), reported a 75% increase in articles published on creating entrepreneurship between 1991 and 2009. This is proof of a significant and dramatic interest in the concept (Center for the Advancement of Social Entrepreneurship [CASE], 2008; Kerlin, 2010) as more and more people and institutions seek new ways of addressing the society's global problems. According to Zahra, Rawhouser, Bhawe, Neubaum and Hayton (2008), the four factors "fueling the globalization of creating entrepreneurship" are global wealth disparity, the corporate social responsibility movement, the market, institutional and state failures and the technological advances and shared responsibility.

Different scholars have viewed social entrepreneurship in different ways. Gary McPherson of the Canadian Center for creation of Entrepreneurship argues that "creation of entrepreneurship strives to combine the heart of business with the heart of the community through the creativity of the individual" (as cited in Foryt, 2002). Alvord, Brown and Leffs (2004) sees creation of entrepreneurship as creating "innovative solutions to immediate social problems and also mobilizes the ideas, capacities, resources and social arrangements required for long- term, sustainable, social transformations" while CASE (2008) sees creation of entrepreneurship as "recognizing and resourcefully pursuing opportunities to create social value or crafting innovative approaches to addressing critical social needs".

Some scholars and researchers in the field of creating entrepreneurship have argued that the definition of social entrepreneurship is all encompassing such that most social activities are considered social entrepreneurship. This line of argument is supported by Martin and Osberg (2007) who argue that "creation of entrepreneurship has become so inconclusive that it now has an immense tent into which all manner of socially beneficial activities fit". Furthermore, the field has "no unanimity" (Dobele, 2012; OECD, 1999) in its definition and as such "is one of the greatest problems in the field" (CASE, 2008). However, the definition of creating entrepreneurship by authors and scholars falls in the three broad categories of creating social value distinct from economic value (Dees, 1998), solving social problems through solutions and lastly, social change (Whitman, 2010). Limiting the definition of creating entrepreneurship to one of these dimensions is in essence, limiting the understanding of the concept of social entrepreneurship. I would not place greater premium on arguing for a single universally accepted definition of creating entrepreneurship but would rather argue for an appreciation and acceptance of creating entrepreneurship as being fundamental in creating social value, solving society's problems and bringing dramatic social change.

Creation of Entrepreneurship in Nigeria

Available related indigenous literature revealed that Nigeria is in the incubation stage of creating entrepreneurship as most of the social activities are planned and implemented by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). Nigeria is trying to build its own creation of entrepreneurship based on its peculiar situation, while consciously or unconsciously government is endeavoring to encourage SE behavior and foster creating entrepreneurship. The activities of the NGOs cut across a wide spectrum of activities such as awareness campaign on HIV/AIDS, and Sexual Transmitted Diseases (STDs); empowering local women through micro-credit/information, seminars on good governance, gender issues among others. It is believed that with the precarious economic condition in the country and deep understanding of the subject matter in the traditional setting, the NGOs or / creation of entrepreneurs do not only consecrate to the society but also, earn income at the same time. The present population of Nigeria is put at about 167 million (Olokor, 2012). Following years of military rule and poor economic management, Nigeria experienced a prolong period of economic stagnation, rising poverty levels and decline of its public institutions. By most measures, human development indicators in Nigeria were comparable to that of other least developed countries while widespread corruption undermined the effectiveness of various public expenditure programs. (Okonjo-lweala & Osafo-Kwaako, 2007). A major challenge for the Nigeria economy was its macroeconomic volatility driven largely by external terms of trade shocks and the country's large dependence on oil export earnings. Nigerian economy is ranked among the most volatile in the world for the period of 1960-2000 (World Bank, 2003).

According to Okonjo-Iweala and Osafo-Kwaako (2007) Nigeria's social sector indicators have been particularly weak. According to Mulgan and Landry *(1995)*, the major social and economic problems such as poverty, high rate of unemployment and economic downturns plaguing the globe and gaps created in societies by unmet government's promises, creation of entrepreneurship is believed to be a forum for sustainable solutions at both local and international levels. Available related literature indicated that there is no official registry of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Nigeria. The activities of such organizations are regulated by the constitution of the Republic of Nigeria as well as federal and state laws. There is also no systematic way of operating the NGOs in the country. Their activities cover wide scope of activities such as creating awareness for good governance, HIV/AIDS campaign for most at risk population (such as commercial sex workers, injection drug users; uniformed service men, youths, men and women of reproductive age); empowering women and unemployed with micro credit facility for self-reliance among others.

Drivers/Why Creation of Entrepreneurship?

Creating entrepreneurship holds key to future development and a better society. Creation of entrepreneur would play a crucial role in the advancement of positive social change. (Ranch, 2012) Exploration of new technologies and the advent of powerful global communication networks have connected communities across the globe, created opportunities and circumstances to support a growth in the supply side of new social goods. These social goods confront and alleviate the social problems around the world which are unmet by the governments and private sectors. The democratization system of government that is sweeping through the globe gave rise to advocacy /chit society groups with their human rights awareness campaigns.

The Nexus between Entrepreneurship and Economic Development in Nigeria

It is a fact that misplaced objective can lead the unemployed Nigerian youth to engage themselves the forms of hostage taking, kidnapping, pipeline vandalism, and economic sabotage, internet frauds and bombing. This fact was corroborated by Aduba (2011) reporting for the Akwa Ibom State government as saying that one of the major factors of restiveness in the Niger-Delta region is high rate of unemployment. The traits of creativity, risk-loving, innovation, strategic thinking and constructive engagement against the government by discontented Nigerians could as well be directed to entrepreneurship development (Raimi, 2010). According to Onyeneho & Ezeano (2011) development is a process by which individuals in a community or country improve their economic and social wellbeing. In the view of Ile;

Constraints of Entrepreneurship in Employment Generation

Constraints of entrepreneurship development could either be economic resources or human resources. Economic resources are made up of labour, land capital and entrepreneurial abilities, which when combined produce a great output. The key roles of entrepreneurship include mobilization of domestic savings for investment, significant contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Income (GNI), harnessing of local raw materials, employment creation, poverty reduction and alleviation, enhancement in standard of living, increase in per capita income, skills acquisition, advancement in technology and expert growth and diversification. irrespective of the benefits associated with entrepreneurship, there are lots of barriers that have prevented youths from fully realizing their potentials and assuming responsibilities in the society. These barriers are however differently grouped by different authors and scholars in the literature, but

According to Onwubiko (2011) the barriers to entrepreneurship were grouped under

the following sub-headings:

a. Absence of Infrastructural Facilities

It is a universal belief that certain basic infrastructural facilities aid the development of the mind and body and assist productivity in any environment. These facilities have been identified as good roads, good water supply, constant power, access to information and communication technology and other tools of trade. A case where these are lacking in a country, the growth of the economy will be adversely affected. In Nigeria, these basic work tools as well as the enabling environment is lacking. All these put together have made entrepreneurial activities cost intensive, unprofitable and uninteresting thereby dissuading the youths from assuming entrepreneurial leadership positions.

b. Inadequate Working Capital

Even though many scholars such as Onugu *(2005)* have argued against non-availability of capital as the prime problem of entrepreneurship development, the availability of capital, says Onwubiko (2011) is central to the establishment and continued existence of any enterprise irrespective of the size, focus and objective. It has been observed that for an entrepreneur in Nigeria to start a business, he /she must have adequate funds. In a situation where the working capital is inadequate or unavailable, it becomes a problem. This is one of the major, if not the major problem that young people encounter when opening a business. Banks are reluctant to give out loans to intending entrepreneurs especially when they are young people. The procedures for accessing such credits are often rigorous and dependent on the provision of collaterals which the potential entrepreneur may not possess. Therefore intending entrepreneurs often fall back on their personal savings or on loans from family members and friends.

c. Low Standard of Education

The world today is a global village and since an intending entrepreneur must be conversant and in tune with events around and about him, education becomes a critical factor in preparing and empowering the entrepreneur with the qualities required of him. Unfortunately, the role of education in forming young people to become change agents it seems, have been ignored. Year after year, the quality of education in the Nigerian institutions has gradually been on the decline, due to strikes and unqualified teachers. While those who stay in the system is as a result of the unavailability of alternative jobs. Government policy or lack of one has been a major bane of education in Nigeria. The schools are not adequately funded, equipped, regulated and managed to bring out their optimum potentials in youths and potential entrepreneurs.

d. Lack of Adequate Training

Absence of adequate training for students such has made it difficult to them to meet up the transformation question. This challenges the future of the youth as entrepreneurs. It has been observed that the educational curriculum in Nigeria focuses more on the theoretical without a corresponding practical approach. Most employers are always compelled to retrain their employees due to lack of knowledge of basic work ideas or familiarity with the area of study of the employee. Technology has been used to improve the quality of life through the use of the computers and other technological discoveries such as the internet. Where the youth does not have the knowledge or skill of the latest technology, it affects their outlook to life. This also results in low morale, inefficiency and lack of confidence.

Creation of Entrepreneurship and National Development

The traditional options engaged by most nations towards combating social challenges and achieving national development emphasises the importance of social entrepreneurship (Christian and Johanna, 2005; Kannampuzha, 2017). This is consequent upon the fact that the goal and strategy of most nations as regards the achievement of national development has been geared towards tackling social challenges such as reduction of poverty and resulting consequences of poverty (Seelos and Mair, 2005). However, regardless of the many decades of foreign investments and aids as well as policy reforms channelled towards national development in under-developed and developing nations, yet little or no successes have been achieved. There seems to be a continuous trend of unequal distribution of resources and wealth within developing nations and between countries (Fosu, 2010). Despite the investments in developmental projects and government interventions particularly in Nigeria, these have not tangibly resulted in national development. It is evident therefore, that the achievement of national development still requires new and innovative approaches especially for a developing nation as Nigeria (Cho, 2006). It is pertinent to state that social challenges are consequences of absence of effective systems or failure of the existing ones. Hence, situating appropriate social systems may facilitate the achievement of national development (Raghda, 2013; Kim and Lim, 2017). Therefore, social entrepreneurship may serve as a spring board for the achievement of national

Implications for National Development in Nigeria

A nation achieves national development when the adverse effects of social challenges are effectively tackled by sustaining an effective social system. The machinery of the State is considered a foundation and catalyst that can help transform the investments in an economy into national development however, considering the complexities of the social challenges in Nigeria; the task seems too enormous to be effectively tackled solely by the government. The concept of

national development remains a learning field and it has also emerged as a sub-set of entrepreneurial theories and practice. Social entrepreneurship as a strategy for achieving national development in Nigeria has not been adequately explored regardless of the fact that it has been shown as a remedy for social problems and challenges towards the initialization of national development. However, there remains a considerable uncertainty as regards the social impacts of social entrepreneurs in Nigeria. To this end, the involvement of the government in financing social entrepreneurs in Nigeria will help to attract more individuals, organizations and institutions into social entrepreneurship channelled towards solving social challenges. It is therefore recommended that government programmes in Nigeria should be designed to create enabling environments to stimulate the emergence of highly enthused social entrepreneurs who will become creative and innovative in finding solutions to socio-economic problems facilitating the achievement of national development (Olokundun, 2017).

Creation of Entrepreneurs and Challenges

Creation of entrepreneurs are agents of change whose primary focus is the social sector. They make foundational changes and sustainable improvements in social systems, addressing the root causes of social challenges and problems rather than the resulting consequences. They always seek to eradicate needs rather than respond to them. It is important to note that their activities and approach to problem solving always has the potentials to stimulate sustainable global improvements. The ultimate focus of creating entrepreneurs is to create and sustain social value. The reward for a creating entrepreneur is not wealth creation or profits, but social improvements and impact. The motivation of creating entrepreneurs is long term social reward on the venture. Their ultimate focus is sustaining social impact as well as creating lasting improvements (SESE, 2013). Creation of entrepreneurs are usually driven by a vision of how to achieve sustainable social impact and improvements. They persistently develop diverse approaches towards the achievement of their goals. Social entrepreneurs are not easily swayed by obstacles; rather they doggedly modify their strategies with a focus on surmounting social challenges.

This persistence and never give up attitude is a reinforcement that facilitates the achievement of sustainable social impact and improvement (El Ebrashi, 2013).

Principles of creating Entrepreneurship

Addou, Fahmy, Greenward and Nelson (2011) identified the principles of creation of entrepreneurship to include; achievement of positive social impacts, non-conventional thinking, use of sustainable methods and innovation. According to

them, Achievement of positive social impact: creation of entrepreneurship responds to communities that have been marginalized or excluded by existing market actors and non-market institutions; Nonconventional thinking: Creation of entrepreneurship aims for what Joseph Schumpeter called creative destruction, II a revolutionary transformation of a pattern of production which is often associated with entrepreneurship at large but, in the case of creating entrepreneurship, is applied to social challenges; Use of sustainable methods: Creation of entrepreneurship must include a strategy for achieving financial sustainability, such as earning income; and, Innovation that can be adapted and scaled up beyond the local context: It is by pioneering ideas that can be applied at a larger scale that social entrepreneurship is able to contribute to systemic and path-breaking change.

Models of Creating Entrepreneurship

Addou, Fahmy, Greenward and Nelson (2011) social enterprises can assume a variety of legal and organizational models. These models are basically classified into four categories and they include; (i) Leveraged nonprofits which capitalize on the interest of a variety of stakeholders to operate and to secure ongoing support based on a diversified portfolio of funding. (ii) Enterprising nonprofits which have a self-financing component contributing to the organization's sustainability. (iii) Hybrid enterprises which combine aspects of the for- profit and non-profit legal models, either through an innovative legal structure or by using a for-profit subsidiary to support the social activities of the nonprofit.

Typology of Creating Business Models

In configuring an appropriate business model for their venture, market-making social entrepreneurs face two strategic decisions. First, they have to decide how to meet the needs of their social target group. In creation of entrepreneurship research varying mission foci have been addressed (e.g., Agafonow, 2014; Hockerts, 2015; Santos, 2012), which we broadly categorize as *social provision*, i.e., serving a group of beneficiaries with consumption needs, and *social integration*, meaning the productive mobilization of beneficiaries with production needs. Second, entrepreneurs have to consider the type of market they wish to enter or create where prior research has revealed a spectrum of social and commercial market approaches (e.g., Dohrmann et al., 2015; Dorado, 2006; Nicholls, 2009; Santos et al., 2015; Wilson & Post, 2013; Yunus et al., 2010). In our analysis, we differentiate between a *social* market orientation, referring to entrepreneurs that acquire donations from third parties, and a *commercial* market orientation, which involves strategies to generate revenues. By combining the entrepreneur's *mission focus* and the venture's *market orientation* as the two basic strategy dimensions in constructing social business models, we obtain the 2x2 matrix shown in Fig. 2 with four generic design

strategies.

The two strategy perspectives of *mission focus* and *market orientation* represent contingency factors (Doty & Glick, 1994) that guide the entrepreneur in choosing among the four generic strategies of social venturing shown in Fig. 2. In the following subsections, we first develop generic business model archetypes for each of the four strategic orientations, thus filling each quadrant of the matrix (Fig. 2) with content, i.e., with a contingent ideal type (Doty & Glick, 1994). At the core of each business model is an unsustainable *social mission* (Fig. 2), which is conceptually completed to achieve self-sustainability. The relative positions of the ideal types within the matrix thereby establish a typology of social business models, which we support by illustrative examples to also create a complementary taxonomy of role models.

Theoretical Framework

The work was anchored on Resource Based theory propounded by Penrose *(1959)* in her work, "The theory of the Growth of the firm". The resource based view of firm is based on two assumptions: Resource diversity and Resource immobility. Resource diversity: This pertains to whether a firm owns a resource or capability that is also owned by numerous other competing firms, then that resource cannot provide a competitive advantage.

Resource immobility: This refers to a resource that is difficult to obtain by competitors, because the cost of developing, acquiring or using that resource is too hard. The aforementioned assumptions are used to determine whether an entrepreneur is able to create a sustainable competitive advantage by providing a framework for determining whether a process or technology provides a real advantage over the market place. The resource-based view hold that small scale enterprise is facilitated when there are capabilities and resources which the entrepreneur either possesses or can acquire and deploy in sustainable manner. Penrose (1959) argued that it is only with appropriate resources and capabilities that can be deployed in a sustainable manner over a long term that entrepreneurs achieve sustainable competitive advantage and success.

The theory holds that an entrepreneur achieves resounding success when there is good understanding of the resource potentials, through good vision, intuition and creative act, an entrepreneur chooses a particular business where resources that are valuable, rare, hard to copy and resources that are non-substitutable, the entrepreneur will not only be able to succeed but enjoy long term competitive advantage and economic success.

Conceptual Framework
Innovation
Leadership
Performance
Identity

Researcher's Composure (2019)
Innovation. In the pursuit of social value, social entrepreneurs challenge the status quo. How should one conceptualize their role? Are they truly innovators? Or are they especially effective implementers of innovations or combinations of innovations or approaches that are "out there"?
Performance. Social entrepreneurs' perceived superior performance is a powerful element in the case for social entrepreneurship. They are seen as more effective providers of public goods, and develop markets that are shunned by formal-sector enterprises. How should one go about conceptualizing and measuring their performance in the delivery of public and private goods? What about the relevant metrics?

Leadership. Novel practices that unfreeze an unproductive status quo seldom establish themselves voluntarily. Leadership is a critical element in the equation. How does social entrepreneurs' leadership enter an empirical research agenda?
Identity. Sociologist Roland Robertson has pointed out that globalization "has itself become part of 'global consciousness'. "The same holds true for social entrepreneurship. The concept of social entrepreneurship theorizes a set of changes at a specific historical juncture. Popularized by intermediaries such as Ashoka, the label "social entrepreneur" is embraced by a growing community of practitioners. They think of themselves as social entrepreneurs, because this identity makes sense in the light of their experience and way of doing business.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design
The study critically examined the effects of social entrepreneurship development for employment generation in Kogi State. In order to carry out this study effectively, the descriptive survey design was adopted making use of primary sources to collect data in order to discuss and interpret the existing condition of the people. Interviews were conducted and questionnaire administered to the population consisting of the selected respondents drawn from community of registered entrepreneurship groups, individuals and organizations of those involved in agricultural enterprises in the selected three Local Government Areas of the three Senatorial Districts of Kogi State covering the period between 2013—2018. The kind of relationship and

conclusion that was anticipated were relationship that showed significant relationship between social entrepreneurship and employment generation.

The statistical formula for the calculation of the sample is determine as follows..
Where
n= sample size
N= actual population (5663)
P= probability of success/proportion
Q= probability of failure! proportion
Z= standard error of the mean
E= limit of tolerable error (level of significance)

$$n = \frac{1.96^2 \times 5663 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{5663 \times 0.05^2 + 1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}$$

n = 399.6 approximately 400

Hence, 400 represent the sample size for the study.

From the above, total numbers of four hundred questionnaires was distributed to respondents. Data was presented in frequency tables and the corresponding values expressed in percentages, equally, the hypotheses (1) (2) and (3) was test using multiple regression analysis and in hypotheses (4) we used principle component analysis (PCA) method of factors Analysis; this methods reduced a large group of factors to the most significant ones. By using Varimax Rotation Component of Factors with eight value greater than one

Test of Hypothesis

Hypothesis One: There is no significant effect of various creating Entrepreneurship Scheme adopted on Employment Generation in Kogi State

Table 4.8: Summary of regression for the joint contributions of independent variables to the employment creation.

R = 0.740 R Square = 0.508 Adjusted R square = 0.502					
Model	**Sum of Squares**	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**

1	Regression	2715.347	3	905.116	32.602	.000[b]
	Residual	8217.600	296	27.762		
	Total	10932.947	299			

Table 4.8 shows significant joint contribution of the independent variables (proactiveness, risk taking, innovativeness and environmental factors) to the prediction of creating entrepreneur development in employment creation. The result yielded a coefficient of multiple regressions R = 0.740 and multiple R-square = 0.508. This suggests that the Four factors combined accounted for *50.2%* (Adj.R2' *.502)* variance in the prediction of SEDs in employment creation. The other factors accounting for the remaining variance are beyond the scope of this study. The multiple regression analysis shows that there was a significant effect of the independent variables SED on employment creation, $F_{(3,296)} = 32.602$, P<O.0l.

Summary of effect of proactiveness, risk taking, innovativeness and environmental factors on social entrepeneurship development in job creation

Model		SED to Employment Creation		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
B	Std. Error	Beta				
1	(Constant)	48.278	3.361		*14.365*	.000
Proactiveness	.315	.045	*.405*	*-3.557*	.000	
Risk-taking	-2.652	.746	-.176	-3.557	.000	
Inovativeness	-2.901	.921	*-.157*	-3.148	.002	
Creation of Entrepreneurship	.063	.023	.156	2.803	.005	

Table 4.9 shows that the four variables contributed differently to creation of entrepreneuship development in employment generation in kogi state. The most significantly potent contributor to the prediction of market share is proactiveness (t=7.06; *p<O.05)* followed by risk taking (t -3.56; p<O.O5), innovativeness (t= -3.15; p<O.O5) and environmental factors (t'2.80; p<0.O5), this implies that proactiveness, risk taking, innovativeness and environmental factors significantly influence social entrepreneuship development for employment creation.

Discussion of Findings

The study established that social entrepreneurship measured by social problem solving, social value, social responsibility and human teamwork has a significant relationship with employment generation. The findings concurred with previous studies that significant and positive relationship exist between social entrepreneurship, employment generation and poverty alleviation. The study therefore concluded that creation of entrepreneurship is driving force of social and environmental goals that have an impact on sustainable economic development. This confirms that most of the failed enterprises

belong to the men. Nonetheless Ilemona, Akoji, and Matthew, (2013) discovers that 78% of entrepreneurs in Kogi State are male owing to traditional right of dominance the males have over females on issues like land acquisition and other production factors. Therefore we can hence conclude that Male gender as prevalent in social entrepreneur as the female counterpacts.

However, In spite of the Male predominance it was also observed that most of the respondent (86%) are in the active working population. However the dependency ratio in social entrepreneurship of 14.4% (0 -18 years and 61 and above)is higher than the dependency ratio of the population of 11.24%. This relative high dependency ratio is likely to reduce productivity growth and a growth in the non-productive population will diminish productive capacity and could lead to a lower long-run trend rate of economic growth. Conversely, the average income of the respondents was seen to be Nl5, 010. With *56.8%* of the respondent believing that this income is not insufficient at all. However, the N *15,* 010 monthly income when prorated gives a daily income of N485 or $1.32 which is a far cry below the minimum approved wage rate and less than global measurement of poverty lineof $1.90 a day but it is however in consonance with the findings of Francis and Okeke, (2017) that *55%* of the entrepreneurs income N10 000 and N30 000 monthly While Kareem (2015)majority of the respondents (46%) earned between the range of N20, 000Monthly. Hence based on the foregoing we can asserts that creating entrepreneurs are considered poor having fallen below the poverty line.

Consequently, the major source of capital for Creating entrepreneurs are personal savings *(85%)* among other sources like 9.5% from family and 3.2% and 2.1% through microcredit and bank respectively. This however conforms with the findings of Olufisayo, 2010 that asserted that An entrepreneur can source for fund through Owner's Equity, Loansand Grants. Also personal saving also called owners' equity been the major source of capital for entrepreneurs inclusive of social

entrepreneurs as enunciated by Teker, & Teker, (2016)., Olatunji, & Ibrahim, 2014. also, Kuruppu, (2015) argue that entrepreneurs are reluctant to seek external finance as they experience difficulty in accessing difference sources of financing methods', hence opt for their own savings as a source of fund.

The study shall critically examine the effects of social entrepreneurship in creation of new business models for employment generation in Kogi State. The objective of the study includes To indentify the Relationship between the social entrepreneurship scheme adopted and employment generation in Kogi State, To Ascertain the Relationship between the rationale for the adoption of Social Entrepreneurship and Wealth Creation in Kogi State, To assess the sufficiency of Income earned from Social Entrepreneurship to ensure poverty reduction, To assess the effect of various management tools adopted by creating entrepreneurs on employment generation in Kogi State, To Determine the Relationship between the impact of creation of entrepreneurship on standard of living in Kogi state.

Primary sources to collect data. Was used which was collected via questionnaire shall be administered on the population consisting of the selected respondents drawn from community of registered entrepreneurship groups, individuals and organizations of those involved in agricultural enterprises in the selected three Local Government Areas of the three Senatorial Districts of Kogi State covering the period between 2013 — 2018. Out of the projected total census figure (NPC, 2016) from three Local Government Areas each from the three Senatorial District stands at *4,473,500* from the entire total figure of population census for Kogi State (2016) of 193,392,500 the study sampled 400 respondents using the Slovins Formula for known population from the data of registered. Among the 400 samples size drawn 375 questionnaire representing 93.75% of the total questionnaire was returned with only a meagre of 6.25% of the questionnaire unreturned. The large number of returned questionnaire as against the uncollected shows that response drawn is truly a true and fair representation of the opinion of the population.

Result for the study revealed that there exist a significant positive Relationship between the creation of entrepreneurship scheme adopted and employment generation in Kogi State. Also further findings revealed that there is no significant Relationship between the rationale for the adoption of Creating Entrepreneurship and Wealth Creation in Kogi State while sufficiency of Income earned from Social Entrepreneurship to ensure poverty reduction is grossly inadequate.

Conclusion

As a result of the societal numerous problem and the earnest quest for innovation

makes creation of entrepreneurship the new business model. Creation of entrepreneurship is an approach by start-up companies and entrepreneurs, in which they develop, fund and implement solutions to social, cultural, or environmental issue. Social entrepreneurship is a platform or way in which people come together and work to create an equal, just and sustainable society. They should work to bring in positive social, economic and environmental outcomes for the society. Hence Social entrepreneurship has significant effect on employment generation.

Recommendations

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

1. Subsequently, the study recommended that government at all levels, privateorganizations and non- government organizations should embrace the concept of creating entrepreneurship and address the issues such as insecurity, acute unemployment, and abject poverty ravaging our society.
2. More also, the concept of creation of entrepreneurship should be included as a separate branch of management courses in all tertiary institutions of learning.
3. Government should provide the enabling environment where young Entrepreneurs could easily tap our resources for increased and consistent production in order to create more job opportunities.
4. Government policies and legislation on property rights are important in shaping a country's innovativeness. Protecting material property rights ensures that any wealth creation stays with the entrepreneur, while protecting intellectual property rights fosters entrepreneurship and innovation.

REFERENCES

Addou, E., Fahmy, A., Greenward, and Nelson, J. (2010). Social Entrepreneurship in the Middle East towards sustainable development for the next generation. The *Presidential Summit on Entrepreneurship held in Washington,* 26-27.

Acs, Z. and Armington, C., (2006). Entrepreneurship, geography, and American economic growth. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press. pp. 37-40

Agafonow, A. 2014. Toward a positive theory of social entrepreneurship. On maximizing versus satisficing value capture. *Journal of Business Ethics, 125(4),* 709-7 13.

Brilliant, L. (2013). Fifty Years of Social Change. *Stanford Social Innovation Review,10th Anniversary Essays,* 25-27. Retrieved January 25, 2014

fromhttp://www.ssireview.org/pdf/Spring_2013

Fifty_Years_of_Social_Change.pdf

Holmes, R. (2012). *Social protection in Nigeria: Mapping programmes and their Effectiveness*

Cheng 5, Stough RR, Jackson RW (2009) Measuring and building highquality entrepreneurship: a research Prospectus *Innovation.* Euro. J. Soc. Sci. Res., 22(3): 329-340.

Nayab, N. (2011). *History of Social Entrepreneurship.* [Web log comment]. RetrievedDecember 12, 2013 from <<<<<<<<<<<http://www.brighthub.com/office/entrepreneurs/articles/73851 .aspx>>>>>>>>>>>.

Olokundun, M.A., Ibidunni, A.S., Peter, F., Amaihian, A.B. & Ogbari, M. (2017). Entrepreneurship educator's competence on university students' commitment to learning and business plan writing. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 16(2),* 1-10.

Osterwalder, A., & Pigneur, Y. 2010. *Business model generation, a handbook for visionaries, game changers and challengers.* New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Udu, A. A., Udu. G.O.C, Eze, F.C (2008), Entrepreneurship. Enugu: Rhyce Publihers

Weerawardena, J., & Mort, G. S. 2006. Investigating social entrepreneurship: A multidimensional model. *Journal of World Business,* 41(1), 21-35.

Schaltegger, S. & Wagner, M. (2011). Sustainable entrepreneurship and Sustainability innovation: Categories and Interactions. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 20,* 222-237.

Schumpeter J (1951). Essays of J.A. Schumpeter, Cambridge, M.A. Addison Wesley Press, Inc. 4: 7.

Osberg, S. (2009). Framing the Change and Changing the Frame: A New Role for Social Entrepreneurs. *Innovations, Special Edition for the Skoll World Forum 2009,* 5-10.

Mair, J., & Marti, I. 2006. Social entrepreneurship research: A source of

explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business, 41(1),* 36-44.

Dohrmann, S., Raith M. G., & Siebold, N. 2015. Monetizing social value creation — a business model approach. *Entrepreneurship Research Journal, 5(2),* 127-154.

Dorado, S. 2006. Social entrepreneurial ventures: different values so different process of creation, no? *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, 11(4),* 319-343.

MODERATING ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL ACCOUNTANTS IN CURBING CORRUPTION EFFECT ON HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

EGBERE MICHAEL IKECHUKWU, Ph. D, AJAYI, TIJJANI AHMED Ph. D[9] & EGBERE MICHAEL IKECHUKWU, PhD[10].;

Abstract

This study examined the moderating role of professional accountants in curbing corruption effect on human development in Nigeria. The study's independent variables include Corruption Perception Index at time, Level of life expectancy, Level of life standard of living and Level of life capital accumulation, which were used as proxies for the corruption, while the dependent variable is Human development Index. Four hypotheses were formulated for this study. An ex post facto design was used and the data for the study comes from the data for the study were sourced from the secondary means. The collected data were from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin spanning the period of 31years (1990– 2021). The analyses were made possible with the e-view statistical package of econometric techniques and the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) model was adopted. The study found that Level of life standard of living appears to be positive and statistically significant within 5% conventional levels of significance, the results further reveal that there are positive relationship between moderating role of corruption as proxied by Level of life capital accumulation (LHCA) and human development in Nigeria. The result also revealed the positive and statistical relationship between Level of life expectancy as a proxy variable of corruption and human development index. The significant result suggests that the effect of Corruption Perception Index (CPI) as a proxy variable corruption on economic development in Nigeria in terms human development index (HDI) is statistically significant with the value of [coeff. = 34.20965; P – value = 0.0013. The paper concludes that the moderating roles of professional accountants to the study are to promote professional ethnics and code of conducts that will help to curb the menaces of corruption, Create climate for transparency, Provide reliable information in both public and private sectors, Disassociate from illegal activities, Establish mechanism that prevents and detects flaws in place of work, Conduct check on the internal control system to enhance compliance with relevant laws and regulations, Improve financial accountability and probity by strong supervision, Promote integrity, trust and fairness as guiding principle, Create climate for good corporate governance and

[9] Department of Accounting, Kogi State University Anyigba
[10] Email: michealikechukwu1975@gmail.com, Corresponding Author:

exhibit honesty and making valuable effort towards eradicating corruption in Nigeria. The paper therefore recommends that the Stringent regulatory policies in this regard should be revisited such that they are either relaxed or expunged to pave way for policies that stimulate effective transparent measures and shuns corruption by professional accountants.

Key words: professional accountants, moderating role, corruption, Nigeria

Introduction

Corruption is understood as the "abuse of public or private office for personal gain". This notion covers a broad range of activities and behaviours such as trading in influence, political capture and interference, conflict of interest, bribery of domestic public officials and bribery of foreign public officials, including facilitation payments, extortion, fraud, embezzlement, misappropriation or other diversion of property, abuse of function, illicit enrichment, bribery in the private sector, embezzlement of property in the private sector, concealment of property resulting from corruption, and obstruction of justice(Acosta,2015).

The term corruption which is an act of an official or fiduciary person who unlawfully and wrongfully uses his station or character to procure some benefit for himself or for another person, contrary to duty and the rights of others, comes from a special form of the Latin verb to break, rumpere which implies that something is badly broken (Nye, 2021)). It is the giving and receiving of something of value which might be a moral or ethical code or, more often, an administrative rule or whether demanded or not, to influence the receiver's action favourably toward the giver. In general, corruption may be defined as the abuse of public office for private benefit (World Bank, 2020) such as when officials accept or ask for a bribe, and also when private entities provide kickbacks to avoid policies or procedures in order to make more profit and to be more competitive.

Corruption is considered a main challenge to achieving economic and human development, because it distorts the values and norms of every society, inhibits the performance of public and private sector organisations and constrains the optimal use of resources (Yang,2020).). The literature review showed that corruption can influence human development indirectly by affecting economic growth (Akçay, 2006) and directly by influencing its dimensions: poverty, education and health. While some scholars argue that corruption can motivate economic growth and development under certain conditions, noting that corruption can grease the wheels of economic growth and development, greater evidence supports the contrary view: corruption is sanding the wheels of growth, that is, corruption adversely affects economic growth and development (Omoteso & Mobolaji, 2019).

The need to accelerate growth and poverty alleviation in African economies in recent years has gained prominence in domestic and international policy circles. Investment in poverty alleviation has become the primary measuring stick for the commitment to economic development in national policy as well as in the development assistance community. The emerging consensus is that while growth is necessary, it is not sufficient to overcome deep poverty (Kaufmann, Kraay & Mastruzzi, 2009).

Corruption is perceived to have a negative impact on human and sustainable development. The development community has committed to tackling the greatest challenge of the 21stcentury, which is "to provide every human being on the planet with a long, healthy, and fulfilling life, free of poverty. This new focus on poverty alleviation is supported by broad-based advocacy initiatives and has generated promises for increased funding for development, including the recent commitment to debt cancellation by the major industrialized countries (Ortega, et. al, 2014).

Corruption may be categorized as follows: grand corruption, petty corruption and political corruption. Grand corruption refers to actions that enable leaders to achieve gains at the cost of the public good and is performed at high levels of government through distorting policies or the state central functioning. Petty corruption shows how low-level and mid-level public officials misuse their power when dealing with citizens who need to access essential goods and services in places as schools, hospitals, police departments and other agencies. Political corruption occurs when decision makers abuse their position to maintain status, power and wealth, or manipulate policies and rules influencing resource allocation and financing (Transparency International, 2018).

Few studies argue that corruption is not detrimental for growth while a large amount of literature oppose this view and maintains that corruption sands the wheels of growth, which means that corruption has a negative impact on economic growth and development. Corruption is not good for development by way of it is one of the main obstacles in the way of successful economic improvement. Corruption has a direct influence on human development as high corruption may be a cause of public policies ineffectiveness and can move investment and economic activities in the direction of unproductive and dishonest high profit activities. Therefore corruption can weaken the impact of public policies that target satisfaction of essential needs or capabilities (Pérez-Segura, 2014).

Furthermore, subsequently the concept of human development implies realizing

equity, it involves improving the quality of life for all, so there is more reason to think that corruption will deteriorate human development (Ahmad & Saleem, 2014). If equity includes also inter-generational equity, and corruption can weaken environmental policies which benefit future generations, then it undermines equity for these generations.

In its Human Development Reports, which have shown that corruption is bad for human development and concentrates on its consequences. The UNDP (2020) explained that corruption may involve embezzlement of budgets dedicated for education or health care. Also, if civil servants or politicians drain foreign aid intended to help in alleviating poverty, then corruption obviously weakens human development.

Nigeria has paid, and continues to pay a huge price for corruption in high and low places in the land. An African social and economic writer was quoted as saying that corruption is rare in Botswana, widespread in Ghana, and systemic in Nigeria. The implication is that in Nigeria corruption has become an industry, well organised with stakeholders, investors and risk-return profile. The fraud industry boasts of well-oiled, internal coordination, with shared knowledge and a vertical exchange of benefits linking principals and agents. It creates a network of operatives, freezes out critics and non-corrupt agents, and shares rewards and risks among stakeholders. The consequences have been quite dire. The UNDP Human Development Report (2020) summarises Nigeria's sorry situation in these words:

Nigeria surely has a scorecard; but it is an unimpressive one relative to its contemporaries in the 1960s and 1970s. What is different about Nigeria is that its poverty and human development performance are largely avoidable. Forty-nine years of managing its own affairs has shown that the country has immense potential, is blessed with human and natural resources, yet exhibiting significant deprivation in the midst of plenty.

In many respects, the economy has shown traits of a complex coloration that defies conventional classification. It is a country of extremes - extreme wealth on the one hand and extreme want on the other - which makes it possible for some 20 per cent of the population to own 65 per cent of its national wealth (Shuaib, 2019).

The major issue is that Nigeria is rated the 7th largest producer of oil in the world, with a population in excess of 140 million citizens, offering a rich source of cheap and enterprising labour, and the largest market in Africa. Her non-oil mineral resources remain largely un-utilized, including bitumen, uranium, gold and bauxite, tin, coal, and indeed, practically every known global revenue spinner. Yet: Over

80% of Nigerian citizens live below the poverty line, and Nigeria is ranked 156th out of 187 countries in the world ranking of nations using the Human Development Index (UNDP, 2019). Meanwhile, Nigeria has earned close to $450 billion since 1970 on oil receipts alone. Nigeria's Human Development Index lags behind the Sub-Saharan Africa average. The inequity-adjusted HDI is even further disappointing.

Other HDI for Nigeria include: Life expectancy 51.9 years; Education index 0.442; Multi-Dimensional Poverty Index 0.310; and Gross National Income per capita 2,069. Current statistics reveal that 1% of Nigeria's population, enjoy the privileges of 80% of its oil wealth. Thus, 99% of the population have barely 20% of the overall wealth to struggle over. Nigeria ranked 14th as the world's most failed state in the 2011 rankings released by Fund for Peace, an American independent non-profit research and educational organisation. The survey considered 177 countries. Nigeria was only better than the likes of Somalia, Chad, Sudan and Afghanistan.

Literature Review

Concept of Corruption

Corruption is represented by the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) whose data has been developed by Transparency International since 1995. This is done through ranking countries according to how corrupt their public sector is perceived to be, referring to a combination of polls and reflecting visions of witnesses from all over the world, while taking into account the opinion of experts who live and work in the countries assessed (Transparency International, 2018a). The CPI is expressed as a value scaled from 0 to 10, with 0 representing highest corruption and 10 lowest corruption. In order to facilitate interpretation, and following other studies, this index is rescaled in this paper such that the score is subtracted from 10 to indicate higher corruption for higher scores (Rose-Ackerman, 2015). The literature survey demonstrated that corruption is detrimental for economic growth and development. Therefore, it is expected that the coefficient of the corruption index will have a negative sign (Standing & Hilson 2013).

Control of Corruption (CCP): Control of corruption which is used as proxy for corruption mirrors the perceptions of the extent to which people occupying public positions use the powers of such offices for private gain. It was measured using annual control of corruption index prepared Mauro (2018)) which ranks countries on a scale from –2.5 (high corruption) to 2.5 (low corruption). This index was rescaled by subtracting country scores from 2.5 so that higher values correspond

with higher corruption levels. This attempt is in line with Rose-Ackerman, (2015).

Concept of Human Development: This is the process of enlarging people's choices and capabilities. It is measured using the Human Development Index (HDI) developed by the UNDP on a scale of 0 to 1. Where 1 corresponds to high human development and 0 relates to very low human development. This was the dependent variable for the estimated model. The lag level of the variable was included among the explanatory variables in line with endogenous growth model and it is required for the GMM estimation. This lag value of human development indicates the existing level of welfare upon which improvement can be made. Human Development **is** expressed by the Human Development Index (HDI) which is a composite index used in ranking countries depending on three essential aspects of human development: having a long and healthy life, determined by life expectancy at birth; being able to obtain knowledge, expressed by mean years of schooling and expected years of schooling and being able to realize a decent standard of living, assessed by per capita gross national income. HDI is categorized into: very high HDI, high HDI, medium HDI and low HDI (Shuaib, et. Al, 2016).).

GDP per capita (GDPpc):

GDP per capita is the gross domestic product divided by midyear population. GDP per capita is expected to be positively related to HDI. A low level of GDP per capita is a good red flag to corruption. Law level GDP per capita is one of proxy variables of corruption apart from corruption perception index. As disposable income increases, people will have more resources for better housing, food, and health care (Saha & Ben-Ali, 2017). GDP Growth Rate (GDPgr): This is the annual percentage growth rate of GDP. GDP at purchaser's prices is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or for depletion and degradation of natural resources (World Bank, 2020).

Government Expenditure on Health:

Government Expenditure (GOV) is the general government final consumption expenditure (% of GDP), used as a proxy to corruption. Corruption reduces the quantity and quality of public education and health spending (Gupta et al., 2021). It is the public expenditure on health from domestic sources as a share of total public expenditure. Government Expenditure on Health indicates the priority of the government to spend on health from own domestic public resources. So, low Government Expenditure on Health is a good indicator of corruption. It is a major component of corruption.

Population Growth Rate (POP):

Urban population (% of total) refers to people living in urban areas as defined by national statistical offices. It is expected that increased urbanization will enhance health conditions and education outcomes (Gupta et al., 2021). The sources for our data were Human Development Reports (UNDP) for HDI; Transparency International for CPI and the World Development Indicators (WDI) of the World Bank for other variables. Population Growth Rate (POP): This is defined as the rate at which population of a country grows over time. For instance, population growth in year *t* is the exponential rate of growth of midyear population from year t-1 to t, expressed in percentage (World Bank, 2020).

Relationship between corruption and human development

Human development is defined as "expanding the choices people have to lead lives that they value. Expanding choices can be achieved only by creation of human capabilities that can be increased through development of human resources for example, good health and nutrition, education, and skill training. As measured by the Human Development Index (HDI) published by the United Nations Development Program, human development contains three vital aspects of socioeconomic development: health, education, and standard of living. The HDI is based on three corruption indicators, all of which are given equal weight (Human Development Report 2020):Longevity, as measured by the life expectancy (at birth) index; Educational attainment, as measured by an index evaluating a combination of adult literacy (two-thirds weight) and the combined gross primary, secondary, and tertiary enrolment ratio (one-third weight) and Standard of living and access to resources, as measured by an index calculating real GDP per capita in terms of purchasing power parity (PPP).

There are a number of reasons why human development may be affected by corruption. As the literature review indicates, corruption can indirectly affect human development by lowering economic growth and incentives to invest. Different empirical studies show that corruption influences the resources spent on education and health. Tanwar (2012) finds that corruption reduces government expenditure on education and health. Mauro claims that public officials do not want to spend more on education and health because those spending programs offer less opportunity for rent seeking. Similarly, Baldacci et. Al (2008) show that corruption reduces the level of social spending, fosters education inequality, lowers secondary schooling, and causes unequal distribution of land.

Empirical review

Research on corruption and human development has received increased attention in literature and results have been diverse. The ways by which corruption affects development using cross sectional data of 67 countries collected in 2001 which was analyzed using ordinary least square (OLS) regression and reported that corruption negatively impacted capital stock and productivity, thereby influencing economic development negatively(Becherair & Tahtane, 2017).

Akhter (2004) analyzed the impact of economic freedom and corruption on the relationship between globalization and human development with data from 75 countries in 1998 using Full- Information Maximum Likelihood method. The paper revealed a positive and significant relationship between globalization and human development and a negative relationship between corruption and globalization. Note that economic globalization was measured as the ratio of the summation of foreign direct investment (FDI) and export to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Akhter, 2004).

Qizilbash (2021) examined the correlation between the quality of governance and human development using OLS and employing 2021 data from 186 countries. Results indicated that governance indicators and human development influence each other positively. Asmita & Ruslan (2017) compared the perceived level of corruption among developing regions and examined the link between Corruption Perception Index (CPI), geography and human development in a cross-sectional data of 170 countries in 2017. It was reported that Asia was more corrupt than Latin America and Caribbean, while all of them together were the most corrupt in the world. Furthermore, corruption had significant relationship with human development.

Akçay (2020) examined whether development performance depends on governance indices using the Generalized Method of Moment (GMM) for data of all Asian countries from 2005-2018. The study found that government effectiveness, control of corruption and regulatory quality have significant and positive relationship with development. Perez-Segura (2014) determined how quality of governance affect the relationship between FDI and human development in 158 countries from 1996 to 2010 and found positive relationship between human development, governance and FDI.

Ahmad and Saleem (2014) used the multi-layer perception and stepwise estimation to assess the effect of governance on human development using cross sectional data of 168 countries. The results showed positive impact of government effectiveness and political stability on human development while there was a negative effect of

corruption on human development. Asmita & Ruslan (2017) in a panel of forty-seven SSA countries from 2002-2009 assessed the impact of control of corruption on economic growth in SSA. The study reported that corruption, political stability and regulatory quality had positive and significant effect on economic growth while government effectiveness has inverse relationship with growth of the economy in the region.

Sacks and Levi (2016) in a multi-level model assessed the link between government effectiveness and social welfare using data from 18 SSA countries and reported that the level of government effectiveness had significant effect on ability of citizens to attain food security and to improve welfare. Becherair and Tahtane (2017) examined the causal relationship between corruption and human development in Middle East and North Africa using data from 2000-2016 and reported that corruption had significant negative effect on human development unidirectional. This means that increase in the level of corruption significantly reduced human development while it could not be said that human development significantly affected corruption. The implication of this is that the existence of corruption hinders human development while improvement in human development did not guarantee reduction in the level of corruption. Similar study in the same region but covering different periods by Sen(2019) found no significant relationship between corruption and economic development. From the foregoing it is obvious that most studies reported negative relationships between corruption and human development and positive relationship between government effectiveness and human development with few exceptions which reported positive relationship between corruption and human development. Meanwhile, there are still divergence in findings which can be improved upon with more recent data and appropriate analytical approach. In addition, attention has not been given to the possible moderating role of professional accountants in curbing corruption effect on human development in Nigeria. All these were addressed in the present study.

Methodoloy

In order to ascertain the moderating role of professional accountants in curbing corruption effect on human development in Nigeria, the data for the study were sourced from the secondary means. The collected data were from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin spanning the period of 31years (1990– 2021). Data on liquidity management measures of banks in Nigeria like reserve requirements, investment in short-term government securities, interbank loans and investment in money market securities, were regressed against total banks performing loans and advances of banks.

The analyses were made possible with the e-view statistical package of econometric techniques and the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) model was adopted. Some of the vital statistical test carried out include the unit root test for stationarity, co-integration test for the determination of nature of relationship in the model (long or short-run), heteroscedascity tests, normality tests, the granger causality for unidirectional, birectional relationship or otherwise, estimation of the OLS equation, joint and individual test of significance, etc. All these tests were carried out to ascertain the effectiveness of adopted liquidity management measures in Nigerian banks in recent time. However, it is pertinent to point out that economic relationship is not assumed to be exact. Other variables apart from the ones stated which exist, can influence liquidity management but are omitted in the model were considered by introducing the error term or random variable (disturbance term) in the OLS model to capture all kinds of disturbances that might distort the structure of the model.

The model is given in a functional form as

HDI = f (CPI, LLE, LSLV, LHCA) ----------equ (1)

This was transformed into mathematical form as

$HDI = a0 + CPIX_{t1} + LLEX_{t2} + LSLVX_{t3} + LHCAX_{t4}$ ------ (2)

From equation 2, the OLS model equation was give as

$HDI = a_{01} + CPIX_{1t} + LLEX_{2t} + LSLVX_{3t} + LHCAX_{t} + \mu$

Where

HDI = Human development Index at time t

CPI = Corruption Perception Index at time t.

LLE = Level of life expectancy

LSLV = Level of life standard of living

LHCA = Level of life capital accumulation

μ = error term.

Data Analysis and Finding

Estimation and Analysis Of Results

Unit Root Test:

A consistency or stationary test results for all parameters or variables used in the research is shown on the table below.

Table 1: Augmented Dickey Fuller Unit Root Test Results

Parameters	ADF – Statistics	Mackinnon Critical Values	Order of Integration or Stationarity

HDI	4.417261	1% = -3.831511 5% = -3.029970	1(0)
CPI	5.539538	1% = -3.737853 5% = 3.991878	1(0)
LLE	-9.024506	1% = - 3.808546 5% = - 3.020686	1(2)
LSLV	-3.896706	1% = -3.769597 5% = -3.004861	1(1)
LHCA	-8.398693	1% = -3.752946 5% = -2.998064	1(1)

Source: **E-view 7.1 output 2022**

The ADF Unit root test results on table I with maximum lag of 5 revealed that the variables were integrated at either order 1(0) 1(1) or 1(2). This is given that the ADF statistics value in absolute terms are either greater than the mackinnon critical values at 1% or 5%. Hence, we can rely on the data for estimations.

Long-Run Relationship

The Johansen Co-integration test was applied to confirm and establish the existence of long-run relationship between the parameters under study. The summary of the result is as shown below

Table 2: Johansen Co-integration results.

Date: 01/06/22 Time: 01:46

Sample (adjusted): 1990 2021

Included observations: 31 after adjustments

Trend assumption: Linear deterministic trend

Series: HDI LSLV LHCA LLE CPI

Lags interval (in first differences): 1 to 1

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)

Hypothesized		Trace	0.05
No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Statistic	Critical Value

None *	0.994078	277.3345	69.81889
At most 1 *	0.987161	159.3652	47.85613
At most 2 *	0.876480	59.19348	29.79707
At most 3*	0.379916	11.09237	15.49471
At most 4*	0.004367	0.100660	3.841466

Trace test indicates 3 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

Hypothesized		Max-Eigen	0.05
No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Statistic	Critical Value
None *	0.994078	117.9694	33.87687
At most 1 *	0.987161	100.1717	27.58434
At most 2 *	0.876480	48.10111	21.13162
At most 3*	0.379916	10.99171	14.26460
At most 4*	0.004367	0.100660	3.841466

Max-eigenvalue test indicates 3 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

***Source*:** E-view 7.1 Output 2022

Given the co-integration output result from table 2, the trace statistic indicated 3 Co-integrating equations at 5% level of significance. This denotes the rejection of the null (Ho) hypothesis of non-existence of long-run relationship between the study variables. The trace statistic were lower than the 0.05 critical value for tests under the null hypothesis of 3 and 4. Therefore, this confirms the state of long run relationship between the variables. Causality Tests to establish causality relationship among the variables, the pairwise granger causality tests was employed as shown below.

Heteroscedasticity Test

This was conducted to check whether the variance are constant or stable overtime. This was made possible using the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey shown on table below.

Table 3: Heteroscedasticity Test **.**Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey

F-statistic	13.24258	Prof. F(4,20)		0.0000
Obs*R-squared	18.14790	Prob. Chi-Square(4)		0.0012
Scaled exHDIined SS	16.21608	Prob. Chi-Square(4)		0.0027
Test Equation: Dependent Variable: RESID^2 Method: Least Squares Date: 01/06/22 Time: 01:48 Sample: 1990 2021 Included observations: 31				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-19545.22	62305.47	-0313700	0.7570
LSLV	754.5728	208.6096	3.617153	0.0017
LHCA	766.4065	215.6084	3.554623	0.0020
LLE	518.9279	136.6876	3.796452	0.0011
CPI	34.20965	134.1458	0255019	0.0013
R-squared	0.725916	Mean dependent var		229061.8
Adjusted R-squared	0.671099	S.D. dependent var		390662.5
S.E. of regression	224044.5	Akaike info criterion		27.65393
Sum squared resid	1.00E+12	Schwarz criterion		27.89771
Log likelihood	-340.6742	Hannan-Quinn criter.		27.72155
F-statistic	13.24258	Durbin-Watson stat		2.852594
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000005			

Source: **E-view 7.1 output 2022**

Based on the coefficient of Level of life standard of living (LSLV), the coefficients and associated P-values, coeff. = 3.187836 ; P – value = 0.0000 appear to be positive and statistically significant within 5% conventional levels of significance, this result is in in agreement with the aprori expectation. These mean that corruption proxy by Level of life standard of living affect Human development and this inverse effects are statistically significant.

Alternatively, the significant result suggests that the moderating role of corruption effect on human development in Nigeria in terms Level of life standard of living is highly significant in consistent with that found in the study of Shelikhdon & Kayale, 2016), however not consistent with the study of (Lartey, Antwi & Boadi, 2013).

The results further reveal that there are positive relationship between moderating role of corruption as proxied by Level of life capital accumulation (LHCA) and human development in Nigeria [coeff. = 766.4065; P – value = 0.0020.

The result also revealed the positive and statistical relationship between Level of life expectancy as a proxy variable of corruption and human development index. The relationship is statistically significant at 5% levels of significance in the model (2) only. This is confirmed by the coeff. = 518.9279; P – value = 0.0011

The significant result suggests that the effect of Corruption Perception Index (CPI) as a proxy variable corruption on economic development in Nigeria in terms human development index (HDI) is statistically significant with the value of [coeff. = 34.20965; P – value = 0.0013. However, the positive relationship is statistically significant at 5% levels of significance in the model (2) only. This is confirmed by the P – value = 0.038. The implication of the moderating role of professional accountants to the study include: to promote professional ethnics and code of conducts that will help to curb the menaces of corruption, Create climate for transparency, Provide reliable information in both public and private sectors, Disassociate from illegal activities, Establish mechanism that prevents and detects flaws in place of work, Conduct check on the internal control system to enhance compliance with relevant laws and regulations, Improve financial accountability and probity by strong supervision, Promote integrity, trust and fairness as guiding principle, Create climate for good corporate governance and exhibit honesty and making valuable effort towards eradicating corruption in Nigeria

Conclusion

The research work examined the moderating role of professional accountants in curbing corruption effect on human development in Nigeria. The study which was necessitated by corruption witnessed in recent times in the Nigerian economy (especially after the implementation of the fight against corruption in Nigeria) and also the need for empirical investigations in this regard, revealed that there has been increasing study on the area of such. However, most of the works were carried out with survey design using a particular bank as a case study, as observed on the review of empirical literatures.

Recommendations

- Based on the foregoing, the researchers are of the view that existing fight against corruption strategies or measures should be reviewed to further strengthen the non-operational measures and deepened in order to prevent all the financial leakages
- Stringent regulatory policies in this regard should be revisited such that they are either relaxed or expunged to pave way for policies that stimulate effective transparent measures.
- The recent implementation of the Treasury Single Account by the Nigerian government is a step in the right direction to curb corruption menaces. This move will enhance the seriousness of sector stakeholders and other financial stakeholders of our dear nation preventing the cause of corruption and as well do away with over-dependence on government funds.

References

Acosta A. M. (2015), "The Governance of Natural Resource Wealth: Some Political Economy

Ahmad, Z., & Saleem, A. (2014). Impact of governance on Human Development. Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences, 8(3), 612-628.

Akçay, S. (2006). Corruption and human development. Cato Journal, 26(1), 29-48.

Akhter, H. S. (2004) "Is Globalization What it's Cracked Up to be? Economic Freedom, Corruption, and Human Development." Journal of World Business 39: 283–95.

ang, K. (2020). Human Development and Government Effectiveness. Masters of Public Policy thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences of Georgetown University.

Asmita, F., & Ruslan, D. (2017). Analysis of factors affecting the Human Development Index in North Sumatra Province. IOSR Journal of Business and Management, 19(10), 27-36. http://doi.org/10.9790/487X-1910072736.

Baldacci, E., Clements, B., Gupta, S., & Cui, Q. (2008). Social spending, human capital, and growth in developing countries. World Development, 36(8), 1317-1341.

Becherair M.T and Tahtane J. G. (2017) "Corruption, Law and Order, Bureaucracy, and Real Exchange Rate." Economic Development and Cultural Change 50: 397–404.

Becherair, A., & Tahtane, M. (2017). The causality between corruption and human development in MENA countries: A panel data analysis. East-West Journal of Economics and Business, 20(2), 63-84.

Gupta, S., Verhoeven, M., & Tiongson, E. R. (2021). The effectiveness of government spending on education and health care in developing and transition economies. European Journal of Political Economy, 18, 717–737. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.eap.2017.02.001

Kaufmann, D., Kraay, A., & Mastruzzi, M. (2019). Governance matters VIII: aggregate and individual governance indicators 1996-2008. World Bank Research Working Paper,

Mauro, P. (1995) "Corruption and Growth" Quarterly Journal of Economics 110 (3): 681–712.

McMullan, M. (1961) "A Theory of Corruption." Sociological Review 9 (2): 181–201.

Nandha, M., & Smyth, R. (2013). Quality of governance and human development. http://ssrn.com/abstract=2360898 .

Nye, J. S. (2021) "Corruption and Political Development: A Cost-Benefit Analysis." American Political Science Review 61 (2): 417–27.

Omoteso, K., & Mobolaji, I. H. (2019). Corruption, governance and economic growth in Sub Saharan Africa: A need for the prioritization of reform policies. Social Responsibility Journal, 10(2), 316 – 330. https://doi.org/10.1108/SRJ-06-2012-0067

Ortega, B., Casquero, A., & Sanjuán, J. (2014). Growth in human development: The Role of corruption. Journal of International Development, 26, 974–998.

Pérez-Segura, A. (2014). FDI and human development: What is the role of governance?" Honor thesis.http://econ-erver.umd.edu/~edinger/undergraduate/perezegura_honors_thesis2014.

Qizilbash, M. (2001) "Corruption and Human Development: A Conceptual Discussion." Oxford Development Studies 29 (3): 265–78.

Rose-Ackerman, S. (1997) "The Political Economy of Corruption." In K. A. Elliot (ed.) Corruption and the Global Economy, 31–60. Washington: Institute for

International Economics.

Sacks, A., & Levi, M. (2016). Measuring government effectiveness and its consequences for social welfare. Social Forces, 88(5), 2325-2352

Saha, S., & Ben-Ali, M.S. (2017). Corruption and economic development: New evidence from the Middle Eastern and North African countries. Economic Analysis and Policy, 54, 83-95.

Sen, A. K. (2019). Development as capability expansion. In Keith Griffin & John Knight (eds), Human Development and the International Development Strategy for the 1990s, London: Macmillan, pp. 41.58.

Shuaib, I.M., Ekeria, O. A., & Ogedengbe A. F. (2016). Impact of corruption on the growth of the Nigerian economy-1960-2012: Error correction mechanism (ECM) approach. Journal of Scientific Research and Reports, 9(5), 1-13. doi: 10.9734/JSRR/2016/15329

Standing A. and G. Hilson (2013), "Distributing mining wealth to communities in Ghana: Addressing problems of elite capture and political corruption", U4 Issue No 5, U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre, May.

Tanwar, G. (2012). Corruption and its impact on development: A cross-national Study (B.A thesis) submitted to the University of Georgetown. Http://Repository.Library. Georgetown.Edu.Ng

Transparency International. (2018). Corruption Perception Index 2016.

United Nations Development Programme – UNDP. (2019). Corruption and Good Governance. Bureau for Policy and Programme Support, Management Development and Governance Division, – Discussion Paper 3, New York.

United Nations Development Programme – UNDP. (2020). Human Development Report

World Bank (2020). Metadata Glossary
. https://databank.worldbank.org/metadataglossary/ World Bank. (2018). The State of Social Safety Nets 2018. Washington, DC: World Bank.

APPENDIX

YEAR	HDI (₦'b)	CPI (₦'b)	LLE (₦'b)	LSLV (₦'b)	LHCA (₦'b)
1990	25.8	4.8	8.7	3.2	6.6
1991	31.3	13.7	6.8	4.6	10.4
1992	42	27.1	5.9	14.9	19.4
1993	44.6	40.2	29.8	20.7	24.9
1994	37.3	47.1	39.2	25.5	17.9
1995	126	54.1	20.8	31.6	57.3
1996	157.7	62.7	47.5	27.5	47.6
1997	217.9	64.6	29.6	51.8	53.3
1998	246.4	62.7	49.1	54.7	75.1
1999	314.5	118.5	188.6	69.8	135.2
2000	437.8	167.6	278.6	123.2	194.6
2001	747.43	319	208.3	139.4	305
2002	829.6	321.5	467.5	142.4	398.2
2003	1040.3	362.2	378.2	170.1	437.7
2004	1307.6	364.2	609.1	247.6	481.3
2005	1656.9	515.2	630.8	206.3	463.2
2006	2197.8	670.5	993.5	208.2	1358.3
2007	4013.2	659.6	1960.4	527.8	930.7
2008	6331.9	910.7	1717.1	1311.1	1506.8
2009	8039	521.8	1826.7	1322.5	1265.6
2010	6929.8	531.4	2377.9	1097.1	1296.4
2011	6642.7	1222.5	3162.4	543.8	1702.5
2012	7702.9	1847.2	2233.5	407.2	2005.5
2013	8720.65	2486.4	2595.1	548.73	2055
2014	10978	3657	3696	575	2132
2015	11258	4334.8	6218.7	613.2	2266
2016	11313	4213	5326.8	624.6	2310
2017	12412	4127	3959	614.9	1944
2018	13446	3940	2329.8	620.7	2493
2019	16373	5047	4339.2	625.5	1792
2020	11126	4254	5420.8	731.6	5734
2021	11258	5434	6587.01	703.2	3663

***Source*: Central Bank of Nigeria, 2022**

HDI = Human development Index at time t, CPI = Corruption Perception Index at time t, LLE = Level of life expectancy, LSLV = Level of life standard of living and LHCA = Level of life capital accumulation

EFFECTS OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP ON EMPLOYMENT GENERATION IN KOGI STATE

DR. ABDULLAHI MOHAMMED HABEEB[11], ABUBAKAR AMINAT[12], ABDULLAHI MOHAMMED MUKTAR[13] & AHMED ABUBAKAR SEDIQ[14]

Abstract

Effects of Social Entrepreneurship on Employment Generation in Kogi State, to find out the impact of Innovativeness on job creation in Kogi State, to examine the extent to which proactiveness have created jobs in Kogi State, find out the efficiency of risk taking on job creation in Kogi State, as a result of the societal numerous problem and the earnest quest for innovation makes social entrepreneurship the new business model. Social entrepreneurship is an approach by start-up companies and entrepreneurs, in which they develop, fund and implement solutions to social, cultural, or environmental issue, social entrepreneurship is a platform or way in which people come together and work to create an equal, just and sustainable society, they should work to bring in positive social, economic and environmental outcomes for the society. Hence Social entrepreneurship has significant effect on employment generation. The federal, state and local governments should modify the existing job creation strategies by committing more funds to the proactive youths to involved in employment generation, government should embark on skills acquisition programme that will bring out the innovations of the youth in Kogi state employment generation strategy that would combine increased government spending and tax-cut to create more jobs that will help to reduce the high current open unemployment in the state.

Introduction

The dynamic economic conditions of the world today need flexible individual with entrepreneurial value, attitude and mental capacity for creative thinking and innovative behaviour that can provoke their venture spirit for timely generation of new ideas and ways of improving their businesses in meeting the demands of the environment. Such individuals who are able to drive through change are expected to

[11] Department Of Business Administration,Kogi State University, Ayingba. Kogi State, Nigeria.,E-mail: habibabdullahi@gmail.com,Tel: +2348036146393
[12] Department Of Business Administration, Kogi State University, Ayingba., Kogi State, Nigeria., E-mail: abdminat@gmail.com, Tel: +2348060570723
[13] Department Of Business Administration, Kogi State University, Ayingba Kogi State, Nigeria.E-mail: abdullahimuktar39@gmail.com, +2348035744802
[14] Department Of Business Administration, Kogi State University, Ayingba Kogi State, Nigeria.Email: abusediq@gmail.com

possess the transformational capacity to embrace change and to steer business through crisis and chaos, to guide, integrate and initiate force. This force is however referred to as entrepreneurship Udu, 2008). Hisrich, (2002) sees entrepreneurship as a process of creating something new of value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic and social risks, and receiving the resulting rewards of money and personal satisfaction and independent. In the same vain, Udu (2008) argue that entrepreneurship is a process by which economic and commercial activities necessary for the improvement of the standard of living of the society are created by entrepreneurs-individuals, corporation, institutions and government.

Iwu (2000) observed that during the colonial period, only few of Nigerians could boost of personal or family capital to start off any meaningful business. During the colonial era, the Nigerian businesses scene was dominated even at the grass-root levels by, foreigners. Theses foreign nationals had a better exposition from the Nigerian traders and subsequently left in 1960. Their departure gave Nigerians the opportunity in participating and shaping the country's economic development.

The federal government introduced indigenization and enterprise promotion Act. Of 1972 and it's revision in 1977 respectively. Again, the National Development plan which led to the introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in July 1986. Entrepreneurship constitutes a vital engine in the economic growth and development of nations; this is because it helps in the stimulation of indigenous entrepreneurship in Nigeria (Paul, 2013).

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study revolved around the high rate of unemployment and low productivity among the citizens of Nigeria and how social entrepreneurship could help solve the problem of job and wealth creation in Nigeria this is so because, the present situation seems to give an impression of economic insecurity as a result of failure to properly engage people in the production process. This study was therefore necessary to fill the gap by examining the entrepreneurial development and urgent social intervention for all government strategies! programmes to have employment generation as an output towards economic security.

Research Question

This study attempts to find answers to the following questions:
i. What significant impact has Innovativeness on job creation in Kogi State?

ii. To what extent have Proactiveness created jobs in Kogi State?

iii. What is the efficiency of Risk taking on job creation in Kogi state?

Objectives of the Study

i. Find out the impact of Innovativeness on job creation in Kogi State.

ii. To examine the extent to which proactiveness have created jobs in Kogi State

iii. Find out the efficiency of Risk taking on job creation in Kogi State

Statement of Hypotheses

The null hypotheses that shall guide this study are as stated below in null and alternative forms: Hypothesis one

H_{o1}: Innovativeness have no significant effect on Job creation in Kogi State.

H_{o2}: proactiveness have not created jobs in Kogi state

H_{03}: Risk taking has no significant impact on job creation in Kogi State.

Review of Related Literature

Social Entrepreneurship

Available related indigenous literature revealed that Nigeria is in the incubation stage of social entrepreneurship as most of the social activities are planned and implemented by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). Nigeria is trying to build its own social entrepreneurship based on its peculiar situation, while consciously or unconsciously government is endeavoring to encourage SE behavior and foster social entrepreneurship. The activities of the NGOs cut across a wide spectrum of activities such as awareness campaign on HIV/AIDS, and Sexual Transmitted Diseases (STDs); empowering local women through micro-credit/information, seminars on good governance, gender issues among others. It is believed that with the precarious economic condition in the country and deep understanding of the subject matter in the traditional setting, the NGOs or /social entrepreneurs do not only consecrate to the society but also, earn income at the same time. The present population of Nigeria is put at about 167 million (Olokor, 2012). Following years of military rule and poor economic management, Nigeria experienced a prolong period of economic stagnation, rising poverty levels and decline of its public institutions. By most measures, human development indicators in Nigeria were comparable to that of other least developed countries while widespread corruption undermined the effectiveness of various public expenditure programs. (Okonjo-lweala & Osafo-Kwaako, 2007). A major challenge for the Nigeria economy was its macroeconomic volatility driven largely by external terms of trade shocks and the country's large dependence on oil export earnings. Nigerian economy is ranked among the most

volatile in the world for the period of 1960-2000 (World Bank, 2003).

According to Okonjo-Iweala and Osafo-Kwaako (2007) Nigeria's social sector indicators have been particularly weak. According to Mulgan and Landry *(1995),* the major social and economic problems such as poverty, high rate of unemployment and economic downturns plaguing the globe and gaps created in societies by unmet government's promises, social entrepreneurship is believed to be a forum for sustainable solutions at both local and international levels. Available related literature indicated that there is no official registry of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Nigeria. The activities of such organizations are regulated by the constitution of the Republic of Nigeria as well as federal and state laws. There is also no systematic way of operating the NGOs in the country. Their activities cover wide scope of activities such as creating awareness for good governance, HIV/AIDS campaign for most at risk population (such as commercial sex workers, injection drug users; uniformed service men, youths, men and women of reproductive age); empowering women and unemployed with micro credit facility for self-reliance among others.

The records revealed that despite the unorganized nature of these organizations, international donor agencies sponsor NGOs in the country and it is a paying career. There are two categories of beneficiaries for a typical social entrepreneurship project which are primary beneficiaries and secondary beneficiaries. The first category covers those that the project impact upon directly. For example, a community maternity health centre would be of benefit to women of reproductive age and children, while men and the society at large would equally benefit. Donor agencies usually send monitoring and evaluation officers to assess and evaluate such projects. The personnel varies as there are employees, part-time and volunteers working in the NGOs (Elnathan 2012, Churn 2010).

The Nexus between Entrepreneurship and Economic Development in Nigeria

It is a fact that misplaced objective can lead the unemployed Nigerian youth to engage themselves the forms of hostage taking, kidnapping, pipeline vandalism, and economic sabotage, internet frauds and bombing. This fact was corroborated by Aduba (2011) reporting for the Akwa Ibom State government as saying that one of the major factors of restiveness in the Niger-Delta region is high rate of unemployment. The traits of creativity, risk-loving, innovation, strategic thinking and constructive engagement against the government by discontented Nigerians could as well be directed to entrepreneurship development (Raimi, 2010). According to Onyeneho & Ezeano (2011) development is a process by which individuals in a community or country improve their economic and social wellbeing.

According to Koontz Ct al (1980) these environmental variables includes economic, technological, social-cultural, political legal and ethical. Therefore if these concepts and variables are well harvested the country will stand to benefit. Finally will be the giant of Africa and a transformed Nigeria society.

Conceptual Linkages

Concept of Proactiveness

Proactivity or **proactive behavior** refers to self-initiated behavior that endeavours to solve a problem before it has occurred. Proactive behavior involves acting in advance of a future situation, rather than reacting. It refers to taking control of a situation and making early changes, rather than adjusting to a situation or waiting for something to happen.

Reactivity, as a behaviour pattern, is a habitual mode of taking one's lead from the situation or a participant, rather than taking initiative to solve the problem on your own terms. In moderation, this can be an effective expression of social risk aversion. Taken to excess, reactivity is a form of disempowerment.

Proactive behavior can be contrasted with other work-related behaviors, such as proficiency, i.e. the fulfillment of predictable requirements of one's job, or adaptability, the successful coping with and support of change initiated by others in the organization. In regard to the latter, whereas adaptability is about responding to change, proactivity is about initiating change.

Proactivity is not restricted to extra role performance behaviors. Employees can be proactive in their prescribed role (e.g. by changing the way they perform a core task to be more efficient). Likewise, behaviors labeled as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) can be carried out proactively or passively. For example, the altruistic OCB can be proactive in nature (e.g. offering help to co-workers before they ask for assistance). It aims at the identification and exploring of opportunities in taking action against the potential problems and threats. Most of the individuals who are positive, energetic, intelligent, follow the path of proactivity.

Concept of Innovativeness

Innovativeness is described in the Merriam-Webster dictionary as "the skill and imagination to create new things", which speaks to the duality of the attribute but just scrapes the surface of the importance of innovativeness to business growth and sustainability. The first part; skill assumes that there is an amount of expertise involved in the development of innovations. This assertion is relative to the environment or subject matter involved in the innovation development process. For example, to develop innovations in financial management, one should have a deep understanding of the financial management strategies and tactics. Conversely, think

about trying to implement an internal innovation for example, around a communications process and the responsible personnel has no expertise in the details of executing a communications plan. Even the most inexperienced leader would suspect this to be a disaster while instead of creating innovation, they create a source of confusion. So it goes without saying that an innovator should have some skill, expertise, and ability the discipline that they are looking to produce innovations.

Key dimensions in risk-taking

A large body of research has shown that many people engage with and take risks consciously. Even when risk-taking might deviate from expert advice, people have some awareness that they are exposing themselves to possible harm. This is central to the interpretivist understanding of *risk-taking* which underpins this article and differs from risk-taking as *risk behaviour* which does not require a minimum level of awareness on the behalf of the risk taker (Zinn 2015). If awareness is lacking or knowledge highly inaccurate, education and information strategies might be more important for behavioural change, while many studies argue that when such strategies fail it is due to other factors guiding people's involvement with risk.

Common definitions of (voluntary) risk-taking can serve as a starting point for further systematising key dimensions of the concept. In their monograph *Risk-taking in Everyday Life* Tulloch and Lupton (2003, 10–11) defined voluntary risk-taking as an 'activity in which individuals engage, is perceived by them to be in some sense risky, but is undertaken deliberately and from choice.' The definition implies that at least two dimensions are crucial: a degree of *reflexivity* (or consciousness) that a risk is taken and a degree of *control* (or agency) which also provides the individual with an understanding of being in a decision-making situation and having agency. However, the notion of 'voluntary' is questionable for characterising risk-taking more generally since it is usually somehow shaped by social conditions (Zinn 2015). Consequently, the reasons for and *motives* of risk-taking vary quite a bit.

Problems Militating Against Employment Generation in Kogi State

Problems militating against employment in Kogi State have been so alarming that many scholars have tried to trace out causes that are responsible for the employment situation in the country. Some of these causes or factors responsible for the problems of employment in the state have summarized and they include;

poor quality education, lacks of skills, poor power supply, corruption and the negligence of the agricultural sector. Poor quality of Education: In Nigeria, every year, many graduates come out from the universities and colleges of education with little or nothing to contribute to the society. According to the National Bureau of Statistics, more than 200,000 alumnae graduate from Nigeria tertiary institutions yearly, but only very few of them secure jobs after years of their graduation (NBS, 2015). This happens because; there are little facilities and ill-equipped lecturers or

Models of social entrepreneurship

Addou, Fahmy, Greenward and Nelson (2011) social enterprises can assume a variety of legal and organizational models. These models are basically classified into four categories and they include; (i) Leveraged nonprofits which capitalize on the interest of a variety of stakeholders to operate and to secure ongoing support based on a diversified portfolio of funding. (ii) Enterprising nonprofits which have a self-financing component contributing to the organization's sustainability. (iii) Hybrid enterprises which combine aspects of the for- profit and non-profit legal models, either through an innovative legal structure or by using a for-profit subsidiary to support the social activities of the nonprofit.

Motivations of social entrepreneurs

Social entrepreneurs are not constrained by their own limited resources. They are skilled at efficient allocation of limited resources and also at attracting resources from others. They are not constrained by sector norms or customs; rather they explore all form of resource attraction ranging from philanthropy to commercial business. These resource strategies largely reinforce and facilitate their social missions (El Ebrashi, 2013). It is also important to note that social entrepreneurs ensure to take calculated risks as well as effectively manage risks resulting from potential failure. This guarantees availability of resources for sustainable social impact since stakeholders are only exposed to minimum risks.

Social entrepreneurs usually ensure to have a good understanding of the communities they are serving. They ensure to know as well as correctly assess the needs and values of the people they intend to reach out to. They also pay cognizance to the expectations of their investors and partners. Thus they provide social improvement to their beneficiaries as well as attractive financial reward to their investors (Tivedi and Stokols, 2011). This largely facilitates long term investments in social value creation and sustainable social improvements.

Typology of Social Business Models

In configuring an appropriate business model for their venture, market-making social entrepreneurs face two strategic decisions. First, they have to decide how to

meet the needs of their social target group. In social entrepreneurship research varying mission foci have been addressed (e.g., Agafonow, 2014; Hockerts, 2015; Santos, 2012), which we broadly categorize as *social provision*, i.e., serving a group of beneficiaries with consumption needs, and *social integration*, meaning the productive mobilization of beneficiaries with production needs. Second, entrepreneurs have to consider the type of market they wish to enter or create where prior research has revealed a spectrum of social and commercial market approaches (e.g., Dohrmann et al., 2015; Dorado, 2006; Nicholls, 2009; Santos et al., 2015; Wilson & Post, 2013; Yunus et al., 2010). In our analysis, we differentiate between a *social* market orientation, referring to entrepreneurs that acquire donations from third parties, and a *commercial* market orientation, which involves strategies to generate revenues. By combining the entrepreneur's *mission focus* and the venture's *market orientation* as the two basic strategy dimensions in constructing social business models, we obtain the 2x2 matrix shown in Fig. 2 with four generic design strategies.

The two strategy perspectives of *mission focus* and *market orientation* represent contingency factors (Doty & Glick, 1994) that guide the entrepreneur in choosing among the four generic strategies of social venturing shown in Fig. 2. In the following subsections, we first develop generic business model archetypes for each of the four strategic orientations, thus filling each quadrant of the matrix (Fig. 2) with content, i.e., with a contingent ideal type (Doty & Glick, 1994).

Strategic Social Business Model Development

The self-sustainable business model archetypes, shown in Fig. 4-7, represent four "ideal types," contingent on the two strategy dimensions of mission focus and market orientation, which market-making social entrepreneurs are inevitably confronted with when setting up their business models. As an additional feature, the comparable graphical schemas of the four generic business model archetypes also serve as cognitive structures in the sense of Martins et a!. (2015), thus providing an intuitive foundation for generative cognition. The two cognitive processes advocated by Martins et al. (2015) specifically for business model development are *analogical reasoning* and *conceptual combination.*

For the process of *analogical reasoning,* each of our four generic archetypes can be used by social entrepreneurs as a so-called "source concept" (Martins et al., 2015: 107), in order to derive an analogous "target concept" for their social mission. As each generic archetype is also illustrated by examples of real ventures, we support the process of analogical reasoning, especially in finding similarities in relational structures. Yet, we believe that our graphical archetype schemas with the clear

relationship structure between the business model components provides an even stronger cognitive support than the examples, because the analogy between the source and the target concept is abstractly modeled, thus avoiding the risk of being obfuscated by a contextually unrelated business case that is used as a source concept.

Our strategy matrix in Fig. 3 shows how the typology can also assist entrepreneurs in selecting the appropriate source concept for their social mission, since each archetype is positioned within the matrix and is thereby contingent on entrepreneurs' mission focus and their market orientation. For a given social mission and a clear preference for the form of market involvement, our typology suggests the corresponding archetype as a source concept.

Whereas analogical reasoning is a goal-oriented approach to finding an initial business model for the social mission, *conceptual combination* has particular merits for the innovation of an existing business model. For the process of conceptual combination, our four archetypes also serve as "source concepts." Moreover, due to their clear distinguishing features, on the one hand, and their common theoretical foundation, on the other hand, the four archetypes are also ideal "modifier concepts" in the sense of Martins et al. (2015: 109), where conceptual combinations of the source and the modifier lead to new target concepts. The process of conceptual combination thus seeks to establish innovative differences in relational structures between source and target concepts, in contrast to analogical reasoning, which focuses on similarities (Martins et al., 2015).

As a simple application, the *donor model* (Fig. 4) can easily be used as a modifier concept for each of the other three source concepts *(self-help model*, *asset model*, and *corporate model)*, simply by merging the monetary donor as a customer segment into each of the three business models. This makes sense strategically, especially when self sustainability of a social business model is difficult to achieve in practice. For example,

"Wikipedia," which we have associated with the differentiated self-help model (Fig. *5)* in the previous section, also collects donations from its mass user base with a pay-what- you want donation scheme in order to cover its growing costs of technological infrastructure and administration.

While the pure merging of the generic archetypes is a straightforward application of conceptual combination, our theoretical typology also allows us to conduct more elaborate exercises in constructing new target concepts. Observe that any two neighboring quadrants in the strategy matrix (Fig. 3) always share one strategy orientation and differ in the other. By using two neighboring business model archetypes as source and modifier concept, we can thus construct a target concept,

which features the same strategy orientation that source and modifier have in common, and creates an innovative combination in the strategy orientation in which they differ. Fig. 8 illustrates four new business model archetypes that can be created with conceptual combinations of neighboring ideal types from our typology.

Theoretical Framework

The work was anchored on Resource Based theory propounded by Penrose *(1959)* in her work, "The theory of the Growth of the firm". The resource based view of firm is based on two assumptions: Resource diversity and Resource immobility. Resource diversity: This pertains to whether a firm owns a resource or capability that is also owned by numerous other competing firms, then that resource cannot provide a competitive advantage.

Resource immobility: This refers to a resource that is difficult to obtain by competitors, because the cost of developing, acquiring or using that resource is too hard. The aforementioned assumptions are used to determine whether an entrepreneur is able to create a sustainable competitive advantage by providing a framework for determining whether a process or technology provides a real advantage over the market place. The resource-based view hold that small scale enterprise is facilitated when there are capabilities and resources which the entrepreneur either possesses or can acquire and deploy in sustainable manner. Penrose (1959) argued that it is only with appropriate resources and capabilities that can be deployed in a sustainable manner over a long term that entrepreneurs achieve sustainable competitive advantage and success.

The theory holds that an entrepreneur achieves resounding success when there is good understanding of the resource potentials, through good vision, intuition and creative act, an entrepreneur chooses a particular business where resources that are valuable, rare, hard to copy and resources that are non-substitutable, the entrepreneur will not only be able to succeed but enjoy long term competitive advantage and economic success.

Without sustainable competitive advantage entrepreneurs successes are ephemeral as competitors quickly obliterate the successful outcome of the initial effort (Udu, et al 2008).

The theory laid emphasis on the need for an entrepreneur to posses the required capabilities and resources as prerequisite condition necessary for achieving a sustained competitive advantage. The aforementioned addresses the need for small scale enterprises to be proactive giving the changing business environment. In the

light of the foregoing, small scale businesses that wish to survive in a changing business environment must possess an exceptional skill that would guarantee good understanding of the economic environment in attempt to achieve a sustained competitiveadvantage.

Empirical Studies

Several scholars' works and studies abound on the subject matter of Entrepreneurial development. These works often relates to youth empowerment in the form of employment generation, SMEs development for job creation and skill development for self-employment generation these are all the hallmark of entrepreneurial development efforts. A study on Entrepreneurship development and employment generation in Nigeria: Problems and prospects were conducted by Anyadike, Emeh and Ukah (2012); the paper took a study of Nigeria's growing unemployment situation and how it increasingly dwindles the potentials of the country, especially following official figures from the Bureau of statistics that puts the figure at about 20% (about 30 million), which still did not include about 40 million other Nigerian youths captured in World Bank statistics in 2009. They stated that by implication, it means that out of the 150 million Nigerians, 50% are unemployed, or worse still, at least 71% of Nigerian youths are unemployed. Anyadike et al (2012) stated further that these days, employment creation is no longer the prerogative of government but, a joint effort between the public and private sectors. It is in this regard that their paper seeks a permanent solution to this endemic and pandemic phenomenon in Entrepreneurship development. At the end of the study, having utilized the secondary source of data generation to source data for the paper, relying extensively on current articles from ardent scholars on entrepreneurship development and government statistical documentations, the paper made several findings and recommendations among which is that government should make entrepreneurship sellable to the people by inculcating it into the educational curriculum at every strata of the educational sector and also utilize a re-modeled NYSC scheme to educate the youths more on the importance, essence and need for entrepreneurship development especially on a practical basis and then find a means of supporting these entrepreneurship projects cutting across all spheres of the country; and also create enabling environment for entrepreneurship to thrive by ensuring social security and adequate infrastructural facilities (Anyadike et al, 2012).

A study by Ihugba, Odii and Njoku (2013) on the Challenges and Prospects of Entrepreneurship in Nigeria; the researchers holds that the success of generating income for majority of rural and urban dwellers with no formal paid employment highly depends on Entrepreneurship. They stated further that entrepreneurship is the backbone of economic development all over the world and play important role for

employment, income and societal changes, particularly in transition economies like Nigeria. Their paper focused on the nature and the extent to which entrepreneurship in Nigeria has been developed so far, and outlines the initiative by government and also the main current and future challenges and perspectives for the development of entrepreneurship. The study revealed that such initiatives by government failed abysmally due to over bearing bureaucracies, corruption, inadequate and inefficient infrastructural facilities and maladministration. The paper concludes that entrepreneurship miracle in other country is an engine for job creation; innovation and diversity and Nigeria's entrepreneurs have a long way to go before they can effectively drive changes in the economy and recommends that Government (policy makers) should genuine recognize the essence of entrepreneurship to economic development by providing the enabling environment for private sector led investment for economic development and also provide adequate infrastructural facilities like water, electricity, road network, communications etc. (Ihugba, Odii and Njoku, 2013).

Chidiebere, Iloanya &Udunze (2014) in their study reveals that the development and transformation of Nigerian and the Sub-Sahara Africa is highly dependent on youth empowerment through Entrepreneurship. They stated that entrepreneur is the backbone of economic development all over the world and play important role for employment, income and societal changes, particularly in transition economies like Nigeria. The concerned of their paper was on to what extent can entrepreneurship in Nigeria help to reduce youth unemployment; where they outlines the initiative taken by government to curtail unemployment and also the challenges and prospects for the development of entrepreneurship. The study revealed that such polices and initiative by government has affected the "transformation question". This is due to the increase of corruption, inadequate and inefficient infrastructural facilities and maladministration. The paper concludes that entrepreneurship development is an engine for job creation; innovation and diversity and therefore recommends that Government (policy makers) should genuinely recognize the essence of entrepreneurship to economic development by providing the enabling environment and secured environment for the youth to be gainful employed for economic development and also provide adequate infra-structural facilities such as water, electricity, road network, communications etc. (Chidiebere, 2014).

Methodology

Research Design

The study critically examined the effects of social entrepreneurship development for employment generation in Kogi State. In order to carry out this study effectively, the descriptive survey design was adopted making use of primary sources to collect

data in order to discuss and interpret the existing condition of the people. Interviews were conducted and questionnaire administered to the population consisting of the selected respondents drawn from community of registered entrepreneurship groups, individuals and organizations of those involved in agricultural enterprises in the selected three Local Government Areas of the three Senatorial Districts of Kogi State covering the period between 2013—2018. The kind of relationship and conclusion that was anticipated were relationship that showed significant relationship between social entrepreneurship and employment generation.

The population of the study cover's the total population of registered entrepreneurs from the selected Local Government Areas of the Senatorial Districts of Kogi State both males and females: while sample in this study were fraction or segment of the total population whose characteristic was used to represent the entire population in order to avoid too much costs, time and also difficult to study the entire population as it is difficult to cover the entire population. The projected total census figure (NPC, 2016) from three Local Government Areas each from the three Senatorial District stands at *5,663* from the entire total figure of population census for Kogi State (2016) of 4,392,500. Therefore, to determine the size of the population, the study will statistically determine by using COCHRAN '(1963) According to an independent researcher, Al-Hemyari (2018) opined that the Cochran formula allows you to calculate an ideal sample size given a desired level of precision, desired confidence level, and the estimated proportion of the attribute present in the population.

The statistical formula for the calculation of the sample is determine as follows..

Where

n= sample size

N= actual population (5663)

P= probability of success/proportion

Q= probability of failure! proportion

Z= standard error of the mean

Data was presented in frequency tables and the corresponding values expressed in percentages, equally, the hypotheses (1) (2) and (3) was test using multiple regression analysis and in hypotheses (4) we used principle component analysis (PCA) method of factors Analysis; this methods reduced a large group of factors to the most significant ones. By using Varimax Rotation Component of Factors with eight value greater than one

Model specification

Statistical model for the purpose of this study both descriptive and inferential statistics

was used the statistical regression or economic model was to test the effect of innovation, risk- taking, and proactiveness on employment generation is represented by the statistical expression below.
The functional relationship is as follows:

$EG = \beta o + \beta_i p + \beta_{ii} I + \beta_{iii} R + e$ ..... (1)

Model three
EG= f(P, I, R)
$EG = \beta o + \beta_i P + \beta_{ii} I + \beta_{iii} R + e$ .....(2)
Where:
EG=Employment generation
P= proactiveness.
I= innovativeness
R= risk -taking
β_0= intercept of the regression line (i.e. constant),
E = Error term
Pi= probability of success
1-pi = probability of failure

A priori expectation
$\beta i > 0$, $\beta_{ii} > 0$, $\beta iii, < 0$

Justification for the Methods used in this Study
Stratified random sampling was used in this study because the population was divided into subgroup in female and male entrepreneur groups meaning that it is important to recognize each stratum to benefit from the sample that will be drawn from the population. Also, in selecting the entrepreneur that would represent in the sample, "the luck of the drawn" process was used to avoid personal influence on the choice. Equally, questionnaire and interviews was adopted to allow respondents enough time within three weeks duration assigned for their administration from the registered entrepreneurs. However the questionnaire was asses with the Likert type scale. To determine the minimum and the maximum length of the 5-point Likert type scale, the range is calculated by (5 — 1 = 4) then divided by five as it is the greatest value of the scale (4÷ 5 0.80). Afterwards, number one which is the least value in the scale was added in order to identify' the maximum of this cell.
The length of the cells is determined below:
i. mean score from 0.01 to 1.00 is (strongly disagree);
ii. to 2.00 is (disagree);

iii. from 2.01 until 3.00 is (neutral);
iv. 3.01 until 4:00 is (agree);
v. mean score from 4.01 until 5.00 is (strongly agree)

Test of Hypothesis

Hypothesis One: There is no significant effect of various Social Entrepreneurship Scheme adopted on Employment Generation in Kogi State

Table 4.2: Summary of regression for the joint contributions of independent variables to the employment creation.

R = 0.740 R Square = 0.508 Adjusted R square = 0.502						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	Regression	2715.347	3	905.116	32.602	.000[b]
	Residual	8217.600	296	27.762		
	Total	10932.947	299			

Table 4.8 shows significant joint contribution of the independent variables (proactiveness, risk taking, innovativeness and environmental factors) to the prediction of social entrepreneur development in employment creation. The result yielded a coefficient of multiple regressions R = 0.740 and multiple R-square = 0.508. This suggests that the Four factors combined accounted for *50.2%* (Adj.R2' *.502)* variance in the prediction of SEDs in employment creation. The other factors accounting for the remaining variance are beyond the scope of this study. The multiple regression analysis shows that there was a significant effect of the independent variables SED on employment creation, $F_{(3,296)} = 32.602$, P<O.0l.

Table 4.3: Summary of effect of proactiveness, risk taking, innovativeness and environmental factors on social entrepeneurship development in job creation

Model		SED to Employment Creation		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
B	Std. Error	Beta				
1	(Constant)	48.278	3.361		*14.365*	.000
Proactiveness	.315	.045	*.405*	*-3.557*	.000	
.isk-taking	-2.652	.746	-.176	-3.557	.000	
nnovativeness	-2.901	.921	*-.157*	-3.148	.002	
Social Entrepreneurship	.063	.023	.156	2.803	.005	

Table 4.9 shows that the four variables contributed differently to social entrepreneuship development in employment generation in kogi state. The most significantly potent contributor to the prediction of market share is proactiveness (t=7.06; *p<O.05)* followed by risk taking (t -3.56; p<O.O5), innovativeness (t= -3.15; p<O.O5) and environmental factors (t'2.80; p<0.O5), this implies that proactiveness, risk taking, innovativeness and environmental factors significantly influence social entrepreneuship development for employment creation.

Discussion of Findings

The study established that social entrepreneurship and measured by proactiveness, risk-taking and innovation. The findings concurred with previous studies that significant and positive relationship exist between proactiveness, risk taking and innovation. The study therefore concluded that social entrepreneurship is driving force of proactiveness, risk-taking and innovation and they have an impact on employment generation. This is in agreement with Isah, (2022) who discovers that 78% of entrepreneurs in Kogi State have created jobs for themselves through their proactiveness, creativity and ability to take risk, a practical example of this is the case of Prince Abubakar Audu University campus where so many graduates are into café business and through this have created jobs for themselves in the midst of the difficulties in the country. Therefore we can hence conclude that proactiveness, innovation and risk-taking enhances employment creation in Kogi State.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

As a result of the societal numerous problem and the earnest quest for innovation makes social entrepreneurship the new business model. Social entrepreneurship is an approach by start-up companies and entrepreneurs, in which they develop, fund and implement solutions to social, cultural, or environmental issue. Social entrepreneurship is a platform or way in which people come together and work to create an equal, just and sustainable society. They should work to bring in positive social, economic and environmental outcomes for the society. Hence Social entrepreneurship has significant effect on employment generation.

Recommendations

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

i. The federal, state and local governments should modify the existing job creation strategies by committing more funds to the proactive youths to involved in employment generation.

ii. Government should embark on skills acquisition programme that will bring out the innovations of the youth in Kogi state employment generation strategy that would combine increased government spending and tax-cut to create more jobs that will help to reduce the high current open unemployment in the state.

iii. Government should embark on rural development such as rural industrialization and electrification to curtail rural-urban drift to ensure that the rural areas are attractive to live in so that unemployed people can become productively engaged.

iv. The education system curriculum should be remodeled to inculcate technical skill acquisition which will help even secondary school graduates to have employable skills.

References

Chig unta F. (2015). Youth Livelihoods and Enterprise Activities in Zambia. Report to IDRC, Canada. Chigunta F (2015). The Socio-economic Situation of Youths in Africa: Problems, Prospects and Options. A Paper Presented at the Youth Employment Summit, Alexandria, Egypt. Pp. 1-13.

National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) (2013). Fourth quarter of 2014 job creation survey report: April, 2015. National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) (2014). Job creation report: 2nd to 4th quarter of 2013 job creation survey. Abuja: Nigeria Press.

Noruzi MR, Westover JH, Rahimi GR (2010) An exploration of social entrepreneurship

in the entrepreneurship era. Asian Soc. Sci., 6(6): 3-10. multidimensional model. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1), 21-35.

Raghda, E.E. (2013). Social entrepreneurship theory and sustainable impact. *Social Responsibility Journal, 9,* 188-209.

Udu, A. A., Udu. G.O.C, Eze, F.C (2008), Entrepreneurship. Enugu: Rhyce Publihers

Weerawardena, J., & Mort, G. S. 2006. Investigating social entrepreneurship: A

Zinn, J. O. 2015. "Towards a Better Understanding of Risk-taking: Key Concepts, Dimensions and Perspectives." *Health, Risk & Society* 17 (2): 99–114. doi:10.1080/13698575.2015.1023267.

Zinn, J. O. 2016. "'In-between' and Other Reasonable Ways to Deal with Risk and Uncertainty: A Review Article." *Health, Risk & Society* 18 (7–8): 348–366. doi:10.1080/13698575.2016.1269879. ,

Zinn, J. O. 2016. "Living in the Anthropocene: Towards a Risk-taking Society." *Environmental Sociology* 2 (4): 385–394. doi:10.1080/23251042.2016.1233605.

PROFITABILITY EFFECT OF LIQUIDITY RATIO OF NIGERIAN MANUFACTURING COMPANIES

EGBERE MICHAEL IKECHUKWU, Ph.D & AJAYI, TIJJANI AHMED Ph. D[15], ROTIMI, GRACE GIFT PhD[16] & EGBERE MICHAEL IKECHUKWU, Ph.D[17].; [18]

Abstract

*This study empirically examined the **profitability** effect of liquidity ratio of Nigerian manufacturing companies. The study's independent variables include Current ratio; cash ratio and quick ratio, which were used as proxies for the liquidity, while the dependent variable is company profitability and was proxy as a rate on asst. Three hypotheses were formulated for this study. An ex post facto design was used and the data for the study comes from the published annual financial reports of all 12 companies listed on the sectors of Nigerian Exchange Group ranging from Consumer Goods Sector, Oil & Gas Sector and Industrial Goods Sector, with the data covering the period of 2012-2021.The study found out that all the proxy variables of independent variables of liquidity used in this study; current ratio, cash ratio and quick ration have positive and significant effect on the proxy variable of dependent variable. The study concludes that liquidity has led to optimal profitability of corporate organizations. Based on our findings, the following recommendations were made: Because the study found a positive and significant association between the Current Ratio and profitability of firms in Nigeria; Also positive and significant relationship between Cash Ratio and profitability of firms Nigeria; last , Quick Ratio has positive and significant association with profitability of firms in Nigeria, The researchers therefore suggested that companies should ensure that their liquidity is optimally utilize liquidity to ensure higher profitability in Nigerian firms.*

Keywords: quick ratio, current ratio, cash ratio Profitability, Liquidity, Return on assets and Nigeria

Introduction

The Manufacturing companies is the significant driver of Nigerian economy. It plays a vital role in industrial as well as overall economic growth. The Manufacturing companies is one of the largest revenue generating industry in Nigerian, where different listed companies manufacture variety of products like car, rickshaw, trucks, buses and bikes. Listed companies in Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) include national and multi-national both

[15] Department of Accounting, Kogi State University Anyigba
[16] Dept of business administration, Kogi state university Anyigba.
[17] Email: michealikechukwu1975@gmail.com
[18] *Corresponding Author:

and are assembling different products for different sections of market. Financial stability of these companies always attract investors by offering good return on investments and dividends (Öztürk & Karabulut, 2018).

Investors remain curious about the company's financial condition for making investments profitable and financially stable companies can remain viable in the current and log run economic scenario so making their investments less risky (Mathur & Agarwal , 2016) Management as well as investors look into liquidity ratios for efficient analysis of profitability of any company, Liquidity ratios includes; current ratio, cash ratio, and quick ratio, and it indicates the conversion of assets into cash and it also measure the ability of a firm to meet short-term liabilities. Liquidity administration realized through the current use of assets (Robinson et al., 2015). These liquidity ratios interpret the profitability and ability to generate profit in future. Profitability refers to the firm's ability to generate revenue using complete services & resources like capital, sales, cash, number of workers, and the number of branches. Profitability of a firm can be measured through different ratios, they are helpful to calculate the company's ability in earnings. Profitability ratio contains net profit margin, return on assets, and return on equity (Husna & Desiyanti, 2016).

Based on the above analysis, the study examine the profitability effect of liquidity ratio of Nigerian manufacturing companies such as; how liquidity crisis could make a negative impact on firm's income and a sufficient liquidity ratio can positively affect revenue or profit of the organization. Previous researches on the impact and relationship between liquidity and profitability shows mixed results (Umobong, 2015; Malik et al 2016). The main objective of the study is to measure the profitability effect of liquidity ratio of Nigerian manufacturing companies **at** NSE, it was also tried to find that is there any significant impact of liquidity ratios on profitability either positive or negative. To fulfill the aim current ratio, quick ratio and cash ratio are used for the analysis. The rest of the paper will be structured into: literature review, methodology analysis, result and recommendations

Literature Review

The extant literature on profitability effect of liquidity ratio of Nigerian manufacturing companies show different and opposite results; some studies show the positive relationship while other shows negative or no relationship at all between liquidity and profitability.

Liquidity Ratio is a ratio that describes the company's ability to fulfill short-term obligations. According to Kasmir (2012), the function of the liquidity ratio is to show or measure the company's ability to meet obligations that are due, both obligations to parties outside the company and within the company. Liquidity ratio, or often called the working capital ratio, is a ratio to measure how 'liquid' a company is. The liquidity ratio used in this study is the current asset divided by current liability (Ifada and Puspitasari, 2016)
Supriati, et al., (2019) conducted research on 11 food and beverage firms of Indonesia, results of the study showed a significant and positive effect of liquidity towards profitability, study also concluded that liquidity is the most significant factor of profitability and financial performance.

Further studies by Agustina and Silvia (2012) and Meythi (2005) prove that Total Asset Turnover (TOT) had no significant effect on changes in earnings, but Hapsari (2007); Syamsudin and Primayuta (2009) found that TOT had a significant positive effect on changes in earnings.

Studies of Malik, et al., (2016) and Charmlet, et al., (2018) also concluded that liquidity ratios have positive and significant impact on profitability of banking industry. Their results indicate that liquidity is positively associated with return on assets using both measures of bank liquidity, and about return on equity, there is a weak positive relationship between the ratios of liquid assets to total assets. These results are consistent with many previous studies (Sarwat 2017; Paliwal & Chouhan 2017; Ibrahim 2017; Abdullah & Jahan 2014; Khidmat & Rehman 2014; Ruziqa 2013; Balasundaram & Priya 2013; Ajanthan 2013).
According to Wild et al. (2014), financial statement analysis is the analysis of financial statements consisting of review or study of relationships and tendencies or trends to determine the financial position and results of operations and the development of the company concerned.
Mahmud & Akhter (2014) in their research conclued that there is no significant relationship between current ratio and return on assets while Noor & Lodhi (2015) found negative impact of liquidity on firm's profitability (return on assets and return on equity). However, some other studies (khan & Ali, 2016; Ahmad, 2016; Lartey, et al., 2013) on the banking industry found a weak positive impact of liquidity on profitability, these studies suggest that the banks should measure and rearrange their plans

for working liquidity, this will not increase earnings on stakeholder's equity but will also increase the use of the resources of the bank.

Oktanto and Nuryatno (2014) in their study showed that DER (debt to equity ratio) had a significant negative influence on earning changes, but is not in line with research by Ifada and Puspitasari (2016) that solvability ratio measured by debt to equity ratio had no significant impact on earning changes.

There are some studies which showed varying impact e.g. positive, negative, insignificant, of different liquidity ratios on proxies of profitability. Mohanty & Mehrotra, (2018) conducted research of 28 listed SMEs in Bombay, result of the study showed that even if the correlation between liquidity ratios and profitability is negative even then they can positively impact the financial performance of the firm. Nazish and Shehla (2017) in their work also discovered that there is a significantly negative relationship between cash gap and return on assets while the current ratio has a significant positive impact of profitability.

Furthermore, results indicate that sales and assets has a significant positive association with profitability. The current ratio and total assets show a positive and significant relationship with net operating income, while the cash gap in days depicts a negative relationship.

The extant literature covers the relationship between liquidity ratios and profitability of firms. It was tried to make it through by covering different reviewing studies of different countries about different sectors and industries at different time periods. Results of the studies are not consistent and there is no any establish theory which can be accepted or rejected by these researches. Review also resulted that impact of liquidity ratios on profitability could vary according to the firm and research technique.

Widyanti and Nuryatno (2017), Solvency ratios are used to measure the extent to which company assets are financed by debt. Solvency Ratio is the ratio used to assess a company's ability to meet its debt obligations (Munawir, 2007). The solvability ratio used by researchers in this study is the Debt to equity ratio. Kasmir (2012) argues that the Debt to equity ratio is a ratio that measures a company's ability to pay long-term obligations, the lower the ratio, the better the company's ability to pay long-term obligations.

After thorough review of literature, it was found that there is no any study available in the present body of literature which covered Manufacturing companies of Nigerian in terms of liquidity and profitability has covered the period under study, 2012 to 2021. This study will fill the gap in the literature and will provide the policy guidelines with empirical evidence for the Manufacturing companies to manage liquidity ratios to a better financial performance.

Theory

Signaling theory determines the existence of information asymmetry between a company's management and stakeholders. For this reason, managers need to provide information to stakeholders using financial statements. Signaling theory suggests how companies should provide signals to users of financial statements. This signal is the form of information about what management should do in operational activities to realize the inclinations of principals. A signal can be in the form of promotions or other information stating that the company is better than other companies. Managers provide information through financial statements that they implement conservatism accounting policies that produce higher quality profits because this principle prevents companies from taking action to exaggerate profits and help users of financial statements by presenting profits and assets that are not overstated. Two signals are delivered, good news, and bad news. If the profits reported by the company increase, the information can be categorized as good news, it gives a positive signal because it indicates that the company is in good condition. Conversely, if reported decline in earnings, the company is in bad condition so that it is considered a bad signal.

METHODOLOGY

The study used Ex Post Facto design and used the data of 12 firms for the analysis was fetched from the official website of NSE and it was further validated from the archives of the manufacturing firms' financial reports. This study covers a period of ten years from 2012 to 2021. Ten years' data of 12 firms make total 120 observations which is good enough for a panel data analysis (Hasio, 2006; Yaffee, 2003). Panel regression model was applied using STAT 15. For test of auto correlation and multi collinearity checks,

variance inflation factor and tolerance value were applied.

Operationalization and Measurement of Variables

Dependent variable

The dependent variable in this study is Firms' Profitability and it was measured using rate on Asset (ROA).

Independent variable

The independent variable for the study (liquidity) were measured using the proxy of Current Ratio (CURRAT), Quick Ratio (QUIRAT) and Cash Ratio (CASRAT),

The independent variables are therefore were measured as follows:

Cash Ratio (CURRAT): It was measured using the Current ratio shows a firm's ability to meet current liabilities with its current assets. Current ratio/ current Liabilities".

Cash Ratio (CASRAT): Cash Ratio was measured using the Cash ratio is the direct and easily liquidness of a firm in order to pay its current debts. Cash + cash equivalents / Current liabilities

Quick Ratio (QUIRAT): Quick Ratio was measured using the quick ratio emphasizes on the ability of quick assets to pay current liabilities. Current assets – Inventories – prepaid assets/ Current Liabilities. (Robinson et al., 2015).

Model Specification

Data of 12 firms for the analysis was fetched from the official website of NSE and it was further validated from the archives of the manufacturing firms' financial reports. This study covers a period of five years from 2012 to 2021. Ten years' data of 12 firms make total 60 observations which is good enough for a panel data analysis (Hasio, 2006; Yaffee, 2003

Philips (2016).

Model 1: $ROAit = \beta_0 + \beta_1 lnCurRat_{it} + \beta_2 lnQuiRat_{it} + \beta_3 lnCasRat_{it} + \beta_4 X_{it} + \eta_i + \lambda_t + \mu_{it}$ **(1)**

Where

ROA= Rate on Asset
CURRAT = Current Ratio
CURRAT = Cash Ratio
QUIRAT = Quick Ratio

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Variables	**observation**	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
ROA	120	0.637323	2.0895	1.0895	12.983
CURRAT		4.584443	1.0945	0.8948	17.095
CASRAT		2.59374	1.8789	1.0953	21.033
QUIRAT		3.89759	0.9895	2.4955	11.012

Source: STATA 15 Computational Results August, 2022

The **Table 1** above shows that the mean value of rate on asset among the sampled firms was 0.637. This implies that about 63.7% account for rate on assets. The average Current Ratio (CURRAT), Cash Ratio (CASRAT) and Quick Ratio (QUIRAT) for the sampled firms' were 4.58, 2.59 and 3.89 respectively. This implies that firms' with CURRAT values of 4.58 extremely contribute in the profitability of manufacturing companies in Nigeria, Also, CASRAT values of 2.59 moderately contribute in the profitability of manufacturing companies in Nigeria while firms with CGD values of 3.89 moderately contribute in the profitability of manufacturing companies in Nigeria.

Table 2. Correlation Matrix for the Model

Variables	CURRAT	CURRAT	CASRAT	QUIRAT
ROA	1.0000			
CURRAT	0.0340	1.0000		
CASRAT	0.2660	0.0732	1.0000	
QUIRAT	0.2651	0.3100	-0.0267	1.0000

Source: STATA 15 Computational Results August, 2022

The Table 2 in an effort to establish the nature of the correlation between the dependent and the independent variables and also to ascertain whether or not multi-collinearity exists as a result of the correlation between the variables, table 2 was incorporated which provides an insights into the nature and extent of correlation among the independent variables and how they are related to the dependent variable.

The table 2 also shows **t**he relationship between all pairs of independent variables and dependent variables utilized in the regression model**.** It shows that all of the independent variables have a positive correlation with the dependent variable (ROA), and that several of the proxy variables of liquidity have both positive and negative relationships with one another. The diagonal values are all 1.0000, indicating that each variable has a perfect correlation with itself. We discovered that no two explanatory factors were fully connected when we checked for multi-collinearity. Our models do not have multi-collinearity, which means they are not multi-collinear. The calculated model coefficients may have incorrect signs or implausible magnitudes due to multi-collinearity between the explanatory variables, as well as bias in the standard errors of the coefficients.

Table 3. Collinearity statistics

Variable	VIF	1/VIF (TV)
ICD	1.04	0.963155
RMD	1.03	0. 972895
CGD	1.01	0.988405

Mean VIF	**1.03**	

Source: STATA 15 Computational Results August, 2022

From the table above TV ranges from 1.04 to 1.01 which suggests non multi-collinearity feature. The VIF which is simply the reciprocal of TV ranges from 0.963 to 0.988 also indicates non multi-collinearity feature.

Table 4. Panel Regression Result

	RATE ON ASSET FIXED EFFECT		**RATE ON ASSET RANDOM EFFECT**	
Variable	**Co-efficient**	**T-value P-value**	**Co-efficient**	**Z-value P-value**
CONSTANT	.4583446 0.000**	2.90	0.4567384 0.002	3.98
CURRAT	.0767483 0.000**	4.19	0.1678948 0.000	3.04
CASRAT	.1789287 0.000**	3.92	0.8674764 0.000	7.89
QUIRAT	.5735674 0.000**	4.67	1.0746774 0.000	6.71
R-Sq:				
Within	0.5790		0.4531	
Between	0.6120		0.6108	
Overall	0.7505		0.5896	
Prob >F	0.0000		0.0000	

Source: STATA 15 Computational Results August, 2022

A look at the p-value of the Hausman test as shown above gives 0.0001 for the Model. Thus implies that we should reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that random effect model is not preferred to fixed effect model at 1% level of significance.

The R2 value for the model shows 75% indicating that the variables considered in the model accounts for about 75% change in the dependent variable of ROA. Thus implies that the remaining 25% is as a result of other variables not addressed by this model. The within R2 of the Model indicates that the model could account for 57.9% variations within the panel units. Also the between R2 of 61.2% % for model shows that the model could account for just 61.2% variations between the separate panel units.

The p-value for the Model is .0000 which is below the .05 level. Based on this, we affirm that the overall model is statistically significant, or that the variables have a combined or joint effect on the dependent variable.

Discussion of Findings

The results of the fixed effect model are shown below as:

Hypothesis one: Current Ratio have no significant effect on profitability of firms in Nigeria.

The result of the above hypothesis test as shown on table 4 indicates that the relationship between ROA and CURRAT is positive and significant with a P-value of 0.000 for model 1 which is less than the 5% level of significance adopted.

This could be justified with the positive coefficient of 0.077 for the model which indicates that an increase in firms ROA improves CURRAT. Thus implies that companies that manage effectively and efficiently have optimal profitability. We therefore rejected null hypothesis and accepted alternate hypotheses which contends that cash Ratio has significant effect on profitability of firms in Nigeria.

This seems consistent with the results of Philips (2015), Smart (2016), Agbiogwu, Ihedinihu and Okeke (2016), Agbola (2012), Wumoo (2013), Omaliko, Nwadialor and Nweze(2020) Lim (2012) who found a significant positive relationship between current ratio and company profitability. This agreement justifies the stakeholder theory enshrined in the study, which states that companies that neglect the proper management of liquidity do not perform better.

Hypothesis two: Cash Ratio has no significant effect on profitability of firms Nigeria.

The result of the above hypothesis test as shown on table 4 indicates that the relationship between CARRAT and ROA is positive and significant with a P-value of 0.000 for model 1 which is less than the 5% level of significance adopted. This could be verified with result of the positive coefficient of 0.179 for the model which proves that an increase in firms' high cash ratio while other variables remain constant increases ROA by 17.9%. Thus implies that

firms with high cash ratio have optimal profitability. We consequently rejected null hypothesis and accepted alternate hypotheses which contends that Cash Ratio has significant effect on profitability of firms in Nigeria. This agrees with Philips (2015), Klassen and McLaughlin (2016), Omaliko, Nweze and Nwadialor (2020), Ameer and Othman (2012), Hart and Ahuja (2016), Jaffe (2015) who established a positive relationship between the two variables. The agreement also supports stakeholder's theory

Hypothesis three: Quick Ratio has no significant effect on profitability of firms in Nigeria.

The result of the above hypothesis test as shown on Table 4 indicates that the relationship between QUIRAT and ROA is positive and significant with a P-value of 0.000 for model 1 which is less than the 5% level of significance adopted. Likewise, the result of the positive coefficient of 0.573 proves that an increase in QUIRAT, while other variables remain constant, increases the ROA by 57.3%. This implies that companies with high quick ratio have optimal profitability. We consequently rejected the null hypothesis and accepted alternative hypotheses that claim that Quick Ratio has significant effect on profitability of firms in Nigeria. This agrees with Dang and Knechel (2016), King and Lenox (2016), Guenster (2017). A negative association was found by Nasir and Omar (2015).

CONCLUSION

The study concludes that liquidity has led to optimal profitability of corporate organizations. Thus, the relationship between liquidity and firms' performance is positive and significant.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The researchers therefore suggested that companies should ensure that their liquidity is optimally utilize liquidity to ensure higher profitability in Nigerian firms Since the study found a significant positive association between the Current Ratio and profitability of firms in Nigeria; Cash Ratio and profitability of firms Nigeria; Quick Ratio and profitability of firms in Nigeria.

REFERENCES

Abdullah, M., & Jahan, N. (2014). The Impact of Liquidity on Profitability in Banking Sector of Bangladesh: A Case of Chittagong Stock Exchange. International Journal of Economic and Business Review e-ISSN: 2347-9671.

Agustina, & Silvia. (2012). Pengaruh Rasio Keuangan Terhadap Perubahan Laba Pada Pada Perusahaan Manufaktur yang Terdaftar Di Bursa Efek Indonesia. Journal Article. http://www.mikroskil.ac.id/ ejurnal/index.php/jwem/article/view/152

Ajanthan, A. (2013). A Nexus Between Liquidity & Profitability: A Study Of Trading Companies In Sri Lanka. European Journal of Business and Management, ISSN 2222-1905.

Anzala Noor, & Samreen Lodhi. (2015). Impact of Liquidity Ratio on Profitability: An Empirical Study of Automobile Sector in Karachi, . International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, 5(11), ISSN 2250-3153.

Balasundaram, D., & Priya K. (2013). Liquidity Management and Profitability: A Case Study of Listed Manufacturing Companies in Sri Lanka. International Journal of Technological Exploration and Learning (IJTEL), 2(4).

Husna, N., & Desiyanti, R. (2016). The Analysis of Financial Performance on Net Profit Margin at the Coal Company . International Journal of Management and Applied Science, ISSN: 2394-7926.

Ibrahim, S. (2017). The Impacts of Liquidity on Profitability in Banking Sectors of Iraq: A Case of Iraqi Commercial Banks. Journal of Finance & Banking Studies, https://doi.org/10.20525/ijfbs.v6i1.650.

Ifada, L.M & Puspitasari, T. (2016). Analisis pengaruh rasio keuangan terhadap perubahan laba. Jurnal Akuntansi dan Auditing 13 (1) https://ejournal.undip.ac.id/index.php/akuditi/article/view/1387

Ikatan Akuntan Indonesia. (2012). Standar Akuntansi Keuangan per 1 Juni 2012. Jakarta: Penerbit Salemba.

Kasmir. (2012). Analisis Laporan Keuangan. Jakarta: Penerbit Rajawali Pers.

Khidmat, W., & Rehman, M. (2014). Impact of Liquidity and Solvency on Profitability Chemical Sector of Nigerian. Ekonomika Management Invoice, ISSN: 1804-1299, 6(3).

Lartey, V., Antwi, S., & Boadi , E. (2013). The relationship between liquidity and profitability of listed banks in Ghana. International Journal of Business and Social Science, 4(3), 12-34.

Mahmud, K., & Akhter, A. (2014). Liquidity-Profitability Relationship in Bangladesh Banking Industry. International Journal of Empirical Finance, 2(4), 143-151.

Malik, M., Awais, M., & Khursheed, A. (2016). Impact of Liquidity on Profitability: A Comprehensive Case of Nigerian's Private Banking Sector. International Journal of Economics and Finance.

Mathur , S., & Agarwal , K. (2016). Financial analysis of automobile industries (A comparative study of Tata Motors and Maruti Suzuki). International Journal of Applied Research 2016; 2(9): 533-539.

Meythi. (2005). Rasio Keuangan yang paling baik Untuk Memprediksi Pertumbuhan Laba: Suatu studi Empiris Pada Perusahaan Manufaktur Yang Terdaftar Di Bursa Efek Jakarta. Jurnal Ekonomi dan Bisnis Vol. XI No. 2, September.

Mohanty, B., & Mehrotra, S. (2018). Relationship between Liquidity and Profitability: An Exploratory Study of SMEs in India. International Management Institute SAGE Publications sagepub.in/home.nav, DOI: 10.1177/2394901518795069,http://journals.sagepub.com/home/emi.

Munawir, S. (2007). Analisis Laporan Keuangan. Edisi Keempat. Yogyakarta: Penerbit Liberty.

Nazish Bibi, & Shehla Amjad. (2017). The Relationship between Liquidity and Firms. Asian Journal of Finance & Accounting, ISSN 1946-052X.

Oktanto & Nuryatno, M. (2014). Pengaruh Rasio Keuangan Terhadap Perubahan Laba pada Perusahaan Manufaktur yang Terdaftar di BEI. Journal Article. http://www.online.fe.trisakti.ac.id/ ejournal/akuntansi/Vol1No1Februari2014

Öztürk, H., & Karabulut, T. (2018). The Relationship between Earnings-to-Price, Current Ratio, Profit Margin and Return: An Empirical Analysis on Istanbul Stock Exchange. Accounting and Finance Research.

Paliwal , R., & Chouhan, V. (2017). Relationship between Liquidity and

Profitability in Indian Automobile Industry. International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR ISSN (Online): 2319-7064.

Robinson, T., Henry, E.,, Pirie, W.,, & Broihahn, M. (2015). International Financial Statement Analysis (3rd ed.). New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Ruziqa , A. (2013). The Impact of Credit and Liquidity Risk on Bank Financial Performance: The Case of Indonesian Conventional Bank with Total Asset above 10 trillion Rupiah. International Journals of Economic Policy in Emerging Economies.

Sarwat, S. (2017). Impact of Working Capital Management on the Profitability of Firms: Case of Nigerian's Cement Sector. Journal of Advanced Management Science, 5(3).

Supriati, D., Ramaditya, M., & Wardh, N. (2019). Examining the Impact of Leverage and Liquidity on Corporate Performance (A Case Study on Food and Beverage Companies in Indonesia). Advances in Economics, Business and Management Research, Atlantis Press, 73.

Widyanti & Nuryatno, M. (2017). The Impact of Financial Ratios on Fraudulent Financial Reporting. Jurnal Akuntansi Pendidikan, Vol. 7 No.1, p. 72-80.

Wild, et al. (2014). Financial Statement Analysis-Analisis Laporan Keuangan. Edisi 10. Jakarta: Penerbit Salemba Empat.

STATISITCAL PERFORMANCE OF HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT OF KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY, ANYIGBA (2009-2019)

OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph. D)[19] **, KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph. D)**[20] **& - ISAIAH OJOCHENEMI MIRACLE**[21]

Abstract

Pursuant to the establishment and the core mandate of the institution (Kogi State University) is not relentingless effort and any stone unturned in terms of human resources as the most valuable asset of organisation realizing that without human effort, the machines, materials , land and money are moribund. This and a lot more is the reason for this study titled "Statistical Performance of Human Capital Development of Kogi State University, Anyigba (2009-2019). The paper concludes that challenges arising from government interferences has not stampeded staff development.

Human Capital Development of Kogi State University, Anyigba (2009-2019)
Staff Strength

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Academic staff	446	459	500	516	517	509	525	506	506	720	275
Senior Non-Teaching staff	303	323	369	387	400	400	469	468	470	521	473

Source: KSU Establishment office, 2019

The table above shows the staff strength of the University within the study period. A cursory look into the table indicates that the figures are not constant. The reason is because each year there is a significant amount of labour turn-over.

[19] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[20] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[21]Kogi State University, Anyigba, Email: Miracleoisaiah@Gmail.Com

Staff Training: Attentance of Conferences, Workshops and Seminars

Faculty	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Agriculture	2	5	7	6	4	7	0	11	2	8	10
Arts &Humanities	3	4	7	9	18	15	10	7	4	14	11
Education	-	-	-	-	2	7	9	3	5	8	6
College of Health Sc	-	-	-	-	2	4	3	3	1	6	4
Law	4	3	5	6	4	5	4	7	3	7	9
Management Sciences	4	7	5	4	7	6	8	9	4	6	9
Natural Sciences	5	8	6	5	12	9	7	6	2	6	6
Social Sciences	3	6	5	5	7	6	5	5	4	4	9

Source: KSU Establishment office 2019

Staff attendance to conferences, workshops and seminars was made more robust with the intervention of the sponsorship of the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND) of the Federal Government. The management of Kogi State University, Anyigba was able to galvanise machinery that eases speedy access to the fund. Importantly, Management also has open to approve disbursement of same to staff.

Number of Staff Who Obtained Higher Degrees (2009-2019)

Faculty	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013		2014		2015		2016		2017		2018		2019	
	M.Sc	Ph.d	M.Sc	Ph.d	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**	**M.Sc**	**Ph.d**
Agriculture	2	-	1	2	-	1	1	3	-	2	1	3	1	3	-	3	1	4	1	2	-	2
Arts &Humanities	1	2	-	1	1	2	2	8	2	6	-	4	1	2	1	2	1	5	-	2	-	3
Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	4	-	5	1	2	2	3	1	4
College of Health Sciences	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	2	-	1	1	1	-
Law	-	-	2	2	3	2	1	3	-	4	1	3	1	3	-	3	-	4	-	3	-	2
Management Sciences	-	-	2	-	3	2	4	4	2	8	2	5	1	4	1	6	2	5	2	4	1	3
Natural Sciences	-	-	3	2	4	4	1	7	6	6	4	5	3	4	1	4	2	3	1	2	1	4
Social Sciences	-	3	2	2	1	2	4	5	1	4	2	6	1	3	3	4	1	4	1	3	-	2

Source: KSU Establishment office 2019

From the table overleaf, it is pertinent to remark that as it is the case with Staff attendance to conferences, workshops and seminars; trainings for acquisition of higher degrees was equally made more robust with the intervention of the sponsorship of the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND) of the Federal Government. The management of Kogi State University, Anyigba was able to galvanise machinery that eases speedy access to the fund. Importantly, Management also has been open to approve disbursement of same to staff.

Staff Training

A major cause of mass failure in the accreditation exercises by NUC was the low quality of academic staff in all departments. There were cases of Graduate Assistants who were on the same post for upwards of four years with only first degrees and without an opportunity for them to go for their Ph.D degrees. But for the University to be viable, it must develop its research capacity. For academic staff of the University to be able to read and understand recent developments in academic journals in their fields, they must acquire modern tools and techniques of research. It is the Ph.D research degree that equips them with these tools. It is therefore a

fundamental requirement that academic staff of the University acquire their Ph.D degrees.

Under the scope of this study, University management established a Staff Training Development Committee to handle applications for staff development and disbursement of funds for staff to pursue higher degrees in Nigerian Universities and overseas. This is borne out of the belief in the centrality of human capital embedded in academic staff as the foundation of which the overall quality of Kogi State University rests. The effect of this is presented in the tables above

According to Berker, (2011), human capital is the stock of knowledge, habits, social and personality attributes including creativity, embodied in the ability to perform labour so as to produce economic value. Human capital has also been defined as a collection of resources knowledge, talents, skills, abilities, experience, intelligence, training, judgment, and wisdom possessed individually and collectively in a population.

These resources are the total capacity of the people that represents a form of wealth which can be directed to accomplish the goals of the nation or state or an organisation. Although Adam Smith had broached the subject of human capital as the useful abilities of all the human beings of a society as far back as the 18th century, it was studies of people like Schultz in the fifties and sixties, who highlighted that investment on human capital was the primary way to raise an individuals' wages, making it more effective when compared to other production inputs such as land, financial capital, and labour force (Woodhall, 2001). A more fitting definition offered by the OECD (2016) states that human capital is the knowledge, skills and competencies embodied in individuals that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being. Drawing from these definitions, we can see an established connection between human capital, represented by the collective attitudes, skills, experience, intelligence, training and abilities of a people and output, performance and productivity. Thus, the term human capital is a recognition that people, in organisations and societies, is an important and essential asset that contributes to the growth and development of such societies, in a similar way as physical assets like machines, land and money.

The notion of 'human capital' became popular in development literature because physical capital alone was not sufficient to bring about long -term development. The explanation is that without human capital, human progress would be minimal, as plants, offices, computers, automated equipment, internet systems and all other facilities that any organization may install remain unproductive except for human

efforts and direction (Dauda 2010). .

In fact, many economists, based on several research studies from various countries insist that human capital remains the most important factor that stimulates growth and development in the sense that with minimal physical capital, human capital could stimulate or cause substantial progress to happen (Hambo 2013).

Human resource, not physical capital, not income or material resources constitute the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production, human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital; exploit natural resources; build social, economic and political organizations; and carry forward national development" (Hambo 2013) Thus it is the quality and quantity of human capital that determines a nation's growth and development. It is the available human resources that mobilize and galvanize other resources for sociological, political, economic scientific and technological development.

The underlying thrust of this argument is that investment in improving the quality of human capital goes on to generate improvements in productivity and performance which by extension, leads to higher level of output of goods and services in Kogi State University. Many authors have concluded that the differences in the level of socio-economic development across nations is attributed not so much to natural resources and endowments and the stock of physical capital but to the quality and quantity of human resources (Dauda 2010).

Even the World Bank (1995) agrees that the causal factors responsible for the remarkable performance of Nigeria Universities are an impressive commitment to quality human capital formation investments in education and innovation and quality of life of their people. In other words, investing in human capital development ie the conscious and continuous process of increasing the number of people with requisite knowledge, education, skills, expertise and experience in Kogi State University.

The most well-known process by which a Kogi State University increase its quality and quantity of human capital is by the investment in education and job skills training, research and innovation the University is involve in.all over the world, universities are acknowledged not just as the citadels of knowledge but pipelines for human capital development. The acceptance of and confidence in the value of university education as a driver of human capital formation and invariably, global development cannot be over emphasized. It is in realization of this that governments at Federal and sub-national levels, religious organisations and individuals have been pursuing the establishment of universities in Nigeria beginning with the University

College Ibadan (now University of Ibadan) in 1948. Since then, the number of Universities in Nigeria has topped 150, with the last decade witnessing the fastest growth rate in University establishment. In addition to the regular degree programmes offered by our universities, most of them also engage in non-degree and certificate programmes all aimed at providing education to the people to either enhance employability or improve capacity.

The bulk of activities and curricula of Universities is usually targeted at teaching in order to produce graduates in diverse fields, but they also undertake substantial research that helps to push the frontier of knowledge and thereby the quality and quantity of human capital.

The University became a full-fledged University in November 1999, joining the crop of universities commonly referred to as third generation universities. Established with the vision of being an innovative institution with great interaction between 'town and gown,' the University has grown to be one of the most sought-after destinations of learning especially for candidates seeking University admission. Starting with a modest intake of initial of 700 undergraduate students in 2000, and by 2008 till date, the undergraduate enrolment had grown to over 23,000 students, while Postgraduates programmes started in 2008/2009 (KSU 2nd Strategic Plan: 2016-2020).

After eighteen years, the University has grown to 8 faculties, 37 departments, a School of Postgraduate Studies, a teaching hospital, a centre for Pre-degree and Diploma studies, operating in the school campus. In terms of staffing, Kogi State University has a total of 275 academic staff, out of which125 are professors and readers, and 473 non-academic staff making it one of the best ratios of academic to non-academic staff among Nigerian universities (KSU 2nd Strategic Plan: 2016-2020). .

Conventional approaches to appreciating the contributions of universities to human capital formation often focus on the number of graduates produced by our Universities. To that extent, Kogi State University can be rated consistent high among Nigerian universities that have significantly contributed to the process of human capital formation in Nigeria; developing high-level manpower who have changed the human capital landscape in Nigeria, both in quality and quantity. In the field of research and innovation, the University has recorded several milestones and has an impressive record of collaboration with other national and international institutions including affiliations with Nigerian Research Institutes.

The actual contributions of Kogi State University for the past eighteen years are

found in the multiplier effects of the knowledge, skills and abilities that have gone on to produce indirect and induced outcomes. Apart from the influence it exerts on its immediate environment in terms of geo-spatial changes induced in property values, the setting of the University in Anyigba in Kogi State has been one of the most significant drivers of socio-economic change in Anyigba and other neighbouring towns like Egume and so on. Because of the cosmopolitan composition of its staff and students right from inception, and due to the fact that more than any other Nigerian University, the University has the most diverse population representing the real Kogi indigenes, in a way reflecting what the city of Kogi has always been known for.

Conclusion

Drawing from the statistical analysis above, it is undoubted that the contribution of Kogi State University since inceptions had been quite enormous. A part form the influence it extents on its immediate environment in terms of geo-spatial changes induced in property values the setting of the university in Anyigba has been one of the most significant drivers of socio-economic change in Anyigba and other neighbouring towns, because of the cosmopolitan composition of its staff and students, the university has the most diverse population reflecting what the city of Kogi has always known for.

References

Dada,D.C. (2011) *Target setting and performance measurement for public and private sector, Global forum for manpower development:* Developing human resources skills Held for CBN Directors in Jos pp 1-11.

Daft F.& Pirola-Merlo,T. (2009). "*Nature and ethics of university administration*" in I. Olojede& B. Fajonyomi (eds.), *Ethics and Public Accountability in Nigeria*, Lagos: A-Triad Associates.

Dahlin, B.G. (2005). *The Impact of Education on Economic Growth: Theory, Findings and Policy Implications.* Working Paper, Duke

Dakpo,G. (2010) *Human resource management practices*. Retrieved from<http://www.edu.au/agsm/web.agsm.nsf/AttachmentByTitle/CCHREPORT2003/$FILE/C Accessed 26/7/2018>

Das F (2011), *Introduction to Educational Planning.* Owerri: Springfield Publishers

Dauda, D.H, Risikat, Y and Oladoyin, S. (2010) *Investment in Education and Economic Growth in Nigeria: An Empirical Evidence.* International

Research Journal of Finance and Economics.5(2):1450-2887.

Dauda, W.G (2010). *Human Capital Development: Nigeria's Greatest Challenge*. Journal of Management Policy and Practice vol. 13(1); 162-177

Davenport, T. (1999) *Sustaining Development in Mineral Economies*: The Resource Curse Thesis. London: Routledge

David,S Ajani, F. & Adetunji, Z. (2018) Human Capital Development, Technological Capabilities, and Economic Transformation: A Critical Review of the Issues Facing Nigeria in her Quest for National Development. Online Journal of Social Science Research. 1(1); 12-26

Decktop, K. (2006).*Women employment in Nigeria: Some socio-political and psychological constraints and prospects*: Nigerian Journal of Social Development. *1(1);* 31

Delaney, Y. & Huselid, J. (1996). *Human Resources Development in Nigeria: The Roadmap for Vision 20:2020.* International Journal of Economic Development Research and Investment. 2(1); 70-79

Delery R & Doty H. (2006). *Human Capital Development: America's Greatest Challenge.* Retrieved from www.cgp.upenn.edu/pdf/Human%20Capital%20Development.pdf

Demetra, Mete T & Essa, C (2008). *Human Capital Development Theory: Implications for Education - Comparisonof Influential Twenty-First Century Economists* Samuel Bowles and Gary S. Becker. Retrieved from http://www.personal.psu.edu/afk119/blogs/career_tech_ed/2009/12/human-capital-development-theory.html

Demeulemeester, R &Rochat, H.(1996). Patrick Fitzsimons (1999) *Human Capital Theory and Education* University of Auckland: Encyclopedia of Philosophy of Education http://www.ffst.hr/ ENCYCLOPEDIA/doku

Dessler, J. (2003). *Human Capital Development Activities.* Retrieved from http://www.ehow.com/info_12046900_human-capital-development-activities.html.

Dessler,S. (2008), *Sustainable development security for the future*: Journal of Social Policy and Society. *2(4);* 97

Dewar H and Werbel L. (1979) *What's the Difference between Higher Education and Further Education?* Retrieved on 24th August, 2018 from http://www.lcp.org.uk/index.php/2018/08/whats-difference-between-higher education-further-education

Dierickx, A. and Cool, E. (1989) *Perception of Contingency as a Determinant of Social Responsiveness.* In E. B. Thomas (Ed.) *Origins of the infant's social responsiveness*. (pp. 33–64). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dike, R. (2012) Igbokwe-Ibeto, C.J. 2012. *Recruitment in the Nigerian civil service and its implication on organizational productivity: A study of federal civil service commission* (FCSC), unpublished M.Sc thesis, Department of Public Administration, Lagos State University, Ojo

Dornbusch, K, (2004). "*Human capital formation as catalyst for national development: Nigeria in perspective*." International Business and Management 2(2):98-104

Dyer, J.(2005). *Principles and practice of public personnel administration in Nigeria*, Lagos: Concept Publications Limited.

ASSESSMENT OF THE EARNINGS OF EDUCATED PEOPLE AND FORMATION OF HUMAN CAPITAL: THE INTRIQUES IN NIGERIA

KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph.D)[22], OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph.D)[23], OMOREDE, CHRISTIANA KAYINWAYE [PhD][24] , ULOKO , FELICIA[25] & ISAIAH OJOCHENEMI MIRACLE[26]

Abstract

The study titled "Higher Earnings of Educated people and formation of human capital development in Nigeria's a deliberate attempt at exploring the justification for higher earning of the educated people in economies than the people with less education. It was noted from the study that education provides manpower required in an increasing economy. Therefore, education remains a form of investment for both the individual and the society in general. Suffice to conclude that investment in human capital for economic development is a must and a requirement for future earning capital.

Introduction

The idea of higher earnings of educated people has made it significant for the demand and development of education and the formation of human capital; and which, in all economies of which we have knowledge, people with more education earn on average higher incomes than people with less education (Musgrave, 1966, Lewis, 1961, Bowman, 1961, Blaug, 1970). An additional education (Blaug, 1976) in this sense pays off in the form of higher life time incomes and improved wages; thereby the cost incurred in this process constitute an investment in human capital that has to do with future earning capacity.

Obviously, even where additional education did not increase lifetime earnings, education could still be considered as an investment from the social premise. Like for instance, if, Nigerian economy requires an increasing supply of highly educated

[22] **Kogi State University, Anyigba**
[23] **Kogi State University, Anyigba**
[24] **Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City, Edo State.**
[25] **Department of Public Administration, Kogi State University, Anyigba**
[26] **Kogi State University, Anyigba Email: Miracleoisaiah@gmail.Com**

manpower, the country might encourage students to stay on at school as a way of investing in the future production capacity of the people. In this sense, education remains a form of investment for both the individual and the society in general.

It is widely admitted that this implications of investment in human capital for economic development have not been really understood until quite recently, even where Adam Smith appreciated earlier that an educated man is a sort of expensive machine. Smith (1776, bk 1 ch.10 : I) advance this relevance further, as he posits:

When any expensive machine is erected, the extraordinary work to be performed by it before it is worn out, it must be expected, will replace the capital laid out upon it, with at least the ordinary profits. A man educated at the expense of much labour and time to any of those employments which require extra-ordinary dexterity and skill, may be compared to one of those expensive machines. The work, which he learns to perform, it must be expected over and above the usual wages of common labour, will replace to him the whole expense of his education, with at least the ordinary profits of an equally valuable capital. It must do this too in a reasonable time; regard being had to the very uncertain duration of human being life, in the same manner as the more certain duration of the machine. The difference between the wages of skilled labour and those of common labour is founded upon this principle.

In spite of the superiority of human capital over other forms of capital, investment in it was almost completely neglected by economists throughout all epochs and up to the first half of the twentieth century. This is true, as even where Smith admitted this relevance in 1776, Marshall in 1890 destroyed such relevance, as he sees the notion of human capital as unrealistic and for which his magisterial authority was responsible for the demise of human capital. Marshall's rejection was rooted in the idea of including the acquired skills of a population in the measurement of the wealth or capital of an economy, even though he acknowledged smith's position that an educated man may be usefully appreciated to an expensive machine.

His position is that a man can only sell his work but he himself remains his own property; as those who bear the expenses of rearing and educating him, receive but very little of the price that is paid for his services in later years. Thus, Marshall did not count on the skills of the population as forming part of the capital stock or wealth of an economy. And indeed, his rejection did not count on the skills of the population as forming part of the capital stock or wealth of an economy. Yet, his rejection did not stop him from making use of the analogy of capital accumulation in analyzing the causes and effects of improving the quality of labour by means of education. He thus, regarded education as a national investment and that the most valuable of all capital is that invested in human beings (Jhingan, 2002).

According to Jhingan (2002), that lack of investment in human capital has been responsible for the slow transformation of the developing countries. Therefore, unless such economies spread education, knowledge, know-how and raise the level of skills and physical efficiency of people the productivity of physical capital is reduced (Romer, 1990, Summers,1992, Jhingan, 2002).

Apparently, Blaug (1976) argued that the fact that the decision to invest in education is made by parents on behalf of their children rather than by the children themselves does not give rise to a fundamental difference between the material and human agents of production. Glaringly, this is a strong endorsement of the concept of human capital formation as we are ever likely to find elsewhere. Thus far, it can be argued that the cost of an individual's education constitutes an investment in future earning capacity.

Therefore, it is no accident that educated people tend to earn more than those who lack education. Manifest of one fact, is the premise of some earnings from education that could be roughly comparable to the ordinary profits of an equally valuable capital that could sustain the supply of educated people. This still has to be stressed that individuals cannot capitalize their earning capacity which informs the decision to acquire education that involves consideration of extraneous to a deliberate balancing of returns over costs; a phenomenon quite relevant in human capital development and formation.

However, the economics of capital formation has been identified with the net increase of land, structures, durable equipment, commodity stocks, and foreign claims (Meier, 1976). Yet, Meier stressed that the population and the capacity and training of the population to use it effectively should interpret the capital stock more broadly to embrace the body of knowledge possessed. In this sense, expenditures on education and training, improvement of health, and research contribute to productivity by raising the quality of the population, and these, consequently produce a continuing return in the future. This constitutes the basis for human capital formation.

It could be reasoned that economic development hinges heavily on the creation and development of functional human capital, which is anchored with the necessary technical skills for modern industrial development, and consequently, imbued with the philosophy conducive to the acceptance and promotion of economic and technical change. Despite the concentration of the role of material and financial capital for economic development in the past, its shortcomings has Germane a deliberate emphasis on the role of human labour in spear heading all forms of

production and development. Thus far, human capital in a contemporary setting, constitute an important capital in view of its overwhelming contribution to the general growth and development of the national economy and educational sector.

The Demand and Supply of Human Capital Development

Arguing from the premise of Todaro (1981), Todaro and Smith 2003), the environment of non-market forces can affect human capital creation; which is largely determined by market or price mechanism of demand and supply. The emphasis here is that since education is mostly public oriented and provided for in the less developed world; in Nigeria, for instance, the determinants of demand, turn out to be much more important than the determinants of supply. On the demand side, two premises are feasible:

The more educated an individual is, the more likely is his prospects of earning considerably higher income through future modern sector employment.

The educational costs, both direct and indirect which, a student or his family must bear, determines the nature and character of training and profession the family has to invest on him as well as the anticipated job opportunities that may be availed to the recipient of such an investment (Dornbusch, et al 2004, Todaro and Smith,2003, Jhingan, 2003).

From these premises, it can be deduced that in real terms, a derived demand for high wage employment opportunities in the modern sector determines the nature of human capital creation in an economy. In the very nature of human capital investment, access to jobs is largely determined by the amount of education, an individual acquires. For instance, in Nigeria, most people do not demand education for its intrinsic values and benefits but for purposes of meeting high employment. However, reasoned from sound economic argument, most economic analysis of return from education has been centred on the contribution of education to earning capacity and largely to production capacity.

Apparently, there is indeed a positive correlation between relating level of earnings to level of education attained; as persons who have acquired more education through long term schooling, earn more than persons with less education or short term schooling (Thompson 1981, Blaug, 1976, Meier and Rauch, 2000, Meier and Stiglitz, 2001).

Human capital creation on the supply side is largely determined by political considerations rather than related economic criteria. This is because supply of education is fixed by the level of government educational expenditure, and which

again, is influenced by the level of aggregate private demand for education. More so, the amount to be devoted to the creation of human capital as inferred by Todaro (1981), Todaro and Smith (2003), Rogbesan (1992), Jhingan (2002), is more influenced by political process, since government decides where to site schools and the nature of such schools and the curriculum which are all informed by the body politics of the state with less emphasis on economic development and benefits of investment in men. This characteristic has prevailed in Nigeria over time.

On demand and supply emphasis on the creation of human capital, Amin (1977), Gupta (1990), Summers (1992) argued that human capital formation must create a close link between theory and practice at all fronts and levels. In making this practicable, scientific knowledge and skill must be transmitted in a more critical dynamic form that could be further developed and enriched to the interest of transforming the existing institutional framework of the productive environment of the economy.

The demand for human capital creation must proceed in close relation to existing opportunities and application within the context and character of economic growth and transformation of the economy. Impliedly, the economic, social and political considerations in human capital creation must prevail in such a manner as to guarantee work for all and opportunities for all workers irrespective of educational background to acquire increasingly more advanced skills towards sustained and improved production in the economy.

The National Policy on Education

The need for a national policy on education came about as a result of the 1996 National Curriculum Conference which was attended by a cross-section of Nigerians. The conference was a culmination of expressions of general dissatisfaction with the existing education system which had become irrelevant to national needs, aspirations and goals. After the National Curriculum Conference, a seminar of expert drawn from a wide range of interest groups within Nigeria was convened in 1973. The seminar, which includes voluntary agencies and external bodies, deliberated on what a national policy on education for an independent and sovereign Nigeria should be.

The outcome of the seminar was a draft document which, after due comments were received from the states and other interest groups, led to the final document, the National Policy on Education, first published in 1997.

Since the published of the first edition in 1997, the 2nd and 3rd editions were published in 1981 and 1998 respectively in keeping with the dynamics of social

change and the demands on education. This 4th edition was necessitated by some policy innovations and changes, and the need to update the 3rd edition (1998) accordingly. These innovations and changes include:

a) The lifting of the suspension order on Open and Distance Learning Programme by Government,
b) Revitalization and expansion of the National Mathematical Centre (NMC);
c) Establishment of Teachers Registration Council (TRC);
d) Introduction of information and Communication Technology (ICT) into the school curriculum as a second official language;
e) Prescription of French Language in the primary and secondary schools, curriculum as second official language;
f) Prescription of minimum number of subject to taken by SSCE candidates;
g) The integration of basic education in the programme of Quaranic schools, to ensure equal opportunity and effective implementation of UBE;
h) Repositioning science, technical and vocational education in the scheme of national educational for optimum performance; and
i) general contextual change to reflect the state of professional practice in education, among others Government's intention was that the far-reaching provisions set out in all sections of the policy should transform all aspects of the nation's life over time.

To this end, Government set up a National Educational Policy Implementation Committee to translate the Policy into workable blue prints that would guide the bodies whose duty it would be to implement the policy. The Committee was also to develop monitoring system for educational plan as it evolved.

A nation's policy on education is government's way of realizing that part of the national goals which can achieve, using education as a tool. No policy on education, however, can be formulated without first identifying the overall philosophy and goals of the nation. The overall philosophy of Nigeria is to:

a) Live in unity and harmony as one indivisible, indissoluble, democratic and sovereign nation founded on the principal of freedom, equally and justice;
b) Promote inter-African solidarity and world peace through understanding.

The five main national goals of Nigeria, which have been endorsed as the necessary foundation for the National Policy on education, are the building of:

a) a free, fair and, democratic society;

b) a just egalitarian society;
c) a united, strong and self-reliant nations;
d) a great and dynamic economy;
e) a land full of bright opportunities for all citizens.

In Nigeria's philosophy of Education, we believe that: -

a) education is an instrument for national development, and the interaction of persons and ideas are all aspects of education;

b) education fosters the worth development of the individual, for each individual's sake, and for general development of the society

c) the training of the mind in the understanding of the world around;

d) the acquisition of appropriate skills and competencies as equipment for the individual to live in and contribute to the development of the society.

In consequence, the quality of instruction at all levels has to be oriented towards inculcating the following value;

a) respect for the worth and dignity of the individual;
b) faith in man's ability to make rational decisions;
c) moral and spiritual principle in inter-personal and human relations
d) shared responsibility for the common good of society;
e) promotion of the physical, emotional and psychological development of all children;
f) acquisition of competencies necessary for self-reliance.
g)

In order to realize fully the potentials of the contributions of education to the achievement of these goals and values, all other agencies will operate in concert with education. To that end, Government shall take various measures to implement the policy; Accordingly:

1) education shall continue to be highly rated in the national development plans because education is the most important instrument of charge; any fundamental change in the intellectual and social outlook of any society has to be preceded by education;

2) life-long education shall be the basis of the nation's educational policy;

3) education and training facilities shall continue to be expanded in response to social needs and made progressively accessible to

afford the individual a far more diversified and flexible choice;

4) educational activities shall be centered on the leaner for maximum self-development and self-fulfilment;

5) Universal Basic education in a variety of forms; depending on needs and possibilities, shall be provided for all citizens;

6) Efforts shall be made to relate education to overall community needs;

7) Educational assessment and evaluation shall be liberalized by their being based in part on continuous assessment of the progress of the individual;

8) Modern education techniques shall be increasingly used and improved upon at all levels of the education system;

9) The education system shall be structured to develop the practice of self-learning. Government shall in this regard continue to encourage the establishment of Young Readers Clubs in schools

10) At any stage of the education process after junior secondary education, an individual shall be able to choose between continuing full-time studies, combining work with study, or embanking on full-time employment work with study, or embarking on full-time employment without excluding prospect of resuming studies later on;

11) Opportunity shall continue to be made for made for religious instruction; no child will be forced to accept any religious instruction which is contrary to the wishes of his or her parents; and

12) Physical and health education shall be emphasized at all levels of the education system.

Conclusion

Drawing from the foregoing presentation, it is crystally clear that human capital is superior over other forms of capital to the effect that the National policy on Education was hatched in 1996 in order to address the inadequacy and the need to sustain an independent and sovereign Nigeria. No wonder that education became a gateway by which government realises national goals using education as a tool.

References

Brown, V (2004). *Skill Requirements, Earnings and Labour Demand in Nigeria's Urban Informal Sector.*

Brum,E.C (2007) . *Educational Administration Applied Concepts and Theoretical Perspectives*, Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd.

Bryman, A and Bell, E (2003), *Business Research Methods*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bulut E & Culha S. (2010). *The strategic context of external network ties: Examining the impact of director appointments on board involvement in strategic decision making*. Academy of Management Journal, 4: 639-660.

Bundi, B.(2007). *Resourcing the Training and Development Function. Report 390*, Institute for Employment Studies.

Busienei, V.(2013). *Cross-over, completion and confabulation in unilateral spatial neglect*. Brain, 118, 455-465.

Callaway,G (1964), *Training, manpower development and job performance: Perception and relevance among civil servants in Ebonyi State, Nigeria*. Journal of Economics and International Finance 3(6), pp. 399-406.

Campbell, D.T, & Stanley, J.C. (1996). *Experimental and quasi-experimental design for research and teaching.* In: Gage, N.L. ed., Handbook of research on teaching. Chicago, Ill., Rand McNally.

Campbell, J (1990).. *Human assets and management dilemmas: Coping with hazards on the road to resource-based theory.* Academy of Management Review, 22: 374-402.

Carpenter, E and Westphal,D (2001). *Drilling for micro-foundations of human capital based competitive advantages.* Journal of Management, 37: 1429-1443.

Chatterjee,F. (1995), *Effective Behaviour in Organizations: Cases, Concepts and Student Experiences.* 6th. Edition. USA: Irwin McGraw Hill.

Choice, K.(2013), *An integrated agency-resource dependence view of the influence of directors' human and relational capital on firms' R and D spending*. Journal of Management Studies, 48: 1217-1242.

Chunfungetal., K.I.(2005) ,*They're not employees, they're people*, Harvard Business Review, February, 10, 2018, pp. 70-7.

Clarke, H.U.(2011).“*From human resource strategy to organizational effectiveness: lessons from research in organizational agility*”, in Wright, P., Dyer, L., Boudreau, J. and Milkovich, G. (Eds), *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, Supplement 4, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, NJ, pp. 145-74.

Claver, E., Llopis, J., Garcia, D., & Molina, H. (2014), *Organizational culture for innovation and new technological behavior*, The Journal of High Technology Management Research, Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 55-68.

Clutterbuck, H.O. (2002) *Strategic leadership: Top executives and their effects on organizations.* New York: West.

Coff, F and Kryscynks,E (2011) *Intellectual capital: Realising your company's true value by finding its hidden brain-power*, Harper Collins, NY.

Coleman, J. (1994): “*The Idea of the Developmental University*”, in R. Sklar (ed.), *Nationalism and Development in Africa*, London, University of California Press, 334-357.

Collins, G (1994), *Investigating the influence of social desirability on personality factor structure.* Journal of Applied Psychology, 86, 122-133.

Collis,H and Montgomery, O. (1995), *Human resource management practices and their Effects on print production* at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology Press. MA Dissertation University of Cape Coast.

Connor,J (2002), *Human Resources Management: An Introduction* Lobofln and Co. Lagos.

Coyle-Shapiro, A. (2002), *The role of higher education in human capital development*. Retrieved from http://ssrn.com/abstract=2380878Accessed on 15/08/2018

Croucher,F.F (2008) *Economic impact of tertiary education on human capital development in Nigeria. Human Resource development in Africa.* Selected papers for 2002 annual conference, Nigerian economic society, University of Ibadan, 499-522

ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE OF KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY, ANYIGBA (2009-2019)

KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph. D)[27] , OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph. D)[28] & OCHIDI, ZEKERI[29]

ABSTRACT
The study titled "Human Capital Development in Nigeria Tertiary nstitutions on X-ray of Kogi State University is critically intended to examine and explore the extent to which the university has been able module through the hurdles of government in terms of compliant to the core mandates by which the institution was established. The study reveals that despite the unforeseen and unsolicilated challenges ranging from internal and external interferences which were capable of stamped the pace of performance and jeopardize the system, was able do their best in mentioning and quality of teaching/research among others.

Introduction

The Bill establishing the University was signed into law on 18th November, 1999 by the then Executive Governor of Kogi State, Prince Abubakar Audu. Academic programmes commenced in April, 2000 with the registration of 750 students in the six faculties of Agriculture, Arts & Humanities, Law, Management Sciences, Natural Sciences and Social Sciences. (Strategic plan, 2016-2020).

As part of performance in Kogi State University, Anyigba continue, with uninterrupted academic calendar, coupled with great enthusiasm and dedication, Kogi State University Produced its of 426 graduates, as proof of performance, the students population has grown in to about 22,340, consisting of 17,390 undergraduates, 1,300 postgraduate and 3,650 predegree and diploma students.

In the discussions of performance measurement in Kogi State University, there is need to first understand what organizational performance is. By far, there is no unanimous definition of organizational performance because organizations vary by different situations. A description of organizational performance without considering actual organizational context might be faint. Efforts on clarifying

[27] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[28] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[29] Kogi State University, Anyigba, Dept. of Business Administration

organizational performance remain the vaguest and loosely defined construct in the relative field of study (Wright, 2016).

From the rational-goal model, organizational effectiveness or performance can be defined as the extent to which organizational goals are achieved (Price, 2013). Thus, organizational performance can be measured by the extent to which the organizational goals are achieved. Performance is one of the most argued concepts about which there has never been an agreement among various researchers and theorists. This index with different definitions has been used in various disciplines like airline education management and computer science Opkele (2004) refers to an absence of sufficient understanding or clarification in the definition of the concept of performance.

In the absence of any operational definition of performance upon which the majority of the relevant scholars agree, there would naturally be different interpretations and inferences opined by various people according to their own perceptions. This discord and lack of agreement is partly due to the lack of a significant attempt to theoretically or practically account for and define the concept. As a result, a commonly accepted definition of the concept faces various problems, which means that the possibility of any definitions and deriving some norms to arrive at the desired definition is still questionable.

Organizations perform various activities to accomplish their organizational objectives. It is these repeatable activities that utilize processes for the organization to be successful that must be quantified in order to ascertain the level of performance and for management to make informed decisions on where, if needed, within the processes to initiate actions to improve performance. Therefore, it can be claimed that there is a close relationship between the organizational objective and the concept of organizational performance.

The system resource model defines organizational effectiveness through the survival of the organization by actively interacting with its environments to seek scare and valuable resources to ensure its functioning (Amify, 2015). The survivability of an organization is a critical indicator of organizational performance. The ability to acquire valuable and scare resources is an important mean to an organization's survival. The models provide researchers with two theoretical approaches that can be helpful in configuration of organizational performance and in the design of performance measurement in the study. Thus, performance measurement on effectiveness and efficiency is not simply a fixed form of measurement on organizational past actions. Rather, it is a multi-dimensional concept that covers broad aspects in Kogi State University.

In Kogi State University, two groups of personnel are employed; they are the trained and untrained human resource. Managing human resource in the schools is not an easy task. For a staff to be able to give learning instruction efficiently and effectively for a desired output, he or she must have the teaching skills, knowledge and teaching methods. Not following the required teaching methods, one may leave some gaps in the accepted teaching procedures. Kogi State University performance will be look at from this various angle thus:

1.**Mentoring and Quality of Teaching/Research**

Mentoring is a strategic plan specifically designed by Kogi State University management to train and retain highly competent Lecturers for quality teaching and robust research through mentee-mentor relationship (KSU, 2016). To enhance the quality of teaching, the university adopted a fully monitored strategy of comprehensive revision and update of academic programmes, expanded teavjing facilities, improved work ethics among staff,, improved opportunities for conference attendance and sustainable conflict resolution mechanism. These is geared towards a sustainable production of graduates with skills for job and wealth creation (KSU, 2016).

Most Universities see the need for regular and timely mentoring and workplace learning to enhance quality teaching and research performance to promote sustainability and competitive advantage (Darwin, 2000). Meanwhile, Whelan and Carcary (2011) opined that strategic mentoring facilitate career progression, psychological support and personal development which invariably translate to university productive engagement in teaching, innovation and research, satisfaction and retention (Emelo, 2009). Mentor-mentee relationship is likely to reduce non-performance of some staff (Judge, 2011), promote effective utilisation of talented and competent faculty and improve team work, academic linkages and collaboration.

In another development, Mentoring is closely associated with career enhancement and development of academic staff evaluation of their current competencies, identify gaps, and develop strategies to gain new or required competencies. Furthermore, mentoring tends to influence quality teaching and research innovation.

Research Collaboration and Academic Linkages

Brew (2010) posited that research collaboration and academic linkage is another strategic platform upon which university competences and capabilities can be enhanced for productive teaching, research and academic innovation. Truly, research collaboration from different or related disciplines in Kogi State University is paramount and more likely to have positive impact on lecturers' performance

(Odomirok, 2001). Meanwhile, academic linkages and research collaboration are likely to provide a platform for knowledge transfer that will enrich quality teaching and research.

The strategy Kogi State University, Anyigba adopted was to fully equip and update the ICT facilities; all research laboratories were equipped with state-of-the-art equipment and the establishment of the Centre for Entrepreneurial Studies (KSU, 2015). In a related development, the university Management constituted a Committee for Research and Development to anchor research collaboration and academic linkages capable of enhancing lecturer's intellectualism which allows them to keep updated on learning and teaching integration skills, pedagogical research, sharing valuable ideas and experiences. Thus, Kogi State University has collaborated in the area of research collaboration in the area of International Exchange Programme which over time has improved the performance of academic and non-academic staff on the University.

Organisation Learning, Innovation and Community Service

Kogi State University are able to utilise the knowledge gathered determines the success and survival of such institution. Learning is a necessity for Universities to compete favourably in the ever-changing competitive environment to ensure sustainable development. Besides, Organizational learning is a strategic process that enables the lectures to learn and react to environmental dynamism via better knowledge and understanding. However, the University capability for innovation, research and community service relies on the faculty ability to collectively learn organisational rudiments, process and apply their skills and experiences accordingly. Organisation learning is likely to offer great opportunities for lecturers to learn and improve on their research skills for innovation and better performance.

Induction and Orientation on Lecturers Performance

Organisations including education sector usually put in place some form of induction or orientation training programme for new employees for proper integration into the system. Induction/orientation has become one of the fundamental strategic tool for human resource development in Kogi State University (Amodu, 2000). It also offers the new employees the opportunity to know the core values, culture, ethics of the University and reducing the likelihood of breaching the institution policies. The induction/orientation of new academic staff provides a platform for lecturers to equip themselves with theoretical and practical knowledge for improve performance in teaching, research, innovation and community impact

Importance of Human Capital Development in Kogi State University, Anyigba

The importance of HCD is to improve the staff technical expertises to enable them perform their jobs efficiently and effectively and also adapt to changes in technological and advancement in science. Thus, (Obasi & Asodike, 2007) maintains that, it enhances learning, human potential and high performance in work –related system; also increases skills of the individuals as well as their personal earnings and the manpower needed for economic development. It also promotes competency and efficiency to facilitate and accomplish the achievement of the university's mission, vision, objectives and goals.

Thus, in the long run, Nestorowicz and Park (2015) explained that the purpose of HCD is twofold; based on the identified three distinct functions of HCD which are Training and Development, Organizational Development, and Career Development. This perfectly illustrate that HCD affects both the development of individuals and organizations. Therefore, on one hand it provides opportunities for employees to improve their skills, on the other hand, it aims for an efficient utilization of human resource in order to meet organizational objectives.

That is why in the light of the above, it is imperative to note that, the consolidation and expansion phase of the university within the scope of this study (2009-2019) includes among others:

A. Establishment of the centre for pre-degree and diploma studies (CPDS) in 2010.

B. The establishment of the centre for Lower Atmospheric Research (CLAR) donated by the National Space Research and Development Agency (NASRDA), Abuja

c. The establishment of the Geographic Information System (GIS) Laboratory, also donated by NASRDA, Abuja.

D. The establishment of the Faculty of Education

E. The establishment of the Faculty of Medicine, later up-graded to College of Health Sciences.

F. The introduction of Examination Computation software.

G. The introduction of Computer-Based-Test (CBT), for pre-admission screening, General Studies (GST) and other examinations. This feat greatly increased the appetite for computer literacy by staff and prospective candidates.

H. The establishment of the Entrepreneurial Development Centre.

It can be seen from the above that Kogi State University, Anyigba with 8 out of the 12 proposed faculties fully consolidated after a decade of establishment. It has thus attained 60% of her developmental roadmap (KSU 2011). Therefore, after consolidation, the next logical imperative in the growth of the university is to confront her challenges by ensuring the maintenance of a robust Human Capital Development Strategy.

Conclusion

Arising from the coverage and scope of this study, it is worth inferring that determination and focus remain the centre hood and the basis of successes achieved so far in the university. Thus, determination and focus became the tool and bedrock upon which the university can stand test of time in terms of global standard and practice.

References

Edinger, S. (2012), *Don't innovate. Create a culture of innovation*, Forbes, available at: http://www.forbes.com/sites/scottedinger/2012/11/20/dont-innovate-create-a-culture-of-innovation.

Egbue,O. (2002). *Service Delivery concepts and the Namibian situation.* Workshop on achieving benefits of enhanced service delivery by National Metrological Services (NMSs) in Eastern and Southern Africa

Ejere, Y. (2011) *The role of human resource management in mitigating global financial Crisis.* International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Review 2(4):115-128

Ekor, U (2012) *Strategic leadership: Theory and research on executives, top management teams, and boards.* Minneapolis/St. Paul, MN: West.

Elfred, N. (2000) "*Building a learning organization*", Harvard Business Review,76 (1),pp. 78-91.

Enyekit, A, Amaehule , O. &Teerah, I. 2011). *Human Resource Management*, Sultan Chand and Sons Educational publishers, New Delhi

Epodoi H.I. (2003) *Developing human capital indicators: a three way approach*. Int. J. learning and Intellectual Capital,5, (¾) pp.387-403

ERC National Secretariat (2010): Head Office: Room 142.5, Fajuyi Hall, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife 162, Ipaja Road,

Erluwua, H.E.O. (2007). *Skills acquisition: A tool for youth empowerment for*

economic growth and development. Journal of business and management studies, *1*(2):116-125.

Etor,U.O (2011) *The effect of HRM practices on the perceptions of organizational and market performance in the firm.* Human resource management, 38(3):185-199.

Ezewu, E.E.(2003) *The Sociology of Education*, London Longman.

Fafunwa, Y. (1964), *Distributed leadership in schools: Developing the leaders of tomorrow.* Routledge and Falmer Press.

Fafunwa,J.L. (1974), *New Directions in Management Development*, Paper 387, Institute of Employment Studies

Fajana R.S. (2012). *Hands-On Training: A Simple and Effective Method for On-the-Job Training.* Colorado, Berrett-Koehler

Falola, T and Abasilim, G.F (2017) *Delivering and Implementing HRD: Provision of, Levels and Spending for Training in Malaysian Manufacturing Fims*. American Journal of Scientific Research, Issue 6: pp. 67-78

Finkelstein, G. and Hambrick, S.M. (1996). *Direct and moderating effects of human capital on strategy and performance in professional service firms: A resource-based perspective*. Academy of Management Journal, 44: 13-28

Freire,Y (1980),. *Strategic management: Competitiveness and globalization, concepts and cases* (9th ed.). Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage.

Funsho, R.(2010). *Organizational learning: The contributing Processes and the literatures.Organization Science,* 2 (1, Special issue: Organizational learning: Papers in honor of (and by) James G. March. (1991)): 88-115.

Galbraith,G. (1973). *Mobilizing invisible assets.* Boston: HBS Press.

Garacia,E. (2005). '*Relational archetypes, organizational learning, and value creation: extending the human resource architecture'*, Academy of Management Review, 32, 236-256

Garavan,T, (2001) *Perceived investment in employee development, intrinsic innovation and work performance.* Human Resource Journal *19 (3)*:217-236.

Gerhart,W. (1990 "*The entrepreneurial and managerial competencies of small business owner/managers in Hong Kong: conceptual and methodological*

considerations", paper presented at the 4th International Conference on Competence-based Management, Oslo, 18-20 June.

Ghorbanhosseini,G. (2014)."*Designing organizations for competitive advantage: the power of unlearning and learning*", Organizational Dynamics, 27(3), pp. 24-38.

Globerman, S., and Shapiro,D. (2002) *Global Foreign Direct Investment Flows: The Role of Governance Infrastructure.* World Development 30, No 11: 1899-9119

CHALLENGES OF HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN KOGI STATE UNIVERSITY ANYIGBA

OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph.D)[30], PAULINA, ADA AKPA (Ph. D)[31], Aliyu Abdullahi,PhD[32] & KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph.D)[33]

Abstract
This study titled "The trends, issues and challenges of human capital development in Nigerian Higher Institutions An X-ray of Kogi State University is intended to ascertain the various weariness, roadblocks, restrictions that have river time stampeded their way of progress and how they were able to surmount it. It was discovered that challenges are natural and inevitable in all human endeavour Kogi State University inclusive. However, they were able to surmount their challenges through consistence and perseverance.

Introduction

As it is usual with dynamic systems especially in turbulent societies like Nigeria, Kogi State University, Anyigba has had her fair share of exciting and teething challenges ranging from the period of its take-off in 1999 culminating in the NUC accreditation debacle in 2005 where only 9 programmes had interim status while 29 programmes were completely denied (KSU 2015). The root cause of the problem was not far-fetched: poor human capital. However, by the concerted effort of the then Vice Chancellor Emeritus, Professor F.S. Idachaba and the political good will he enjoyed from the then executive Governor of Kogi State, Alhaji Ibrahim Idris, the evil tide was up-turned in no time.

To overcome this challenge, the first strategic plan of the university, 2011-2015, established a staff development that was geared to create a committed and efficient workforce fully dedicated to consolidation, expansion and sustainability of the university in accordance with the vision, mission and core values of the university (KSU 2011). The objectives of this can be summarized as follows among others:

- ✓ To develop a staff development policy and training programme needed for positive output.
- ✓ To expose all staff to up-to-date courses, workshops, seminars and other relevant programmes to ensure currency of service delivery.
- ✓ To produce clear job description and ethics of conduct for all staff, to create

[30] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[31] Benue State University, Benue
[32] Dept of Public Administration, Kogi State University, Anyigba
[33] Kogi State University, Anyigba

sense of direction and decency at work.

- ✓ To improve the quantity and quality of staff by the recruitment and training of the requisite staff (KSU 2011).

From the foregoing, the following points are generally the challenges of Human Capital Development in Kogi State University, Anyigba:

1) The major challenges confronting human capital development in Kogi State University includes poor funding, incessant industrial action, brain drain syndrome, poor infrastructure, and obsolete curricula, to mention but a few. One is of the strong opinion that our University system seems to be deficient both in structure and in staff which usually affect performance and development, education that promotes productivity must be functional, well planned, well imparted with modern approaches and adequately utilized by beneficiaries for the overall performance and growth of the University.(Adamu,2003)

2) When new entrepreneurial skills and knowledge are adequately inculcated by qualified and erudite scholars, the positive link between human capital development and organisational performance becomes obvious. There seems to always be a disconnect of these all-important virtues in the University.

Inadequate Infrastructure: They include inadequate hostel and classroom facilities, outdated libraries and laboratories, poor water and electricity supply, poor staff residential accommodations, poor access road network within and around the institution, lack of adequate recreational facilities, inadequately equipped health care centre, poor security and lack of good offices for her staff. No meaningful teaching and learning can take place where all these are lacking as presently the case in Kogi State University.

Examination Malpractice (Sorting): The concept of an examination is one that is originally tied to life itself. Simply put, it is the notion that one is allowed a period to learn, after which a test is administered on what one has learned. Whether we call it a test, examination, stock-taking, trial or examination is a gateway to promotion or stagnation; progress or redundancy. It is the only objective means of assessing knowledge and choosing between competitors. The sanctity of examination should therefore be at the root of our tertiary institution value system. This is because the integrity of the certificate or degree obtained at the institutions and that of the institution itself depends on it. But it has become a tradition in most higher institutions in Nigeria to sell grades as a mere commodity, where grades are now bargained thereby, negating the sanctity of examination.

Cultism in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions: Cultism according to Amechi, (2010), is a plague eating up a large proportion of Nigerian education system and the issue of curbing or eradicating cultism has always received lip service. Some lecturers who insist on maintaining standard by refusing monetary inducement are forced at

gun point to pass cult members. This has watered down the academic content of the certificates paraded by some Nigerian graduates. Kogi State University, Anyigba has had its own fair share of this ugly menace. The university has experienced cult clashes and cult-related deaths. To curb this menace, the State Government had to mandate both staff and students to sign an oath of non-cult involvement.

Funding: Funding of education in Kogi State University, Anyigba is inadequate, which in many respects is responsible for most of other problems. Inadequate funding results in poor salaries and other emoluments, decayed and inadequate infrastructure and facilities, over stretching of services, poorly maintained and sustained municipal services and poor funding of practical and research. This has always been the cause of the conflict between government and the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU, KSU) resulting in incessant strike actions and keeping students at home perpetually and sometimes to come back towards the end of a semester for examination which they were not adequately prepared for, the consequence is usually the production of graduates with beautiful certificates but without adequate training and skills required for productivity.

vii. Brain Drain: It is worthy of note that for University to contribute significantly to growth and development, her human capital must be of high quality to meet the skill-demand needs of the society (Olaniyan, 2008). The university has adversely been affected by a great lost of academic staff especially during the ASUU/State Government faceoff in 2017.

Viii Lack of respect to Bond: It is in best practice that staff that are to benefit from the Human Capital Development programme of the university sign up a 'Bond form'. The bond among others states that a staff shall "return back to the university at the expiration of the duration of the course of study and serve the university for a period of two (2) years for every year of study leave subject to a maximum of five (5) years" Unfortunately, over the years, staff, after benefiting from the programme, take up other appointments and without recourse to the university, abscond from duty. Within the study period of this work (2009-2019) the number of absconded staff on such cases has risen to fifty-three (53) (KSU Establishment office, 2019).

Remedies to Challenges of Human Capital Development in Kogi State University Anyigba

The establishment of the Academic Staff Excellence Trust Fund with N100 million, acknowledged as an innovation in the Nigerian University System. The Academic Excellence Trust Fund invests N100 million in blue chip companies on the Nigerian Stock Exchange for long run growth and capital appreciation of the Fund over time with emphasis on strong dividend momentum and preservation and growth of the capital value of the Fund. It is the dividend income on the Fund that is used to support Academic Excellence Programmes and activities. For example, the Fund have been used to take care of travel expenses and honorarium of distinguished

scholars invited for lecture(s) by different programmes to empower Kogi State University, Anyigba to gain instant access to global knowledge in the Sciences. Arts and Humanities. The Fund have also benn used to reward academic staff and students who excel in academic work in journals and book publications, and used to organize student competitions. A cardinal rule for the operation of the Fund is that there shall be no sale of shares from the Fund unless duly unanimously authorized by the University Council and even then, only when the stock has witnessed sustained 3-year deadline in profit after tax. Under no circumstance should the Fund be seen as a source for funding operational routine, budgetary shortfalls or other emergencies of the University (KSU 2011).

Furthermore, highlights of library development within the scope of the study as a measure for human capital development are in the following areas:

1) Recruitment of additional staff – Professional and non-professional;
2) Improved library collections in quantity and quality (Books, Journals, and E-Resources);
3) Establishment of a functional E-Library with full connectivity to the internet;
4) Restructuring of library services;
5) Appointment of a qualified Law Librarian;
6) Institutionalized annual subscription to foreign journals;
7) Improvement in statistical record-keeping on library services and collections;
8) Provision of national dailies for readers and the establishment of Newspaper and Magazine section.
9) Improved staff productivity (qualitatively and quantitatively);
10) Improved staff development – four professional staff are pursuing different post-graduate studies; three at Master's level and one at Ph.D level;'
11) Improved cleanliness of the library and its surroundings; and
12) Improved power and water supply to the library.

The following are few remedies among others to challenges of human capital development in Kogi State University, Anyigba.

a) The management should try to strive to sustain the status of all the accredited programmes in the University to enable optimal performance.

b) The management as a matter of urgency should strive to maintain a healthy physical and learning environment.

c) The university should device means of curtailing the incidence of abscondment by staff that have benefitted from Human Capital Development programme.

d) The university should continue to explore ways for assessing **TETFUND** and ensure that they are adequately utilised.

e) The University management and the State Government should sustain the reputation of the university as a pioneer quality public University in Kogi State to remain a centre of excellence through quality appointments, provision of first grade infrastructural facilities, teaching, research and innovation.

Conclusion

The study or paper concludes that the brain behind the successes despite their challenges was the doggedness obvious onerous table of the arrow-head and his management team. This trend also was not unconnected with the political good will of the seating government.

References

Godfrey,U and Hiskert,J. (1975) *Knowledge as a mediator between HRM practices and innovative activity*. Human Resource Management, 48(4) 485-503

Godwin, F.(2013) *Towards a sustainable innovation model for small enterprises, in Innovative CSR: From Risk Management to Value Creation*. Edited by C. Louche, S. O. Idowu and W. L. Filho. Greenleaf: Sheffield, UK.

Goetz,T and Hu, X (1996).*Training and Manpower Development, Employee Productivity and Organizational Performance in Nigeria: an Empirical Investigation,* International Journal of Advances in Management and Economics, ISSN: 2278-3369..2, (5),p 163-177 163

Gowon Q (1994) *A Model for Human Resource Development*. Human Resource Development International, 4(1), 65–85.

Green,S, Felsted, M,Mayhew,I, & Pack, J (2000). *Management Practices in Learning Organizations.* Organizational Dynamics, 21(1), 5–17.

Green,U (1993) *Human capital development and its impact on firm performance: Evidence from developmental economics*. J. Int. Social Research 2(8),p 265-272.

Gujarati Damodar N. (2004) *Basic Econometrics,* Fourth Edition Front Matter Preface © The McGraw-Hill Companies

Gunasekaran,G. (2015), "*HRM practices and MNC knowledge transfer*", Personnel Review, 34(1), pp. 125-44.

Gupta (1990). In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of personnel assessment and selection:* 31-47. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Gupta.N. (1990) *The State Of Education In Nigeria* A Keynote Address Delivered At A Roundtable Organised By Civil Society Action Coalition on Education For All (Csacefa) on 3rd July, 2006 http://www.dawodu.com/igbuzor14.htm

Halidu,G. (2015) *Productivity, Education and Training: An International perspectives* Great Britain: Cambridge University Press.

Harbinson, H. (1973) *On the link between Human capital and firm performance: A Theoretical and Empirical survey* www.ateixeir@fep.up.pt

Harbison, R. (1973), *Social Demand and the Supply of University Education in Nigeria*. International Journal of Education Economics and Development, *3*(2),97-112

Harris,M. (2008) *Enrolment Profile and Human Resource Planning in Nigerian Universities* Unpublished PhD Thesis of Economics Department, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

Hashem,L. (2015) *Understanding the National Financing Issues: NIGERIA*. Professor Ignatius UVAH, PhD File Format: Microsoft Power-point (Cantab). Deputy Executive Secretary, National Universities Commission, Abuja, Nigeria.www.foundation-partnership.org/ulf/ presentations/131/S4_Uvah.ppt

Haslinda, K. and Abdullah,H. (2009) *Organizational staffing: A multilevel review, synthesis, and model.* In J.

Heckman, J. (2000) *Policies to Foster Human Capital. Research in Economics* 54:3-56

Heckman, J., Stixrud, J. & Urzua, S. (2006) *The Effects of Cognitive and*

Noncognitive Abilities on labour Market Outcomes and Social Behaviour. Journal of Labour Economics, *24*(3):P. 411-428.

Hecman,J. and Cunha,F.2007 *The Technology of Skill Formation*. NBER Working Paper No 12840

Helen,L. (2012). *Emergence of the human capital resource: A multilevel model*. Academy of Management Review, 36: 127-150.

Hershberg, H. (1996) *Human Capital is dead; Long live Human Capital Resources* Journal of Management February 40 (2)P. 371-398.

Hirsh,J., and Carter,D. (2002),. *What Constrains Indian Manufacturing*? Social Science Research Network. SSRN-id1347183

Hitt,N. (2001).”*Decision Tree Applied For Detecting Intrusion*”, International Journal of Engineering Research and Technology (IJERT),2 (5),

Hofstede, G. (2001) *Culture's Consequences: Cmparing Values, Behaviours, Institutions and Organisations across Nations.* Thousand Oaks,CA:Sage.

HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIAN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS, A THEORETICAL APPROACH

PAULINA, ADA AKPA (Ph.D)[34] **KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph.D)**[35], **BENJAMIN FAITH UGBOJOIDE**[36] **& OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph.D)**[37]

Introduction

The study titled: Human Capital Development in Nigeria Tertiary Institutions a theoretical approaches the various sought to explore and to harness the various theories such as resource-based view theory, universalistic theory, contingency theory, configurationally perspective theory, acquired need theory, reinforcement theory and human capital theory which are commonly used in studying human resource management and performance in human capital development in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions.

Theoretical Literature Review

This study will be underpinned by the following theories: resource-based view theory, universalistic theory, contingency theory, configurationally perspective theory, Acquired Need theory, Reinforcement theory and human capital theory which are commonly used in studying human resource management and performance in organisations.

Resource-Based View

The Resource Based View (RBV) theory is founded on the work of Penrose (1959), others who have extended the theory include, Wernerfelt's (1984), Rumelt (1984), Barney (1996), and Dierickx and Cool (1989). The RBV theory is currently predominantly used by researchers studying human resource management (Wright, Dunford, & Snell, 2001). Barney (1991) posits that an organization gains competitive advantage by not only acquiring but also developing, putting together, and effectively deploying its physical, human, and organizational resources in techniques that put in unique value and that are difficult for competitors to imitate. There source based view states that competitive advantage comes from the internal resources that are owned by a firm (Wernerfelt, 2004).

[34] Benue State University, Benue
[35] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[36] Dept of Public Administration, Kogi State University, Anyigba
[37] Kogi State University, Anyigba

The RBV is concerned with the connection between internal resources, strategy and the performance of the organization. It focuses on the encouragement of sustained competitive advantage through the development of human capital rather than just aligning human resources to current strategic goals (Torrington, 2005). The argument that resources internal to an organization can result to competitive advantage is a shift from earlier suggestions of strategy which focuses on the external environment and such factors as customers, industry, and competitors (Miles and Snow 2004; Porter 2005). The RBV provides a theoretical enlightenment of how the human resources of an organization can add to performance and competitive advantage.

According to Wright, McMahan, and McWilliams (2004), resources that are valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable lead to competitive advantage. It is the human resources of an organization that make up the resource that leads to competitive advantage. From this outlook human resource practices or human resource systems possibly will without difficulty be duplicated by other organizations and only the knowledge skills and abilities possessed by individuals within a firm would meet the criterion outlined by Barney (1991).

Lado and Wilson (1994) argue that human resource practices put together into a general human resource system can be exceptional and not easy to duplicate and constitute a resource satisfying the conditions necessary for sustained competitive advantage. While both views appear to be acknowledged in the literature, the majority of HRM researchers using RBV as their theoretical framework have paid attention on the HR system or overarching HR philosophy as a resource functioning to develop the human capital of the firm (Boxall, 1998).

The resource-based view is used to support organization's human resource capabilities which needs to be valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable to give a firm competitive advantage. It will also be used to identify the HRM practices that are used in the study.

Critiques on the resource-based view

The resource-based view has been criticized for weaknesses. Kraaijenbrink et. al. (2010) assesses several critiques on the resource-based view. The following critiques will be discussed. (1) The recourse-based view has no managerial implications, (2) the resource-based view implies infinite regress, (3) the resource-based view's applicability is too limited, (4) sustained competitive advantage is not achievable, (5) the value of a resource is too indeterminate to provide a useful theory, (6) the resource-based view is not a theory that is about the firm and (7) the definition of a resource is not clear to work with.

Critique 1: No managerial implications. According to Priem & Butler (2001), the resource-based view miss's managerial implications or operational validity. The resource-based view explains that managers have to develop and obtain strategic resources that meet the criteria valuable, rareness, non-imitable and non-substitutional (VRIN criteria) and how an appropriate organization can be developed. However, the resource-based view does not explain how managers can do this (Connor, 2002).

Critique 2: Infinite regress. According to Priem & Butler (2001) and Collins (1994), the resource-based view entails infinite regress. Firms who have a capability which they can put in practice best, can be overtaken by a firm that can develop that capability better than firm who is best in practice (Collins (1994) calls this second-order capabilities).

Critique 3: The applicability is too limited. The article of Kraaijenbrink et. al. (2010) works out three points of criticism on the applicability of the resource-based view. First, Connor (2002) argues that the resource-based view does not apply to smaller firms. This is because sustained competitive advantage" cannot be based on their static resources, and therefore they fall beyond the bounds of the resource-based view (Kraaijenbrink et. al, 2010).

Acquired Needs Theory

Acquired needs theory is another needs-based theory: it was first developed by David McClelland in the late 1940s (McClelland, 1985). "The theory of acquired needs proposes that certain types of needs are acquired during an individual's lifetime (Daft &Pirola-Merlo, 2009). McClelland (2007) believed that people have different motives and "each one leads a person to behave in different ways. Central to this argument is that each person is motivated toward Motive A, B or C based on their particular needs. There are three primary human needs in this theory: the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, and the need for power (or dominance) (McClelland, 1985). Need for achievement (nAch) refers to the psychological need to attain set goals or perform at certain levels in order to achieve one's own goals (McClelland, 1985; and 2007). Some characteristics of nAch which motivate a person to work harder and better for their own sake are: the influence of variations in the challenge a task presents, responding to moderate challenges in everyday life, persistence in working at tasks of different levels of difficulty, personal responsibility for performance, need for performance feedback, and innovation by means of doing something better and differently from before (McClelland, 1985). Need for power (nPow) refers to working hard and performing well because of "a strong need for power... to command attention, get recognition, and control others", or to be "in charge" (McClelland, 2007). The nPow persons are motivated by

several characteristics such as aggressiveness feeling aggressive and competitive rather than easy going; negative self-image which leads people to view themselves negatively for having what are generally considered to be antisocial tendencies; entry into influential occupations; search for prestige; acting so as to be recognised in small groups; and risk taking (McClelland, 1985). Need for affiliation (nAff) involves working hard and performing well to build up relations and interactions with others (McClelland, 1985; and 2007).

The nAff persons are motivated by several means such as by maintaining interpersonal networks; cooperation, conformity and conflict avoidance; managerial behaviour which maintains good relationships between managers and subordinates; and fear of rejection which requires people to avoid conflict and competition and negative feedback from others (McClelland, 1985). The universality of human motivation is once again in evidence in McClellands theory. This theory fails to acknowledge variations in culture that could quite possibly mean variations in what motivates people. Similarly, variations in social and organisational structures might well mediate motivations so that what is applicable in one context does not work in another.

The clear separation of the three types of motivational needs that is possible analytically perhaps will be impossible to operationalise empirically. So, whether such needs can provide adequate explanations of organisational behaviour in low-pay developing country bureaucracies is highly questionable. It should be appreciated that needs-based theories, like all the types of motivation theory reviewed here, initially derived from the USA and have underlying values which are specific to American experience and that of similar western countries but which cannot be assumed to have universal application. One of the most deeply embedded values of the various motivation theories is that of individualism but developing countries including Cambodia are most often collectivist in character.

As Boyacigiller and Adler (1991,) note, that where collectivist values dominate, employee's commitment to organizations is primarily due to their ties with managers, owners and co-workers (collectivism), and much less due to the job itself or the particular compensation scheme (individualist incentives). Similarly, Staw (1984) notes that in motivation theories in general that "the individual is assumed to be a rational maximiser of personal value". But how does such an assumption apply across cultures? This question is explored later in this dissertation in relation to Kogi State University.

Reinforcement Theory

Skinner's Reinforcement Theory or just Reinforcement Theory is one of the theories focusing on human motivation. Reinforcement Theory was published by American social philosopher, psychologist and behaviourist Burrhus Frederic Skinner in 1957.

The theory is based on the principles of causality and knowledge that a worker's behaviour is regulated by the type of reward. The theory does not assess personality, but focuses on behaviour and recognizes three basic rules of consequences: Reward for positive behaviour reinforces positive behaviour. Punishment for negative behaviour weakens negative behaviour. If there is no reward or punishment, behaviour is fading. What is reinforcement theory good for in practice? The results of this theory are part of the incentive systems. If we want to reinforce the behaviour in the organization, we provide a reward for it, and vice versa if we want to weaken any behaviour, we use a punishment. With this theory, we also know that the time interval for granting rewards should be as short as possible, preferably imminent.

Reinforcement theory proposes that a person engages in a specific behaviour because that behaviour has been reinforced by a specific outcome" (Wagner III & Hollenbeck, 2010). The theory "looks at the relationship between behaviour and its consequences by changing or modifying followers‟ on-the-job behaviour through the appropriate use of immediate rewards or punishments" (Daft & Pirola-Merlo, 2009). The theory deals with learned behaviours that are strengthened or reinforced by rewards and it is based largely on Edward L. Thorndikes law of effect (1913) (Luthans &Kreitner, 1975; Stajkovic& Luthans, 1997,).

The law of effect says: When a modifiable connection between a situation and a response is made and is accompanied or followed by a satisfying state of affairs, that connections strength is increased: when made and accompanied or followed by an annoying state of affairs, its strength is decreased (Thorndike as cited in Luthans &Kreitner, 1975,). There are four types of behaviour modification in reinforcement theory: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment and extinction (Luthans &Kreitner, 1975; Wagner III & Hollenbeck, 2010).

At work, positive reinforcement is concerned with the administration of pleasant and rewarding responses towards good behaviour, such as giving praise and bonuses. Negative reinforcement is about action to reduce and remove the negative consequences of one's behaviour; for example, avoid being late to avoid the negative consequences. Punishment typically occurs following undesirable behaviour; it occurs for example when an employee does wrong and incurs a penalty for wrongdoing, and is the application of something the person dislikes.

Extinction refers to when "a weakened response occurs because the desired outcome is no longer paired with some positive reinforcer (Wagner III & Hollenbeck, 2010,).

For example, in attempting to process a credit application more quickly, an employee may sacrifice quality if no reinforcement exists for making good and fast decisions. The theory is given practical application in organisations where attempts are made to modify employees' behaviours to improve their performance. However, the question arises as to whether the reinforcement actions work in a similar way, or have the same impact, in all contexts. Also, the theory assumes that a prime objective of work organisations is always motivating people to perform well. Accounts of developing country bureaucracies reveal that this is not necessarily the case (Turner & Hulme, 1997; Wallis, 1989). The recent work on neopatrimonialism and patronage in developing countries clearly demonstrates that considerations such as loyalty to patrons dominate employees' behaviour rather than any commitment to performance (Blunt, 2012).

Universalistic Theory

The universalistic theory was postulated by Dewar and Werbel (1979) who rooted for a best practices approach to HRM. Additional researchers who have contributed to the universalistic theory include; Delaney, Lewin, and Ichniowski, 1989; Huselid, 1993, 1995; Osterman, 1994; Pfeffer, 1994 and Terpstra and Rozell, 1993. These researchers, posit that some HRM practices are constantly better than others and therefore all organizations should assume these best practices.

According to Pfeffer (1994), universalistic or best-practice approaches posits that certain independent-dependent variable relationships hold across whole populations of organization that is, some HR practices are always better than others, and all organizations should adopt them Under a universalistic approach, strategic HR practices are those that are found to consistently lead to higher organizational performance, independent of an organisation's strategy. Such practices include formal training systems, profit sharing, voice mechanisms, and job definition.

According to Marchington and Wilkinson (2008), the idea of best practice in human capital development was at first acknowledged in the early US models of HRM, most of which argued that the taking on of certain best human resource practices would result in improved organizational performance, manifested through; improved worker attitudes and behaviours, decreased levels of turnover and absenteeism, increased skills levels and therefore increased productivity, better quality and efficiency and increased return on investment. Universalistic arguments simply mean that the connection between given independent variable and a

dependent variable is universal across the populace of organizations. To be able to make universalistic predictions, key strategic HR practices are identified and then opinion that relate to the individual practice offered.

Leonard (1990) established that an organization having long-term incentive policies for their senior managers had registered higher performance over a five-year period than did other organizations. Ahowd (1990) argues that managerial compensation should be based on an organization's financial performance. Gerhart (1990) elaborates that pay blend was related to monetary performance. Organizations with pay strategies that included a greater amount of performance-contingent pay achieved better monetary performance.

This theory seeks to identify the choices of practices that do well in successful environments. However what works contributes to good results in one organization may not result in equally good results in another organization since it may not fit its plan, technology or working practices. The theory also helps to examine the direct relationship between HRM practices and the performance of the organization.

Contingency Theory

The contingency theory was influenced by researches done in the 1950s at Ohio State University. In the mid-1960s the theory was further advanced by Fred Fielder, others who have contributed to the contingency theory include Galbraith (1973). These researchers posit that there is no one best way to organize human resources.

The contingency or external fit perspective emphasizes the fit between business strategy and HRM practices, implying that business strategies are followed by HRM practices in determining business performance. The contingency perspective goes beyond the simple, linear, causal relationships explored in universal theories and allows for interaction effects and varying relationships depending on the presence of a contingent variable most often firm strategy. Effectiveness of HR practices is contingent on how well they mesh with other aspects of the organization. The contingency perspective draws a causal line from the HR policies and practices to the organizational performance metrics, and it allows for the moderating effects of strategy (Youndt, 2006).

An argument mostly put forward by the contingency scholars is that HR strategy would be more effective if it were to be properly incorporated with a precise environmental background. The best fit theory supports the idea of ensuring that HR strategies are suitable to the conditions of the firm, such as the culture, operational processes and external environment. HR strategies have to assess the specific requirements of both the organization and its people. It looks at the close association

between strategic management and HRM by taking in to account the extent to which there is vertical integration between a firm's business strategy and its HRM policies and practices (Decktop, 2006).

Wright (2004) states that vertical integration between business strategies and individual behaviour individual, team and organizational performance influence the models of HRM. This vertical integration or fit where influence is realized through events, policies and processes is broadly recognized to be an important part of any strategic approach to the management of people (Dyer, 2005). The best fit hence ensures a relationship between internal operations of the firm and policies and the external market in business strategy, and thereby ensures that competences are produced which have a prospective to be a main source of competitive advantage (Wright, Gardner & Allen, 2005).

The contingency model is often criticized for tending to generalize a firm's reality. While trying to relate one dominant variable of the organization to another internal variable, the supposition is that there exists a linear, non-problematic relationship. The contingency theory is applicable in this study to help show how other factors can be integrated in the relationship between HRM and organizational performance.

Assumptions of Contingency Theory

The leader's ability to lead is contingent upon various situational factors, including the leader's preferred style, the capabilities and behaviours of followers and also various other situational factors. Contingency theories are a class of behavioural theory that contend that there is no one best way of leading and that a leadership style that is effective in some situations may not be successful in others. An effect of this is that leaders who are very effective at one place and time may become unsuccessful either when transplanted to another situation or when the factors around them change. This helps to explain how some leaders who seem for a while to have the 'Midas touch' suddenly appear to go off the boil and make very unsuccessful decisions

Configurational Perspective Theory

The configurational theory was postulated by Mintzberg (1973). The theory posits a simultaneous internal and external fit between a firm's external environment, business strategy, and HRM strategy, implying that business strategies and HRM practices interact according to organizational context in determining business performance (Arthur, 1994). According to Boxall and Purcell (2003) configurative theories address HRM issues from a systemic perspective. Sheppeck and Militello (2000) argue that a system is a set of interrelated elements, such that each individual part or element depends to a greater or lesser extent on its situation within an

integrated whole organization operates as complex systems comprised of interdependent external and internal subcomponents that are best understood when viewed holistically. This configurational interpretation retains a system perspective by focusing on the pattern of relationships between different elements (Delery& Doty, 2006). A change in one part will affect the other parts, intentionally or not. Thus, configurative theories analyze organizational change processes that emerge in response to external or internal pressures (Broedling, 1999).

According to Wilkinson (2002) the configurational theory attempts to obtain a set of HR practices that can be relied on in making best use of horizontal combination and then connect these to the different strategic configurations in order to exploit vertical integration and hence a better performance by firms. HRM according to configuration theorists requires a firm to come up with a HR system that achieves both horizontal and vertical integration.

The configuration approach is used in the study to show why it is important for organizations to achieve both vertical and horizontal fit through their HR practices, so as to add to an organisation's competitive advantage and consequently be deemed strategic. It shows how a fit between public sector culture and HR capabilities can enhance organizational performance.

Human Capital Theory

Schultz (1961) credited in Perewari (2014), as the first to propound the theory, view human capital as a set of skills, attributes and characteristics that increase workers" productivity. Subsequent human capital theorists such as Becker (1962, 1964), Barney (1991), Bratton & Gold (1999) and Baruch (2004), suggest that education or training raise the productivity of workers by imparting useful knowledge and skills which translates to overall performance and fosters organizational innovativeness.

The field of human capital development and theory is vast and complex. With increasing globalization and saturation of job markets due to world economic recession and financial crisis, the concept which is the common economic and business literature, has attracted wider attention more than ever before. This is because no organization can succeed without an engaged, committed, loyal, satisfied and motivated workforce.

Human capital research focuses on identifying and assessing skills that benefit organizations (Jones & Schneider, 2006). Developed and developing countries are putting emphasis on accelerating their economic growth by devoting necessary time and effort in human capital development. Specifically, countries and firms now invest necessary resources in developing their human capital which tend to have

great impacts on performance, creativity and innovation. Based on this, most company executives now view people as the most critical competitive differentiator which ties other factors together and translates ideas and goals into results.

Basic Premise of the Theory

Human Capital Theory refers to the aggregate stock of competencies, knowledge, social, and personal attributes embodied in the ability to create intrinsic and measurable economic value. Human Capital Theory views humans and individuals as economic units acting as their own economy. The role of human capital is widely discussed in economic development, productivity analysis, innovation, public policy, and education.

The basic concept of Human Capital Theory is that investments in individuals can be mathematically measured based on the economic value they are able to contribute to society. Human capital is often subdivided into categories such as cultural capital, social capital, economic capital, and symbolic capital. Human capital is developed in many ways. Economic capital is typically measured by the ability to perform labour which results in economic value. Education, job training, and marketable talents are all ways in which humans increase their ability to acquire knowledge and generate higher wages. Social capital and cultural capital refer to the relationships and influence individuals contribute to society. Although social, cultural, and symbolic capital are very difficult to measure, understanding their existence and value is still vital. Each type of human capital is important and the combination of all types generates total human capital.

The assumptions of human capital theory revolve around the immeasurable nature of its many forms. Economic capital can be measured by its ability to produce wages; however, an intrinsic value of human capital exists although it is not always measurable. Secondly, human capital may be stored but not fully utilized at all times therefore making it difficult to observe and study consistently.

Evaluation of the Theory

Human capital theory is relatively consistent across different disciplines; the different types of human capital are more relevant depending on the primary subject matter. Measuring economic human capital and its return on investment is a vital aspect of the proposed theory. The measurement of human capital is done in many ways and new metrics are being developed to measure traditionally difficult fields such as social capital (Klout score).

Human capital theory has practical implication for determining the value of training and education. It allows individuals to calculate the expected future returns of an investment in education. In addition, human capital theory's utility allows individuals to quantify the value of their intangible assets such as education and

social status.

Application of the theory

The theory of human capital has both planning utility and measurement utility. Consumer economics and financial planning often measures the value of current choices versus their long run returns and implications. Human Capital Theory allows individuals to make decisions about the inherent cost of future opportunities weighted with the opportunity cost of present situations.

Human capital theory also introduces the investment risks of human capital theory including its illiquidity and assumptions about payback periods and opportunity cost. Again, human capital theory can be applied to the lives of graduate students when looking at time allocation and the investments in health and social capital. Investments in both physical health and mental health are both necessary to maximizing overall human capital. Finally, measuring the intrinsic value of a PhD allows graduate students to continue their course of action even if the economic returns and opportunity cost produce a negative monetary return.

Strengths of Human Capital Theory

A major strength of HCT is that it helps policymakers and researchers evaluate the relationships between education and training as inputs and economic and social benefits as outputs. Extensive empirical research within the HCT framework suggests that increased amounts of schooling are associated with higher individual wages, GDP growth, higher rates of civic participation, lower crime rates, and better health outcomes. This research offers policymakers a lens for evaluating the relative efficiency of public investments in programs that encourage more schooling. The framework can also contribute to more effective policy development by helping policymakers understand the amounts and characteristics (e.g. quality) of education and training that matter most for achieving desired outcomes such as economic growth and increased levels of civic participation.

Another strength of HCT is that it provides a useful lens for understanding how policy can be developed to incentivize individuals' investment in their own education. Pursuing education involves both costs (e.g., forgoing potential earnings in the present) and benefits (e.g., higher wages in the future) at the individual level. By using HCT to understand what these costs and benefits are, policymakers can more effectively develop policies such as student loan and dual enrollment programs to change individuals' cost/benefit calculations (e.g., by reducing short-term costs associated with educational investments) and increase their likelihood of pursuing education.

HCT can be used to answer questions about the optimal levels of individual/social investments in education, the kinds (e.g., quality) of investments that are most

productive, and when the investments are best made. It is also useful for answering questions about the costs and benefits for individual investments in education and the types of policy interventions that reduce individual costs associated with educational investments.

A limitation of HCT is that it assumes education increases productivity in the workplace, resulting in higher individual wages, but it provides little insight into the processes through which education and training are translated into higher wages. In statistical models, education and training account for about 30 percent of the variance in individual wages, which suggests HCT leaves a significant percentage of wage variability unexplained.

A variety of middle range theories (e.g., screening and credentialism) attempt to explain the other 70 percent of individual wage variability, and some of these theories examine the relationship between educational credentials (e.g., a bachelor's degree) and earnings. Many of these middle range theories focus on the social and cultural contexts in which employment decisions are made and suggest numerous factors besides productivity (e.g., cultural and social capital) are involved in the relationship between education and higher wages. It is thus critical for policymakers to consider alternative frameworks in conjunction with HCT to more fully understand the relationship between education and private economic returns such a higher wage.

A related limitation is that upper-level applications of HCT (e.g., at the national or state levels) treat education as a relatively homogenous input. These applications assume that higher levels of educational attainment and quality will yield greater productivity and wages across the board. Such treatment of education is problematic because the process of human capital formation varies for individuals and groups.

People learn differently, and a "quality" education in one context may prove ineffective in another. The investments required to achieve a desired outcome in urban schools are necessarily different from those in suburban districts because of the unique characteristics of their student populations. It is thus incumbent upon policymakers to consider the context dependency of human capital investments to ensure efficient allocation of resources and effective policy interventions at the national and state levels.

Relevance of the Theory

This study is anchored on Human Capital Theory because the theory refers to the aggregate stock of competencies, knowledge, social, and personal attributes embodied in the ability to create intrinsic and measurable economic value. Human Capital Theory views humans and individuals as economic units acting as their own economy. The role of human capital is widely discussed in economic development,

productivity analysis, innovation, public policy, and education.

CONCLUSION

Arising from the various theories in this study, it is understood that theory is the basis upon which human resource management and performance with resultant effect on the need for human capital development in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions is fundamental and inevitable.

REFERENCES

Howell,M. (2015).“*The core competencies of the corporation*”, Harvard Business Review, 68 (3) pp. 79-91.

Idris O (2013) “*Learning in manufacturing organizations: what factors predict effectiveness*?” Human Resource Development International, Vol. 5 No. 1, pp. 55-72.

Igwe I. (1989) “*The influence of intellectual capital on the types of innovative capabilities*”, Academy of Management Journal, 48 (3), pp. 450-64.

Ilgen J & Pulakos K (2010). *Re-branding vocational education skills acquisition: The role of the administrator.* SBMT Nekede conference Journal. *1*(2):132-137.

Isaiah,L. (2012) . *Managing entrepreneurship education at the secondary school level in Nigeria.* African Journal of educational research and development, *3*(2):312-319

Issa and Ukoha, (2017) *Technical and vocational education in Nigeria: Past, present and the future* In Awotunde, P.O. (ed). *The dynamics of vocational technical education in a democratic Nigeria.* SVTE Katsina-Ala educational series.

Jagdev, M and Browne, N [2011] *Technical and vocational education for self-reliance in contemporary Nigeria society*. Benue State University journal of education. *1*(1):25-27

JamilaShu, T (2010) *Higher Education Statistics- Experience in Data Collection*; Paper Presented at UNESCO Institute of Statistics Workshop on Education Statistics in Anglophone Countries. Windhoek 17th – 21st October 2010.

Jarim, U and Danladi, Y. (2013) *Projecting Nigeria into the end of the first quarter (25) years of the 21st century in vocational technical education*. African journal of education and research development. 1(1), 2-8.

Jhingan,I (2003). *Developing Nigeria's workforce,* Calabari page environs publishers.

John, A & Helen, B, (2013) *Skills acquisition: A tool for youth empowerment for economic growth and development*. Journal of business and management studies. 1(2) 116-125.

John, C. (2016) *Principles and method in vocational technical education*. Nsukka: University Trust publishers.

Jones, D. & Schneider, E(2006). *Human capital development and vision 20:2020. A perspective on tertiary education*. SBMT Nekede conference journal. 1(2) 71-73

Jose,F (1977*) Teaching methods as a panacea for teaching/learning difficulties in shorthand among junior secondary school students.* Rivers business educational Journal. 1(1) 9-17.

Kalu, G. (2014). *Issues in Nigeria education,* llorin.

Kane, H and Lawler,I (2009) *Educational planning: A turning point in Education and development in Nigeria*. (Inaugural Lecture Series 58). Benin City: University of Benin.

Kanter,.J (2006) *Quality & stress in Nigeria education. Maiduguri and Zaria*: University of Maiduguri and Northern Nigerian Publishing Company

Kern ,K(2009) Keynote Address in Sir Ogbua-gu (ed.): *Strategy for National Development in Nigeria,* Calabar: University of Calabar Press, Pg. 11-20.

King,L and Hill,M. (1993) *Democracy and Development in Africa*: Ibadan: Spectrum Books Ltd.

Kingsly,N. (2012) *Recurrent Issues in Nigeria Education*. Tamaza Publishing Company, Zaria

Koednok,O (2011) *The Crisis of Development in Africa*: The Democratic Imperatives, J. Dev. Soc.1, (4), Pg. 84-87.

Kogi State University, Anyigba 2010/2011 *Annual Report*

Kogi State University, Anyigba 2012/2013 *Annual Report*

Kogi State University, Anyigba 2014/2015 *Annual Report*

Kogi State University, Anyigba 2015/2016 *Annual Report*

Kogi State University, Anyigba 2017/2018 *Annual Report*

.Kogi State University, Anyigba 2011-2015 *Strategic Plan*

Kogi State University, Anyigba 2016-2020 *Strategic Plan*

Kogi State University Law, 1999.

Komolafe, Q. (1988) *The Practice of Management*. Harper & Row; New-York.

HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIAN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS: AN EMPIRICAL APPROACH

OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph.D)38 KUMIJE, DAVID (PH.D)39, PAULINA, ADA AKPA (Ph.D)40 , DR.CHRISTINA NGOZI CLEMENTINA[41] & ROTIMI, GRACE GIFT {Ph.D}42

Abstract

The study titled "Human Capital Development in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions is crucially intended to examine the extent to which investment in Human Resources is capable of transforming the Nigerian economy with special attention on the Nigerian universities. The study affirms amongst others unequivocally that investment in human resources did not only contribute but constitutes the transformation of Nigerian economy; in nutshell, that the quality of the staff in institutions of tertiary education is thus central to their effectiveness and performance in all people centred-organisation.

Introduction

Elias (2006), His study centres on investment in human resources for the transformation of Nigerian economy with focus on the Nigerian Universities. The source of information for the study was derived from educational funding, gross domestic product, the labour force employed, gross capital formation, high level manpower from the university within the period 1970-2003. The method of data collection was based on secondary data and dialectical process. The data was analyzed using co-integration analysis and Granger causality test, simple percentages and dialectical analysis. Evidence from the data analysis revealed amongst other things that investment in human resources contributes to the transformation of Nigerian economy.

The report by World Bank (2004) points out that higher education institution, such as universities, colleges and polytechnics, are labour intensive organizations; they depend on people for the delivery of their services. The reports confirm the institutions the quality of the staff in institutions of tertiary education is thus central to their effectiveness and performance, in the same way that it is to all

[38] Department of Business Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University Anyigba
[39] Prince Abubakar Audu University Anyigba, Kogi State Nigeria
[40] Benue State University, Makurdi
[41] University of Benin
[42] Department of Business Administration,Prince Abubakar Audu University Anyigba, Kogi State Nigeria,gracegift29@gmail.com

people-centered organizations (Sunday 2011). In business and some technical professions, there is a wide recognition that the skills of their staff need to be continually strengthened and enhanced. In the face of challenges from national and international competitors, the better organisations are investing more resources in the continual training and retraining of employees at all levels.

A study conducted by Seleim, Ashour and Bontis (2007) analyzed on the relationship between human capital indicators such as training attended and performance in software companies. The result showed high performance with high productivity which could be translated to organizational performances. In another study researched by William (2006) on staff development programmes and secondary school teachers work performance in Uyo Senatorial District Akwa Ibom state of Nigeria, it revealed a significant relationship between staff training and teachers' job performance.

The study however, revealed absence of coherent and comprehensive policy on developing appropriate human capital that can facilitate the transformation of the Nigerian economy. The findings also revealed that all the productive life of the Nigerian economy rely on human resources development and utilization for their transformation; and this has unfinished panacea. Therefore, investment in human resources accounts for a significant proportion of the unexplained aspect of economic transformation in Nigeria as revealed in our findings from the cointegration analysis. The study recommended that any policy on human resources that have premium for development in Nigeria, must strike a balance between available critical manpower and categories of new employment and opportunities available and to be created. This calls for investment, training and education to be redirected to the development and utilization of human capital in the productive life of the economy. The thesis concludes that in order to achieve this, the state machinery most be directed and targeted at actualizing all goals of critical human resource development and utilization in Nigeria.

Naftal and Busienei (2015), the study sought to establish the relationship between strategic human resources management practices and performance of public universities in Kenya. The study was guided by the following specific objectives which are to establish the effect of resourcing practices on performance of public universities; to determine the effect of reward management on performance of public universities; to assess the effect of training and development on performance of public universities and to determine the combined effect of resourcing practices, reward management and training and development on performance of public universities in Kenya.

The study was a census with a target population of the public universities in Kenya and their constituent colleges. Senior HR officers and administrators were the units of analysis where a response rate of 58% was obtained. Data was collected using semi-structured questionnaire and was subsequently analyzed using SPSS. Research findings suggested that strategic human resource management practices have a significant effect on the performance of public universities in Kenya. Further, findings revealed that reward management, training and development and resourcing practices respectively influenced the performance of public universities. The study recommended among others that: Management of public universities to develop employment policy that encourages job security; invest in HR information systems to automate resourcing practices; government to ensure that selection in public universities is based on equal employment opportunity principle, management to conduct a staff competency analysis in order to address training and development needs.

David, Ajani and Adetunji (2018) the study opined that winning business strategy requires a well-equipped, informed and engaged operations team. As such, the paper on Human Capital Development discusses the outcome of a study on the ability to expand or grow the skills of the human resources of an organisation as a competitive strategy in the ever-increasing competitive business environment of today. The study aimed at determining how to maximize learning within an existing organisation without necessarily bursting the budget and yet getting a rewarding result. There is hope that this will make a significant difference between a good organisation and a great one since people are an asset to every aspect of a business.

Moort, (2017) said education is considered as an essential part of the human development process of the country. In this context, the objective of this study is to explore the returns of higher education on human development indicators and as well as examine the impact of human development on higher education in Pakistan from the period of the 1984 to 2014. For estimation, correlation analysis and regression analysis has been used to investigate the association between Variables. The main purpose of the study is to identify the link between higher education and the three most important human development indicators, such as GDP, employment and life expectancy. To this end, the impact of the enrollment in higher education on human development has been analyzed. This research concluded that there exists a positive connection between human development and higher education. The higher level of GDP, life expectancy and employment accelerate the literacy rate and enrollment in higher education. In this study, we try to analyze the trends in education, strategies and challenges of higher

education and its role in overall development in the country. In addition, the study is also of the opinion that a well-trained workforce substantially resembles economic growth. This research also has a number of consequences suggestion for the policy makers to developing higher education in order to counter the use of educated manpower in different sectors of the economy.

Issa and Ukoha, (2017) examines the relationship between human capital development and corporate performance using Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient and using organizational culture as the moderating variable in food and beverages firms in Port Harcourt. The study utilized cross-sectional research design and used questionnaire to collect the primary data. Preliminary analysis was performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and equality of variance. The results of the analysis revealed that there was strong correlation between the dimensions of human capital development and the measures of corporate performance. Consequently, the study recommends the following: certain measures of skills development be allowed the employee with regards his or her role expectations as this has been revealed to facilitate increased responsibility and accountability, hence a decrease in blame shifts in the case of poor outcomes, The trust development is structured in a manner that enables adequate knowledge transfer with enhanced sharing of information between organizational groups and between employers and employees; this is as effective communication and transfer of information within the organization is shown to further equip the employees with the required tools and techniques for effectively carrying out his or her expectations at the workplace. That those aspects of the organizational culture; which emphasizes on attributes such as communication, participation, and team work; be taken seriously given its effect on organizational outcomes such as corporate performance.

Falola and Abasilim (2017) argued that Human resource development strategy is considered to be an indispensable strategic tool for enhancing employee job performance and organisation's competitiveness. The main objective of the study is to examine the strategic role of human resource development on employee performance and organisational competitiveness in private universities. A descriptive research method (Structural Equation Model (AMOS 21)) was applied, to analyse the three hundred and fifty-seven (357) valid questionnaires which were completed by the academic staff of the selected universities using stratified and simple random sampling techniques. The results show closed relationships between the dependent variable and independent variables. However, the study indicated that executive advance, mentoring, research

collaboration and academic linkage, organisational learning and induction/orientation have positive effects on teaching, research, innovation and community service and subsequently impact on faculty performance and organisational competitiveness.

Nor (2016) the main objectives of this paper were to analyze the role of human capital on organizational performance as well as exploring the significance of HR practice on organizational performance as a case of Benadir University in Mogadishu, Somalia. A descriptive research design was used; the study population was the Deans, teaching staffs and Non -teaching Staffs at Benadir University in Mogadishu and a sample size of 25 were taken as the study population is unknown. A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect the data from the respondents and then evaluated by utilizing descriptive statistics with the help of SPSS. The findings discovered that the role of human capital on organizational performance is an important for progressing the organization's profitability, what is more, organizations boast for the human capital they have. In the long run, HR practice plays a significant role in building the capacity of the employees; therefore, this study provides contribution of the role of human capital development on organizational performance.

Halidu (2015) stated Staff training and development is a key to achieving organizational success and corporate development. The study is aimed at finding out the Impact of Training and Development on workers' productivity via the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund) Academic Staff Training & Development 2010 Sponsorship of some selected Nigerian universities. The study hypothesised that there is no significant relationship between training and worker's productivity. Results revealed that training and development programmes improve employees' skills and performance at work place, enhance their technical knowhow/ wherewithal to withstand the challenges of contemporary times, thus, an effective tool for sustaining and enhancing worker's productivity in the academia. The study recommends that Tertiary Education Trust Fund should improve on its training policy in its entire ramification because in recent times academics are being faced with new innovations and techno-scientific developments so as to meet up with the changing trends and circumstances.

Zahid (2015) the study is conducted to assess the impact of Human Capital Variables i.e. acquisition of knowledge, skills & expertise of the employees on the satisfaction of the employees and then on the effectiveness of the organizations. Simple random probability method was used for sampling selection & primary data was collected by administering questionnaires. Independent Samples T- Test

showed that both genders are provided equal chances of human capital development. Effectiveness of the organization was measured by assessing the satisfaction & commitment level of the employees & customers with the organization. Satisfaction & commitment was measured by already established tools. Correlation technique showed that human capital development has strong significant positive relation with satisfaction level of the employees and customers, which will eventually lead to the organizational performance. The research will have implications not only for employees but also for HRM& Training & Development Managers.

Ojokuku and Sajuyigbe (2015) argued that firm performance and competitive advantage are derived more from what a firm knows and the human capital that permits the firm to use what it knows. Thus, human capital has been identified as one of the most critical agents of SMEs' performance, while human capital development has been recognised as one of the most vital tools for improving SMEs' performance. This study offers a field insight into the relationship between human capital development and SMEs' performance in Nigeria, through a survey of 80 randomly selected SMEs operating in Ibadan, south western Nigeria. A structured questionnaire was used to collect data from the study participants. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression Analysis were used to analyse the data. The result showed that human capital development variables have significant effect on SMEs performance. The coefficient of correlation (R) = 0.921; the coefficient of determination (R^2) = 0.849; and the standard error estimate of 0.31254, indicated that 84.9% of the sampled SME's performance can be associated with the promotion of on-the-job training; level of formal education; level of participation in seminars, conferences and workshops, and level of participation in trade fairs and exhibitions, as strategies of human capital development for the SMEs' employees. The paper therefore recommends that SME operators should actively promote participation in seminars, trade fairs, workshops and exhibitions in order to acquire current knowledge that will positively impact on the performance of the SMEs and enhance their capacity for growth and survival.

Happiness and Michael (2014) examines the impact of training and development on organizational effectiveness in public sector in Nigeria. The study sought to determine the nature of the relationship between training/development and organizational effectiveness; to highlight the benefits of training and development in Nigeria public sector and to ascertain the impact of training/development on organizational performances. Sixty-six (66) copies of the questionnaire were administered. 55 were duly completed and returned while 11 were not returned.

The data generated from the field were presented and analyzed with descriptive statistic while the corresponding hypotheses were tested with the chi-square, Pearson's Correlation and linear regression. The finding indicated that: There is positive relationship between training/development and organizational effectiveness. The increase in job satisfaction and reduce employee turnover are the benefit of training and development in public sector. Inter-personal and teamwork are the effect of training/development on organizational performance. The study concluded that effective training is an investment in the human resources of an organization, with both immediate and long – range returns. However mere investment is not enough; organizations need to manage training programs more effectively so that they can get the highest returns from their investment. The study recommends that organizations should make training and development of their employees a regular activity. Training has to involve more than just basic skill development. That is, to use training to gain a competitive advantage, organizations should view training broadly as a way to create intellectual capital.

Mba and Tonye (2014) discussed human resource development (HRD) and organizational performance in the Nigeria liquefied natural gas company limited, Bonny. It views HRD as the integrated use of training and development, organizational development and career development to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness. It assumes that HRD practices directly/indirectly enhance business performance through improvement in employees' skills, attitudes and behaviour. The research question addressed the extent of the relationship between HRD practices (training and development) and increased employee's motivation/commitment and organizational productivity in the Nigeria liquefied natural gas company limited, Bonny.

The place of study is the bonny industrial area of the Nigeria liquefied natural gas company while the duration of study is between May 2013 and April 2014. A descriptive research design was used in executing the study, using 370 randomly selected NLNG employees from its industrial area in bonny island, for questionnaire administration. The sample size of 370 was determined from a population of 4,895 employees using Yamane 1964 sample size determination formula at 5% level of significance for sampling error. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Results from the data analysis indicated that significant relationship exists between HRD practices (training and development) and increased employees motivation/commitment and organizational productivity in the Nigeria liquefied natural gas company limited, bonny and recommends among others: review of current training/development

procedure, regular appraisal of employees job skill requirements, regular staff training/development, regular improvement of employees' condition of service and sustenance of current team building efforts/ incentive scheme.

Sulieman (2017) the study aimed to identify the effect of Human Resource strategies on perceived organizational support at public Jordanian Universities such that factors that may assist in improving or worsening work performance can be identified, moreover. The population of the study was all the universities administrative staff in northern Jordanian public universities with 4908 staff members. The random sample of the study was 350 staff members (7%) of the study population. The study included a number of results, among which the existence of a statically significant effect of the human resources strategies (human resource planning, appointment and selection, training and development, incentives' and rewards and performance evaluation on perceived organizational support.

Satop (2013) Investment in education helps in human capital development in an effort to increase human knowledge and enhance skills for increasing productivity and income of individual and the nation. Investment in Education is not only seen as a key to poverty reduction but also helps to supply the essential human capital. It is therefore, both individual and social investment. The shortage of academic human resource (human capital) in Nigerian education system and high poverty rate called for this study. The paper examines determinants, sources, problems and opportunities of investment in education in Nigeria. It as well examines the relationship between investment in education and human capital in Nigeria, using annual time series data from NUC and NBS. The study adopts a survey of Nigerian education system in the south west to examine the effect of family socio economic status on investment in education using purposive random sampling. The relationship between human capital and investment in education is determined using granger causality test. The study identifies the problems of investment in education as low level of investment in education by the federal government at a level (below 10%) far below 26% of annual budget recommended by UNESCO, limited educational opportunities for Nigerian youths below 20% up to 2009 and shortage of human and physical resources. The study reveals that human capital influences investments in education. The findings have a strong implication on educational policy in Nigeria and the study suggests increased investment in education by policy makers as a poverty alleviation policy and improvement in the nation's human capital development.

Alice (2014) examines the effect of human capital development on employee and organizational performance. Specifically, the study sought to identify the impact

of Human Capital Development (HCD) on employee engagement and work performance using the College of Arts and Social Sciences as a case study. The study was descriptive and involved a sample size of 120 staff selected across the various departments of the College of Arts and Social Sciences. Data was basically primary, and was gathered with the aid of questionnaires. Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

The study found that the various departments under the college have effective systems for communicating training and development programmes. Key measures for human capital development in the college included training, mentoring, and shadowing. Specific findings under these measures included the observation that staff are generally aided by supervisors in their goal setting and consequently have been able to develop skills for solving problems through facilitating trainings delivered through coaching. Again there is effective use of mentoring and as a result most staff have been able to develop their potentials by following expert advice from their supervisors. Consequently, staff have generally been able to develop skills and experience through continuous training. Most staff however felt that training programmes are not regular, and as a result have not seen noticeable improvement in employee engagement as a result of regular reinforced training. Findings suggested that most staff believe their skill at work has improved as a result of employing new learning methods. A linear regression run on the effect of HCD on work performance shows that there is a considerable effect. In delivery of HCD it was recommended that there is the need for the various departments under the College of Arts and Social Sciences to work towards improving the timing of human capital development programmes. Again, it was recommended that there is the need for improvement in the methods of human capital development delivery. This will require adequate investment in technology for delivery of training, including e-learning platforms to facilitate the training process.

Gunu, Oni and Tsado (2013) the objective of this study was to examine whether employees' training and development enhances work efficiency in the banking industry. Primary data were used for the study, which were generated through the use of questionnaires. The study took a sample of 395 respondents from a population of 35,386 from the five banks used as case study. Simple random technique was used to select the respondents. Data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics, and Pearson's moment correlation. Multiple regression was employed to test the hypothesis.

Major findings indicated that there is a positive correlation among all the variables. Result of model summary shows that the independent variables account

for 39.1% of the variation in organizational performance. The result in the coefficient table however, indicated that only three variables were significant: organizational commitment to Training and Development, frequency of Training and Development and reward for best performance. The study therefore concluded that for training and development to have significant impact on organizational performance, employees need to be motivated during training programs. It was recommended that banks should introduce reward system for outstanding performance so as to motivate employees to always put in their best during each training session.

Victoir and Jonathan (2013) argued that organizations have been embarking on training and capacity building for their employees so as to enhance productivity and overall performance of the organizations. This is due to the recognition of the important role of training and manpower development in attainment of organizational goals. Consequently, this study investigated the effects of training and manpower development on employees' productivity and organizational performance in Nigeria, using First Bank of Nigeria Plc as a case study. The study applied structured questionnaires to a sample size of **75** drawn by simple random sampling. The data generated was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The findings of the study show that majority (70%) of the respondents agreed that training and manpower development has enhanced their efficiency and job productivity. Secondly, majority (80%) of the respondents overwhelming agreed that training and manpower development enhanced organizational performance. The study recommends that organizations should conduct training needs assessment to ensure that the right training is given; ensure that their training programmes should be on a continuous basis; and motivate staff who performed exceptionally well during training sessions so that other staff will in turn aspire to excel.

Osim, Uchendu and William (2013) investigated the role of Universities in human capital development in Cross River State and its implication for national transformation. Ex-post facto design was adopted in the study. Two research questions and hypotheses respectively were raised to guide the study. A sample of 227 lecturers were drawn from a population of 1,517 lecturers from the two universities. The Role of Universities in Human Capital Development for National Transformation Questionnaire was used to generate data. The data were analyzed using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. From the results, it was concluded that opportunities for attending retraining programmes and conferences/workshops had significant relationship with lecturers' transformation in terms of their teaching effectiveness and subsequent national

transformation. Based on the findings it was recommended that; Government should provide funds to the universities to sponsor lecturers to attend retraining programmes.

Isaiah, (2012) evaluates the effect of human resource management practices on organizational achievement in schools and teaching profession in Education District III in Lagos State, Nigeria. A total of 100 teachers and non-teachers randomly from 5 schools and 1 education responded to self-reported questionnaire that measures Ten Human Resource Management practices and subjective measures of organizational achievement. Chi-square statistical method was used to analysis the data collected which compares respondents‟ actual responses/observation with expected answers. Results indicated that there is a relationship between Human Resource Management Practices and Organizational Achievement. Thus, it provides an insight for the management to use these practices as a strategic tool for organizational effectiveness and profitability.

Conclusion

From the issues raised in this study, it is crystally established that, in the face of this era of global competitions, and for the betterment of organisations to thrive continuously tertiary institutions are advised to invest more resources in the continuous training and retraining of their employees at all levels i.e both academic and non-academic in order survive the global competitions and challenges.

References

Kraaijenbrink, A. (2010).*Management Challenges for the 21st Century*. Harper Business, New York.

Kraiger B, McLinden C and Casper D (2004). *Access to Training and Its Impact on Temporary Workers.* Human Resource Management Journal, *15*(2), Pp. 66-85.

KSU (2008): *The Story of Kogi State University Transformation: 29 Giant Strides in 29 Months*. Fourth Dimension Publishing Co. Ltd, Enugu, Nigeria

Kumpikaite, E (2004) *Economics.* USA: Blackwell Publishers Incorporation.

Lado,F and Wilson,G (1994) *Making Managers*. London: Pitman

Lami,HG (2013). *Human Resources as the Wealth of the Nations*: New York, Oxford University Press.

Latif,I. (2016), The *Assessment: Knowledge, Skills and Competitiveness*, Oxford

Review of Economics Policy, 15,(1), Pp. 1-5.

Lawal J (2014). *Inside the Workplace: Findings from the 2004 Workplace Employment* Relations Survey, London: Routledge.

Leonard,K (1990) *Manpower Management: A Handbook of Personnel Managers and Stu-dent of Administration,* Abuja: Roots Books and Journal Ltd

Loewe, P., Dominiquini, J. (2006), *Overcoming the barriers to effective innovation. Strategy & Leadership*, Vol. 34, No. 1, pp. 24-31.

Lucky,L. (2009) *Competitive Strategy and Skills: Working out the fit in the Fitness Ind*ustry. Human Resource Management Journal, *15*(2):5-34.16

Luoma, M. (2000). *Investigating the Link between Strategy and Human Resource Development.* Personnel Review, 29(6).

Luthans M & Kreitner N (1975). *Gaining Competitive Advantage through Strategic Management & Development.* Journal of Management Development, *24*(5):4-13.

Maher, L. (2014), *Building a culture for innovation: A leadership challenge*, World Hospitals and Health Services, Vol. 50, No. 1, pp. 4-6.

Manda, J. (2013) *A Strategic Look at Management Development*", Personnel Management, August, 5(1):46 – 49

Marchington, P. & Wilkinson, F. (2008) *New manufacturing initiatives and shop floor job design.* In A.Howard (Ed.), *The changing nature of work* (pp. 139–174). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Marimuthu, M Arokiasamy,A and Ismail, I (2009) *Team effectiveness in organizations*. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (13, pp. 1–48). Chichester: Wiley.

Marimuthu, M. (2009). *Operator work design and robotics system performance: A serendipitous field study.* Journal of Applied Psychology, 77, 353–362.

Marr,Y and Schiuma, C (2015), *Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviours*. Journal of Management, 17:601–617.

Mathew, T. (2014) *Leadership in organizations* (4th edn.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice

Mathias,Y. (2011) *Examining creative performance over time using hierar-chical linear modeling: An illustration using film directors*. Human Performance, 12, 211–230.

Mba,J and Tonye,W. (2014) *The Influence of Firm Age on the Relationships of Airline Performance, Economic Situation and Internal Operation.* Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice

McClelland,I (2007) *Impact of Economic Performance on Organizational Capacity and Capability: A Case Study in Airline Industry.* International Journal of Business and Management, *8*(17): p. p112.

McMahan,G and McWilliams,N (2004), *Introduction Latent Variables for Estimating Airline Assessment.* International Journal of Business and Management. *8*(18): p. p78.

Meier,E (1976). *Principal's leadership style and teacher job satisfaction: A case study in China.* Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business.

AN OVER VIEW OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION TO HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIAN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph.D)[43], OKWOLI, DANIEL MATTHEW (Ph.D)[44] &CLEMENTINA NGOZI ONYEBUCHI CHIAZOr PhD[45]

Abstract

This study titled "An Over View of the Contributions of Higher Education to human Capital Development in Nigeria Higher Institutions" is a conscious attempt to invest gate if in view of the dynamic and the change continuous change, higher institutions are really contributing to human capital development in order to forestall possible imbalance in view of global competition. It was discovered that improving individuals for personal and organisational efficiency and effectiveness is sinquanone.

Introduction

Concept of Human Capital Development

The major resources that are needed to manage any organization efficiently and effectively are human, financial and material resources (Obasi & Asodike, 2007). Although these resources are all necessary for the sustenance of the organization, however, the most important of them all is human resource. This is because human resource is needed to be able to effectively manage the other resources within the organization. Human resource is a term that is used in most organization to also mean human capital; this is because it is an indispensable resource that is needed to achieve productivity in any organization. Obi (2007) advised that human resource vis-à-vis human capital should be properly managed such that it can be of importance in the future. On his part, Yunus (2014) suggested that in order to effectively manage any public institution, there is the need to build a quality group of highly qualified, able and motivated human resources. It is this group of professional individuals that form the human capital in an organization. Their efforts also contribute immensely to the success recorded in the organization.

[43] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[44] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[45] Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Social Sciences,University of Benin, Benin City.

Human capital on the other hand refers to the set of skills and abilities which an employee employs in the organization to get work done. Manda (2013) noted that human capital refers to those set of skills that an employee acquires on the job through training and experience. It is similarly a collection of all the new ideas and knowledge which an employee acquires while working which helps to increase on-the-job efficiency and effectiveness. It is therefore imperative that in order for an employee to continuously become relevant in the work environment, he or she must continue to develop new methods of doing work. It is these individuals with the needed expertise to work in an organization and contribute to its growth and development that are referred to human resource or human capital.

Since the work environment is very dynamic and prone to continuous change, workers in the organization needed to be exposed to constant training; it is this constant empowerment of workers to make them relevant to the work environment that is referred to as human resource development or human capital development. Human capital development deals with the process of strategizing how to improve worker's efficiency in the place of work. The concept of human capital development according to Aluko and Aluko (2012) is a way to fulfil the potential of people by enlarging their capabilities and this necessarily implies empowerment of people, enabling them to participate actively in their own development." Similarly, Kern (2009) stated that investment in human capital development is a strategy for achieving greater output. Therefore, improving individuals for personal and organizational efficiency and effectiveness is the focus of human capital development.

There is a plethora of evidence that demonstrates a positive link between human capital development and organisational performance. The emphasis on human capital in organizations reflects the view that market value depends less on tangible resources, but rather, on intangible ones, particularly human resources. Recruiting and retaining the best employees however, is only part of the equation.

Contributions of Higher Education to Human Capital Development in Nigerian Higher Institutions.

The importance of higher institutions in developing quality manpower in the country cannot be over-emphasized. Higher institutions can contribute in the development of human capital in one or more of the following ways:

Empowering Students Attitude: Watson (1979) pointed out that one area of behavioural change is the social development of people. Building a good attitude is very important for a healthy social development. Higher institutions play significant roles in the building students who are responsible both in character and learning.

Higher institutions should more than before take up the responsibility of reshaping the behaviour of students towards the development of the society.

Quality Research in Relevant Areas: Research is another area where the higher institutions contribute to the advancement of the society. It is therefore important that more research efforts should be developed by higher institutions in the country. This will contribute towards the development of new goods and service that will contribute towards the intellectual development of the society.

Community Development Services: Another area where higher institutions can contribute towards the building of human capital development is in the area of community development services. It is needful that frequent orientation should be given to the host community to enlighten and educate them on new findings that is important for their environment. Such knowledge will help to empower the community on how to carry out individual and societal development.

Production of Quality Manpower: One of the objectives of higher education as stated in the National Policy on Education (2004) is the development of quality manpower. Similarly, the quality of manpower developed from the various institutions will also contribute to the society by transferring their knowledge to the other members of the society (Agabi, 1999). It is therefore clear that the quality of graduates from the nation's higher institution will to some extent determine the literacy level of the entire society.

Philanthropic Activities: Higher institutions in the country can also donate goods or services to individuals and institutions for self-empowerment. Areas of needs may be identified by higher institutions in the country and necessary contributions made towards the alleviation of such problems. This will assist in the reduction of the level of dependence and incapability of individuals within the society.

The development of quality human resource is strategic to the development of the entire nation. No nation can rise above the quality of its work force. As such, all higher institutions in the country need to work hand-in-hand to contribute towards human capital development in the country. The relevance of quality human capital development cuts across the various sectors of the economy. It is therefore necessary that for the nation to acquire all round growth and development, the development of human capital must be given the desired attention.

The Premise for Investment in Human Capital

Since man is the creative and productive resource that can harness economic progress, there are bound to be fundamental premises under which such a resource

can be developed. According to Schultz (1961, 1992, 1994), Jhinghan (2002), there are five premises under which a nation can invest and develop its human resources and these include;Health facilities and services, broadly conceived to include all expenditures that affect

The life expectancy, strength and stamina, and the vigour and vitality of the people;On-the-job training, including old type apprenticeships organized by firms;Formally organized education at the elementary, secondary and higher levels;Study programmes for adults that are not organized by firms, including extension programmes notably in agriculture;Migration of individuals and families to adjust to changing job opportunities.

These are not exhaustive as import of technical assistance, expertise and consultants play vital roles in human capital formation and the development of the economy. Indeed, to capture the analysis clearer, investment in human resources in a broader perspective implies expenditure on health, education and social services in general and in narrower sense, it implies expenditure on education and training. However, most conventional reasoning tend to see investment in human resources in the narrower sense because expenditure on education and training is capable of measurement as compared to the expenditure on social services (Umo, 2001, 2002 and Jhingan, 2002).

Meier and Rauch (2000) posits that the development of human resources is premised on first, building skills and then, providing productive employment for non-utilized or underutilized manpower. These relate to investment in man in the form of education and training which constitutes the process under which human capital is accumulated. In view of the relevance attached to human resources development, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) (1990) sees human resources from the perspective of knowledge, skills, attitudes, physical and managerial effort required to manipulate capital, technology, land and material to produce goods and services for human consumption.

This confirms one thing, that education has a positive value and impacts on the economy (Adamu, 2003), Arrow, 1999, Dornbusch, 2004). According to them, education increases the number of knowledgeable workers by improving their skills and exposes them to new challenges. More so, education enhances occupational mobility, reduces level of unemployment, increases earning capacity and productivity of workforce, improves access to health information that facilitate increased life expectancy as well as lower fertility rate. An important aspect of education in nation building is its role in enhancing income distribution and promotion of social equity and bridging the gaps of inequality and social injustice

across all strata of the society.

Conclusion

Drawing from the various issues discussed above in this paper, the study concludes that since the work environment is very dynamic and prone to continuous change, worker in the organisation needed to be exposed to constant training and retraining of workers to make them relevant to the work environment. Therefore, improving individual for personal and organisational efficiency and effectiveness can not be contemplated as focus of human capital development.

REFERENCES

Brown, V (2004). *Skill Requirements, Earnings and Labour Demand in Nigeria's Urban Informal Sector.*

Brum,E.C (2007) . *Educational Administration Applied Concepts and Theoretical Perspectives*, Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd.

Bryman, A and Bell, E (2003), *Business Research Methods*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bulut E & Culha S. (2010). *The strategic context of external network ties: Examining the impact of director appointments on board involvement in strategic decision making*. Academy of Management Journal, 4: 639-660.

Bundi, B.(2007). *Resourcing the Training and Development Function. Report 390*, Institute for Employment Studies.

Busienei, V.(2013). *Cross-over, completion and confabulation in unilateral spatial neglect*. Brain, 118, 455-465.

Callaway,G (1964), *Training, manpower development and job performance: Perception and relevance among civil servants in Ebonyi State, Nigeria*. Journal of Economics and International Finance 3(6), pp. 399-406.

Campbell, D.T, & Stanley, J.C. (1996). *Experimental and quasi-experimental design for research and teaching.* In: Gage, N.L. ed., Handbook of research on teaching. Chicago, Ill., Rand McNally.

Campbell, J (1990).. *Human assets and management dilemmas: Coping with hazards on the road to resource-based theory.* Academy of Management Review, 22: 374-402.

Carpenter, E and Westphal,D (2001). *Drilling for micro-foundations of human capital based competitive advantages.* Journal of Management, 37: 1429-1443.

Chatterjee,F. (1995), *Effective Behaviour in Organizations: Cases, Concepts and Student Experiences.* 6th. Edition. USA: Irwin McGraw Hill.

Choice, K.(2013), *An integrated agency-resource dependence view of the influence of directors' human and relational capital on firms' R and D spending*. Journal of Management Studies, 48: 1217-1242.

Chunfungetal., K.I.(2005) ,*They're not employees, they're people*, Harvard Business Review, February, 10, 2018, pp. 70-7.

Clarke, H.U.(2011).“*From human resource strategy to organizational effectiveness: lessons from research in organizational agility*”, in Wright, P., Dyer, L., Boudreau, J. and Milkovich, G. (Eds), *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, Supplement 4, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, NJ, pp. 145-74.

Claver, E., Llopis, J., Garcia, D., & Molina, H. (2014), *Organizational culture for innovation and new technological behavior*, The Journal of High Technology Management Research, Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 55-68.

Clutterbuck, H.O. (2002) *Strategic leadership: Top executives and their effects on organizations.* New York: West.

Coff, F and Kryscynks,E (2011) *Intellectual capital: Realising your company's true value by finding its hidden brain-power*, Harper Collins, NY.

Coleman, J. (1994): “*The Idea of the Developmental University*”, in R. Sklar (ed.), *Nationalism and Development in Africa*, London, University of California Press, 334-357.

Collins, G (1994), *Investigating the influence of social desirability on*

personality factor structure. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86, 122-133.

Collis,H and Montgomery, O. (1995), *Human resource management practices and their Effects on print production* at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology Press. MA Dissertation University of Cape Coast.

Connor,J (2002), *Human Resources Management: An Introduction* Lobofln and Co. Lagos.

Coyle-Shapiro, A. (2002), *The role of higher education in human capital development*. Retrieved from http://ssrn.com/abstract=2380878Accessed on 15/08/2018

Croucher,F.F (2008) *Economic impact of tertiary education on human capital development in Nigeria. Human Resource development in Africa.* Selected papers for 2002 annual conference, Nigerian economic society, University of Ibadan, 499-522

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

KUMIJE, DAVID (Ph. D)[46] & OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW (Ph. D)[47] &OMALE ANTHONY[48]

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 it's 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 organisation. With the machines, materials, land and money, nothing get done without human effort. The potentials of human efforts are simply what is 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 goals, they need to acquire relevant skills and knowledge (Abiodun 2012). Human 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.

Accordingly, Kogi State University, Anyigba was established against the statistical

[46] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[47] Kogi State University, Anyigba
[48] Kogi State University, Anyigba

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:

- 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.
- To provide training that is relevant to the social, cultural, economic, scientific and technological needs of Kogi State in particular and Nigeria in general.
- To encourage the advancement of learning at the highest level.
- To provide course of instruction and other facilities for acquisition of knowledge in all fields.
- To encourage and promote scholarship and conduct research in all areas of learning and human endeavour.
- 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.
- 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, AAgriculture- 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 loose 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.

References

Adamu, G.Y. (2003) *Definitions of HRD: Key Concepts from a National and International Context*, European Journal of Social Sciences, *10*(4)*:*22-35.

Adebayo, D.J. (2002), *Leveraging human capital and value creation by combining HRM and KM initiatives*, International Journal of Learning and Intellectual Capital, *6(3) 202-13*.

Adedeji C. and Bamidele,, D.A. (2003), *Organizational Learning: A Theory of Action Perspective*, Addison-Wesley.

Aderounmu, V.A. (2007). *Nigeria Fiscal Policy For The Sustenance of Education*. Journal of Education studies, 2 (1): 56 – 68.

Adesina, A. G. A. (1988). *The Economic of Conflicts in Africa:* An Overview. Journal of African Economics 9 (3): 235–243.

Agabi F.J. (1999). *Topics in The Investigation of Linear Relations Fitted by The Method of Least Squares.* Journal of Royal Statistical Society: 29 - 32.

Aguinis, S. T. & Kraiger,Y.G 1998). *The Economics of Human Resources Planning in Nigeria*. Journal of Social Science, 1 (1): 87 – 94

Ahowd, R.J (1990) . *Human Capital and Economic Development*. ADB Economic Research Papers, 39: 1–17.

Ajayi, I. A. and Ekundayo, H. T. (2007): *Funding Initiatives in University Education*

Akinbote, T.U1988). *Reshaping Higher Education in Britain*. Higher Education Review, Spring: 1 - 11.

Akpan,S.R (2008).*Brain Drain or Overflow*. Foreign Affairs, 48 (2): 358 – 372.

Akpodo, (2011). *Misconceived Education Programmes in Africa*. Universities quarterly, June: 13 - 25.

Alice (2014) *Economics of Education: Sense and Nonsense*. British Journal for Comparative Education, 1 (1): 9–18.

Almendarez, L. (2011). *Human Capital Development: Implications for Educational Development.*

Almendarez, W.I. (2011) *Economic Growth in a Cross Section of Countries*, Quarterly. Journal of Economics 106: 407–444.

Amin, U.R (1977), *International Comparisons of Educational Attainment***,** Journal of Monetary Economics: 109 - 118.

Aminu, R. J. (1992). *Notes on Growth Accounting*. Journal of Economic Growth, June: 112 - 141.

Anyim,E.C (2012) *Nonparametric Cointegration Analysis*, Journal of Econometrics

77: 379 - 404.

Aremu,B.H (2002). *African's Needs and Africa University*. West African Journal of Education, vii (2): 31 - 42.

Armstrong, M. (2006). *A handbook of human resource management practice*, 8thEd. Kogan Page Limited.

Arrow,D.I (1999), *Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes*: *Test of a social exchange model*. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23: 267-285. doi:10.1002/job.138

Aswathappa, S.K (2008) . *Top management and innovations in banking: Does the composition of the top team make a difference?* Strategic Management Journal, 10: 107–124.

Atiomo, Z.G (2000). *Educating lone wolves: Pedagogical implications of human capital theory*. Adult Education Quarterly, 51(3), 184–201.

Auty, R. M. (1993). *Sustaining Development in Mineral Economies: The Resource Curse Thesis.* London: Routledge

Auty,W.A (1993) *Brain Drain or Overflow*. Foreign Affairs, 48 (2): 358 – 372.

Baier,S., Dwyer, G., and Tamura, R. (2006) *How Important are Capital and Total Factor Productivity for Economic Growth?* Economic Inquiry 44, (1) p:23-50.

OPEN GOVERNMENT DATA AND PUBLIC SERVICE PRODUCTIVITY ENHANCEMENT IN NIGERIA'S FEDERAL INLAND REVENUE SERVICE

EMMANUEL I. OKONMAH PHD[49], ADESOYE ISIAKA MUSTAPHA PHD & EDEGWARE, GIDEON JESUHOVIE MSC

Abstract

The movement towards the new public governance postulation has over the years triggered new ways of providing public goods and enhancing public productivity for societal benefit in a digitalized formation. The concept of Open Government Data (OGD) as a driver of E-governance has further added value to public goods and optimizing productivity via interaction, co-creation, co-production, accountability and transparency initiative between the government and the citizenry. In an evaluative study of the Nigerian Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) and its penchant to promoting OGD in the Nigerian public sector, the paper examined the extent to which the concept of OGD is being practiced in FIRS; investigated the degree of citizens' engagement in relation to OGD in FIRS and examined the extent OGD has been able to facilitate transparency and revenue generation in FIRS. The Paper utilized secondary source of data collection and analysis. It was concluded that the OGD initiative via the introduction of Information Communication Technology (ICT) has improved the activities of FIRS in terms of revenue generation but a lot still needs to be done to properly harness the benefit of OGD. Hence, the paper recommends that FIRS should improve on its open data initiatives to deliver public services more efficiently while safeguarding the quality of services.

Keywords: Government data, digital, governance, productivity, information, technology

Introduction

Over the last two decades, the world has witnessed tremendous changes in various aspects of life. One of the most prominent areas that have emerged

[49] Department of Public Administration,University of Benin,Benin City, Nigeria,isiakamustapha1961@gmail.com ,+2348033552838; +2348066647630; +2348143269307

and changed many aspects of life is the technological development, which began from the way people interact with each other, sharing personal information and their use of social platforms, and adopting them in their business transactions on the electronic environment in electronic commerce (Al-Kubaisi, 2018). This development extended to governments and the public sector, where governments benefited from technological development and sought to develop several initiatives to provide services to citizens using Information Communication Technology (ICTs) especially via the medium of tax mobilization (Al-Kubaisi, 2018). According to Ogbonna and Appah (2012), the extent of development attainable by any nation is a function of its revenue generation power for the provision of infrastructure. Like any other revenue collection agency in the world, the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) has as its core mandate to generate funds needed for public service which have been aided by ICT initiatives like the Open Government Data (OGD).

The OGD as an ingredient of ICT in governance represents a new strategy through which the government's interaction with citizens through the usage of ICT networks in more innovative ways especially in tax mobilization efforts (Beth, 2009). This strategy also includes the ability of the government to request assistance from the citizens, consult them and take support from them. In general, this strategy aims to create more effective, stronger and productive institutions (Beth, 2009). The data used in the open government are publicly accessible and free to be accessed by all citizens. Hence, studies such as Koski (2011), Vickery (2011) and Shakespeare (2013) have indicated enormous unexploited value in open government data. It is of no surprise then, that many governments are pursuing open data policies (Stott, 2014). However, the comprehensiveness of such initiatives varies significantly (Chui, Farrell & Jackson, 2014), and more generally, there are large differences in the extent to which countries' government data have been opened up (Open Knowledge, 2014).

Stott (2014) notes four distinct drivers for governments' open data programmes: economic growth, enhancing civic engagement, increasing transparency and accountability, and improving the operations and efficiency of public services. However, these policy objectives for implementing open government data do not necessarily explain the differences in the extent of its

implementation. Scholars (Janssen, Charalabidis & Zuiderwijk, 2012; Zuiderwijk et al, 2012; Martin et al, 2013; Barry & Bannister, 2014; Martin, 2014) have noted many impediments to the potential opening of government data. In general terms, as noted by Anthony (2016), the commonly cited impediments can be grouped as: financial; skills and infrastructural capacity; institutional/bureaucratic resistance; technical complications; and legal/policy framework. Some of these have national level relevance and so may be relevant in partially explaining the differences between countries in government data openness. Other factors have been advanced from the specific perspective of national level differences in government data openness. They include transparency/corruption (Weinstein & Goldstein 2012), democracy (Lakomaa & Kallberg 2013), and economic size (Nugruho, 2013).

It is beyond the scope of this paper to critically assess the many factors already proposed. Instead, it is drawn to the special ICT project at the highest tax administrative agency – the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) in its ability to apply technological measures and open data (information) in its operations and interaction with the tax payer public.

Statement of the Problem

The number of OGD initiatives has grown from two to over three hundred over the past years, and membership in the Open Government Partnership has gone from eight to over fifty-nine countries in two years. Over 280 government data catalogs have been published and over a million datasets have been released by governments around the world, spawning new businesses and social projects. OGD is commonly seen as a driver of efficiency and a vehicle for increasing transparency, citizen participation and innovation in society. For instance, the European Commission launched an Open Data Strategy for Europe in December 2011, which is expected to deliver around $53 billion boost to the EU's economy each year (European Commission, 2011). The strategy resulted in EU Open Data rules being formally adopted in June 2013, including directions regarding charging rules, licensing, search on data portals and interoperability, which is expected that open data will bring benefits to a wide range of domains, including health, energy, education, public safety, finance and global development (Thorhildur et al., 2014). Talking about development and public benefits, fund is adjudged as a livewire for it achievement. With the FIRS mandated by statutory laws to gener-

ate revenue for public service, efficiency and effectiveness become paramount in the discharge of its duty leading to the introduction of ICT measures in achieving optimum revenue generation, which the OGD act as platform.

Despite the potential significance of OGD, the FIRS have somehow embraced the initiative but are still far from living up to its true potential in the agency. A common assumption when opening government data is that simply supplying more data freely and in more formats will lead to more use and value creation. But opening up government data is meaningful only so far as citizens and public and private organizations have not only the opportunity, but also the motivation and ability to use the data to achieve social and economic value, which ironically, the tax paying public in Nigeria has not had the optimal access. With this in mind, specifically, the paper intends to evaluate the efforts being made by FIRS in achieving the concept of open public data, thus leading us to the following questions: To what extent is the concept of OGD practiced in FIRS? What is the degree of citizens' engagement in relation to OGD in FIRS? and to what extent has OGD been able to facilitate transparency and revenue generation by the FIRS?

Research Objectives

1. To examine the extent to which the concept of Open Government Data (OGD) is being practiced in FIRS.
2. To investigate the degree of citizens' engagement in relation to OGD in FIRS.
3. To examine the extent OGD has been able to facilitate transparency and revenue generation in FIRS.
4. To proffer further policy improvements on OGD arising from the research conclusions

Conceptualization of Terms

Open Government Data (OGD)

Open government data refers to any data produced or maintained by a government organisation, saved in machine-readable format and available free of charge for anyone to use, reuse and redistribute for both private and commercial purposes (Koski, 2015). Private actors can also offer open data, but

this report focuses merely on the open government data. Important public sector data, which is also widely used by firms, includes geographic, weather, demographic, firm, traffic and legislative data, for example.

Productivity

According to Mustapha and Omorede (2017), Productivity viewed from the lens of the economist has to do with an efficiency which has as its essential calculus the ratio of input and output. Productivity determined by efficiency model of the economist is the ability of the organisation concerned, whether private or public, to generate profit in excess of its overall expenditure. Also, in the view of Ikeanyibe (2009) cited in Mustapha, Edegware and Reason (2018), productivity is a measurement or calculation of input and output ratio. Inputs are the amount of resources such as human resources, money, time, physical, technology and effort spent working in the organization, while output are the result. If the inputs are equivalent to the outputs, the worker is considered productive. Furthermore, according to Onah (2010:172) cited in Mustapha et al (2018), productivity is the relationship between output of goods and services and input of resources, and human, used in the production process.

Methodology

In an attempt to understanding the concept of open government data and its relationship in ensuring productivity in public sector as situated in FIRS, the paper employed the secondary source of data gathering with "desk analysis" formation employed. The secondary data source includes; journal articles, newspapers, magazines, government gazettes amongst others.

Theoretical Framework

The New Public Governance Theory

One theory which facilitates the initiative of open government and open government data is the theory of New Public Governance (NPG). Stephen Osborne is credited with bringing the idea of NPG to light with his 2006 paper "The New Public Governance". When looking at the initial conception of NPG, there are two important things to note. The first: the NPG views the state as both pluralist and plural – there are multiple processes and actors which influence the policy-making system and public service delivery (Os-

borne, 2006). The second is that NPG does have strong theoretical background, and is defined as being "rooted firmly within organizational sociology and network theory" (Osborne, 2006). Recently service theory has also been utilized to explain public service delivery systems (Osborne, 2010 and Osborne and Strokosch, 2013). NPG also believes that previous theories, such as New Public Management (NPM) theory, fall short of providing an accurate presentation and understanding of governance (Osborne, 2010 and Osborne et al., 2015). As NPM was focused on efficiency, borrowing heavily from the private sector ideas, costs are cut where possible and citizens are treated as clients or customers (Osborne et al., 2015). This emphasis on efficiency within NPM often causes Public Sector Organizations (PSOs) to forget about the goals of the service which leads to a decrease in effectiveness of the PSO and the services they are providing.

NPG attempts to address these shortcomings of previous theories and places an emphasis on the improvement of public services, improving policy outcomes, and bases itself around collaboration and trust (Torfing and Triantafillou, 2013). One of the most important takeaways from NPG is that any service which produces public value may be able to be considered a public service. NPG provides a new and radical way of looking at how public services are created, designed, and delivered. NPG believes that public services should be looked at as public service delivery systems, public services may be created by anyone, coproduction is an inseparable part of public services, that interactions and relationships may well be more important than the design of a service, the value of a public service comes from the interactions which take place, and that through collaboration and cooperation more effective public services can be produced and delivered (Osborne, 2006).

NPG has been seen as a veritable instrument in the interpretation and explanation of OGD. The initiative (OGD) as a governance measure in the interaction between the government and the governed to produce public goods and values has over the years brought about a sense of inclusion and participation of citizens in public policy formations and affairs. As a measure to open up government in a transparent and accountable manner which is one of the nuances of OGD, the FIRS as the paper case tends to imbibe the initiative by

showcasing its operations in quarterly bases for citizens awareness and scrutiny which is part of the NPG objectives for an inclusive and participatory public with government affairs.

Understanding Open Government Data: A Conceptual Analysis

In the theoretical framework of this paper, some important concepts emerge which are coined around the following: public services are changing, collaboration and cooperation are incredibly important, outside stakeholders should have the ability to play a role in the co-creation of new services, and that in the current digital age, governments now have the ability to act as a 'platform', thus playing a role in the change of how public services are understood (McBride, 2017). These points emerge from Public Administration and Management (PAM) theory and literature, but many of these changes are enabled by new technological ideas and innovations. One such new technological idea that appears to be able to aid in the understanding of NPG is the concept of OGD (McBride, 2017). OGD is said to increase government accountability, increase cooperation and communication with outside stakeholders, and is one of the core ways government is able to start acting as a 'platform' for enhancing public service productivity (Janssen et al., 2012). With the following in mind, it seems that OGD has the potential to play a direct role in enabling production of new public services.

When discussing OGD it is important to differentiate between the terms "open data" and "open government data"; the former refers to data which is open and provided by any source (McBridge, 2017). Open data according to Thorhildur et al., (2014), can be defined as data that are freely accessible online, available without technical restrictions to re-use, and provided under open access license that allows the data to be re-used without limitation, including across different 'fields of endeavor' (e.g., commercial and non-commercial alike). Openness changes one important feature of digital data by making them *non-excludable*. Accordingly, when opened up, digital data become a shared resource; a public good or what has been termed 'digital commons' (Hess and Ostro, 2006). Whereas, OGD directly refers to open data which is created and released by government agencies. The concept of OGD refers specifically to government data defined as "data and information produced or commissioned by government or government controlled enti-

ties" (Thorhildur et al., 2014) that are opened up for use and re-use by public and private agents alike.

In the currently used terminology, OGD does not include data that are subject to valid privacy, security or privilege limitations, as governed by other statutes. There are currently many different definitions of OGD (Gonzalez-Zapata and Heeks, 2015), but most definitions share some core components: data must be machine readable, it should be licensed in a way to allow easy sharing and reuse of data, and it should be usable and understandable by humans. With this in mind, for the purpose of this paper, the following definition of OGD will be used: OGD is non-confidential data which is gathered, and subsequently released by a government organization in a machine readable format which is discoverable, usable, and freely available (Burwell et al., 2013).

OGD: An Evaluation of its Accountability Component in the Public Sector

Improving access to government data provides opportunities for government and non -government innovators to create new ways to tackle problems. Open data can thus become the "platform" that fuels the development, performance and evaluation of useful applications, and solutions which breed accountability. Accountability simply refers to answerability for one's actions or behaviour. It involves the evaluation of the performance of duties by units and individuals within the organisation against the objectives and established standards in the organisation (Olowu, 2002; Mustapha and Omorede, 2017; Mustapha, Edegware and Reason, 2018). Agba et al (2008:187-204) further posit: "accountability demands that the public should know when money came into government treasury and how the money was used."

Central open government data portals are slowly but increasingly being understood as vehicles to enable the use of Data as a Platform (DaaP) but also, and more importantly, as enablers of governments as platforms for accountability and transparency (OECD, nd). Moving to a collaborative, problem-solving approach has proven challenging for some countries. While some have used data as a platform to favour public value co-creation, in others, multi-stakeholder engagement is low or absent, particularly where transparency-driven model for open government data policies is not adequate (OECD, nd). The strategic sharing of OGD, combined with digital technologies, can support good governance and improve public trust. Examples in-

clude enabling better public service delivery, improving citizen engagement, enhancing government openness, and providing a data-driven basis for stronger government accountability and public sector integrity.

A Brief Insight into Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS)

The history of taxation in Nigeria dates back to the pre-colonial era during which there were different systems of taxation existing in the forms of compulsory services, contribution of goods, money, labour and the likes, among the various kingdoms and ethnic groups and tribes controlled by the Emirs, Obas, Baales and the elders council in the Igbo land, in order to sustain the Monarch and also for community development (Institutes of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN), 2010). However, unlike the developed nations of the world such as the United States of America and the United Kingdom, non-tax revenue from the sale of crude oil has constituted the major source of revenue to finance government operations in Nigeria.

Tax laws are enacted to impose taxes. The tax laws in operation in Nigeria include

the Companies Income Tax Act (Cap. C21, LFN 2004), which imposes tax on the incomes of companies other than corporation soles and companies engaged in petroleum operations (upstream operations); the Petroleum Profits Tax Act (Cap. P13, LFN 2004), which imposes tax on the profits of companies engaged in petroleum operations; Education Tax Act (Cap. E4, LFN 2004), which imposes education tax on the assessable profits of companies registered in Nigeria; Personal Income Tax Act (Cap. P8, LFN 2004 as amended by Personal Income Tax (Amendment) Act, 2011), which imposes tax on incomes of individuals and corporation soles; Value Added Tax Act (Cap. VI, LFN 2004), which imposes tax on the supply and consumption of goods and services (except those specifically exempted or zero rated), made by incorporated companies and other business organisations; Stamp Duties Act (Cap. S8 LFN 2004); and Capital Gains Tax Act (Cap. C1 LFN 2004), which imposes tax on capital gains arising from the disposal of chargeable assets (Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria, 2009).

Throughout the years, the tax administrators have been constantly concerned about developing new ways of improving institutional performance by increasing the effectiveness of tax control and providing taxpayer services that may allow them to better comply with their tax obligations (Nelson, 2002). One of those ways by which this is done in Nigeria is the use of technology

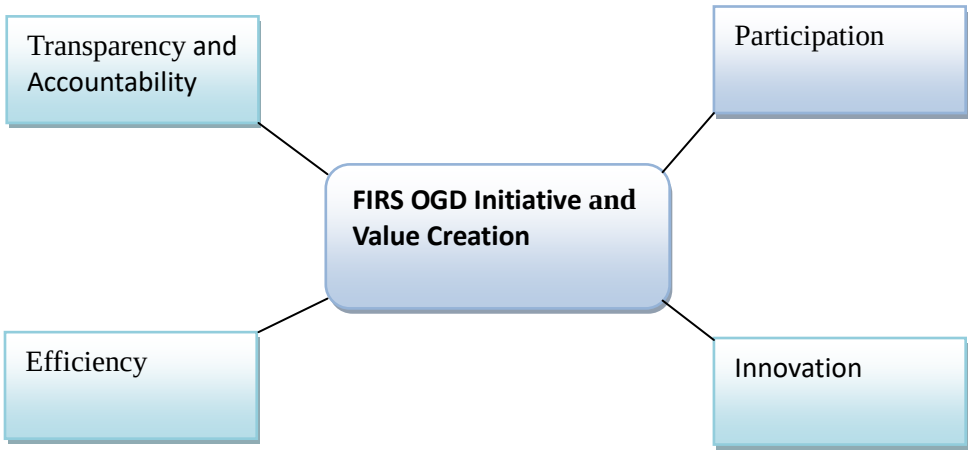
innovation for tax administration. According to Fu, Farn, and Chao (2006), the tax authorities considered electronic tax filing to be an opportunity to re-engineer tax process, making it easier, faster, and error free.

In relation to the technological drive in tax administration in Nigeria, the Federal Inland Revenue Services recently launched Integrated Tax Administration System (ITAS). The ITAS has about nine modules, amongst which is project Joint Tax Board Tax Identification Number (JTB-TIN). It also involves the deployment of the Standard Integrated Government Tax Administration Solution (SIGTAS) and hardware infrastructure including support service for FIRS. This platform will enable the taxpayer file annual return and make payment online from their comfort zone without delay (Adeyeye, 2019).

OGD and Public Value Creation: The FIRS in Focus

Building on Harrison et al. (2011), four general mechanisms were highlighted to show how OGD can be used to generate value in the public sector especially at FIRS. Two mechanisms highlight the Open Government focus: *transparency of government* and *citizen participation/collaboration* (Bertot et al., 2010 and Harrison et al., 2011) and another two highlight the reuse focus: *efficiency/effectiveness* and *innovation* (Huijboom and Van den Broek, 2011). The strategies are framed from the data provider perspective, which in the case of OGD is the public sector. The framework has two dimensions. One dimension, indicating the extent to which external stakeholders (i.e., actors in the private sector) generate value from the data, therefore spans the boundaries between the public and private sectors. The other dimension, indicating the extent to which OGD initiative is focused on generating social value, ranges from strategies that are focused mainly on generating economic value (with a relatively marginal social value component) to strategies that are focused mainly on generating social value (with a relatively marginal economic value component). Each of the four general mechanisms has the capacity to generate a mix of social and economic value, although in different proportions.

Fig. 1: **OGD Initiative in FIRS and Value Creation**



Source: Adapted from Thorhildur et al (2014).

Transparency and Accountability Mechanisms

Transparency mechanisms are designed to reveal relevant information that is being generated, managed and stored by a particular entity, including information about its own decision processes, procedures and performance. However, opening access to selected public documents does not necessarily contribute to a transparent government (Yu and Robinson, 2012). In fact, a government can pay lip service to open data by providing access to politically neutral topics, even though its operation in general remains deeply opaque and unaccountable (Yu and Robinson, 2012). Agents, whose access to information is increased, must also have the ability to process the information, and the opportunity and incentive to act on that information (Kolstad and Wiig, 2009). Accordingly, we cannot conclude that open access to government data is in itself a comprehensive measure of transparency. Rather, transparency mechanisms can enable value generation if they reduce information asymmetry. Information asymmetry refers to situations in which one has more or better information than another while they are participating in transactions, negotiations or communications (Thorhildur et al, 2014).

Information asymmetry can cause all sorts of socially undesirable results and behaviours. One particular prevalent outcome of information asymmetry is corruption. Corruption (defined in the context of government as misuse of

public power for private benefits) has long been seen as a hindrance to socio-economic development (Holmberg et al, 2009). Improved transparency can reduce information asymmetry and result in more equitable resource allocation, leading to the creation of social and economic value. In the case of FIRS, the transparency initiative in revenue collection has tended to improve over the years. With the aid of ICT, FIRS transactions and operations with the tax payer public has been made easy and cordial to a reasonable extent. The detailed openness of different categories of tax collection ranging from non – oil revenue (Companies Income Tax, Capital Gains Tax, Stamp Duties amongst other) to oil revenue (Petroleum Profit Tax, Gas Income amongst others) has further add to the drive of transparency in the FIRS.

Table 1: Federally Collected Revenue (FCR) 2013 - 2019

Period	**Revenue Type**		**FCR (N)**	**Data Openness Rating**
	Non–Oil Revenue (N)	**Oil Revenue (N)**		
2014	2.24 trillion (47.8%)	2.45 trillion (52.2%)	4.69 trillion	Fair
2015	2.41 trillion (65.1%)	1.29 trillion (34.9%)	3.70 trillion	Fair
2016	2.142 trillion(64.9%)	1.161 trillion (35.1%)	3.303 trillion	Fair
2017	2.504 trillion (62.1%)	1.523 trillion (37.8%)	4.027 trillion	Fair
2018	2.467 trillion (53.6%)	2.852 trillion (46.4%)	5.320 trillion	Fair

Source: Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) Open data Platform (2020)

Table 1 above gives a clear description of the transparency initiative in FIRS. Feedbacks from online survey as regard the openness of data in terms of revenue collection has been generally fair but not without some reservations in some tax paying public who shared their opinions regarding the lack of full implementation of the revenue collected for developmental purposes.

Participation Mechanisms

Participation mechanisms are designed to enable and encourage public participation in government through voluntary contributions of ideas and other resources. These mechanisms provide citizens with an opportunity to influence public policy, and consequently enhance the ties between government officials and their constituency (Linders and Wilson, 2011). Public participation often provides opinions through citizens' engagement as well as ideas and solutions through crowdsourcing (Linders and Wilson, 2011). It has been argued that more involved democratic participation is likely to lead to superior social outcomes because of participation's role in aggregating information and preferences (Barber, 1984 cited in Thorhildur et al, 2014).

The relationship between participation and OGD is essentially twofold: First, in order for citizens to participate, either by voicing their opinions towards policy making or by participating directly in public projects, they must have access to information about the particular issue that is being addressed. Second, their contributions lead to the generation of new data. Citizen participation in public administration decision-making has been on the rise, as many government agencies have taken advantage of Internet-based applications to communicate with constituents (Kim and Lee, 2012). This the FIRS have to some reasonable extent explored. Different ICT channels have been employed by the FIRS to drive the participatory crusade to tax compliance and zero tax avoidance. In terms of tax education, the FIRS has involved notable television and radio houses in almost all states of the federation, in both local and English language to educate the tax paying public on the need for tax compliance.

Participation mechanisms are designed to lower the barriers to participation for those willing-but-unable, and to make participation more attractive to those able-but-unwilling (Axelsson et al., 2010). This is the case of FIRS in its numerous e-services and platforms available to the public. Participation mechanisms generate value through the synergies created from openness and sharing, allowing the public sector to draw from a larger pool of resources, consequently improving society's ability to solve difficult tax related problems.

Efficiency Mechanisms

Efficiency mechanisms are designed to improve resource utilization in order to minimize waste and maximize the outcome value, using the same amount of resources. The importance of efficient use of public resources for economic growth, stability and general well-being has been brought to the forefront by a number of developments over the past decades (Afonso et al., 2010). As a consequence of increasing government intervention in affairs, such as child care, education, and health services, it is the public sectors that have faced mounting difficulties in managing efficiently the administrative bureaucracy. Moreover, increasing cross-boundary interactions and higher levels of information exchange between citizens and government have increased the total amount of government data collected and stored. These trends call for more efficient processing of data in order to provide the expected services (Cordella, 2007).

Efficiency can be gained by cutting processing costs, making strategic connections between and among government agencies, and creating empowerment. In the case of FIRS, the revenue agency, with its immediate past Chairman Mr. Tunde Fowler has made tremendous effort in making the agency more efficient. Accordingly, "…Fowler noted that though collection increased by 20% in 2017 compared with 2016 (table 1), cost of collecting revenue went down to 2.49% in 2017 from 2.60% in 2016 and 2.62% in 2015" (Vanguard online, 2018). Thus, buttressing the point of efficiency in the process of revenue generation.

Innovation Mechanisms

Innovation mechanisms are designed to generate new or significantly improved products (goods or services), work processes, business practices, and organizational methods (OECD, 2005). Recent technological developments have provided firms with the ability to collect, manage, and use different types of data in multiple ways to innovate, and subsequently create value (Thorhildur et al., 2014). Following Schumpeter (1934) as cited in Thorhildur et al., (2014), we assume that innovation can have economy-wide effects. Innovation brings about novel combinations of resources, new production methods, as well as new products and services, which, in turn, can lead to the transformation of markets and industries, thus increasing value (Tho-

rhildur et al., 2014). Numerous studies have confirmed the relationship between macro-level business innovation and economic value. The social impacts of new innovations have, however, been much less discussed and analyzed, with the possible exception of Kuznets (1974) as cited in Thorhildur et al., (2014), who separates economic and non-economic consequences of technological innovations. Going forward, the study view data-driven innovation as business innovation, based to a large degree on exploiting data, and capable of generating positive economic and social impacts. In analyzing the study case, the FIRS have taken advantage of improving its yearly targeted value by inculcating innovative ideals into its operations. Some of the innovative ideals instituted into the system (FIRS) are e-registration, e-filing, e-stamp duty, e-tax clearance certificate and other proposed electronic services. The innovative ideals has brought about increased in revenue generation and its association with the tax paying public.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The paper within its scope has made an effort in analyzing the concept of Open Government Data (OGD) and its relationship to the public in terms of value creation. The new governance theory in this paper creates an avenue for review and evaluation of open government data as situated in the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS). A framework was constructed based on a review of the OGD and value literature, using general and established mechanisms to explain how use of OGD as a resource can result in generation of value. The framework is based on two dimensions that are intended to capture the impact of openness: First, how openness is enabling external stakeholders to contribute to the generation of value from OGD as a resource and second, how society as a whole can appropriate value in the presence of openness. But despite the openness of FIRS in revenue generation, a lot is still needed to be done in achieving optimum productivity.

Thus, the paper recommends that, FIRS should increase its open data initiatives to deliver public services more efficiently while safeguarding the quality of services, for instance, by allowing citizens to access data easily for their own consumption and value benefit. Also, the feedback platform of FIRS for all input should be operated effectively in order to review public demands and complaints for better tax administration in Nigeria.

References

Adeyeye, G (2019). Improving Tax Administration through Technology Innovation in Nigeria (A Study of Federal Inland Revenue Service). *Annals of Spiru Haret University. Economic Series, 19*(1), 31-63, doi: https://doi.org/10.26458/1913.

Afonso, A., Schuknecht, L and Tanzi, V (2010). Public Sector Efficiency: Evidence for New EU Member States and Emerging Markets. *Applied Economics*, 42 (17), 2147-2164.

Agba, A. M. O., Ikoh, M. U., Ushie, E. M. and Agba, M. S. (2008). Bureaucratic Corruption in Nigeria: The Need for Institutional Reforms. *Journal of International Politics and Development Studies*, 4 (1&2); 187-204.

Al-Kubaisi, A.S (2018). Enhancing the Adoption of E-Government Systems through Open Government and Open Government Data (OGD) Initiatives in Qatar. *Journal of Information Engineering and Applications, 8*(1); 1 – 10.

Axelsson, K., Melin, U., and Lingren, I (2010). Exploring the Importance of Citizen Participation and Involvement in E-government Projects Incentives and Organization, Transforming Government: People, Process and Policy, 4 (4), 299-321.

Barry, E & Bannister, F (2014). Barriers to open data release: A view from the top. *Information Polity 19*(1), 129–152.

Bertot, J., Jaeger, P., and Grimes, J (2010). Using ICTs to Create a Culture of Transparency: E-Government and Social Media as Openness and Anti-Corruption Tools for Societies. *Government Information Quarterly*, 27 (3); 264-271.

Beth S, N (2009). *Wiki government: how technology can make government better, democracy stronger, and citizens more powerful,* Brookings Institution Press.

Burwell, S., Vanroekel, S., Park, T and Chieftechnolo, U (2013). Open Data Policy - Managing Information as an Asset. *Exec. Off. Pres.*, 13 (13); 1–12.

Chui M, Farrell D and Jackson, K (2014). "How government can promote open data and help unleash over $3 trillion in economic value" *Innovation in Local Government: Open Data and Information Technology* 2 Winter, McKinsey & Company, as accessed 2 Feb, 2020 at http://www.mckinsey.com/client_service/public_sector/latest_thinking/government_designed_for_new_times.

Cordella, A (2007). E-government: towards the e-bureaucratic form? *Journal of Information Technology*, 22 (3), 265-274.

European Commission. (2011) Open data: An engine for innovation, growth and transparent governance. *European Commission Information Society*. [Online]. Available: http://ec.europa.eu/information_society/policy/psi/docs/pdfs/directive_proposal/2012/open_data.pdf.

Fu, J., Farn, C., & Chao, W. (2006). Acceptance of Electronic Tax Filing: A Study of Taxpayer Intentions. *Journal of Information & Management* 43(1), 109-126.

Gonzalez-Zapata, F and Heeks, R (2015). The multiple meanings of open government
data: Understanding different stakeholders and their perspectives. *Gov. Inf. Q.*, 32 (4); 441–452.

H. Yu and D.G. Robinson. (2012). The New Ambiguity of Open Government. Social Science Research, New York. [Online]. Available: http://ssrn.com/abstract=2012489.

Harrison, T., Guerrero, S., Burke, G., Cook, M., Cresswell, A., Helbig, N., Hrdinová, J and Pardo, T (2011). Open government and E-government: Democratic challenges from a public value perspective, in Proceedings of the 12th Annual International Conference on Digital Government Research, New York, pp. 245-253.

Hess, C and Ostro, E (2006). *Understanding Knowledge as a Commons – From Theory to Practice*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Holmberg, S., Rothstein B and Nasiritousi, N (2009). Quality of government: What you get. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 12 (1); 135-161.

Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN) (2009), *Taxation Study Pack, Lagos*: VI Publishers

Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN) (2010), *Taxation Study Pack, Lagos*: VI Publishers.

Janssen, M., Charalabidis, Y and Zuiderwijk, A (2012). Benefits, Adoption Barriers and Myths of Open Data and Open Government. *Inf. Syst. Manag.*, 29 (4); 258–268.

Kim, S and Lee, J (2012). E-Participation, Transparency, and Trust in Local Government. *Public Administration Review*, 72 (6); 819-828.

Kolstad, I and Wiig, A (2009). Is transparency the key to reducing corruption in resource-rich countries? *World Development*, 37 (3); 21-32.

Koski H (2011). *Does marginal cost pricing of public sector information spur firm growth?* The Research Institute of the Finnish Economy, Helsinki, Discussion Paper 1260, 28 September.

Koski, H (2013). ICT Outsourcing, User-Driven and Open Innovation Strategies in the Generation of New Data-Based Solutions. Helsinki, *ETLA Working Papers No. 7*.

Lakomaa E & Kallberg J (2013). "Open Data as a Foundation for Innovation: The Enabling Effect of Free Public Sector Information for Entrepreneurs" *IEEE*, 558 – 563.

Linders, D and Wilson, S (2011). What is open government? One year after the directive, in The Proceedings of the 12th Conference on Digital Government Research, MD, USA, pp. 262-271.

Martin S, Foulonneau M, Turki A & Ihadjadene M (2013) Risk Analysis to Overcome Barriers to Open Data. *Electronic Journal of e-Government*, 11(2), 348-359.

McBride, K (2017). Government as a Platform: Exploiting Open Government Data to Drive Public Service Co-Creation. Tallinn University of Technology.

Mustapha A.I. and Omorede C.K. (2017). Nigerian public service and the challenges of productivity from 2000 – 2015: A theoretical perspective. *Sahel Analyst: Journal of Management Sciences*, 15 (1); 1 -14.

Mustapha A.I., Edegware, J.G and Reason, O (2018). Supervision and Public Service Productivity in Nigeria: A Theoretical Discourse. *Public Policy and Administration Research, 8* (4); 34 – 41.

Nelson, G. (2002). Information Technology in Support of the Tax Administration Functions and Taxpayer Assistance. 3(5), 2–11.

Nugruho, R (2013). *A comparison of open data policies in different countries: Lessons learned for an open data policy in Indonesia*, Delft University of Technology, Indonesia.

OECD, (2005). Oslo Manual – Guidelines for Collecting and Interpreting Innovation Data, Paris: OECD.

Ogbonna, G. N. and Appah, E. (2012). Impact of Tax Reforms and Economic Growth of Nigeria: A Time Series Analysis. *Journal of Social Sciences 4*(1), 62-68.

Open Knowledge (2014). *Global Open Data Index*, Open Knowledge, Cambridge (UK).

Organisation of Economic Corporation and Development (OECD) (nd). OECD Open Government Data Report.

Osborne, S (2006). The new public governance? Taylor & Francis.

Osborne, S and Strokosch, K (2013). "It takes two to tango? Understanding the co-production of public services by integrating the services management and public administration perspectives," *Br. J. Manag.*, 24, (3).

Osborne, S., Radnor, Z., Kinder, T and Vidal, I (2015). "The SERVICE Framework: A Public-service-dominant Approach to Sustainable Public Services," *British Journal of Management*, 26 (3); 424–438.

Shakespeare S (2013). *Shakespeare Review: An Independent Review of Public Sector Information* Department for Business, Innovation & Skills, UK Government, accessed at https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/198752/13-744-shakespeare-review-ofpublic-sector-information.pdf.

Stott, A (2014). *Open Data for Economic Growth* World Bank, Washington, DC (USA), as accessed 13 Jan, 2020 at http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/document/Open-Data-for-Economic-Growth.pdf

Thorhildur, J., Michel, A and Niels, B (2014). Data-Driven Innovation through Open Government Data. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research, 9* (2); 100 – 120.

Torfing, J and Triantafillou, P (2013). "What's in a Name ? Grasping New Public Governance as a Political-Administrative System," *Pap. Present. ECPR Gen. Conf. Bordeaux,* pp. 4–7.

Vickery, G (2011). *Review of recent studies on PSI reuse and related market developments*, Directorate General for Communications Networks, Content & Technology, European Commission, Luxembourg (Luxembourg).

Weinstein J & Golstein J (2012). The Benefits of a Big Tent: Opening Up Government in Developing Countries: A Response to Yu & Robinson's; The New Ambiguity of "Open Government" *UCLA Law Review Discourse* 38, 38–48.

Zuiderwijk A, Janssen M, Choenni S, Meijer R, & Alibaks, R (2012). Socio-Technical Impediments of Open Data. *The Electronic Journal of e-Government, 10*(2); 156–72.

CREATING A MELTING POINT TO DRIVE THE FUTURE WORKSPACE OF NIGERIA

DR. OKWOLI, D. MATTHEW[50] & ALFRED, EBOH[51] & OYIBO PAUL[52]

Introduction

The quality of education and technological capability of a nation determine its rates and patterns of development and industrialization. Technological capability in the form of production, engineering, manufacture of capital goods, and research and development" of a nation are pointers to the effectiveness, efficiency and productivity of its industrial sector (Enos,19677; Fransman, 1884; & Islam, 2001). Enos (December 1977) has developed three fundamental components of technological capability; individuals embodying skills, training and experience and inclination; and a common purpose", which was defined in terms of objectives and motivations. According to Fransman (1984) technological capabilities in developing countries hinge on factors such as "adequate number and quality of human resources with practiced experience, skills and aptitude; useful technological information on sources and conditions of technology transfer; institution for education and training, for research and development, and for engineering design and consultancy; favorable natural environment and factor endowments, attitudes and customs, etc. "Given the place of technology in national development serious nations give undivided attention to technological capability building (Islam, 2001). Technology capability could through indigenous technological innovation or technological transfer; but Nigeria has been unable to acquire advance technological capability through either means. History shows that no nation has become an industrialized society without technological capability, and Nigeria cannot be an exception, poverty will be reduced when employment is available for those willing and able to work.

The super structure of human civilization is built on the foundation of literacy. The impact of literacy on socio-economic development is positive and can be easily determined by comparing the standard of living, per capital income, Gross Domestic Product, industrialization and development of infrastructure within a country. Literacy enhances the working capabilities of people by providing them with skill development. Literacy and socioeconomic development have endless companionship.

The inability of the leaders to make wise and educated decisions and strengthen technical education is robbing the nation the contributions of the graduates to national development. But making a good decision is not a chance act; it requires a skill. Dike (July September 2006) has observed that the under-development status of Nigeria could be linked to the odious neglect of the educational institutions responsible for human capitaldevelopment. Steeten (1994) has observed that development of human capital would help any nation achieve to some extent self-sufficiency in food production,

[50] Department of Public Administration,Kogi State University, Anyigba.
[51] Department of Sociology,Kogi State University, Anyigba.
[52] Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, Prince Abubakar Audu University Anyigba Nigeria

capital and goods and understanding the nature of environment, the preservation of it and eventually will eradicate environmental degradation, decertification, deforestation and soil erosion. The nation's natural gas is being wasted for flaring, which causes an unspeakable environmental degradation in the oil-producing areas due to lack of indigenous technology and local content policy thrust.

However, science and technology has been a part of Nigeria's National policy on primary education (NPE) since 1981 (Moja, 2000), butlike every other policy, its implementation bricklayers, carpenters, painters and auto mechanics, laboratory and pharmacy technicians, electrical/electronic technicians and skilled vocational bruises, etc, which the nation needs to function effectively and efficiently. Yet the leaders have continued to define the linkages between technological development and economic prosperity without providing the resources and effective infrastructure and institutions for national development. Nigeria's inability to acquire the relevant technological know-how due to our educational system largely accounts for the unemployment challenges vis-à-vis low level of development and pervading poverty in the society today.

The role of education in the development of a society has been vastly documented in academic journals. The need for Nigerian leaders to payclose attention to the needs of the educational sector and treat it as a matter of urgency is, in many ways, determined by the quality and level of educational attainment of the population. The youths which are the leaders of tomorrow, should be given the appropriate quality academic training and in environment that would enable them to reach their full potential.

Nigeria has toiled with some educational programs which have only served as conduits to transfer money to the corrupt political leaders and their cronies. For instance, the nation launched the universal primary education (UPE) in 1976, but as noted, the program failed due to lack of fund necessitated by corruption among other factors. Nigeria has again launched another mass oriented education program, this time branding it the Universal

Basic Education (UEB). President, Olusegun Obasanjo, declared during e launching of the program in Sokoto that the nation "cannot afford to fail this time around". However, not long after that, the federal government reported that the falling standard of education in Nigeria is caused by "acute shortage of qualified teachers in the primary school level. It is reported that about 23 ercent of the over 400,000 teachers employed in the nation's primary schools do not possess the Teachers' Grade Two Certificates, even when the National Certificate of Education (NCE) is the minimum educational requirement one should posses to teach nation's primary schools (Ogbeifumand Olisa, the Vanguard Online, July 1, 2001).

Despite all the alternatives, the infrastructure and facilities remain inadequate for coping with a system that is growing at a very rapid pace.

Due to poor financing, the quality of education offered is affected by poor attendance and inadequate preparation by teachers at all levels. The moral ofteachers is low due to basic condition of service and low salaries. Furthermore, physical facilities need to be upgraded and resources such as libraries. The quest for meeting these basic education need has been the cause of unending crisis between government and trade unions such

as Nigeria Union of Teachers (No.13 Academic Staff Union of University (ASUU), Non Academic Staff Union (NASU) etc. (Nwagwu 1997). The effect of the financial crisis is that the tertiary institutions are mostly ill equipped for self employment and there exists limited jobs to absorb them in the nation. Hence they readily become addition to the nation's unemployment figure. It is known (at least in the developed world) that education determines, not earning capacity, but also the very quality of human life (even longevity has relationship to education). In a society that appreciates educated class, those with good education tend to earn higher incomes but they also are in a better position to live a better and healthy life.

Higher education gives one a greater sense of how to reduce risks in life and change their behavior. As Davies noted, confidence, self-reliance, and adaptability are all earmarks of advanced education (Davies Nov. 30, 2001,B16 B17).

Lack of good education and unemployment in Nigeria would contribute to many social ills, including crime, prostitution and the breakdown in law and order. For this, the society should invest more on the youth, and educate them to differentiate rights from wrong before they become adults. As Reousseau has noted, "People, like men (men woman are) incorrigible. One (had habits) and customs are established and prejudices ingrained, it is a dangerous and futile enterprise to try to reform them; the people cannot bear to have the diseases treated, even in order to destroy it, like those stupid and fearful patients who tremble at the sight of the physician (Rousseau trans By Betts, 1994).

In short, how much a nation progresses has a lot to do with the quality of education and educational attainment of its citizens According to Chukwuije (2005), even the quality of those who had formal education is egregiously low the former minister of education. Sam Egwu held that about 80% of Nigerian graduates are not employable (Ajibade 2009). In a country where majority of the citizens are deficient of quality education, there is the possibility of grave threats to national security.

This is because majority of them can readily be manipulated as it has been the case in some parts of Nigeria nfortunately, socio-economic condition of our country is quite.unsatisfactory due to the high rate of illiteracy among the people. HM Philips also noted that an illiteracy person has hundred enemies such as epidemics, hunger, disorder, humiliation and many others. Thus, illiteracy is a course to humanity. To reduce the high rate of illiteracy, several schemes of education have been launched in Nigeria from the time of independence.

Despite all these strenuous efforts, literacy rate of our country is still in a negligible stage. This high rate of illiteracy among the masses is the only factor that responsible for low socio-economic development of our country nce, there is a need to identify the various consequences that are caused y illiteracy. This paper mainly focuses on the social and economicconsequences of public private partnership

Human Resources Development

Human resources are one of the most significant variables in the transformation of the individual. The catalytic of human resource in the development process is clearly illustrated by the development experience of

Japan Okojie, (1995) observed that educated labour force facilitates rapid productivity and economic growth. Educational expenditure has formed one of the largest components of public sectors spending in Nigeria. In most developing countries, formal education is the largest industry and the greatest consumer of public revenues. The republics of the Korea and Malaysia are some examples of high employment economies that inves heavily in the development of human capabilities in areas such as basicucation, health and technical education, research and development and in the organization of institutional training to address identified training needs (Awopagha, 2003). The federal government of Nigeria has put in place some programmes that include Universal Basic Educational (UBA), Mass Literacy Programme OVILP), introduction of computer education in secondary school and approval of private tertiary institutions and discretionary admissions.

The Nigeria education research council (NERO) in 1981 described education as the process by which the young of the human family are prepared for a happy and useful membership of the world into which they are born. The failure of the sub-Saharan African to invest in human capital is manifested in the backwardness of these countries. The implication is that a country that desires to accelerate its development process must take capacity building seriously.

Total Federal Government expenditure on education in 1970 was N6.2million, representing only 0.69 percent of the total governmenttexpenditure. In 1991, total government spending in this sector amounted to N40300.7million and this increased to a total of N66997.2million in the proceedings year. Federal government investment in this sector was N114738.0million in 2005, representing 20.68% of the total federal government investment in Nigeria. It is the human resources of any nation, rather than its physical capital and material resources, which ultimately determine the character and pace of its economic and social environment.The importance of education is reminiscent in its role as a means of understanding, controlling and redesigning of human environment (CBN, 2000). As once remarked by Ola (1998), “if you see any economy that is not doing well, find out what is spent on education”.

As recent and perhaps extreme version of this position, especially in view of the financial windfalls of OPEC oil nations, has been expounded by Professor Habison who argues that: Human resources...constitute the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations, capital and natural resources are passive factors of production, human beings are the passive agents who accumulates capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations and carry forward national development clearly, a country which is unable to develop the skillsand knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else.

Partnership Education Delivery

Like it was indicated, up till today, there is no constitutional accepted form of public private partnership education like it is in other areas of life endeavour. What exists is the freedom education for all, and the acceptability for anybody, whether individuals,

associations, corporate organizations, religious bodies or governments (Local, State, Federal) to establish schools. On this premise, even though the schools have the same focus or the same educational aims and objectives, the partnership are still fragile making the way to education delivery porous and rugged hy the achievements of the aims and objectives of education in this country are still not satisfactory. Since these partnerships have no statutory grounds binding on them, the operations of both governments ned schools and the private schools are likely to be distinctively different. What the National Policy on Education spells out is not rigidly followed to the latter by the private schools, in particular. For example, the curriculum of each of the levels or systems of education has operational or functional variations because of certain designed interests on the private schools owners, thereby making the public private partnership education delivery a mirage. There are many differential financial shortcomings in the public private partnerships education. For example, the way government funds education is not the way the private does its own because of its financial inadequacies. Even the government that is said to be financially buoyant does not allocate enough money to educational sector. The annual budget with regards to the money allocated to Education is a case in point The profit maximization concept of the private schools owners is, indeed, another vital point in the public private partnerships education delivery. Money gain, instead of educational gain is the core of the private schools establishments. And if this forms partnership, then the aims and bjectives of PPPs will be defeated. The issue of performance specification is problematic because there is no general supervisory coverage

In other words, the legislative function in the area of supervision in the public private partnerships education is absent; hence, the generally accepted standards demanded of these partnerships are not there. Because of the financial inadequacies in the PPPs education, both infrastructural and instructional materials are not enough to effect maximum pedagogical performance that will bring in quality, in particular and education delivery generally Partnerships, generally and PPPs in education in particular has failed in Nigeria because their aims and objectives have not been either identified or properly defined. In most cases, the aims and objectives are broad whiccould lead to misunderstanding. Often, lack of coordination and conflict between the partners exhibit their ugly heads. Lack of proper coordination and agreements make PPPs Education fail in Nigeria. Osborne (2000:224) is in line with this view as he states, sometimes partnerships fail because they difficulty in successfully coordinating the programmes and approaches. Furthermore, barriers such as lack of institutional capacity can also impact on the partnership. The inability of departments to enforce agreements has been highlighted as one of the major stumbling block in the failure of PPP projects.

Strengthening The Public Private Partnerships- Education Delivery,

Today in Nigeria public private partnerships is one of the methods of delivery services to the Nigerian public. This is an alternative service delivery method that is used to improve the economy of the country if effectively implemented. PPPs Education Delivery has a lot of legislative and financial windows that are negative as identified and discussed above.

These negatives can make the PPPs education delivery to slack. The following can strengthen PPPs education delivery 1. The Nigerian government should code out vehemently with an enforceable law purely for the operation of the public private partnerships education as it is with the PPPs' sectors like health, construction, etc. This will limit the excesses of their operation. 2. The dictate of the National Policy on Education should be rigidly implemented. For example, the curriculum of all levels of education must be followed and made functional by private schools in particular. 3. The participation of private organization in the financing of education should be highly encouraged. Government should increase education money in the Annual Budge to 25% of the total budget as it is done in the developed countries. 4. The private arm of the PPPs education should discourage the monetary gain. Maximization of monetary profit should not be seen as the over-riding benefit of education (the private schools). The general aims and objectives of education in Nigeria should be the stronghold of their educational institutions.

5. There should be effective coordination and agreements in the execution of the PPPs education functions. Efficacious ground, good communication should be created to dispel misunderstandings and conflicts between partners (privates and government). Remember that public and private educations are partners in the education industry; and that no amount of sacrifice is too big for education delivery in Nigeria. Benefits of Public-Private Partnership Cost Savings: These can result through more efficient and cost effective operations and service delivery. The private partners can contribute to cost reduction through the application of economies of scale in providing, operating and maintaining facilities, the use of innovative technologies, adopting more flexible procurement and compensation arrangements and by reducing overhead costs. ü Risk Sharing: The associated risks can be shared with a private sector partner. ü Improved Levels of Service: More innovative approaches can be introduced in order to increase the level as well as quality of service. ü Enhancement of Revenue Generation: Apart from setting appropriate user fees, which fairly reflect the cost of service delivery, PPP can offer the opportunity for introducing more innovative ways of generating revenue.ü More Efficient Implementation: Through more efficient decision making processes and collaboration, PPP can facilitate more efficient ways of project implementation. ü Economic Benefits: Public-private partnership can stimulate employment generation, transfer of expertise and economic growth. (Kolade and Babalola, 2007). Challenges of Public-Private Partnership Privately own higher institutions are in the categories of Build own and operate model of PPP. Despite the immense benefits of private involvement in university education as highlighted above, the move had been criticized on various grounds. Some of this criticism includes; ü Loss of Control by the Public Sector: Where the private partner commits more funds to a project than the public sector, there is a likelihood that the private partner would seek for more control over how services are provided and priced. In this type of situation, the onus of establishing services standards and ensuring the protection of public interest rests squarely with the government Learning Outcomes and Equity Goals: Public private partnership in education sector appears to be gaining popularity around the world but this contrasts with the fact that existing research on the effectiveness of these interventions in the improvement of different aspects of the educational system is still scarce and far from conclusive (Day Ashley et al., 2014; Gerger Fontdevila, Rogen and Gurnet, 2017; Waslander Peter and Van Der Weide, 2010). In view of the purported

general descriptions of the benefits of educational PPPs in terms of expanding access, improving quality and equity, existing, academic evidence and findings shows no consensus as to whether PPP in educational sector yields the desired results in the areas of learning outcomes, education inequalities, efficiency, parental satisfaction, innovation and teachers' job performance. (LaRocque, 2008; Pavon, 2008). On the contrary, the differences in student learning outcomes are less likely to be attached to the inherent quality of the providers, but tend to be related to their socio-economic composition (OECD, 2012), or to the fact that they are subject to more intense hours of teaching in privately managed schools (Tennes Bonal, Verger, and Zanacjo, 2015). Equity is, however, not so balanced. For instance, most studies suggest that PPPs is based on demand-supply forces for funding tend to increase educational inequalities and school socio-economic segregation (Alegre and Ferret, 2010). ü Increase Costs:

Since the delivery of services through PPP requires some degree of cost recovery or pricing policy to reflect all relevant costs, then one can expect some increase in user fees for the affected services. ü Accountability: Accountability is, in all types of PPP arrangements, a key component, but also a key concern. The main areas of accountability and state control in educational PPPs are: the transmission of a national curriculum, quality of school facilities, teacher training and development, teachers' salary and working conditions (including students-teacher ratios), gratuity (ensuring that schools do not charge uncovered fees to families), democratic school governance (guaranteeing participation of teachers, families and other stakeholders at the school level), as well as transparent students' admission processes (controlling against discriminatory students selection). For governments to monitor and enforce adequate performance in all of these intrinsically different areas, strong regulatory and management capacity is needed. Unfortunately, the level of accountability in PPP is below expectation in many countries. (Antoni and Mauro 2017). Similarly, Kolade and Babalola (2017) posit that with PPP, the lines of accountability for the provision of services are often not very clear to the public, to the extent that this may result in public criticism of the partnership arrangement. ü Absence of Competition: Fairness to consumers can be ensured through healthy competition among bidders. Some key benefits of competitions which include innovation, efficiency and reduced costs may be done away with, if there are few potentials private partners with the expertise, resources and/or the ability to respond to a request for partnership for proposals from the government. ü Poor Quality of Service Rendered: A situation whereby the private sector partners fails to break even on its investment, the leeway is to render low quality service-PP in education sector is not an exemption. Private sector will do what it is paid to do and no more than that- therefore incentives and performance requirements need to be clearly set out in the contract. Focus should be on performance requirements that are out-put selection of private sector partners.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper discussed "creating a melting point to drive the future workspace of Nigeria" which is unconnected amongst others the role of public private partnership towards the development of higher education in Nigeria. The paper posits that government who has continued to be the main financier of education in Nigeria has not

been able to meet the demands of the three levels of education i.e primary, secondary and tertiary education systems in the country. Owing to multi-faceted nature of government responsibilities, the era when government exclusively fund education is winding up. In a bid to achieve quality in university education, government should collaborate with privately own industries and NGOs who are favourably disposed to the course of education. Government should synergies with companies that have the required wherewithal such as technological know-how, fiancé and human resources so as to ensure quality service delivery in tertiary institutions. The onus also lies on the government to empower ministry of education and other related parastatals that has authority over the aspect of quality control to monitor and uphold standards in private institutions. Sustainable and systematic transformation efforts must involve public private partnerships whose contributions are imperative in achieving the desired changes in the functions of the three levels of education in Nigeria. Finally, to facilitate improvement in the three levels of education, government should continue to improve on ICRC national policy of public private partnership in the country.

References

Akaranta, O. (2014). Building and maintaining higher education ecosystem in the 21 st century. Paper presented at a workshop organized by the centre of higher education studies, University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt. Antoni erger and Mauro Moschetti (2017).

Public Private Partnerships as an education policy approach: Multiple meanings, risks and challenges, education research and foresight. Working papers.

Barlow, J. Roehrich, J.K. and Wright, S. (2013). Europe sees mixed results from public private partnerships for building and managing health care facilities and services. Health Affairs. 32(1): 146-154.

Day Ashley, L., Mchloughlin, C., Aslam, M., Engel, J., Wales, J., Rawal, S., Batley, R., Kingdom, G., Nicolai, S. and Rose, P. (2014). The role and impact of private schools in developing countries. Education rigorous literature review. London, DFID.

Kolade, O. and Babalola, B.J. (2007). Impact of public private partnership quality assurance management of higher education in Nigeria. LaRocque, N. (2008).

Public private partnerships in basic education: An International Review. Reading, CFBT Education Trust.

TOWARDS THE APPLICATION OF AN ALTERNATIVE PARADIGM TO THE WEBERIAN IDEAL BUREAUCRACY IN THE NIGERIAN PUBLIC SERVICE

ADESOYE ISIAKA MUSTAPHA PHD; EMMANUEL I. OKONMAH PHD AND PATIENCE OMAMOR (MRS)[53]

Abstract

The Nigerian public bureaucracy is widely criticized as been inherently dysfunctional and has inefficiency and ineffectiveness as part of its pathologies. The focus of this paper is to examine the dysfunctional aspects of bureaucracy, the impact of hierarchical authority structure in public service and to proffer an alternative paradigm. The paper relied on secondary sources of data and adopted the cooperative social system as its theoretical framework. The work drew its conclusions from the secondary data analyzed that the Nigerian public service has actually fallen below public expectations in respect of its statutory responsibilities and that there is interference with the rationality and objectivity of public officials through hierarchical authority structures. In view of the foregoing, the paper recommends cooperative social system that is capable of correcting the abnormalities of the bureaucratic system and also suggests other administrative reforms aimed at repositioning the public service for better service delivery that will birth sustainable development.

Keywords: Bureaucracy, authority, public service, responsibility, accountability

Introduction

The human resource is considered as the most important, most valuable, most complicated and the least predictable of all resources available to any human organization. It is this resource that processes other resources in order that the result of these processes would constitute the goals of the organization (Mbaku 1994). Basically organizations are established with the aim of achieving specifically predetermined objectives (Mustapha and Oyedeji, 2019). These objectives are designed to be achieved through the optimum combination of both human and material resources available to the organization. Human resources who are

[53] Department of Public Administration, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria,isiakamustapha1961@gmail.com, +2348033552838; +2348066647630; +2347065307205

the organization employees are most valuable. It is the team leadership role, which is essentially about harnessing people's efforts in the pursuit of organizational goals (Ibietan, 2011)

Essentially, the civil/public service is the administrative bureaucracy which occupies a critical position in the political system of nations in terms of revenue generation, formulation and implementation of government policies and programmes (Osimen, 2013). The public service, all over the world is perceived as promoting sustainable and viable macro-economic development receiving enormous attention. Because one thing is to articulate development and another is to attain or accomplish the plan. Thus, public service is one of the major drivers of sustainable development in the modern societies (Anazodo, Okoye and Chukwuemeka, 2012).

The public service has always been the tool available to Nigerian for the implementation of developmental goals and objectives (Mustapha and Omorede, 2017). It is seen as pivot for growth of the economy. It is responsible for the creation of an appropriate and conducive environment in which the economy can perform optimally and it is this catalytic role of the public service that propelled government all over the world to search continuously for better ways to deliver their services (Amoako, 2003). In Nigeria, the public service has been subjected to various metamorphic changes from the colonial era through independence to the present times. Among others, it has been modified by successive governments such as the civilian and military. Structural changes not withstanding, the traditional role of the civil service would remain the same. The public service in this manner acts as a driving force in the process of national development (Edigin, 2010)

Obikeze (2004) contends that public service is the instrument government uses to regulate and manage all aspects of the society. Thus, the condition of a society is largely determined by its public service. According to Akpeke and Ejere (1998), public bureaucracy is the administrative machinery of the government. It operates within the framework of the political system and the agency through which policies of government are made and implemented. It comprises the officials of government in the legislative, executive and judicial arms of government (Mustapha and Aimuan, 2019). Bureaucracy is a rational legal administrative system used in the management of an organization or government and a well known scholar with whom bureaucracy is mostly associated is Max Weber (Aibieyi, 2011).

The public perception about Nigerian bureaucratic system is characterized with inefficiency, red tapism, lack of initiative, inexpedient rigidity in the approach to solving human problems, undue fussiness on the part of officials (Mustapha and Osaghae, 2018). This appears to be the sum of impressions that spring to mind at the mention of the word, "bureaucracy" when applied to the way that public officials go about their business (Adebayo, 2004).

Statement of the problem

In the present day Nigerian public service, there tends to be numerous bureaucratic problems that have disrupted the smooth flow of public administration. The lapses have not only weakened the civil service, they have brought it into ridicule before its immediate public as well as the international community. The law and order that Nigeria bureaucracy inherited at independence from the colonial masters seems to have eluded it and so adapting to the new tasks and challenges of development has become a task difficult to accomplish. Administrative reforms have been a response to the foregoing as well as to the bureaucratic incapacitation which prevents the officials and bureaucrats from carrying out their functions effectively (Mustapha and Omorede, 2017). According to Obiora (2014), various challenges have confronted the Nigerian public service such as institutional incapability, unethical practices, immorality in the public service, deficient social values, politicization of bureaucracy, over-bearing involvement of government of the day in the public service and deep seated corruption. It has also been observed that programmes and policies made for sustainable development have not been reasonably implemented because the Nigerian public service has been inflicted and bedeviled by socio-political bureaucratic viruses (Amoako: 2003). From t he foregoing, this could be traceable to self-serving tendencies of bureaucrats which have weakened the original conceptual foundation of bureaucratic structures as projected by Max Weber. It is therefore against the backdrop that this study intends to attempt constructing an alternative paradigm to the Weberian Ideal Bureaucracy in human resource organization in the Nigerian Public Service, the sum total of which is the urgent need to modernize the organizational structures of the Nigerian public service (Mustapha and Osaghae 2018).

Objectives of the Study

This study sets out to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify the dysfunctional aspects of bureaucracy in the Nigerian Public Service
2. To examine the impact of hierarchical authority structure in Nigerian Public Service,
3. To determine an alternative paradigm to the Weberian Ideal in Human Resource organization in Nigeria's Public Service.
4. To proffer suggestions that will improve the performance of Nigerian Public Service as agency of development.

Methodology

This work is a basic or theoretical research and so it relies on secondary sources of data for its analysis. Such secondary data centre on the existing theories in the explanation of the issues surrounding the bureaucratic elements of the Nigerian public administration. The data collected were subjected to desk analysis upon which conclusions were drawn and recommendations given on the need to take a second look at the dysfunctional nature of the Weberian Ideal bureaucracy vis a vis the consideration of the Barnardian Organization as a Cooperative Social System.

Theoretical Framework

This study utilized the concept of Chester Barnard's (1938|) theory of cooperative social system. This theory is opposed to traditional definition of organization which laid emphasis on membership and not on its functioning. Barnard viewed organization as a system of consciously coordinated of two or more persons held together by a capacity to generate common purpose, by a willingness on the part of its members to contribute to its processes and the ability to communicate with each other (Sapru, 2013). He argued that inducing a willingness to cooperate involves the system of incentives offered by the organizations and contributions required of the participants. This means that organization function through equilibrium of contributions and inducements. Contributions are the effort of Nigerian Public Servants or administrators and inducements such as incentives or satisfaction offered by the organization (Nigerian government as employers). The organization (Nigerian government), at each level must provide satisfaction to the members (Nigerian Public Servants) to obtain contributions. This implies that government must provide incentive such as working materials, inducements like money and desirable working conditions to Public Servant (Sharma, Sadane, and Kaur 2012).

The principle of hierarchy advocated by Weber brings about rigidity in administrative organization and is not suitable for the development of dynamic human relationship among its members. Cooperation originates in the need to accomplish purposes that cannot be accomplished individually and means of overcoming limitations imposed by the physical environment or the biological characteristics of the individual depending on one's perspective. What this implies is that Nigerian public servants must cooperate because human beings have several limitations which can be overcome by cooperative social action. (Edigin, 2010). Barnard also advocated the acceptance of authority, according to him, the basis of legitimacy of the superior's authority is the acceptance by the subordinate. Thus, the superior can exercise authority only when it is accepted by the subordinate. Barnard contends that a cooperative social system is held together by the ability of its members to communicate with each other. Hence, there must be a well-defined organizational structure in the Nigerian public service to be able to implement effective policies that will enhance national development (Fadia and Fadia, 2009).

Conceptual Clarifications

Organization: An organization refers to when people come together to work in pursuit of common goals, they establish a system of communication in order to attain the common goals, they also in the process divide tasks according to members area of specialization so that the human resources within the organization can be properly harnessed to achieved the set objectives (Fajana: 2002). Organizations have evolved from the tall, rigid, bureaucratic structure of weber and Fayol's prescription to more flexible, flat or delayed adaptations with definite aim of re-engineering the process of work in favour of speed, timeliness and efficiency. Indeed, there is greater emphasis on task and team building than on functions, product or market as criteria for composing organizational structures. The main features of modern structures are integration of roles, computer based information system, task reconstruction, cross-functional teams and less hierarchy (Cipmn, 2014).

Bureaucracy: The word bureaucracy is 'a body of non-elective government officials or "an administrative policy-making group. Contemporary usage and ideas of bureaucracy is ascribed to Max Weber, a German sociologist who laid down the basic principles of bureaucracy. He defended it and argued that bu-

reaucracy constitutes the most efficient and rational way one can organize human activity and that systematic processes are necessary to maintain order that will maximize efficiency and eliminate favouritism. (Starling, 2011)

Public Service: The public service has been defined as "an agglomeration of organizations that exist as part of government machinery for implementing policies and programmes as well as ensuring continuity of administration" (Adegoroye, 2005). It therefore means that the public services consists of officials of government at the federal, state and local government levels in the ministries, parastatals, extra-ministerial departments and the paramilitary organizations (Mustapha and Oyedeji, 2019). According to Suleiman and Madugu (2015), there is a tendency to treat public service and civil service as synonymous. However, public service is a generic term used to capture the broader institutional arrangements for the conduct of government business. While civil service is more specific as it refers to the service of the federation or state in civil capacity as staff of the office of the president or governor, the vice president or the deputy governor, ministries or departments of government of the federation.

Public services are service of the federation or state in any capacity including those of the members of the National and state assemblies, staff of judiciary, the civil service, any agency, commission, board or authority established by law, government parastatals, staff of a company or enterprise in which government or its agency owns a controlling share of interest, members of the armed forces, the police force of the federation and staff of local government council (Aibieyi, 2011; Mustapha and Oyedeji, 2019). Public services tends to be those considered so essential to modern life that for moral reasons their universal provision should be guaranteed, that they may be associated with fundamental human rights. The public service is central to the development of any nation, this informed Bentham's view of the public servant as a benevolent social guardian. Bentham's view is premised upon the assumption that public servants are somehow morally and intellectually above the system and selflessly seek the welfare of the people even when the people fail to understand (Suleiman and Madugu, 2015).

Max Weber's theory of Bureaucracy

Max viewed bureaucracy as the most rational forms of organizational technique superior to all other. In Weber's words, bureaucracy is an administrative body of appointed official" and from a purely technical point of view capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and sense formally the most rational known means of carrying out imperative control over human beings. It is superior to any other form in precision, instability, in the stringency of its disciplined and in its reliability. He equally noted that bureaucracy is superior both in intensive efficiency and in scope of its operations, and is formally capable of application to all kinds of administrative tasks (Sapru, 2013). He stressed that its rationality consists of the application of precise techniques of legal standards and financial accounting to work of government, which can be achieved organizationally through hierarchy of offices and the detachment of bureaucrats from any personal interest in the results of the decisions. While Adebayo (2004) thought differently, as he argued that bureaucracy is associated with inefficiency, lack of initiative, unintelligent rigidity in the approach to human problems, undue fussiness and bossiness on the part of officials. However, Weber advocated for pursuit of freedom for man, as he rightly noted that man was unduly being exploited. To this end, bureaucracy has been presented as an opportunity for the division of labour amongst workers with a consisted pattern of recruitment and style leading to career building. The hierarchy amongst officers as propounded by Max paved the way for formal network that connects organizational actors to one another through the flows of information. Tonwe (1998) agreed that Max Weber was a highly careful observer who first noticed the dynamics of bureaucracy in the emergent large organization after the industrial revolution and he made unequalled effort to analyze the concept and dynamics of bureaucracy so much so that he was regarded as the father of bureaucracy. According to Aibieyi (2011) bureaucracy is the connecting link between the managers of the organization and the workers. It is when the managers discover that the work load has exceeded manageable proportion that they are compelled to bring in more hands and share their tasks with them and these people further share their tasks with others who are engaged by the organization as a result of expansion. In this manner, a form of hierarchy develops where workers find themselves working for the accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives. In the course of trying to actualized the organizational goals, workers are not doubt connected to the managers of the organization hence they are called bureaucrats.

Bureaucracy and Hierarchy

According to Akpeke and Ejere (1998), public bureaucracy is the administrative machinery of the government. It operates within the framework of the political system. It is the agency through which the policies of government are made and implemented. It embraces the officials of government in the legislative, executive and judicial arms of government. The bureaucracy is a rational legal administrative system used by private organization or government. In weber's own words, a freely developed bureaucracy is such a system whereby the individual officials are appointed and function according to the Principle of hierarchy

Hierarchy is one of the core principles of classical administration. By the early 1900s Max Weber's bureaucracy theory emphasized the principle of hierarchy in which lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one. This means that every subordinate in the administrative hierarchy is accountable to his/her superior for his or her action (Sapru, 2013). It is the channel of command and principle channel of communication, downward and upward, along which flow information. It is the channel for delegation of authority, internal control of the establishment and the line of fiscal accountability of disbursing officers (Fadia and Fadia, 2009).

According to Sapru (2013), each officer has a clearly defined sphere of competence in the legal sense. Thus, a systematic division of labour, power and responsibility defined by administrative regulations, are essential for the functioning of a rational organization. Not only must each office holder know his job and have the necessary authority to carry it out, he must also know the limits of his job, obligations and power as not to undermine the organizational hierarchical structure.

The Nigerian Public Service

The Nigerian public service no doubt is a reflection of the country's social, political and cultural environment. These environmental factors combined in various ways to shape the growth, structure, functions and the changing phases of public service. As a consequence of the above, the Nigerian public service is characterized by a history of reforms spanning over four decades. Examples of these reforms are: Hunts Commission (1934), Harragin (1947), foot Commission (1948), Pillipson Adebo Commission (1954), Gorsuch Committee (1954), Newns Committee (1958/1959), Mbanefo commission (1959), Elwood Grading Team (1969), Adebo Commission (1971), Udoji Public Service Review Com-

mission (1972 – 1974) Dotun Philips study Group on the review of the structure of the civil service (1988), Presidential TaskForce on Civil Service Reforms (1985), and Allison Ayide Committee (1994) (UNDP, 2001).

These reform commissions were set up to address the myriad problems of Nigeria's public service of different times. However the Udoji Public Service Review Commission of 1974 stands out in its bold and firm recommendation for the improvement of workers' salaries and the adoption and application of modern management techniques in the public service.

The public service has undergone a number of reforms with the aim of enhancing its efficiency and effectiveness. The mission of the reform is to build a public service that is result-oriented, customer driven, investor friendly, accountable, enhancing overall national development (Oronsaye, 2009).

The Nigerian Public Service in the Context of the Weberian Postulation on Bureaucracy

Generally speaking, the public service of a nation is the centerpiece of its administrative activities and performances. Its output mirrors the performance of the ruling government. The public service is expected to play a vital role in the political, economic and the overall social development of a nation with the emergence of modern states and the development of the democratic system of government. The public service main task is the implementation and execution of the policies decided on by the legislature. (Adebayo, 2004)

In contemporary world, no government can discharge its obligations without an efficient and organized public service. Thus, the major task of the Nigerian public or civil servant is to assist in the formulation and execution of policies by assembling and interpreting data for decisions on new policy and to implement post-legislative policies. As an instrument of development, it has to prepare development plans, know its role in the achievement of targets that are set within the area of its responsibility whether large or small.

The public administrators or bureaucrats help in making and implementing policies, they therefore play very important role in strategic and functions of governance of any nation (Edigin, 2010). In Nigeria, due to the shortcomings of

bureaucracy principally due to its origin as a colonial civil service, it has not been effective in relation to changes in socio-political development. The "law and order" bureaucracy that was inherited at independence by Nigeria from the colonial masters has not been able to adapt to the changed social and political situations, the new tasks and challenges of development. The Nigerian bureaucracy right from the onset was not geared towards development as it was intended to serve the interest of the colonial master. Thus, the public service is generally considered to be unproductive and characterized with bureaucratic pathologies (Kuvaas, 2008).

Dysfunctional Aspects of Bureaucracy

Fadia and Fadia (2009) viewed bureaucracy from the perspective of the pathological or dysfunctional aspects of its behavior including slowness, routine and complications of procedures causing frustrations to the members, clients or subjects of administrative organization. They also noted that Weberian model is confined to the study of formal bureaucratic structure only. It fails to take notice of the informal relationships, informal norms and values in organizations.

Simon in Fadia and Fadia (2009) observed that Weberian ideal bureaucracy would not attain maximum efficiency as it emphasizes more on the structure of the organization than on the human beings who personify it. The Weberian ideal type, he argued, is subject to the dysfunctional consequences of failing to take into account the individual or behavioural aspects of the people who work within the organization system. He noted that the bureaucratic form of organization has been quite useful at a certain point of time in history but its capacity for adaptation to change is, however, rather low. According to him in the developing countries (like Nigeria) where speedy change is needed to bring about socio-economic development, bureaucracy is misfit. It has been observed by scholars that the organizational design at best can function in a stable environmental situation. In an unstable environment as in the course of management of development, the structure will be unsuitable to meet the demands of the situation.

Bureaucracies often have within them the seeds of their own incompetence like a bad genetic inheritance transmitted from one generation of bureaucrats to another hanging on to the same so-called Weberian ideal that has become less fashionable and less effective.

The Impact of Hierarchy on Authority, Responsibilty and Accountability in Public Service Authority

Authority is the legal right of a superior officer to command his subordinates. Authority flows from the superiors to subordinates where order and instruction are given to subordinates to perform the task assigned to them. The implication of this hierarchy chart is that the character of top management (superiors) and their philosophy have an influence on the extent to which authority is delegated. Sometimes, superior officers become despotic and their power becomes limitless. They believe that the more power and authority they possess, the better for their supervisory prowess and achievement of the organizational goals (Mustapha and Aimuan, 2019).

Another major problem of hierarchy in public sector which affected efficiency is failure of some superior officers to delegate functions/authority to subordinates. Such officers want to see and personally handle every major issue in the office. In the view of Okoh (2008) such behavior slows down the pace of work only to be rushed at the eleventh hour. That process kills initiative of the lower officers, consequently resulting into inductiveness and inefficiency.

Akpekpe and Ejere in Aibieyi (2011) argued that Weber's analysis of bureaucracy is incomplete particularly from the view point of behavioral aspects of life within bureaucracies. They equally noted that hierarchical authority structures and depersonalized procedures create condition which reduces its instrumental capabilities. What this implies is that bureaucracy's emphasis on control through rules and hierarchical relationships in the Nigerian public service which encourage behavioural rigidity, unwillingness to take risky decisions on the individual and group levels throughout the organizations cause delay in the disposal of work. Looking at the Weberian ideal structures of hierarchy, information flows from top-down. Contrary to this position, Barnard's cooperative social system theory contends that rigid of flow of information is no longer fashionable when it comes to the basic interaction among employees. Thus, authority flows from the persons who want to obey (Sapru 2013)

Responsibilty

Responsibility according to Laxmikanth (2013) is the obligation of subordinate to perform the duties assigned to him. This arises out of superior – subordinate relationship in which subordinate agrees to carry out duty given to him. Thus,

responsibility cannot be shifted because it is absolute and flow from bottom to top. The implication of this is that some subordinates avoid responsibility for fear of making mistakes which he/she will be reprimanded or because of lack of appropriate skill, as such there is over dependence on the superior officer to give directives.

Egonmwan (2018) opined that many superior officers also lack confidence in their subordinates which cases over interference that may constitute conflict in the organization.

Authority, responsibility and accountability emanate from the organizational structures in which they must function. Each organization has structures that define the ways labour is divided, how specialized roles and functions are coordinated, how information flows among the people and groups, and how the system of control is to work. According to Aibieyi (2011), these structures, visualized in the form of an organization chart establish how roles, expectation and resource allocations are determined for the employees in the given organization. The structures are inherently conservative in that they are slow to change. Thus, one of the perennial complaints about Nigerian bureaucracy is its lack of responsiveness to changing conditions. This structure also allowed for pervasive control from the top of an organizational pyramid. Employees in organizational strait jackets are unlikely to exercise initiative. Like automations and human robots, they perform their prescribed duties until appropriate bureaucratic authority tells them otherwise. Sharms, Sadana and Kaur (2012) argued that bureaucracy is an imperfect tool. It is inappropriate to the needs of highly professionalized workers because of its structure of top - down authority and its tradition of hierarchy, position-conscious and authority-inclined orientation.

Accountability

The concept of accountability connotes the obligations of the administrators and public servants to give satisfactory account of their performance and the manner in which they exercised power conferred on them (Laxmikanth, 2013). The implication of this is that, the official in the public sector is answerable to a higher authority for the actions and activities of his/her subordinate. Therefore, superiors cannot pass blame or shift it to their subordinates whenever they act unethically and this undermines accountability in the public sector.

Another underlying problem of hierarchy on accountability is that public servants are open to public criticism. Officials are constantly conscious of public accountability and are therefore anxious not to make mistakes that would ex-

pose them. The result is that officials tend to take pains to examine every issue from all possible points of view. In the pursuit of a reputation for accuracy and impartiality, forms are devised, circulars are issued and in the final analysis are codified into rules and regulations. All these result in a somewhat cumbersome process which causes delay pejoratively referred to as 'red tapism'. With the above analysis, it is very clear that the ideal bureaucracy of Max Weber has not been effective as a developmental model in the Nigerian public service hence the position of this paper for an alternative paradigm.

Cooperative Social System as an Alternative Paradigm to the Weberian Ideal Bureaucracy

Cooperation simply means the readiness of individuals to help one another. It emanates from voluntary (not command or force) actions of people working in an organization, hence an important element in organization. Laxmikanth (2013) supporting this view noted that "an organization is more than its structure and relationship as spelt out in its organizational charts". He equally posited that organization is a social system in which its members develop patterns of behavior which usually may deviate from official directives.

The application of cooperative social system as an alternative paradigm in human resource organization has become imperative in the light of inherent pitfalls in the Weberian ideal. The paradigm which is championed by Chester Barnard in his book, **The Functions of the Executive,** posits that cooperation originates in the need to accomplished purposes that cannot be accomplished individually. This needs for purposeful activity leads to the organization of cooperative activities to achieve joint purposes. He viewed organization as a cooperative system having three elements;

1). Common purpose.
ii). The willingness of certain people to contribute to the functioning of the organization.
iii). The ability of such people to communicate with each other (Sapru, 2013).

The ability to induce a willingness to cooperate involves the system of incentives offered by the organization and contributions required of the participants. The organization here means the government while the participants are the pub-

lic servants. He sees communication as a vital dynamic of the organizational behavior and believed that it is a major shaping force in the organization. In his words, "…the absence of a suitable technique of communication would eliminate the possibility of adopting some purposes as a basis of organization". This implies that communication is important both in conveying the purpose of the organization and in the exercise of authority (Sapru, 2013). Communication and cooperation involve dialogue, exchange of views and information. This is necessary because it helps to deal with the issues of misunderstanding and misconceptions about what is being done.

Relating cooperative social system to bureaucracy, one can say that authority becomes legitimate when people obey it and this results to less rigidity in terms of hierarchy. Thus, it is safe to argue that authority resides in a relationship between a superior and a subordinate, not in a position. And it is effectively exercised only when accepted, not on issuance of a command, hence Cooperative Social System would address the challenges of bureaucracy through effective communication in human resource organization in the Nigerian Public Service.

Simon cited in Laxmikanth (2013) agreed that cooperation is a planned system of cooperative effort in which each participant has a recognized role to play and duties to perform. As submitted by Edigin (2010), individuals in an organization must cooperate because human beings have several limitations which can be overcome by cooperative social action. Put differently, the individual endowments, capabilities, competences can be harnessed for the attainment of organizational goals regardless of their position in the hierarchy. In fact, the hierarchy becomes blurred in the organisation where cooperative social system holds sway. The early comers into the organization can learn from the new comers who possess the competences relevant to move the organization in the direction of efficiency and productivity necessary to galvanize development.

This kind of change in orientation will definitely affect the recruitment process in that the competences needed in the organization becomes a major consideration and who possesses such competences are brought in. Their career progression also would be determined by their contribution to the overall growth of the organization rather than the number of years that guarantee movement up the ladder in a typical bureaucracy of the Weberian type.

From the above analyses, one can conclude that administration is a cooperative effort of a group of people in pursuit of a common objective. It is necessary that this group should be organized in order to attain the desired goal. Applying co-

operative social system of Barnard to Nigerian public administration is very applicable as the National Assembly gives broad principles and policies which are put in practice by public administrators as directives given by ministers. They extend full cooperation to their political heads. Cooperative social system when constructed would address the challenges of bureaucracy in Nigeria.

Conclusion

From the foregoing analysis, it can be concluded that the Nigerian Public Administration fashioned along the Weberian Ideal has been majorly dysfunctional in galvanizing the much desired development. The widely criticized inadequacies of the Weberian bureaucracy are firmly entrenched in the Nigerian Public Administration system hence the dysfunctionality. This makes obvious the major position of this paper, the Chester Barnard's postulation of organization as a cooperative social system as an alternative paradigm towards rectifying most of the anomalies associated with rigid hierarchy that stifles initiative, rewards years of service rather than the competences, top-down rather than interactive lateral communication in the work place and sundry other abnormalities of the Weberian bureaucracy.

It is not impossible that the paradigm shift posited in this paper would meet stiff resistance of the beneficiaries of the status-quo, this is expected as people are always aversed to changes which in their perception are capable negatively affecting them as regards the powers they wield in the work place or constituting a possible hindrance to the perquisites of office conferred on them by the existing order. But more importantly, change is inevitable if the Nigerian public administration system as a state developmental paradigm will achieve the purpose for which it exists.

Recommendations

In the light of the research work, the following recommendations are suggested;

1) There should be administrative reforms rooted in the rubrics of cooperative social system aimed at repositioning the Nigerian Public Service for better effective and efficient service delivery that will enhance sustainable development.
2) There should be deliberate change management system that will include workshops, seminars and other relevant training methods channeled towards changing the public service orientation from the rigid Weberian

bureaucracy to a more dynamic, interactive, goal-directional cooperative social system.

3) Following that is the productivity indices attached to individual competences and measurable contributions rather than hierarchy system as a basis for rewards that include promotions and other incentives.
4) Establishing mechanism that provides citizens and public officials with channels for reporting acts of corruption and unethical practices. This can be achieved through the flexible communication patterns of the cooperative social system that includes in its network communication with the citizens that are customers to the public sector organizations.

References

Adebayo, A. (2004). Principles and Practice of Public Administration. Ibadan: Spectrum books

Adegoroye, G. (2005). Public Service Reforms. Implications for Ekiti State under the current democratic administration. A publication of the Bureau of Public Service Reforms; The Presidency.

Adegoroye, G. (2007). The current public service reforms in Nigeria. A background in Adegoroye, G. (ed), Nigeria public source reform, the vision and challenge.A publication of the Bureau of Public Service Reforms; The Presidency.

Aibieyi, S. (2010).Human Resource management and behavoural science. Nigeria. Ethiope Publishing Corporation.

Aibieyi S. (2011). Introduction to Nigerian Public Administration. Nigeria: Ethiope Publishing Corporation.

Akpekpe, S.O. and Ejere, E.S. (1998). "Representative Bureaucracy in Nigeria Federal System: Problems and Remedies". In Benin Journal of Social Science. Vol. 6 and 7.No. 1 and 2.P.54.

Amoako, K. Y. (2003). "The UNECA and Good Governance in Africa". Paper presentedat the Harvard International Development Conference on Governance and Development in a Dynamic Global Environment. April 4-5, Boston, Massachusetts.

Anazodo, R.O. Okoye, J.C. and Chukwuemeka, E.O. (2012). "Civil Service Reforms in Nigeria: The journey so far in Service Delivery", American Journal of Social and Management Sciences. Vol. 3.No.1.

CIPMN(2014), Chartered Institute of Personnel Management of Nigeria, Study pack on Advanced Personnel Management Examinations 1(PE 1)

Dibie, R. (2014). Public Administration, Theory, Analysis and Application. ` Nigeria: Babcock university press.

Edigin, L.U. (2010). Topical issues in Nigerian Public Administration. Nigeria: Ambik Press

Egonmwan, J.A. (2018) "Principles of Public Administration in contexts". Benin City:Resyin Publications.

Fadia, B. L. and Fadia, K. (2009). Public Administration. Agra: Sahitya Bhawan Publications.

Fajana, S. (2002) Human Resource Management: An Introduction. Lagos. Labofin and Company.

Ibietan, J. (2011), "Local Government and the Localism Principle: A Review". The constitution Vol II, No1, P.66

Kuvaas, B. (2008), An Exploration of how the Employee – Organization Relationship Affects the Linkage between Perception of Developmental Human Resource Practices and Employee outcomes, Journal of Management Studies, 45(1) –Accessed 8/10/2018.

Laxmikanth .M. (20015), "Public Administration" for State Civil Services and otherCompetitive Examinations. New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill Education Private Limited

Lewis, C. and Gilman, S. (2005). The Ethics Challenges in Public Service. San Francisco, C.A: Jossey-Bass.

Mbaku, J.M. (1994) "Buraucratic corruption and policy Reform in Africa".The Journal of Social/Political and Economic Status 19(2)

Mustapha, A.I. and Aimuan, E.E. (2019). Organizational culture of discipline and efficiency narrative in the Nigerian public sector: Revisiting McGregor theory X and Y. Lapai Journal of Economics, Department of Economics, Ibrahim

Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai, Niger State; Vol. 3 No. 1, March; pp 215 – 228.

Mustapha, A.I. and Omorede, C.K. (2017). Nigerian public service and challenges of productivity from 2000 – 2015: A theoretical perspective. Sahel Analyst, Journal of Management Sciences, University of Maiduguri; Vol. 15 No. 1, March; pp 1 – 15.

Mustapha, A.I. and Osaghae, J.O. (2018). Human capital acquisition and the challenges of developmental state: A case of the Nigerian civil service 2000 – 2015. European Journal of Business and Management, IISTE; Vol. 10 No. 9; pp 75 – 84.

Mustapha, A.I. and Oyedeji, M. (2019). Mentorship and sustenance of public service organizational culture in Nigeria: The prospects and challenges. African Journal of Management, Department of Business Administration, University of Maiduguri; Vol. 4 No. 2, June; pp 1 – 15.

Nanjul, J. K. and Rena, M. N. (2004).General Principles of Public Service rules in Nigeria.Jos: Dare prints.

Obiora, C. A. (2014). "Reform Process and the Achievement of Sustainable Development in Nigeria: Rethinking the Role of the Public Bureaucracy". Review of public Administration and management. Vol. 3, No. 6.

Okoh, A.O. (2008)," Office System Management" An Introduction. Lagos: Trust Publishing.

Competitive Examinations. New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill Education Private Limited.

Oronsaye, S.O. (2009). "Restructuring of the office of the civil service of the federation"Workshop on Annual Performance and Evaluation Report, Nigeria.January.

Osimen, G.U. Adenegan, T.S. and Balogun A. (2013). An assessment of corruption in the Public Sector in Nigeria. A case of Akure South Local Government Area, Ondo State. Canadian Social Science, 9(5) 87-97

Oyedele, S.O. (2015), "The Nigerian Public and Service delivery under civil rule".Journal of Public Administration, Finance and Law 7:33 – 43

Sapru, R.K. (2013). Administrative Theories and Management Thought (3rd ed) Delhi: Phi Learning Private Limited.

Sharm, M. P. Sadana, B. L. and Kaur H. (2012). Public Administration in Theory and Practice.New Delhi, KitalMahal Agencies.

Suleiman, A. O. and Madugu, U. (2015).”Public Service Ethics in Developing Countries.

Comparative analysis of bureaucratic morality in Nigeria and South Africa”.Nigerian Journal of Administrative Science. Vol. 11 (1 & 2)

Tonwe D. A. (2008).Public Administration; An introduction. Nigeria: Amfittop books.

UNDP (2001).Public Service Ethics in Africa, Vol. 1. New York: United Nation. Retrieved from Http\www.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/.../

THE IMPACT OF POLICE INITIATIVE ON CRIME PREVENTION IN EDO SOUTH SENATORIAL DISTRICT, NIGERIA.

JOSEPH UNUFE, Ph.D[54] **& BARR. IMA-TINYAN OBARISIAGBON, Ph.D**[55]

Abstract

The thrust of this paper anchors on the impact of police initiatives on crime prevention in Edo South Senatorial District. The paper utilized primary and secondary sources of data in ascertaining the impact or degree of police initiatives on crime prevention. The Brocken window theory was used to give a theoretical underpinning to the study which embraces the community and police relationship approach to detect or deter crime. The paper employed the survey method to elicit data for the research. The data gathered were analysed with the aid of frequencies, distribution and chi-square. The paper suggested that the rank and file in the police should be sent on refresher courses where the core curriculum should be an emphasis on police initiative. Moreover, as part of police initiative, the immediate environment where they function should be carried along in terms of prevention, detection and control of crime. Regular town hall meetings should be held with opinion and community leaders. The study found that there is a significant relationship between police initiative and crime prevention and it also showed a positive impact on the effect of police initiative on crime prevention. The paper therefore recommended among others that **t**he strength of any community or society is its ability to have a secured environment where business can flourish. In this regard, citizens are a country's greatest resource, therefore community-oriented policing, which drives police operations, enables the community to take advantage of its human resources to address its criminal issues, foster peace, and lessen fear of crime.

Keywords: Community, policing, police, initiative, crime

[54] Department of Public Administration,University of Benin, Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria , joseph.unufe@uniben.edu, +2347036647414

[55] , Department of Sociology,University of Benin, Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria.emmanuel.obarisiagbon@uniben.edu,+2348037234478

Introduction

Police initiative can be defined as developing long-term relationships between researchers and law enforcement, utilizing technology, intelligence, and data creatively, improving communication between law enforcement organizations and the communities they serve, encouraging the use of evidence-based practices within these organizations, and advancing science-based policing practices. Without the police, it might be challenging to maintain law and order, progress, and democracy. Any movement for pro-poor change must therefore consider both the enabling and obstructive functions of the police in society. The main responsibility of the police is to maintain social order and ensure that existing laws are followed. The police, however, are not the only organization engaged in policing in the broadest sense of the word. Every society has always needed policing to maintain law and order, public safety, and interpersonal relationships. Due to the diversity and tensions that result from demographic heterogeneity, urbanization, industrialization, and competing ideologies regarding the ideal socio-political and economic form of organization, modern societies are even more in need of effective policing. But, the establishment of the police, a group of individuals chosen and paid for by the state to uphold the law and keep the peace, is a more recent phenomenon in human history (Reiner, 2000).

In the past, maintaining order in the community fell on the shoulders of the adult residents as a whole**.** Prior to the establishment of professional police forces as state institutions, all adult males in medieval society were required to participate to the "hue, cry, and pursue" and "watch and ward" systems, which sought to prevent and manage crime and unrest. But, the state's rise, with its massive bureaucracy based on centralization, a hierarchical system of authority and control, and a professional workforce (Weber, 1968), altered the conventional police ideology that was predicated on the notion that policing was everyone's business. In order to govern the use of violence by other groups, specialized organizations like the police and the armed forces were developed as a result of the state's formation as an institution with a claim to the monopoly over the means of legal violence in society (Weber, 1968). As stated by Martin (1990:6)

The work of a police officer entails several different duties. Officers are supposed to prevent crime, safeguard lives and property, uphold the law, keep the community peaceful and orderly, and offer a variety of services to citizens.… Nonetheless, a theme that unites these various activities is the likelihood of violence and the necessity and legitimacy of using coercive measures to impose social control (Bitner, 1970). It is

easier to understand a number of the police's attitudes and traits when one realizes that they serve as the state's coercive agents and authorized force users.

Modern police forces are often tasked with upholding order and upholding the law. Nonetheless, the nature of law and what constitutes order varies greatly over time and among countries and is influenced by the political economies of those communities. Law and the idea of order as defined by the political and economic interests of the dominant or governing groups in society establish the specific roles that the police perform in society. Reiner (1993:14) emphasizes the following:

The police are the expert bearers of the fundamental authority of the state, the only right to employ force under law**.** It is obvious and terrifying that there is a risk of misuse on the part of special party interests or the police themselves.

Police shall encourage entrepreneurial initiative and public safety, which are essential to development and human collaboration in general, by upholding order and enforcing the law in accordance with the values and practices of a democratic society. The police can positively influence efforts to bring about pro-poor reform in several ways. In addition to material hardships and limited access to services, the poor also face a number of other serious problems, including a lack of security, crime, police brutality, and denial of due process rights (World Development Report 2000/2001).

Majorities of the populace in Nigeria tend to speak negatively of the police. This study will examine how police initiative affects crime prevention in Edo south senatorial district and in trying to actualize this; the research will answer the question of the effectiveness of police initiative in crime control in Edo south senatorial district.

Objectives of the Study

The main goal of this investigation is to ascertain the impact of police initiatives on crime prevention in Edo south senatorial district while the specific objective is to:

i. Determine the impact of police initiative on crime prevention in Edo south senatorial district, Nigeria.

Research Hypothesis

This sole null hypothesis was generated and tested in this study.

i. Police initiative does not impact crime prevention in Edo south senatorial district.

Review of Relevant literature

A historical discourse of community policing

The lack of protection provided by law enforcement, the public's mistrust of them, and the distance between the two groups of people in the neighborhood led to the development of community policing. Takagi et al. (2016) claim that community involvement (linked to shared values, social relationships, or friendship ties) has a favorable impact on crime prevention and control. The community's involvement in crime prevention and problem-solving was overlooked due to an overreliance on traditional (professional) policing methods. Without the effective participation of the public in proactively preventing crime and solving issues, it caused policing to be reactive. Problem-solving and community involvement through collaboration in crime prevention are the primary focuses of community policing (Cordner, 1998). To claim Kelling and Moore (1988) and Lee et al. (2019), for policing style to be acknowledged in community policing, there must be some form of consultation partnership between the police and local residents for defining, prioritizing, and/or solving problems.

Diarmaid (2018) asserts that the foundation of modern policing is the police's collaboration with the general people. The population can be a valuable human resource if it is well-organized for crime prevention and control. The challenge in Nigeria is that the police were created during colonial times and are largely responsible for upholding colonial laws rather than necessarily meeting public needs for security. As a result, the Nigerian police force was not created and has never been trained to serve the public. Police mistreating members of the public in the stations or on the streets as suspects has continued this denial of service to the people. As a result, the general public is hesitant to cooperate with the police to stop and lessen crime. The main obstacle preventing rural Nigerian communities from taking part in crime prevention is the public's and police's growing mistrust of one another.

The primary principle of community-oriented policing, according to Goldstein (1979), is the notion that police agencies will be more successful and effective if they concentrate on certain crimes highlighted by community members as a result of their participation in the decision-making process. This implies that those who wear the security shoe are aware of the areas that hurt the most.

Crime prevention is made affordable for the community through the equal participation of all citizens. According to Carter (2001), the goals of community-oriented policing training included encouraging the creation and implementation of community policing initiatives as well as encouraging law enforcement organizations to create crime prevention strategies. It also included increasing the number of police officers who interacted directly with community members. This implies that community-focused policing training will improve the quality of police citizen contact inside the community. Nonetheless, Carter (2001) suggested that measures are taken to boost officers' motivation and promote job satisfaction among police employees in order to make community-oriented policing more successful. This is a crucial point; the police, like every other government body, should be appropriately motivated and supported by the state in order to accomplish their objectives**.** While police officers receive training in community-oriented policing, this does not entail that they should not be compensated well or given the tools they need to execute their jobs well; rather, it equips them with the skills they need to perform better thanks to a shift in mindset and community support. Community policing is based on three general tenets. The first of these is the decentralization of organizational power. Localized police stations, foot and bicycle patrols, must be implemented in order to carry out this practice. The police patrol has been reoriented, to build closer ties of connection between police and citizens (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997).

Mini-stations, substations, and storefront stations were established by the administrators to localize the police stations. These smaller police stations and satellites are given more freedom to choose how to carry out policing in their locality. This opens up the possibility of a closer relationship between the police and the community and gives police officers the chance to learn more about their locality (Greene & Mastrofski, 1988). The function of the police officer has been completely transformed by the decentralization of community policing. The street cop will have more discretion when there is less immediate oversight. With the help of community policing, the police culture must completely shift, giving individual officers more authority on the streets. Administrators must develop hiring and training practices that will guarantee that officers have values that reflect those of the community in order to make up for and minimize abuse of this power. The review and promotion process will make sure that cops reflect community values even more (Peak & Glensor, 1999).

Taking a proactive approach to policing is the second general tenet of community policing. Police departments are urged by community policing to switch from incident-driven reactive strategies to proactive and innovative approaches to crime (Peak & Glensor, 1999). Problem-oriented policing is a common name for this innovative approach to community police (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997). This strategy can make use of the SARA acronym, meaning Screening, Analysis, Reaction, and Assessment. The Newport News Police Department constructed a crime analysis model using it as its foundation (Swanson et al., 2001). Officers watch crimes during the scanning phase and search for connections among them in an effort to spot trends and commonalities. Officers monitor crimes and search for patterns when scanning is being done. Throughout the analytical stage, this data is gathered and the underlying issue that may have led to this pattern is carefully examined. The development and implementation of solutions to this issue take place in the response phase. Officers examine the effectiveness of their reaction in the final step of the SARA assessment Skogan (2006). The community's involvement in the formulation of police policy is the third general idea of community policing. Police departments must engage the community more actively in order to uphold this principle. This entails developing an administrative plan that prioritizes local concerns. Through supporting community organizations and crime-prevention initiatives, the objective is to assist residents in solving crime problems (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997).

Understanding Police Initiative Techniques

Partnerships in Performance Measurement and Research. Taking actions based on what works and doesn't in policing is a core component of PI. PI agencies accomplish this by collaborating with researchers to conduct methodical, thorough research to increase the body of information about efficient policing tactics and support resource allocation decisions.

Target-based strategies. Effective PI campaigns necessitate analysis that enables agencies to concentrate on the few individuals and locations that account for a disproportionately high proportion of crime, victimization, and public harm.

Using Information Systems, Data, and Intelligence More Effectively. PI assists law enforcement organizations in developing the capacity to utilize information, espionage, and evidence sources more effectively**.** SPI sites employ information that goes way over service requests, reported infractions, arrests, and complaints. To build their crime reduction plans, they also draw on police

intelligence, research data (such as studies based on offenders or locations), data from outside sources (such as databases for health institution, schools, and social services), and informations from outside judicial organizations (such as probation and parole).

Managing and Maintaining Organizational Transformation. Maintaining organizational gains and changes brought about by cutting-edge methods is a challenge for all complex organizations, including law enforcement agencies. The development of interdisciplinary working groups, updated policies and directives, increased communication, and training are all ways that PI sites help the organization adopt better practices in order to sustain evidence-based approaches.

Communication and Cooperation. The long-term viability and sustainability of crime reduction strategies depend on public education, outreach, and buy-in. Hence, PI highlights the significance of outreach and communication with external stakeholders in the government, criminal justice, and community at all levels of the law enforcement agency.

Theoretical Framework

This study shall adopt the Broken Windows Theory (BWT) as popularized by George. According to the Broken Windows Theory, public order violations like vandalism and boisterous conduct can lead to neighborhood deterioration and a fear of crime, which, if left unchecked, can result in more deterioration and more serious crimes. This is due to the fact that minor offenses like vandalism, broken windows, and others often give the appearance that no one cares about the neighborhood and that both the people and the police have lost control over it. This is consistent with the findings that community members and the police must work together to police their surroundings. On the other hand, more police officers and the enforcement of unofficial laws and norms of conduct can make a neighborhood appear safer and less chaotic, which will encourage more people to live there and get involved in community affairs, which will also help to reduce crime rates (Palmiotto, 2000).

Broken Windows Theory can be applied to the idea of community policing in the sense that joint efforts by the police and local citizens can lower the crime rate in the neighborhood since both parties view locals as partners in development. According to the Broken Windows Hypothesis, most neighborhood

crimes are typically committed by people who live close to the victims; as a result, crime is primarily a local issue that is best resolved locally.

The Broken Windows Theory is highly helpful in explaining how the police and the community work together to discover crimes, but modern advances have diminished the theory's efficacy because some crimes are committed by people who do not live in the area where they are committed. One such instance is cybercrime, in which the victims are frequently kilometers far from the perpetrators and are not always adjacent to one another. Social change as a term refers to changes in the size, complexity, direction, or function of society's social structure and organizational elements over time.

Methodology

This study will adopt a survey research design to obtain a sample of respondents. The study was carried out within the Seven (7) local governments within Edo South Senatorial District, and these include: Oredo, Ovia South West, Egor, Ovia North East, Orhionmwon, Ikpoba-Okha, and Uhunmwode local government areas. For this investigation, the population included members of the Nigerian police force covering the formal sector, and the informal sector will comprise the Vigilante group members. The chosen sample for the research work will be Six hundred and Twenty-five (625) respondents. The stratified random sample technique was adopted.

The research instrument was designed using items from the review of related literature. The instrument was made up of twenty-seven items, with six dealing with the demographic characteristics of the respondents while the remaining 21 items dealt with the main topic under investigation. Two faculty members from the Faculty of Education were responsible for validating the research tool. Suggestions made by them were incorporated into the final copy of the instrument to enhance its efficiency and usability. A reliability coefficient of 0.93 was obtained using Pearson’s Moment Correlation which is considered significant.

The instrument was self-administered with the assistance of two research assistants who were trained prior to the commencement of the study. The data collected for the study were organized and frequencies were counted and percentages computed for the demographic category while the chi-Square was used to test the sole hypothesis.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Table 1 lists the socio-demographic information about the respondents, including the distribution of respondents by sex, age, and employment status as well as by educational level, job status, and employment level.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

	FREQUENCY	**PERCENTAGE (%)**
Sex		
Male	407	65.1
Female	218	34.9
Total	625	100.0
Age		
Below20yrs	6	1.0
21-30yrs	10	1.6
31-40yrs	86	13.8
41 – 50yrs	78	12.5
50- 60yrs	389	62.2
60yrs and above	56	9.0
Total	**625**	**100**
Education		
WASCE/SSCEA/NECO	123	19.7
OND/HND/BSC	147	23.5
PGD/MSC/Ph.D	155	24.8
Others	200	32.0
Total	**625**	**100**
Marital Status	40	7
Single	169	27.0
Married	155	24.8
Divorced	152	24.3
Widowed	149	23.8
Total	**625**	**100**
Job Status		
Junior Cadre	95	15.2
Executive Cadre	214	34.2
Officer Cadre	228	36.5
Unemployed	88	14.1

Total	**625**	**100**

Source: Field survey, 2022

Table 1 reveals that 407 are male representing 55.6% while 218 were female representing 29.8%. In this view, it can be said that the respondents were fairly sought across both genders. The age distribution of the respondent shows that 6 respondents below 20yrs old represent 8% of the population, while 10 respondents between 21-30yrs represent 1.4%, 86 respondents between 21-40yrs represent 11.7%, 78 respondents between 41-50yrs represent 10.7%, 389 respondents between 51-60yrs. represent 53.1% and finally, 56 respondents between the ages of 60yrs Above represent 6.3%. From the age response, It can be inferred that most of our respondents were at an age where they could reply skillfully to the problem posed by the research instrument. On education it can be observed that a total number of 123 respondents representing 19.7% of the population have WASCE/SSCEA/NECO qualifications, 147 respondents representing 23.5% of the population have OND/HND/BSC qualification, 200 respondents representing 24.8% of the population PGD/MSC/Ph.D. qualification and 155 respondents representing 32.0% of the population have other qualification. As such, the respondents have the requisite educational background to give informed responses to the items raised in the study. Details on marital status reveal that a total number of 169 respondents representing 27.0% of the population are single, 155 respondents representing 24.8% of the population are married, 152 respondents representing 24.3% of the population are divorced and 149 respondents representing 23.8% of the population are widowed. As such a total number of 465 respondents are either married at a point, this implies respondents have the requisite experience in parenting to give informed responses to the items raised in the study. On Job Status it can be observed that a total number of 95 respondents representing 15.2% of the population occupy the Junior Cadre, 214 respondents representing 34.2% of the population occupy the Executive Cadre, 228 respondents representing 36.5% of the population occupy the Officer Cadre and 88 respondents representing 14.1% of the population are Unemployed. As such a total number of 537 respondents are engaged at a point, this implies respondents have the requisite experience in parenting to give informed responses to the items raised in the study.

Testing of Hypothesis

Hypothesis One: Policing Initiative does not impact crime prevention in Edo South Senatorial District.

Table 2: Test Statistics for Hypothesis

Police initiative response	Observed	Expected	O-E	(O-E)2	(O-E)2 / E
Strongly disagree	01	156.3	-155.3	24118.09	154.306
Undecided	145	156.3	-11.3	127.69	0.817
Agree	330	156.3	173.8	30206.44	193.259
Strongly agree	149	156.3	-7.3	53.29	0.341
Total	**625**		**0**		**348.723**

Chi-square (X^2) = 348.723[a]; Degree of freedom (n-1) = 3

The result from the above table revealed that the calculated X^2= 348.723[a], a p-value of 0.000, a degree of freedom of 3, a Critical Value of 7.82. Therefore, the result shows that the calculated value is higher than that critical value or table value thereby rejecting the null hypothesis which states that Policing initiative does not impact crime prevention in Edo South Senatorial District and consequently accepting the alternative hypothesis which will be Policing Initiative does impact significantly on crime prevention in Edo South Senatorial District.

This finding validates the work of Goldstein (1979) when he stressed that police initiative involving and partnering with the community helps to reduce crime commission. In fact, community-oriented policing's central principle is the notion that police forces will be more successful and effective if they focus on particular crimes that the community has prioritized as a result of their participation in the decision-making process. This implies that those who wear security shoes are aware of where they hurt the most. Crime prevention is made affordable for the community through the equal participation of all citizens.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Police initiatives affect effective community policing, most of these initiatives include training locals in tactical and use of weaponry, bifurcating the reporting system to ensure proper channels are put in place to ensure smooth communication, and so on. Community policing methods have improved local orientation against issues of criminality from the perspective of orientation, training, and introduction of modern tactical policing skills. The finding further asserts that the government on its path has introduced various avenues to strengthening the local participation in policing with the state by ensuring facilities that will ena-

ble the locals to perform effectively are provided and remuneration is also used as a tool to encourage those that have stood out in carrying out their duties and responsibilities. According to the study, community policing is very significant in the control of crime in any given area and the tenets of this study simply anchor on the approach of neighborhood policing as a way of curbing and preventing crime and also the level of synergy between the locals and the police and how they co-exist. On the basis of the study's findings, the following suggestions were put up.

So, in order to reduce and prevent crime, the public should endeavour to partner with the police. This growing mistrust between the people and the police is thought to be the main obstacle to community involvement in crime prevention. Hence, in strengthening this co-existence the issue of crime and criminality will surely be thing of the past. The strength of any community or society is the ability for them to have a secure environment where business can flourish. In this view, Community-oriented policing operations allow the community to take advantage of its people resources to solve its crime problems, promote peace, and lessen the fear of crime. This is because a nation's power resides in its population.

References

Carter, D.L. (2001). Measuring Quality: The scope of community policing. http://www.ssc. msu.edu/~cj/cp/ cpmeasure.html (accessed 26/01/2023)

Cordner, G.W. (1998). *Community policing: elements and effects*. In: Alpert, G.,

Diarmaid, H, (2018). Community safety partnerships: the limits and possibilities of 'policing with the community Crime. Prev Community Saf 20, 125–136, 2018.

Goldstein, H. (1979). *Improving Policing: A Problem-Oriented Approach. In W.M. Oliver (Ed.), Community Policing: Classical Readings* (pp. 16-38). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Press.

Greene, J.R. and Mastrofski, S.D. (1988). *Community Policing: Rhetoric or Reality*. NY: Praeger Press.

Kelling, George L., and Mark H. Moore. (1988). The Evolving Strategy of Policing. Perspectives on Policing. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of

Justice and John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University.p.8

Lee, H.D., Cao, L., Kim, D., Woo, Y., (2019). Police contact and confidence in the police in a

Marc 2019.

Martin, S. E. (1990). On the move: The status of women in policing (Washington, D.C.: Police Foundation) medium-sized city. *International Journal of Law, Crime and Justice* 56, 70–78.

Peak T. & Glenson R. 1999. *Community and Problem Solving: Strategies and practices* .2nd Edition New Jersey.

Peak T. & Glenson R. (1999). Community and Problem Solving: Strategies and practices 2nd Edition New Jersey.

Piquero, A. (Eds.), *Community Policing*: Contemporary Readings. Waveland Press, Illinois.

Reiner, R. (1993). "Police Accountability: Principles, Patterns and Practices" in R. Reiner and S. Spencer (eds.) Accountability Policing: Effectiveness, Empowerment and Equity (London: Institute for Public Policy Research).

Reiner, R. (2000). The Politics of the Police. Oxford University Press

Skogan W.G. & Hartnett S.M. 1997. *Community Policing: Chicago Style*. NY: Oxford University Press

Skogan, W. (2006). *The Promise of Community Policing*". In D. Weisburd and A. Braga (eds), Police Innovation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 27–44.

Takagi, D., Ikeda, K.I., Kobayashi, T., Harihara, M., Kawachi, I. (2016). The impact of crime on social ties and civic participation. J. *Community Appl. Soc. Psychol*. 26(2), 164–178.

Weber, M. (1968). *Economy and society*. University of California Press

A CRIMINOLOGICAL INQUIRY INTO THE INCIDEDNCE AND PREVALENCE OF CHILDREN AS HOUSE HELPS IN METROPOLITAN BENIN, SOUTHERN NIGERIA

BARR. IMA-TINYAN OBARISIAGBON, Ph.D[56]

Abstract

This study probes the alarming increase in the incidence and prevalence of the engagement of children as house helps in Metropolitan Benin, Southern Nigeria. This study employed a cross-sectional survey research method which involved the administering of a self-designed questionnaire to 850 respondents within Metropolitan Benin. The theoretical base of the study was anchored on the role strain theory. The study found that poverty, lack of access to education/ignorance, broken homes, greed and settlement of parents' debt were some of the predisposing factors in the involvement of children as house helps. It therefore recommended that the issues of poverty, no awareness of the scourge of house helps, no access to education, poverty, alarming increase in broken homes and strict enforcement of the provision of the statutes against the phenomenon should be properly addressed by the relevant authorities.

Key words: house helps, child, poverty, child's right, enforcement

Introduction

The concept of house help is one that is very familiar to Nigerians as a number of homes have needed one at some point in time. It is needful to state further that the phenomenon of house helps often also referred to as domestic workers, servants, maids and or nannies is common in most cities in Africa (Okafor, 2009). The prevalence of the concept is quite alarming, as ILO (2002) observed that about 48 million children in West Africa are involved in rendering house services. UNICEF (2006) puts the number of children in Nigeria rendering house services in the informal economy at about 15 million. The implication of this is that a clear violation of the rights of the children as encapsulated in the Child Rights Act (2003) which only 25 of the 36 states have enacted (Green & Kabata, 2021) and NAPTIP Act (2005). The provisions of the various laws are very clear that children below 18 years should not be engaged in domestic services outside their families.

Regrettably, it would appear today, that the engagement of children as house helps is on the increase in most cities in Southern Nigeria even though it is a violation of the

[56] **FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, BENIN CITY, EDO STATE, NIGERIA. emmanuel.obarisiagbon@uniben.edu, +2348037234478**

law against the rights of the Nigerian child. The high demand for house helps in major cities is not unconnected to the fact that most families in these areas are working class and do not have time to do their domestic chores themselves. Conversely too, parents in rural areas tend to send their children to their relatives in cities to acquire good education and have better lives, unknown in some cases that they are indirectly providing house helps for them.

The engagement of children as house helps according to Green & kabata (2021), results in a range of conditions that are inimical to the physical, mental and emotional wellbeing of the child. This in turn could make the children become miscreants, hoodlums, join the streets and get involved in crimes like pick pocketing and armed robbery. Without doubt, this can ruin the future of the child.

Besides the fact that current trend in house helps remains a violation of the fundamental human right of the child as guaranteed in the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999), Child Rights Act (2003) and NAPTIP Act (2005) amongst others. Put simply, it is a criminal offence to engage in these notorious acts against children which often enlightened and educated people, most especially women engage in. This is a serious problem particularly as research works have mainly focused on children who are trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation (Onyeonuru, 2003). As noted by Tade & Aderinto (2012), these works neglected and did not extend their studies to other forms of child exploitation, mainly on children in domestic services. This is therefore the lacuna which this study seeks to bridge.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following questions:

1. What are the predisposing factors in involvement of children as house helps in Metropolitan Benin, Southern Nigeria?
2. Are the existing laws effective in curbing the phenomenon of children house helps in Metropolitan Benin, Southern Nigeria?

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to examine the incidence and prevalence of house helps in Metropolitan Benin, Southern Nigeria. However, the specific objectives include to:

1. Investigate the predisposing factors in the involvement of children as house helps in Metropolitan Benin, Southern Nigeria.
2. Examine the effectiveness of the existing laws in curbing the phenomenon of the engagement of children as house helps in Metropolitan Benin, Southern Nigeria.

Brief Review of Related Literature

When someone below 18 years is engaged in any form of employment, such is usually referred to as child labour and frowned at by the statutes. Child labour includes domestic work which has become the trending phenomenon in several homes in Southern Nigeria. Child labour, particularly in domestic work has been a social menace in Nigeria since the pre-colonial era and till date, is still in existence in several major cities in Nigeria. Oloko (1999) puts house helps at about 40,000 boys and girls in Nigeria while ILO (2017) reports that about 17.2 million are in paid or unpaid domestic work in the house of other persons.

Classification of House Help

House helps can be classified into the following:

1. Baby sitters
2. House maids
3. Cooks
4. Gate keepers
5. Waiters
6. Laundresses

It is needful to state here that these days, a house help when employed can function in all of the above capacity. Almost, if not all ethnic nationalities have and still engaged in giving and or receiving house helps. However, Ibeme (2014) insists that house helps are noted in Akwa Ibom State, South-South Nigeria. In other words, the state is the major donor and supplier of house helps in Nigeria, particularly Warri, Benin City, Lagos, Port Harcourt, Abuja, Ibadan and Kaduna. A house help is anyone who is paid to carry out menial tasks within a home. Generally, Nigerians see a house help as an individual that is brought into a home that is not his or hers for the sole aim of helping out with menial jobs within his or her new residential abode and this may include taking care of children who may be his or her mates or even older. In years gone by, a house help was not paid any form of stipend or salary instead, his or her reward was in form of the schooling, shelter, hand me down clothes and food given to him or her. However, in today's Nigeria, salary has been aided to the who concept of house help.

Predisposing Factors in the Engagement of Children House Help in Metropolitan Benin

The following pages contain discussion on the factors that tend to motivate people into going to serve as house helps. It must however be stressed that more than one of these factors could be the trigger for this phenomenon.

No Access to Quality Education

The out-of-school children rate in Nigeria is quite on the high side. In fact, according to UNESCO (2022) about 20 million children in that category in Nigeria. This figure is a far-reaching increase from the 105 million earlier reported by UNICEF (2020). Painfully, it would appear that one-fifth of the world's out-of-school children is in Nigeria. Although primary education is officially free and compulsory, the situation has not been helped by the harsh economic handicaps and socio-cultural practices that tend to hinder attendance in school, particularly for the girl child. This situation has become the push factor in involvement of children as house helps coupled with ignorance. Adeleke (2003) has posited that many children in Nigeria start their work life too early and are thus unable to go to school. Ewulum (2021) put the issue very aptly when he observed that illiteracy often leads to all kinds of confusion, Chief of which is sending a child to work as house helps.

Poverty

The National Bureau of Statistics' (2019) report indicates that 40% of the entire population or almost 83 million are under the poverty line of #137,430 ($381.75) per year. This figure is likely to have gone high going by the economic reality in the country today. Most families are in total lack of basic needs. Putting it bluntly, many Nigerian families are hungry and lack good shelter. In a situation like this, families have resorted to sending their children as house helps to other families as a means of survival if for nothing such children are housed, fed, clothed and the parents are paid some stipend. Omoin & Ijeh (2010) and Fatusi et al (2002) in their independent studies found that independent studies found that poverty is one of the major factors of child domestic work in Nigeria. This view had earlier been expressed by Lindert (1976) when he opined that child domestic labourers exist to ensure the survival of their families and themselves. Even though the pay is meager, it however is a source of financial succor to some families.

Broken Home

In Nigeria, there appears to be a taboo in the discussion of divorce as it is hardly ever discussed in the public even though the aftermath stares us in the face openly. Parental care offers protection for the children but regrettably, broken home has a way of removing this care and making the children to drift away into house help and other social vices in order to survive. Once a home is broken even if either of the parents remarries and takes the child or children into the new home, such children are at the mercy of their step parent who in some cases may be subjected to worst form of child domestic work (Ibeme, 2014).

Settlement of Parents' Debt

Instances have been reported where parents, particularly those living in the rural communities have had their children forcefully taken as ransom for debts of their parents.

Such children end up being house helps and are made to serve in the most unconducive environment until the person feels satisfied (The State of World's Children, 1997).

Greed

Some parents are generally greedy and insatiable. They have what Nigerians refer to as 'long throat' and one way of quenching this, is to give out their children as house helps and get money monthly to buy local gin and tobacco from the stipend. Sad and disheartening as this may be but it is the current reality in Nigeria.

The Law and Involvement of Children in House Help Activities

Although, ILO (1994) has observed that the private disposition of the home environment often makes it easy for child labour in form of house help to go unrecorded but that has not prevented the detractors of our domestic and municipal laws from making provisions for its existence in our statutes. Globally, child labour in whatever form has since been criminalized and this is done in the main to the severe social implications that the phenomenon has on the child, family and society at large.

Although, the employment of a child is a form of contract of employment as enunciated in the case of Dunkwu v. Oar (Nig) Ltd (2021). However, it is trite law that an infant cannot validly enter into a contract of employment (Labour Act, 2004). In fact, Umah (2021) was very blunt when he stated that it is criminal offence in the territory called Nigeria to engage a child less than 12 years as a house help. His conviction is premised on the fact that Sections 23(1) (a) and 82 of the Act against trafficking of 2015 makes it an offence punishable by a term of imprisonment for a child less than 12 years to be employed as a house help.

Section 28 (1) a-d (2) of the Child Right Act (2003) prohibits the use of a child in a way which exploits him or her for labour. It is evident from the intention of the drafters of the above sections that it is law-breaking for a minor to be employed as a domestic help beyond his or her home or family environment.

The house help issue is very well emphasized in the Amendment to the National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons (NAPTIP) (2005). The said amendment forbids the engagement of any child under age 18 years in house hold chores beyond his or her home. The United Nations Educational and Scientific Organization (UNESCO) (2006), the United Nations International Children Education Fund (UNICEF) (2006) and Africa Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990), International Labour Organization (ILO) (2003) all frown at the engagement of children in any form of domestic services outside the comfort of the child's immediate family.

Interestingly, these instruments with their various provisions protect the rights, interest and welfare of children in general. Regrettably, the effectiveness of seeming protection has always remained with their implementation and the enforcement of these statutes. It is a well-known fact that most Nigerians know one home or the other where house helps are engaged but what do they do to protect the children or make those who engage them to be sanctioned. As noted by Green & Kabata (2021), there are major challenges as it relates to legal enforcement of the rights of the child and this is due to the general lack of reporting of the perpetrators. They further noted that there is a lack of awareness of the legal regime that protects children from being engaged as house helps. These have made the law to be seen as a toothless bulldog.

Theoretical Orientation

The study anchors its theoretical basis on the role strain theory as provided by Goode (1963). It is a truism that societies are made up of several social roles which are a set of attitudes and behavioural pattern expected of individuals who occupy such roles. However, role strain theory occurs when for any reason, a person is unable to perform his or her duties. In fact, as Goode (1963) observed, the role strain occurs when a person has different incompatible roles and thus taking on one role kind of interferes with his or her performance in another. For instance, a married woman who is a law lecturer, mother, wife, dean of faculty and researcher could pass through strain as the duties all together could consume more time and resources than that individual has or requires that individual to be in several locations at the same time. In a situation like this, Creary & Gordon (2016) have observed that the individual will not be able to carry out these roles as much as they could if they had fewer roles. In fact, role strain is a normal and inevitable aftermath of trying to balance different and in some cases conflicting or overwhelming roles.

In Nigeria, the economic reality dictates that a couple must both be engaged in productive ventures in order to survive. This has made many married women to seek the assistance or better still the services of house help to perform their own roles. As noted by Taiwo & Ajayi (2013), the new coping strategy of being an employee who plays a part in meeting household needs most often than not does not erase the expectations of meeting up with the house chores of a wife and mother. It is the stress that normally follows from trying to meet the office duties at the same time with house wife work that leaves couples with no option than to engage the services of house helps with its attendant hazards.

Methods and Materials

This is a one-time study design that used the quantitative technique to elicit information from 850 respondents who were mainly married couples across three local government areas of Edo State that makes up Metropolitan Benin. The research instrument used in the study was the questionnaire which was self-constructed and personally administered with the assistance of two trained research assistants. The instrument, prior

to its administration was face validated, pilot tested and found to have a co-efficient of 0.84 which this study found to be sufficient. The data gathered from the field was analysed with the aid of frequencies and percentage (simple statistics).

Data Presentation and Analysis

This section is devoted to data presentation and discussion of findings which are done in line with the specific objectives of the study.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

	Frequency	**Percentage (%)**
Sex		
Male	250	69
Female	600	31
Total	**850**	**100**
Age		
20-29	250	39
30-39	300	31
40-49	200	15
50 and above	100	15
Total	**850**	**100**
Religion		
Christianity	800	92
Islam	30	3
A.T.R.	20	5
Total	**850**	**100**
Educational status		
Primary	100	15
Secondary	250	46
Tertiary	500	39
Total	**850**	**100**
Marital status		
Married	800	94
Single	-	-
Divorced	-	-
Separated	50	6
Total	**850**	**100**

Source: Field survey, 2022

Table 1 indicates that there were 250 (69%) male respondents while the number of female respondents was 600 (31%). This implies that there were more female respondents than male in the study area. It also reveals that respondents within the ages of 20-29 years were 250 (39%), those between 30-39 years were 300 (31%), while those

within the ages of 30-49 years were 200 (15%) and those who were 50 years and above were 100 (15%). This indicates that majority of the respondents were between the ages of 30-39 years. On religion, 800 (92%) of the participants were Christians, 30 (3%) were Muslims and 20 (5%) practiced African traditional religion. On educational status, 100 (15%) of the participants had primary education, 250 (39%) had secondary education while 500 (46%) had tertiary education. This shows that majority of the respondents had tertiary education. For marital status, 800 (94%) of the participants were married, while 50 (6%) were separated. This means that majority of the respondents were married.

Table 2: Percentage Score of why house help thrives

Why do house help thrive?	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Poverty	150	18
Ignorance and lack of access to education	100	12
Broken homes	150	18
Greed	100	12
Settlement of parents' debts	50	6
All of the above	300	34
None of the above	-	-
Total	**850**	**100**

Source: Field survey, 2022

Table 2 indicates that 18% of the surveyed participants affirmed that poverty is a reason why house heip thrives, 12% mentioned ignorance and lack of access to education, while broken homes accounted for 18%, greed 12%, settlement of parents' debts, 6% and 34% highlighted all the above reasons. The result of this study validates the previous research of Omoin & Ijeh (2010) and Fatusi et al (2002), Ewulum (2021), (Ibeme, 2014) and State of World's Children (1997) where they respectively held poverty, lack of access to education and ignorance, broken homes and greed as some of the predisposing factors in the involvement in house help in metropolitan, Benin, Southern Nigeria.

Table 3: Percentage Score of the effectiveness of the law against house help

Question	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Is the law against house help effective?	Yes	200	24
	No	600	71
	Undecided	50	5
	Total	**650**	**100**

Source: Field survey, 2022

Table 3 shows that 24% of the participants affirmed that the law against house help is effective, 71% was in the negative while 5% was undecided. This research finding supports the work of Green & Kabata (2021) when they noted that there are major challenges as it relates to legal enforcement of the rights of the child and this is due to the general lack of reporting of the perpetrators. They further noted that there is a lack of awareness of the legal regime that protects children from being engaged as house helps. These have made the law to be seen as a toothless bulldog.

Conclusion and Recommendations

It is glaring from the study that the engagement of children as house helps is on the alarming increase, particularly in major cities in Southern Nigeria, even though there are extant laws prohibiting the practice. Regrettably, this social menace is likely to go on unabated because of the lack of legal enforcement of existing laws on the prohibition of the child, lack of punishment of perpetrators and lack of awareness of the scourge. Based on the findings of this study, it is suggested that:

- Should the services of a house help be needed, an adult should be engaged because they are the ones who can actually enter into a valid contract of employment.
- People should be encouraged to report instances of the engagement of children as house helps in their neighbourhoods.
- Lip services should cease from being paid with regards to bringing perpetrators to book. Offenders should be taken to court and prosecutors should be alive to their responsibilities in ensuring that they get convicted.

- Enlightenment campaigns on the ills of engaging children as house helps should be vigorously carried out by NGOs, government and the social media practitioners.
- There should be a harmonization of the efforts of agencies in charge of the implementation of the rights and welfare of children in Nigeria

References

Adegoke, A.A. (2003). *Adolescent in Africa: Revealing the Problems of Teenagers in a Contemporary African Society*, Ibadan, Hadassah Publishing.

African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990).

Child's Rights Act (2003).

Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999)

Creary, S. J., & Gordon, J. R. (2016). Role conflict, role overload, and role strain. *Encyclopedia of family studies*, 1-6.

Dunkwu v. Oar (Nig.) Ltd. (2021) LPELR – 54577 (CA) (Labour Act, 2004, CAP L 1 LFN)

Ewulum. B (2021) Decriminalization of Child Labour Disguised as House Helping in Nigeria. *Law and Social Justice Review* 2 (1), 34-50.

Fatusi, A. Segun, B. Adeyemi, A. & Odujinrun, S. (2002). National Training Manual: Adolescent Health & Development. Abuja: SMAT Limited.

Goode, W. (1960). *Theory of Role Strain. American Sociological Review*, 25, 483-496.

Ibeme, N. (2014). Child Domestic Worker in Rural and Urban Areas of Nigeria: Implications for National Development. *International Journal of Emerging Knowledge.*1(12), 219-231.

International Labour Organization (ILO) (1994)

International Labour Organization (ILO) (2002)

International Labour Organization (ILO) (2003)

International Labour Organization (ILO) (2017)

Labour Act, CAPS L1 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria (2004).

Lindert, P. (1976). "Child Costs and Economic Development." In R.A. Easterlin, ed, Population and Economic Change in Developing Countries. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

NAPTIP Act (2005)

National Bureau of Statistics (2019)

Okafor, O. (2009). *Understanding children's work in Bangladesh*: UCW. Country Report Series, Rome. UCW

Oloko, S. B. A. (1999). Child labour: The hidden workforce. Children domestic labour. The Progress of Nigerian Children, 48-51.

Omoni, G. & Ijeh, S (2010). Another dimension to child labour: Counselling Implications. *Edo Journal of Counselling*, 3 (1), 14-30.

Onyeonoru, I. P. (2003). *Industrial sociology: An African perspective*. Ibadan: Samlad Publishers.

State of the world's children (1997)

Tade, O. & Aderinto, A. (2012). Factors influencing the demand for domestic servants in Oyo State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Child, Youth and Family Studies*, 4 (1), 521–545

Taiwo, P and Ajayi, J (2013) Work Pressure and Employment of Housemaids among Female Bank Workers in Ibadan, Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Sociology and Anthropology.* 11 118-132

Trafficking in Persons (Prohibition) Law Enforcement and Administration Act (2015).

Umah, O. (2021). Examining brutalization of house helps in Nigeria. (An Exposé on Anti-Cruel Labour Laws in Nigeria). Daily Law Tips (Tip 623)

UNICEF (2006). "UNICEF Information Sheet, Child Labour, Nigeria, 2006"

United Nations Educational and Scientific Organization (UNESCO) (2006).

United Nations Educational and Scientific Organization (UNESCO) (2022).

United Nations International Children Education Fund (UNICEF) (2006).

United Nations International Children Education Fund (UNICEF) (2020).