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Journal Statement

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This maiden edition of AKSU Journal of Administration and Corporate Governance (AKSUJACOG) is the official publication/Journal of the Department of Public Administration, Akwa Ibom State University. It is a peer-reviewed Journal that publishes articles in multidisciplinary areas of scholarship including Management Sciences, Social Sciences, Agriculture, Physical Sciences, Biological and Health Sciences, Engineering, Technology and Environmental Sciences. The rationale is predicated on the assumption that the trajectories of sustainable development in all sectors and societies roll on the crest of sound principles, policies and programmes of organizational structures. Whether these structures are classified as administrative, corporate, managerial or governance systems are a matter of semantics depending on the peculiarities of respective disciplines. And for further progress to be made on the future of mankind, the value of scientific research is sacrosanct to the pursuit, discovery, maintenance and projections into new ways of going about the business of sustainable development. This maiden edition of the Journal is a veritable platform for such noble endeavours.

The Journal welcomes the submission of manuscripts that are connotative to the tenets of sustainable development.

Guideline for Submission of Manuscripts

Manuscripts of not more than 7000 words, written in English language should be typed on Microsoft Word, 12-point font character, boldfaced for section headings, left justification, double lines spacing in Times New Roman.

Submissions should conform to the APA (6^{th} or 7^{th} edition) with critical sections including title, author(s) name, affiliation, phone number and email address as well as abstract of not more than 200 words. Following the abstract, a minimum of 5 keywords that will provide indexing references should be listed.

A soft copy of manuscript that meets above prescriptions should be sent as attachment to aksujacog2021@gmail.com

Editor-in-Chief

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Governance Deficit, National Security and the Development of Nigeria: ENDSARS Protest Perspective

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Abstract

Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa with financial fortunes bolstered by enormous natural endowments and human resources. Yet Nigeria is faced with myriads of economic and socio-political woes and has earned the infamous sobriquet of the world's poverty capital. Scholars and other stakeholders have not only wondered why Nigeria, the supposed giant of Africa is trailing behind in anything positive, but also have consistently observed that Nigeria's endemic problems are anchored on ill- governance. The paper interrogated Nigeria's national security which has been compromised through incessant and runaway corruption, the activities of boko haram terrorists, the daily killings by the Fulani herdsmen and other criminal gangs in Nigeria, menacing poverty, dearth of infrastructure, institutions with weak performance capacities, a governance elite that is far away from the aspirations of the governed and too removed that it has become irresponsible and insensitive to the plight of its subjects, which was adequately exposed through the ENDSARS protests in the country in early October 2020. A qualitative research, the paper is anchored on Social Contract as its analytical theory. The paper's findings, amongst others, include a governance deficit foisted by self-styled leadership of a schizophrenic nature that has caused a reversing development, unemployment, human and income poverty, a recourse to inflaming ethnic, tribal and religious sentiments to cover up their primordial interests as well as maladministration and several other challenges arising from their prebendal nature. The recommendations include, among others: elimination of machine politics which is a progenitor of bad leadership and a culture of impunity with negative effects on human development and national security; a resort to entrenching human security if Nigeria intends to achieve national security which will usher in national integration and national development, as well as attract foreign investment and international goodwill.

Keywords: *Governance, National Security, Human Security, Leadership, Prebendalism.*

Introduction

Governance occupies a central place in the activities of groups, organizations/nation-states and the international community. The centrality of governance has pitched it as the principal function in catapulting humanity forward in terms of technology, socio-economic and political development, security and indeed whatever area of human advancement. Natural endowments, human capital and ingenuity in a given polity are assets to the rapid development of such entities. Governance enhances the mix of natural and human endowments in producing desired outcomes. Security, socio-economic and political developments in any state are directly dependent on the quality of governance of any such entity or state. The nomenclatures of third world, second world, advanced industrial states and others are direct reflections of the quality of governance of the states involved and not just the resources they are endowed with. The quality of governance is the tool that pulls individual creativity and talent, the resourcefulness of the community together; builds a vision around it and releases same to flourish to a national pride such that greatness can be developed even in the face of lack and threats.

The story of Israel's place in entrepreneurship is apt here for emphasis and guide. Israel's success, as noted by Senior and Singer (2009:26) "…is not just of talent but of tenacity of insatiable questioning of authority, of determined informality, combined with a unique attitude toward failure, teamwork, mission, risk and cross-disciplinary authority". The implication of the foregoing is that the state, like the corporate business entity that provides entrepreneurial skills to knit together the three Ms (money, man and material) for utmost productivity, is in dire need of governance and governance structures to harness the resources of the state for the purpose of realising the fundamental needs of the citizenry. Chief amongst these basic needs is the capacity to provide security upon which the architecture for socio-economic development is laid which eventually makes for the enhancement of the welfare of man. Edeh and Ugwueze (2014) noted aptly that absence of security threatens development, as it is the forerunner of economic stagnation.

If the hypothesis that the mix of the three Ms mentioned above can lead both the private business entities and states in other climes of the world to achieve their desired goals, is anything to go by, why is Nigeria not attaining such feat with a population of over 200 million and the fortune she has garnered from the export of crude petroleum? Why is the security of the Nigerian state deteriorating on a daily basis with the activities of groups such as Boko Haram, kidnappers, bandits, Fulani herdsmen and wanton destruction of life on a daily basis? Why has Nigeria's government not been able to fix issues such as boko haram, the marauding Fulani herdsmen and other life threatening security issues? What accounts for the proliferation of self-help security outfits (Bakassi Boys and the Eastern Security Network (ESN) in the East, Egbesu boys in the Niger Delta of Ijaw land, AMOTEKUN in the South West)? and can these solve the security issues of Nigeria?

Two scenario can spring from governance that borders on security: good governance produces security which produces economic fortunes of the state and enhanced citizen welfare; governance deficit, also called 'bad governance' (Atakpa and Udoms, 2015) rakes in insecurity, economic stagnation and a measure of public disavowal such as happened during the Arab Spring in 2011 and the ENDSARS protest in Nigeria between 5th and 20th October, 2020.

Governance deficit retards state's capacity to deliver the dividends of the social contract between the citizens and the state. Over the years, there has been sustained and worrying discourse as to the deficiency of state capacity in developing countries and particularly, in Nigeria. This deficiency has resulted in underperformance, with the attendant implication that the Nigerian state is unable to respond to the complex nature of governance in a globalised world. State capacity is a desideratum to the understanding of Nigeria's myriads of economic, political and social challenges. This is even more compelling when weighed against Smith (2003) observation that the nature of the state, the public institutions by which legitimate power is exercised is necessarily inevitable to the study and understanding of state politics, whether in the developed or developing world.

The central thesis of the paper is that the deteriorating national security in Nigeria epitomised by numerous threats to the security of human person: activities of bandits, Fulani herdsmen, boko haram and others, is a consequence of governance deficit. It is the strong opinion of the authors that ENDSARS movement is a protest against ill governance by the Nigerian State, where almost every sector of public institution has collapsed or is showing signs of collapse, with particular reference to the performance of assigned roles.

Theoretical Framework – The Social Contract Theory

The adopted theory for analysis in this paper is the Social Contract theory. There are three celebrated Social Contractarians: Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, and Jean Jacques Rousseau. Notwithstanding the little variance in their individual accounts, they confluence at the following tenets central to the theory - the state of nature, lack of known law giver and central regulating authority; and that the State and government came as a result of the need for enhanced welfare of the people.

The central thesis of the social contract theory is that the state is “the product of a covenant, a compact or social contract” (Nbete, 2012:267). Still notwithstanding the different views on social contract by its various key exponents, the confluence of views remains that the state is the outcome of a social contract. The logical extension and implication of this is that the state and its various paraphernalia are the construction of the people and should exist for the interest of the people at all times.

This paper is however anchored on the Social Contract Theory as propounded by John Locke to justify constitutional government. Locke's position is that the surrender of natural right is not absolute, rather, that people only give up certain of their natural rights to common authority in order that the remaining rights may be kept intact. Locke therefore sees the setting up of government as a secondary transaction where its dissolution would not necessarily entail the dissolution of the society, meaning that the society would have to set up another government in place of the former. In his Two Treatises of Government as part of his Social Contract Theory, John Locke affirmed an explicit right to revolution thus:

> Whenever the legislators endeavour to take away and destroy the property of the people, or to reduce them to slavery under arbitrary power, they put themselves into a state of war with the people who are thereupon absolved from any further obedience and are left to the common refuge, which God hath provided for all men, against force and violence. Whatsoever the legislators shall transgress the fundamental Rule of Society; and either by ambition, fear, folly or corruption, endeavour to grasp themselves, or put into the hands of

> any other an Absolute Power over the lives, liberties and Estates of the people; By this breach of Trust they forfeit the power the people had in their hands, for quite contrary ends and it devolves to the people, who have a Right to resume their original liberty (Powell, 1996 cited in Atakpa and Udoms, 2015:221).

This theory is relevant to this study in that since the people possess the power to make regimes, the people are also vested with the power to change regimes, but far from the argument that democratic government can only be overthrown by popular vote, the right of the people to remove the government through extraneous means, other than the vote, is still relevant. According to Ikpe (2010), by the terms of the contract, the government is bound to guarantee the natural rights of the people to life, liberty and pursuit of happiness. The people, on the other hand, have the right to sack any government that fails to protect or guarantee these rights. Hence, the legitimacy of the government hangs on the dutiful performance of this function. The failure of a government to perform in line with the contract justifies the overthrow of such a government.

In some sense, the liberal theory which confers the right to revolution actually gives pep to the Frustration-Aggression Theory. Theorists who rely on this explanation use the psychological theories of motivation and behaviour as well as frustration and aggression to explain conflict. Citing (Anifowose, 1982) and (Fiereabends, 1969), Best (2009) explains that scholars point to the difference between what people feel and what people want or deserve to what they actually get – the 'want-get-ratio' and the difference between “expected need satisfaction” and “actual need satisfaction”. Best went on to explain that where expectation does not meet attainment, the tendency is for people to confront those they hold responsible for frustrating their ambitions. And so, when this frustration is widespread, on the foundation of the right to revolution earlier espoused, then the tendency toward revolution from the people becomes very plausible.

Conceptual Issues

Governance/Governance Deficit

As always with social concepts, agreements on the meanings and definitions usually present problems. To this extent, governance has attracted series of definitions. UN (2007) sees governance as the formal and informal arrangements that determine the making of public decision and the manner in which public actions are carried out from the perspective of maintaining a country's constitutional values. The above definition restricts governance to the public sector. Kraan (2006), sees governance as activities that are undertaken with public funds, whether within or outside of core government and whether those forms represent direct transfer or are provided in the form of an implicit guarantee. However, scholars such as: Nzongola-Natalaja (2003) broadens the view of governance as he sets out to analyse it under three separate and mutually enforcing types. These are:

a. Political or Public Governance which embraces the authority and stamp of **the state, government or the public sector. Here, governance is the process through which the society organises its affairs.**

b. Economic Governance with the authority being the private sector and refers to the policies or the processes or organizational mechanisms that are necessary to produce and distribute services and goods.

c. Social Governance. Here, the authority is the civil society which includes citizens, non-profit organizations. Governance refers to the system of values and beliefs necessary for social behaviours to happen and for public decision to be taken. Nzongola-Natalaja's definition is broader than the former definition as it widens its reach to embrace the entire fabric of systems and processes of arrangement by which policies, decisions affecting the production of public goods and services is carried out. This brings to bear another important contribution on the explanation of governance given by Kaufmann, Kraay and Mastruzzi (2004:4), as the tradition and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised. This part of the definition if left on its own looks either too shallow or ambiguous until the two important addition are added to their definition:

The first part includes:

i. The process by which governments are selected, monitored and replaced.

ii. The capacity of the government to effectively formulate and implement sound policies.

iii. The respect of citizens and the state of the institutions that govern economic and social interactions among them.

The beauty and strength of the above definition lies yet in the two measures as generated by the authors to measure governance which includes:

i. The process through which governments are selected, monitored and replaced. This measures governance along the modalities for recruiting the personnel that man public office, the processes of checks and balances, as well as the ways the personnel of government are changed. Under this very important area are two dimensions for assessing governance, viz:

a. Voice and Accountability (VA): The critical questions and concerns here are: What is the extent of involvement of the citizens in the choice of those who govern them? What is the quality of freedom of expression? Is there opportunity for the citizens to form and join associations that promote their interest? How free is the media or is the media gaged through artificial inhibitions such as hate speech regulations, is the media reporting only what the government wants?

b. Political Stability and Absence of Violence/Terrorism (PV): Concerns here include whether the elected governments stand to be removed from office through unconstitutional arrangement such as coup d'état, politically motivated violence, terrorism and other means of violent protest.

ii. The capacity of the government to effectively formulate and implement sound policies.
Two dimensions are covered under this:

- Government effectiveness: This deals with issues such as the quality of public services, the degree of independence and non-partisanship of the civil service. Is the civil service one that can stand against undue political pressure? What is the quality of policy formulation and its implementation? Is it in the interest of the people? How committed is the government to realizing such policies or are these mere empty electioneering campaign promises?
- Regulatory Quality (RQ): Is the government able to formulate and implement policies and regulations that permit and promote the development of the private sector? What is the quality of 'enablers' for the private sector to thrive?

c. Respect for Citizens and the state for the institutions that govern economic and social interactions. Under this are:

i. The Rule of Law (RL): An evaluation under this dimension requires the answering of questions such as, what is the extent to which the operatives of government obey extant rules by society? What is the extent of enforcement of contracts? What is the behaviour of the Police and courts? What happens to peoples' rights? What is the extent of crime and violence?

ii. Control of Corruption (CC): Is public/political power used for private gains, whether they be petty or grand corruption or state capture?. What is the extent of prebendalism in the state?

The above form measuring standards on the government. An evaluation on the above criteria predisposes one to either good governance or bad governance and their various implications to development in society, which has a lot of bearing on the security/insecurity of the state.

Good Governance entails the:

i. Positive manner by which government and social entities interact and maintain relationship with citizens.
ii. The genuine use of state capacity to serve citizens and other actors including the way public functions are executed, management of public resources for the welfare of the citizens and the exercise of public regulatory power in the interest of the masses.
iii. Exercise of authority for common good as well as the ability of governance to help the citizens' ability to achieve individual satisfaction and material prosperity.

Governance is for the interest of the generality of the people, not a select elite class who only use the phrase - “in the interest of the masses" as a mere slogan for attaining parochial interest using public resources”. The goal of governance is quid pro quo the ability of individuals to achieve satisfaction and material prosperity – enhanced welfare. In other to achieve this, it means therefore that governance must be geared towards the supply, delivery and management of political goods. Political goods here referring to human security, rule of law, political and civil freedom, medical and health, schools and education, communication network etc. (Besancon 2003). All these, in themselves, are prerequisites for development and the absence of these, pitch the citizens amongst those suffering from human poverty. Thomas (2000) asserts that, a people may suffer from human poverty even when they do not suffer from income poverty; human poverty referring to illiteracy, short life expectancy and other range of demand of choice, and opportunities for promoting a quality life in a community. Income poverty on the other hand points to the economic purchasing power of the citizens e.g. the US one-dollar mark/day criteria. That citizens are able to live a tolerable life in terms of having the political goods, getting out of the income and human poor category is a function of governance and quality of policies formulated and implemented for the benefit of the citizens.

Governance deficit is the direct opposite of good governance. It depicts a deplorable situation where governance serves the primordial interest of the elite class, where the interest and comfort of the masses is sacrificed on the altar of prebendalism.

Manifestation/Instruments generating Governance Deficit

1. Deliberate disregard for constitutional provisions by public office holders in the day to day running of their forts, due to personal and group aggrandisement.
2. Weak institutions with utter lack of independence to perform assigned roles. Here political institutions respond to the body language of certain “men on top”.

3. Subordination of the interests of the masses to the personal and group interests of elites.
4. Ill reward system where those who work hard are not rewarded but the lazy and indolent are rewarded.
5. Extolling the virtues of corruption and the corrupt in society.
6. Inadequate punishments to serve as deterrents.

The manifestation of governance deficit as presented above is by no means exhaustive. However, placing good and governance deficit in comparative perspective; good governance is directed at enhancing the quality of life of the citizens. This is saying that good governance is aimed at promoting a high standard of living. Governance deficit on the other side implies crisis of governance where public institutions are intentionally made to malfunction for the interest of the glutonous elite who play against the rule of law, promote their primordial interest against public interest. To this extent, governance deficit is in tandem with lack of accountability, lack of transparency, irresponsibility of the governors and the governed as well as social inclusion and non-equitability (Atakpa and Udoms, 2015). From the above, governance deficit becomes tangential to huge loss in terms of economic growth and development, drives away investments at social, political and economic fronts, monumental waste of national resources, among others. In all, deficit in governance eulogizes and elevates alienation of the citizenry, fuels insecurity, midwife's other challenges and indices of human insecurity and the helpless citizens' resort to self-help (Udoms and Ekanem, 2017).

Governance Deficit, Development Challenges and Insecurity

Governance deficit is a serious challenge to development. Dudley Seers (in Todaro and Smith, 2003) sees development in terms of the reduction of those threats to human existence such as poverty, unemployment and inequality. According to Seers, a society is developed if the answers to three fundamental questions are in the positive. The questions:

i. What has been happening to poverty?
ii. What has been happening to inequality?
iii. What has been happening to unemployment?

It is important to note that: a growing per capita income in the face of increase in poverty, inequality and unemployment does not mean development as basically development is about the qualitative enhancement in human condition. Development is measured by the existence of social indicators given by Jhingan (2007) to include health, education, food, safe water, sanitation and affordable housing for the people. “The place of social indicators is that they relate to ends which refer to human development and while development is a means to those ends, social indicators tell how different countries prefer to allocate the GNP among alternative uses” (Udoms, Atakpa, and Ekanem, 2017:101). The contradiction engineered by governance deficit is enormously dangerous as the seeds of development challenges produce insecurity. Poverty, unemployment and socio-political and economic inequality harbour disastrous and violent upheavals in their womb. Armed robbers, kidnappers, herdsmen, suicide bombers, sea-pirates, terrorists, bandits, commercial sex workers (CSW) are not born but are products and victims of endemically atomistic, alienated, fragmented and ill governed societies; societies that neglect the very social harmony by insisting on prebendal approach. Prebendalism on its own produces those who are income poor and human poor. The concept of income and human poverty is generously explained by Thomas (2000) when the scholar noted that: income poverty refers to the purchasing power at one's disposal e.g. US $1 per day while human poverty relates to illiteracy, short life expectancy, inability to participate in governance or any other level of exclusion as a result of unnatural class division. Those who are financially wealthy may still suffer human poverty depending on the type of government.

Governance deficit stiffens development through its various manifestation of diverting resources for development which will benefit the people to the propagation of selfish motives. Table 1 shows the looted funds by various public office holders in Nigeria. If these funds were invested in education and employment generating outfits, poverty,

Table 1: Some stolen funds by Nigerian public officers which should have been used in fighting insecurity through development projects

S/N	Names of Public Officers who Embezzled the Funds	London Banks £	Swiss Banks $	USA Banks $	Germany Banks- DM
1	Former Milit ary President Gen Ibrahim Babangida (rtd)	6.256 billion	7.41 billion	2.00 billion	9.00 billion
2	Former Military President Gen Abdulsalam Abubakar (rtd)	1.31 billion	2.33billion	8.00 billion	-
3	Admiral Mike Akhigbe former Chief of Naval Staff	1.24 billion	2.42 billion	671 million	-
4	Gen Jerry Useni	3.04 billion	2.01 billion	1.01 billion	--
5	Alhaji Ismaila Gwarzo	1.03 billion	2.00 billion	1.30 billion	1 billion
6	Alhaji Umaru Dikko	5.01 billion	1.4 billion	700 million	-
7	Paul Ogwuma	300 million	1.142 billion	200 million	700 million
8	Former Military President Sani Abacha	600 million	4.09 billion	800 million	345 million
9	Mohammed Abacha	400 million	-	-	500 million
10	Abdulkadir Abacha	1.12 billion	1.2 billion	150 million	3.01 million
11	Alhaji Wada Nas	2.5 billion	1.21 billion	900 million	535 million
12	Tom Ikimi	600 million	1.32 billion	153 million	471 million
13	Dan Etete	2.96 billion	1.39 billion	400 million	300 million
14	Don Etiebiet	-	1.03billion	700 million	371 million
15	Major Al Mustapha	2.3 billion	1.06 billion	360 million	1.72 million
16	Tony Anenih	700 million	1.001 billion	161 million	361 million
17	Bashir Dalhatu	300 million	1.09 billion	700 million	1.66 million
18	Alhaji Hassan Adamu	120 million	200 million	-	1.42 billion
19	T. Y Danjuma	-	1.02 billion	-	-
20	Gen Ishaya Bamaiyi	-	800 million	-	190 million

Source: Adapted from Ojo (2016).

National Security

This article views security holistically. Barry Buzan conceptualised security in a three level approach: the individual, the state and the international community. He also incorporated sectors into his definition of security – the political, military, economic, societal and environmental (Buzan, 2008). Buzan (1991:432-433) further noted:

> Security is taken to be about the pursuit of freedom, from fear and the ability of states and societies to maintain their independent identity and their functional integrity against forces of change which they see as hostile. The bottom line of security is survival, but it also reasonably includes a substantial range of concerns about the conditions of existence. Quite where this range of concerns ceases to merit the urgency of the security label (which identifies threats as significant enough to warrant emergency action and exceptional measures including the use of force) and becomes part of everyday uncertainties of life, is one of the difficulties of the concept.

In Nigeria, it is pertinent to state that the Nigeria's National Security Strategy (2014) which guides policy formulation and conduct of operations is encapsulated in the strategic vision of creating a peaceful, self-reliant, prosperous and strong nation. The National Security Strategy, 2014, sets out to address two very critical threat areas:

i. National Security Interests - The core national interests are:
   - The security and welfare of its people
   - Sovereignty and defence of its territorial integrity.
   - Peace
   - Democracy
   - Economic growth
   - Social justice

ii. Threats to National Security:
   Global challenges e.g. economic meltdown/global economic recession.
   - Terrorism
   - Transnational organised crimes
   - Crude oil theft
   - Ethnic religious conflicts
   - Farmers/herders conflict etc.

In line with Nigeria's vision the Grand Strategy – a major security policy document developed in year 2000 by President Olusegun Obasanjo defines national security as "the aggregation of the security interest of all individuals, communities, ethnic groups, political entities and institutions in the territory of Nigeria".

For any state, the security of life and property is a fundamental and primary function for this is the purpose of the state. Going by the metaphorical social contract theory, especially the Hobbesian thesis where, due to the ingratiating ills of the state of nature, the emergence of the Leviathan was to end the known short coming of the state of nature: the solitary, short, brutish and nasty nature of life, it is however noted that, in Nigeria, specifically since the return to democracy, the Nigerian state has failed at its security task. Threats to human and national security grows by the day. Rev. Father Matthew Hassan Kukah of the Sokoto Catholic Diocese, in his 2021 Easter Homily, puts it bluntly that the activities of Boko Haram are worse now than in 2015, as against the position of the Federal Government who says always that the fundamentalist terrorist organization has been decimated. Another version of the activities of threats to human and national security is captured by Ukpe (2021:1) thus:

> The security situation has become so worrisome that only two places in the country are now safe – Aso Rock and Prison. Aso rock is safe simply because kidnappers know that the final approval for ransom payment is domiciled there. It would be foolish to attack your revenue base and kidnappers are not stupid. Prisons are safe because it is inconceivable that social activists will ever take up campaigns like "bring back our prisoners and force government to pay anything substantial for prisoners to be brought back …

The implication of the above quote is manifold:

i. Insecurity in Nigeria is of a grave nature.
ii. The lack of capacity of the Nigerian state to effectively secure its citizens resulting in massive loss of lives and property.
iii. That the Nigerian government of President Muhammadu Buhari is either so helpless or is compromised that she now begs the hoodlums to release kidnapped victims e.g. school children which has become so rampant, at a fee – ransom.
iv. Negotiation for ransom to release abducted school children

In sum, from the above, the Nigerian citizen is grossly vulnerable in the face of insecurity. Insecurity has taken a toll on educational institutions in Nigeria, as kidnappers and bandits have, in the last seven years, turned their tool of violence to schools as depicted in the table 2:

Table 2: School Insecurity 2014-2021

S/N	Name of School	Nature of Insecurity	Remarks
1.	Girls Secondary School Chibok, Borno State	Abduction of 276 teenage school girls by Boko Haram Terrorists on April 14, 2014	Some were later released in 2018 following pressure on the government of Nigeria by the International community and 'the bring back our girls' campaign. More than 100 others are still in the custody of the kidnappers and are used as sex slaves by the terrorists.
2.	Government Girls Science And Technical College Dapchi, Yobe State.	Kidnap of over 110 school girls by Boko Haram terrorists on Friday Feb. 19, 2018	104 of the girls were later returned by their abductors 5 weeks later (21 March, 2018) except Leah Shuaibu still in captivity on account that she refused to deny her Christian faith and convert to Islam
3.	Government Science School Kankara, Katsina State	Kidnap of 344 school boys from the dormitory on December 11, 2020	The boys were later released on December 17, 2020
4.	Government Science School Kagara Niger State	Kidnap of 27 boys and 15 workers on Friday February 17, 2021	Released on 27 February, 2021 days after abduction

5.	Government Girls Science College Jangebe, Zamfara State	Abduction of 317 school girls by Bandits on February 26, 2021	The Students were released on March 2, 2021
6.	College of Forestry Mechanisation Afaka, Kaduna State	Abduction of 39 students - 23 females and 16 males by Bandits on March 12, 2021	5 students were later rescued by search teams. Allegedly 180 other persons were al so rescued by the team.
7.	Greenfield University (Private), located in Kasarami village, Chikun Local Government Area, Kaduna State.	Abduction of 20 students and 3 staff (23) on April 20, 2021by Bandits	So far 5 deaths have been recorded – 4 students and a non-teaching staff

Source: Authors' compilation from various publications and radio information on abductions and kidnaps.

School kidnap is the latest and yet most dangerous source of threat to Nigeria's national security. Briggs (1988:36) saw threat as "anything that constitutes a source of danger to the country's territory, the lives of its people, its political and economic systems and its territory”. In the same vein Imobighe (1990:224) described threat to a nation-state to mean anything that has the capacity to undermine the security of the nation, or anything that constitutes danger to the corporate entity and hinders the harmonious relationship of the various components of the nation-state, as well as the peaceful co-existence of the state.

The kidnap of innocent teenagers in schools is the worst of the newest threat tools to national security as it threatens the very survival of Nigeria as a sovereign entity. The kidnapped school children, traumatised and some eventually released without any form of genuine rehabilitation, live with two types of hurtful memories: the failure of the very state they pledged their loyalty to in the National Anthem and National Pledge (perhaps few hours before their kidnap) to protect them, giving rise to questioning the very loyalty they pledge and the bond to the state, a traumatised psychology for a life time. Eventually these children are the leaders of tomorrow: presidents, ambassadors, governors, legislators, business tycoons, teachers, medical practitioners, legal luminaries, engineers, military generals, police officers etc. It is highly probable they live and score the state with bias and fractional morale and trust. It becomes germane at this juncture to note that no nation-state is secured to the extent that its citizens are not secured. This is re-echoing the thoughts that the people are the referent objects of security going by the alternative security approach. This is what informed Udoms, Atakpa and Udofia (2015) to state that for any nation-state to achieve national security, that state must first eliminate all forms of threats to human security as human security is a strategy for achieving national security.

The very reason that security of the nation is threatened is the fact that governance deficit holds a serious grip on the security sector prompting the diversion of security votes and other budgetary allocations to the security sectors been diverted to personal and corrupt uses instead of using same for public interest. A typical example is the over $2.2 Billion released during the administration of President Goodluck Jonathan for the fight against the dreaded Boko Haram. The money was embezzled under the then National Security Adviser, Col. Sambo Dasuki (rtd) in what is popularly referred to (in Nigeria now) as Arms deal or the 'Dasukigate'. Table 3 gives a breakdown of how the money was embezzled by few Nigerians in position of trust yet these are still the ones who call the shots in different areas of the country.

Table 3: Beneficiaries of Dasuki Arms Deal

S/N	Name	Nomenclature	Amount
001	Dr. Peter Odili	Former Governor, Rivers State	N100 million
002	Attahiru Bafarawa	Former Governor, Sokoto State	N4.5 billion
003	Aliyu Shinkafi		N100 million
004	Jim Nwobodo	Former Information Minister	N500 million
005	Tony Anenih	Former BOT Chairman	N260 million
006	Ahmadu Ali	Former PDP Chairman	N100 million
007	Bode George	Former Deputy Chairman	N100 million and $30,000.00
008	Olisa Metuh	PDP Publicity Secretary	N400 million
009	Gen. Bello Sarkin Yaki		N200 million
010	Dr. Raymond Dokpesi	Chairman Daar Communication Plc.	N2.1 billion
011	Iyorchia Ayu	Former Speaker House of Rep	N345 million
012	Dalhatu Investment Ltd		N1.5 billion
013	Bello Haliru and Son	Former PDP Chairman	N300 million
014	Bello Mutawalle		N300 million

015	ACACIA Holding		N600 million
016	Bashir Yuguda	Former Minister of State Finance	N1.9 billion
017	Rashidi Ladoja	Former Governor Oyo State	N100 million
018	Olu Falae	Former Secretary FGN	N100 million
019	Tanko Yakasai	Former Presidential Adviser	N63 million

Source: Adapted from Daily Trust, January, 17th 2016 and ventureafrica.com.dasukigate-her.

Governance Deficit, National Security and ENDSARS: The Nexus

ENDSARS is the Nigerian version of the 2011 Arab Spring, a revolutionary pressure that swept through the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) involving states such as Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, Yemen and others. The spur for the Arab Spring was governance deficit that rendered the lives of the citizens miserable.

ENDSARS is a reaction to years of inept, selfish and governance deficit by the ruling class that does not have any genuine thinking for the poor Nigerian masses. October 3, 2020 the Nigerian Youth arose in their numbers to protest bad governance anchoring on one of the paraphernalia of government - the police, with particular attention to the unit of police referred to as Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS), noted for its notoriety in brutality, extortion, maiming, killing and framing up innocent and unsuspected citizens especially those they perceived do not have political connections that will come to their rescue.

The last straw that broke the camel's back on October 3, 2020, was the extra judicial action of the anti-people unit of the Nigerian police (SARS), bearing on trump-up charges against a young man they labelled as a 'yahoo boy' (a Nigerian Parlance to interpret fraudsters and deceitful businesses). The killing of the young man triggered a series of peaceful protests by Nigerian Youth in the major cities of Lagos, Abuja, Port Harcourt, Uyo, Calabar, Benin etc. The demands presented by the youth to the government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, besides the disbandment of the SARS as a unit of Nigerian Police and a comprehensive reform of the Nigerian Police, was a direct message to the Nigerian government, on the reign of bad governance across all the sectors of the economy. The 23 point demands are listed to include (see Table 4).

Table 4: Showing the 23 Demands by the protesting Youth on October 20, 2020 during ENDSARS Protest

S/N	Items of the Demands	Authors' Comments /Remarks
1	End SARS, SWAT or any other such contraption.	This unit of police is notorious for extortion, extra-judicial killing and high handedness and as a result very unpopular and Nig erians want the FGN to scrap it.
2	Sack security chiefs and replace with more competent hands reflecting federal character by all means.	Nigerians wanted the sacking of the security chiefs of the Army, Air force Navy and police for inability to tackle in security yet their tenure was elongated by Mr. President. The security chiefs were later recommended by the Executive for ambassadorial appointments in 2021 notwithstanding their poor management of the security sector
3	Improve security by implementing existing white papers on police and security services reform.	Various reforms in the security sector have not been implemented
4	Full deregulation of oil and gas sector to allow more investments for job creation	The FGN has not fully deregulated the oil a nd gas sector such that will allow for more private interests investments
5	Immediate passage of PIB	For more than six years the Petroleum Industry Bill has been in the national legislature. The passage of the bill will signal more investments and the participation of the locales.
6	Full deregulation of power sector to allow investment capital flow to generate, transmit and distribute more power and create jobs.	The government has spent a lot of resources in the sector yet electricity in Nigeria is comatose
7	FGN should hands off petroleum pricing to enable free market determination of pricing	. the federal government unilaterally fixes the price of petroleum products using the Product Pricing and Regulatory Agency - PPRA instead of allowing the market forces
8	FGN should close all Northern borders to stop free entry of Fulani Herdsmen and bandits and FGN should reduce by 70% the customs check points in the Southern	The nation is awash with bandits and the attendant security challenges

9	FGN should allocate more funds to education sector to provide better teaching tools and pay better salaries to end ASUU strikes. All allocation hitherto for hajj or pilgrimage should be converted to education.	The Nigerian federal government has not placed any priority in education as it is investing far less than the 26% national budgets as recommended by the UN. Infrastructure in the sector is appalling; remuneration for workers in the sector is lower than any in the African continent. The staff of t he sector are left with no option but frequent agitation for funding and welfare issues
10	Change our Academic curriculum to reflect modern day realities.	
11	All politicians should be placed on minimum wage to attract genuine public servants, no politi cian should earn double the amount of any civil servant, in both salaries and allowances.	Nigerian politicians learn far more than anywhere else in the world. Governors have illegally made for themselves mouth -watering pension schemes and other severance packages while workers work and retire without pensions and gratuity
12	INEC must immediately migrate to 100% electronic voting tied to our BVN, tax TIN number and GSM number. Anyone not paying tax must not vote.	If Nigeria is to have credible elections and have good governance there is a need for electronic voting
13	Return Nigeria to regional governance structure or restructure the country and embrace True federalism. States autonomy must be paramount.	Due to issues of governance deficit there is calls for restructuring of the country to remove excessive power from the federal government
14	Disband the Bi -cameral legislature and adopt unicameral. Federal government to have only Senate while states to have House of Representatives.	The federal legislat ure comprising of 109 senators and 360 members of the House of representative are currently taking more than 30 % of yearly budgets as emolument and constituency votes which are also cornered into private pockets
15	Immediately reform Nigeria Police Forc e and let every state or region create its own police service with the FGN protecting human and citizens' rights violation in every State.	There is the call for state police as the federal police has failed to protect Nigerians, however, that state police will not fair worse is yet to be seen
16	No more budget for running private affairs of elected and appointed public servants	There is the urgent need to separate private life from public office by public office holders

17	Enthrone tertiary education as minimum qualification for public office holders at all levels of government from president to local government and ward chairpersons.	
18	Strip ex -governors and all elected and appointed public servants of all benefits after office.	See S/N 11
19	Increase salaries of our doctors, nurses, teachers, police, military officers and civil servants to be at par with petroleum sector workers.	Remuneration for these category of workers in the country is to say the least paltry and do not meet with roles performed for society.
20	Government should hands off ownership and management of businesses at all levels, but must regulate the market strangulating the society against the market by tanning all firms of uneven price fixing or monopoly.	
21	Name and shame a ll looters and make criminal offenders and looters face trial in their home states and villages to shame them and their families.	Politicians and their friends who loot public treasury are often rewarded with more juicy positions both at local, state and federal governments
22	Stop foreign medical trips for public servants. Let them be treated her in Nigeria. When last did you hear American President or British Prime Minister visit Nigeria for medical tourism?	Nigerian leaders are perhaps synonymous with a cook that does not eat what s/he cooks. They undertake medical tourism abroad as a medical facilities have been bastardised by these inept leaders
23	Stop all embassies in Nigeria from collecting visa fees if they did not grant the visa.	

Source: Adapted from www.vanguard.ngr.com.

The 23 points demand of the Youth, apparently spoke the position of the entire Nigeria populace. These can be grouped under 9 basic sectors/headings with substantial influences on the socio-political and economic well-being of the Nigerian state: security, education, power generation and distribution, petroleum, economy, infrastructure, politics, employment and welfare. That Nigeria can come out of the woods, improve security and individual wellbeing of the state, is dependent on the efficient performance of the various listed sectors. It is worthy to note that the deterioration and non-performance of the various units of governance listed above is as a result of bad governance and it is only good governance, as discussed earlier, that can cancel out the negative effects of ill governance and subsequently, usher in both human and national security, as well as development.
Nigerian Political Science Association (NPSA, 2020) rightly attributed the ♯ ENDSARS♯ protests to long years of poor governance, marginalization, marginality, alienation, exclusion, corruption, poverty, lack of accountability, and the failure of the political class to live up to her constitutional responsibilities. The protests itself was a testimony and conviction of not just the Nigerian youths, but also those of the entire Nigerian populace and the international community, of the deteriorating capacity of the Nigerian state to deliver public goods (NPSA, 2020).

Concluding Remarks

The paper interrogated the nexus between governance deficit, national security and development, leveraging on the ♯ ENDSARS♯ protests. It was discovered among others that national security is challenged by governance deficit. NPSA (2020:1) captured the essence of the protests poignantly attributing it to long years of poor governance, marginalization, marginality, alienation, exclusion, corruption, poverty, lack of accountability, and the failure of the political class to live up to her constitutional responsibilities. The NPSA (2020) further appreciated the Nigerian problem when she observed that:

> The incontrovertible truth is that governance deficits and reckless constitutional breaches have become glorifying norms which redispose the political class to act as paramount emperors who are totally disconnected from the governed. These inglorious practices pervade the various levels of governance architecture in Nigeria (NPSA, 2020:2).

Governance deficit pervades virtually all sectors of the Nigerian society including but not limited to the judiciary, legislature, education, politics, health, power, security and economy. It should be recalled that the 23-point demand to the Federal Government of Nigeria by the Nigerian Youth, before they could call off the nationwide ENDSARS protest is instructive of the diseased body of the Nigerian state. Attainment of national security and or development is dependent on the achievement of human security. Human security represents a paradigm shift from the state centric notion of national security to the security of individual members of the state. It is a situation where the citizens in a state have the enabling environment that allows them to pursue and achieve social, economic, and political aspirations, as individuals and as a community without inhibition (Udoms, 2016). Human security implies the tackling of income and human poverty such as unemployment, marginalization, political exclusion etc. It is by this way that political thuggery, violence, kidnapping, etc. can be arrested in the Nigerian society.

This is the first point to establish security. The social contract between the people and the state is primarily to protect the human person to give him the ambience to pursue his aspirations in life. Until this is done, national security and by extension, development, is a mirage.

Based on the findings of the paper, the following recommendations are proffered:
There is need to institute in an urgent manner the culture of accountability and probity in all public affairs such that public officers are held accountable for their omissions and commissions.

The security apparatus of the state must be strengthened in both military hardware (equipment and other operational logistics as well as software (morale, attractive service conditions, insurance etc. This should also go with complete overhaul of the security system to fish out the corrupt and inefficient hands, just as appropriate sanctions must be applied to serve as deterrent to would-be erring personnel.

A meaningful and genuine war should be waged on corruption - war on corruption that should show no respect for ethnic, socio political and economic status, religious affiliations. Selective fight against corruption is no fight at all.

The government should improve on infrastructure - electricity, good roads, medical facilities, educational institutions etc. It has become imperative for public officials to be barred from undertaking medical tourism abroad. This is the only way government will pay attention to revamping the comatose medical and other infrastructures in Nigeria.

Government should make conscious efforts to improve on educational facilities in the country. Public officers such as presidents, governors, legislators, ministers and others must have their children school in the country. This can be achieved through legislation. Also the conditions of service of those working in the schools, from the kindergartens to the tertiary levels, should be made attractive to attract the best brains and to stop brain drain.

Capacities of state institutions and apparatuses should be strengthened in terms of needed facilities including political will and integrity, as well as independence to enable them to perform their assigned roles.

The salaries and other mouth-watering incentives of politicians must be reduced, pecks of office of the Nigerian politicians must be reduced to enable those with genuine interest in developing the nation to come into politics.

There is at the moment, so much disparity in the emolument of public officers in Nigeria. There is need to reduce the gap between those who work in the public service. For instance, the gap in salaries and other conditions of service of an accountant working in the federal ministry of education and one working in the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) is alarming.

Electoral reforms should be undertaken to pave way for complete electronic voting system in Nigeria to reduce undue manipulations and to pave way for free and fair election as a way of throwing up popular candidates and representatives of the people in governance.

There should be a genuine attitudinal reorientation and enlightenment of the masses such that the citizenry does not applaud and sing the praises of those who loot the national and state treasuries for personal gains. Corrupt officials should be punished adequately as prescribed by law, to serve as deterrent to others and to encourage the spirit of patriotism.

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School Feeding Programme and Academic Performance of Pupils in Public Primary Schools in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria

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Abstract

It is unfortunate to observe that each day, millions of children around the globe including Akwa Ibom State go to school on an empty stomach. This is counterproductive because hunger affects concentration and ability to learn, hence, the establishment of school feeding programme with the sole aim of facilitating access to education and increase performance and school attendance. The aim of this study is to examine how school feeding programme affects academic performance of pupils in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State. The study adopts Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs as its theoretical framework. The study employs survey method which involve the administration of questionnaires on 648 respondents from the three (3) Senatorial District in Akwa Ibom State. The study reveals that school feeding programme has actually increased pupils' performance in public primary schools. The study further reveals that the introduction of school feeding has equally increased school enrolment and attendance in public primary schools. On the strength of this, the study recommends that Akwa Ibom State government should ensure timely release of fund to enable the programme run smoothly in the State. Also, the government should ensure that all public primary schools in the State benefit from the programme.

Keywords: School feeding, Programme, Academic performance, Pupils, Publicprimary, School, Akwa Ibom

Introduction

It is estimated that at least 368 million children globally are fed daily at school through school feeding programmes that are managed in varying degree by national governments. School feeding not only nurtures children and improved their health, but they are also key in facilitating access to education as they increase school performance, enrolment, attendance and completion (Home Grown School Feeding Programme, 2017).

The introduction of the school feeding programme by the federal government of Nigeria is a demonstration of the commitment of the government to ensure the progressive actualization of the right of every child in Nigeria to free, compulsory and universal basic education. This programme is intended to give effect to three distinct rights namely: the right to food, right to education and right to freedom from disease or right to health.

School feeding is part of an integrated school health and nutrition package which supports children to become better learners in schools and improve their overall wellbeing having in mind that sick and hungry children cannot attend school. It is equally believed that for the more vulnerable students, enrolling in school, attending regularly and learning if often made more difficult by illness, hunger and malnutrition. In some parts of the world especially developing countries, children from vulnerable families are often pulled out of school when they are needed to work at home or hawk on the street to help their families. For these groups of students and their families, a daily meal or snack can be a strong incentive for families to keep their children, especially girls, in school (WFP, 2020; Alderman, 2015 & Eyango et al, 2015).

Statement of the Problem

It is sad to observe that each day, millions of children around the globe go to school on an empty stomach. This is counterproductive because hunger affects their concentration and ability to learn. Also, there are millions of children especially girls, who cannot go to school because their families need them to help in the farm, hawk on the street and or perform domestic chores (Drake et al 2016 & National Home Grown Feeding, 2020).

Against this backdrop, the establishment of school feeding programme which is generally considered to be education intervention that facilitate access to education and increase attendance and retention rates while improving the nutrition of school children. It is equally believed that school feeding programme contributes to children learning and health, increasing their productive potential in life. The essence of this study is to see how school feeding programme has helped to enhance school performance, enrolment and reduce the current dropout ratio of 30% from public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State (WFP, 2017; Godwin, 2018 & NHGF, 2020).

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to examine the impact of School Feeding Programme (SFP) on the performance of pupils in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State. This study is equally designed to achieve the following specific objectives:

i. To assess the impact of school feeding programme on academic performance of pupils in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State.
ii. To determine the effect of school feeding on number of dropouts in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State.

Research Questions

i. How does school feeding programme affects academic performance of pupils in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State?
ii. Does school feeding programme affects the number of dropouts in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State?

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses are:
i. There is no significant relationship between school feeding programme and academic performance of pupils in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State.
ii. School feeding programme does not significantly affect the number of dropout in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State.

Study Area

The study area is Akwa Ibom State. Akwa Ibom State is one of the 36 States in Nigeria. It has an estimated current population of 3.44 million (NPC, 2006). The state was created on 23rd September, 1987. It is the tenth largest State in the country with 31 Local Government Areas. The State covers a total area of 7,246.499 square kilometres. It is situated at the South-eastern corner of Nigeria and lies approximately between latitudes 4°32ꞌ and 5°33ꞌ North and Longitude 7°2lꞌ and 8°25ꞌ East. It is bounded in the North by Abia State, in the West by Rivers State and in the East by Cross River State (Ekpo & Umoh, 2007).

In Akwa Ibom State, education is a consuming passion of the people and government. No wonder from 2007 till date education in the State has moved from ruins and commodities beyond reach to citadel of equal opportunities practising well-articulated and state government fortified Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme, with government regularly raising standards to ensure greater performance.

Education in Akwa Ibom has grown in leaps and bounds to become a major component of state economic empowerment and development strategy. This is made possible with the introduction of school feeding programme which is education intervention aim at saving about 7.3 million out of school children in Nigeria. 1,500 public primary schools are currently benefitting from this programme in Akwa Ibom State (AKSME, 2020).

Conceptual Explication

According to World Bank (2013), School Feeding Programme is a targeted social safety net that provides both educational and social benefits to the most vulnerable children, thereby increasing enrollment rates, reducing absenteeism, and improving food security at household levels. School feeding programme empowers girls by dissuading parents from marrying them off early, which halts their education and can result in child pregnancies. It also acts as an incentive for families to enroll and keep children in school (Awojobi & Tinubu, 2020).

School feeding programme is increasingly recognized as a major investment in both human capital and in local economies which has accelerated country-led demand. It is equally seen as playing an important role not only in emergency contexts but also in social stability, peace-building and national development. School feed goes far beyond the plate of food, but producing high returns in the areas of education and gender equality, health and nutrition, social protection, local economies and agriculture (SFP, 2019; Alderman & Bundt, 2011).

WFP (2013) defines school feeding as the provision of food to school children. It further explains that there are as many types of programmes as there are countries, but they can be classified into two main groups based on their modalities such as: in-school feeding, where children are fed in school as in Nigeria, and take-home rations, where families are given food if their children attend school. It can equally be explained further that in-school feeding can, in turn, be divided into two common categories namely: programmes that provide meal; and programmes that provide high- energy biscuits or snacks (WFP, 2016).

School feeding programme serves multiple purposes. Most immediately, it provides a safety net to families, incentivizing parents to send their children to school. The nutrients keep children focused in the classroom and ready to catch up and stay ahead in school, while also improving their health, wellbeing, physical and cognitive development. It is interesting to say that most school meals are fortified with vitamins and minerals and provide children with their healthiest meal of the day (McCarthy, 2020; NEPAD, 2009 and Falade et al, 2012).

Theoretical Framework

This study is predicated on Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory in psychology comprising a five-tier model of human needs, often depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid. From the bottom of the hierarchy upwards, the need are: physiological (food and clothing), safety (job security), love and belonging needs (friendship), esteem, and self-actualization (Mclead, 2020).

The import of this theory is that the lower needs must be satisfied first before individuals can attend to needs higher up. So our most basic need is for physical survival, and this will be the first thing that motivates one's behaviour. Once that level is fulfilled the next level up will follow. For instance, if these basic needs such as air, food, drink, shelter, clothing, warmth, sex and sleep are not satisfied the human body cannot function optimally. Maslow considered physiological or basic needs as the most important as all the other needs become secondary, until these needs are met (Maslow, 1943).

The relevant of this theory to this study is that before a student's cognitive need can be met, they must first fulfil their basic physiological needs. For instance, a hungry student will find it difficult to focus on learning. Such students find it difficult to attend school or may drop out of school. No wonder, the government of Nigeria by way of satisfying basic need of pupils in public primary school introduced school feeding programme which aims at providing food for pupil to help improve performance and stem the tide of school drop-out in Nigeria and by extension Akwa Ibom State.

Materials and Methods

This work adopted survey method as the design of this study. This method was chosen because it enabled the researcher elicit responses from respondents through the use of questionnaire instrument to determine the impact of school feeding programme on the performance of pupils in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State. The work also benefitted from oral interview as well as comparing records of school report cards and enrollment, attendance register before and after the introduction of the programme.

The population of the study is 3.44 million being the estimated population of Akwa Ibom State (National Population Comission, 2006). The sample size is 648. Both stratified and simple random techniques were used in selecting respondents from three villages each from the three Senatorial Districts in the State namely; Uyo, Ikot Ekpene and Eket. 72 questionnaires were proportionately administered to each community. So a total of 648 copies of the questionnaire were issued out to the respondents in the nine (9) urban and rural communities namely: Uyo, Ibiono Ibom, Nsit Atai, Ikot Ekpene, Oruk Anam, Ikono, Eket, Oron and Ikot Abasi Local Government Areas.

Data Analysis

Table 1: Questionnaire Allocated and Returned

S/N	Senatorial District/L.G.A	No. of Questionnaires Sent Out	No. of Questionnaire Return	% Return
1.	**Akwa Ibom North-East (Uyo Senatorial District)**			
	Uyo L.G. Area	72	72	11
	Ibiono Ibom L. G. Area	72	68	10
	Nsit Atai L. G. Area	72	60	9
2	**Akwa Ibom North-West (Ikot Ekpene Senatorial District)**			
	Ikot Ekpene L. G. Area	72	70	11
	Oruk Anam L. G. Area	72	67	9
	Ikono L. G. Area	72	68	10
3	**Akwa Ibom State South (Eket Senatorial District)**			
	Eket L. G. Area	72	71	11
	Oron L. G. Area	72	59	9
	Ikot Abasi L. G. Area	72	66	10
	Total	**648**	**601**	**90**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 1 shows the breakdown of questionnaire sent out, returned and percentage of returned from different Local Government Areas in the three senatorial district of Akwa Ibom State. Out of 648 questionnaires sent out 601 were returned showing 90% compliance.

Personal Data of Respondent
Table 2: Gender Distribution or Respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	417	69
Female	184	31
Total	**601**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 2 depicts that 417 respondent representing 69% were males while 184 respondents representing 31% were females. Thus, the significant number or respondents were males.

Table 3: Age of Respondents

Age (Years)	Frequency	Percentage
21 – 30 years	197	33
31 – 40 years	219	36
41 – 50 years	96	16
50 years and above	89	15
Total	**601**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 3 indicates that 33% of the respondents were between the ages of 2l - 30 years, 36% were 31- 40 years, 16% were between 41- 50 years while 15% were 50 years and above. This shows that majority of those who responded were adult with fair knowledge about school feeding programme.

Table 4: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	423	70
Single	132	22
Divorce	46	8
Total	**601**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 4 shows that 70% of the respondents were married, 22% were single, 8% were widowed and widowers. This implies that majority of the respondents were married who have children in public primary school.

Table 5: Educational Qualification or Respondents

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
FSLC	131	22
WAEC/GCE	215	36
OND	93	15
HND/B.SC	42	24
MSC	15	2
PH.D	5	1
Total	**601**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 5 shows that 22% of the respondents had primary education (FSLC), 36% had WAEC/GCE, 15% had OND, 24% had HND/B.SC, 2% were M.SC holders and 1% hold a PH.D degree. This implies that most of the respondents were WAEC/GCE holders who can read and write.

Table 6: Official Status of Respondents

Official Status	Frequency	Percentages
Civil Servant	189	31
Self-Employ	156	26
Private staff	94	16
Teachers	162	27
Total	**601**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 6 reveals that out of 601 respondents 31% were civil servant, 26% were self-employ, 16% worked in private organizations while 27% were teachers in public schools.

Testing of Hypotheses and Discussion

Null Hypothesis (Ho): There is no significant relationship between school feeding programme and academic performance of pupil in public primary school in Akwa Ibom State.

Table 7: Opinion on whether there is or no significant relationship between school feeding program and academic performance of pupils in public primary school in Akwa Ibom State

Senatorial District	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Akwa Ibom North—East	98	71	24	7	200
Akwa Ibom North—West	87	101	6	11	205
Akwa lbom South	105	85	0	6	196
Total	290	257	**30**	24	**601**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 8: Chi-square (χ^2) Computed table (Hypothesis)

Variables	Fo	Fe	Fo - Fe	$(Fo - Fe)^2$	$\frac{(Fo - Fe)^2}{Fe}$
Strongly Agree	290	150.25	139.75	19,530	130.0
Agree	257	150.25	106.75	11,396	76.0
Disagree	30	150.25	120.25	14,460	96.2
Strongly Disagree	24	150.25	126.25	15,939	106.1
Total	**601**	**601**			**408.3**

Calculated of Freedom (df) = (r - 1)(c - 1)
= (3 - 1) (4 - 1)
= 2 x 3 = 6df
The critical value or chi-square ($\div^2$) from 6 degree of freedom at 5% level of significance is 12.592.

Decision Rule

Since the calculated chi-square ($\div^2$) vie of 408.3 is greater than the table value of 12.592, the null hypothesis is therefore rejected for alternate hypothesis (H_1)which shows that there exist a significant relationship between school feeding programme and academic performance of pupils in public primary schools in Akwa Ibom State.

Discussion

This is supported by the fact that hunger affects concentration and ability to learn, but with the introduction of this programme in Akwa Ibom State it has helped pupils in public primary schools to concentrate which enhances their ability to learn. In one of the public primary schools visited in Uyo Local Government Area, the test as well as examination scores sheets were examined and it was discovered that majority of the public scored from 50% and above and the pass level was massive compared to an era before the introduction of the programme. The fact here is that this programme has improved pupils' cognition and behaviour and also helped them to do better in school by allowing them to pay attention and not worry about when their next meal will come from (Godwin, 2018).

Table 9: Opinion on whether there exist significant relationship between school feeding programme and school dropout of primary school pupils in public primary school in Akwa Ibom State

Senatorial District	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Akwa **Ibom** North-East	94	57	30	19	200
Akwa Ibom North-West	80	**96**	9	20	205
Akwa Ibom South	**90**	**38**	41	27	**196**
Total	**264**	**191**	80	**66**	**601**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 10: Chi-square (χ^2) Computed Table (Hypothesis II)

Variables	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	$(Fo-Fe)^2$	$\frac{(Fo-Fe)^2}{Fe}$
Strongly Agree	264	150.25	113.75	12,939	86.11
Agree	191	150.25	40.75	166	11.05
Disagree	80	150.25	-70.25	4.935	32.84
Strongly Disagree	66	150.25	-84.25	7,098	47.27
Total					**117.25**

Calculated $÷^2$ = 117.25

Degree of freedom (df) (r -) (-1)

= (3-1) (4-1)

= 2 x 3= 6 df

The critical value of chi-square ($÷^2$) from 6 degree of freedom at 5% level of significance is 12.592.

Decision Rule

Since the calculated chi-square value of 117.25 is greater than the critical table value of 12.592, we therefore reject the null hypothesis (Ho) and the alternate hypothesis (Hi) is accepted which states that there exist significant relationship between school feeding programme and school enrolment and drop-out of primary school pupils in public primary school in Akwa Ibom State.

This is in tandem with the fact that the introduction of this programme has proved to be education interventions that facilitates access to education which ultimately increase school enrolment, attendance, retention and completion rate. To further support this point, in one of the schools visited in Eket Local Government Area, it was discovered that before the introduction of the programme, the number of students in a class (primary 1 - 6) were not up to 15, but with the introduction of the programme, the number increases astronomically to over 50 per a class which is the approved number per a class. In another primary school in Ikot Ekpene Local Government Area, it was observed from both the records and personal observation that, some classes were divided into two say primary 1a and b, primary 2a and b, 3a and b etc. to accommodate the high attendance rate. Also, the number of drop-out or out-of-school children were minimal. The programme has taken care of a situation where children from vulnerable families are often pulled out of school when they are needed to work at home or hawk to help their families. As noted by World Food Programme (2020), for these group of students and their families, a daily meal or snacks can be a strong incentive for families to keep their children, especially girls, in school. It was also discovered that since the introduction of this programme, a greater number of pupils were taken off the street. Finally, available records also showed that a greater number of students who started primary 1 completed their primary 6 on time and passed their final examination with flying colours unlike before.

Conclusion

School feeding programme is education intervention aimed at serving about 7.3 million out-of-schools children in Nigeria and by extension Akwa Ibom State (Eyango et al. 2015). This study conducted in Akwa Ibom State showed that with the introduction of this programme, the academic performance in public primary school has improved tremendously. Also, the enrolment rates have equally increased and the number of drop-out students have decreased as well.

However, this study further uncovered that the implementation of this programme in Akwa Ibom State experienced some setback such as poor quality of food, insufficient and irregular supply of food, late disbursement of funds by the government. It was also discovered that a situation where two (2) pupils shared 1 (one) egg is totally unacceptable. The programme in Akwa Ibom State has been hijacked by politicians who imposed suppliers and coordinators. Also, some students are fed only once a week against five days (Monday to Friday) due to diversion of fund. Notwithstanding these common problems, a total of 1,105 schools are currently benefiting from this programme while about 55 schools are yet to benefit from the programme in the State (The Nation, 2020).

Recommendations

In order to enhance effective implementation of this programme in the State, the following recommendations are made:

1. That government should ensure timely release of fund, to enable the programme run smoothly in the State.
2. The state government should constitute a monitoring unit to oversee the implementation of the programme.
3. The cooks should be monitored to maintain high quality of food served to the pupils.
4. The government should ensure that all public primary schools benefit from the programme as it was observed that some primary schools in the State are yet to benefit from the programme.
5. From time to time government should overhaul the implementation committee of the programme to enhance effective performance.
6. That food served should be source locally so as to create jobs along the value chains.
7. The government should ensure continuity of the programme.

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Emotional Intelligence and Employee Performance in Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service: A study of selected Local Government Councils.

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Abstract
This study aimed at examining emotional intelligence and its influence on employee performance in Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service. The study was guided by two objectives and two research questions. The design adopted was the cross-sectional survey while the population of the study comprised 10758 Local Government workers in Akwa Ibom State, of which a sample size of 343 council workers was estimated from the three senatorial districts in the State using Taro Yamane formula. The instrument used in data collection was Emotional Intelligence and Employee Performance Questionnaire (EIEPQ). The instrument was validated by experts and the reliability of the instrument was established using Cronbach Alpha and the result yielded reliability coefficient of 0.84. Data obtained for the study were analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC). After tests, the results revealed that self-awareness and self-regulation are significant predictors of employees' performance. Therefore, it was recommended among other things that organizations should ensure that their programmes are proactive and not only active for effective service delivery. Also, management should ensure that the concept of emotional intelligence is developed in the life span of staff through enhanced training to foster efficient and effective performance in organizations.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, Employee performance, Self-awareness, Self-regulation

Background to the Study
Emotional intelligence develops over a person's life span and could be enhanced through training and teaching and learning in formal educational contexts (Bagshaw, 2003). Emotional intelligence is generally regarded as a factor with the potential to contribute to more positive attitudes, behaviours and outcomes and has been related to career success (Serrat, 2017). Researchers and career counselors have also recognized the significance of emotional intelligence in career success, career satisfaction and well-being (Sidle, 2008). No wonder Maul (2007) further regards the development of Emotion intelligence as desirable for enhancing individual's employability and career choices.

Organizations are made up of people with feelings, beliefs, culture, and needs, and to relate with them satisfactorily and avoid conflict in the work place regularly, one has to be emotionally intelligent. Managers have to understand the feelings of their subordinates, their reasoning and their thinking; they have to anticipate their actions and reactions in every given situation and they need to be intelligent emotionally.

According to Hutchinson & Hurley (2013), managers comprehending their own feelings and those of their subordinates are more likely to achieve business success. Karimi (2014) observes that Emotional Intelligence plays a vital role in individual's professional, home and personal life as the relationships people form are regulated by the rules of behaviour that are prompted by the emotions. Emotional Intelligence is the ability to recognize and regulate the emotions in one's own self and others and to make use of this information in order to guide one's thinking and actions (Matthew, Zeidner & Roberts, 2008). That is, emotional intelligence has to do with being aware of one's self and also other people so as not to act in a way that will affect the other person negatively. It has been observed that in the focus of firms and the Civil Service, before an employee is recruited into the organization, the prospective employee is made to take series of tests and interviews. All these interviews and tests administered are usually based on the Intelligent Quotient of the prospective employees, and nothing is done to ascertain the Emotional Intelligence level of the employees.

Employee Performance on the other hand, is one of the most frequently studied areas in industrial relations and organizational behaviour (Brabete, 2010). Employee performance is seen to be a key determining factor of organizational effectiveness and growth. Employee performance can lead to various organizational outcomes such as increased in product quantity, quality, and enhanced organizational citizenship behaviour (Miao, Humphrey & Qian, 2017). In similar vein, Sony & Makoth (2016) state that employees are seen as the primary asset of the organization when they are committed and motivated to put in their time and efforts to the achievement of organizational goals and objectives.

The Civil Service is an indispensable instrument for the implementation of government policies and programmes. This is because it is through the instrumentality of the Civil Service that government policies are translated into services for the people (Ajila & Abiola, 2012). On this note, Akinboye (2001) avers that the success or failure of any policy of government is a function of the disposition of the civil servants to its implementation. Similarly, Abraham (2004) argues that no matter how well articulated government programmes may be, they cannot be successfully implemented without effective administrative machinery whose technical competence, loyalty and commitment can translate ministerial policies and programmes into actions.

Put differently, there is little or no hope of success in the delivery of Services if the Civil Servants are riot professionals or unethical in their conducts. According to Campbell (1990), poor, dishonest management of public affairs and corruption are among the most common manifestations of unethical conduct. Maladministration and corruption in the public sector are usually widely broadcast and exaggerated, largely because the public sector is run with taxpayers' money. For practitioners in the public sector, especially for public supervisors, it is important that they be guidelines for administering and directing the public service in other to place subordinates on the right track so as to prevent corruption and eliminate mal-administration. It is worthy of note that the Civil Service is the heart, nucleus and core of the public service. The strength and efficiency of the Civil Service are vital to the success of government machinery as a whole. It is the loyalty and commitment of members of the Civil Service that ensure the effective translation into action of ministerial policies and programmes.

Statement of the Problem

The process of globalization has intensified grate effort demanding employees to better prepare for greater tasks ahead in solving organizational problems. The issue of employees being exposed to stress, depression, and poor attitude at work are all symptoms of emotion which lower employees' morale as well as performance thereby resulting in low productivity. Procedures in almost every establishment require that applicants go through various rigorous tests to get employed and neither the Civil Service, nor the Local Government service in Akwa Ibom State is an exception. The Local Government Service in Akwa Ibom State has been very vibrant and thorough in terms of their recruitment process by resorting to only individual's academic intelligence in selecting their employee and little is done to ascertain the emotional intelligence of these prospective employees. Regrettably, this sector remains structurally and operationally defective, not living up to envisaged expectations to justify its history and establishment as a service provider. In spite of employees' excellent academic track records and work motivation, the Local Government Service in Akwa Ibom State, in the final analysis, still experiences low productivity, inefficiency, policy inconsistencies, frustration amongst employees, low morale, low team spirit, employee turnover, shattered group cohesion and job satisfaction.

It is in the acknowledgement of these myriad problems that made for the consideration and adoption of emotional intelligence in the Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service to make management realize that understanding the feelings, reasoning and actions of others in an organization is as important in the work place as work itself.
Despite the importance of emotional intelligence to employee performance, there is dearth of research on how emotional intelligence relates with employee performance in the Local Government Service as most of the studies conducted focus on the manufacturing sector and other organizations. More so, although relationships concerning emotional intelligence and employee performance have been found by different researchers, it is unfortunate that these variables have not been modeled together particularly in the context of the Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service. Thus, among the highlighted problems cited in this study is the performance and commitment of employees toward organizational success. Therefore, this study is aimed at finding out how emotional intelligence contributes to employee's performance in Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service.

Objective of the Study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

(1) To ascertain the relationship between self-awareness and employee performance?
(2) To ascertain the relationship between self-regulation and employee performance

Research Questions

The following research questions serve to detail and assess the operational relationship between Emotional Intelligence and employee in Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service. They are as follows:

(1) Is there any relationship between self-awareness and employee performance in Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service?

(2) Is there any relationship between self-regulation and employee performance in Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service?

Literature Review

Emotional intelligence plays an important role in ensuring success in the workplace and it should be nurtured and practiced by all parties facing the challenges of globalization and competition in business. Sony & Mekoth (2016) define emotional intelligence as the study which looks for human cognitive abilities beyond traditional academic intelligence. Mayer, Salovey & Caruso (2004) opine that EI is the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Emotional intelligence creates positive human relationship that can lead to the achievement of common goals and organizational effectiveness (Samiuddn, Ahmed & Kazmi, 2017). Therefore, individuals who are able to use the dimension of feelings that they have in handling relationships with others (Interpersonal) and controlling their emotions (intrapersonal) have high emotional intelligence (Sluyter & Salovey, 2018).

Emotional intelligence also involves one's perception of others. When one understands how others feel, one will be able to manage relationships more effectively (Sluyter & Slalovey, 2018). People with high emotional intelligence are usually successful in most things they do because they go through life much more easily than those who are easily angered or upset (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2019).

Emotional intelligence has been acknowledged to have a relationship with performance as has been put forward by many researchers. Dulewicz & Higgs (2018) state that EI develops innovational creativity in individuals and as a result, helps in the improvement of people's job performance. In addition, what is of paramount importance in the process of job performance is facilitating communication within organizations which is another function of emotional intelligence (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2018). A recent study conducted by Golman & Boyatzis (2019) reveals that Emotional Intelligence predicts employee's performance well in a variety of jobs, not specifically for those who require considerable intellectual power but also for individuals who may want to develop their innovational creativity towards improving their job performance. They are of the view that, Emotional Intelligence is one of the key determining factors for evaluation of employees' performance. Afolabi, Awosola & Omole (2010) demonstrate that managers who comprehend their own feelings with those of their subordinates stand to establish high quality social relationships and more likely, will achieve positive business outcomes than those who may not consider emotional intelligence as a veritable tool for employee performance.

The Concept of Employee Performance

Employee performance has been defined by various scholars (Rexhepi & Barisha, 2017; Meyer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2002), but one of the most widely acceptable definitions is that which sees Employee Performance as how employees execute their job duties and fulfill their required tasks (Qualter & Dacre-Pool, 2009). Employee performance signifies individual work achievement after exerting required effort to gain meaningful results. The attachment and recognition of employees by management in the organization can be displayed by their strong belief and acceptance of the organization's goals and objectives (affective commitment), the willingness to take up challenges on behalf of the organization (normative commitment) and finally, the burning desire to stay with the organization (continuance commitment) till the organization succeeds.

Employee performance is individual output in terms of quality and quantity expected from every employee in a particular job (Ajila & Abiola, 2004). Individual performance is determined mostly by motivation and the will and ability to do the job. On a very general level, employee performance can be defined as “all the behaviours employees engage in while at work” (Alavi & Askaripur, 2012). However, this is a rather vague description. A fair amount of the employees' behaviour displayed at work is not necessarily related to job-specific aspects. More commonly, employee performance refers to how well someone performs at his or her work.

Workers' attitudes are also important to management because they affect organizational behaviour of workers thereby affecting their performance. Alshallah (2018) opines that “Right attitudes lead to success, wrong attitudes lead to mediocrity or failure for both the business and the people who work for it” Attitude to work is very important because it helps to predict work behaviour and also helps workers adapt to their work environment within the organization.

Subordinate characteristics and environmental factors greatly influence success and create the opportunity for successful leadership. First, individual characteristics affect the achievement levels that can reasonably be expected. Second, subordinates have individual needs that must be met if their performance and motivation levels are to remain high. Third, subordinate's attitude and abilities will affect both the performance and the response of other coworkers. Brabete (2010) believes that employees' experiences of job satisfaction are highly influenced by their perception of organizational culture and leadership styles, thus affecting their performance and behaviour. Rotundo & Sachettc (2014) state that work attitude has a positive and significant influence toward the performance of employees. This means that if the employees have a good attitude to work, it will improve their performances.

Brown, George-Curran & Sith (2018) opine that work attitude has a positive and significant influence on job performance. This means that if the Civil Servants have a positive work attitude, the level of job performance of employees will increase.

Emotional Intelligence and Employee Performance

Organizations are social systems where members interact with one another as well as with external constituents (e.g., customers, suppliers). These interactions invoke, by nature, emotions which underlie human behaviour. Thus, to facilitate effective interactions, it is vital that individuals develop their ability to understand and manage both their own emotions and those of others. Recent studies report that emotional intelligence is positively associated with quality of social interactions.

Emotions are characteristic of all humans and to be devoid of emotions is to be non-human. The primacy of emotions with respect to human nature and existence necessitates the acknowledgment and management of emotions as they constitute a driving force behind human behaviour. This implies that the actions and inactions of humans are motivated to a considerable extent by emotions. In relation to organizational life, it signifies that employee performance could be influenced by emotions. This outlook captures the essence of emotional intelligence as developed by Hillsdale, Eribaum, & Cote (2017), Enriquez, Ramos & Esparza (2017) and Zidner & Matthew (2017) who popularized the concept.

Contemporary organizations around the world are fast embracing the emotional intelligence concept given the competitive and dynamic business environment in which they operate. New demands are being placed on leadership training programmes to identify and develop emotional intelligence skills because effective leadership has been re-defined to depend in part, on the understanding: of emotions and the abilities associated with emotional intelligence (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1998). Hence, a potential underlying attribute of effective leadership is the construct of emotional intelligence (Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Dulewicz, Young & Dulewicz, 2005). Leadership has been described as an attribute that is highly prized in most organizations (Osland, Rubin & Turner, 2007) and it is said to determine if an organization will be successful or not. A leader is defined as someone who occupies a role which involves conforming to a set of behavioural norms and expectations, in return for which followers confer a degree of power that allows the leader to influence their actions (Dawson, 2005).

Bass (2000) comments that a factor that might pre-dispose leaders to use transformational behaviors is emotional intelligence. He asserts that leaders who are high in emotional intelligence are predisposed to transformational behaviours. Leaders who know and can manage their emotions can serve as role models for followers, a hallmark of inspiration, enhancing followers' trust and respect. Understanding the emotions of others would help leaders to comprehend the expectations of their followers, empathize with employees and manage relationships effectively.

The corporate world has embraced the emotional intelligence construct as being relevant to organizational effectiveness and as a tool for competitive advantage (Ashforth & Humphrey, 2019). Many organizations are coming to the realization that technical and intellectual skills are only part of the equation to success. They are also convinced that the abilities of people to understand and manage their emotions improve their performance, collaboration with colleagues and interaction with customers. There is growing evidence that there is indeed a relationship between emotional intelligence and work performance and several studies lend credence to this assertion.

Afolabi et.tal. (2010) conducted a study to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance of call center agents, working at a major life insurance company in Western Cape, South Africa. It was found that several emotional intelligence competencies correlated with performance, particularly in client service and administration. Petrides & Furnham (2016) surveyed forty-four (44) analysts and administrators who worked for a Fortune 400 insurance company and found that, when measured by a set of abilities, emotional intelligence positively affects work performance. Bagshaw (2000) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance in United Kingdom call centers and obtained data from two hundred and nine (209) respondents from three (3) organizations. The study showed a strong relationship between emotional intelligence and individual performance. Brown et. al. (2014) also maintain that emotional intelligence plays a prominent role in achieving workplace performance.

The ability of a leader to influence emotional climate can propel employee performance (Humphrey, 2002). The possession of these rear qualities and the ability to stimulate followers towards task execution will ultimately lead to organizational performance and growth. Sony & Mekoth (2016) opine that emotional intelligence is the ability to succeed in a matrix organization, whilst Abraham (2004) holds the view that emotional intelligence is useful in putting an end to workplace bullying. Bande, Ferandez-Ferrin,Varela & Jaramillo (2015) also state that there is indeed a link between emotional intelligence and performance at work.

Hughes, Thompson & Terrell (2009) investigated the impact of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy on occupational stress of university academic staff. Results showed that emotional intelligence contributes to the prediction of work stress in participants. Zidner & Matthew (2017) assessed the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance in the Nigerian police force and observed that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and performance. Other studies on the subject of emotional intelligence have been conducted by Bande et.al. amongst others. The gap which this study hopes to fill is to explore and amplify the impact of emotional intelligence on contextual issues. Specifically, the effect of emotional intelligence on employee performance in the light of the challenges associated with Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service.

Self-Awareness and Employee Performance

People with high emotional intelligence consciously have self-awareness. They understand their emotions and because of this, they do not let their feelings rule them. They are confident because they trust their intuition and do not let their emotions get out of control. They are also willing to take an honest look at themselves. They know their strengths and weaknesses, and they work on these areas so they can perform better. Self-awareness is considered by many to be the most important part of emotional intelligence because it recognizes the importance of one's own feelings and how it affects one's performance.

Self-awareness is the key to realizing one's own strengths and weaknesses. Among managers in different organizations, individuals with accurate Self-Awareness are aware of their competences which mainly include self- confidence, self-assessment and emotional handling. Accordingly, they seek out feedback and learn from their mistakes as well as understand when they need to improve and when to work with others who have complementary strengths.

The level of Self-Confidence is in fact a stronger predictor of performance than the level of skill. In a sixty-year study of more than one thousand high-IQ men and women tracked from early childhood to retirement in Russia, those who possessed Self-Confidence during their early years were most successful in their careers (Gosling, Rentfrow & Swaann, 2013). On the basis of above arguments, it is assumed that self-awareness is correlated with performance of employees.

Self-Regulation and Employee Performance

One of the most considerable affective functions of education is the capacity to be self-regulating or autonomous with respect to the learning process and to one's own behaviour (Parsloe & Leedham, 2009). Self-regulation is defined as the process by which learners set and maintain recognitions and how it affects their behaviours in motion, which are thoroughly geared towards achieving their goals (Sales & Folkman, 2000). Great evidence exists in support of self-regulation as the systematic efforts to direct thoughts, feelings and actions toward the attainment of one's goals (Sales & Folkman, 2000). Self-regulation involves the ability to control both impulses and engage in a particular behaviour on demand. It is a skill used not just in social interactions (emotional self-regulation) but also in thinking (cognitive self-regulation) as well (Dowson, 2013).

Successful learners are those who engage in self-regulation of learning by delaying gratification. Delay of gratification refers to individuals' intentions to postpone immediate available rewards in order to obtain larger rewards temporally distant. This suggests that academic delay of gratification has an association with students' use of volitional strategies, expected grade, self-efficacy, beliefs, and academic performance. This serves to establish academic delay of gratification as an important self-regulatory strategy useful to protect intentions from distracting tendencies while academic goals are pressing and that delay of gratification is associated with the students' self-efficacy beliefs for learning, as well as expected grade and final course grade.

Self-regulation has assumed increasing importance in the psychological and educational literatures in enhancing academic outcomes such as effort, quality of conceptual learning, school performance and intention to persist in school, showing that children's self-regulation behaviours in the early years predict their school achievement in reading and mathematics better than Intelligence Quotient score (Passer & Smith, 2014).

Presented in table 1 is the result for the reliability (Cronbach Alpha) for the instruments adapted in the study in investigating the variables: integrity and employee commitment. The results from the analysis reveal that all indicators are consistent and suggest high tendencies for repetitiveness. From the results, the instrument used in assessing continuance commitment are revealed to have the highest reliability coefficient (where a=.943) while the instrument used in assessing trustworthiness is revealed to have the lowest coefficient on the list (a=874). However, all coefficients surpass the adopted Nunnally (1978) 0.70 reliability criterion.

Table 1: Summaries for Distribution for Employee performance

Statistics				Bootstrap[a]		
				Bias	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower	Upper
	N	343	0	0	343	343
Employee performance	Mean	4.0641	-.0006	.0425	3.9810	4.1458
	St. Deviation	.77721	-.00265	.05306	.66804	.87572

Source: Data Survey, 2021

Presented in table 1 is the summaries for emotional intelligence where x=4.0641 suggesting substantial levels of the manifestation of emotional intelligence within the target Local Government Area of the study.

Methodology

The study adopted the cross sectional survey of quasi-experimental design. The cross sectional survey was chosen because it takes a snapshot at a situation in the organization under study and analyses at the same time. In the context of our current study, the target population consists all employees totaling 10785 workers in 9 selected Local Government Areas in Akwa Ibom State. In determining the sample size for this study, the Taro Yamen's formula was used with at 95% confidence interval. The Taro Yamen's formula is given by:

n =N/1+N(e)2
where n=Sample size sought
e-Level of Significance
N=Research accessible population
Therefore, n =10785/1+10758(0.05)2
= 10758/27.895
= 386 employees.

Employee Performance is measured using 9 items taken from ECQ by Allen and Meyer (1991). Questions are measured on a 5-point Likert's scale ranging from Strongly agree (Score - 5 points) to strongly disagree (score - 1 point) based on the 2 dimensions of self-awareness and self-regulation. Emotional Intelligence is measured using 5 items taken from emotional Intelligence Scale by Mayer, Davis and Schorman (1995). Questions are measured on a 5-point Likert's scale ranging from strongly agree (score - 5 points) to strongly disagree (score - 1 point).

Table 2: Data Presentation

Variables	Dimensions/Measures	Indicators	Alpha values
Emotional intelligence		2	.829
Employee performance	Self-awareness	5	.940
	Self-regulation	6	.889

Source: Data Survey, 2021

Table 3: Summaries for Distribution for Emotional Intelligence

Statistics			Bootstrap[a]			
			Bias	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
	N	343	0	0	343	343
Self-awareness	Mean	4.1207	-.0002	.0444	4.0327	4.2017
	Std. Deviation	.81736	-.00308	.05332	.71512	.92074
	N	343	0	0	343	343
Self-regulation	Mean	4.1142	.0000	.0447	4.0282	4.1973
	Std. Deviation	.82727	-.00351	.05869	.71310	.94040
Valid N (listwise)	N	343	0	0	343	343

Source: Data Survey, 2021

Presented in table 3 are the summaries for the measures of employee performance where self-awareness x=4.1207; self-regulation x=4.1142; suggesting substantial levels of the manifestation of employee performance within the Local Government Areas of the study.

Table4 : Relationship between Emotional intelligence and Employee performance

		Employee performance	Self-awareness	Self-regulation
Employee performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.824**	.919**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	343	343	343
Self-awareness	Pearson Correlation	.824**	1	.931**
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	343	343	343
Self-regulation	Pearson Correlation	.919**	.931**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	343	343	343

****. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

The table above presents the result for the test on the relationship between the measures of emotional intelligence and employee performance. The result reveals that emotional intelligence is a substantial antecedent of employee performance in selected Local Government Areas in Akwa Ibom State. This r co-efficient also suggests that emotional intelligence has a more significant and stronger impact on self-regulation (r=.919) than other related measures like (self-awareness r=.824). This implies that based on the perceptions of emotional intelligence within the workplace, workers have a higher tendency for self-regulation than self-awareness.

Discussion of Findings

The findings from the study revealed that there is a significant relationship between emotional diligence and employee performance. This explains that emotional intelligence has much impact on employee performance as observed by the two measures of emotional intelligence (self-awareness and self-performance). Result for the test on the relationship between the measures of emotional intelligence and employee performance reveals that emotional intelligence is a substantial antecedent of employee performance in selected Local Government Areas in Akwa Ibom State. This r co-efficient also suggests that emotional intelligence has a more significant and stronger impact on self-regulation with r co-efficient of r=.919) than other related measures like self-awareness with r co-efficient of r=.824). This implies that based on the perceptions of emotional intelligence within the workplace, workers have a higher tendency for self-regulation than self-awareness.

This evidence suggests that workers in the target Local Government Areas have a higher tendency to be more committed when they consider or view their workplace and co-workers as having emotional intelligence. The findings is in line with the observations of Brown, George-Current & Smith (2018) who investigated the impact of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy on occupational stress of university academic staff. Results show that emotional intelligence contributes to the prediction of work stress in participants. Zidner & Matthew (2017) assessed the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance in the Nigerian police force and observed that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and performance; Afolabi, Awosola & Omole (2010) studied the effect of emotional intelligence and work-family conflict in Nigerian organizations and found that emotional intelligence has a moderating role on work-family conflict. In this sense, it is obvious that the more perceived emotional intelligence among employees, the more the tendency for the employees' to be more committed in their performance to the organization

Conclusions and Recommendations

The study has examined some of the factors that influence employee performance in organizations. In doing this, the study adopted the cross sectional survey of quasi-experimental design. The cross sectional survey was chosen because it takes a snapshot at a situation in organization under study and analyses at the same time. The findings showed that self-awareness and self-regulation are effective factors that influence employee performance in Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service. The findings also revealed that emotional intelligence has a more significant and stronger impact on self-regulation with r co-efficient of r=.919) than other related measures like self-awareness with r co-efficient of r=.824). This implies that based on the perceptions of emotional intelligence within the workplace, workers have a higher tendency for self-regulation than self-awareness.

It was recommended among other things that Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service should adopt strategic management models that will help in the achievement of set goals even in a competitive business environment.

Limitations and Suggestions for further study

Owing to time and cost limitation, the scope of the study was limited to Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service in Nigeria. Thus, it has not been determined if the result of findings would hold for other industries and it is uncertain whether similar findings would be replicated in other countries. On the basis of information gathered and the knowledge gained in this study, it is suggested that since the current study scope was limited to only Akwa Ibom State Local Government Service in Nigeria, similar study should be carried out in other industries to ascertain whether the current study findings would hold.

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Neo-Colonialism and Debt Crisis: A Challenge to Development in Africa (A Case Study of Nigeria)

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Abstract
This work traced the history of the colonial plunder of Africa by the colonialists to elucidate the genesis of Africa's indebtedness which has plunged these countries into a predicament typified by a vicious circle of poverty, chronic unemployment, skyrocketing inflation, flagrant inequalities, mono-cultural economies, urban decomposition, rural stagnation, anti-democratic regimes and near-perpetual indebtedness to the West. Using the historical/descriptive method and Nigeria as a case study, it was discovered that neocolonial manipulation of international financial institutions like the IMF and WTO has been the cause of the continued and increasing dependence of Nigeria on foreign loans, a situation that is compounded by the "comprehensive approach" and "the market approach" as well as the IMF panacea. It was recommended, among other things, that African countries can no longer allow the drivers of the world capitalist economy to dictate to them how to break the loan habit but should rely on domestic roots for growth, diversifying exports and deepening social safety nets. Moreover, they must take the debt campaigns beyond merely highlighting the evil effects of globalization on some group of people or countries, to addressing the underlying structure and financial systems that have created the modern form of globalization, if effective and real change for the world's majority is to be achieved.

Keywords: Neo-Colonialism, Debt, Crisis, Challenge and Development.

Introduction
A critical assessment of the development challenges of African countries must necessarily begin with the history of European colonial plunder of the continent. For nearly six centuries, Western European countries being afore-enlightened and armed with guns and ships, fortified in aggressive spirit and motivated by the lure of enriching plunder, sallied forth from their homelands to explore, assault, loot, occupy, rule and exploit African countries (Chinweizu, 1975:1).

"By successful brigandage, they uprooted the southern economies, stole their silver, gold and gems and carried all off to Europe" (Chinweizu, 1975:1). Consequently, the African countries have been impoverished and left in a state of subservience. While Western European economies are growing stronger, African economies are becoming weaker, extraverted, and more and more dependent on the former. This is because, during colonialism, the Europeans conquered and restructured African economies to fit into western capitalism as appendages.

Conquest and colonization assured that African countries economies adjusted to penetration by the forces of European imperialism. Such adjustment was cast in a mold fashioned for the primary benefit of Europe. Having fully integrated these societies into the colonial exploitational machinery, and mainstream of political economy or world capitalism, the Europeans embarked on a process of cultural transformation of the people so as to effectively maintain their allegiance, thereby keeping them perpetually subservient to their monarchs and countries. The explanation of British benign operations in African countries can be understood in this light. It is evident that Britain was more concerned about the future than the time when it physically colonized the continent.

In this way, the colonialists effectively controlled the leaders of African countries by making them to develop a high penchant for European values. This made them to dream, nay, covert the world of the European, a world of sky scrapers, elevators and push-button furniture and kitchen-equipment. Thus, being assimilated into the European class, it was virtually impossible for these elites to remain in close sympathy with the great masses of their fellow countrymen. Instead, they were more loyal to the colonialists than to their citizens. The colonialists therefore seized the opportunity to negotiate with these African stooges the terms for granting their 'territories beyond the seas' self-determination.

The result was that the independence that these countries got was nominal, symbolized by a change of flag without the destruction of the colonial yoke. Even though the colonial apparatuses are no more physically present in African countries, the colonialists are still around. They manipulate the economies of these countries by remote control. This is what neo-colonialism is all about.

The colonial legacy therefore has a disruptive or destructive influence on the development of the economies of African countries. Almost five decades after independence, economies of African countries today, are still not free from the corrosive effects of European values. Indeed, the manner these colonial political models were grafted into African countries indigenous structures, continue and will continue to have consequences for contemporary African countries politics.

Unfortunately, instead of resolving this conflict, post-independence political elites of African countries were rather "…pre-occupied with the struggle for power and appropriating to themselves the privileges of offices vacated by the colonialists that little time was left for constructing political agenda (and economic independence) appropriate for a developing society." (Nurudeen, Ajayi and Bello, 2009:2).

Neo-colonialism is an expression of a covert bond of colonialism through "subtle ties of economic, political, military and cultural dependency" (Couloumbis & Wolfe, 1986:366). It is a situation of domination, dependency, impoverishment, backwardness and satellization which African countries have found themselves after colonialism.

Neo-colonialism is therefore the continued domination of African countries by foreign powers. Though the African countries have been able to decolonize their countries politically, they have not been able to decolonize their minds and their economies. Being integrated into the Western capitalist system, their economies remain intricately tied to that of the West. During colonialism, foreign trade was used as a vehicle to create a consumerist orientation in African countries. African countries were forced to specialize in the production of primary products. Under this process, production was geared primarily towards the market. The monetization of African countries' economies was therefore necessary. This facilitated the penetration of African countries by foreign investment. These foreign investors now act as the primary source of exploitation.

After independence, the metropolitan bourgeoisie (metrobo) pooled their resources together and established octopus companies, and conglomerates and accumulated capital autonomously. This has acted as giant pumps sucking surpluses from the African countries to their home countries. Consequently, through foreign investment, African countries have suffered de-capitalization, disarticulation, technological under-development, chronic unemployment, skyrocketing inflation, and mass pauperization tendencies.

In order to understand Africa's predicament, however, we have to appreciate the role of the leaders of the African countries as agents of imperialism. The importance of this group cannot be underestimated. The presence of this group of sell-out in the African countries in general is part of the definition of under-development (Rodney, 1972). Just like their counterparts in colonial times, who supported colonialism in exchange for some of the privileges enjoyed by the whites, leaders of African countries today perpetuate neo-colonialism and in turn are kept in office by the support of the West. Thus, in politically independent Africa, metropolitan capitalists have ensured political decisions by remote control. This they do by setting up their puppets in many parts of Africa, "who shamelessly agree to compromise with the vicious" imperial powers from the West (Rodney, 1972:26).

Foreign investors and their Multinational Corporations (MNCs) now recruit leaders of African countries to stand in or to act as fronts and help them to transfer profits from African countries to the West in return for some useless rewards. However, Chinweizu (1975) has shown that the rewards are a little better than what their counterparts in slaving times received. "Instead of rum and schnapps, head trinkets, muskets and dane guns, they now receive radios, televisions, gold beds, trains, tanks, Cadillacs, Rolls Royce, Mercedes Benz, Swiss Chalets and numbered bank accounts" (Chiweinzu, 1975:4).

These things blind leaders of African countries to the ever-widening gap between their countries and that of the West due to this crippling relationship without doing anything about it. This situation has plunged African countries into a predicament typified by a vicious circle of poverty, chronic unemployment, skyrocketing inflation, flagrant inequalities, mono-cultural economies, urban decomposition, rural stagnation, anti-democratic regimes and near-perpetual indebtedness to the West.

The Problem

The major developmental problem of African countries in the international capitalist system is the problem of indebtedness to the richer nations. The debt malady has been a major obstacle to sustainable human development and has had a devastating impact on the economies of these countries. It has resulted in a lack of basic access to food, water, health, education and other important social services in debtor countries.

This debt amounting to trillions of dollars attracts steep interests to these African countries. Quite unfortunately, these countries are so incapacitated that they can neither afford to pay the principal nor the accrued interests. Their incapacitation arises from the fact that the prices of the primary products which they have been consigned to produce by the international capitalist economy puts them at a disadvantaged position vis-à-vis the creditor nations, the prices of whose manufactured goods are much higher.

One of the causes of this problem is that rich countries have protected their agricultural markets, in particular, and their economies in general, while forcing poor countries to open up theirs. This has led to dumping and flooding the markets of African countries with foreign goods and this has driven local entrepreneurs out of businesses, thereby depriving them of their means of livelihood.

Regrettably, the debt crisis has become a double edged sword. On the one hand, it has affected economic development of the African countries. On the other hand, the inability of African countries to repay the loans and the accrued interests has affected the international banking system. This is to the disadvantage of the creditor nations who own and control these banks.

To solve this problem, the creditor nations compel African countries to pay back the debts through draconian policies they make using the instrumentality of the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Unfortunately, instead of solving the problem, this approach compounds the economic woes of the African countries and consequently, the debt crisis.

Citing George (2001), Shah (2001:5) claims that the debt crisis “is not a financial or an economic problem at all, but in every way a political one.” He sees it as the best instrument of power and control ever invented by the North for the subjugation of the South as well as the East in recent times which is far superior and more effective than colonialism. To him, the debt fetter does not require an army, an administrative infrastructure and does not attract bad publicity but silently makes people pay for their own oppression.

These questions therefore arise: what are the causes of the ever mounting debts in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular? What is the impact of the accumulated debt on the Nigerian economy? What are the loans collected by Nigerian leaders since independence used for? What are the effects of the loans on the economic development of Nigeria? What is the panacea for Nigerian indebtedness in the capitalist world system?

This study therefore sought to examine the reason Nigerian external debt is on the increase instead of decreasing, the implication of the mounting foreign debt on the economy of Nigeria and to proffer solutions to the Nigerian debt malady.

It could possibly be conjectured that neocolonial manipulation of International Financial Institutions like the IMF and WTO is the likely cause of the continued and increasing dependence of Nigeria on foreign loans. The accumulated foreign debt in turn impacts negatively on the economic development of Nigeria, and the “comprehensive approach” and “the market approach” as well as the IMF panacea tend to compound Nigeria's debt crisis.

General Overview of the Debt Profile

Anup Shah (2005:1) reported that in 1970, the world's 60 poorest countries which the World Bank classified as low-income were indebted to the tune of $25 billion. By 2002, their debt profile rose to $523 billion. According Shah (2005:1), African countries' indebtedness was below $11 billion in 1970, but by 2002, it skyrocketed to $295 billion. While the poorest countries currently owe the IMF and World Bank about $70 billion, the African countries owe these multinational institutions approximately $153 billion and although these countries have repaid about $550 billion on $540 billion loans in both principal and interest over the last three decades, yet $523 billion is still outstanding, meaning that the interests accruable to these loans have quadrupled. The total external debt stock of Nigeria from 1970 to 2016 as shown on the table below will buttress this fact.

Table 4.1: Table showing Nigeria's Total External Debt Stocks (DOD, current US$) Between 1970-2016

Year	Value ($)
1970	836,678,000
1971	960,363,000
1972	1,081,762,000
1973	1,778,978,000
1974	1,880,719,000
1975	1,687,172,000
1976	1,337,792,000
1977	3,146,444,000
1978	5,091,172,000
1979	6,244,581,000
1980	8,938,206,000
1981	11,445,510,000
1982	11,992,470,000
1983	17,576,990,000
1984	17,783,310,000
1985	18,655,380,000
1986	22,215,780,000
1987	29,024,890,000
1988	29,624,120,000
1989	30,122,000,000
1990	33,458,490,000
1991	33,526,930,000
1992	29,018,670,000
1993	30,699,250,000
1994	33,092,290,000
1995	34,094,440,000
1996	31,414,750,000
1997	28,467,540,000
1998	30,313,710,000
1999	29,095,540,000
2000	32,374,090,000

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2001	31,418,240,000
2002	31,780,100,000
2003	36,711,580,000
2004	39,898,100,000
2005	25,754,640,000
2006	9,617,378,000
2007	12,144,520,000
2008	13,128,900,000
2009	15,942,070,000
2010	15,484,220,000
2011	17,663,310,000
2012	18,127,300,000
2013	21,143,710,000
2014	24,755,960,000
2015	28,942,970,000
2016	31,151,470,000

Source World Bank, International Debt Statistics as reproduced by Index Mundi (2018)

Shah (2005:2) argued that the size of the debt trap can be controlled. He however advised that if allowed to continue to grow, the magic of compound interest dictates it is unsustainable. One trillion dollars compounded at 10 percent per year become $117 trillion in fifty years and $13.78 quadrillion in one hundred years, about $3.5 million for every man, woman and child in the African countries. Their debt is 50 percent greater than this and has been compounding at twice that rate – over 20 percent per year between 1973 and 1993, from $100 billion to $1.5 trillion. Of this $1.5 trillion, only $400 billion was actually borrowed money. The rest was runaway compound interest. If African countries debt continues to compound at 20 percent per year, the $117 trillion debt will be reached in eighteen years and the $13.78 quadrillion debt in thirty-four years (Shah, 2005:5).

This underscores the deception that has been responsible for the failure of the blaring promises by creditor nations to cancel the debts owed by the African countries. In most cases, the promises of cancellation are never kept or are either very slow to be fulfilled or the amount of money or cancellation promised is actually far less due to the quadruplicating effect of interests on the loans and which the creditor nations have already budgeted in advance for the development of their economies.

For instance, in May 2001, the international community agreed to seek a moratorium on debt service payments for the world's most highly indebted countries in "exceptional" situations such as those plagued by civil wars, floods and natural disasters -- and to facilitate access to debt relief for post-conflict countries (Shah, 2001:3). But thirteen years after, this agreement seemed not forth coming.

Also, the promises by Canadian Prime Minister, Jean Chrétien since March 1999; United States' President, Bill Clinton, September 1999; Britain in December 1999 and Germany to completely write off the debt owed them by the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) have not been fulfilled as yet. These failed promises by leaders of creditor nations, as well as the non-fulfillment of the agreement by the international community during the international conference in May 2001 "to seek a moratorium on debt service payments for the world's most highly-indebted countries in 'exceptional' situations – such as those plagued by civil wars, floods and natural disasters – and to facilitate access to debt relief for post-conflict countries" (Shah, 2005:3) are clear pointers that debtor countries only hope against hope for a reprieve from indebtedness by rich creditor countries.

When poor countries face natural disasters such as hurricanes, floods and fires, the cost of rebuilding coupled with an already over bloated debt burden compounds their problem. Often, these poor countries lose many lives and have to grapple with reconstruction while still paying back billions in the form of debt repayment. Without aid or a reduction in their debt burden, such countries become incapacitated to provide basic necessities for their citizenry.

While some scholars, ostensibly western scholars, have argued that cancellation of debt is morally hazardous and may encourage the former debtor nations to go for more loans, others have conversely argued that odious lending is more immoral. These later scholars have pointed to the sheer wickedness of western banks to lend to illegitimate regimes against the interest of the people they ruled and turn around to demand repayment of such loans with huge interest from the toil, sweat and even blood of the same oppressed people. This, according to them is morally reprehensible as this will encourage other international financial institutions to lend to any government, without considering its illegitimate status.

The result of all these is that the debt of African countries continues to quadruple geometrically. The net loss to these countries' economies often exceeds the total outstanding debt. This means that people in these – often desperately poor – countries end up paying three times for loans ostensibly taken out in their name.

Quoting Soliven (1991) and Kuye (2000), Ekpe (2007:173) shows that as at 1982, the debt burden of developing countries had reached $629 billion. But before the end of that decade, precisely in 1988, the figure had soared to $1,300 billion and then to $24,561 trillion a decade later. This type of situation naturally affects the income gap between the poor and rich countries. "The State of the World's Children 2000" report given by UNICEF points out that in 1960, the income gap between the richest one-fifth of the world's population and the poorest was 30-1. In 1997 it was 74-1 (Shah, 2000:1).

Okereke and Ekpe (2010:179) believe that African countries debt crisis is precipitated by "… rapacious and corrupt leadership, protracted civil wars in many African countries, poor governance, excessive population growth, absence of checks and balances on government borrowing and spending as well as inappropriate economic policies". However, these factors in themselves do not necessarily cause indebtedness until loan is given or collected from somewhere.

Shah (2007:1) on his part attributes the lingering debt crisis in the African countries to five causative factors, viz: "a continuing legacy of colonialism, odious debt, mismanaged lending; the world's poor subsidizing the rich and backbone to globalization."

As a legacy of colonialism, Shah (2007:1) shows that developing countries' debt is partly the result of the unjust transfer to them of the debts of the colonizing States. Before they had even had time to organize their economies and get them up and running, the new debtors were already saddled with a heavy burden of debt. They therefore inherited deformed economies from their colonial masters – economies modified to fit into Western Capitalist system as appendages and tailored to serve Western interest, without the capability to develop independently and therefore have to rely on foreign aid for development (Okereke and Ekpe, 2010:179–180).

African countries debt therefore accumulated due to the "… massive siphoning-off by international finance of the resources of the most deprived peoples" (Shah, 2007:1). The perpetuation of this process is a deliberate plan with an additional strain of an interest rate unilaterally set at 14 per cent, this debt replicates itself on an ever greater scale. Shah (2007:1) believes that this cycle can only be broken by sincere debt cancelation.

Secondly, Shah (2007:2) attributes African countries debt crisis to what he calls "odious debt." According to him, odious debt is unfair debt resulting from illegitimate loans granted to "… an illegitimate or dictatorial government that uses the money to oppress the people or for personal purposes." A lot of the borrowed money went to western-backed dictators, resulting in little benefit for the people in whose name the money is borrowed. Okereke and Ekpe (2010:180), see such lending as thoughtless and irresponsible. They believe that such lending increased dramatically during the post-World War II era, especially after the 1973 Yom Kippur War in the Middle East.

Some of the money borrowed by corrupt military juntas were diverted into private pockets or used to buy luxury goods to satisfy the ego of these illegitimate leaders. It is generally believed that in cases where borrowed money was used in ways contrary to the people's interest, with the knowledge of the creditors, the creditors legally may be said to have committed a hostile act against the people. Therefore, they cannot legitimately expect repayment of such debts.

Generally, most post-colonial governments, especially in the African and Latin America were military dictatorships and therefore, illegitimate. Unfortunately, western creditor nations still demand for the repayment of the odious debt granted to these countries. Quoting Steve Mandel, of the New Economics Foundation, Shah (2007:3) argues that since the creditor nations had full knowledge that the governments they gave these loans to were "unaccountable and corrupt leaders", and being that some of those loans have been overpaid already, discussion about the repayment of these odious debts should be laid to rest.

One of the most potent arguments about the non-payment of odious debt is that presented by Jubilee USA. This group as quoted by Shah (2007:2) argues that the United States used the principle to deny Spain's and Britain's claims for debt repayment against Cuba in 1898 and Costa Rica in 1923, respectively. In spite of this, however, rich countries, including the United States itself, have continued to pressure these poor countries to sacrifice health and education spending and prioritize on debt repayment.

The obvious unfair treatment in debt repayment is seen in the case of post-Apartheid South, African countries and southern American States. After the Second World War, the United States allowed Britain to repay debt at a very low rate so that it could rebuild. In 1953, the victorious allies met in London to cancel most of Germany's debt, so that it could rebuild. But as the nations of South Africa wanted to rebuild a post-apartheid society, the creditors of today, are not willing to offer them the space Britain received from the US and the Allies gave to Germany. Instead they are demanding that the states of the African countries pay three to five times the level that Britain or Germany paid after World War II.

The third cause of debt crisis as enunciated by Shah (2007:5) is mismanaged lending. Summarizing Jubilee 2000 report, he affirmed that the US over spending in the 1960s resulted in its printing of more dollars. This affected oil-producing countries that pegged the value of their currencies to the dollar as the value of the dollar decreased. This implies in effect that the value of those countries' currencies also plummeted.

In response, the oil-producing countries hiked their prices in 1973 thereby earning a lot of money which they unfortunately put in to western banks. When interest rates began to nose-dive, the banks embarked on more lending in order to forestall a crisis.

Debt crises also occurred just by the value of the developing country's money going down, which can be due to a variety of other inter-related factors. Combined with falling export prices for many poor countries, debts become even harder to pay off. Another potent cause of debt crisis is refinancing of loans. Refinancing loans implies taking on new loans to service the old ones. This puts the debtor nation in a vicious circle of indebtedness which it cannot break out from generation to generation.

Another cause of the debt crisis, according to Shah (2007:6) is that “the world's poor are subsidizing the rich”. Inasmuch as money embezzled by corrupt African countries leaders who were placed in power by the rich nations are deposited in foreign banks in the rich countries and these monies are re-loaned to the same African countries where it was stolen from on very high interests, the poor nations are subsidizing the rich nations. Sometimes, the loan is tied to exports from the lending nation. The net loss to the African countries therefore triples resulting in spiraling decline in wages. Drawing inspiration from George (1992), Shah (2007:6) concludes that, “the net gain to the over-capitalized countries (loss to the under-capitalized ones) of $418 billion between 1982 and 1990 is more than double what was spent to rebuild Europe after World War II.”

The fifth cause of debt crisis identified by Shah (2007:7) is that the indebtedness of African countries is compounded by the effect of globalization. While globalization is making the rich nations richer, it is making the poor nations poorer. This, according to Shah (2007:7) is because the economic decisions and influence in various international agreements, treaties and institutions that help form the backbone of today's globalization are made by the wealthy and powerful nations in their own interests. These policies have created immense wealth and a higher standard of living for the developed nations while paradoxically creating steep poverty and low standard of living in poor countries.

Okereke and Ekpe (2010:181–183) add the unilateral change from fixed rate of interest on loans to variable rates by Western creditor nations; the increase and sudden drop in oil prices of 1973 and 1979; the inability of debtor nations to absorb the undulating prices of their primary products in international markets and the pressure from the IMF and World Bank for African countries to borrow as a condition for implementing IMF structural adjustment programs, as other external factors that precipitated the debt crisis.

Among the internal causes of debt crisis enunciated by Okereke and Ekpe (2010:183–185) are “corrupt and reckless management of resources” by leaders of debtor nations, “slow or stagnant growth rate in the implementation of the various projects” for which these leaders committed the money received as loans, the general incompetence of these leaders to choose economically productive projects like agriculture, “inadequate maintenance of capital stock and inefficient organizations of marketing, transport, finance and other support services”, natural disasters like prolonged and devastating drought in some debtor countries and inappropriate economic policies.

Framework for the Study

For the purpose of this work, the theory of imperialism is used as a framework. Imperialism is a policy which aims at the political, economic or cultural domination of one group by another. According to Snyder (1960), it is "the policy of a state aiming at establishing control beyond its borders over people unwilling to accept such control." Such domination, according to Helmreich (1964) is not always characterized by the use of force or acquisition of territories, but also covers various subtle or hidden political, economic, technical and cultural activities aimed at the domination of the other group.

Historically, there are many forms of imperialism. These include political imperialism, economic imperialism, assimilative imperialism, spiritual imperialism and cultural imperialism. Each of these forms of imperialism re-enforces the others. In the case of Nigeria, economic imperialism was the foundation. In other words, through economic conquest, Nigeria was moved to a state of open and undisguised political and cultural subordination when Britain finally established its colonial government in the country.

Political sovereignty was lost and all lines of indigenous political organizations and consolidation were all forcefully suspended by the British invasion. New patterns of political unification were thereafter imposed from outside the country, in utter disregard for old patterns and their unities. New developments were, from that time forth, dictated by others and were guided by non-Nigerian specifications.

Into the agrarian, pre-industrial economy of the continent, a nucleus of the industrial (capitalist) economy of Europe was implanted. Through a determined push, by political Acts and economic incentives from the colonial government, coupled with its industrial character, this newly implanted sector got an advantage over the pre-industrial agrarian economy. The result was that while the European industrial implantation was growing larger, stronger and dominant, the indigenous agrarian economy was diminishing and weakening, becoming more and more subordinate to the former.

Politically, the institutions and philosophies of Nigeria were uprooted and replaced by foreign ones. For example, Nigerian communal democracies were replaced by European pro-consular regimes and authoritarian bureaucracies. In economic terms, loss of sovereignty meant that Nigerians lost all control over the quantity, quality, speed and direction of their county's economy.

Having been fully integrated into the colonial exploitational machinery, Nigeria's pre-conquest political institutions cannot fulfill the historic duty of unifying, strengthening and fully liberating the country to sovereignty and make its citizens prosperous and proud. Instead, they ensure the continuous subordination of the country to the West. This is what is called "neo-colonialism."

Methodology of the Research

This research which seeks to investigate how Neo-Colonialism has compounded the Debt Crisis in the African countries, with particular reference to Nigeria, is a qualitative research. Therefore, Historical/Descriptive approach was used as the method of research in carrying out the study.

Since the research is exploratory in nature, the Historical/Descriptive approach as a qualitative technique is best suited for the work because it enhances the use of time series data to monitor changing conditions over time. In this case, the daily, weekly and monthly debt profile of Nigeria easily be monitored. This facilitates the prognosis of the causal relationship between Neo-colonialism and the debt profile of Nigeria.

The research method therefore involves the identification of the information needed for ascertaining the impact of Neo-colonialism on Nigeria's external debt. Data were therefore obtained from a library based investigation. As the nature of descriptive studies is, this study aims at finding out "what is". In this context therefore, exploratory method was used to collect descriptive data to be used in analyzing the effect of Neo-colonialism on the rising debt profile of Nigeria.

For the purposes of this study, documentary instrument was used as the major source of data collection. The research therefore relied solely on secondary data. Inspiration was drawn from published and unpublished materials such as international and local journals, bilateral and multilateral agreements, treaties, governmental and non-governmental reports, annual reports of private corporate bodies, expert committees and commissions reports, newspaper and magazine reports, books, as well as research reports that deal with the debt profile of Nigeria. Such reports include published works by organizations like Transparency International, Center for Strategic and International Studies, United Nations Organization, Local and International Dailies, etc. Other sources consulted include published and unpublished research works by scholars on the African countries external debt.

Being a historical/descriptive research, qualitative approach was used in analyzing the data generated during the course of the study. This involved the application of textual tools to draw inferences on Neo-Colonialism and Debt Crisis in Nigeria.

Discussion and Findings

From the foregoing, it is clear that Neo-colonial manipulation of International Financial Institutions like the IMF and WTO tend to increase the continued and increasing dependence of African countries on foreign loans. On the other hand, accumulated foreign debt tends to impact negatively on the economic development of African countries. Moreover, the “comprehensive approach” and “the market approach” as well as the IMF panacea tend to compound African countries debt crisis.

This exposes the role of International Financial Institutions in African countries debt crisis. The actions of the developed world and their international financial institutions like IMF and WTO have pushed developing economies into a debt cycle where the former force loans on the later without recourse to how the loans are utilized with a deliberate plan to collect exorbitant interests for their misuse and turn around to give out more loans to them with stiffer conditions. Through the imposition of exorbitant interests, the creditor nations, in the words of Mark Malloch Brown, the head of the United Nations Development Program, take back with their left hand every cent they give with their right (Shah, 2008:7).

This problem is compounded by excessive production in the developed world. Coupled with the fact that the developed world is the only consumer market for manufactured goods, it has over capitalized to the detriment of the African countries, which is conversely incapacitated to capitalize. Therefore, African countries are deprived of their share of capital, high paying jobs, and markets. Thus, they trade their valuable resources for products manufactured by well-paid labor in the over-capitalized countries (Shah (2007:6).

The exportation of cheap agricultural products and the importation of consumer goods destroy an undeveloped country's agricultural economy and forestall the building of industries to produce these products locally and build an internal market economy in African countries. These countries therefore end up borrowing money to buy consumer products from the developed countries. It is a known fact that if a loan is to be of lasting value to the country to which it is granted, it must be put to productive, not unnecessary consumptive, or wasteful use. Only by building industries for production instead of spending borrowed funds on consumption can a society become self-sufficient, build an internal market economy, gain equality in world trade, and eliminate poverty (Shah, 2007:6). The inability of African countries to do this has reduced them to a consumerist economy and near perpetual indebtedness to the rich nations.

While the debt figures are a life sapping burden on the part of the African countries, the rich countries view the debt figures as insignificant. Quoting UNICEF data, Shah (2007:4) shows that approximately 5 million children and vulnerable adults have lost their lives in sub-Saharan African countries as a result of the debt crunch since the late 1980s. Some 11 million children die each year around the world, not just in African countries but also in other backward nations of the world, due to similar conditions of poverty and debt. Shah intimates that multitudes are dying in Southern African countries to facilitate the repayment of the post-Apartheid debt of £11 billion ($18 billion) that South

Africa borrowed to maintain apartheid, and the £17 billion ($28 billion) that the neighboring states borrowed because of apartheid destabilization and aggression.

Shah (2007:4) also reports that the United Nations fears another 3 million children could have died in the poorest countries of sub-Saharan African countries by 2015, the same year the target for the Millennium Development Goals was to cut poverty by half. These statistics typically define children as those under the age of five neglecting children who are about 6 or 7. The Progress of Nations, 1999 report by UNICEF has shown that African countries debt is killing children. The report shows that as countries are diverting resources away from social provisions to repay debt, those most affected are the poor, especially women and children (Shah, 2000:1).

UNICEF's Progress of Nations 2000 report puts the mortality rate of children resulting from debt repayment at 30,000 daily. These children, according to the report die quietly in some of the poorest villages on earth, far removed from the scrutiny and the conscience of the world. Due to their meekness and weakness in life, the death of these multitudes is indiscernible. Despite the lack of statistics on these obscure deaths, approximately 11 million children die each year from poverty (Shah, 2000:1).

Shah (2011:1–2) has argued that poverty does not necessarily mean a lack of material wealth on the one extreme or a developed economy on the other. He defines successful development to include:

> An improvement in living standards and access to all basic needs such that a person has enough food, water, shelter, clothing, health, education, etc.; a stable political, social and economic environment, with associated political, social and economic freedoms, such as (though not limited to) equitable ownership of land and property; the ability to make free and informed choices that are not coerced; be able to participate in a democratic environment with the ability to have a say in one's own future; to have the full potential for what the United Nations calls Human Development.

Citing the Human Development Reports of the United Nations Development Programme, Shah (2011:2) claims that “human development is about much more than the rise or fall of national incomes. It is about creating an environment in which people can develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives in accordance with their needs and interests. People are the real wealth of nations. Development is thus about expanding the choices people have to lead lives that they value. And it is thus about much more than economic growth, which is only a means … of enlarging people's choices.”

Debt also causes poor countries to lose foreign exchange. Most loans to the African countries have to be paid back in hard currencies (which do not usually change too much in value, e.g. the Japanese Yen, the American Dollar, etc.). Poor countries have soft currencies (values which can fluctuate). Paying off loans implies losing foreign exchange in hard currencies. This leads them to collecting more loans to be able to continue buying the manufactured products from the West.

This proves that neocolonial manipulation of International Financial Institutions like the IMF and WTO tends to increase the continued and increasing dependence of African countries on foreign loans. As these foreign debts through loans accumulate, it tends to impact negatively on the economic development of African countries.

“Generally, Government debt as a percent of GDP is used by investors to measure a country's ability to make future payments on its debt, thus affecting the country borrowing costs and government bond yields” (Trading, 2018:2). Poverty resulting from debt has also serious implications for the environment and ecosystem. In an attempt to eke out a living from the available resources around them, the poor of the earth destroy the environment. Shah (2001:1) has shown that “excessive debt burden means that it becomes harder to sustain the environment.” Rainforests and wildlife are greatly in danger in this regard. To substantiate this fact, Shah (2001:1) reveals how Brazil's IMF debt and financial problems have severely affected a project to save the Amazon rainforest.

As a result of environmental degradation, poor countries suffer natural disasters such as hurricanes, floods and fires. In the event of such natural disasters, the cost of rebuilding becomes overwhelming. Saddled already with an over-burdened debt, these natural disasters have serious implications for life and property in these countries. The Mozambican flood of early February 2000 where more than 300,000 were feared to have lost everything is a clear example (Shah, 2001:2).

The experience of Madagascar, the fourth largest island in the world, was more disastrous than Mozambique. Two cyclones hit the city affecting 600,000 people in their trail, according to a UN estimate (Shah, 2001:2). The devastation of Hurricane Mitch in November 1998 in Honduras and Nicaragua and other Central American states brought to the fore the problem of debt repayment and the need for debt relief. Dumont (1988:185) argues that for African countries, poverty is compounded due to harsh weather condition which makes agriculture very difficult, resulting in low yields.
Moreover, expensive aid and development programmes from Europe have been found to be destroying parts of the environment in developing countries and driving local and indigenous people into further poverty and misery. Shah (2001:2) cited the Kyoto Conference on Climate Change where the developed nations were forced to reduce their emission rates while developing nations were not. This policy should be viewed in the light of the developed nations' desire to safeguard the activities of their multinational corporations operating in African countries. The environmental consequences of such policies by industrialized nations have, according to Shah (2001:2) “had a large, detrimental and costly effect on developing countries - especially the poor in those countries that are already burdened with debt.”

Several developing nations have attempted to tackle the monster called foreign debts that have crippled their economies to no avail. The application of various methods known to the leadership of these countries has proved abortive.

Okereke, et. al. (2010:191) specified two debt management approaches – the comprehensive approach and the market approach that are generally applied to tackle debt crisis globally. According to them, the comprehensive approach prescribes a general solution for all Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) based on the belief that the problems of debtor countries and consequently, their policies are similar. On the other hand, the market approach is a case-by-case approach which '… takes into account the unique or peculiar circumstances" of debtor countries and therefore prescribes specific solutions for debt management for groups of countries with similar conditions and prospects.

Okereke, et. al. (2010:191–198) also went ahead to identify various debt management strategies as well as some debt management proposals to include Embargo on New Loans, Debt-Equity Conversion, Debt Rescheduling, the Volcker/De Larosiere Plan, and the Baker's Plan. Unfortunately, these strategies and proposals have not in any way helped to alleviate the debt burden of developing countries. Instead, the Structural Adjustment measures that were proposed by Volcker and De Larosiere in their plan have been behind the escalation of the debt crisis and the perpetual poverty and indebtedness of African countries to the West. We also examine here the IMF solution that is mostly prescribed by the West for debtor countries.

The IMF Panacea

For decades, the International Monetary Fund has imposed its will on Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC), restructuring their economies without recourse to the opinions of the millions of people affected by their policies. Protests by local people such as farmers, workers, consumers, small entrepreneurs and many others have fallen on deaf ears. Not only has the Fund failed to respond, but also has threatened to cut off all international financing if its adjustment policies are not implemented, thereby wielding the governments of the client countries to become unresponsive to their citizens' demand (Shah, 2005:5).

Although the IMF and World Bank have the ability to cover the costs of cancellation without affecting their ability to function, these two organizations remain the biggest creditors to the poorest countries. This has aggravated global economic crisis. Unfortunately, the G8 nations which are bent on global governance have not been able to solve this deepening crisis but instead have contributed to the crisis "by supporting policy solutions that bypass the UN and that favour transnational corporations over public welfare" (Shah, 2008:3). The most generous proposals for debt relief made by the G8 nations during their 1999 conference in Cologne, Germany, according to Jubilee 2000, "had not gone far enough to help relieve the burden of debt and poverty and in fact, was equivalent to just 5 loaves of bread per person for the year" (Shah, 2008:9).

It is a known fact that the structural adjustment measures, global, unregulated free markets, lack of protection for emerging economies and debt, all contributed to the global economic and financial crisis in the late 1990s. It saw stock markets stumble, economies collapse, unemployment and poverty increasing (and western nations and institutions made sure that the IMF "rescue" packages would help get their money back, while structurally "adjusting" the affected nations).

The IMF is aware that as long as capital flows freely, nations will be vulnerable to self-fulfilling speculative attacks and policymakers will be forced to play the confidence game. IMF "rescue" packages focus on cutting government spending and results in causing local businesses to crash while ensuring that odious lending by Western banks was repaid in full. This is an indirect way of punishing “crony capitalists” for their inherent shortcomings. On the hills of this, the IMF would recommend the removal of any remaining obstacles to the free play of market forces, opening currency and capital markets to unregulated speculative flows as solution for the future.

Irrespective of how sensible IMF conditions may seem, all too often they only serve the interests of the lenders rather than the borrowers. They are tailored towards getting countries that accept the conditions deeper in debt and to grow more impoverished. Most often, as the countries try to repay, the lenders impose what they say are anti-poverty and anti-corruption conditions, but which most often, have other agenda such as opening up poor countries to multi-national companies (Shah, 2005:1).

Shah (2007:4) has proved that the IMF conditionality imposes often disastrous policies of trade and capital account liberalization, privatization and restrictions on social expenditure, thereby causing poor countries to pay four times more than the original debt they owed the rich countries.

In 1982, Mexico defaulted on its debt payment, threatening the international credit system. The IMF and World Bank stepped into Mexico and other nations facing similar problems, prescribing their loans and structural adjustment policies to ensure debt repayment. This resulted in great suffering for the poor masses of the country as a result of the harsh conditions of structural adjustment.

According to Shah (2001:1), “Zambia's diligence in pursuing World Bank and IMF-led reforms has resulted in an increase in the poverty gap and the weakening of the country's social services. Its debt burden has fundamentally undermined its efforts to tackle the HIV/AIDS crisis and the numbers infected continue to rise above one million. Zambia has been forced to strain its resources to the limit in seeking to meet its huge debt service obligations.”

Structural adjustment advice in the past from the IMF and others, has led to a cutback on important spending such as health, education, in order to help repay loans. This has implied a downward spiral and further poverty. While creditor nations who have made promises of debt cancellation have insisted that the freed up money be used for things like poverty eradication, health and education provisions and so on, instead of being used to corruptly enrich bureaucrats and politicians, IMF conditions have demanded a cut in spending for such item and therefore have made it impossible for Highly Indebted Poor Countries to meet the requirement for debt cancellation.

It is a contradiction that these same countries insist that poor countries seeking aids and loans or debt relief must implement IMF and World Bank programmes. Joseph Stiglitz, former Vice President and Chief Economist of the World Bank reveals that these conditions are based on '“the Washington consensus of US economic officials, the IMF and World Bank”' (Shah, 2005:6). This reveals their insincerity and the fact that debt cancellation as well as the process of cancellation has some political undertones. Such candid opinion as well as his statement that IMF and World Bank conditionality undermines poor countries' democratic processes, coupled with his call to allow poor countries to make decisions for themselves if the creditor nations believe in democratization, led them to force Stiglitz to resign his position at the end of 1999.

Growing awareness of the unfair policies of the IMF and its sister organization, the WTO, has in recent times, led to protests around the world (the 1999 protest against WTO in Seattle and that of April 2000 at the venue of the annual IMF and World Bank meeting (Shah, 2005:4).

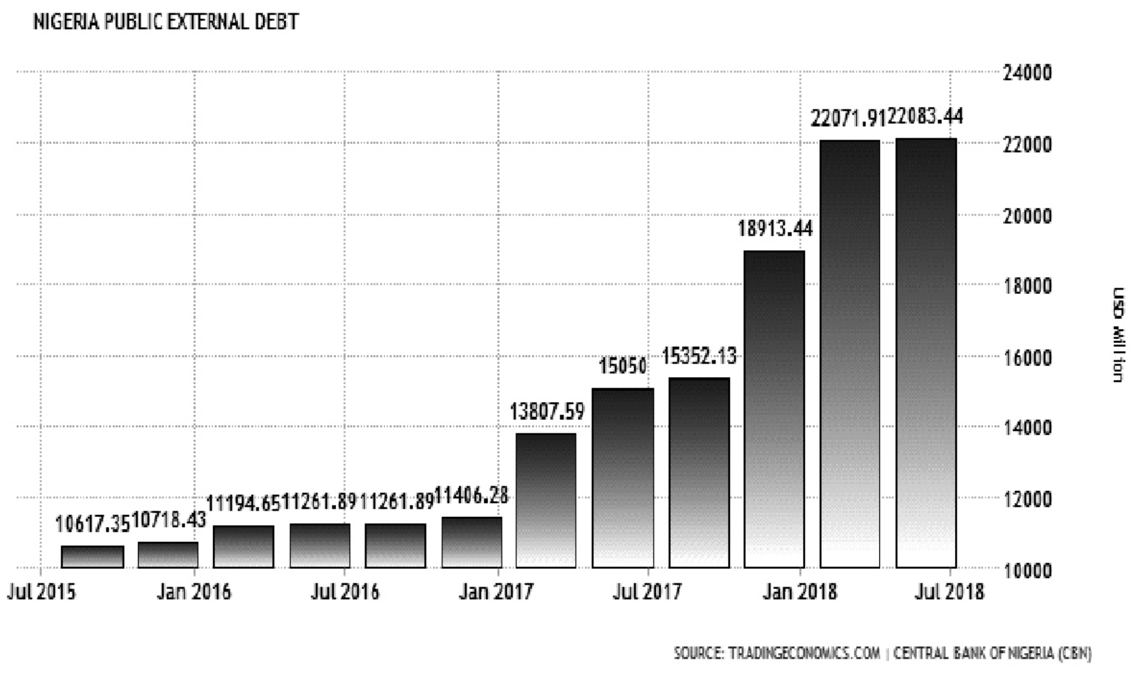
Shah (2005:5) has decried the new but limited moves towards debt forgiveness and reduction which have been spearheaded by the IMF which in turn justifies intervention by the IMF and World Bank into aspects of national policy development and institution building, well beyond the economic sphere. He sees such increased leverage being used for much the same exploitative purposes as before. This is because the move to make the IMF the arbiter of "the adequacy of poverty-reduction programmes implemented by client countries" as well as "the adequacy of government consultations with civil society" will likely give the IMF more power to control and exploit debtor countries. This shows that the "comprehensive approach" and "the market approach" as well as the "IMF panacea" instead of alleviating African debt burden, tend to compound the debt crisis for these countries.

Case Study Discussions

Statistics available shows that Nigeria's external debt has been on a steady increase due to external borrowing. Sun News Online (2018:1) quoted Dr. Patience Oniha, the Director General of the Debt Management Office, as saying that:

> Nigeria's debt stock as at the end of December 2017 stood at N21.7trn. Of this amount, the domestic debt incurred by the Federal Government was N12.589trn, while that of the 36 states and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) was put at N3.348trn. External debt of the Federal Government, the states and FCT was N5.78trn, making the gross total N21.7trn.

Figure 1: Nigeria's Public External Debt 2008-2018.



The graph in Figure 1 shows that Nigeria's external debt increased to 22083.44 USD Million in the second quarter of 2018 from 22071.91 USD Million in the first quarter of 2018. External Debt in Nigeria averaged 8486.04 USD Million from 2008 until 2018, reaching an all-time high of 22083.44 USD Million in the second quarter of 2018 and a record low of 3627.50 USD Million in the first quarter of 2009.

The DMO also explained that the proceeds of $2.5bn Eurobond issued in February 2017 was being used to pay at maturity domestic debt, beginning with N130bn Nigeria's Treasury Bill that was repaid on March 1, 2018. In addition, she disclosed that composition of the debt stock as at 2017 showed that external debt was 26.64 percent of the portfolio, up from 20.04 percent in 2016, while domestic debt was 73.36 percent, down from 79.96 percent in 2016 (Sun News Online, 2018:1).

On possible debt trap, she allayed such fears, stating that the nation's debt stock remains within the threshold of 56 percent for countries in Nigeria's peer group. Also, the Minister of Finance, Mrs. Kemi Adeosun, had expressed the same optimism and stressed that Nigeria's capacity to offset the current debt stock, as the debt to GDP ratio remains low compared to other countries. According to her, government's borrowing was a deliberate decision, primarily to invest in infrastructure development, and that the benefits of the loans would soon be visible and their impact felt by Nigerians. About N2.5trn was said to have been spent on infrastructure in the last three years. Nothing is really wrong with such optimism by the minister. Such loans, which have been on steady rise since the present administration came to power, will be justified if properly invested in capital projects that the country desperately needs. Sadly, that has not always been the case. The concerns about misapplication of loans predate the present government. Though government insists its current borrowing along with tax policies will continue as options to ramp up economic growth, there is the need for caution (Sun News Online, 2018:1).

In spite of the fact that Nigeria's debt stock remains within the internationally accepted threshold, there are worrying signs that the present borrowing pattern could spiral out of control. For instance, Nigeria's debt- to- revenue ratio has increased by 25 percent in less than 2 years. In 2015, the debt-revenue-ratio was 35 percent. It rose to 60 percent in 2016. In 2017, the DMO set borrowing limit of $22bn (about N6.4trn) for the Federal Government. It is not clear if the government complied with that (Sun News Online, 2018:1).

Also, in 2017, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and Fitch Ratings, cautioned the Federal Government against rising debt stock because of high vulnerability to risks in the future. Fitch Ratings stated in its report that Federal Government's debt had reached 320 percent over annual revenue projection. This was above the median of 196 percent for countries in Africa and the Middle East, rated by Fitch (Sun News Online, 2018:1).

Before its latest release of Nigeria's public debt, the DMO expressed concern that the debt profile had started to experience “deterioration”, even though it remained within the accepted threshold. Similarly, government admitted during the unveiling of the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) in 2017, that public debt had risen in recent years, due to increasing borrowings by both the federal and state governments.

There is urgent need for government to scale down domestic borrowing and spend prudently. It is worrisome that the debt profiles of most states have exceeded 50 percent of their annual revenue. This contradicts the fiscal responsibility guidelines which state that the debt status of each state should not exceed 50 percent of its statutory revenue in the previous year. Unfortunately, most states have flouted the guidelines and many have already borrowed above their threshold, ostensibly to finance their budget deficits as a result of declining revenue. Altogether, a new approach and stricter rules are needed for federal and states' loans to avoid another debt trap (Sun News Online, 2018:1).

Conclusions Drawn from the Study

This study showed that the more external debt rises, the more the inflation rate also rises and conversely, the GDP growth rate slows down. The IMF solution will never provide an answer to indebtedness of weak, poor and heavily indebted countries. Conversely, the tight macroeconomic policy demanded by the IMF compounds the financial crisis in countries with poor and weak economies.

The IMF prescription has been known to transform a financial crisis into an economic and social crisis not only by demanding but also by ensuring that the cost of financial sector restructuring is transferred from predominantly private institutions to the public purse. In that way, private debt became public debt.

It has also been discovered that government borrowing has been on steady rise since the present Buhari administration came to power. Unfortunately, such loans which are touted to be geared primarily to invest in infrastructure development have been diverted to private pockets as there are no visible signs of infrastructural development since the administration came to power. Such loans can only be justified if properly invested in capital projects that the country desperately needs. Sadly, that has not always been the case. The misapplication of loans has been a major source of concern in Nigeria since independence.

Recommendations

This article agrees with Hanlon and Pettifor (Shah, 2005:7) that “just as we would never leave anti-smoking campaigns to the cigarette companies, or ask drug pushers to run the health services, so we can no longer allow the loan pushers to determine how to break the loan habit.”

While various African countries are in the process of recovering, a United Nations Economic and Social Survey of Asia-Pacific report, as quoted by Shah (2001:2) recommends that they must learn the lessons of the Asia-Pacific financial crisis by relying on domestic roots for growth, diversifying exports and deepening social safety nets. It is interesting to note that this is the opposite of the processes prescribed by the United States and organizations such as the WTO, IMF and World Bank. These bodies prefer more liberalization and opening up of countries to allow foreign investment to be easier (and allowing pullouts to be easier).

To end the debt debacle therefore, debt campaigns must go beyond merely highlighting the negative effects of globalization on some group of people or countries, to addressing the underlying structure and financial systems that have created the modern form of globalization, if effective and real change for the world's majority is to be achieved.

Taking a cue from the G8, the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPCs) also must, in concert with one another, adopt a particular unwavering stance for a once and for all cancellation of the accumulated debts with such resolve that the creditor nations cannot but accede to. After securing such cancellation, Nigeria, in particular, and African countries in general, must exercise caution in borrowing and also follow guidelines on borrowing limits.

There is also the need for caution on government borrowing as it will continue to plunge the country into more hardship. Finally, Civil Society should serve as watch dog to ensure that loans collected from international financial institutions are channeled towards capital projects to forestall the misapplication of loans by any government in power in the country.

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Women and Socio-Economic Growth in Nigeria: A Development Strategy

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Abstract
The contribution of women to the socio-economic growth of developing nations has received little attention in the existing literature in terms of their roles in the process, and Nigeria is not an exception. This paper is an attempt to fill this gap, bearing in mind, the fact that the agricultural sector employs 60-70% in most of African countries, (the dominant activity in rural Nigeria where women's contribution is higher), and the overall contributions of women to the growth of the Nigerian economy. The study adopted participatory development as its theoretical framework. It also adopted the survey research design with the use of random sampling technique to select respondents. Primary and secondary data were used in the study. combined with in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, key informant interviews and supplemented with observations. Chi-square was used to analyze the data. The results indicated that 1% increase in women's contribution raised the level of GDP by 58.4%; that income generating activities of women to include agricultural produce, marketing of farm produce, crafts making and food processing; and that despite all the efforts women put in development, their capacities are not optimally utilized due to socio-cultural and political hindrances such as access to land, loans, education. Other hindrances are gender issues which lead to marginalization and non-inclusion of women in the nation's decision-making positions. The paper therefore recommended women empowerments, policy initiatives to upgrade their roles which is one of the important objectives of the global development strategy, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), where Sub-Saharan Africa plays a 'latecomer role' in its realization. It was also recommended that government and non-governmental agencies should integrate more women into top policy making positions for their optimum capacities to be utilized.

Keywords: Women, Socio-economic growth, Empowerment, Development; and Agriculture.

Introduction
Organizing Nigerian women for socio-economic growth and self-reliance is a major thrust in planning process aimed at enhancing women's participation in socio-economic growth activities. Nigerian women, particularly rural women's primary contributions to their households' food production and in universal economies cannot be overemphasized. Their contributions to socio-economic growth are progressively being more recognized within the country and Africa. Fora where cognizance is given to the dilemma of third world women and of course Nigerian women are the 1995 Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for Advancement of Women held in Kenya, the 1995 Beijing Declaration, the 2000 Millennium Declaration of the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNDFM), the Food and Agricultural Organization

(FAO) and Gender and Development Plan of action 2007, among others. These bodies have articulated laws that offer enabling milieu for women integration into national economic mainstream. They have also approved full action plans to advance the conditions and rights of women in their communities, in order to promote women's socio-economic reliance. These plans include: creation of' employment, access to resources and credit, eradication of poverty and hunger, combating malnutrition/poor health and illiteracy of women as well as to ensure the inclusion of women in all efforts at ensuring sustainable development (Chen et al: 2015). Karl (1995) stressed that the goals of socio-economic growth cannot be attained without women's full participation in growth process and also in shaping its goals. Women themselves have improved their own recognition over the years through vigorous and conscious efforts in organizing and articulating their concerns and in making their voices heard through prominent groups such as Women Non-Governmental Organizations (WNGOs) with the hope of empowering themselves.

The WNGOs have women and the girl-child as their main targets with the aim of emancipating the female gender, attempting to improve their standards of living and fighting against gender inequality (Akpabio, 2017). International Agencies and National Government Laws provide opportunities for women's inclusion into the nation's economic mainstream coupled with women's own efforts for self-reliance; nonetheless, these are yet to translate into significant socio-economic advancements for rural women. Also the enthusiasm exhibited by women in economic, cultural and social lives of their communities through organizations and informal networks has not been channeled into creative models of participation and leadership. Socio-economic growth is not an isolated activity. It is a process by which people are motivated to explore opportunities within their reach (Olopodenia, 2014 & Pradip, 2010). Socio-economic growth therefore starts with people and progresses through their activities (Seer, 2016 & Gwanye, 2009). Majority of the population in the less Developed Countries (LDCS), live in rural areas with approximately 70 per cent being women (Kongolo & Bamgose, 2012). In Africa, rural women contribute almost 80% to the production of food consumed in most rural areas, yet they are marginalized in terms of their needs to progress and are not often featured in socio-economic growth initiatives (Kongolo & Bamgose, 2012).

In Nigeria, women are generally the most neglected and they have consistently lost out in the course of socio- economic growth. This situation is worse for the rural women. Based on this situation, the Lagos Plan of Action for economic development of Africa, in line with the UN charter advocates the needs, rights and concerns of all women to be fully incorporated into individual country's development planning to benefit all sectors of the population. This does not seem to be feasible in the rural areas of Nigeria. This is why focusing on Nigerian women for socio-economic growth is apt in this study. Nigerian women do not only care for their families, also, they are responsible for marketing the excess farm produce from their husbands' farms and are involved in other petty trades which enhance the economic base of the family, yet they are oftentimes not included in socio-economic activities. The problem of this paper is thus situated on the seeming reluctance on the part of government and the society in organizing Nigerian women to achieve socio-economic growth.

The Concept of Growth

There is no acceptable definition of the term, Growth. In simply terms, growth refers to the benefits from socio-economic growth. Socio-economic growth is associated with decrease or eradication of poverty, inequality and joblessness in the context of an emergent economy. Growth could further be said to involve a deep transformation of the entire economic and social structure of a community, increase production, accomplishment and enhanced growth which may consequently promote economic growth, particularly, if it improves infrastructure (Onokerhoraye, 2014; Jacobs, Garry & Asokan. 2010; Riggs, 2010). In other words, socio-economic growth includes other important and related attributes notably equal opportunities, political freedom and civil liberties. The overall goal of growth is to increase the economic, political, social and civil rights of all people across gender, ethnic groups, religion, races and countries. Hence, Ojo, (2013) summated development as the welfare and quality of life of the populace. Socio-economic growth is a multidimensional process involving the re-orientation of the whole economic and social systems. It not only includes improvements in incomes and outputs, it naturally involves extensive changes in institutional, social and administrative structures, as well as in accepted attitudes, mores and beliefs of the people (Todora, 1992). It is also acknowledged that at the level of individuals, growth implies increased skills and capability, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and comfort (Rodney, 2014). The achievement of any of the above attributes of personal development is greatly associated with the state of the society as a whole. In like manner, Obasanjo and Mabogunje, (2016) explained that growth is a process that deals with a people's capacity in a defined area over a defined period to manage and induce positive changes. Nwachukwu, (2016) outlined Mustafa's meaning and concept of growth to include, among others the following:

- Self-reliant development within natural resources constraints
- Cost effective development using different economic criteria to the traditional approach, that is to say, development should not degrade environmental quality nor should it reduce productivity in the long run.
- Health control, appropriate technologies, food, self-reliance, clean water and shelter for all.
- People centeredness or human beings being the resources in the concept of development.

Corroborating the above, the Human Development Report (2005) asserted that human development is about freedom and building of human capacity. This includes the range of things that people can do and what they can be. In other words, individual freedom and rights are central to development. This is because people are restricted in what they can do with their freedom if they are poor, ill and illiterate, discriminated against, threatened by violent conflict or denied a political voice. Hence United Nations (UN) advocates a "larger freedom” which is human development. This is why progress towards the Millennium Development Goals (MGDs) offers a proof for progress in human development. MGDs also posit that the most essential potentials for human development include: leading a long and healthy life, being educated and possessing adequate resources for a decent standard of living and having access to social and political participation. From the above discussion, development is only relevant to the extent that it brings about positive transformation that enhances the well-being of citizens, as human beings are the primary beneficiary of development.

Roles of Women in Socio-Economic Growth of Nigeria

In Nigeria, Africa's largest and most populous country, more women are engaging in work than ever before. By 2011, more than half (57%) of women 15-64 years old were in some form of employment. The increase in women working has been driven by women with the least amount of schooling finding work – these are the women who are more likely to be out of work than those who have had access to more schooling. This is good news. Jobs for women can be very good "jobs for development" (in the language of the World Bank World Development Report on Jobs) in that they can increase growth now and for the future, give women more control over their lives and those of their children, and foster investment in skills and health of children. Jobs define much of who we are and how we live and when Nigerian women engage in work, they are likely to develop a stronger say in their own destiny. Promoting women's access to gainful employment can unleash a strong force for innovation, productivity and economic growth. With income opportunities also comes more control over household resources and there is evidence that women are more likely than men to invest resources in children's health and education. This is good for long-term economic growth as well. All of these changes are needed as Nigeria tries to move towards more diversified and inclusive economic growth.

Nigeria nonetheless has a long way to go to reap the benefits of a larger female work force. For one, as our new report, More and More Productive Jobs for Nigeria shows, women's transition into productive work is still slow in Nigeria. They have less access to both school and jobs; a girl child is less likely to be in school than boys are and women are still much less likely than men to be working. In fact, in 2011, 17 million adult women were neither working nor studying and women with low levels of education dominate this group. Moreover, when women do work, they are more likely than men to be in occupations and sectors that pay much less and have lower productivity levels, typically in farming or self-employed or unpaid family workers in non-farm household enterprises. Unlike men, their chances of entering wage work - a job with a salary and an employer which tends to offer the best working conditions in terms of both remuneration and security- does not increase with age. Even when they hold similar levels of education and experience, a Nigerian woman earns less on the job than a man.

What can be done to increase women's access to more productive jobs in Nigeria? Education and skills matter but are far from the whole story. While girls still have less access to school than boys, gaps have been shrinking in recent years. It may not be lack of education that creates a gender gap in employment opportunities, at least not now. In recent years, even women with secondary education or more entered the farming sector, rather than wage work. All over the world, women juggle work and family and Nigeria is no exception. Earth marriage and family formation plays a critical role in women's access to jobs. And it is a very significant issue for young women from poorer households than others. Although girls are more likely to leave school earlier than boys, they do not then get jobs. Instead, young women are much more likely to marry earlier than men are. At age 20, less than 4% of men are married, compared to about 50% of women in rural areas. Among the poorer families, marriage before age 15 is infrequent, although 18 years is the legal minimum age of marriage. With early marriage comes early pregnancies and household responsibilities that effectively remove women from labour market opportunities. Thus, early family formation is associated with both early exit from school and fragmented work opportunities and experience for women. It is also reflected in continued high levels of fertility – Nigeria has a high fertility rate of 5.5 children per women – and rapid population growth.
Other cultural elements also impact women's opportunities and either limit access directly or inadvertently. Some regulations that are intended to protect women such as

limits on sectors and hours of work, may thus play against women in the work place. Women are also less likely than men to have access to land – land rights are not granted statutory protection under land laws and customary land is exempt from succession which limits their investment and expansion in farming or in non-farm activities where land can be used as collateral for credit.

Nigerian Women in Agriculture

Most famers in Nigeria operate at the subsistence, smallholder level in an extensive agricultural system hence, in their hands lie the country's food security and agricultural development. Particularly striking however, is the fact that rural women, more than their male counterparts, take the lead in agricultural activities, making up to 60-80 percent of labour force. It is ironical that their contributions to agriculture and rural development are seldom noticed. Furthermore, they have either no or minimal part in the decision-making process regarding agricultural development. Gender inequality is therefore dominant in the sector and this constitutes a bottleneck to development, calling for a review of government policies on agriculture to all the elements that place rural women farmers at a disadvantage. The women-in-agriculture programme in Nigeria, which was established in cognizance of this and the shortcoming in extension services for women has been a huge success. Women's groups, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and civil societies have empowered and given rural women farmers a voice and effectively championed their cause. Women famers now have better access to farm inputs and credits although many barriers remain and would have to be addressed to further enhance their role. Rural women farmers deserve better recognition and greater appreciation of their tangible contributions to agriculture and rural development and food security.

Nigerian Women and Socio-Economic Growth

The most significant evidence on the importance of women to socio-economic growth comes from a research by the World Bank's 'Gender Mainstreaming Strategy' launched in 2001 (Dollar & Gatti, 2010; Klasen, 2009). The research highlighted that societies that discriminated by gender tend to experience less rapid socio-economic growth and poverty reduction than societies that treat males and females more equally; and that social gender disparities produce economically inefficient outcomes. For example, it is shown that if African countries had closed the gender gap in schooling between 1960 and 1992 as quickly as East Asia did, this would have produced close to a doubling of per capita income growth in the region. The primary pathways through which gender systems affect growth are influencing the productivity of labour and the allocative efficiency of the economy (World Bank, 2015). In terms of productivity, for example, if the access of women farmers to productive inputs and human capital were on a part with men's access, total agricultural output could increase by an estimated 6 to 20 percent. In terms of allocative efficiency, while increases in household income are generally associated with reduced child mortality risks, the marginal impact is almost 20 times as large if the income is in the hands of the mother rather than the father. Identification of women as constituting a reliable, productive and cheap labour force makes them the preferred workforce for textiles and electronic transnational corporations. Perception of women as 'good with money,' including being better at paying back loans, has led them to be targeted with resources aimed at alleviating poverty, such as cash transfer programmes. The above shows how the justification for including women in development in economic growth has been an efficiency argument, with equity concerns being somewhat secondary. Critics suggest this instrumentalist approach to engendering development, while bringing economic growth gains, will not fundamentally change the position and situation of women. It is important to note that while gender equality will help bring economic growth, economic growth will not necessarily bring gender equality. Advancing gender equality requires strengthening different dimensions of women's autonomy: economic and political autonomy, full citizenship and freedom from all forms of violence, and sexual and reproductive autonomy (Alpizar Dura, 2010).

Women Empowerment as an Effective Strategy for Enhancing Economic Development

One of the ways to enhance economic development in our country is to empower women. The neglect and discrimination of women in this area has enormously contributed to the poor economic development of the nation. In the past, women were not given right to some economic pursuits and this day, greater numbers of them are still being denied this right. Enemuo, (2011) was of the view that empowerment entails the improvement of women in their political, economic and social conditions. It therefore involves the transformation of patriarchal society through a process of enlightenment, sensitization, and collective organization and therefore necessitates collective action by women to discard patriarchal beliefs and attitudes. On the same line of thought, Okpoko (2010) also opined that "empowerment implies that the person or group of persons being empowered have hitherto lacked power of authority by circumstances either by denial or fault". Therefore, empowerment leads to the involvement of community members in identifying issues and needs in the community.

The base of all economic development is investment. Current realities and future challenges of economic development give rise to three foundational principles on which economic development investments should be based. They are: exports, productivity and sustainability. Exports have motivated much of economic development activity in the economy of the nation in the past, but the shift from the manufacturing service based economy and increasing global competition has emphasized the importance of productivity. A growing awareness of the need for human development and the scarcity of natural resources also highlighted the need for a sustainable approach. Exports, productivity and sustainability are the three principles of economic development. With too much or too little investment in any one of the three, the structure becomes unstable.

The Global Role of Women Caretakers and Educators

Throughout history, the central role of women in society has ensured the stability, progress and long-term development of nations. Globally, women comprise 43 percent of the world's agricultural labor force - rising to 70 percent in some countries. For instance, across Africa, 80 percent of the agricultural production comes from small farmers, most of whom are rural women. It's widely accepted that agriculture can be the engine of growth and poverty reduction in developing nations. Women, notably mothers, play the largest role in decision-making about family meal planning and diet. Women self-report more often their initiative in preserving child health and nutrition.

The Role of Women as Caretakers

Women are the primary caretakers of children and elders in every country of the world. International studies demonstrate that when the economy and political organization of a society change, women take the lead in helping the family adjust to new realities and challenges. They are likely to be the prime initiator of outside assistance, and play an important role in facilitating (or hindering) changes in family life. Rural women play a key role in supporting their households and communities in achieving food and nutrition security, generating income, and improving rural livelihoods and overall well-being.

The Role of Women as Educators

The contribution of women to a society's transition from pre-literate to literate likewise is undeniable. Basic education is key to a nation's ability to develop and achieve sustainability targets. Research has shown that education can improve agricultural productivity, enhance the status of girls and women, reduce population growth rates, enhance environmental protection, and widely raise the standard of living. It is the mother in the family who most often urges children of both genders to attend - and stay - in school. The role of women is at the front end of the chain of improvements leading to the family's or the community's long-term capacity.

Theoretical Review: One theory was considered appropriate for this study and that is, The Participatory Development Theory

Participatory Development Approach is popularly referred to as “Popular Participation”, “Participatory Rapid Appraisal”, “Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and “Participatory Action Research (PAR)”. The participatory development approach originated in the 1970's in Chang Mai and Kohn Kean Universities in Thailand. It emerged as an alternative to the conventional top-down approach to development. Participatory development theory had increased in popularity since the 1970s, when it grew out of the concern for meeting basic needs and reaching the poorest of the poor (Michener,1992).

Theis & Grady (1991) observed that participatory action research emerged as a result of the failure of the old development approaches built on the trickle down principle . With the unrealistic nature of transfer of technology, researchers and development experts began to appreciate the complex relationship between the environment, economy, culture and politics in societies.

According to Rahman (1981), the basic ideology of the Participatory Action Research (PAR) is that a self–conscious people, those who are currently poor and oppressed will progressively transform their environment by their own proxies. The role of others such as facilitators from the government or NGO's or other professionals, is to act as catalyst and play a supporting role, but will not dominate”. PAR seeks to eliminate previous efforts at development of the people which was characterized by dominant/dominated relationship, irrespective of whoever sponsored the development effort. It places emphasis on the people's initiative to seek to improve their own conditions, in the generation of indigenous knowledge to complement professional knowledge, which takes off from their traditional culture and seeks to preserve the physical environment with which they have an organic association" (Rahman, 1981).

PAR's major objective is to empower the poor to be self-reliant and free. The elements of empowerment according to Rahman are 'autonomous, democratic people's organization, and the restoration of the status and promotion of popular knowledge". In its simple form, participatory development is one, which carries the people along at every stage of the development process. According to Nyoni (1981), participatory development is a sine qua non of the success of PARs activities. He stated thus, "the very notion of participatory implies that nothing should be hidden from the people". They are involved in the identification and prioritization of activities to be undertaken, decision-making and planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

The Overseas Development Administration (ODA) sees the approach as promoting greater efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability. According to ODA, (1995), project/programmes under stakeholder participation are:

i) More efficient because, by involving all integrated parties, a wider knowledge pool that supports better designs and implementation is available; also, finance and costs can be shared.
ii) More effective because stakeholders' varied interest can be identified and addressed in the designs; while shared ownership of project implies that there is a greater chance of achieving the intended outcome.
iii) More sustainable because people are encouraged to use their knowledge and take initiatives. Also, they gain skills and confidence to maintain the benefit of the project/programme.

Participatory Development Approach takes off with a process known as problem posing (Modo, 1994). It enables professionals, consultants and government officials to learn from and with people, directly and face to face and also enhances their understanding of the perception, priorities and needs of the people for whom development is planned. Participatory development approach is important because of its potentials for the conscientization and empowerment of the people for whom development is planned.

The nature of this research demands that emphasis be placed on a theory which is capable of pointing a new way forward for the possible success of development policies in Akwa Ibom State. This makes the participatory development theory very valuable. It is a theoretical orientation of choice because it ramifies the possibility of combating poverty through socio-economic approach and institutional efficacy. In the 1970s, the participatory development theory was a new optimism that: the pursuit of growth with equity or a strategy of targeting basic human needs would succeed where economic growth failed (Wilber & jameson,1992). This theoretical approach is relevant within the context of this study because through collective learning and mobilization, it will empower the people to identify their own problem, needs and opportunities; provide practical research based on information that will help them to solve the problem and assist them to take advantage of the opportunities to improve their lot.

The adoption of this approach for this study is based on two (2) reasons:

i) It will strengthen the women association and organization to negotiate with institutions and agencies concerned with development;

ii) It enhances the chance of making development objectives and outputs relevant to the perceived needs of the people.

Evidence from several other counties gives credence and support to the application of this model to the development needs of people. Although participatory development theory of poverty reduction has been criticized by some theorists (Iniodn,1997; Modo, 1994 & Ekong, 2008) it remains the theory of choice since it focuses and gears toward the improvement in the standard of living of the people. It is also important because of its potentials for the conscientization and empowerment of the people to know their problems, needs and opportunities; and also helps them to solve their problems.

Methodology

This study adopted the survey research design with the use of random sampling technique. This is the method of selecting a sample in such a way that members of the population have equal opportunity or chance of being selected where the selection of one subject and the non-selection of another subject have no influence on each other (Adefila, 2008). It was conducted in the three (3) senatorial districts of the state using a sample of three hundred and fifty (350) respondents, randomly selected from three 3 Local Government Areas in each of the Senatorial Districts. A total of nine (9) Local Government Areas and thirty-six (36) villages were used as sample areas of the study. Data were elicited using a structured interview, and structured questionnaire schedule complemented with the Focus Group Discussion (FGD). The research instruments were subjected to reliability and validity test. The analysis of the data was done using descriptive statistics (simple percentages (%) to analyze socio-demographic data of respondents, and inferential statistics (chi-square techniques(x^2) was used in testing the research hypotheses.

Research Hypotheses I

H_o: There is no significant relationship between the roles of women and Socio-Economic Growth.

Table I. Computed x^2 for Hypothesis I

CELL	FO	FE	FO-FE	$(FO-FE)^2$	$\frac{(FO-FE)^2}{FE}$
A	77	76. 56	0. 44	0. 19	0. 00
B	55	66. 17	11. 17	124. 77	7. 87
C	26	18. 59	7. 41	54. 90	2. 95
D	10	8. 75	1. 25	1. 56	0. 17
E	7	4. 9	2. 1	4. 41	0. 9
F	63	63. 43	0. 43	0. 18	0. 00
G	66	54. 82	11. 18	124. 99	2. 28
H	8	15. 40	7. 4	54. 76	3. 55
I	6	7. 25	1. 25	1. 56	0. 21
J	2	4. 07	2. 67	7. 12	1. 74

£x^2=13.67

CHI – Square (x^2) calculated valve = 13. 67
D/F = Degree of Freedom
D/F = (R-I) (C-I)
= (5-1) (2-1)
4x1 D/F=4.

Level of significance = 0. 05
Critical table value = 9. 49
While the x^2 calculated value = 13. 67

Decision Rule

Since the x^2 table value of 9. 49 is lower than the calculated x^2 value of 13.67 at 0. 05 level of significance, we accept (Hi) and reject (Ho). This means that there is a significant relationship between the roles of women and socio-economic growth in the country.

Research Hypothesis II

Ho: There is no significant relationship between lack of financial empowerment and women participation in programmes that lead to National Development.

Tables 2 Computed X^2 for Hypothesis II

CELL	FO	FE	FO-FE	$(FO\text{-}FE)^2$	$\frac{FO\text{-}FE)^2}{FE}$
A	80	70. 78	9. 22	85. 00	1. 20
B	40	56. 15	16. 15	260. 82	4. 64
C	11	9. 90	1. 1	1. 21	0. 12
D	15	7. 07	7. 93	62. 88	8. 89
E	5	4. 71	0. 29	0. 08	0. 01
F	70	79. 21	4. 21	84. 82	1. 07
G	79	62. 84	16. 16	261. 14	4. 14
H	10	11. 09	1. 09	1. 18	0. 07
I	5	7. 92	2. 92	8. 52	1. 07
J	5	5. 28	0. 28	0. 07	0. 01

£x^2 = 21.25

CHI – Square (x^2) calculated value = 21. 25
D/F = Degree of Freedom
D/F = (R-I) (C-I)
= (5-1) (2-1)
= 4 X 1
D/F = 4
The level of significance = 05
The critical x^2 table value = 9.49

Decision Rule

Since the calculated x^2 value of 21. 25 is greater than the critical (x^2) value of 9. 49 at 0. 05 level of significance, we accept (Hi) and reject (Ho), meaning, there is a significant relationship between lack of financial empowerment and women participation in the programmes that lead to National Development.

Discussion of Findings

The primary aim of this work was to assess women's roles and socio-economic growth as a development strategy in Nigeria. Also to empirically examine the significance of infrastructural facilities in enhancing the growth and development of women as well as the factors influencing their effectiveness in relations to the socio-economic development of Akwa Ibom State.

From the analysis of hypothesis I, the result shows that "there is a significant relationship between the roles of women and socio-economic growth. This is in consonant with the view of (Neankwo, 2013) who posited that women's roles act as catalyst that accelerate the face of structural transformation and diversification of economy, enabling a country to fully utilize its natural endowment and to depend less on foreign supply of finished goods or raw materials for its economic growth, development and sustainability.

Research hypothesis II shows that "there is a significant relationship between financial empowerment and women participation in programmes that lead to National Development. This is in agreement with the view of Terzungwe (2013), who asserted that lack of government encouragement in entrepreneurial skills and programmes have contributed to women unemployment in Nigeria. Adebayo & Ogunrlnila (2006) stated that there is need for such programmes which can generate employment for women to enhance growth and development. This is because the establishment of these programmes and policies by the government helps in curbing unemployment problem in Nigeria as well as empower the people with practical skills that could enhance self-employment.

Conclusion

There is overwhelming evidence from what has been discussed in this study that women are a formidable productive force and a store of incredibly human resources which are required for national development. Their contributions cannot be discountenanced in household and national economics; the current role of women in national development is remarkable towards peace and direction of the economy and society. In order to identify and tap their resources so as to ensure optimal performance in national development, efforts should be made for holistic development of women along the following lines:

a. Encouragement of the formation of more women agricultural and business cooperatives. This will lead to the encouragement of social network activities.
b. Professional bodies should be encouraged to carry out enlightenment campaigns in secondary schools to emphasize the involvement of girls in choice of subjects.
c. Education of the womenfolk especially the rural women, provision of basic education to the women, especially junior staff in government employ who should also be granted opportunities for in-service training. This will provide a multiplier effect to the education of youths in the state.
d. Political parties should pursue vigorous enlightenment campaigns on the involvement of women in politics and bring out modalities for mainstreaming them for elective positions.
e. The Nigeria nation owes the womenfolk the responsibility of removing those artificial and institutional barriers bearing on religion, culture or traditional consideration which have incapacitated the ability of Nigerian women to participate effectively and freely in national affairs particularly at the political and economic levels.

Recommendations

(1) Traditional factors threaten development in the education and training of women and the girl child. In order to avoid gender discrimination of low enrolment of women or the girl-child, training programmes are needed to develop their technical competence. This will enable them to be better informed, better gain access to the political and economic structure and help them gain maximum competence and means of livelihood.

(2) Since women represent about fifty per cent of the nation's population, there is need to have adequate representation of women in high decision making positions in government. This will also be in keeping with the Beijing Declaration recommendation of 30%.

(3) There should be concerted efforts on the part of government in conjunction with the NGOs and development agencies to remove or curtail socio-economic and cultural constraints on women in accessing land, loans, and other inputs. Government must ensure that stringent measures in accessing these facilities are minimized through special Women's Banks.

(4) National Action Plan in line with the Beijing platform for Action should be considered in broad consultation with women organisations, in order to complement local initiatives. This also should be adequately financed.

(5) Women organisations in the communities and trade places should be acknowledged by governments and NGOs for meaningful change to occur in the lives of women and the society at large. These women organisations should be used as avenues to increase women participation and decision-making in the community.

(6) Basic infrastructures and support services such as roads, electricity, good drinking water, health and day care centres as well as transportation must adequately be provided.

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The Moderating Role of Public Administration in Accounting Profit and Internet-based Environmental Disclosures in Nigeria: Evidence from Manufacturing Companies.

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Abstract
This paper investigated the relationship between corporate profitability and web-based environmental disclosure in Nigeria. The manufacturing sector, representing the real sector of the Nigerian economy was selected, and the role of public administration as a moderating factor was considered as a variable. The study adopted the quantitative panel methodology of the ex post facto and correlational research design. Secondary data were extracted from the fact books of the Nigerian Stock Exchange for the period, 2014 and 2019. The 83 manufacturing companies listed on the Stock Exchange represented the population of the study. The sample used was 69. Three hypotheses were tested at a 0.05 level of significance. Multiple and simple regression analyses were used on the data collected to find the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The findings indicated an insignificant negative relationship between web-based environmental disclosure (WED) and earnings per share (EPS) on one hand and an insignificant positive relationship between WED and return on asset (ROA) on the other. It was recommended that quoted firms can use the findings of the study to enhance their disclosure of environmental incidents while government policies should strengthen regulatory bodies to carry out their oversight functions. Listed firms should own websites and dedicate separate pages on their corporate websites solely for reporting environmental events.

Keywords: Environmental Accounting Disclosure, Firm performance, Corporate websites, Government regulatory agencies, Disclosure Index, Public Administration.

1. Introduction
Sustaining the environment has become a global issue that concerns all nations of the world. This comes as a result of environmental degradation faced by nations over activities of companies. Corporate and public managers are now expected to ensure the sustainability of the environment through corporate practices which should not only centre on firm value maximization but also on the overall benefit of the general populace. Environmental issues are now seen by many companies as a fundamental issue. According to Debreceny, Gray, and Rahman (2002), environmental issues have now been seen as the hallmark of corporate progression. Bhasin (2012) affirms that globally,

corporate organizations are constantly challenged regarding environmental disclosures as a result of threatening public concerns about environmental degradation. As a matter of necessity, firms are now obliged to ensure a safer environment (Malarvizhi & Yadar, 2009).

Environmental sustainability has always been in the front burner of countries and organisations in the world. Several summits have been held by world leaders to tackle environmental issues at various times. In recent times, the Copenhagen summit (COP15), the London and the parallel Pittsburgh Summit of the G20 Leaders, the United Nations Special Summit on Environment as well as the United Nations Climate Change Summit in Paris (COP21) where over 200 leaders from countries in the globe converged, discussions on environmental sustenance and reporting were the major highlights. The result of the United Nations Climate Change Summit in Paris (COP21) was the adoption of a new template for environmental sustainability (Firoz & Ansari, 2010; Jia, Liaxia & Adam, 2010).

Uwuigbe (2011) observed a noticeable shift from the traditional objective of firms as Michael and Okwoli (2018) confirm a paradigm shift from the traditional financial bottom line or profitability reporting, to an environmental management reporting as the key to good corporate image in the competitive world. Greenhouse emissions have to be lowered; carbon trace should be reduced while the use of alternative renewable energy should be enhanced to curtail environmental pollution. The disclosure of these environmental activities using the effective tool of environmental accounting culminates in the environmental accounting disclosures. Dutta and Bose (2007) recognize environmental account as the tracking of environmental responsibility costs, including waste disposal, and reporting same.

These disclosures have overtime, been traditionally done through the conventional print media including companies' annual reports (Lohdia, 2005; Malarvizhi and Yadar, 2009). Ghasempour and Yusuf (2014) however, observe that there could be considerate delay in getting print-based information such as annual reports to stakeholders. Therefore, Adams and Frost (2004) opine that companies now explore new method of unconventional reporting and communication media. This is settled in web-based corporate reporting, which is supported by public administrators for the overall wellbeing of the globe.

Web-based corporate disclosure, as discussed by various scholars (Sharma, 2013; Ashbaugh, Johnstone, & Warfield, 1999) is the dissemination of corporate related financial and non-financial information using the internet technologies. It is a wider term than simply internet financial reporting as it entails other performance measures covering environment, social responsibility and corporate governance (Sharma, 2013; Comier, Lediux & Magnan, 2009).

Web is seen as one of better media platforms to disclose financial and non-financial information since it has the advantage of providing direct contact between the firms' management and stakeholders, without going through intermediaries such as the press or analysts (Martson & Polei, 2004). Web-based disclosure, according to Debreceny, Gray and Rahman (2002) is cost effective, covering a wider audience with speed and reliability.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Studies have been conducted by scholars on web-based environmental disclosures in developed countries, particularly on bigger firms operating in the developed world (Adams & Frost, 2004; Lohdia, 2007; Jose & Lee, 2006; Razeed, 2009; Chowdury & Hamid, 2013). A recent study by Michael and Okwoli (2018) describes web-based disclosure in Nigeria, but without specific findings on manufacturing companies which control the real sector of the economy and most prone to environmental degradation in their activities. Therefore, the need for a research to assess the extent of web-based disclosures by manufacturing companies in pursuing stakeholders' wealth maximization through public policy implementation seems appropriate to fill the apparent gap in literature.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:

i. Examine the extent of relationship between web-based disclosure in the public interest and corporate profitability of Nigerian manufacturing companies.
ii. To find out the relationship between traditional print-based disclosure and enhanced corporate profitability in Nigeria manufacturing companies.
iii. To examine if administration of digital disruption and innovation can improve profitability as traditional print-based disclosure does in Nigeria manufacturing companies.
iv. To determine whether firms' performance is enhanced by the degree of web-based environmental disclosures (WED) of quoted firms in Nigeria.

v. 2. Literature Review

Sharma (2013) asserts that web-based reporting of financial and non-financial information became popular with the advent of the world -wide -web in 1994 and as opined by Anyanwu (2012), companies that use their websites to disclose a broad spectrum of corporate information since then reported lower cost of distributing their annual and other reports to stakeholders. Aside the lower cost of information dissemination, Michael and Okwoli (2018) surmise that as businesses strive to provide goods and services to their customers, they engage in activities that impact negatively on the environment. This creates a corporate responsibility for businesses to report how the impact of their operation have affected their immediate and remote environment which they operate (Ramana, 2013; Ugwuigbe, 2012).

Corporate environmentalism, including disclosures therefore become an upshot of environmental cost which the Global Development Research Centre (2014) believes is a significant part of firms' total expenditure in recent times. Adams and Frost (2004) indicate that web reporting has revolutionized businesses and communications in the twenty-first century while Glautier, Underdown, and Morris (2011) examine both web-based and print-based annual report disclosures and acknowledge that the web has revolutionized how companies disseminate information.

The general public, in recent times, have strong concern regarding firms' environmental events and there have been a fierce follow-ups for adequate disclosures by these companies, especially those in manufacturing. Sharma (2013) opines that disclosure decisions of companies are influenced by several firm-specific characteristics, such as size, culture, market listing and corporate governance characteristics (Armitage & Marston, 2008; Cooke, 1992; Khanna, Palepu, & Srinivasan, 2004). Sharma (2013) concludes that larger companies, internationalized, liquid and more profitable companies were found to engage in internet financial reporting. The firms that are averse to web-reporting were found to be factored by concentrated ownership. These are mostly the type of firms we have in Africa. From the study, it could be inferred that African firms do not embrace the concept of web-based reporting.

2.1 Environmental Accounting Concept

Citing Dutta and Bose (2007), Michael and Okwoli (2018) aver that environmental accounting is the recognition and reporting of those special costs that are related to corporate environmental responsibility. Uwuigbe (2011) had earlier recognized environmental accounting as a management tool used for strategic purposes to improve the environment using different approaches. Glautier, Underdown and Morris (2011) aver that environmental accounting emerged as an extension of corporate social objectives reflecting varying degrees and types of environmental degradation. Glautier et al (2011) assert that environmental issues permeate all aspects of business, from servicing to product design and manufacturing.

The impact of environmental accounting on the stakeholders of firms is to raise the level of awareness and consciousness as regards environmental costs. This will cause such costs to be reduced or avoided, while improving environmental quality. Environmental accounting also assists firms in building the culture of sustaining the environment in which they operate and do business (Martson & Polei, 2004).

2.2 The corporate environmental responsibility

Corporate environmental responsibility is a business moral and corporate social responsibility that could ensure environmental sustainability. Brown and Deegan (1998) stress that as complex and multidimensional as corporate environmental responsibility is, it is made up of corporate practices that look into natural resource management, waste generation and disposal, recycling, marketing of environmentally friendly products, as well as pollution prevention and control.

Referring to the above disposition, Michael and Okwoli (2018) aver that environmental responsibility goes hand in gloves with environmental commitment and awareness, stakeholder engagement, measuring, reporting and auditing, transparency, commitment to continuous improvement and looking beyond compliance. This implies that as Africans, our captain of industries should show commitment in accounting for our environment, not merely waiting to be coerced while managing our firms for profitability.

2.3 The Role of Public Administration

Public Administration is an instrument of the State welfare, where the state is confidently expected to meet all the social and economic needs of the citizenry, service delivery, and resource allocation. Public administration is concerned on how the largesse from Corporate Social Responsibilities made by companies are administered. It is a commitment to maintain a central role in policy making and implementation through the State entering into a dialogue with private enterprises to promote and support Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) for the benefits of the people through socio-economic development plans, educational empowerment, recreational facilities and cultural purposes, to improve the quality of life and the society at large. The efficiency of these could be derived optimally through web-based environmental reporting.

2.4 The Western Outlook of Web-based Environmental Disclosure

Bhasin (2012) surveyed the use of internet for investor relations' activities, focusing on the provision of financial data, of United Kingdom, Germany and united states companies. The study found out that 95 percent of companies in US, 85 percent in UK and 76 percent in Germany had websites which were effectively used for environmental reporting. The study also revealed that 91 percent of companies in US,72 percent in UK, and 71 percent in Germany used the internet for investors' relations.

Adams and Frost (2004) also investigated selected corporate websites from Australia, Germany and the United Kingdom and discovered that amongst the stakeholders, customers and shareholders significantly influenced websites designs in web-based environmental reporting. They also found out that raising corporate awareness and improving corporate image were the primary factors influencing the development of corporate websites. Overall, findings from various scholars on web-based environmental disclosure in western countries (Zhang, Gao and Zhang, 2007; Bashin, 2012) suggest that multinational companies are becoming more environmentally sensitive today than ever before. This is what is expected from African firms.

2.5 African Outlook of Web-based Environmental Disclosure

There is a perceptible gap in the literature on the use of corporate websites for environmental reporting. The bulk of environmental accounting researches in Nigeria, nay Africa is focused on the traditional print media, particularly the company's annual reports, when information is required (Michael and Okwoli, 2018).

However, though Salawu (2013) and Uwuigbe (2012) investigated web-based account disclosures in Nigeria, Salawu (2013) chiefly investigated web-based financial disclosure contents and did not reckon with non-financial disclosures. Uwuigbe (2012) only attempted to address web-based environmental disclosure practices, selecting fifteen financial and fifteen non-financial firms. The study examined the use of internet for environmental reporting practices by quoted financial and non-financial firms in Nigeria. He found out that a significant positive association exists between firms' performance and the degree of web-based disclosures.

These few studies on web-based environmental disclosures, as compared to the myriad of studies in the western world, suggest that web-based environmental reporting in Nigeria, and indeed, Africa is still at the developing stage and should be continued (Uwuigbe, 2012).

2.6 Empirical framework

Most previous studies as reviewed above examined the degree of web-based environmental disclosures (WED), but there are explanatory studies that examined the factors that are responsible for WEDs. Mendes-da-silva & Christensen (2004); Andrew (2003); Mohamed & Basuony, (2014); and Juhmani, (2014) found that firm size is statistically significant to disclosures made on corporate websites while research such as Ismail (2002) and Andrew (2003) revealed that leverage, profitability and industry-type also influence web-based disclosures.

FASB (2000) empirically investigated the extent and content of WED information. Their findings suggested that size and profitability are positively correlated with the content of social disclosure information on firms' websites. They further revealed that State-owned corporations disclose more WED information than privately owned corporations do. They also found significant differences between different industries.

Jia, Linxiao, & Adam (2010) investigated the environmental accounting disclosure of S&P 100 firms using keyword frequency count of company's reports from 2004 through 2008 and showed that environmental disclosure has a significant negative impact on firm performance. They further found that firms with better financial value and highly-leveraged firms have lower environmental disclosures, suggesting that these firms have better environmental laws and regulations compliance rate.

Murray, Sinclair, Power & Gray (2005) studied the largest 100 UK firms based on turnover. They explored whether stock market participants in the UK exhibited any marked reaction to the environmental reports made by such firms. They found convincing evidence that the level of company returns over time is associated with the level of environmental disclosures over time.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

It is obvious that diverse and competing theoretical frameworks are used by many scholars to explain why corporations may voluntarily engage in environmentalism. The concern of this study is on why firms should do the needful, voluntarily or through compulsion, to create harmony in the existence of companies as a legal person whose existence would not negatively affect the real human person, being the society, they operate.

2.7.1 Stakeholders' theory by Ed Freeman (1984)

Freeman's stakeholder theory was created in the first instance, to put forward another vision of what the firm's objective should be. Before this theory was put forth, the dominant ideology such as Milton Friedman's classic model was of the view that the objective of a company is profit accumulation for redistribution to the owners of capital, the shareholders. But Freeman's (1984) theory argued that profit should not be seen as the primary cause of setting up a firm, but rather, a consequence of the activities of the company over a time period. According to Ghasempour & Yusof (2014), the point of view of the theorist was that shareholders and others who have stake in the business should be recognized by the firm, and their needs attended to.

The stakeholder theory is concerned with how the company can have respect to the community and environment of business, comply with legal requirements, as well as be involved in contribution to sustainable environmental development (Ojedokun, 2020). This theory Is important for firms who have corporate profitability as a major objective to also pursue web-based environmental disclosures, especially in Africa, which is under-reported in this area.

2.7.2 Legitimacy theory

This theory is based on the idea that for firms to continue in their successful operations, they must act within the bounds of what society identifies as socially acceptable behaviour (O'Donavan, 2002). Any firm that falls short of acting within these societal bounds risks corporate social acceptability and this will affect its profitability. Such company will be faced with legal limitations impressed on its operations which will result in reduction in demand for its products.

Uwuigbe (2012) and O' Donovan (1999), both agreed that firms will increase environmental disclosures where it becomes necessary to validate negative environmental activities associated with the firm as this may enhance public perception of the firm. Suchman (1995) and Lodhia (2007) elucidate that the motive behind the above assertion is to gain and maintain legitimacy in the eyes of major stakeholders.

Both of the theories were adopted in this study as they were seen to be relevant in the instances of stakeholding and reporting of environmental issues to the various stakeholders as well as ensuring that firms operate within the limits of legitimate and acceptable societal acceptable behaviour.

3 Hypothesis and Model development
The hypothesis for this study were developed from the model shown below:

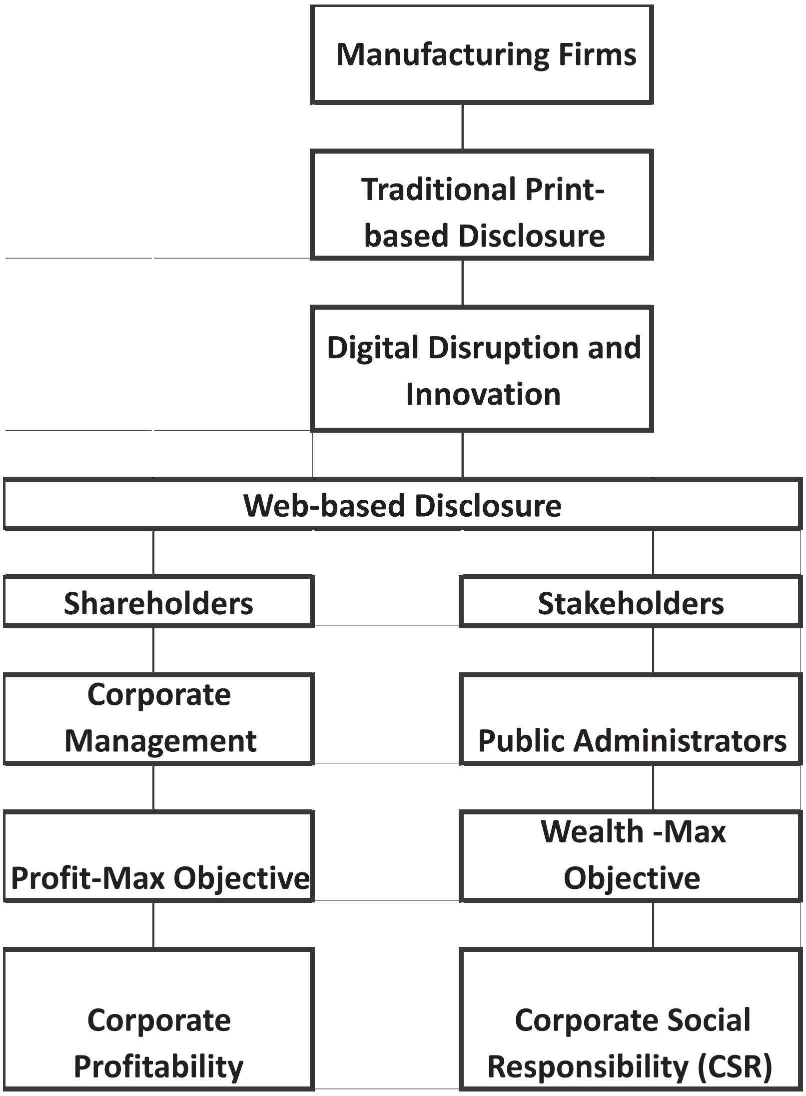

Figure 1. Development of conceptual model guiding the hypotheses

The study is based on manufacturing firms as corporate entities and how the adoption of web-based environmental disclosures has enhanced their profitability. The model is developed on the comparison of listed firms that do not have well developed websites for annual and subsidiary reports and those that have.

Web-based environmental disclosure is an offshoot of digital disruption/innovation. Digital disruption represents those changes that occur when new digital technologies and business models affect the value proposition of existing goods and services. Disruption can also be described as "making things that make the old things obsolete" while innovation is "doing the same things a bit better" (Ojedukun, 2020).

From the above disposition, the model outlines that web-based disclosures by corporate entities in Nigeria can achieve better firms' objectives (wealth maximization) which embrace every stakeholder in companies. This would take a nearer route to corporate profitability than the traditional print-based disclosures which were sent to company owners (shareholders) only, and whose major objective was profit maximization at the expense of other stakeholders' wealth. The moderating role of public administrators is factored in here, indicating how wealth maximization objective which supports the corporate social responsibility is projected for the public, rather than just profit making for company shareholders.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between the extent of web-based disclosure and corporate profitability of Nigeria manufacturing companies.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between traditional print-based disclosure and enhanced corporate profitability in Nigeria manufacturing companies.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant joint relationship between Earnings per share (EPS), Return on Assets (ROA) and Web-based Environmental Disclosure (WED).

4 Research Methodology

4.1 Research design

The study adopted quantitative panel methodology using the post facto and correlational research design. The goal of this design was to measure the relationship between the two variables of corporate profitability and web-based environmental disclosure. This methodology was used in analyzing secondary (panel) data collated from the Nigerian Stock Exchange fact books and portal from 2014-2019.

The profitability of the manufacturing companies was indicated by EPS and ROA and depended on web-based environmental disclosures as an independent variable. The population of the study was the 83 manufacturing companies listed in the Nigerian Stock Exchange under the manufacturing sector. The Taro Yamane formula was used to arrive at a sample size of 69 manufacturing companies, and a non-census (probability sampling) technique was adopted, making use of the stratified random sampling to have a true representation of all strata of the manufacturing companies in the population. The strata include manufacture of consumer goods, construction, food and agricultural processing, manufacturing of healthcare and pharmaceutical products, industrial goods and oil and gas.

4.2 Model specification

Multiple regression model was used as the major statistical tool. Students' t-test was used to measure the responsiveness of explanatory variables on the dependent variable, corporate profitability. In the same vein, to see the overall fit of the model, ANOVA was used, which measured collective influence of all the dependent variables on the independent variable.

The full specification of the regression model is Y = f(X)

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \mu$$

Where, Y = Corporate profitabili ty (Dependent variable), indicated by Earnings per share (EPS) and Return on Assets (ROA)

X = Web-based environmental Disclosures (WED) as Independent variable.

α = Intercept

$\beta_1 x_1$ = Coefficient of the independent variable

Model: *Corporate profitability of the firm = f (Web-based Environmental Disclosures)*

Therefore,

$$\text{EPS} = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 WED + \mu \quad \text{.................(1)}$$

$$\text{ROA} = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 WED + \mu \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots(2)$$

Data presentation and analysis

Table 1 Showing multiple regression of the relationship between corporate profitability sub-variables and Web-based environmental disclosures.

Model	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient B	t	Sig	Result
	B	Std error				
Constant	70.037	2.327	----------	30.092	0.000	Significant
EPS	0.447	0.126	0.234	3.536	0.000	Significant
ROA	-0.325	0.195	-0.113	-1.666	0.097	Insignificant

Dependent Variable: Corporate profitability
Source: SPSS V.20 Field Data Analysis.

Table 2 showing analysis of variance associated with multiple regression on the joint relationship between variables of corporate profitability and web-based environmental disclosures.

<table>
<tr><th>Model</th><th>Sum of Squares</th><th>D.F</th><th>Mean of square</th><th>F</th><th>R</th><th>R2</th><th>Sig</th><th>Result</th></tr>
<tr><td>Regression</td><td>54496.814</td><td>6</td><td>9082.802</td><td rowspan="3">56.029</td><td rowspan="3">0.720</td><td rowspan="3">0.519</td><td rowspan="3">0.000</td><td rowspan="3">Significant</td></tr>
<tr><td>Residual</td><td>50578.277</td><td>312</td><td>162.110</td></tr>
<tr><td>Total</td><td>105075.091</td><td>318</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

Source: SPSS V.20 Field Data Analysis.

5. Results

The multiple regression in table 1 above reveals a beta value of 0.234 for earnings per share. This value however was significant at 0.000 alpha level. Hence, since the p-value of 0.000 was less than the choosen alpha level of 0.05, the null hypothesis 1 was rejected and the alternate accepted implying that web-based disclosure and corporate profitability of Nigerian manufacturing companies are significantly related.

The analysis in the table also reveals a beta value of -0.113 which represents approximately 11% of the total contribution to corporate profitability. Furthermore, a p-value of 0.09 was also realized. However, since the p-value was greater than the chosen alpha, hypothesis 2 was accepted and its corresponding alternative rejected. This in actual sense implies that there is no significant relationship between traditional print-based disclosure and enhanced corporate profitability in Nigeria manufacturing companies.

Table 2 reveals that a multiple r corelation between all the dependent variables with the independent variable. A multiple correlation coefficient (R) of 0.720 was realized indicating a high correlation. A R squared value of 0.519 was also realized. This value indicates that the independent variable combined with the proxies of the dependent variable contribute about 51.9% to the corporate profitability of firms in Nigeria. The table also reveals a p-value of 0.000. Since the p-value is less than the chosen alpha level of 0.05, hypothesis 3 was rejected meaning that there is a significant joint relationship between Earnings per share (EPS), Return on Assets (ROA) and Web-based Environmental Disclosure (WED) of Nigerian manufacturing companies.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

Considering the global trend in web-based environmental reporting, the question as to whether companies within Nigeria, nay Africa can afford to be left out of the all-encompassing wave of technological competency for environmental reporting practice is still begging for answers. Therefore, this study employed empirical methods to test the effect of web-based environmental reporting on firms' profitability. The evidence suggests that firms' performance (profitability) significantly relates with web-based environmental disclosure level of listed firms in Nigeria. Firms' performance may not be used as an input factor for investment decision-making or explain why companies make web-based environmental disclosures. Perhaps firms make choice details regarding their environmental issues to enhance their corporate profitability.

It was discovered in the study that a number of listed firms do not own a website that can show significant details about their operations. In improving web-based environmental transparency level, it is recommended that regulatory laws and standards be set compelling listed companies to own and operate corporate websites, especially those without corporate websites, and dedicate separate pages on their websites for making environmental disclosures. This has the tendency of improving companies' consciousness towards web-based environmental reports. Where this becomes the case, sufficient and quality environmental disclosure will be guaranteed.

A significant factor that contributes to a company's corporate survival is dependent on the communities' acceptability of the firm. Thus it is recommended that firms enhance their corporate existence by engaging more on corporate environmental responsibility activities.

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Lean Accounting and Waste Management of Nigerian Breweries: An Empirical Analysis

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Abstract
This work empirically examined the effect of lean accounting on waste management of Nigerian Breweries, using Champion Breweries as the case study. A survey research design was adopted in this study. The primary data used were collected through a structured questionnaire administered purposively to 50 workers in Champion Breweries. The data collected were analyzed using tables, simple percentages, descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and the hypotheses were tested using ordinary least square regression technique. The results of the analysis showed that lean accounting has significant effect on process waste management; significant but negative effect on product quality but insignificant effect on inventory waste management of Nigerian breweries. Thus the study concluded that the application of lean accounting can aid organization achieve efficient and effective waste management. The study recommended that companies should fully adopt lean manufacturing processes and lean accounting methodologies in order to enjoy the attendant benefits of waste reduction, product quality and customer retention, which ultimately maximize shareholders' wealth.

Keywords: Lean Accounting, Lean Manufacturing, Waste Management, Customers' Value, Target Costing.

1.0 Introduction
Companies around the world have evolved various methods to improve and maximize their value added activities. This is evidenced in the recent focus on customers' value rather than shareholders value which before now, was the ultimate objective of any business enterprise. Following this trend, companies try to change the manner in which they produce and deliver products and services in order to align with the competitive business environment. At first, these changes appear to be just mere programmes designed to make a company more efficient and effective by applying new production techniques and defined mode of service delivery. But when viewed more closely, it becomes clear that this new method known as lean manufacturing is not just another improvement programme but fundamentally new way of conducting business. A lean organization understands customers' value and focuses its key processes to continuously improve it. Lean thinking changes the way a company views its customers and seeks to maximize the value created for them while adding values to their activities by eliminating waste.

Traditional accounting systems such as full absorption costing were designed to support mass production, top down command and control, departmental optimization and focused solely on shareholders' wealth creation. The principles of lean thinking are quite different from those of traditional management methods. Replacing the traditional manufacturing systems with modern ideas requires companies to review the processes and adopt modern approaches. Lean accounting seems to negate traditional cost and management accounting system which, according to Unah and Unweni (2017) ignores tangible non-financial performance measurement such as on-time delivery and customers' satisfaction. The failure of conventional cost reduction techniques to yield the expected result brought about the thinking toward the implementation of lean accounting principles.

The goal of lean accounting is to eliminate the non-value added components of any process and thus emphasize speed and quality regardless of cost. Waste reduction can help companies improve their overall profitability. This is a significant impact because companies that can maintain or improve production output use less capital. Hence lean companies can reinvest saved capital into their businesses and make additional improvements in the production process. Based on these facts, lean accounting may be used to reduce process and inventory waste, improve products quality as well as enhance company's public image. It is upon this note that the Institute of Management Accountants (2014) stresses that lean concept is becoming a prerequisite for firms to survive in the global economy where the main focus lies in creating customers' value that allows for creation of wealth for the shareholders. This has raised the awareness among companies' managements, on the importance of cost and waste reduction as well as customers' value maximization.

Several previous studies have revealed a gap between development of lean accounting methods and the reality of their application in working life. Unfortunately, prevailing accounting and management literature in the subject matter does not give much space to lean accounting as a means of reducing industrial waste. The lean accounting literature mostly consists of reports and studies focused on nature, objectives, methods and tools applied for production process or operation. In Nigeria, there have been very scanty researches on the effect of lean accounting on waste management. In addition to this, most of the researches are exploratory and not empirical and the effect of lean accounting on waste management is not really ascertained. Furthermore, some of the researches focused on manufacturing sector, health sector, oil and gas sector and very few on the brewing sector. It is against this backdrop that this research was undertaken to evaluate the effect of lean accounting on waste management of breweries in Nigeria, taking Champion Breweries Plc, Uyo as the case study.

2.0 Literature review

Lean accounting is a new accounting approach that emerged with the rise of business interest to embrace the lean thinking culture (Woehrle & Abou-Shady, 2010). It aims to measure the monetary impact of implementing lean improvement projects to business processes. Maskell & Baggley (2006) describe lean accounting to include simple accounting, visual performance measures, value stream boards, value stream costing, target costing, visual management, and box scores for decision making. Lean Accounting requires managers to stop thinking about production improvement in terms of short-term cost reduction, but to start thinking about customers' value and business growth. Lean accounting measures the monetary impact of implementing lean improvement projects to business processes (Woehrle & Abou-Shady, 2010). It is a new accounting approach that emerged with the rise of business interest to embrace lean thinking culture.

Process waste encompasses all the wastes produced during beer production. Each stage of brewing processes produces waste. For every 1,000 tonnes of beer produced, 137 to 173 tonnes of waste may be created in the form of spent grain, trub (an unwanted material generated during wort production), waste yeast and Kieselguhr, main material used to filter the beer. Several technological advances in the last 20 years have provided the brewery industry huge services by lowering generation of by-products in the process. However, certain wastes common to beverage production such as brewer spent grains, residual brewing yeast and trub, hardly have the quantities formed reduced, due to the necessity of grain processing, the characteristics of chemical composition and treatment of raw materials used, and the need for microbial activity during fermentation (Priest & Stewart, 2006).

Inventory in brewing industry is sub-divided into three categories, just like any other inventory and these are inventory of raw-materials, work-in-progress inventory and finished goods inventory. Keeping control of inventory is important to lean accounting. In breweries, raw-materials need to be kept in top quality condition and be on hand when required. Many firms are using lean inventory management techniques to reduce costs, improve flexibility, reduce waste and have more time to focus on their customers. As firms look to reduce waste, increase turnover and be more flexible with their inventory, management professionals have attempted to identify how lean techniques can be adopted to build flexible and collaborative inventory. American Production Inventory Control (2019) shows that nearly 30% of companies in the developed countries are adopting lean principles to eliminate inventory waste.

Quality is an asset which may be offered to the potential consumer of a product or service (Adrienn, 2014). It is also the performance of the product as per the commitment made by the producer to the consumer. According to Lopes and Freitas (2015), there is one rule for industrialists and that is to make the best quality of goods possible at the lowest possible cost and as much as possible reduce waste. Thus it can be said that quality decision is based on various marketing considerations, production constraint, manpower constraint and waste processes management. In this way, the decisions concerning quality are not in the hands of one functional manager, since this involves overall strategic decision for running the business of a company. According to Heyman (2015), quality may be viewed in terms of products' fitness for consumers' use or consistence and conformance to the consumers' need. A more comprehensive definition of quality as adopted by International Standard Organization is “the totality of features and characteristics of product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied need revolving around the customer”.

2.1 Theoretical framework

This work is anchored on the theory of constraint. The theory of constraint developed by Eliyahu Goldratt in 1984 aims at identifying the most important limiting factor that stands in the way of achieving a goal and systematically improving that constraint until that limiting factor is removed. In this case, the limiting factor is the process and inventory waste. In manufacturing activities, this constraint is called bottleneck. The theory of constraint takes a scientific approach to improvements. It hypothesizes that every complex system consists of multiple linked activities, one of which acts as a constraint upon the entire system. The theory provides a powerful set of tools to assist achieve that goal, methodology for identifying and eliminating constraints, the thinking process and through put. One of the appealing characteristics of this theory is that it inherently prioritizes improvement activities. The top priority is always the current constraint and this theory offers a highly focused support for creating rapid improvement. The core concept of the theory is that every process has a single constraint and that total process through put (a method of measuring performance and guiding management decision) can only be improved when the constraint is improved. A very important corollary to this is that spending time optimizing non-constraints will not improve significant benefits.

2.3 Empirical Review

Daferighe, James and Patience (2018) examine the influence of the practice of lean accounting on waste management in the Brewery Industry in Nigeria. A survey research design was adopted in this study. The source of data was primary data collected through a structured questionnaire administered to workers in Champion Breweries. The data collected were analysed with Chi-Square statistic. The result of the assumption tested revealed that the practice of lean accounting does not significantly influence waste management in Brewery Industry in Nigeria.

Okpala (2013) undertook an exploratory research to investigate the application of lean accounting as a strategy to achieve lean business philosophy in Nigeria manufacturing firms. The study population consisted of 53 manufacturing firms listed in the Nigeria stock exchange with 2,246 employees selected based on the researcher's criteria. 50% of the population used as sample frame were selected at random. The formulated hypotheses were confirmed and the result obtained revealed that lean accounting correlated positively with lean business philosophy but due to ignorance, implementation is insignificant in Nigeria.

Enaam and Ameer (2019) examined the impact of lean accounting on the financial performance of health care institutions. They analyzed the impact of value stream costing as a lean accounting tool in improving the financial performance indicators of healthcare institutions based on a study applied in a private hospital. A quantitative case study approach was carried out to assess the financial performance measures under the traditional costing system of the case hospital. The findings showed that implementing the value stream costing enables managers to distinguish between value-added activities and non-value added activities and consequently eliminating waste and saving the available resources for more effective use. The study also showed that the analysis of operations into value-added and non-value added activities allowed the managers to improve the competitive advantage by utilizing gains of value stream costing to set a lower price for their services.

Maskell & Baggaley (2006) examined lean management and the relationship between cluster firm level performance. The focus of this research was to develop and empirically test an instrument designed to evaluate the level of lean implementation in a company and relate it to the company's operational and financial performance. They identified eight principles of lean and grouped them into 5 internally oriented lean principles including Just-in-Time (JIT) production methods, statistical process control tools, employee involvement, group technology and Total Quality Management (TQM). The study revealed that the lean cluster was highly associated with the implementation of JIT production methods, group technology and employees' involvement. It was least associated with two external components including supplier communication and customer involvement.

Chen & Cox (2012), using the framework of Womack et al. (1990) were the first to develop a list of principles which, in combination describe Lean. The authors identified nine lean principles and generated a list of 42 measurable determinants to indicate progress made in the effort of a company to become lean. The nine principles identified were: elimination of waste, continuous improvement, zero defects, JIT, pull system, multifunctional teams, decentralized responsibilities, integrated functions and vertical information systems. In their study, the principles indicated the ultimate goal of a lean company, while the determinants represent the changes made to the organization to achieve the desired performance.

Pattnaik & Reddy (2010), in their study created a model of 36 determinants called 'intermediate indicators', to assess changes made to manufacturing processes following lean principles and empirically tested a total of 41 companies in the automotive and industrial machinery industries. Their determinants were based on the following six lean principles: elimination of zero-value activities, continuous improvement, multi-functional teams, JIT production and delivery, integration of suppliers and flexible information system. In their framework, the authors measured the degree of use of each of the six principles and they found that sixty percent of the 36 principles were used by more than half of the respondents.

Heyman (2015) was the first to identify 22 determinants related to lean based on a scholarly review of literature, grouped them into four principles. The four categories included JIT, Total Quality Management (TQM), Total Product Management (TPM) and Human Resource Management (HRM). The survey instrument was sent out to 28,000 subscribers of Penton Media, Inc. publications specifically addressed to plant managers. The results of the research indicated that all four categories had a significant correlation to operational performance. Woehrle & Abou-Shady (2010) evaluated the level of awareness and implementation of lean principles and its determinants within the wood products and furniture manufacturing industry in Virginia. A mail survey was sent out to 1,193 companies and a total of 188 responses were recorded, resulting in a 16 percent response rate. Their results revealed that general determinants of lean, such as mission statement and employee cross-training are commonly implemented at the respondents' facilities.

Fullerton et al. (2013) were the first to extend the identification of lean determinants to the accounting area. The purpose of their study was to examine the role of Value Stream Costing (VSC) in a lean environment. The survey instrument was sent out to 476 U.S. companies who participated in Lean Accounting Summits organized between 2005 and 2008. A total of 244 responses were received for a 51.2 percent response rate from controllers and (Chief Financial Officers (CFOs) of the studied companies. The study revealed that top management support is positively correlated with the use of lean manufacturing practices, simplified accounting and value stream costing but is negatively correlated with traditional accounting.

3.0 Methodology

This study adopted survey research design and data used for the study were collected using the researchers' constructed questionnaire. The population of this study comprised all the staff of Champion Breweries Plc, Uyo, Akwa Ibom State which is currently put at about three hundred (300). The researchers targeted only the senior and middle level management personnel of this company. This section was targeted because the researchers assumed that they could have more knowledge of lean accounting than the lower level staff. Hence purposive sampling technique was employed to select fifty staff members. The data collected were analyzed using tables, simple percentages, descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and the hypotheses were tested using ordinary least square regression technique.

3.1 Models specification

The models used in this study are presented below;

Model 1:

Waste_Mgt = $B_0, + B_1(\text{Lean\_Acc})_1 + £$

Model 2:

Inven_Mgt = $B_0, + B_1(\text{Lean\_Acc})_1 + £$

Model 3:

Prod_Qua = $B_0, + B_1(\text{Lean\_Acc})_1 + £$

Where:

Waste_Mgt = Waste Management; Inven_Mgt = Inventory Management

Prod_Qual = Product Quality; Lean_Acc = Lean Accounting

B_0, B_1, B_2, B_3 = Regression Coefficients; £ = error term

4.0 Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion

4.1 Data presentation and analysis

This section present **s** an analysis of the questionnaire administered and retrieved from the respondents, from which our recommendation **s and conclusion are drawn** . A total of fifty **copies of** questionnaires were sent out to the respondents for data generation and only forty nine were duly filled and return**ed. Out of the** thirty**,** four were male and fifteen were female.

Table 4.1
Alpha Test for Reliability, Consistency and Validation

Item	Obs	Sign	item-test correlation	item-rest correlation	average interitem covariance	alpha
Waste_Mgt	49	+	0.6974	0.3800	2.0419101	0.7857
Inven_Mgt	49	+	0.7184	0.3743	1.0388169	0.7823
Prod_Qua	49	-	0.6697	0.3050	6.0536001	0.6607
Lean_Acc	49	+	0.3509	0.0241	6.1234637	0.5759
Test scale					5.0644477	0.8689

Source: Authors' Compilation from STATA 16

The table 4.1 shows Cronbach Alpha test for reliability, consistency and validity of the study instrument which is the questionnaire. The minimum acceptable value for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70; Below this value the internal consistency of the common range is low. Meanwhile, the maximum expected value is 0.90; above this value is perceived as redundancy or duplication. Alpha value between 0.80 and 0.90 is usually preferred. In this study, the Cronbach Alpha test results as seen from the table shows a value of 0.87 which makes the instrument for this study reliable and valid.

Table 4.2
Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Waste_Mgt	49	2.567347	.5976997	1.6	4
Inven_Mgt	49	3.253061	.6490705	2	4.4
Prod_Qua	49	3.293878	.6404452	2.2	4.4
Lean_Acc	49	3.19449	.4869637	2	4.17

Source: Authors' Compilation from STATA 16

Table 4.2 shows the descriptive statistics of the study. From the table, it is observed that on the average, waste management is 2.58 with a standard deviation of 0.60 and a minimum and maximum value of 1.6 and 4 respectively. Similarly, on the average, inventory waste management is observed to be 3.25 with a standard deviation of 0.65, on the minimum, inventory waste management is 2 on the maximum 4.4. Product quality is observed to be 3.29 on the average which means that there was 33% improvement in product quality with lean accounting in place. Finally, lean accounting is 3.19 on the average with a standard deviation of 0.49 and a minimum and maximum value of 2 and 4.17.

Table 4.3
Shapiro Wilk Test for Data Normality

Shapiro-Wilk W test for normal data

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
Waste_Mgt	49	0.97206	1.293	0.548	0.29201
Inven_Mgt	49	0.92342	3.545	2.696	0.00351
Prod_Qua	49	0.96497	1.621	1.029	0.15168
Lean_Acc	49	0.98574	0.660	-0.885	0.81201

From the results obtained in table 4.3, it is observed that only the dependent variable of inventory waste management (Prob > z = 0.00351) violates the normality assumption. However, the p-values of the ordinary least square regression technique are relied upon for interpretation since the variables are not normally distributed. All other variables in this study follow a normal distribution.

Table 4.4 Spearman Rank Correlation

Key
rho Number of obs Sig. level

	Waste_~t	Inven_~t	Prod_Qua	Lean_Acc
Waste_Mgt	1.0000 49			
Inven_Mgt	0.3518 49 0.0132	1.0000 49		
Prod_Qua	-0.2575 49 0.0740	-0.2980 49 0.0376	1.0000 49	
Lean_Acc	0.1169 49 0.4238	-0.1578 49 0.2788	0.0745 49 0.6109	1.0000 49

Source: Authors' Compilation from STATA 16

Specifically, the analysis from the spearman rank correlation shows that lean accounting is positively correlated with process waste management (0.1169) and product quality (0.0745), but negatively correlated with inventory waste management (-0.1578). However, the associations are seen to be weak hence there is no room to suspect the presence of multicollinearity in the estimated models.

Table 4.5
Simple Regression Estimation Result

	Models		
Variables	**Process Waste Management**	**Inventory waste Management**	**Product Quality**
Lean Accounting			
Coefficient	0.1925	-0.1615	-0.0377
t_ Statistics	(2.09)	(-0.84)	(-4.20)
Probability_t	{0.032}**	{0.470}	{0.000}*
	F(1, 47) = 1.19	**F(1, 47) = 0.70**	**F(1, 47) = 0.04**
	Prob > F = 0.0028	**Prob > F = 0.0040**	**Prob > F = 0.0084**
	R-squared = 0.2246	**R-squared = 0.2147**	**R-squared = 0.2008**

Note: t -statistics and respective probabilities are represented in () and {}
Where: ** represents 5% & * represent 1% level of significance
Source: Authors' Compilation from STATA 16

Table 4.5 presents results for least square regression and the model's goodness of fit as captured by the F-statistics and the corresponding probability value. From this table, it is observed that the probability value of the F-statistics for the three models shows a 5% statistically significant level suggesting that the entire model is fit and can be employed for interpretation and policy recommendation.

4.3 Discussion of findings

The regression results of process waste management model presented in table 4.5 reveal the result of the variable of lean accounting as follows: (Coef. = 0.1925, t = 2.09 and P -value = 0.032). Following this results, it is revealed that lean accounting significantly affects process waste management of Champion Breweries Plc. This implies that the adoption of lean accounting system will improve process waste management. This outcome contradicts the findings of Daferighe, James and Patience (2018) who found that lean accounting does not significantly affect process waste management. In the same vein, the finding is also inconsistent with the position of Pattnik and Reddy, 2009 who found that lean accounting has a negative effect on waste management.

The regression results of inventory management model presented in table 4.5 reveal the result of the variable of lean accounting as follows: (Coef. = -0.1615, t = -0.84 and P -value = 0.407). Following these results, it is revealed that the effect of lean accounting on inventory waste management is negative and statistically insignificant at 5% or 1%. This finding is consistent with the stated null hypothesis which leads to its acceptance. Thus, lean accounting does not have any significant effect on inventory waste management of Champion Breweries Plc. This is in line with the findings of Unah and Unweni (2017). However, the result negates the findings of Enaam & Ameer (2019) and Chen & Cox (2011) who noted that keeping control of inventory is important to lean accounting.

The regression results of product quality model presented in table 4.5 reveal the results of the variable of lean accounting as follows: (Coef. = -0.0377, t = -4.20 and P -value = 0.000). Following these results, it is revealed that the effect of lean accounting on product quality is negative and statistically significant at 1% for Champion Breweries. This implies that lean accounting system does not improve product quality of Champion Breweries. This is contrary to prior studies of Lopes and Freitas (2015) who observe that consumers use trade-off values between lean involvement and product quality. However, this finding is in line with Heymans (2015) who notes that quality-oriented customer service is not directly linked to lean accounting but to client retention policy of the firm.

5.0 Conclusion

Lean accounting has been a recent development adopted by companies to focus on customers' values rather than shareholders' value which before now was the main objective of any firm. A lean organization understands customers' value and focuses its key processes to continuously improve this value. On the whole, this study found that lean accounting has significant effect on process waste management, significant but negative effect on product quality and insignificant effect on inventory waste management of Champion Breweries Plc. Finally, the study recommends that companies should fully adopt lean manufacturing processes and lean accounting methodologies in order to enjoy the attendant benefits of waste reduction, product quality and customer retention, which ultimately maximizes shareholders' wealth.

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State and Local Government Relations and the Implementation of the 1976 Local Government Reforms in Nigeria

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Abstract

This paper examined the concept of state and local government relations as a subtheme of the holistic concept of Intergovernmental Relations (IGR) and the problem which characterized them in the implementation of the 1976 local government reforms in Nigeria. Essentially, the relationship between the state and local governments in Nigeria is fraught with conflicts, problems and confrontations which have also affected the local governments in the discharge of their statutory functions and the responsibilities. The kernel of this paper was to probe into the inherent conflicts and problems which by extension, have affected the implementation the 1976 local government reform in Nigeria. This paper adopted historical, descriptive and analytical research methodology of enquiry and generates data solely from textbooks, journal, articles, magazines, newspapers and the internet. The findings of the paper revealed that the continuous encroachment and erosion of powers of the local government by the state government renders the local levels ineffective and ineffectual and further impedes growth and development of the grassroots, as well as hamper the effective implementation of the 1976 local government reforms and national development. It was recommended that state and local government relations should be motivated by cooperative and bargaining forms of IGR, rather than conflictual and confrontational actions.

KEYWORDS: State, local government relations the implementation of 1976 local government reforms, national development.

Introduction

The state and local government relations fall within the administrative sphere of the concept of Intergovernmental Relations, as it is one of the vertical patterns of Intergovernmental Relations. Therefore, in the course of the analysis of this topic, the entire gamut of the related models of Intergovernmental Relations (IGR) will be examined, to see how the interplay of the state and local government relationship impinges on the implementation of the 1976 Local Government Reforms in Nigeria.

The Problem Statement

The practice and management of Intergovernmental Relations (IGR) globally, in its truest sense, is tortuous and varies considerably under different administrations and systems. More often than not, the relationship between the state and local government is fraught with conflicts and confrontations, rather than cooperation. This, by extension has affected effective performances on the part of the local government and also impeded national development.

Before the advent of the 1976 local government reforms, the Federal or national government was not involved in the affairs of the local government. The relationship that existed then was between regions and the local governments. Between 1951 and 1956, the local government system was constitutionally a creation of regional governments and a subject on the residual legislative list of the region. Also, the exclusive and concurrent legislative lists embedded in the 1951, 1954 and 1963 constitutions, apart from thrusting the powers of establishment, composition, structure, functions and finance on the regions, did not give local government a right of place and also did not permit the involvement of the federal government in the affairs of the local governments, including its direct funding. This period also witnessed extreme instability and stagnation in the local government system in the country. As subjects under the region, they were used as 'guinea pigs' and elements for experiment through reforms and reorganizations. This study had somewhere described the scenario as “a paradox of trial and error, the blending of tradition with modernity”. Local governments lack uniformity, autonomy and these characters exposed them to arbitrary erosion of their powers and responsibilities by the regional governments. The subsequent segment of this paper will examine the theoretical framework, analysis of models of Intergovernmental Relations (IGR), the antecedents of the state and local government relations, objectives and prospects of the 1976 local government reforms in Nigeria and the implication problems of the 1976 local government reforms in Nigeria.

Theoretical explication

Theoretically, this paper is premised on two Theoretical Frameworks: Cooperative Theory as advocated by Elezar (1981) and David Easton's System Theory. Cooperative theory which is akin to the Bargaining model of IGR emphases equitable sharing of powers and responsibilities among the three tiers of government: federal, state and local. It shows some degree of autonomy to be enjoyed by each tier of government. The theory further opines that there should be considerable tolerance, a mix of diversity, and willingness, to take political actions through coalition and cooperation. On the other hand, the System Theory as propounded by David Easton (1957), is equally relevant to this discourse. David Easton's System Theory which reorganizes the existence of a system in any political structure, helps to unravel complexity and conflicts, which the concept of IGR denotes. The System Theory is conceived as an organized and purposeful whole composed structurally and functionally identifiable, though inter-related. It also relates to the Organizational Theory, otherwise referred to as 'socio technical system' that considers a system network as input absorbers, processors and output generators.

The concept of IGR is American in origin. This is why Reagan (1974) noted that “Federalism old style is dead, yet federalism new style is alive, and well and is living in the United States of America, its name is Intergovernmental Relations (IGR)”. The concept of IGR is practiced both in the Federal and Unitary systems of government. Certainly, its practice is more pronounced in the federal system of government than in the Unitary system. This is so because in most cases, the streams of interactions among levels of government may not be based on cooperation, bargaining and negotiations as enunciated by the framers and the founding fathers of the concept of IGR, rather, it is always based on conflicts and confrontations. State and local government relations is one pattern of the holistic concept of IGR. Other patterns include: 1. Federal – State relations, 2. Federal – State – Local relations, 3. State – Local relations, 4. State – State relations, and 5. Local – Local relations.

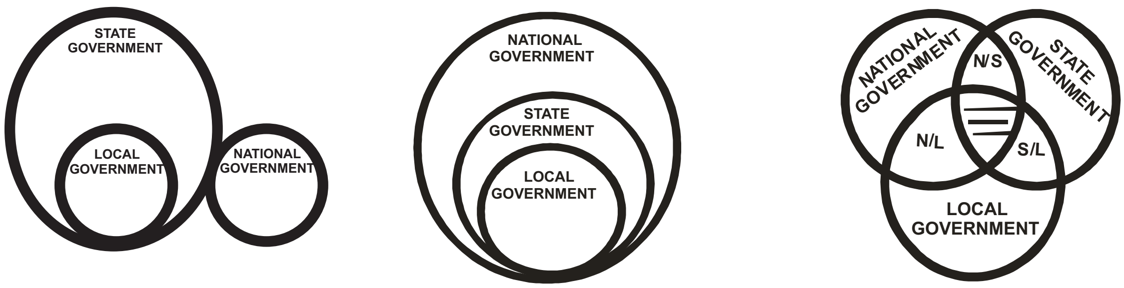
Anderson (1990) defines "IGR" as a "term intended to designate an important body of activities or interactions occurring among governmental units of all types and levels within the federal system". He equally notes that, it is a nascent concept coined by the Americans, who not only innovated the IGR as a system of government, but also, are experts in the conduct and management of its complexity. Awotokun (2002) admits that IGR denotes "an institutional arrangement – formal or informal, designed to constituent units to govern their interactions and relationships".

Conceptual Framework

Analysis of the Typology or Model of Intergovernmental Relations (IGR)

There are essentially three types of IGR models practiced globally. The models are separated, inclusive, and bargaining IGR models. They are graphically illustrated hereunder.

Separated IGR Model1 **Inclusive IGR model2** **Bargaining IGR Model 3**



(1954-1966) **(1966-1979)** **(1979-Present)**

Source: Deil Wright (1979) understanding intergovernmental relations models, Carolina, Chapel Hill

Under the separated model, the regions between 1954 to 1966 were independent (within the constitutional ambit of the federal government, whereas the local governments were subordinate to the regions, latter the states). This model approximates a period when the regions control substantial portions of their natural resources, wealth as well as experienced civil servants (Ekpe, 2006:41).

In the inclusive model (1966-1979), the Federal or Central Government had supremacy over other tiers of government, states and local which were regarded as appendages to the federal government. This model characterized the 13 years of military rule in Nigeria (1975-1988) when the legislative, executive and financial powers were vested on the Federal Government. Most scholars, Akinsanya (1992), Davies (1992) and Ojo (1982) attribute this scenario to a number of factors, including among others:

1. The nature of military establishment per se.
2. The creation of many states.
3. The outbreak of the civil war and the need for the Federal Military Government to muster or harness all the resources in order to prosecute the war.
4. Increase Federal Revenue which was made possible at the instance of oil boom.
5. The emergence of new breeds of Nigerians as strong advocates of strong national government and

6. The existence of Intergovernmental Institutions and IGR mechanisms meant for the proper management of intergovernmental relations and issues in Nigeria.

In the Bargaining model (1979 till date), power is dispersed among the three tiers of government, Federal, State and Local. It is a clear demonstration of autonomy in practice being enjoyed by each tier of government. It is the most ideal form of IGR this paper canvases or advocates. It is practised in most developed countries of the world, including USA, Canada, Australia, Brazil and Germany. It is characterized by limited areas of autonomy, dispersed powers, bargaining, cooperation, exchange and consultations. The framers of 1976 local government Reforms borrowed a leaf of this model from Brazil, when the Federal Military Government in 1980 sponsored a team of experts to study the workings of local government administration in those countries with emphasis on the management of IGR during military administration (1985 Dasuki report on the review of local government in Nigeria).

Antecedents of state-local government Relations in Nigeria

Section 13 of the Report of the Constitution Drafting Committee containing the 1979 draft Constitution highlighted:

> The great surge of interest in the local government and the desire to make it as much as possible an autonomous institution, playing its distinctive part within the federation is seen in the place given to it in the new Draft Constitution. This document further amplifies "The system of government is guaranteed and accordingly, the government of every state shall ensure their existence under the law which provides for establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils (1979 Federal Republic of Nigeria Constitution).

To further amplify the above provision with respect to the status of Nigerian Local Government system, Schedule 4 of the 1999 Constitution as amended, equally highlights the functions and responsibilities of the local government. This aside, it should be emphasized that this was a significant inroad or breakthrough in the Nigerian Local Government System. According to Ola (1979:60), it is a "revolutionary trend which removes local government from the exclusive ambit of the state government and attempts to give it its own place, a place where it can stand on its own feet".

Analysis of the 1976 Local Government Reforms in Nigeria

Essentially, the 1976 Local Government Reforms was the third in the series of the local government reforms ever contemplated in the history of the Nigerian Local Government system. It dates back to the colonial period of the 1950s, when the first attempt was made to democratize the native administration imposed by colonialism. It was closely followed the by 1960 and 1970 Reforms respectively, also with focus on attempt to democratize local governance. The following strategic provisions of the 1976 reforms were entrenched in the 1979 Constitution: "to make local government more efficient, autonomous, stable, and encourage the exercise of democratic self-government close to the local levels of our grassroots, encourage leadership potentials and to provide a two-way channel of communication among local communities, federal and state governments." The 1979 Constitution also guarantees a system of democratically elected local government, specifies lists of responsibilities for the local government and makes it mandatory for both the Federal and State governments to make direct financial allocations to local governments. In this case, according to the 1981/1982 Revenue Allocation Act, States are expected to pay 10% of their internally generated revenues to the coffers of their local governments. Between 1979 and 1989, the Shehu Shaghari's administration provided a benchmark and litmus test for the implementation of the provisions of the 1976 local government Reforms. During the period, there were no elections, the local government system comprised either handpicked or nominated membership that were directly under the sole administratorship of state governments, assisted by their state officials. By this development, the provisions of the 1976 local government reforms were either blatantly perverted or abused (Oshisami, Koleade & Dean, 1984).

The State Ministries of local government meddled extensively with the affairs of local governments. Most State Governments even created parallel agencies usurping revenue collection responsibilities of local governments in the areas of tenement ratings, business premises and environment levies. Most states also took delight in creating mushroom local governments, without regard to constitutional requirements. Local government functionaries who dared to resist or protest State governments' commands and encroachments were usually threatened with spate of frivolous probes of corrupt practices. This was possible because the state commissioners for local governments, as overseers and superintendents, were vested with powers to institute enquiries into the activities of councils. These unhealthy developments persuaded the former Chief of Staff, General Brigadia Shehu Yar Adua at the eve of 1976 Local Government Reforms launch to remark:

> The State government has continued to encroach upon what would normally have been the exclusive preserves of local government. Lack of funds and appropriate institutions have continued to make local government ineffective and ineffectual. The staffing arrangement has been inadequate and excessive politicking has made even most progress impossible. Consequently, there has been a divorce between the people and government institutions at the most basic level (General Brigadia Shehu Yar Adua – Key Note at the launching of the 1976 local Government Reforms in Nigeria).

Objectives and Prospects of the1976 Local Government Reforms in Nigeria

As earlier mentioned, before the advent of the 1976 local government reform, Nigerian local government system was engulfed with multiple problems, which included among others, structural and operational. It is the multifaceted dimension of these problems that Olowu (1982:51) and Adeleyi (1978:2, 3) describe as "vicious circle of local government poverty".

According to them, elements of vicious circle of local government poverty include:

(a) Defective and cumbersome structure
(b) Inadequate functions and powers
(c) Inadequate finance

(d) Low caliber and poorly paid staff
(e) Low administrative efficiency and corruption.
(f) Poor performance or even total neglect of functions
(g) Transfer of functions to State and Federal governments (Oluwu, 1990:51 and Adeleji, 1978 pp. 2-3).

The advent of the 1976 Local Government Reforms was a welcome development, as scholars refer to it as "watershed" in the history of Nigerian Local government in the country. Apart from being a bold attempt to break the "vicious circle of local government poverty", it was a monumental inroad to correct the multidimensional problems of the local government system and make it a veritable instrument of grassroots development.

The Main Features and Objectives of the 1976 Local Government Reforms include:

1. The recognition of the local government as the third tier of government. Hence, as a third tier of government in its own right, was entitled to adequate, veritable and reliable sources of external and internal funding. This also meant that the local government as a tier of government was to enjoy some measure of autonomy within the sphere of its competence. The autonomy of the local government was later entrenched in the 1979 and 1989 constitutions respectively.
2. Uniformity of structure. The reformed local government had basically uniform structure throughout the country. Provisions were made for chairmen, elected and nominated councilors, fixed number of committees with Finance and General Purposes Committee serving as the cabinet of the local government.
3. Fixed size – in terms of size, the reformed local government provided that no local government should be under 150,000 in population, except with special permission granted by the Federal Government. Besides, an upper limit of 800,000 population was stipulated, but this, however, could vary in exceptional geographical circumstances, and provided further that there should be no upper limits to the size of local governments covering major towns within single units.
4. Fixed tenure – The reformed local government had fixed tenure of years
5. Common institutions such as Local Government Service Boards or Commission were to be established.
6. Establishment of one percent (1%) training fund for the training and retraining of local government staff to be administered by the Local Government Service Commission Nwosu (1989:91).

Apart from ensuring that above provisions and objectives were enshrined in the 1979 and 1989 constitutions, other significant steps adopted between 1976 and 1979 included:

- The promulgation of the land use Decree which vested the land in rural areas in the local government in 1977.
- The decision to allocate 10% as at 1977, (now 20%) of Federation Statutory Allocations to local governments.
- The inauguration of management training for local government Secretaries and Treasurers in the designated Universities of Nsukka, Amadu Bello, Zaria and Obafemi Awolowo, Ile Ife.
- Establishment of a Pension Fund into which all three levels of government made contribution since 1979.

King (1988:89) summarizes the administrative, economic, and political assumptions or imperatives which are the basic kernel of the 1976 local government reforms in this manner. The administrative assumption is that:

> local government should be responsive to the local needs, yearnings, and aspirations by virtue of their proximity, generate knowledge of local conditions and, therefore, greater capacity to react quickly to these needs. The economic assumption is that local government should become more efficient in resource allocation by virtue of their superior ability to identify and rank priorities in terms of different services the community needs. The political assumption is to develop potential leadership capable of mobilizing the community, articulating and aggregating its interest King M. (1988:89).

Implementation of the Problems of 1976 Local Government Reforms in Nigeria

Alhaji Dasuki, in his Committee Nationwide Report of 1985 identified operational problems (Council's functionaries) as responsible for the problems of the local government system in Nigeria and their failure to implement the 1976 Local Government Reforms. The implication, here, is that the operators referred to here were the functionaries of the local government, including among others, the chairmen, elected and nominated councilors and the State government's officials who had supervisory roles over the local government. Other problems which hindered effective implementation of the 1976 local government reforms included:

1. Legal and constitutional ambiguity or distortions in the 1976 Local Government Reforms

Paragraph 68 of the Guidelines of 1976 local government reforms was ambiguous and misleading as to which tier of government – Federal or State should have the responsibility of reforming local governments in Nigeria. On one hand, it assigned the responsibility of standardizing and harmonizing the implementation of the reform provisions to both the federal and state officials. This apparent ambiguity is seen in both section 7(1) and section 7(2) of the1999 Constitution as amended respectively. The responsibility of establishing a local government by the State Government is captured thus:

> The system of local government by democratically elected local government council is under this Constitution guaranteed and accordingly the government of every state shall ensure their existence under a law which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils. (1999 Federal Republic of Nigeria Constitution as Amended).

Section 7(2) states inter alia "the person authorized by law to prescribe the areas over which a local government may exercise authority shall:

- Define such areas as clearly as practicable
- Ensure to the extent to which it may be reasonably justifiable
  – that in defining such areas consideration should be given to;

1. The common interest of the community in the area.
2. Traditional association of the community
3. Administrative convenience

The operative phrase or word under consideration here is “the person” authorized by law. This ambiguity gives room for maneuvering or manipulation which may alternate between either civilian or military administrations or regimes. The person authorized by law in the military administration could be interpreted to mean the State Executive, represented by the Governor, since under military administration, both executive and legislative functions or powers are fused or usurped by the military Governor. Arising from the above scenario, therefore, all the original local governments that were created or established had their instruments of operation from the State Edict promulgated by the state military Governor. An extract of relevant Cross River State Edict (1977) herein cited as a case study speaks volumes about this:

Part 1: Establishment of Local Government
Sub 2: The power of executive council to establish local government council under this Edict shall be exercised by means of instrument signed by the Military Governor.
Sub 3: Every local government established under or pursuant to this Edict shall be a Body Corporate by the name designated in the instrument establishing such council and shall have perpetual succession and a common seal and power to acquire and hold land and to sue and be sued. A corollary to this is the local government Edict No. 3 of 1988 by the Military Governor of Akwa Ibom State.

Part 1: Composition of Council
Sub 3: The Military Governor may by regulation divide the local government areas into wards and each ward shall return a member to the council. Again, Ayoada (1992:41) identifies another constitutional distortion in this manner:

> The inclusion of the exclusive legislative list for local government in the Constitution is interesting and constitutes potential areas of policy conflicts and distortion. He notes that the list includes the formation of economic planning and development channel for the local government area that this function is also replicated in section 7 (5) of the 1999 Constitution as a Joint or Concurrent Policy area (Ayoada, 1992:41).

The towering influence of military administration generally in the governance did not only impede the implementation of the 1976 local government reforms, but also threatened the fabrics of the country's democratic existence. For instance, the prolonged or incessant incursion of the military in governance, affected the local government governance and by extension, the implementation of the 1976 local government reforms. When there was a change of leadership in the local government system between 1979, 2007 and 2020 about 18 tenures, there were just six local government elections, thus 1976-1979, 1997-1998, 1999-2002, and June 1999 – June 2002, 2015, 2019 and December 2020 respectively. The chronology is showing numbers of local government elections as well as the nature of local administrations between 1979 – 2007, 2015, 2019 and 2020. It is itemized from nos. 1-18 hereunder:

1. 1976-1979: Elected council with election on personal merit (zero party parliamentary system).
2. October 1979 – December 1983: Hand-picked (i.e. selected) local government Chairman and Councilors.
3. January 1984 – August 1985: Sole Administrators/Management Council.
4. August 1984-Decmber 1987: Management Committee System with Sole Administrator (Civil Servants as Chairman).
5. January 1988 – July 1989: Elected Chairmen and Councilors with Supervisors – all elected on personal merit/recognition.
6. August 1989 – December 1990: Management Committees with Sole Administrator (Civil Servants as Chairman).
7. January 1991 – November 1993: Elected Councils on party basis (SP/NRC).
8. November 1993 – April 1994: Administration of Local Government by Local Government Secretary or Director of Personnel Management (DPM) under MILAD's directives.
9. April 1994 – 1997: Selected Chairmen and 4 Supervisors (indigenes) to run the affairs of the councils.
10. 1997 – June 1998: Elected Councils of the registered political parties under Abacha Regime.
11. July 1998 – May 1999: Sole administrators (civil servants) with indigenes selected as Supervisors.
12. June 1999 – June 2002: Elected Council on political party basis (return to Civilian era the 4^{th} Republic Presidential system).
13. June 2002 – June 2003: Selected Councils by State Governors called Transition Committees.
14. June 2003 – 26 March 2004: No uniform system initially: some States used 'Directors of Personnel Management' of the Local Governments; others used the state government's party supporters to form new Transition Committees'. All the states later opted for the latter arrangement.
15. 27 March, 2004 – 30^{th} March, 2007, Councils elected on party basis in the 4^{th} Republic.
16. 1^{st} April – 3^{rd} July, 2007 many caretaker committees with a significantly few elected councils in the whole country.
17. Between 2008 – 2015 management committees were in charge of local governments in Akwa Ibom State.
18. Between 2015 – 2019 and December 2020, elected council membership in the local government governance in Akwa Ibom State (Aluko, 2006).

A cursory glance at the list above depicts the status of Nigeria Local Government system and the trend of military dominance in governance in Nigeria. Apart from non-implementation of 1976 Local Government Reforms with respect to absence of democratically elected leadership in councils, it shows continuous encroachments on the affairs of local governments by the State governments. Thus, Fayemi (2001) observes "For the period of military administrations, elections were never held at the local government level, Chairmen and Councilors were handpicked by the State Governors, since they were not elected. The Chairmen and Councilors were the "errand boys" and appendages of state administration".

(2) Arbitrary Usurpation of Powers and Revenue Generation Function of Local Government by the State Government

The nature of state-local government relations in Nigeria as it is presently practiced is lopsided and repugnant to this statement – 'to enhance the emergence of cooperative, rather than competitive Federalism as enunciated by the principle of IGR'.In the words of Nwosu (1982:12):

> "The relationship that existed between the state and local government resembles that of the partnership of the horse and the rider, in which the state government propels the local government to any direction they desire. The local governments are not encouraged to use their initiatives to harness local human and material resources for the provision of high quality services for millions of Nigerians who live in rural communities. Nwosu (1982:12).

For instance, most states, over the years, have indulged in blatant usurpation of traditional sources of revenue for local governments, without consulting them or reimbursing them for the losses. In 1988, Calabar Municipality challenged the jurisdiction of the State Government for taking over Environmental Sanitation fees from the council. The judgment by Late Chief Edem Kufre favoured Calabar municipality. The right of the council in that respect was later restored. In the same year, Late Etubom Ekpo Bassey, former chairman of Calabar Municipality also challenged the State House of Assembly in the purported attempt to pass a Bill reverting Market toll collection in Watts market to the coffers of the State Government. Again, in 1988, Akwa Ibom State government usurped business premises/stillage from Uyo local government through arbitrary collection of fees from the occupants of Uyo Multi Complex Shopping Centre, along Ikot Ekpene Road. Again, there are cases where State governments use instrumentality of the State-local Government Joint Accounts Committee to temper with Statutory Allocations of councils. For instance, the Chairmen of the seventeen local government councils in Sokoto State jointly challenged the state Executive Governor in court restraining him and his agents from deducting 3% of their monthly statutory allocations to fund Sokoto emirate councils, claiming that the State Government's action, apart from being unconstitutional, was undue encroachment on the affairs of the local governments Ekpe (2006).

Conclusion

This article attempted to x-ray the state - local government relations within the framework of the concept of Intergovernmental Relations (IGR) in Nigeria. It is observed that most state governments have not embraced the practice of an ideal form or model of IGR – bargaining or cooperative in its truest sense, which guarantees equality and partnership in the sharing of responsibilities and functions among the levels of government in Nigeria. Certainly, most state governments still indulge in the form of relationship Nwosu (1986) describes as that of the horse and rider that engenders conflictual and confrontational relationships, rather than cooperation and by extension, hampers the religious implementation of the 1976 local government reforms in Nigeria.

However, it is germane to submit that the acceptance of the 1976 local government guidelines on local government by state governments nationwide has been a turning point or watershed in the state - local government relationship. By this development, the states have virtually lost their supremacy and powers over local government, but only exercise supervisory power over local governments. The relationship that exists now between them no longer resembles that of master and servant's relationship, rather that of two partners in social and economic development of the people and the nation Oyawele (1980).

Recommendations

1. The effective management of all levels of government in Nigeria, specifically between the state and local government can only be achieved if the relationship between them is motivated by cooperation and bargaining rather than, based on conflicts and confrontations.
2. The envisaged relationship should be the one that sees effort of the other as appropriate for the overall interest of the people and the national development.
3. The local government should be allowed to function as intermediate tier of government to both the federal and the state governments, in planning and execution of the life touching projects, such as urban markets, cottage industries, primary healthcare, schools, commercial farms, water and rural electricity.

Ideally, the pattern of IGR in any federal system is premised on the effective management of conflicts and complexities. The present state of affairs in Nigeria has alternated between hierarchical subordination under the military rules and conflicts under civil rule. Therefore, this paper strongly advocates the establishment of a permanent IGR mechanism meant to handle proper and a hitch-free management and resolution of IGR problems and conflicts in Nigeria.

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The World Trade Organisation (WTO) Agreements and Nigeria's Economic Development: An Appraisal of the Uruguay Round of 1995 and Doha Round of 2001

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Abstract
The study examined Nigeria's Economic Development status within the lens of the World Trade Organization's Uruguay and Doha Round Agreements and evaluated Nigeria's economic development experience since the Country became a member of the Organization. The study employed descriptive and analytical methodology, and information was gleaned largely from primary and secondary sources. It assessed the Organisation's Uruguay Round of 1995, Doha Round of 2001 and World Trade Organisation's Agreement and development of Nigeria's Economy. The principle of WTO is based on global trade without borders, anchored on the principles of liberalization, privatization and consequent diminishing of national trade. This study found out that Nigeria's foreign policy with regard to trade has been ineffective. This is because, the driving forces of Nigeria's diplomatic practices failed to ensure trade security and welfare of Nigeria. Over concentration on crude oil has been identified as one of the leading factors of Nigeria's economic backwardness. The country's policy implementation did not favour other natural resources which would have changed the fortunes of the country's economy. The study established that, despite various developmental agreements reached by the members of the Organisation, Nigeria is still faced with economic quagmire because of the lack of requisite capacity building in the trade fortunes of the country and by implication, the desired benefits of engagement in international trade become elusive. The paper recommended, amongst others, that the Standard Organisation of Nigeria (SON) and other quality control agencies should be strengthened for improved service delivery in line with global best practices and that the country should adopt a pragmatic approach towards economic diversificification within the context of international trade.

KEYWORDS: Economic Development, Liberalization, Privatization, National Trade, Foreign Policy

Introduction
The World Trade Organisation (WTO) is the only global International Organisation dealing with the rules of trade between nations. Central to the WTO are the agreements negotiated and signed by the bulk of the world's trading nations and ratified in their

parliaments. Nigeria has been one of the consistent actors in the affairs of the World Trade Organiation, hence the country has been a signatory to several agreements of the Organisation including the Uruguay Round of 1995 and Doha Round of 2011.

Following the formation of the United Nations in 1945, an international conference was held in Havana in 1948 to negotiate the nature of international trade that would maintain the post-war era among member states. Despite the agreement reached at the conference, it was not successful because of the loss of communication between the United States' negotiator, Franklin Delano Roosevelt and the home government. The failure of the proposed International Trade Organisation (ITO) led to the establishment of the General Agreement on Tariff and Trade (GATT) in 1948, which came with the mission of lowering trade barriers of industrial goods and services.

Under the auspices of GATT, a series of tariff and trade negotiation rounds were held which offered a packaged approach to trade negotiation through which a wide variety of tariff reduction were achieved, prior to the Uruguay Round Agreement which spanned from 1988 through 1994. Negotiations began with fifteen countries with the aim of reducing and binding custom tariffs, to provide early boost to trade liberalisation and modify the legacy of protectionist measure. The forty-seven-year-old provisional agreement covering through the seventh round was intended to handle global economic integration, joining the two “Bretton Woods” institutions (the World Bank and International Monetary Fund). The provision for the agreement of ITO in Havana in 1948 proved abortive because of its ambiguous nature and the refusal of the United States Congress to endorse it. The death of ITO practically made GATT the only multilateral trading instrument from January 1948. In the years of GATT, the Kennedy Round brought in Anti-Dumping Agreement and a section on development while the Tokyo Round of the 1970s attempted to tackle trade barriers and improve trading system (WTO, 2010). In 1986, the Eighth round termed the Uruguay Round, which was the last and most extensive, commenced and concluded with the signing of Marakesh Agreement on 15th April, 1994, covering a range of economic issues such as agriculture, textile and clothing, rules of origin, import licensing procedures, subsidies, intellectual property rights and procedures on dispute settlement. The ratification of these agreements led to the establishment of World Trade Organisation on 1st January, 1995.

As an heir to GATT, the WTO inherited a long tradition of rule-making and a complex set of agreements with the aim to administer and implement the multilateral and plural-lateral agreements. The WTO acts as a forum for multilateral trade negotiations and platform for settling trade disputes and oversight of national trade policies (Shaw, 2003). At the formation of WTO, trade agreements were collectively negotiated by its members. Its rules apply to all members who are subject to binding dispute settlement procedures with the horizon of serving as a forum for interplay of cooperation in trade-related policies. This makes the WTO to be seen as a warehouse where countries come together to exchange market access commitments on a reciprocal basis, otherwise known as a barter marketing system, with the basic principles of non-discrimination, reciprocity, enforceable commitment, transparency and safety values (Bernard, Aaditya & Philip, 2002).

The functionality of trade across borders is very crucial to every country's economic

development because it enables the principle of comparative advantage as all countries are not equally endowed. The essence of the WTO's Uruguay and Doha Round Agreements was to make international trade among members of the Organisation easy through trade liberalisation, settlement of trade related disputes and non-discrimination, reducing trade barriers which is one of the clear means of encouraging trade among member states. The barriers concerned include customs duties (or tariffs) and measures such as import bans or quotas that restrict quantities selectively.
Since December, 1994 when Nigeria registered with World Trade Organisation through the Uruguay and the Doha Rounds agreement, there has been occasional focus on the role of these treaties on Nigeria's development. Given the fact that the score card in terms of her benefits, is not encouraging, this state of affairs, has not received requisite attention from scholars and researchers. This condition provides the opposite justification for the present effort.

Theoretical Framework

Neoclassical Theory of Economic Development.

One of the most popular theories of economic growth is that of neoclassical theory of development also known as market fundamentalism. This theory was introduced by Robert Solow and Trevor Swan in 1956. According to this theory, economic growth is directly related to free trade and countries are expected to follow policies of deregulation, privatization and liberalization in order to achieve desired economic growth. The neo-classical theory is based on the idea that free markets create competitive environments in which producers have incentives to engage in the global marketplace. This is applicable to Nigeria as a member of the World Trade Organisation.

This theory proclaims the place of liberalisation as the major component of international trade, as economic growth is one of the goals of liberalizing policies. However, Nigeria witnessed no substantial increase in its per-capita incomes despite her membership of the World Trade Organisation. According to this theory, the liberalization of the economy attracts more domestic and foreign investments, which increases the rate of capital accumulation. This approach is meant to ensure that state intervention in developing economies will be reduced by allowing the market to regulate the economy, privatizing state-owned enterprises and services, promoting export expansion, creating a welcome climate for foreign investment, and eliminating government controls on prices. Neo-liberals argue that economic efficiency will be stimulated, leading to economic growth. Although, there are always winners and losers in the economy, neo-liberalism argues that the “trickle down” phenomenon would occur as countries follow their policy prescriptions (Robinson, 1971).

The appropriateness of this theory to the paper is precipitated upon the fact that, every country under the auspices of international trade must have trade benefits because of the principle of exchange and distribution. Though the ability or the competitiveness of trading countries is determined by their output. The economic position of Nigeria within the lens of the world Trade Organisation is determined by her level of representation, which is determined by her import and export profile.

Conceptualization

Counter-Trade

According to Gloria (2011), countertrade is a parallel set of obligations whereby transacting parties undertake to sell goods or technology to the other in separate but related transactions. This majorly takes place as a two-step process. First, the "seller," typically a private corporation, agrees to present its goods to the "buyer," typically a governmental purchasing agency. Second, the first party then agrees, as a condition of the completion of this first transaction, to purchase goods supplied by the second party, again in exchange for hard currency. In essence, the second party agrees to purchase goods from the first party upon the condition that the first party agrees to purchase goods from the second party. The two obligations are "linked" or "cross-referenced" to each other by either a provision in one of the two agreements or in a separate document (typically referred to as a "protocol"). While the two obligations are often negotiated at the same time as part of the same overall commercial setting, the two are expected to be viewed as distinct transactions with separate contracts and separate currency payments.

Forms of Counter Trade

Counter Purchase: In counter purchase transaction, the first party agrees to sell goods to the second party and under a separate but related agreement, undertakes to purchase other unrelated products from the second party. Typically, the first party agrees to provide a specified product under certain conditions of quality, quantity and time and place of delivery. In turn, the first party is required to purchase a certain "dollar value" worth of designated goods (usually designated in terms of a percentage of the contract price under the first obligation) and is permitted a certain time period in which to fulfill its purchase obligation. In addition, the first party is often permitted to select the items it will purchase from a list of goods agreed upon at the time the parties enter into the counter purchase transaction (Helpman & Krugman, 1985).

Compensation: In a compensation transaction, the first party agrees to sell machinery, equipment, or technology to the second party and the first party separately agrees to purchase from the second party a predetermined amount of the product manufactured from the equipment or technology. Generally, the second party pays for the technology in currency and receives payments in currency for its sale of the product to the first party. An alternative form of this type of transaction is for the second party to pay for the equipment/technology by shipping the product to the first party in lieu of a cash payment, i.e. as a royalty. This variation, however, constitutes a cooperative barter transaction which is somewhat more difficult to structure and finance than a straight "cash" compensation transaction. In addition to serving as a mechanism for increasing exports of the second party, the compensation transaction provides an alternative means of financing the establishment of new industrial activities as well as stimulating the development and transfer of technology (Veendorp, 1970).

Barter: Barter is known as swap and other forms of non-currency transactions that are commonly conceived as part of counter trade. Many non-currency transactions are entered into for reasons of convenience or transportation efficiency, as such, lack the coercive overtones characteristic of typical countertrade transactions. A nation may, in this case, impose a barter requirement in a coercive fashion for the purpose of disposing a surplus of low quality goods that otherwise cannot be sold. In such instances, barter, swap and other non-currency transactions are correctly characterized as counter trade transactions. This form of countertrade (Barter) is often used for crude oil transfers in order to convey crude below official prices of the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) (Dalton, 1982).

Kerres (2015), on the other hand conceptualise “countertrade" to explain all forms of trade involving the principle of bilateral compensation. He conceptualises the practice of countertrade in different variations, allowing almost limitless range of combinations and variants. Of all the practices of counter trade, pure barter is one of the less important forms while the most common being counter purchase, is followed by buy-back and offset agreements. In all types of countertrade, except pure barter, separate import and export contracts are concluded that give rise to separate payment obligations and are performed independently of one another.

Bilateral Nature

An important feature of countertrade that is repeatedly mentioned in the literature is its bilateral nature. It is acknowledged that countertrade can be a highly flexible and hence sensible instrument if used voluntarily to adapt rapidly to a particular emergency situation. However, all-embracing, rigid, state-imposed countertrade rules are regarded as much more problematic; their restrictive effect on trade is all the more serious. The larger the number of states involved, the greater the proportion of individual countries' overall trade transacted and the more pronounced the spillover of bilateralism to regions, sectors or enterprises within the country. It is therefore believed that countertrade is detrimental from the point of view of international welfare and not only does it lead to a global reduction in the volume of trade but also, it very often results in the diversion of products from convertible to inconvertible currency areas (Banks, 1983).
The effects of countertrade on the price structure in the markets in question are crystal clear. A distinction must be made here between countertrade deals in traditional products (and those in nontraditional exports (mostly manufactures, but also services). In view of its primary function of marketing surplus output, countertrade in commodities accentuates falls in price, aggravates destabilisation and prolongs periods of weakness in commodity markets. In many instances, the net result is merely to displace normal exports - goods in exchange for goods instead of goods in exchange for money. The Third World is therefore now focusing more strongly on non-traditional products, in the hope that product diversification will also bring a wider geographic spread of markets. It is generally essential to call on foreign expertise to market non-traditional products (Cohen & Zysman, 1986).

Many international organizations believe that, through countertrade, protectionism is accelerated. But for Third World countries, countertrade represents an essential component of their trade policies. Thus, countertrade could turn out to be a major source of contention between developed countries and the Third World. As the use of countertrade continues to expand, resistance against it is building up in the developed world. The United States, the countries of Western Europe, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT), the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and the World Bank unanimously claim that countertrade will eventually reduce world trade. Even the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) predicts that the balance of payment situation in the Third World will not improve through the use of countertrade, and that bi-lateralism will grow (Starr, 1972).

The Uruguay Round Agreement of 1995

In the words of (Atting, 2019), Professor of Economics, University of Uyo, 'every country under this planet belongs to one Organisation or the other in order to facilitate their trading/economic system even when under sanctions'. In order to attain orderly conduct of trade globally, the GATT was setup in 1944 under the Bretton Wood Agreement, the same time the International Monetary Fund (IMF) was formed, to ensure that the body regulates trade and disputes. The arrangement that formed WTO was reached in 1994 at the Uruguay Round and all countries involved, signed the agreement without being coerced but to regulate and ensured the standard of trade.

The Uruguay Round which metamorphosed into the WTO was the 8th round of the Multilateral Trading Negotiation (MTN) conducted within the framework of GATT, spanning from 1986-1994 with 123 countries including Nigeria as signatories. The Uruguay Round Agreement Act's (URAA) major achievement has been the introduction of implementation framework that addresses the barriers and distortions to trade in three major policy domains which are market access, domestic support and export subsidies. This agreement also incorporated the following agreements: Agreements on Agriculture, General Agreements on Trade and Services, Agreements on Technical Barriers to Trade, Trade-Related Investment Properties, Trade Related Investment Measures and so on (Timothy, et al., 1994).

The final act and the outcome of the Uruguay Agreement formalized in 1994, gave birth to liberalisations of trade in industrial products, liberalisation of trade on agricultural products, liberalisations of trade in services; the strengthening of the international rules, proceedings and institutions governing world trade, provision of the framework for measuring trade investment and the promotion of local production, trade dispute resolution, trade liberalisation, equitable distribution of services, and re-instrumentation of agricultural support towards the reduction of trade distortion policies and provide basis for further negotiation. The results of the Uruguay Round Agreement show that there is disparity between countries. Although the essence of the Round was to increase market accessibility, the distribution was uneven because of the dearth nature of developing countries' economic and industrial status. The implication of this was that developing countries needed to continue with recent unilateral reforms that could improve their supply response (Samuel, 1996).

The Doha Round Agreement of 2001

The Doha Round, after the Fourth Ministerial Conference in Doha (Qatar) in November 2001, became the new face of WTO transformational modification agreement. Its purpose was to achieve the major international trading system through the introduction of reduction in trade barriers and reversal of mandate negotiations. The WTO Round (Doha Round) re-labeling exercise was to modify strong belief of African countries that were under-rated and given less attention during the Uruguay Round. Thus, the horizon of the Doha Round gave special attention to Africa in correcting the previous mistakes, by targeting reform of multilateral trading system on their developmental issues (Michael & Peter, 2007).

Africa being the centrepiece of the Doha Round of 2001was classified as a weaker player in the WTO trading system (Ingco & John, 2004). Although the other intention and outcome of the round was that multilateral agreements and trade negotiations should help developing countries to undertake their own domestic trade policy reforms that would help in advancing their development objectives, in practice, most African countries had difficulties in achieving this and could not secure or protect their agricultural sectors without securing support from other countries.

It was argued that there was political economy logic which militates against the successful completion of the Doha Round which ought to spur African trade reform. The Round's negotiation style was tactically mercantilist oriented. The agreement negotiation process was mercantilist in nature but, on paper, their policies allowed African governments to be an exception of their policies but failed economically to promote domestic reform (Anderson and Martin, 2005).

WTO Agreements and Nigeria's Economy

The WTO which is perhaps the only international organization which deals with the rule of trades between nations has its trade agreement signed and negotiated among member nations. Its documents provide legal ground rules for international commerce, which binds political institutions of various countries to keep WTO agreements within its limits.

Manufacturing countries including Nigeria, raised the alarm of under representation and the requested for the re-negotiation of agreements. The negative impact of globalization on Nigeria's economy antagonised the local industry and brought about massive dumping of foreign goods. The Organised Private Sector (OPS) which consists of Manufacturing Association of Nigerian (MAN), the Nigerian Association of Chambers of Commerce, Industry, Mine and Agriculture (NACCIMA) and the Nigerian Employers Consultative Association (NECA) raised alarm to the federal government that the WTO agreement on liberalization made the country's economy vulnerable and porous, as the importation of the supposed locally produced goods were hijacked. They claimed that local economy was “sufficient” and “independent” but because of the over flooded rate of FDI, with virtually nothing apart from crude oil sold at the global market, the Nigeria market therefore became a dumping ground for goods and services from foreign countries.

According Joseph (2019), WTO's liberalisation does Nigeria more harm than good. This is because Nigerian goods lack the prerequisite to compete with imported goods. Therefore, the Nigerian market is flooded with imported goods. He however, identifies two reasons for this development. First, most Nigerian goods are substandard, compared to imported products, as several Nigerian manufacturers are still backward in term of technology. Second, Nigerians' attitude towards Nigerian made goods is not encouraging, for instance, Nigeria is the largest producer of rice in West Africa and at the same time the highest importer of rice globally. This has made Nigerian producers to tag their goods foreign made. For instance, most products made in Aba, Nigeria are tagged “Made in China” or “Italy” while bags of rice are tagged “Made in Thailand”. This unpatriotic approach actually improves their sales. However, these goods cannot still compete with international products because of quality.

As observed by Akpakpan (2019), foreign goods are killing Nigeria products because of the nonchalant attitude of the Nigeria Government. Foreign investors have also refused to invest in Nigeria because of the turbulent environment. He suggests that Nigeria should have embarked on “selective opening of inflow strategic skills” which would have given Nigeria the opportunity to control what comes into the country, since it is not possible for Nigeria to stop the inflow of goods to the country, as a member of WTO.

Nigerian products cannot compete in terms of price and quality at the international market. This was because of the profile of Nigerian manufacturing process. Most Nigerian producers lack basic infrastructural techniques which include water works, electricity and other measures. This is so because of high cost of obtaining basic services, and an unfriendly production environment. Several numbers of factories such as textile, toiletries, electronics, chemicals, engineering, and oil mining, among others, have closed down due to the challenges of dumping of foreign goods, which are more competitive than locally produced ones (Adeleyo, 2002).

However, Ekong (2019) does not believe that WTO policies have anything to do with the deficiencies in Nigerian products such as textile industry, mining and other agricultural products like palm oil. Rather, he is of the opinion that this condition prevails because most of these products lack proper irrigation and are being affected by excess fertilizer, which affect the quality of these products. He made reference to 2015 when one of Nigeria's products failed standard test at the international market. This was so because the product was already decaying. The same thing was applicable to beans in 2013, which was alleged to have been preserved with poisonous chemicals. He stressed that, besides these preservative, beans could be affected by weevil, which is more harmful to health.

The interest of Nigeria and other developing African countries were not taken into consideration, thereby turning Nigeria to a dumping ground where second hand goods "Tokunbo" are prevalent, thus Adeleyo (2002) had to advise that Nigeria should pull out of the unprofitable agreements since Nigeria did not have comparative advantage to rub shoulders with WTO's export practitioners. According to him, Nigeria's stay with WTO will continue to stunt the country's industrial growth.

In the same vain, Adedamola (2019, July 3) opines that Nigeria pulls out of the organisation because, being a member is a mere waste of time and resources. In his words, "Nigeria is a dumping ground, so she should pull out." This is as a result of the fact that Nigeria is not a producing country and as such, she cannot be a stakeholder in the organisation. He concluded that Nigeria should either develop a veto power they can present or pull out of the organization. On his part, Omolere (2019) thinks that Nigeria did not benefit from the organisation because she had nothing to sell at the international market and this makes it look as if the organisation did not put the interest of Nigeria into consideration. He also notes that the only thing Nigeria exports majorly is crude oil and it is only fashionable in OPEC. On this note, Nigeria should have had nothing to do with the WTO rather, she should have focused on OPEC and not WTO. The organisation's arrangement only favours selling countries; not because they discriminated against Nigeria and her counterparts.

Nigeria, at the joining of WTO expected issues relating to her economy to be solved. But the Uruguay Round and later, the Doha Round of 2001 lacked the capacity to raise the bar of Nigeria's development. This is because the Doha Round lacked the mechanism that could correct the problems relating to infrastructure, telecommunications, bureaucratic obstacles and institutional deficiencies. Failure to meet these needs led to the shift of blames on the WTO (Gary, 2006).

According to Adebisi (2019), Nigeria's engagement with the WTO from inception shows that Nigeria did not have a coherent strategy on trading matters, as Nigeria only depended on oil revenue. He argues that the country can only have a standing argument against the organization if she had the right infrastructure, access to market and the ability to negotiate hard. The country had only signed up as a member of the organization as a free access to enjoy the dividend of the organization. He maintains that “If we do not have the right person to represent us, we will be compelled to advance the interest of others.” The administration of President Goodluck Jonathan had the opportunity of going beyond attending the WTO meetings, to articulate the country's interest by putting together trade experts who understood the intricacies of trade policy and negotiation. The bilateral and free trade agreement entered into by the country required streaming and coordinating at the summit but unfortunately, these issues were not given much attention (anonymous, 2011).

The WTO is an international organization, dealing with the rules of trade between nations by ensuring reduction of barrier such as tariffs and import quotas. It is believed to be more realistic for the developed countries which have found the system as an effective instrument to expand opportunities for their economic fortunes. Observers believe that Nigeria lacks capacity building and technical depth and that this has hindered her from making contributions at various WTO fora that would have enabled the country to benefit from the system. At the workshop organized with private sector manufacturers in Lagos on 11th February, 2004, in conjunction with the International Trade Centre (ITC) and Lagos Chamber of Commerce and Industry (LCCI), it was observed that Nigeria-WTO delegates were not helping matters as they did not often include representatives of private sector businesses who were responsible for the production of Nigerian goods. This means that Nigerian delegates at the WTO did not know the problem faced by the businesses they represented. The workshop also observed that there was the need to improve both public and private sector capacity building so as to get all Nigerian sectors acquainted with all the terms of WTO. The workshop noticed a great gap between the public and private sectors and observed that government policies were inimical to export trade. The peak of these observations was that Nigerian business operators failed to meet up with the demands of their trading partners even in the West African Sub-region as they could not export their goods to these countries. Instead, Nigerian goods were smuggled to Ghana and other West African countries and labeled “Made in Ghana” before exporting to other oversea countries. This is as a result of the fact that Nigeria lacks the necessary expertise and technical knowhow required for export business (Ebere, 2004).

Findings

The World Trade Organisation is saddled with the responsibility of uniting every member of the organisation and ensure that, they all benefit from the organization within the lens of the Uruguay round and Doha round. To some scholars, the agreements were set up to strengthen the Britton Wood institutions, that is, the Group of Seven, to further spread capitalist ideology through trade exploitation. It is however observed that Nigeria's lack of capacity building is as a result of the attitude towards production and exportation. It is further discovered that Nigeria's inability to achieve her aims within the organization is not because of lack of equal right or that she was discriminated against or that her representatives lacked negotiating skills, but because she had nothing to negotiate with. Apart from crude oil which provides about 98% of revenue for Nigeria's economy, the country did not engage the WTO with any agricultural product or related products that could influence her economy positively. The World Trade Organisation is synonymous to a warehouse where all registered members register their goods, for exchange or for sale. Unfortunately, Nigeria as participants was unable to register goods at the warehouse.

Conclusion

Results from the study show that the undiversified nature of the Nigerian economy constituted a major problem in her quest for development and not because of the parochial nature of the Uruguay and Doha Round Agreements. The nature of the country's development matrix, economic diversification, and self-reliance are some of the major variables of her economic development. How the country's policymakers, leadership, and technocrats maximize the crucial variables determines the country's speed towards economic development and poverty reduction. Considering the factors which revolved around Nigeria's economic status within the lens of WTO, the goal of economic diversification, increased and added value of export which would have changed the economic fortune of the country could not come into realization. This was precipitated upon the fact that, despite, Nigeria's homegrown National Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy, Millennium Development Goals, and Sustainable Development Goals, the country has not been able to harness its blessing to progress the economy. This is not because of the lack of the necessary mechanisms but because of the absence of political will which could have transformed the economic development initiatives of the country.

Based on the findings of this paper, the following recommendations are hereby suggested:

Nigeria should adopt a pragmatic approach towards economic diversification within the context of international trade;

The Standard Organization of Nigeria and other quality control agencies should be strengthened for improved service delivery in line with global best practices; and

Nigeria should embrace the principle of meritocracy as opposed to compensationalism which appears to be the trend in several sensitive public offices.

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Indigenization of Nigeria's Economy and Sustainable Self-Reliance

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Abstract
The problem of Indigenization and lack of sustainable self-reliance have been the bane of Nigeria's economic development since her independence in 1960. Despite her giant disposition in Africa and her population size, Nigeria has not been able to assume the status of a developed nation due to lack of a deliberate action in the area of indigenization and sustainable self-reliance. The objective of this article was to explore ways through which Nigeria can take indigenization of all industries, companies and allied ventures operating within her shores seriously. This is the way for Nigeria to resume the status of self-reliance/self-sustaining and move towards becoming a developed nation. The study adopted the Historical/ Descriptive Approach. The method of data analysis was qualitative analysis, since the research was basically descriptive. It was found, among others, that apart from the taxes paid to Nigerian government by the multi-national corporations, the host communities are adversely affected by gas flaring, oil spillage, air pollution, environmental degradation, and so on. It was recommended that government should re-strategize her approach towards emphasizing indigenization of Nigeria's economy through re-ordering schools' curriculums whereby school pupils from Nursery to Higher Institutions imbibe the culture and traditions of self-reliance that will trigger the spirit of indigenization and sustainability of Nigeria's economy.

Keywords: Indigenization, self-reliance, self-sustaining, sustainable, western economy.

Introduction
Before independence, Nigeria economy was propelled by proceeds and derivatives from subsistence farming, as well as commercial and semi-mechanized agriculture. But, since the advent of modern technology and the discovery of oil (popularly known then as "the oil boom") in Nigeria, everybody seemed to have abandoned their traditional usage of hoes, machetes, tractors and donkeys. In Nigeria today, all eyes are on oil. At the higher echelon of citizenry, there is a struggle of "who should own which oil-well". At the level of government – with federalism in mind, every state and local government area is constantly nosing to know what amount of money comes into the state from the Federation Account, and then to the Local Government Councils from the State-and-Local-Government Joint Account.

In recent times, nobody is interested to know whether internally generated revenue can amount to anything, let alone setting up a machinery that can generate such revenue, or the monitoring of the revenue of the agencies concerned for optimal outputs.

Nigerians do not seem to have ever taken time to think whether there is a possibility for the oil (either on-shore or off-shore) to dry up one day in future. No reserves have been made at all. It is an established fact that in the state of Texas in the United States of America, the amount of oil reserved can serve the Americans for over 20 years, without importing oil from any country of the world, Rosen (1999), whereas, in Nigeria our situation is that oil is drilled from the shores, piped to the refineries, conveyed in tanker-trucks to the fuel stations, sold to motorists and burnt away as smoke into the air by the vehicles. The cycle continues like that year in year out.

Fortunately, or unfortunately, the big economies of the world, the capitalists, the bourgeoisie and the industrialists, through imperialism had invaded the economy of Nigeria. All the oil companies ranging from Exxon Mobil to Chevrons Agip Oil, Oando and others have taken over and dominated the oil industry in Nigeria. The foreigners are largely seen at the highest echelon of these oil industries. The Head Offices of the said oil industries are established far away from where the oil is explored and their refineries also are sparsely sited from the centre of operations. This scenario makes communication very difficult for the host communities and their indigenes. For instance, Exxon Mobile explores all its crude oil from Ibeno and Eket Local Government Areas of Akwa Ibom State; sites its Operational Headquarters in Lagos and patronizes Nigerian Refineries in Kaduna, Warri and Port Harcourt. What an exploitative logic?

Away from the oil sector, there are also the construction companies such as Julius Berger, Mother Cat, Chinese Civil Engineering and Construction Company (CCECC), Gitto, etc. impoverishing the economy of Nigeria like their counterparts in the oil industry, in the sense that their presence in domestic economies of the country encourages a lot of capital flight. Their foreign nationals are paid in hard currencies like dollars and pound sterling, while Nigerians are paid in Naira and kobo. On the other hand, the amount of money that leaves the coffers of the country through capital flight, if retained within the country by indigenous companies, would lead, not just to a boost in the economy of Nigeria, but also, would facilitate her movement towards emancipation from the grips of dependency. It is therefore necessary that Nigeria embarks on total indigenization of all industries, companies and allied ventures that operate within her shores, so as to become an economically independent country. This exercise will reduce the cost of foreign exchange and boost the value of the Naira.

Statement of the Problem

Since her independence in 1960, the economy of Nigeria has evolved over time with a measure of challenges, among which is the issue of dependency on foreign economies for survival. This has presented a scenario of constant antagonism, domination, subjugation, exploitation and survival of the fittest between the two parties. It is a paradox for Nigeria to play host to foreign experts by importing their technology at the expense of constant exploitation of her domestic resources, raw materials, local manpower and labour. This is because the locally exploited raw materials are further transformed into finished products and exported back to Nigeria to sell same to Nigerians at very exorbitant rates. This scenario is both pivotal and the bane of Nigeria's failing economy. Nigeria does not seem to take into cognizance the urgency of the need to embark on massive indigenization of all industries, companies and allied ventures operating within the shores of Nigeria, in order to improve the lots of Nigerians, boost her economy and move towards assuming the status of a developed nation.

The argument is that despite playing a crucial role in contributing enormously to the development of Nigeria's economy, these foreign experts, foreign technology and foreign capitals serve as serious economic risks to Nigeria, hence promoting very high exchange rates. There has been serous siphoning or draining of the economy of Nigeria over the past years, such that Nigeria is being perpetually kept at the status of a developing country. Due to globalization, competition is very tough. Big players have a strong grip on the market as they are prosperous in each field, whether it is money, management, machinery or methods. Nigeria needs to embark on massive indigenization of industries, companies and allied bodies within her shores, if she must move away from further dependency on the western economy. There has to be a paradigm shift from being a developing country which status came as a result of constant dependency on foreign powers, to the status of self-reliance which can only be predicated on indigenization of her economy.

Research Methodology

In carrying out this research, historical/descriptive approach was adopted. This is because the research was a longitudinal study. The method of data analysis was also qualitative analysis since the research was basically narrative.

Conceptual Clarifications

Dependency: The term “dependency” is defined as “the state of relying on somebody or something for something, especially when this thing is not normal or necessary” (Udoh, 2014).

Sustainable: Anything involving the use of natural products and energy in a way that does not harm the environment is defined as being sustainable.

Self-Reliance

In an age where statistics allows almost everything to be psychometrically measured and operational definitions abound, it isn't surprising that there's no one definition for self-reliance.

Merriam Webster defines self-reliance simply as 'reliance on one's own efforts and abilities', which doesn't quite do the concept much justice, either. Self-reliance has been linked to 'the self' - in its psychological sense - for at least several decades (Baumeister, 1987). Merriam Webster defines self-reliance simply as 'reliance on one's own efforts and abilities', which doesn't quite do the concept much justice, either. Let's look at the psychological mentions of self-reliance for a better understanding. It means the ability to do or decide things by one's self, rather than depending on other people for help is what is referred to as 'self-reliance'.

More specifically, self-reliance is consistently mentioned alongside, if not within, discussions of self-definition. What makes it unique is the approach to society that self-reliance encompasses—it has been alluded to roughly in psychological journals as: “a reliance on internal resources to provide life with coherence (meaning) and fulfillment” (Baumeister,1987).

Self-Reliance is the topic (and title) of an 1841 essay from US philosopher Ralph Waldo Emerson. Born in Boston in 1803, Emerson wrote poetry and gave lectures that would greatly influence other famous names such as Henry Thoreau and Walt Whitman (IEP, 2019). Self-Reliance contains Emerson's beliefs and perspectives on how society negatively impacts our growth. He argues strongly that self-reliance, self-trust, and individualism, amongst other things, are ways that we can avoid the conformity imposed upon us. Or, he also argues, that we quite frequently impose upon ourselves.

Even though Ralph Waldo Emerson may not have introduced the concept, it was he who brought it to the general public with his 1841 essay Self-Reliance. In positive psychology, self-reliance has strong theoretical significance. Thanks to its implications for happiness. It has some overlap, or at least potential implications for self-worth, self-expression, self-knowledge, resilience, and self-acceptance. So, it is not about doing everything yourself. It is not about being financially independent, either. And it is certainly not about shouldering every hardship you face all on your lonesome. Interestingly, there's no single sentence - not even from Emerson himself - that really captures all the aspects of self-reliance in one pop.

Many things can be construed from Emerson's writings. Here are a few examples of some key concepts that shine through in his seminal essay, Self-Reliance.

Thinking independently: The ability to think autonomously goes hand in hand with trusting your own instinct. Lots of Emerson's work centered on how people tend to 'hide behind' what they've learned from society, or significant others within society. He believed this was mere imitation and was linked with a lack of confidence in one's own intuition and rational capabilities.

Basically, if you (or I, or anyone) believe in something, and consider that it holds merit after thinking it through, there should be nothing holding us back from voicing it with confidence. Not to do so, Emerson believed, is to conform to societal expectations for no good reason.

Embracing your individuality: As a more practical example, we can imagine that Bella has parents who are both lawyers. They want nothing more than for Bella to follow in their footsteps and are encouraged by her excellent grades at school.

At home, however, Bella finds that she's spending every spare minute writing poetry. She wants to make a difference to the world and touch people's lives through verse. This is where she finds her greatest happiness and decides instead to pursue a career as a poet instead.

Striving towards your own goals, bravely: In an extension of the above, Bella seeks to take steps toward achieving her own goals of becoming a poet. She is aware that she will receive a lot more emotional and financial support by following her parents' dreams, but she's willing to take her chances. Because Bella believes in 'cause and effect' (Emerson, 1967), and that purposeful action will get her there. She is not overly concerned about rejection by her parents, because she just wants to be herself.

These three examples are based on the key arguments in Emerson's original paper on self-reliance, and represent the three concepts most closely related to individualism. It is important to remember that self-reliance is not about cutting yourself off from everybody.

That is, being true to yourself, being capable of independent thought, knowing your own loves and being able to pursue them independently of others' judgments is not the same as isolating yourself from society. While Emerson does expand considerably on the value of solitude, the idea of social networks - of having friends - features strongly in his work. We'll touch on these shortly when we look at how to develop self-reliance.

The importance of having Self-Reliance

Having self-reliance is important for several reasons. The most obvious being that depending on others for help, means there will be times when it is not available.

But let us dig a little deeper to understand how and why you can use this concept to flourish, grow, find, and nurture happiness.

Self-reliance is also important because it:

Means you can solve problems and make decisions by yourself. This is critical as we grow older and learn to live independently;

Allows you to feel happy by yourself, in yourself, and about yourself—without needing to rely on others;

Involves developing self-acceptance, a very powerful thing to have;

Involves acquiring self-knowledge and practicing self-compassion;

Gives you perspective, which in turn…Gives you direction. Of course, the list is very far from exhaustive. If you have personally experienced, or believe other important benefits from becoming self-reliant, please do share them.

How to Develop Self-Reliance

Whether you want to develop self-reliance yourself, or you'd like to help your child on their own journey of development, here are some tips.

In an article on developing self-reliance, mental health counselor Kloppers (2019) offers several practical steps. Her main tips include:

Accepting yourself and being your own best friend: Learning and appreciating your own character strengths is very important in being able to support yourself as you go through life. What are your character strengths? Are you kind? Curious? Brave? Don't forget to reflect on your achievements and the things you accomplish that make you feel proud. It is important not to put yourself down or sabotage your own efforts.

Inner confidence: In society, we're conditioned to feel happy when we receive compliments, praise, and reassurance from others. If that's not forthcoming, we can feel insecure or vulnerable, sometimes even helpless. Being self-reliant involves the ability to feel confident in yourself when these aren't around - because they may not always be. Not sure what to be confident about? Try one of these activities to increase your sense of self-worth.

Making our own decisions: Kloppers advises against looking consistently outside for security and relying on others to accept us for who we are. When we can accept ourselves as unique and practice non-judgment, we can find security from inner sources.

This rational, independent thinking is something we've already touched on. As children, we learn to look to others for guidance when solving problems or making decisions. The tendency becomes ingrained within us, and as adults, we aren't always capable of handling adversity in a way that we feel sure about. Have confidence in your own capabilities and it becomes a lot easier to find security within.

Recognize and manage dependence: Becoming aware of when you tend to turn to others is a part of self-knowledge. We may know that we turn to others for certain things, but sometimes this means we're missing out on a chance to build up our own confidence. Setting goals and achieving them your own way not only gives you a sense of accomplishment and reward but greater belief in your own judgment.

Accept yourself for who you are: Self-acceptance is a huge thing. Instead of looking to others for approval, it is alright to give that approval yourself. Seeking others' acceptance is yet another way that we practice dependence on others, and it can be a pervasive, hard-to-shake habit. To develop self-reliance, we need to notice these tendencies before we can change them. But it is worth.

More ways to develop Self-reliance:

Below are some more ways to develop self-reliance:

Having your own values: Society's values may not be aligned with our own deep-rooted beliefs. This can be at such a subconscious level that we do not always pick up on it. If society values one thing, and it is not congruent with our own, we can feel as though it's hard to gain acceptance. For example, you may value diversity and inclusiveness but maybe work somewhere that doesn't also value such a culture. This creates cognitive dissonance that can be unpleasant to deal with Fostinger (1957).

Not relying on 'things' to feel happiness: Emerson also argued strongly about the negative potential influences of material possessions; he was of the belief that we live in materialistic times. Life is constantly changing if we tie our happiness to external objects, what happens when they are gone?

Decide who you want to be, and how you want to get there: Pretty much, this is almost the same as having your own values. Except that once we know our own values, we can understand what makes us happy and how we would like to live our lives. Then, we exercise our own judgment about how we want to get there.

Arguably, these are not the only ways we can develop self-reliance. It is also true that children will often need much simpler approaches to learning that can often start at a more practical level. Learning to tie one's own shoelaces, take on little jobs, and so forth. In this context, self-reliance may mean the ability for a Third World Country (domestic economy) to thrive by itself and shed off every tendency of dependency on other developed economies or foreign countries for foreign capital, assistance, technology or expertise, thereby surviving on its own accord, and by way of self-funding and self-sponsorship.

The Concept of Indigenization

The term 'indigenization' is used when referring to the process or an act or a situation where something is formerly, or statutorily, or officially belonging to a particular place rather than coming to it from somewhere else (Udoh, 2014). Indigenization comes from the word 'indigene' or 'indigenous' which refers to 'native', or 'local', or 'domestic' (Udoh, 2014). In that sense, indigenization may refer to the domestication of something, for example, institution or industry or a foreign national to a certain native land.

Indigenization is also a term that is used in a variety of ways depending on the context. The term is primarily used by anthropologists to describe what happens when locals take something from the outside and make it their own (e.g. Africanization, Americanization). Pseudo-indigenization occurs when outsiders try to force the infusion of their culture into another culture.

In world politics, indigenization is the process in which non-Western cultures redefine their native land for better use in agriculture and mass marketing (Udoh, 2014). Due to imperialism and the impetus to modernize, many countries invoked Western values of self-determination, liberalism, democracy and independence in the past, but now that they are experiencing their own share of economic prosperity, technological sophistication, military power and political cohesion, they desire to revert to their ancestral cultures and religious beliefs.

Since the 1980s and the 1990s, there has been a resurgence of Islam and "re-Islamization" in Muslim societies. In India, Western forms and values have been replaced in the process of "Hinduization" of politics and society and in East Asia, Confucian values are being promoted as part of the "Asianization" process. Japan has also had its share of Indigenization in the form of "Nihonjinron" or the theory of Japan and the Japanese.

However, the word indigenization is also used in almost the opposite sense. Accordingly, it means to increase local participation in or ownership of; to indigenize foreign-owned companies, to adapt (beliefs, customs, etc.) to local ways. Indigenization can also be seen as the infusion of indigenous ideas, values, peoples, symbols, aesthetics, procedures and an authentic history into an organisation so that it is as thoroughly a product of indigenous imaginations and aspirations as it is of western or settler ones. It could be seen as the fact of making something more native; transformation of some service, idea etc. to suit a local culture, especially through the use of more indigenous people in administration, employment, etc. also, is may be considered as the capability to manufacture a product, or supply a service independently within a country, instead of relying on foreign manufactures or suppliers.

Indigenization Policy in Nigeria

Put simply, the indigenization policy is defined as 'the roping off of certain types of business activities and reserving these for exclusive ownership and control by Nigerians..." The objective of the policy was therefore to set the stage for greater participation by Nigerian nationals in the ownership, management. Indigenization policy is a deliberate government policy aimed at replacing foreign investors and personnel in certain industries with indigenes or the natives of a country, that is, excluding foreign participation in certain productive activities. This is different from nationalization which means taking over the ownership of an organization usually owned by a foreigner or foreigners. With nationalization, foreigners could still be employed in the firm involved, but with indigenization, the natives become the only personnel both in administrative and subordinate capacities, that is, indigenes become the only participants in certain economic ventures.

Indigenization policy is therefore a set of regulations meant to regulate businesses, compelling foreign-owned firms to sell 51-percent of their business to blacks over the following years. Five-year jail terms are assigned to foreigners who do not submit an indigenization plan or use locals as fronts for their businesses.

Aims of Indigenization in a Country

The following can be regarded as the aims of indigenization in any country:

1. Indigenization has become a recent trend in West Africa as a way of solving the mounting unemployment problems.
2. It is also aimed at saving foreign exchange by eliminating the opportunity of foreign personnel to repatriate incomes to their home countries.
3. It is aimed at ensuring greater security of vital industries where foreign domination could lead to economic sabotage e.g. iron and steel.
4. It is also a way of improving local resources as much as possible in our industries so as to make them more indigenous and less foreign.

Theory of Indigenization

Global Social Theory

The publication of Akinsola Akiwowo's 'Contributions to the Sociology of Knowledge from an African Oral Poetry' in 1986 proclaimed the importance of indigenizing the sociological enterprise and sought to demonstrate how this could be achieved by extrapolating sociological propositions through an interpretation of the transcribed verses of a Yoruba oral poem (translated into English). Akiwowo presents a case for the indigenization of the sociological enterprise in terms of three key issues. The first concerns 'the extent to which the conceptual schemes and propositions which constitute mainstream sociological theories, can be accepted as containing universal principles for the explanation of human societies everywhere' (EAS, 1988: 155); the second focuses on whether sociological theories arising from empirical studies on Western societies can be valid and reliable when used to understand social life and social problems in other places; the third and conversely, Akiwowo poses the question of the extent to which 'generalizations from empirical studies from Third World societies [can] be accepted and extended to European and American Societies'. The project of indigenization, for him, is not simply a project of recovering and highlighting the cultural resources of societies beyond those which regularly feature within mainstream sociology, it is also a call to address the adequacy of all theories by subjecting them to 'tests and retests within different societal contexts' in order to determine their empirical universal validity (EAS, 1988: 155).

The Economy

Kenton (2016) holds that an economy is the large set of inter-related production, consumption, and exchange activities that aid in determining how scarce resources are allocated. The production, consumption, and distribution of goods and services are used to fulfill the needs of those living and operating within the economy, which is also referred to as an economic system.

An economy encompasses all activity related to production, consumption, and trade of goods and services in an area. These decisions are made through some combination of market transactions and collective or hierarchical decision making. Everyone from individuals to entities such as families, corporations and governments participate in this process. The economy of a particular region or country is governed by its culture, laws, history and geography, among other factors, and it evolves due to the choices and actions of the participants. For this reason, no two economies are identical.

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Market-based economies allow individuals and businesses to freely exchange goods through the market, according to supply and demand. The United State is mostly a market economy where consumers and producers determine what's sold and produced. Producers own what they make and decide their own prices, while consumers own what they buy and decide how much they're willing to pay. Through these decisions, the laws of supply and demand determine prices and total production. If consumer demand for a specific good increases, prices tend to rise as consumers are willing to pay more for that good. In turn, production tends to increase to satisfy the demand since producers are driven by profit. As a result, a market economy has a tendency to naturally balance itself. As the prices in one sector for an industry rise due to demand, the money, and labor necessary to fill that demand shift to those places where they're needed.

Pure market economies rarely exist since there's usually some government intervention or central planning. Even the United States could be considered a mixed economy. Regulations, public education, social security benefits are provided by the government to fill in the gaps from a market economy and help to create balance. As a result, the term market economy refers to an economy that is more market-oriented in general.
Command-based economies are dependent on a central political agent, which controls the price and distribution of goods. Supply and demand cannot play out naturally in this system because it is centrally planned, so imbalances are common.

Economy of Nigeria

The economy of Nigeria is a middle-income, mixed economy and emerging market, with expanding manufacturing, financial, service, communications, technology and entertainment sectors. It is ranked as the 27th-largest economy in the world in terms of nominal GDP, and the 24th-largest in terms of purchasing power parity. Nigeria has the largest economy in Africa; its re-emergent manufacturing sector became the largest on the continent in 2013, and it produces a large proportion of goods and services for the West African subcontinent. In addition, the debt-to GDP ratio is 16.075% as of 2019.

Nigerian GDP at purchasing power parity (PPP) has almost tripled from $170 billion in 2000 to $451 billion in 2012, though estimates of the size of the informal sector (which is not included in official figures) put the actual numbers closer to $630 billion. Subsequently, the GDP per capita doubled from $1400 per person in 2000 to an estimated $2,800 per person in 2012 (again, with the inclusion of the informal sector, it is estimated that GDP per capita hovers around $3,900 per person; population increased from 120 million in 2000 to 160 million in 2010). These figures were to be revised upwards by as much as 80% (percent) when metrics were to be recalculated subsequent to the rebasing of its economy in April 2014.

Although oil revenues contributed 2/3 of state revenues, oil only contributes about 9% to the GDP. Nigeria produces only about 2.7%(percent) of the world's oil supply. Although the petroleum sector is important, as government revenues still heavily rely on this sector, it remains a small part of the country's overall economy.

The largely subsistence agricultural sector has not kept up with rapid population growth, and Nigeria, once a large net exporter of food, now imports some of its food products, though mechanization has led to a resurgence in manufacturing and exporting of food products, and the move towards food sufficiency. In 2006, Nigeria came to an agreement with the Paris Club to buy back the bulk of its debts owed from them for a cash payment of roughly US$12 billion. According to a Citigroup report published in February 2011, Nigeria will have the highest average GDP growth in the world between 2010 and 2050. Nigeria is one of two countries from Africa among 11 Global Growth Generators countries.

Indigenization and Economic Development: The Nigerian Experience

In his account of Nigeria's indigenization programme, Balabkins (2020) asserts that Nigeria's evolution into a one-product export economy, accompanied by a decline in agriculture and little industrial growth happened at the same time that Nigerians assumed ownership in basic economic sectors. Deeply pessimistic about the ability of Nigeria's "anarchic" polity to translate the short-lived oil bonanza into real economic development, the author takes refuge in what seems a prescriptive flight of fancy, suggesting that the country should utilize its oil wealth in a forced-march modernization programme run by expatriates under stern military rule-then return to laissez-faire.

Apart from the taxes that are paid to the Nigerian government by multi-national corporations, the host communities (both the human and animal lives as well as property) suffer adversely from gas flaring, oil spills, air pollution, environmental degradation, and so on. Only a very few Nigerians, particularly the Yoruba, occupy a few managerial positions in the Multi-National Corporations operating in Nigeria and virtually all the menial jobs ranging from mechanical, to driving, sewage evacuation and disposal, stock keeping, gardening, domestic services like laundry, cooking, car wash, messengers, and cleaners, are done by Nigerians and some blacks in the elitists capitalists companies.

This is exactly what Walter Rodney, in his book, “How Europe Underdeveloped Africa” observed many years ago when he lamented: “There were several reasons why the African workers were more crudely exploited than their European counterparts in the present century. Firstly, the alien colonial state had monopoly of political power, after crushing all opposition by superior armed force. Secondly, the African working class was small, very dispersed, and very unstable owing to migratory practices. Thirdly, while capitalism was willing to exploit all workers everywhere, European capitalists in Africa had additional racial justifications for dealing unjustly with the African worker. The racist theory that the black man was inferior led to the conclusion that he deserved lower wages; and interestingly enough, the light-skinned Arab and Barber populations of North Africa were treated as 'blacks' by the white French”.

However, in the face of these adverse effects of hosting the Multi-National Companies in the Nigerian communities, the indigenes cannot sufficiently fight for their rights as the world power will throw in their weight to quell whatever problem seems to go beyond measure in those host communities of their operation. Take for instance, during the administration of the Late Alhaji Umaru Musa Yar'Adua's in Nigeria, the activities of militants were at its peak. Instead of government finding a way to ensure that the problems of the host communities and those of the citizenry were sufficiently tackled by these operating capitalist's companies, the government rather sought ways to calm the situation and offer the militants amnesty.

As observed by Udoh (2014), the Group Managing Director and Chief Executive of Union Bank Nigeria Plc, Barth B. Ebong, had noted that, "the President, Alhaji Umaru Musa Yar'Adua (now late President of Nigeria) launched a 7-Point Agenda that sought to fast-track the country's development process by tackling such issues as power and energy, food security, wealth creation and employment, transportation, land reform, security of lives and property, as well as education.

The non-resolution of the Niger Delta issue continues to present grave social and economic challenges for the country. The kidnapping and hostage taking in the Niger Delta, which has now extended beyond the oil-producing states, remains a source of worry. However, by initiating consultations with ethnic and militant organizations, endorsing the Niger Delta regional development master plan, which was earlier launched in March, 2007 and culminating to the establishment of the Ministry of Niger Delta Affairs and the subsequent composition of its commission, it is hoped that the present regime would be able to satisfactorily resolve the "issues at stake".

Furthermore, and economically speaking, "the domestic money market remained largely stable, reflecting the micro-economic stability that prevailed during the period under review. The real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) grew by 6.2 per cent in 2007 compared with 6.0 per cent recorded in 2006. Revenues accruing into the Federation Account suffered a decline of about 5.7% compared to the level attained in 2006. This was due mainly to the disruption of petroleum production by the militants in the Niger-Delta. The impact of this development was, however, moderated by the continuous rise in the prices of crude oil in the international market, as well as increased activities in the non-oil sector.

Notwithstanding the buoyant performance of the non-oil sector, the industrial sub-sector witnessed a decline as output fell by 3.1% in the review period compared to the preceding year. For two consecutive years, inflationary pressures were largely contained within the single digit. At the end of March, 2008, the year-on-year inflation rate was 7.8% compared to 5.2% in the preceding year. The Naira witnessed further appreciation during the year under review in both the Wholesale Dutch Auction System (WDAS) and the Bureaux De Change (BDC) segments of the market. The Naira/dollar exchange rate appreciated by 7% in the WDAS segment of the foreign exchange market, improving from N126.29 per dollar in March, 2007 to N118.04 per dollar in March, 2008, compared to an appreciation of 1.54% in the preceding year. In the BDC segment of the market, the Naira appreciated by 8.35%, as the dollar fell from N129.79 in March, 2007 to N119.99 in March, 2008.

Finally, we found out that, "the boom witnessed in the capital market in the previous year continued until the last quarter of the review period. The market capitalization increased from N6.150 trillion at the end of March, 2007 to N12.126 trillion at the end of March, 2008, representing a growth of 97% compared to 86% in the preceding year. The All-share index increased by 45% to 63,016.56 at the end of March, 2007. Since early March, 2008 however, to the consternation of one and all, stockbrokers inclusive, stock market prices have been experiencing a free-fall" (Udoh, 2014).

Conclusion

Having explored the extent of dependency of Nigeria on the Foreign Powers, vis-à-vis the Multi-National Corporations operating within the shores of Nigeria, and their ardent and constant level of exploitation of Nigeria's economy, it is high time for Nigerian government to do something about this situation. Nigeria should embark on total indigenization in order to save her economy from further exploitation and degradation.

Recommendations.

i) Government must ensure that all industries, companies and allied ventures operating within the shores of Nigeria are indigenized, so as to check further capital flight, encourage indigenous companies and boost her domestic economy.

ii) Government should evolve a plan and a curriculum that would ensure that from the Nursery School level, pupils are taught the importance of patriotism, indigenization, industrialization etc. up to the Primary, Secondary and Tertiary levels of education. Every Nigerian child must be taught how to produce and manufacture at least one product.

iii) Graduates should be trained with the skills to manufacture all kinds of products. The reason why China, South Korea and other emerging Asian Tigers are just taking the center-stage now in the world economic scheme is because everybody has decided to be involved in those countries.

iv) Finally, government should bring back the age-long maintenance culture. Today, there is a clear evidence of lack of maintenance culture in Nigeria.

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Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) and the Economic Growth of Nigeria

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Abstract
The study was undertaken to examine the contributions of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) to the economic growth and development of Nigeria, to determine the impact of funding on the growth of Small and Medium Enterprises and to highlight the strategies adopted by the Government towards the promotion of SMEs. Endogenous Growth Theory propounded by Paul Romer and Robert Lucas Jnr in the 1990s was adopted to guide the Study. At the end of the Study, it was revealed, amongst others, that the Government has not adequately given financial support towards the promotion of Small and Medium Enterprises, that Small and Medium Enterprises have the capacity to boost economic growth and development but hampered by inadequate government support. Hence, it was recommended, amongst others, that government should ensure adequate funding of SMEs. Also, government should grant tax holidays to SMEs within their first two years of operation to enable them survive and withstand competition and ensure capacity building through vocational training of the SMEs operators.

Keywords: Small and Medium Enterprises, Economic growth, Development, Government.

Introduction
In recent times, the world economy has developed tremendously and this development can be attributed to the activities of Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) especially in the developing countries of the world. The roles played by SMEs in communal and economic development cannot be underestimated. Admittedly, the SMEs sector is the highest employer of labour and contributes immensely to the gross domestic products of any meaningful economy. Small and Medium Enterprises have been in existence all over the world since the era of trade by barter. In every society, thousands of Small and Medium scale enterprises abound, which started off as cottage enterprises. They consisted of wood carving, weaving, basket making, wine tapping, black smiting etc. All these ventures were carried out in addition to farming. In some cases, these early enterprises were operated by the head of the family and assisted by other family members. Therefore, these traditional businesses later transformed into modern small

and medium scale enterprises as society advanced. Onuoha, cited in Ama and Okafor (2008), thus affirmed that these traditional businesses are now known as small and medium enterprises, operating on modern types of businesses like carpentry, shoe making, hair dressing, palm oil processing, fruit juice production, cassava processing, rice milling, soap production, amongst others.

By their nature, small scale enterprises emphasize the acquisition of practical and applied skills as well as business education in order to exert a positive impact on the economy. The various economic activities of small scale enterprises have constituted a potent instrument for nation building and economic growth in Nigeria and other parts of the world.

Small and Medium Enterprises in Nigeria are perceived as the hub of all economic activities and serve as the key source of economic growth and development. To this end, a study carried out by the Federal Office of Statistics shows that 97 percent of all businesses in Nigeria employ up to 100 employees every year, implying that 97 percent of all the businesses in Nigeria fall under the category of small and medium enterprises. The sector provides an average of 50 percent of Nigeria's employment and 50 percent of its industrial output. Indeed, there appears to be a consensus that development of SMES in Nigeria is a step towards building a vibrant and diversified economy (Mahmoud, 2000).

The dynamic contributions of small and medium scale enterprises as the engine of economic growth in Nigeria and other developed countries cannot be overemphasized. That is perhaps why Cook and Nixon (2001), observed that the development of small and medium scale enterprises should be seen as attempts towards the achievement of a wider economic and socio-economic objectives, including poverty alleviation. Kuteyi (2018) concurred in this regard when he noted that small and medium scale enterprises drive their country's development as they create employment and contribute to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In the same vein, Murital (2012) also affirmed the increasing likelihood for Small and Medium Scale Enterprises to utilize labour intensive technologies in their operations. By so doing, there is reduction of unemployment particularly in developing countries and thus the creation of immediate impact on employment generation.

Small and Medium Enterprises are expected to facilitate the growth and development of human and capital resources towards general economic growth and development particularly in the rural sector. In view of the expected contributions from SMEs, the Nigerian government in collaboration with the different states of Federation had, in the past devised policies and incentives for the development and promotion of Small and Medium Enterprises. Such efforts, according to Adebusuyi (2007) could be classified broadly into three categories namely: incentives (fiscal and export), tariff regimes and financial support and Technical Assistance Programmes. The fiscal incentives include tax relief for SMEs during the first six years of operation, granting of pioneer status for a period of five years, with a possible extension of two years for enterprise located in economically disadvantaged areas, provision of relief for investment in infrastructure and capital allowances and minimal local raw materials utilization income of 20 percent. Exports incentives include the introduction of import duty drawback, export credit and insurance schemes etc.

Over the years, the government emphasised the development of small and medium businesses as a means of encouraging self-employment, poverty reduction and accelerated economic growth. For this reason, small scale businesses seem to have contributed over 50% of the employment opportunities in Nigeria and over 40% of the Gross Domestic product (GDP). Nevertheless, unemployment, poverty and slow economic growth have continued to exist in the country. It has been noted that Small and Medium scales business have high failure rates as up to 95% of small and medium scale enterprises fail within the first five years of operations (Asaolu, 2012).

On his part, Adelaja (2013) argued that access to institutional finance has always constituted a constraint for the development of SMES in Nigeria. He recalled that in the past, a number of schemes had been put in place to provide special credit facilities for SMEs but that this achieved very limited impact. To that effect, Sacerdoti (2005) also observed that even banks with retained liquidity ratio in excess of what is required by law have shown reluctance in extending loans to SMEs especially on long term basis as they are considered highly vulnerable with high credit risk.

However, it is an obvious fact that small and medium scale enterprises owners do not have sufficient funds to carry out their businesses due to the low saving culture of people in this part of the world. The reason can be easily noticed basically by the low level of income they earn.

In a bid to protect SMEs from dumping, the government adopted the use of high tariff rates to discourage importation of some of the industrial goods that could be produced domestically and in some cases, complete ban on a variety of industrial and agricultural products. To provide funds to small and medium scale enterprises by way of commercial loans, the Bank of Industry (BOI) and the Nigeria Agricultural Co-operative and Rural Development Bank (NACRAB) were established. Also established were Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN) and other national economic agencies to provide sundry support schemes for SMEs.

In Nigeria, it appears that despite the enormous potentials of the small enterprises sector and its immense contribution to sustainable economic development, its performance still falls below expectations (Arinaitwe, 2006). This is because the Small and Medium scale business sector in the country has been bedeviled with several constraints militating against its performance and leading to increase in the rate of failure of small enterprises.

Against the backdrop of the interest and belief in the SMEs as a catalyst towards the industrialization and economic growth of Nigeria in general, the study focuses on the promotion of Small and Medium Enterprises and their contributions to the economic growth of Nigeria.

Theoretical Framework

Endogenous Growth Theory

This paper is anchored on "Endogenous growth theory" propounded in the late 1980s and early 1990s by Paul Romar and Robert Lucas Jnr. The basis of this theory is that investment in human capital; innovation and knowledge are significant contributors to the economic growth of any nation. This theory further upholds that the long run growth rate of an economy depends on the policy measures of the government, for example, subsides for skills acquisition, education, research and development as well as increase in incentives for innovation.

Therefore, the theory is considered relevant to the study because small and medium enterprises originated from the entrepreneurial skills acquisition, innovation and knowledge of the operators. In view of their contributions to economic growth, government should ensure that favourable policy measures that will guarantee the success of human capital development, such as skills acquisition, innovation and access to finance for the business are instituted.

Characteristics of Small and Medium Enterprises

By their nature, small and medium enterprises, are those businesses that are generally limited in the size of capital formation, the number of operators, style of management as well as the scope of operation. The reason for this can be attributed to the fact that such business enterprises exist as new companies or that such businesses are in a developing country like Nigeria. In reality, the nature of the small and medium scale business is due to the fact that the enterprises are usually established and financed with the modest income of the owners Nwafor (2005). Thus, SMEs are very easy to establish. Again, Small and Medium Enterprises are usually managed by the owners. These owners cum managers may not have acquired requisite professional training, capable of attracting relevant managerial skills. This means that there is no separation between ownership and management of the business. Although most of the large businesses started on a small scale, paucity of funds has always been a challenge.

Another feature of SMEs is the obvious difficulty encountered by the owner(s) to raise adequate funds for takeoff or expansion of the business. This is because SMEs cannot sell shares to the public and due to other constraints such as inability to raise loans from banks without collateral accounts for the limited capital.

The small and medium scale owners are well known by all employees and the owner(s) know all the employees. This control relationship, if properly harnessed can enhance the productivity of the enterprise, hence business viability can be assured. Some SMEs operators in Nigeria are either uneducated or possess low-level education. This consequently amounts to low level of business management abilities and skills. The resultant effects of this include lack or poor accounting keeping, lack of market information or research etc.

Contributions of Small and Medium Enterprises to the Economic Growth of Nigeria

The contributions of Small and Medium Enterprises to the growth and development of any economy cannot be over emphasized. It is in recognition of this fact that Cook and Nixon (2001) stated that the development of small and medium scale enterprises should be seen as attempts towards the achievement of a wider economic and socio-economic objectives including poverty alleviation. Some of the contributions include:

Creation of Employment Opportunities: Small and Medium Enterprises are known for employment generation globally. This is so because these enterprises are the type of businesses that can be established with little income. This explains why many Nigerians venture into establishing small and medium scale businesses, largely on account of the high rate of unemployment in the State. Small and Medium Enterprises create ninety 90% percent of new jobs in the nation's private sector, The Guardian (2008). That is to say that in order to solve the critical problems of unemployment in the state, the government should stimulate and encourage the rapid growth of small and medium scale enterprises.

Provides Training Ground to Indigenous Entrepreneurs: Small and Medium Enterprises constitute the foundation of a reliable supply of local entrepreneurs who are poised to contribute their quota to the economic growth. Thus, SMEs provides opportunities to enterprising men and women to participate in the development of their different communities and the nation at large (Oguri and Anyawu. 2006).

Effective Strategy for Stemming Rural-Urban Migration: For the fact that Small and Medium Enterprises can be easily established with little capital of an individual anywhere in the world, rural – urban drift in search of greener pastures can be curtailed. Therefore, the establishment of small and medium enterprises has gone a long way in employment generation to the rural dwellers, and in turn discouraged them, especially the youths, from flooding the urban centres in search of jobs.

Establishment of Appropriate Interface with Large Scale Enterprises: Small and Medium scale Enterprises interface with the various sectors of the economy for accelerated economic growth. It is apparent that SMEs constitute the market for agricultural, extractive and industrial outputs. They also provide readily available sources of raw materials and labour inputs for large scale production. (Onuoha, 2008). Equally, Small and Medium Scale Enterprises serve as training ground for entrepreneurial talents that are capable of growing into larger industries. For instance, the activities of Ekene Dili Chukwu Motors, Innoson Automobile Company, amongst others, started as small and medium scale businesses. This implies that many large business organizations all over the world started as small and medium scale enterprises.

Aid to Industrialisation: According to Akinyode (2004), Small and Medium Enterprises aid industrialisation by ensuring the supply of raw materials, high quality parts and components of equipment required by factories for production. The author added that the establishment and growth of small and medium scale enterprises into large factories accelerate the pace of industrialization. With this, industrial diversification is guaranteed. Promotion of Competition: Small and Medium Enterprises encourage healthy competition which is fundamental to the growth of any economy. Therefore, the issue of monopoly is reasonably minimized in the society (Sanusi, 2003). This is obvious in sachet and bottled water production which has defied the menace of monopoly in Nigeria where producers competes with each other, has resulted in generating the desired competitive effects in the national economy.

Utilisation of Local Resources: Small and Medium Enterprises are known for their utilisation of indigenous raw materials. They often concentrate on the utilization of farm produce and other natural resources in their business activities such as food processing, textiles, weaving, wood work, etc.
Provision of Specialized Services: There are so many specialized services that most

large firms would not provide. Such services as dry-cleaning, hair dressing, tailoring, etc. are usually provided by small and medium scale enterprises to their customers in their immediate environment.

Poverty Alleviation: Small and Medium Enterprises contribute in alleviation of poverty among the populace. Cook and Nixon (2001) concluded that the development of small and medium scale enterprises is purely an attempt towards the achievement of a wider economic and socio-economic objectives including poverty alleviation. Since small and medium scale enterprises are those types of businesses that can be easily established with little capital and skill, people with meagre income and those without any skill or capital can easily secure a means of livelihood thereby eradicating poverty. From the foregoing, one can easily understand that small and medium scale enterprises contribute immensely to the economic growth of the country. This is obvious from the various economic activities of SMEs. Therefore, it is believed that if government should map out more strategies towards the promotion of SMEs, more impact in the area of economy growth can be achieved.

Challenges of Small and Medium Enterprises

There are various challenges militating against Small and Medium Scale Enterprises in Nigeria. They include:

Financial Constraints: Financial problem has been identified as one of the major constraints affecting the performance of small and medium scale enterprises. According to Ogunjuiba (2004), lack of finance is usually a constraint to SMEs, this assertion is buttressed by empirical evidence that finance contributes to about 40% of the success of small and medium scale enterprises. In any case, the creation of other appropriate support system and enabling environment are indispensible for their success as well. Some lack competitiveness because they lack the much required financial capacity to prosecute their manufacturing concern. Most of these enterprises cannot access credit facilities.

Lack of Infrastructural Facilities: The performances of SMEs have also been hindered by the lack of infrastructural facilities. Inadequate facilities like epileptic power supply, inaccessible road network, inadequate water supply and poor telecommunication services constitutes the challenges facing SMEs in Nigeria. Omotola (2008) contends that the cost of providing infrastructure by SMEs on their own, in the absence of those facilities, is estimated to be about 30-35% of the cost of establishing their manufacturing enterprises. The epileptic power supply has pushed many SME operators into sourcing for alternative sources of power thereby incurring additional financial burden. The implication has led to downsizing and high operational cost. Such enterprises risk being liquidated.

Unfavourable Government Policies: The inability of the government to execute sound fiscal policies has undermined the capacity of small and medium scale enterprises. Ogujiuba (2004), noted that inappropriate time or delay in budget implementation is a constraining factor on trade and investment decisions. In most cases, the passage of annual budget by the legislature is usually delayed due to discrepancies between the executive and legislature. This state of affairs delays the investment decisions of small and medium scales enterprises particularly on tariff and tax measures in their trade decisions.

Poor Accounting Record: Many small and medium scale enterprises do not keep proper accounting records. This limits such SMEs from access to credit facilities as lending financial institutions always demand for accounting information.

Diversion of Loans to other Purposes: Most of the small and medium scale enterprises which are opportuned to obtain loan from either the government or financial institutions are not financially disciplined. This is because most of them divert those loans, meant to support their businesses to other unproductive areas.

Wrong Location of the Enterprise: One of those factors to be considered in establishing a particular business is a place that will encourage the growth and viability of the business. The factors to be considered in the location of the business include nearness to source of raw materials, market for the finished products, good transportation system, regular power supply, water, etc. Unfortunately some of the small and medium scale enterprises in Nigeria are located in areas that lacked basic facilities. The fallout of wrong location of SMEs is partly responsible for their poor performance.

Government Strategies Towards the Promotion of Small and Medium Scale Enterprises

The government has initiated various strategies for the promotion of small and medium scale enterprises in Nigeria in view of the fact that SMEs drives national economic growth and development as they create employment and contribute to the increase of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) Kuteyi, (2018).
Eze (2002) and Akinyoado (2004) opined that in recognition of SMEs as a vehicle for self-reliant economy, the government has deployed its regulatory mechanism to formulate policies aimed at encouraging SMEs as engine for development. The commitment of government towards the promotion of SMEs is exemplified by the collaboration between the Federal Government of Nigeria and other tiers of government.

The various steps which government has taken include; monetary, fiscal and industrial policy measures to promote the development of Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs). Specifically, the Government has been active in the setting up and funding of industrial estates to reduce overhead costs, establishment of specialised financial institutions such as the Bank of Industry (BOI) and others. Other measures include the establishment of the National Directorate of Employment (NDE), free registration of SMEs with the Corporate Affairs Commission and disbursement of payroll support to SMEs to boost their growth.

Conclusion

Small and Medium Scale Enterprises have contributed enormously to the economic growth and development of Nigeria. However, to benefit optimally from the operation of Small and Medium Enterprises aimed at achieving economic growth and reduce unemployment and poverty among the people, it is imperative for financial incentives, infrastructural facilities, vocational training as well as favourable tax regime to be provided.

Recommendations

1. The Federal Government of Nigeria should establish a separate agency to coordinate the operation of Small and Medium Enterprises operating within its jurisdiction.
2. The Federal Government should establish an industrial estate with appropriate facilities in every state for the business activities of Small and Medium Enterprise operators.
3. The Federal Government should collaborate with the Chambers of Commerce and Industry and other related stakeholders in the states for regular capacity building trainig for operators of SMEs.
4.The Federal Government should make regulations to restrain states and local governments from imposition of multiple levies on registered small and medium enterprises.

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by Geopolitical Zones in Nigeria

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Abstract
T*he underlying idea of the study was based on the assumption that there is an intercourse between the perceived impotency of the country's security architecture such as the Nigerian police and armed forces in securing the lives and property of the people across geopolitical zones and the resort to alternative security measures by the affected regions in the country. The paper adopted the descriptive research technique and assembled relevant data largely from secondary sources. Building on the contemporary theory of securitization, the study probed the questions: what are the factors responsible for the groundswell resort to self-help in the area of security by some geopolitical zones in Nigeria? To what extent could it be argued that resorting to alternative security measures could correct the security imbalances across the country's geopolitical zones? What are the prospects for national growth through state and community policing in the country? Findings from the study revealed that it was the loss of confidence in the country's conventional security architecture that culminated in the proliferation of alternative security outfits across geopolitical zones in the country. The paper recommended that the decentralization of national security architecture through the creation of state and community policing is pertinent in addressing the loopholes in terms of adequate intelligence as well as manpower for effective national security; national security reforms should be carried out in order to check and regulate state police forces against abuses by state political forces; and that government should improve on providing for the welfare of the people through infrastructural development and poverty alleviating schemes in order to reduce the level of insecurity and banditry in the country.*

Keywords: National Security, State Policing, Federalism, Decentralization, Insecurity and Violent Crime, Good Governance

Introduction

Arguably, organized crimes such as terrorism, militancy, banditry, kidnappings among others constitute a major security challenge across countries of the world especially in developing countries. In recent times, Nigeria has been enmeshed in a turbulent security rattrap which has threatened both the unity and development of the nation, as well as led to wanton destruction of lives and properties. Security challenges in the country is getting worse every day while the efforts of government in tackling the menace seems to be incommensurate and obsolete in the light of the present realities. Sadly, many political analysts are of the opinion that Nigeria is fast degenerating into the Hobbesian state of nature where life is solitary, brutish, nasty and short and living has become an issue of survival of the fittest (Adebakin and Raimi, 2012:11). Ethnic tensions, religious differences, limited economic opportunities, and numerous socio-political grievances are all fueling unrest in Nigeria and contributing to flashpoints of violence and recently, the quest for disintegration.

Sadly, as noted by Okechukwu and Anyadike (2013:13), "most Nigerians now sleep with one eye open as those who are lucky to escape burglars are kept awake all night by booming sounds of gunshots or dins of bomb explosions by those too powerful to be stopped" comprising kidnappings, banditry, herdsmen/farmers clashes, as part of the seemingly unending list of insecurity challenges in the country. Glaringly, these vices are happening almost on daily basis across the country's geopolitical zones despite the presence of its national security architecture. This questions the efficacy as well as the competency of the conventional national security architecture of the country. The internal security mechanisms appear to have broken down completely as the state no longer has the monopoly of the means of violence. The proliferation of sophisticated weapons, even more sophisticated in most cases than that of the conventional security apparatus of the nation instills questions in the minds of the citizens on the identities of the sponsors as well as the perpetrators of the crises.

Consequently, the quest for alternative security outfits across some geopolitical zones, most especially the South-Eastern and South-Western zones may be justified by the seemingly impotence of the national security architecture in securing the lives and properties of the people in the affected regions which is the primary responsibility of every government. Arguably, it is pertinent to note that the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 (as amended) has established the Army, Navy and Air force, including the Police and other numerous paramilitary organizations for the purpose of the defence of Nigeria. In the light of the above, as noted by Okodolor (2019:5), "no State Government, whether singly or in a group, has the legal right and competence to establish any form of organization or agency for the defence of Nigeria or any of its constituent parts" but what then happens when these conventional state security architecture fail in carrying out their functions; tends to be the bone of contention and a constitutional lacuna that is intended to be breached through the resort to self-help by the affected geopolitical zones. It is within this context that this paper probed the possible factors responsible for the groundswell resort to self-help in the area of security by some geopolitical zones as well as the extent to which resorting to alternative security measures such as state and community policing could correct the security imbalances across the country's geopolitical zones.

Conceptual and Theoretical Frameworks

National Security

National Security" is often used in the field of international relations, in a technical sense, implies the safety of a nation from danger and protection from internal, external attack or infiltration. In general, Braithwaite (1988:9) quoting the Encyclopedia of the social sciences, defines national security as "ability of a nation to protect its internal values from external threat". National Security involves the measures taken by state actors to safeguard the nation from real or potential threats. It is that aspect of government policy which create enabling atmosphere necessary for the protection and promotion of vital national interest and values against known or potential enemies (Abdullahi and Hassan, 2015:17). Consequently, National security should be concerned with both domestic and foreign interests of a state (Trager & Simonies, 1973:14). National, regional, and global security issues are interrelated concepts. National security is a condition whereby a nation is free from internal, external fear or threat to its peace, stability and progress. There are other classifications of security - political security, the freedom from domination; economic and social security, the freedom from poverty and wants; cultural security, the freedom from ethnic and religious domination; and environmental security, the freedom from environmental destruction, degradation, and resource scarcity. National, regional, and global insecurity affect both the national economy and national development (Abdullahi and Hassan, 2015:48).

However, for many of the four billion inhabitants in the developing countries, security is conceived as the basic level of the struggle for survival (Okolodor, 2019:3), hence, security as a concept should be applied in its broadest sense to include economic security, food security, social security, environmental security, the quality of life security and technological security. The issues being raised by the contending views are that national security of any nation should, as a matter of necessity, go beyond mere amassment of military/police armaments, personnel and equipment; what Imobighe (1990:87) refers to as "pax armament" and stretched to cover the satisfaction of human needs. Thus contemporary national security thinkers and planners have gone beyond the confines of the military to incorporate non-military variables like food availability, high level of production and per capital income and employment generation (Abdullahi and Hassan, 2015:55). The above position lends credence to the fact that national security is more of socio-economic than military because where there is provision of basic infrastructure such as quality education, good roads, employment opportunities, shelter, quality health services etc., the threat to national security, most especially, internal security is minimized.

State Policing and Federalism

In recent times, the term "State Policing" has become a front-burner issue in Nigeria based on the worsening state of insecurity in the country. State policing could be described as an alternative and complementary security outfit organized and funded by member states of the federation for the purpose of assisting the already established national security such as the Nigerian Police, the Nigerian Armed forces, in securing the lives and properties of the citizens. It is an idea geared towards bridging the gap in the country's security operations. Conversely, The Nigerian Police Force (NPF), according to Section 194 of the 1979 constitution, is designated as the national police force with exclusive jurisdiction throughout the country (Egbosiuba, 2013). Section 215 of the 1999 constitution also states that before a state police commissioner carries out an order issued by his governor, he may "request that the matter be referred to the president or such minister of the government of the federation as may be authorized in that behalf by the president for his directions." Thus, the above implies that it is only the security outfit established by the constitution of the country that has the full backing of the law to operate within the confines of the country.

In contraposition to the above, Fashola (2014) affirmed that the call for state police is a subject of the wider clamour for "true federalism". Federalism implies a system of government whereby power and authority is shared between the central and component units. As captured by Wheare (1963), it denotes a method of dividing governmental legislative powers so that the general and regional (central and component) governments are each, within a sphere, coordinate and independent. Prominent lawyers in Nigeria have decried the over-centralization of the police, drawing out implications for public order and safety (Odey and Nanji, 2015). Sadly, governors are the Chief Security Officers of their states with 'security votes', yet they have no control over the police. Rather, it is the Inspector General of Police (IGP) in the FCT, through his Commissioners of Police (COPs) in each state, that has the sole power over this monolith command structure (Eboh, 2014). It is pertinent to note that the first republic had local, regional and central police institutions, in accordance with the tenets of true federalism. Unfortunately, this arrangement was eroded by the military and replaced with the unitary system which the country's democratic order has adopted over the years. Accordingly, Ochei (2014) held that a veritable way out of the current security quagmire would be the establishment of state police formations.

Good Governance

According to Nwekeaku (2015) the term "good governance" is a difficult concept, as it is not always easy to define. It is amenable to different definitions depending on the perception of the person. Specifically, good governance involves: enthronement of a democratic government, which guarantees equal participation of all citizens in governance; provision, promotion and sustenance of the rule of law; provision and protection of the constitution; promotion and protection of the fundamental human rights of the citizens; provision and sustenance of the freedom of the press; availability of a transparent, accountable and participatory governance at all levels of government; regular, free and fair elections; as well as provision of basic amenities, such as portable water, electricity, qualitative education, healthcare delivery, good roads, among others (Nwekeaku, 2015). Writing on personal liberty, freedom and equality of individuals as the essential elements of the rule of law and good governance, Laski (1982) argues thus: A state built upon the condition essential to the full development of our faculties will confer freedom upon its citizens. It will release their individuality. It will enable them to contribute their peculiar and intimate experience to the common stock. It will offer security that the decisions of the government are built upon the widest knowledge open to its members. It will prevent that frustration of creative impulse which destroys the special character of men.

Theoretical Framework

The paper adopts the securitization theory as its theoretical framework. The theory assumes that political issues are constituted as extreme security issues to be dealt with urgently when they have been labeled dangerous, menacing, threatening, alarming and so on by a securitizing actor who has the social and institutional power to move beyond politics (Buzan, Weaver, and Wide, 1998:24). Although the theory at its initial stage focused on international relations, but subsequently, it was modified to include human, national and regional security. The theory is of immense importance to this paper: first, its assumption is regarded as being applied and pragmatic in nature and its research is empirically oriented usually with an emphasis on procedural and institutional concern towards international, national and human security; policy relevance and problem solving. Second, the theory recognizes actors within a society, representing diverse and often conflicting interests. In applying the theory to the security imbroglio faced by Nigeria where killings, kidnappings, rape, banditry, terrorism have become the rule rather than an exception, the theory explains the need for the country to adopt an alternative security approach that is appropriate in salvaging the country from the tightening grasp of insecurity.

Methodology

This study is basically descriptive and qualitative. The descriptive method seeks to unravel the major elements and characteristics as regards the failure of Nigeria's national security architecture, while qualitative method is used to gain a variety of insights so as to discover and identify decision problems and opportunities. The study relies heavily on the use of secondary sources, particularly documentary evidence, records from government agencies, interview reports, books, journal articles conference papers and other relevant materials derived from the Internet. The data were analyzed qualitatively, using the narrative analysis technique.

Contending Issues in the Formation of State Police in Nigeria

In recent times, there have been agitations for the creation of a state policing system in order to tackle the rising rate of insecurity in Nigeria. This agitation, according to Eme and Anyadike (2012), is based on the premise that "each state has its own peculiar security challenges which can only be better managed by the officers who are familiar with the terrain, culture and way of life of a particular people in a given locality." In other words, it is believed that only a decentralized police structure where people who hail from an area and are familiar with the terrain and the criminals in the neighborhood, are entrusted with the responsibility of policing that can carry out and effectively contain crime and criminality. Historically, in the pre-independence era, the Native Authorities were in direct control of their domains. It was the primary responsibility of the native police to maintain law and order in their respective localities. Through the Native Authority police departments, the native authorities were able to enforce local ordinances, byelaws, rules and regulations of the localities or municipalities over which they presided. It was the intervention of the military in the nation's body politics that foisted a centralized police force on the entire country (Eme and Anyadike, 2012).

Conversely, there are others who argue that creating state police at this stage of the present democratic experiment may be an invitation to chaos. Apart from the impunity of office and the possibility of abuse of power, state police could lead to the disintegration of the country, especially now with the fragile unity in the country. The opponents of state police further base their argument on fact of abuse of power by politicians who already use all manner of funny-looking guys as personal guards to terrorize the common man. In addition, they argue that state funds will be used to influence a handful of members of the security agencies to intimidate, harass, maim and in extreme cases, kill innocent citizens who perform their statutory duties (Egbosiuba, 2013). Some may resort to the use of security agents to force reporters to do their biddings. They argue on situations where Governors can order certain uncompromising members of the House of Assembly around for voicing their dissenting views on an election. It will be better imagined than not, if such governors have powers over the police in the name of state police (Egbosiuba, 2013).

In spite of the two contrasting view points, state policing is a prerequisite for the attainment of true federalism in the country. Arguably, the Nigerian police formations could be remodeled to look like the American type where each state has its own police. The arrangement is even more diffused and decentralized going from the community/city police, to the County, State and the FBI. Furthermore, Eboh (2014) revealed that the state police usually take charge of highways and enforcement of state laws, while the cities have their separate police under the authority of a commissioner, who is an appointee of the mayor. In a related development, Britain, a unitary system, has several local and regional police forces under separate and independent Chief Constables such as the Metropolitan Police, Greater Manchester Police, etc. The Metropolitan Police (under the Home Office), which covers an area of 15 miles radius, does not have jurisdiction over London, which has its own city police (Eboh 2014). This arrangement has contributed immensely to the reduction of crime rate in both the United States and United Kingdom. Similarly, unitary systems like France also operate a decentralized police force. While the gendarmerie is supervised by the armed forces, the "Surete Generale" is under the authority of provincial prefects who are the equivalent of governors. Paris, the capital, has its own police, called the Paris Prefecture (Segun, 2014).

Interestingly, the current national security architecture such as the Nigerian Police seems to be helpless in the midst of rising rate of insecurity in the country. It is not unusual to see policemen collecting bribes from privately owned public transport vehicles on major highways all over the country (Odey and Nanji, 2015). In some cases, policemen delay transport companies on the highway for failure to give them bribe (Eboh, 2014). Some motorists and commuters have lost their lives for these reasons, to psychologically imbalanced, trigger-happy policemen. Also, a lot of these police officers are not adequately trained and are ill-equipped to fight crime. Some criminals are even more equipped than the police (Egbosiuba, 2013). The result is that many of them get killed in the line of duty. Others in 'reverence' of superior fire power allow criminals finish their operations before showing up at a crime scene, thereby leaving the populace vulnerable to the criminals. Instances abound in which states like Borno, Lagos, etc. have made diverse contributions in kind to the police formations within their jurisdictions. These comprised vehicles to boost rapid response, communication gadgets, armored personnel carriers, etc. to enhance the quality of policing. In the light of the above viewpoint, Odey and Nanji (2015) reiterates that "if states are given the constitutional backing to handle their police affairs, the quality and by extension, the confidence of the policemen, even those on the streets, will be boosted".

Insecurity and the eesort to Alternative Regional Security Outfits by Geopolitical Zones in Nigeria

The precarious security situation in Nigerian has shown very clearly that Nigeria is more threatened from within than from without or any external aggressor. It is on this note that Egbefo and Salihu (2014) list out the fundamental causes of insecurity in Nigeria: first, the issues of good governance and accountability. This issue has been a mirage and lacking among our leaders, be it at the local government, state government and federal level. The issue is also lacking in the private sector of the economy. (Azeez, 2005; Babawale, 2007 Akanbi, 2004; Asemota, 2004). However, the issue of bad governance has remained a cog in the wheel of national security and economic development. The second factor is the poor nature and scope of economic development. This centres on: first, what has been happening to poverty, second, what has been happening to unemployment and lastly, what has been happening to inequality? (Seers, 1969, Alkali 1997, Artwood 1998, Boeniger, 1991, Muo, 2007). The third factor is the effects of rapid population growth on the economic development of Nigeria. This has been identified as a major cog in the wheel of economic development in Nigeria and reasons for internal security threat since 1960 (Balarinwa, 1987, Buhari 1997).

The growing rate of poverty and hunger among Nigerians, is the fourth factor. Poverty is a situation or condition of hopelessness and a condition of being poor and wretched. (Aliyu (1998) defined poverty as a situation in which people live below a predetermined standard value in terms of income and conditions of living, hence the rating and description of individual and nations as being poor. About 50% of Nigerians live below poverty line and about 70% live in rural areas with no infrastructure, food, shelter and so on. According to Aliyu (1998), most Nigerians are hungry and always aggressive and intolerant. The effect of poverty and lack of food makes the poor to indulge in violence and antisocial activities which threaten the security of the state. (Agbede, 2005; Eitzen 1980; Obasanjo, 1999; Olagbemiro, 1999).

High rate of illiteracy among Nigerians is the fifth factor. The rate of illiteracy is very high in the country and figures from various education departments show that education in some part of Nigeria has witnessed a progressive decline over the years. The implication is that social, political and economic mobilization policies of the government do not trickle down to the majority of the youths and other agents of peace (Alli 2006, Alphonsus, 2004, Suleiman 2008). Booth Nwolise (2008) and Ali (2006), thinking along the same line, posited that threats to national security can manifest in economic, political and social forms. McNamara (1968) also warns that coercive force alone cannot guarantee national security especially in situations of structural injustice and endemic poverty. Some scholars have adduced that other causes of insecurity in Nigerian include dysfunctional legal system, problem of job insecurity; greed capitalism practiced in the country; various classes of corruption; and the unemployment of the youth especially those with primary and secondary and university education.

The above factors, as earlier discussed above, have far reaching consequences on the safety of lives and properties of the citizenry, thus, the agitation for alternative security outfits by some geopolitical zones. Accordingly, there is a nexus between bad governance and insecurity of a nation. A nation where there is leadership failure tends to be at the cross fire of insecurity compared to nations where essential services such as good education, jobs, good health services, among other basic social amenities, have been put in place by the leaders. Sadly, what obtains in Nigeria overtime, has been humongous cases of embezzlements of public funds. According to Ngwube and Okoli (2013), corruption leads to the use of resources to finance elephant projects at the expense of infrastructural development such as schools, hospitals, roads, water supply and electricity supply. Osoba (1996) cited in Alemika (2012) posits that financial corruption dents a nation's capacity to provide the basic necessity of life for the populace. Political corruption is the main factor responsible for Nigeria underdevelopment in all sectors (Egharevba and Chiazor, 2012), hence insecurity is one of the symptoms of corruption and underdevelopment.

Consequently, there are state/community security groups in the states, even though they have not been officially designated as state police (James, 2014). In Kano State for instance, it is called the Hisbah and is used by the state government to enforce the sharia legal system. In some south western states, there is an existence of a state security outfit codenamed “Amotekun”. The initiative was decided after a security summit as a response to the rising insecurity in the region (Adibe, 2020). These insecurity challenges range from kidnapping to armed robbery, banditry, farmers-herders clashes and other crimes. At the end of the security summit, the six governors in the South West region – Oyo, Lagos, Ogun, Osun, Ekiti and Ondo – under the umbrella of Western Nigeria Governors' Forum (WNGF) – decided to form a uniform security outfit. This culminated in the launch of the outfit at an elaborate ceremony at the Government House, Ibadan. The host governor of Oyo State, Seyi Makinde, the convener and chairman of the Western Nigeria Governors Forum (WNGF), Governor Rotimi Akeredolu of Ondo State and Governor Kayode Fayemi of Ekiti State were present. Governors Gboyega Oyetola of Osun State and Dapo Abiodun of Ogun were represented by their deputies (Mr Benedict Olugboyega Alabi and Alhaja Naimot Salako-Oyedele respectively), while the Lagos State governor, Babajide Sanwo-Olu was neither present nor represented. In the south-eastern region, the current formation of a state security network codenamed Eastern Security Network (ESN) has remained a controversial issue which has heated up the polity. Glaringly, the formation of the above security outfits by geopolitical zones mirrors the failure of the national security architecture in protecting lives and properties across geopolitical zones.

Results and Discussion

The paper examined the nexus between the perceived failure of the national security architecture of Nigeria and the resort to alternative security measures by geopolitical zones of the country. From the foregoing, findings reveal as follows: first, it is the loss of confidence in the country's conventional security architecture that culminates in the proliferation of alternative security outfits in the country across geopolitical zones. This is evident in the formation of Amotekun in the South-West geopolitical zone, Eastern Security Network (ESN) championed by the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB). Second, leadership failure in the area of provision of basic amenities such as quality education, job creation, quality health services, constant electricity among others; has far reaching consequences on the security of lives and properties in the state. Put differently, bad leadership breeds bad and insecure nation. Third, the failure of the prevailing national security architecture in effectively tackling the issue of insecurity in the country is as a result of its centralized security network which makes its lack the needed intelligence, as well as the manpower in tackling the situation. Fourth, the fear of disintegration and possible abuse of the proposed state security outfit by respective states, has been the major teething and impeding factors to its formation.

Conclusion and Policy Recommendation

In conclusion, evidences from the analyses so far lend credence to the groundswell assumption that the perceived impotency of the country's security architecture such as the Nigerian police and armed forces in securing the lives and property of the people across some geopolitical zones is the chief determinant factor to the resort to alternative security measures by the affected regions in the country. However, in the light of the above realities, this paper recommends the following:

1. The decentralization of national security architecture through the creation of state and community policing is pertinent in addressing the loopholes in terms of adequate intelligence as well as manpower for effective national security.
2. National security reforms should be carried out in order to establish by an Act of the National Assembly as well as laws of the respective states; check and regulate state police forces against abuses by state political forces.
3. Government should improve on providing for the welfare of the people through infrastructural development and poverty alleviating schemes in order to reduce the level of insecurity and banditry in the country.
4. Stringent punishment should be meted on the perpetrators of heinous crimes such as kidnappings, arson, armed robbery and banditry in order to serve as deterrence to others who are contemplating committing same crimes.

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Sustainable Distribution Strategies Amongst Manufacturers of Sachet Water in Akwa Ibom State: Drivers and Inhibitors.

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Abstract
This study investigated the Drivers and Inhibitors of sustainable sachet water distribution in Akwa Ibom State. Data for the study were obtained from both primary and secondary sources. A total of 180 manufacturers of sachet water purposively selected, were administered questionnaire out of which 151 were correctly filled and returned and served as the sample size for the study. Chi-square statistical tool analysed the data collected. Findings revealed, among others, that drivers and inhibitors affect sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State. Based on the findings, it was recommended, amongst others, that provision of access roads, electricity, and good sources of water will enhance sustainable distribution of sachet water in the State.

Keywords: *Sustainable distribution strategy, Inhibitors, Drivers, Sachet water.*

Introduction
Water is a basic necessity of life. Its availability and accessibility sustains life in both plants and animals. As important as this resource is, it is not always available in large quantities and where users can access it. Supporting this view, Edema, Atayese & Bankola (2011) in Yusuf Jimoh, Onaolapo and Dabo (2015), observed that water is one of the indispensable resources for the continued existence of all living things including man, adding that adequate supply of clean and fresh drinking water is a basic need for all human beings.

MacArthur and Darkwa (2013) in Kusi, Agbeblewu and Nyarku (2015) added that access to portable water improves the health status of the population, and saves time for other productive activities, but worried that not all people have access to portable drinking water in the world. Water scarcity or lack of safe drinking water, they further argued, is one of the world's leading challenges affecting more than 1.1 billion people globally. In Ghana, demand for portable drinking water is on the increase, necessitating the springing up of private entrepreneurs in the production and distribution of purified drinking water to complement the efforts of the government at ensuring that there is adequate water security (Ghana Water Company Limited, 2008, in Kusi et al, 2015).

It is equally argued that apart from distance, the cost level of sharing and queuing are decisive factors that determine actual water availability, accessibility and use (MacGranahan & Darkwa 2013, UNWWAPA 2003, cited in Dada, 2011).

In Nigeria, less than one-third of urban and rural dwellers have access to pipe-borne water supply connections in their homes and those with pipe-borne water may still experience unreliable, poor quality service (WHO/UNICEF, 2014, Kumpel, Albert, Peletz, Waal, Hirn Damilenko, Uhi, Daw and Khush 2016, cited in Nwinyi, Uyi, Awosanya, Oyeyemi, Ugbenyen, Muhammad, Alabi, Ekunife, Adetunji, and Omoruyi, 2020).

Contributing further, the former Director General National Agency for Food, Drug, Administration and Control (NAFDAC), Akungili, cited in Mineer, Tagierum, Hassan, Afolaranmi, Belo, Dakhin and Zoakah (2014), attributed the inability of the Government to persistently provide adequate potable water for the growing population to have tremendously contributed to the proliferation of the activities of the so called 'pure water producers in Nigeria'. Muhammad and Dansabo (2006) added that many years of neglect by government and inadequate investment in public infrastructure has left the public drinking water supply in Nigeria in an unreliable state, making the society to take to several adaptive measures of alleviating this stress, one of which is depending on sachet water. This study is an attempt to examine sachet water distribution with particular reference to inhibitors and facilitators.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The major objective of this study was to investigate the drivers and inhibitors and their effects on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.

The Specific objectives were:

i. To identify the drivers and inhibitors of sachet water distribution in Akwa Ibom State.
ii. To examine the effects of these inhibitors on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.
iii. To ascertain the effects of these drivers on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.

1.3 Research Questions

i. What are the drivers and inhibitors on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.?
ii. What are the effects of drivers on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State?
iii. What are the effects of inhibitors on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

i. The effects of drivers and inhibitors are not significant on the sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.
ii. The effects of inhibitors are not significant on the sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.
iii. The combined effects of both drivers and inhibitors on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State is not significant

2.1 Conceptual Studies

The Concept of Sustainability

Becker (2012) cited in Urmetzer and Pyka (2019) saw “sustainability” as the ability to establish continuance as a means for orienting human actions and life toward the three-fold relatedness of human existence to contemporary future generations and nature. Kotler and Keller (2009) added that in sustainability, the firm must be sufficiently committed and willing to devote enough resources to create an enduring positioning. What is more, businesses need a balance of activities to remain profitable, noting that what seems to be good business practices such as focusing investment and technology on the most profitable products current in high demand, can ultimately weaken the firm (Dearing, 2000).

WCED (1987) cited in Urmetzer and Pyka (2019) views sustainable development as that which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of other generations to meet their own needs. Tor – Anyiin (2008), on his part, sees sustenance in terms of how every member of the society has the freedom and capacity to perform.

A sustained distribution strategy should devise a means of re-distributing its resources in such a way that no citizen feels cheated, underrated, undermined, or marginalized. Members of the channel should be people who can successfully manage the resources of the society, they must have the ability to make the resources available in spite of major disturbances and must be able to maintain an acceptable and increasing level of the resource. When applied in the context of this study, sustainable distribution strategy can then be said to be that distribution strategy that attempts to meet the water needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generation to meet their own water needs.

Distribution Strategy

Kottler and Keller (2009) view a strategy as a company's game plan for achieving its goals. Distribution strategy, according to Samuel (2015) encompasses putting the right product in the right location at the right time, adding that it is an intimidating challenge that involves a delicate balance of demand forecasting, online, mobile and traditional brick-and-mortar channel selection, availability management, partner or retailer collaboration and much more. Jobber (2009), cited in https://www.grossarchive.com/index.php, argues that planning for, and making reasonable decisions regarding reaching the target market with an organization's product is a critical task on the part of management, involving a careful evaluation and selection of its channel structure and intensity. He insists that getting the right product produced, with the right market price and backed up with an effective promotional strategy, are quite necessary for sustainable competitive advantage, adding that these will not guarantee maximum customer satisfaction if the products are not delivered optimally and timely to the customer at the right location. This brings to the fore, the central role of distribution in the marketing system as inability to deliver the product to the desired destination will result in loss of customer retention.

Sachet Water

Sachet water is any commercially treated water manufactured, packaged and distributed for sale in sealed food grade containers and is intended for human consumption. The production of sachet water in Nigeria dates back to the late 90s and today, the advancement in scientific technology has made sachet water production one of the fastest growing industries in the country. Its patronage in the country is on the increase irrespective of whether they have NAFDAC certification or not. Another name for sachet water in Nigeria is “Pure Water” defined as colourless, odourless and tasteless with high boiling and melting points, as well as high heat of vaporization (Yusuf, Jimoh, Onaolapo & Dabo, 2015).

Stoler, Tutu, Ahmed, Frinpong and Bello, (2014) have argued that due to its affordability, convenience and transportability, sachet water is crucial for many households in low medium – income regions, but however worried about the overall desirability of sachet water from a public health and urban planning perspective.

Relationship between sustainability and distribution of sachet water

Miner, Tagurum, Hassan, Afolaranmi, Bello, Dakhim & Zoakah (2014) undertook a study of sachet water; Its prevalence of use, perception and quality in a community of Jos South Local Government Area of Plateau State, using cross sectional study, sample size of 360 consumers determined by using the formulae for single proportions (z^2pq/d^2) and multistage sampling technique, while Epi info software version 3.5.4 at a confidence level of 95%, was used to analyse data collected from respondents. Findings revealed, amongst others, that there is 93.1% use of sachet water among respondents and other sources such as tap water, bottled water, well and stream water. It was also revealed that sixty-seven percent of respondents affirmed that sachet water is safe. It was also found from analysis that the analysis of the five different sachet water brands showed normal physical and chemical values. Microbiological analysis showed presence of coliforms in three out of the five brands of sachet water sampled. Based on the findings, the study concluded that there is presence of contaminated sachet water available to the community, increasing the risk of water borne diseases and contributing to the already prevailing cases present in our society at large. Based on the findings and conclusions, the study recommended that regulatory bodies should do more to improve the safety of drinking water in communities which will ultimately improve their health status.

Dada (2008) studied sachet water phenomenon in Nigeria with particular reference to assessment of the potential health impacts, using representative sampling, a preliminary survey to select the water to be analysed, geographical zooning of the twenty markets spread within the study location, enquiries made at randomly chosen locations, houses, retail, wholesale outlets, to identify popular brand names usually patronized in the market zones of the study area during which ten brands of table water were identified. A total of ten samples for each brand identified amounting to 100 water samples were analysed. Samples were purchased just after production directly from the factory distributors' stores and from outdoor vendors (hawkers), labelled appropriately and transferred within 4 hours to the Microbiology Laboratory, University of Lagos and analysed using the multiple tube fermentation method. Findings revealed amongst others, a 22% non-compliance level based on the zero tolerance standards stipulated by the regulator. Among the recommendations offered is that there should be a policy that would allow for an integrated and holistic approach in managing the sachet water industry.

In another development, Dada (2009), undertook a study captioned “Towards a successful packaged water Regulation in Nigeria”. The study utilized oral interview method where principal officers of NAFDAC (the sole regulatory agency for packaged drinking water) were approached for information relating to their institutional capabilities, management functions and coping capabilities given the multitude of products they regulate, adequacy of staff, transparency and integrity concerns, their approach to regulation and surveillance, the estimates of registered waters, trend of registration in the last few years, issues with technologies allowed etc. Copies of simple structured questionnaire were administered to elicit the opinions of residents of the community on their perceptions with respect to access to public water suppliers, other alternatives etc.

Findings from the analysis of data collected revealed three major areas that need prompt intervention – the adopted regulatory approach, collaborative stakeholder partnerships and institutional capacity. A seven-point recommendation was also presented for the way forward.

Many studies have been reported in literature on the manufacture of sachet water in Nigeria but none has actually paid attention to its distribution which completes the production process and takes the product to the door step of consumer or user and gives him or her place, time and possession utilities. This therefore creates a gap in literature which this study seeks to fill.

Methodology

The study population comprised all the manufacturers of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State. The researcher then made an estimate of 250. Using survey research, questionnaire materials were administered on 180 out of which 151 were duly filled and returned and served as the sample size for the study. Chi-square statistical tool tested the hypotheses for the study. The respondents were assured of strict confidentiality and that they will be used for academic purpose only.

Test of hypothesis

Ho: The effects of the drivers are not significant on the sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom state.

H_1: The effects of the inhibitors are significant on the sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom state.

Table 2: Summary of Tests of Significance of Inhibitors

Variables	χ^2	P-value	Status
Most manufacturers lack basic education	192.728	0.001	Significant
Most of them don't have access to credit facilities	81.596	0.002	Significant
Most of them don't have access to power supply	175.881	0.003	Significant
Don't have access to feeder roads, and some other facilities	165.311	0.003	Significant
Tax policies of government on scale businesses not implemented	128.517	0.001	Significant
Some consumers of sachet water owing the manufacturers	230.007	0.002	Significant
Inability of Government to implement its policies on SME's sub-sector of the economy	126.927	0.002	Significant

Test of hypothesis

Ho: The effects of drivers are not significant on the sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom state

H_1: The effects of drivers are significant on the sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom state.

Table 3: Summary of Tests of Significance of Drivers

Variables	χ^2	P-value	Status
Enabling laws, policies and programmes	138.053	0.004	Significant
Policies, programmes and strategies with action	134.795	0.002	Significant
Water bill payment by consumers will facilitate sustainable distribution	146.000	0.002	Significant
Provision of access roads, electr icity and good distribution network	246.536	0.004	Significant
Acquisition of basic education by manufactures	49.307	0.004	Significant

Data analysis

Data analysis and testing of hypotheses were carried out using Chi square statistical tool. Tables 2 and 3 tested the effects of inhibitors and drivers on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State. The results of tests of inhibitors gave p-values of 0.001, 0.002, 0.003, 0.001, 0.002 and 0.002 respectively and were all significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected in all the cases, implying that inhibitors affect sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.

Table 3 tested the effects of drivers on sustainable distribution strategies of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State. The results of the tests gave the p-values of 0.004, 0.002, 0.002, and 0.004, respectively and are all significant. The null hypothesis was rejected in all the tests implying that all the factors have significant effects on the sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State at 5% level of significance.

Summary of Findings

(a) Inhibitors

1) Most manufacturers lack basic education
2) Most of them don't have access to credit facilities
3) Most of them don't have access to power supply
4) Most of them don't have access to feeder roads and some other facilities
5) Tax policies of government on small scale businesses are not implemented
6) Some consumers of sachet water in the State are owing the manufacturers
7) Inability of government to implement its policies on SME's sub-sector of the economy.

(b.) Drivers

1) Enabling laws, policies and programmes will facilitate sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.
2) Policies, programmes and strategies of government when matched with actions enhance sustainable distribution of sachet water in the State.
3) Water bills payment by consumers drives sustainable distribution of sachet water in the State.
4) Provision of access roads, electricity and good distribution network facilitates sustainable distribution of sachet water in the State
5) Acquisition of basic education by manufacturers enhances sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the foregoing, the study concludes that drivers and inhibitors significantly and positively impact on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State. This follows from the fact that the null hypotheses in all the tests were rejected, showing that all the factors have significant effects on sustainable distribution of sachet water in Akwa Ibom State at 5% level of significance.

Therefore, the study made the following recommendations:

a) Enabling laws, policies and programmes should be put in place to aid sustainable distribution of sachet water in the State.

b) Policies, programmes and the strategies should be matched with actions to fast-tract sustainable distribution of sachet water in the State.

c) Consumers of sachet water in the state are enjoined to settle their water bills promptly to enable the producers serve them better.

d) Provision of access roads, electricity and good sources of water will enhance sustainable distribution of sachet water in the State.

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