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Analysis of the Privatization Exercise of Power Supply Chain in South West Nigeria.

ANALYSIS OF THE PRIVATIZATION EXERCISE OF POWER SUPPLY CHAIN IN SOUTH WEST NIGERIA

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Abstract

This study assessed the impact of privatization exercise in the power sector of the consumers in Nigeria. The study utilized the Pressure Activity State Impact Response (PASIR) network and theories of organic evolution of property rights to examine the impact of privatization on consumers. Both qualitative and quantitative techniques were used in analyzing the collected data. Focus Group Discussion was employed to analyze the effect of the reform of the power supply chain on consumers in 3 out of 11 newly constituted Distribution Companies (DISCO), these are Eko, Ikeja and Ibadan Distribution Companies. Similarly 200 respondents were purposively sampled in Mowe, a suburb of Lagos metropolis, from which 105 questionnaires were retrieved for analysis. Two hypotheses were tested in the study. The first, there is no significant difference in the flow of information, power supply and billing system between affluent and poor neighborhoods was supported by the findings (a $p < .001$). The second, ongoing privatization exercise has significantly improved the billing system, power supply, and information flow was also supported by the findings. The study recommends that the new managers should not place emphasis on economic factors only but also on noneconomic factors particularly information flow and equitable energy distribution.

Key words: Power supply chain, Privatization, Economic factors, Non-economic factors, Consumers.

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Introduction

Availability of energy in right quantity and quality is a much needed tonic for a modern economy (Cho *et al.*, 2012). Thus, it becomes imperative that its availability, development, management, and improvement must have predetermined plans and strategies that are capable of driving the economy towards a true path of sustainable development (Jesuleye, 1999). In recent years, large numbers of developed and developing countries have introduced major electricity sector reforms which have altered significantly the sector's market structure and institutional framework (Girod and Percebois, 1998; Gullen and Foss, 2001). For example, the electric power industry in the US is constantly subjected to holistic re-appraisal and in recent time, the entire supply chain was reported to have gone through a deregulation process that resulted in structural change. The once highly regulated, vertically integrated monopolistic structure is now deregulated into vastly competitive markets. The deregulation process is responsible for major changes in the electric power industry in the US, and arising from these, series of studies which applied Supply Chain Management (SCM) techniques have been carried out to aid the understanding of the identification of the structure of the emerging electricity supply chains, as well as the designing of new paradigms for the modeling, analysis, and computations for electric power markets (Wu *et al.*, 2002; Cho *et al.*, 2012).

Identification of Research Gap

Evidences from literature suggest that the application of supply chain management techniques to the field of electricity supply is still at its infancy. Earlier works in the budding field of Electric Power Supply Chain Management (EPSCM) include that of Cho *et al.* (2012) and Spricket *al.* (2012). Analysts generally posited that the unique characteristics that shaped the picture of an EPSCM and distinguished it from traditional Supply Chain Management (SCM) of some other products may be responsible for this. Some of such include the regional segmentation of its production cum distributional activities (Cho *et al.*, 2012) and the hybrid nature of generating the product, which naturally originates from different energy sources. These differences occurred, according to Spricket *al.*, (2012) because electric power

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generating the product, which naturally originates from different energy sources. These differences occurred, according to Spricket *et al.*, (2012) because electric power always flows from the generators (source) to the consumers (sink) in a physically determined pattern. Its peculiarity also revolves around its service industry nature rather than an industry of commodities.

Another distinguishing feature of EPSCM is traceable to the recent reforms and changes in structure of the electricity market. The sweeping change brought by market liberalisation of the 1990's, altered the status of many state-owned enterprises. This circumstance certainly, created a gap which revolves around the evaluation of performance measurement metrics of the newly formed or unbundled enterprises. EPSCM which is seen as sub set of the larger SCM in literature can be loosely defined as "design, management and development of the supply chain across the entire *electric power* value chain from raw material extraction to the point of services for consumers (Beckmann, 2004; Spricket *et al.*, 2012). The fact that EPSCM is concerned with SCM of intangible products and services underscored the need for application of conceptual framework that analyses the effect of government induced change in market structure of essential societal commodity, in this case electric power.

The use therefore, of Pressure Activity State Impact Response (PASIR) conceptual framework to examine the effect of the deregulation exercise of the electricity power industry on consumers in Nigeria, as done in the study provided some guidance on how consumers at the downstream sector of a chain perceived and evaluated changes in market structure. Therefore, this research amongst other objectives also examined the object flow of both economic and noneconomic factors (material, information and capital) between the constituents of the newly formed EPSCM in Nigeria and its effect on the achievement of the much desired customer's satisfaction and national economic growth.

The paper is structured as follows: The following section presents a summary of Nigeria's power sector reform historical overview. We then review extant literature on EPSCM and the impact of the deregulation of electricity on livelihood standard, the section also reviews the application of PASIR conceptual framework in providing premises which was used to examine the impact of the ongoing unbundling and deregulation of the power sector on the livelihood of the citizenry. In Section four, hypotheses derived are tested and findings of the research work are discussed. The work is concluded in section five.

Literature Review

Review of literature indicated that power sector reform has been strategically employed in the US and Europe to bring about the combination of greater economic efficiency, market functionality and cost saving for households and businesses (Lee and Anas, 1991; Greenway *et al.*, 1997; Girod and Percebois, 1998; Gul'leen and Foss, 2001). The impact of such reform is not much different in developing economies of Asia. Different researchers examined the after effect of reform in the electricity sector of some countries in the region and the overwhelming conclusion was that the restructuring of the market has stimulated economic growth (Lean and Shabash, 2012; Saeki and Hossaini, 2011; Mahedi, 2012).

Literature search also provided evidences on various attempts at evaluating the impacts of the reform exercise in Nigeria. Some of such works include for example Iwayemi (1988) and Aigbokan, (1999), which focused on the effect of the shortages in energy supply on the country's industrialization processes. Also, similar works by Adenikinju (2005), Epko (2009), which holistically analyzed the dependence of the industrial sector in Nigeria on in-house generating, sets as an alternative source of energy supply and its crippling effect on the economy. Other incisive researches on the discourse include the assessment of the technical capacity of the installed infrastructure in meeting generational and distributional needs of consumers (Ajayi, 1995; Turkson and Wohlgemuth, 2001; World Bank, 2001a; World Bank, 2001b; Ndebbio, 2006).

This work differs from all these previous ones by analyzing the immediate impact of the ongoing reform on non-industrial consumers, the study examined through both qualitative and quantitative analyses, the perception of two major economic groups (middle and low income groups) in 2 major cites (Lagos and Ibadan) and 1 suburb (Mowe) in South western Nigeria. By not focusing alone on the economic impact of the privatization on the consumers, this work explored the theoretical thinking of new institutional economic school and the political economic theorists (Buchanan, 1978; Olson, 1982; Brenan and Buchanan, 1985; Drakic, 2007), public choice theory, theory of economic constitution and theory of collective action. These theories argued about the important roles that non-economic factors play in emergence of economic institutions. The theoretical perspectives opined that emergence of economic transition from one economic system into another, cannot be achieved only through changes of economic institutions, no matter how deep and broad that change is.

A Brief History of Power Generation in Nigeria

Originally, the National Electric Power Authority (NEPA) was in charge of the generation, transmission and distribution of the electricity power in Nigeria. But in the year 2000, NEPA was privatized and it transformed into the Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN), a holding company divided into seven generation entities, one transmission company (TC), and eleven distribution companies. The present structure of the reformed electricity supply chain system now comprises:

1. Three hydro and seven thermal Generating Companies (GISCO) with a total installed capacity of about 6,852 megawatt, with available capacity of 4,052MW (as of 31st July 2015). Each entity has been incorporated as a single-asset generating company;
2. A radial transmission grid (330kV and 132kV), owned and managed by the Transmission Company of Nigeria, with the responsibility of undertaking the system operation and market settlement functions, respectively; and
3. Eleven distribution companies (33kV and below) that undertake the wires, sales, billing, collection and customer care functions within their area of geographical monopoly (Oke, 2006, Oseni, 2011).

The transmission company is a monopoly and a national company. It was designed to expand annually in order to meet the increasing demand of electricity. Over time it became apparent that, both the GISCO and TC weren't living up to expectation since at no time between year 2000 when the defunct NEPA was unbundled till date has the installed and transmitted annually generated megawatts hit 5,000 MW. The FGN has remained undeterred by slowness of the reform process in addressing the comatose state of electric power supply chain and this was evidenced with it sticking to its earlier plan of transferring the ownership of the unbundled enterprises to Successor Companies (SC) in 2013. It has been observed by analysts that electricity reform is primarily about improving efficiency in developed countries and improving access and reliability in developing countries (Wu *et al.*, 2002; Cho *et al.*, 2012).

In Nigeria, the sector has witnessed some measure of improvement in power generation if the claim of Bureau of Public Enterprise (2011) is anything to go by, as

the total amount of MW generated rose from 6,852 MW in 2009 to 8,644 MW in 2011, while this claim is not independently verified, what is obvious is that amount of electric power transmitted and distributed in Nigeria has never risen above 5,000 MW. This quantity is grossly insufficient to cater for the needs of a population of about 200 million. By comparison, South Africa, with a population of about 50 million, has an installed electricity generation capacity of over 52,000 MW (BPE, 2011).

Power sector reform in its unique nature involved some combination of product market competition, privatisation and regulation. In developed countries, the process of reform in the electricity sector has been well documented and appears to have been reasonably successful (Greenway *et al.* 1997; Girod and Percebois, 1998). In developing countries, however, the path to reform has been more difficult. Developing countries often suffer from serious institutional weaknesses, making such planned reforms not to produce sometimes their intended benefits (Ebohon, 1996; Iwayemi, 1988, Ajayi, 2016).

Local policy makers in Nigeria doubtlessly are buoyed by the depth of success the telecommunication reform process has achieved in Nigeria, from a little less than 2 million fixed telephone lines available in 2001 pre-reform era, there are over 120 million mobile and fixed telephone lines available now (Nigeria Bureau of Statistics, 2015). Early signs from the post-reform era in the power sector are however showing that the trajectory of the reform processes of the two sectors may not be the same. It is equally becoming increasingly worrisome if the paradigm shift in SCM of power distribution from a nationally owned monopoly, which employed 'a vertical integrated chain model' (see fig 1&2) to different Successor Companies (SC) with different orientations and approaches to the product supply chain can meet the yearning of the consumers (Okoro and Chikuni 2007).

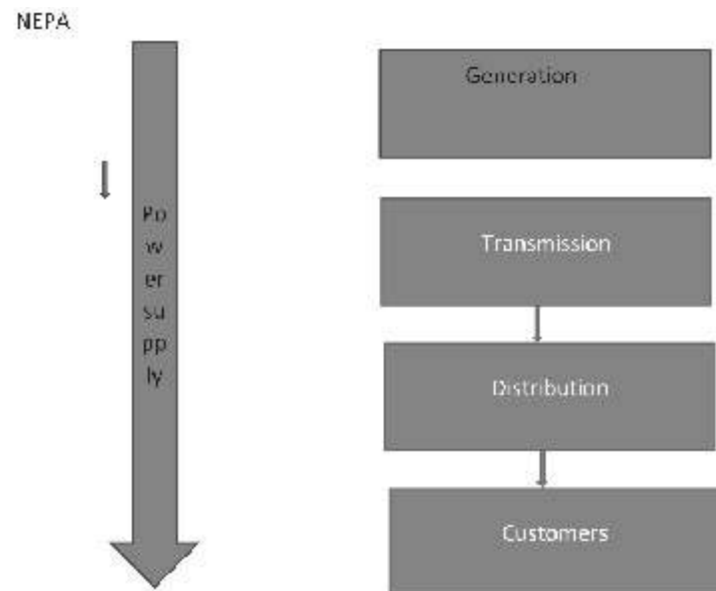
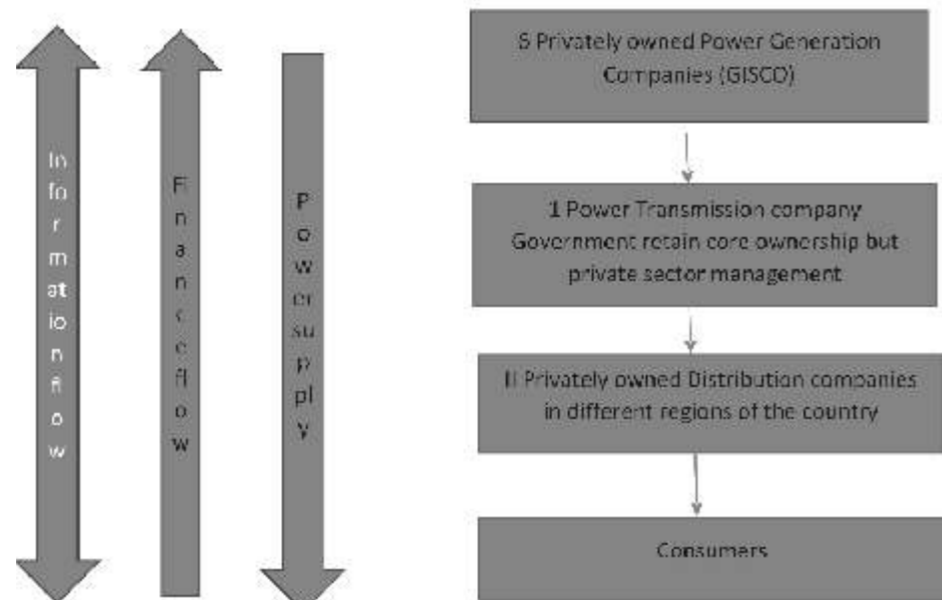


Fig 1: Pre- 2013 reform supply chain distribution in Nigeria.



Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

This study adopted the PASIR (Pressure- Activity- State- Impact and Response) analytical framework. The PSIR (Pressure-State-Impact-Response) framework was originally conceptualized by Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] (1994) and later modified as PASIR by Adenekan, (2005) and Duraiappah et al, (2000) and has been employed in different studies. Some of such studies employed the framework on assessment of environmental policies on citizens (OECD, 1994) and consumers response to challenges arising from reform processes both on energy consumption and land acquisition exercise (Adenekan, 2005; Duraiappah et al, 2000). The various components of the modified framework is employed to explain the operations of the Electric Power Supply Chain Management (EPSCM) in a dynamic environment of a supply chain feed-forward –feedback causality interrelationship. We built on earlier works of these aforementioned scholars in providing a concise analytical framework on the nature of interrelationships among various components of EPSCM. A brief description of the various components, followed by a detailed analysis of the various links and how they interact with each other is provided below.

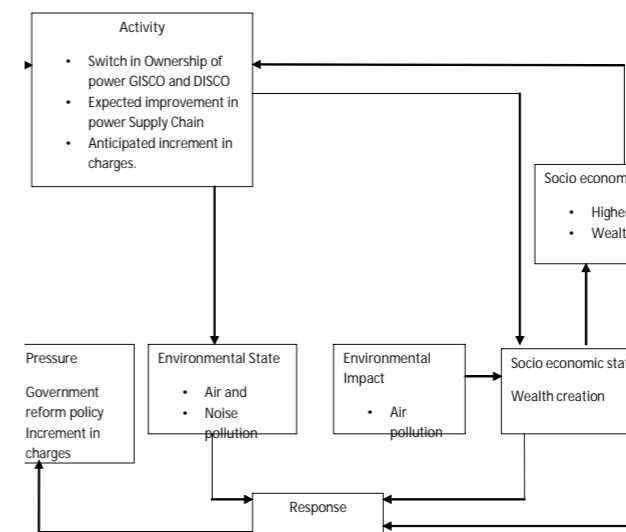


Fig 3; The PASIR framework

Pressure points in our framework are the driving forces, which has impact on both environmental and/or socioeconomic states through socio-economic activities. For example, the new reform policy by the Government is an example of a pressure point that may reduce the rate of generator usage in Nigeria, thus minimizing the rate of air pollution. However this same pressure point may cause a dip in income for some socio-economic groups, through increase of charges paid for electricity, particularly if intended benefits are not felt by the consumers.

Activity is incidental on the nature of pressure experienced. If a pressure point is applied, it is expected that this will generate reactionary activities among other constituents of the framework. For example, the purchase and usage of increased electricity charges may reduce environmental pollution, as generators which cause environmental pollution will be a thing of the past.

States are intended to reflect the effects of the reform on the different income classes sampled.

Impact of the reform on the different categories of income groups, the satisfaction of the consumers and their belief in the capability of the reform exercise to achieve set targets.

Response centres on the feedback from respondents as measured through this research.

Theories of Organic Evolution of Property Rights

The early theoretical elucidation on privatization originated from institutional theory of firm and the theory of transaction cost, this was pioneered by Coase (1938; 1960), and later developed by Alchian and Demsetz (1973), Demsetz (1988), Pejovich (1990). It was from these theories that Pejovich in particular founded the theory of property rights. Theory of property rights has been a central argument surrounding privatization processes for a long time. These theories are germane because they described the necessary actions to be taken to have a functional private property rights in a society. The central argument of these can be summed up thus:

- (a) That individual economic agents, whether they are individual owners or firms are usually the foundation of a nation economic system
- (b) Once the rights of private property is enshrined constitutionally, these

individuals and firms can become autonomous economic agents in the system

- (c) That transaction costs are inevitable for property rights to be actually exercised

Despite its wide acceptability among scholars, the organic theories of evolution of property rights (theory of transaction costs, the theory of firm and property rights theory), has been a subject of intense criticism (Dravick, 2007). A school of thought argued that while they clearly captured the 'utopian picture' of what the end results of a successful privatization process can be, they are deficient in providing a strategic road map of how to achieve the process. This becomes more pertinent when empirical evidences suggest that the same methods implemented in different countries give completely different results (Girod and Percebois, 1998; Cook and Uchida, 2002; Stirbock, 2001; Filipovic, 2005).

In spite of this shortcoming however the theories of organic evolution of property rights are believed to provide invaluable features of privatization transaction that often serves as benchmark for decision makers who manage privatization processes (Drakic, 2007). Perhaps a latter day and more concise theoretical perspective in the body of literature are those of new institutional economics and political economy school of thoughts (Buchanan, 1978; Olson, 1982; Brennan and Buchanan, 1985; Drakic, 2007). These newer theories on the privatization rights in the society are developed mainly from better understanding of the earlier scholarly works of institutional theories of firms and transaction costs (Prejovic, 1990; Drakic, 2007). They are public choice theory, theory of economic constitution and theory of collective action. They differed from the older theories of organic evolution of property rights because they outlined the importance of noneconomic factors in emergence of economic institutions. According to these new theoretical approaches, the emergence of economic transition from one economic system into another cannot be achieved only through changes of economic institutions, no matter how deep and comprehensive that change is. This school of thought also believed that new institutions will function if the foundations of the economic constitutions of the country are changed.

Research Methodology and Results

The study involves data collection in two stages. Primary data were collected using quantitative and qualitative methods. Data for the study were obtained through the administration of questionnaires at household level, while qualitative data were collected through focus group discussions involving household heads. These methods enabled the gathering of data needed as proxy variables for four conceptual modes identified in the PASIR model, as described below:

Pressure: Government reform policy and Increment in charges

Activity: Switch in Ownership of power Transmission Company of Nigeria (TISCO) and Distribution Company of Nigeria (DISCO), expected improvement in power Supply Chain and anticipated increment in charges

State: Household status as characterised by income class

Impact: Higher cost of Living and wealth creation

Response: Feedback from respondent.

The study was carried out in two cities in South West Nigeria- Lagos, Ibadan and a low income high population density area in Mowe a suburb of Lagos. The six (6) participants in the FGD were carefully selected from middle income, medium population density area of Bodija- Akobo and Oluyole Estates Ibadan. The other participants were selected from Apapa, and Ibafo (a middle income neighbourhood on Lagos Island and a suburb of Lagos metropolis). Analysts believed that the most ideal numbers of participants in a FGD should not be less than six and not more than ten, this they observed will guarantee a more reliable result (Thomas, 2004). The participants chosen are all literate, middle class, public servants and private business owners. They are all married with kids and are also heads of their respective homes. The choice of the participant's residential neighbourhoods was influenced by the fact that households in these areas are more affected by prevailing economic conditions, including the pressure points that have been identified in this study. These neighbourhoods were also selected to satisfy the geographical spread for this research to provide analysis on the evaluation of the reform process in the South western zone of Nigeria. Apapa is situated under the jurisdiction of Eko Distribution

Company; Ibafo is situated within the coverage of Ikeja Distribution Company while Oluyole Estate and Akobo-Bodija are within the purview of Ibadan Distribution Company. These are the three distribution companies operating mainly in the South western zone of Nigeria. The high income population group is less affected as they possess, to a greater extent, the economic resources to cope with the increasing cost of living.

Two hundred questionnaires were administered to respondents in Mowe, a low income neighbourhood in Owode-Obafemi local government area of Ogun state and a suburb of Lagos metropolis. Purposive sampling method was employed in administering questionnaires, this sampling method was employed because the neighbourhood is a fast growing one and has experienced a phenomenal growth both in population size and spatial extent from when the last census was done in 2006 (the population size of the local government area at 2006 stood at 228,851), the method was also favoured because of peculiar nature of the research where certain categories of the entire population can successfully meet the criteria for respondents selection processes. In all 200 questionnaires were distributed, from which 105 were retrieved for analysis (55%). Heads of households, business owners and commercial service operators who depend on electricity supply as a basic amenity and a functional component for business operations were deliberately targeted as respondents.

Analysis and results

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) Analysis

Pressure

Participants in the FGD generally agreed that there has been ever increasing pressure on the Management of the organization in charge of power generation and distribution of electric power and the government since the return to democratic governance in 1999.

P1 '.....It is difficult to believe that till date that the country is still grappling with the problems of incessant power supply.....its more painful when you consider the funding the sector has received from the government in recent timesand yet

there is nothing to show for it'.

P2 '.....I stand to be corrected but I affirmed that if the process applied in achieving the reform in the telecom sector are modified and then re-applied.....the problem of power outages would have been largely resolved'.

P3 'The fact that customers kept paying (post paid system of billing) for services not rendered is antithetical and shows that the organizations and the government as being insensitive and unaccountable'.

P4 '.....Any government who can successfully fix the problem of incessant power outages in Nigeria will write its name in gold.....its one change that I desire more than any other in the country'

Activity

P5 '.....the activity of the government in the sector since 1999 doesn't show a directional focus.....there has been much policy somersaults and the lack of a clear cut road map has done a great damage to the system'.

P6 '.....I strongly believe that there is no worthwhile change in the flow of services from generating to distributing units and then to consumers.....information flow along the chain is also very poor.....till now there are no hotlines or emergency phone lines to ring to report power outages or fault....'

P2 '.....The only aspect of the flow that has changed is the billing system....it has been jerked upand quite unreasonably too! The pre-paid meters that were introduced sometimes ago to protect consumers from erratic estimated billing system were substandard...the one in my apartment is damaged and instead of re-fixing.....the distribution company has gone back to estimated billing....this is very unfair'

P3 '.....The new tariff system introduced by the regulatory body is discriminatory and unfair.....it is ridiculous segregating neighbourhoods into class zones and then billing on such infantile premise.....making me to pay more for same quantity of electricity consumed by other consumers is unfair.'

State

P4 '.....The government through the agency handling power sector reform appeared confused.....four successive governments has been battling with the problem in the

last 15 years....billions of US dollars has been thrown at the project and yet the highest distributed capacity hasn't reached 6,000 MW.'

P1 '.....I think arising from the success of the reform exercise of the telecom sector.....some local money bags hijacked the bidding process for the unbundling of

NEPAMost of these investors underestimated the funding needs of power industries and the gestation period for investment to yield returns in the sector'

P5 '.....NERC (National Electricity Regulation Commission; the body in charge of monitoring performance of generating and distributing companies) are not alive to their responsibility....hardly will you hear them reprimanding any of firms for under performance.'

Impact

P6 '.....The reform exercise in my judgement has failed....if in 15 years we can't allude any significant impact to the programme....then i think it will be wise to reinvent the wheel'

P4 '.....I think it is slightly better now.....particularly in the nights on Lagos island.....we have power supply to power fans and air conditioning units to reduce the heat wave at night.'

Response

P3 '.....I still expend a big chunk of my income on fuelling my personal generating sets.....I have 2... I use them mostly weekends.....it causes environmental disturbance.....particularly the noise...but we have no choice'

P5 '.....The noise and the fumes from generating sets are huge sources of environmental disturbance...it worsened in the night when nearly everyone in my neighbourhood powered their set.....sound sleep are often the sacrifice we pay for such'.

P2 '....Realistically I sometimes do not feel like paying the estimated bills from the DISCO operating in my neighbourhood.....it is a rip off....getting full pay for such services not rendered is insensitive'.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES OF THE RESPONDENTS

SEX	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY
MALE	70	66.67
FEMALE	35	33.33
TOTAL	105	100.00
HOUSEHOLD ROLE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY
Headship	48	45.71
Supportive	34	32.38
Dependent	23	21.90
TOTAL	105	99.99
MONTHLY INCOME LEVEL	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY
<N20,000	18	17.14
N20,000-N80,000	40	38.10
N81,000-N100,000	30	28.57
N101,000-N120,000	17	16.19
TOTAL	105	100.00
HOUSEHOLD SIZE	FREQUENCY	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY
<3	13	12.38
3 to 6	55	52.38
7 to 10	3	29.52
11 and above	6	5.71
TOTAL	105	99.99

Analysis of the effect of privatization of electricity power supply chain on consumers

Analysis of Respondents Perception on the On-Going Reform on Electric Power Supply Chain

Analysis of respondents' belief on the role that constant energy supply played on achievement of daily socio-economic target

VARIABLES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY DISAGREED	11	10.47
DISAGREED	12	11.42
AGREED	38	36.19
STRONGLY AGREED	44	41.90
TOTAL	105	99.98

Analysis of how erratic power supply has influenced respondents' economic activities

VARIABLES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY DISAGREED	0	0
DISAGREED	4	3.81
AGREED	46	43.81
STRONGLY AGREED	55	52.38
TOTAL	105	100

Analysis of respondents' belief when comparison is made in performance of power supply between pre and post-reform era

VARIABLES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY DISAGREED	8	7.62
DISAGREED	18	17.14

DISAGREED	13	12.38
AGREED	23	21.90
STRONGLY AGREED	40	38.10
TOTAL	105	100

Analysis of respondents' belief in the on-going reforms as the panacea to the problem of energy supply

VARIABLES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY DISAGREED	28	26.67
DISAGREED	12	11.43
AGREED	23	21.90
STRONGLY AGREED	42	40
TOTAL	105	100

Analysis of respondents' response on the level of professionalism and customer friendliness from staff of new owners

VARIABLES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY DISAGREED	17	16.19
DISAGREED	13	12.38
AGREED	26	24.76
STRONGLY AGREED	49	46.67
TOTAL	105	100

Analysis of respondents' response to seemingly disparity in energy supply between rich/affluent and poor neighbourhoods

VARIABLES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
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Table II shows the sex distribution of the respondents. It was observed that 70 (66.67%) of the respondents are male, while 35 (33.33%) of the respondents are female. Since purposive sampling technique was employed for the study, effort was made to get the household heads and most business owners. The Nigerian society is a male dominated one where important issues such as bill settlement are within the sphere of most men, hence the tilt in the direction of the male respondents.

The next item on the socioeconomic table is the household role of respondents. It was observed that 48 (45.71%) of the respondents are heads of their households, 34 (32.38%) play supportive roles in their household, 23 (21.90%) are dependent in their households. Analysis on the respondents' monthly income follows. 18 (17.14%) earn less than N20, 000, 40 (38.10%) earn between N20, 000 and N80, 000, 30 (28.57%) earn between N81, 000 and N100, 000, 17 (16.19%) earn between N101, 000 and above. Information on monthly income is important in this study because it was a key determinant of how easy it was for the respondents to pay the increased charges being charged by the new owners of the electricity services.

The household size is analyzed next. 13 (12.38%) have household size less than three, 55 (52.38%) have household size between three and six, 31 (29.52%) have household size between seven and ten. 6 (5.71%) have household size of eleven and above. Household size could be a determinant of energy consumption; this may however not necessarily be true.

The first analysis on Table 3 describes the analysis of respondents' daily energy consumption. 23 (21.91%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that their daily energy consumption was on a high scale, while the remaining 82 (77.19%) of the respondents believed that they utilize high quantity of electricity supply on daily basis. The next item describes the extent to which erratic power supply have affected respondents' economic activities. No respondent strongly disagreed that erratic power has not influenced their economic activities, a paltry 4(3.81%) disagreed that erratic power has influenced their economic activities. In comparison, nearly 97 % of the respondents agreed that erratic power has negatively influenced their economic activities.

When asked to make comparison in power supply between the pre-reform and post reform era, 37 (35.24%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that power supply has been better, 18 (17.14%) disagreed, 42 (40%) agreed and 8 (7.62%) strongly agreed that power supply in the pre-reform era was better. It is worrisome that 55% of the respondents are yet to be convinced by the on-going reform exercise. This is in

tandem with the result from the FGD. It appeared majority of the consuming public are yet to be convinced by the privatization exercise in the power supply chain. When asked to evaluate how equitable the billing system is 51 (48.57) strongly disagreed that they enjoyed power supply that is at par with the bills they paid, 23 (21.90) disagreed, 21 (20%) agreed and 10 (9.52%) strongly agreed. There seems to be a general consensus among the sampled respondents and participants in the FGD on the erratic billing system. As a FGD participant noted, perhaps most new investors in the sector are desirous of quick return on their investment. It is observed that the billing system has undergone a 300% upward review in a single calendar year (between 2014 and 2015).

The new investors in the sector seem to pay higher premium on information dissemination. Vast majority of the respondents 75 (71.43%) opined that they are adequately informed. Information dissemination, though classified as a noneconomic factor in privatization exercise (Buchanan, 1978; Brenan and Buchanan, 1985; Drakic, 2007), is a very key component in the success of supply chain activities (Sprick et al, 2005; Ajayi, 2015).

When questioned on whether energy supply is better in the hands of the new private owners than when it was run under government owned monopolistic structure. 42 (40%) disagreed, while 63 (60%) agreed. This result indicates that the consuming public believed more in the ability of the investors to turn things around.

Majority of the respondents also believed that the government has taken the right step by privatizing the sector. In all 40 (38.10%) disagreed, while 65 (61.9%) agreed. This response showed the trust the average consumer has in the privatization process. The success of the previous exercise in the telecommunication sector must have informed such confidence rather the hiccups being experienced in the effort to reform the sector.

The respondents' response to the question on how professional and customer friendly the staff of the new owners they encountered indicated that 30 (28.58%) are of the opinion that staff of the new owners of power distribution companies encountered are not professional or customer friendly as they would've expected. Majority of the respondents 75 (71.43%) however agreed that new staff encountered

are better professionally. This view is important because it is one of the salient noneconomic matters that can determine the success or failure of privatization exercise (Fillipovic, 2005).

Lastly when asked to make comparison on the power distribution between rich and poor neighbourhoods. 42 (40%) disagreed that the energy supply is often distributed equally between the rich and the poor, while a slightly higher figure of 63 (60%) agreed. The view expressed here is important because National Electricity Regulation Council (NERC) and successor companies have introduced a new billing system which employs differential billing system between poor and affluent neighbourhoods. Such policy which is a novel one should be subject of further research, particularly consumers' response, because a similar policy introduced in pricing of petroleum products in the past failed.

Test of Hypotheses

Two hypotheses were derived and tested in the study. A summary of the hypotheses and their results are given below.

Hypothesis One

H₀ I believe there is no significant difference in flows of material, information and billing system between residents in affluent and poor neighbourhoods.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.050E2 ^a	1	.000		
Continuity Correction ^b	100.802	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	139.551	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	104.000	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases ^b	105				

From the result of the chi-square test performed it can be seen that, $\chi^2(1) = 1.050$ $p < .001$. This suggested that there is statistically significant association in the flow of material (power distribution), information (periodic situational reports on power distribution) and billing system between residents in affluent and poor neighbourhoods. It can be posited therefore that the respondents actually believed that there is a relationship in the quality of services enjoy from the power distribution companies and the relative affluence of such neighbourhood. The implication of this is instructive for both the power distribution companies and National Electricity Regulation Commission (NERC), the government agency which regulates the activities of operators in the sector. Deregulation of the sector should not be customers based on the affluence of neighbourhoods. There should be a nexus between equitable distribution of services and profit making.

H₁ The flow of Power bill, power supply, and information flow are better during the ongoing reform than before.

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	150.846	3	50.282	582.634	.000*
	Residual	8.716	101	.086		
	Total	159.562	104			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Power Bill, Power Supply, information flow

b. Dependent Variable: On-going Reform

The second hypothesis tested the view of the respondents on the impact that the ongoing privatization exercise has on both economic and noneconomic components of the privatization program, these are the billing system, power supply and information flow. The regression analysis is significant with $p < .001$. This shows that a strong relationship exist among the different variables as explained in the hypothesis. The independent variables, the billing system, power supply and information flow have a positive effect on the assessment of the ongoing privatization program. Arising from this result it can therefore be posited that most of the respondents thus far adjudged the success of the privatization exercise based on the attainment of positive results both on economic and noneconomic components. The implication of this is that the management of the new distribution

management of the new distribution enterprises should deploy resources on achievement of positive economical factors of regular power supply and equitable billing system. Noneconomic factor of information flow should also be of interest to the managers. Information flow on products availability, billing system, maintenance activities etc, should be disseminated properly, the 21st century consumer is an information-driven personality. Effective information flow can be as important to the consumer as equitable billing system.

Conclusion, Managerial Implication and Limitation

Attainment of stable electricity power supply chain management is of vital importance to growth, robust economic competitiveness, development and a sustainable economic system. Privatization exercise embarked upon by the Nigerian government in the energy sector underscored the importance attached to the role that stable electricity power supply play in achievement of sustainable economic growth. Findings from this study suggests that the key drivers behind privatization decision by both the government and the new owners of the distribution companies (DISCO) is tied to more to the economic benefits associated with the privatization exercise. Attention should be paid more to noneconomic factors as outlined in public choice theory (Buchanan, 1978) and theory of collective action (Brenan and Buchanan, 1985). Privatization program succeed more when the consuming public believe in the exercise.

Results from both the FGD (which employed the PASIR analysis) and the hypotheses tested showed that the pressure occasioned by the privatization exercise has triggered responses along the supply chain. The responses are both positive and negative. The initial enthusiasm that greeted the privatization exercise on the part of the general public apparently has weaned. The responses of the consuming public on their assessment of the privatization exercise revolved around both economic and noneconomic factors. While there is a consensus among the respondents that the performances of the new investors are better in the area of information dissemination, it is obvious that they are not favorably disposed to arbitrary increment in the billing system. The new investors should therefore avoid the temptation of desiring 'quick returns' on their investment. If there is any lesson to be learnt from the success experienced in the privatization exercise in the Nigeria

telecom sector, it is the fact that the consuming public in Nigeria are willing to pay for quality services rendered.

Limitations and Areas of Further Research

As it is the norm with researches, there are some limitations encountered in the course of this research. First is the fact that this study covered only the South Western part of Nigeria and as such result gotten may not be valid for the entire country. The privatization exercise is an ongoing one, and so there may be a need for a reappraisal when the exercise is completed.

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SERVICE DELIVERY IN SELECTED LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCILS IN OSUN STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The local government which is the third tier of government in Nigeria, has for a long time been subjected to heavy criticisms because of their inability to offer good service delivery. This study was therefore designed to investigate the problems at stake and how these can be overcome. Specifically, the objectives of the study are: (i) identify the factors that determine service delivery in selected local government councils in Osun state; (ii) determine the weight or the potency of each of the identified determinants on service delivery; and (iii) investigate what can be done to improve service delivery in the selected local government councils in Osun state. Data for this study were obtained from both primary and secondary data. For the primary data, quantitative method was used. A total of three hundred and thirty four (334) respondents were selected for questionnaire administration. Data from secondary sources like books, journals, newspaper clippings, and internet were used to complement the primary data. Data collected were analyzed in terms of tables, frequency and percentages. It was found that service delivery is a multi-dimensional phenomenon, and that it cannot be explained with a singular variable but an array of variables. This paper concluded that the condition of service and general welfare packages for workers should be reviewed and upgraded from time to time so as to serve as morale booster for the employees.

Key words: Local government, Service delivery, Performance, Civil servants

Background to the Study

Local Government Councils were created in Nigeria and the world over to ensure effective, efficient, and measurable service delivery and development at the grassroots (Ajayi, 2000). Aghayere (1997) emphasized the crucial roles of local government councils to the point that when roads are bad, when there are no market stalls, no health centres, when there is no water, no drugs in the local dispensaries

stalls, no health centres, when there is no water, no drugs in the local dispensaries and when refuse is littered all around the place, the ordinary citizen blames it on the Local Government. It follows, therefore, that Local Government administration was established to impact positively on the lives of citizens through its service delivery function.

Local Governments, as the third tier of government, are created to bring government closer to the people at the grassroots. One of the ways of bringing government closer to the people at the grassroots is through the delivery of service in a satisfactory, timely, effective and adequate manner (Agba, Akwara and Idu, 2013). According to Adeyemo (2005), Local Governments have been assigned different functions. In the colonial period, native authorities were primarily established for maintenance of law and order. At independence, emphasis shifted from law enforcement to the provision of social services.

Today, looking at the Local Government system in Nigeria, poor service delivery has taken its greater toll on it. The reasons adduced for this, ranges from economic, sociological and managerial to technological factors (Ananti and Umeifekwem, 2012). This, the authors argued, has made the Nigerian local government unproductive as both human and material resources are wasted without achieving the desired result. In a bid to meet citizens' expectations in this area, civil servants have subscribed to SERVICOM Charters (FGN, 2007b). SERVICOM is an acronym for Service Compact with all Nigerians. It is an initiative in line with the 'Citizens First' initiative in the United Kingdom or the Batho Pele (People First) in South Africa (Sheikh, 2008). SERVICOM was adopted by former President Olusegun Obasanjo. He observed that consumers/clients had to struggle for public services by exerting influence through important individuals within the system and budgeting time and money to pursue services from desk to desk through entire service chains in a bid to procure due service. The overall effect then was that consumers/clients lost faith in public services in Nigeria (The SERVICOM Book, 2006).

The Nigeria public sector has undergone a massive process of restructuring in the last two decades. The justification for these reforms has been to make it more responsive to the needs of the citizens by increasing the levels of accountability and transparency, promoting efficiency and effectiveness, introducing participative decision making and adopting a customer/client focused practices in ministries and government departments in all the three tiers of governments. The Local Government Reforms starting with 1976 reforms is part of the major public sector reforms used to strengthen the Local Government administration with the overall objective of improving service delivery at the grassroots level. Local government in contemporary times is saddled with the responsibility of delivering basic services to the grassroots in the most efficient and effective manner. It is however sad to observe that this is not so as the performance of this tier of government is far below expectation.

The vision of every establishment is to provide services in the most efficient and effective ways and thereby ensure maximum client or customers' satisfaction. To fulfill this responsibility, are the employees who double as the ambassadors of the organization. Employees' performance has been seen as the oil of progress for organizations (Moses, 2010). Sri and Gomathi (2015) opined that organizational performance depends on the employee performance because the human capital of organization plays a vital role in organizational performance. In general, employees have their individual desires and needs which they intend to satisfy when they are joining the organization. Satisfaction or otherwise of these needs by the organization has an impact on the behaviour or service delivery of the employee. Therefore, it is against this backdrop that this paper sought to investigate the factors that are responsible for poor service delivery among employees in local government councils in Nigeria.

The following questions were designed to provide answers to the issues raised in this study: What are the factors that determine service delivery in the selected local government councils? What is the weight or potency of each of the

possible determinants of service delivery? What can be done to improve service delivery in selected local government councils? The specific objectives of the study are to: (i) identify the factors that determine service delivery in selected local government councils in Osun state; (ii) determine the weight or the potency of each of the identified determinants on service delivery; and (iii) investigate what can be done to improve service delivery in the selected local government councils in Osun state.

The significance of this study rests in its attempt to address a crucial aspect of local governance – service delivery, which is the hallmark of any tier of government. In this study, service delivery refers to the discharge of the duties assigned to workers in the local government service. Moreover, one of the problems of public administration is how to get the best from the workers in order to ensure work efficiency and enhance organizational performance. This paper contributes to our understanding of the problems of administration at the local government level especially as it relates to service delivery. The study generates findings that should help those entrusted with management and governance to enhance service delivery. The information gathered from this research provides up-to-date information on service delivery at the local government level.

Local Government

In Nigeria, local government is not an accidental creation or entity but has been in existence since ancient times and during the advent of colonialism in Nigeria. This is confirmed by the evidence available in the writings, statements of early writers and travelers (Mbiell, 2010). He stated further that some excavation works also gave proof to the fact that as far back as the B.C. era of ancient traditions and customs, there existed certain mechanisms through which the rulers provided goods and services to the people. Local government is the government of the popularly elected bodies charged with administrative and executive duties in matters concerning the inhabitants of a particular district or place (Appadorai, 1975)

Looking at the existence, performance and relevance of local government, Laski (1982) opined that we cannot realize the full benefits of democratic government unless we begin with the admission that all problems are not central problems, and that the result of problems not central in their incidence requires decision at the place, and by the person, where and whom the incidence is most deeply felt. Akindele (2004) defined local government as a mechanism for mobilization and integrating the grassroots for the management and governance of local affairs, satisfaction of the needs of the local people through effective service delivery and efficient and effective mobilization of human and material resources for effective and efficient service delivery. From the above foregoing presentations, it is important to note that local government is a government that is nearer to the people at the grassroots.

A lot of reasons have been given for the creation of local governments in Nigeria. These ranges from political, social and economic reasons (Oviasuyi, Idada and Isirije, 2010). The purpose for the creation of local government in Nigeria include: (a) to bring governance closer to the people; (b) for administrative convenience; (c) to ensure that resources are effectively mobilized; and (d) to preserve heritage and common interest of the people. In 1976, the Federal Government introduced major local government reforms due to the falling morale among local government employees. The aim of the reform was to make the local governments more effective in their primary role of bringing development to the grassroots. The reform marked a turning point in local government administration in Nigeria. It established a multi-purpose single tier system throughout the, country with the same structure and function (Egbe, 2014; Agba, et al, 2013). The broad objective of creating local government is placed on service delivery function at the rural level. Agunyai (2015) submitted that rural services can be defined in terms of the availability of and access to markets, health care, roads, credit facilities, agricultural infrastructure, education, potable water, electricity and other rural services infrastructure. Ibok (2012) as cited in Ibok (2014) stated that local governance by implication, both in theory and practice is in a position to play a strong role in the enhancement of service delivery in its domain.

Service Delivery

The key word in service delivery is service. Service in general refers to intangible benefits provided to individuals or organizations through the performance of a variety of activities or the provision of physical facilities or products (Inegbenebor, 2006). According to Berry, Ali, Sonya and Magui (2004), service delivery is a relationship between policy makers, service providers and poor people. It encompasses services and their supporting systems that are typically regarded as a state responsibility. These include social services (primary education and basic health services), infrastructure (water and sanitation, roads and bridges) and services that promote personal security (justice, police). Eigema (2007) opined that service delivery is government's key task. According to him, the best yardstick for measuring the performance of government is good governance, and this is through service delivery to the people. A government is expected to deliver better services to its people, and the indices of measuring service delivery to the people include low inflation, better education, provision of improved health care at affordable rates, provision of clean water, provision of good roads and good road networks to the rural areas for the transport of agricultural products and raw materials (Abe and Monisola, 2014).

The import of mission statements and vision of every establishment is to provide services in the most efficient ways and thereby ensure maximum customers' satisfaction. To fulfill this are the employees who double as the ambassadors of the organization. Employees' performance has been seen as the oil of progress for organizations (Moses, 2010). The quality of service delivery provided by public institutions has been very poor over the years. Sub-optimal nature of service delivery in Nigeria over time has resulted in poor service delivery in public services and ultimately in the failure of government programmes and institutional development.

Attempts have been made to improve quality of services provided by the government to the Nigerian populace over the years. Writers who have examined the problems of inefficiency in the Nigerian public sector have made several policy prescriptions, including training civil servants in entrepreneurial orientation,

customer focus, long-term involvement, among other traits (Akerele, 1990). More recently, in 2005, service compact with all Nigerians (SERVICOM) was launched by Federal Government to address obvious gaps in service delivery. It is an initiative in line with, for example, the 'citizen's first' initiative in the United Kingdom or the Batho Pele (People First) in South Africa (Sheikh and Hanlie, 2008). The literature review on service delivery shows that if we want services to match the best interest of the beneficiaries, there is a need for organizations to create and maintain a climate for service in order for employees to effectively deliver excellent service (Schneider, 1990). According to Schneider, Wheeler and Cox (1990), employees are more likely to deliver excellent services to customers when the organization expects and rewards such behaviour and establishes practices that facilitate service delivery.

Service Delivery at the Local Government Level

One of the major reasons for establishing local government as the third tier of government in Nigeria is efficient and equitable provision of essential services at the grassroots. Observations have shown that some local governments in Nigeria have not performed to expectation. Keen observers have since adduced various propositions for explaining the reasons why the system has recorded abysmal level of inefficiency and ineffectiveness vis-à-vis justification for its establishment. Some of the justifications include; (a) the formulation of economic plans and development schemes for the local government areas (b) collection of rates, radio and television licenses (c) construction and maintenance of roads, streets street lightings, drains, parks, gardens open spaces or public facilities as may be prescribe from time to time by the House of Assembly of a state (d) naming of roads and streets and numbering of houses, provision and maintenance of public conveniences, sewage and refuse disposal, registration of all births, deaths and marriages (Agba, et al, 2013).

However, performance or lack of performance of the Nigeria local government system can be better understood when we examine the internal dynamics of the system despite its numerous reforms. The first reform came as a result of the failure of the colonial local government system to meet the needs and aspirations of the people. The second came between the periods of 1951-1966. The

third started when military leaders assumed power in 1966 and lasted till 1975. The fourth came in 1976 when the Federal Government entered directly and introduced the most pervasive land sweeping reforms. Nnadozie (2002) maintained that the productive or the unproductive nature of any organization would be understood when such factors as the characteristics of the organization in question, the character of the society where it functions and the nature of the interaction between the organization and the wider society is considered.

Mali (1978) posited that performance is the measure of how well resources of an organization are brought together and utilized for accomplishing a set of results. Local Government, like any other organization depends upon the effective use of its available resources. These resources, if they are to be effectively utilized to yield fruitful result, should be obtained in the right quantity, the right quality and at the right time (Mukoro, 2003). He further explained that, the human resources (amongst the other resources) are the most important, most valuable, most complex and least predictable of all the resources available in an organization. It is the staff that process or utilize the other resources in order to achieve the goals of the organization. Thus, an organization which does not have well-tailored and structured human resources (personnel) may be swimming in an ocean of poor service delivery.

According to Ogunna (2007) performance in any organization is dependent on a number of factors such as the use of appropriate technology, adequate motivation, adequate resources, which includes optimum use of fund, materials and personnel, and positive work ethics and the professional and technical competence of the workers. He explained further that the above eluded the Nigerian local government system as the system is confronted with so many challenges. These ranges from poor motivation of workers, attributed primarily to lack of fund, high rate of corruption among the officials and the degree of manipulation of the local government affairs by the state government, shortage of skilled manpower as a result of politicized nature of the recruitment procedure where misfits are recruited into the system which leads to low productivity and the negative work ethics common among the employees of the system in Nigeria which makes them unproductive.

However it is important to note that the effectiveness and efficiency of service delivery are appraised based on how successful the services are carried out by the local government through its workforce more so, that local government is only an institution that can act or perform through actors who must be well equipped and trained to take up the growing demand of efficient service delivery at the grassroots (Agunyai, 2015). In Nigeria, government after government has tried to grapple with the problem of making local governments effective, efficient, development-oriented, people-focused, and result-oriented. This was actualized via local government reforms of 1976 coupled with other administrative reforms (Ibok, 2014). Most actions taken by the governments of Nigeria towards improving service delivery have been mere palliatives. This is so because they have all proven ineffective in dealing with the problems of poor service delivery.

Determinants of Service Delivery

i. Inadequate Remuneration

For the purpose of this study, employee remuneration refers to wages or salaries paid to workers. Wage or salary paid is an instrument of motivation for the workforce and possibly make them a stakeholder in an organization. A typical employee will always want the survival of such organization at all times (Sule, Amuni and Banjo, 2015). Agburu (2012) declares that, for any average African employee, wages or salaries are highly critical issues. They are decisive because without them in sufficient quantities, life becomes extremely precarious for the worker and members of his/her family. Inadequate remuneration deals with late payment or nonpayment of workers' salary and workers being underpaid. Ananti and Umeifekwem (2012) argue that salaries, wages and allowances paid to workers are abysmally low. This situation is worrisome particularly as all forms of negative attitudes among local government staff are attributed to it. Late payment or nonpayment of workers' salary affects workers' morale and encourages the display of negative work attitudes. The bill to criminalize late payment or nonpayment of salaries by organizations as at when due was initiated by the minority leader, Federal House of Representatives, Hon. Femi Gbajabiamila in 2013 when he says that late

payment and nonpayment of salaries encourages corruption. People are forced to seek unlawful means to meet their financial and family obligations. We must recognize that salaries are no longer commensurate with the cost of living and for workers not to be paid on time make the scenario a double tragedy. This without doubt will make workers to engage in negative work behaviour and on the long run affect service delivery adversely.

ii. Lack of Provision of Work Incentives

This variable deals with rewards either financial or non-financial that motivate employees to direct their performance toward the achievement of organizational goals. It is a stimulus to greater action. According to Ozoemena (2013), incentive provides a spur or zeal in the employees for better performance. Therefore, a hope for a reward is a powerful incentive to motivate employees. Employees are the engine of organizations, while reward is the fuel. No organization can achieve its stated goals without its employees (Sajuyigbe, Olaoye and Adeyemi, 2013). Inger (2009) argues that clear and applied performance standards, linked to rewards and recognition contribute to organizational performance. This is lacking in many work organizations in Nigeria today.

iii. Lack of Good Working Environment

The workplace environment plays a crucial role on the employee's performance and eventual service delivery. The workplace entails an environment in which the worker performs his work (Chapins, 1995) while an effective workplace is an environment where results can be achieved as expected by management (Mike, 2010). A number of research on environmental studies showed that workers are satisfied with reference to specific workplace features and are highly significant to their performance and workplace satisfaction. These include lighting, ventilation rates, access to natural light and acoustic environment (Becker, 1981; Humphries, 2005; Karasek and Theorell 1990). Bornstein (2007) opines that in organizations where employees are exposed to stressful working conditions, performance is negatively influenced and there is negative impact on the delivery of service. On the other hand, if working conditions are good, performance increases and there is a

positive impact on the delivery of service. Aluko (2005) and Demet (2012) conclude that the quality of the environment in the workplace may simply determine the level of employees' motivation, subsequent performance and productivity. Invariably, if the working environment is not favourable or conducive, this may hinder good service delivery both on the short and the long run.

iv. Lack of Training

Training is the developing process of employees' skill in order to improve the performance (Swanson, 1999). Training is a type of activity which is planned, systematic and it results in enhanced level of skill, knowledge and competency that are necessary to perform work effectively (Gordon, 1992). Ajidahun's (2007) thesis was that training is an integral part of vocation or career development and it is fast becoming a global and pervasive phenomenon in any establishment, the absence of which spells doom for such an institution and the presence of which determines its success. Belcourt, Wright and Saks (2000) stated that the three main purposes most managers train their employees are: to increase productivity or performance of employees; to achieve organizational goals; and to invest in employees to succeed in the unpredictable and turbulent business environment. In the development of organizations, training plays a vital role, improving performance as well as increasing performance, and eventually putting companies in the best position to face competition and stay at the top (Chebet, 2015). There exists a positive association between training and employee performance. Training generates benefits for the employee as well as for the organization by positively influencing employee performance through the development of employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies and behaviour (Benedicta, 2010). Therefore an employee who undergoes the necessary training is better able to perform his or her job.

v. Chaotic Transportation System

In contemporary times, there is hardly any society that can function effectively and efficiently without adequate, reliable, safe and affordable transport system. Chaotic transportation system in Nigeria has to do with incessant fuel crisis, poor network of roads, long distances to work and unstable transportation system in Nigeria. Flood and Barbato (2005) noted that three main factors shape people's

commuting experience. The first is the speed of the means of transportation that is, whether it is slow or fast, and whether it stops frequently. Journeys that are characterized by frequent stops due to traffic congestion or by breakdown of the means of transport due to mechanical problems, accidents, or the poor condition of roads usually frustrate both the drivers and commuters. The second is the difficulty of obtaining the means of transportation. The third is the predictability of journeys which affects the psychology of travelers. Caldwell (2008) concluded that employees whose journeys are longer display greater levels of stress and perceived stress associated with the feelings of nervousness, irritability, fatigue, pain, and poor performance and satisfaction at the work place. Therefore, lack of stable transportation may cause workers to arrive late at work, or leave earlier which negatively affect performance and service delivery. Again, Adeyemo (2005) identified the problem of insufficient numbers of medical personnel in the rural areas as well as uneven distribution of healthcare facilities which tends to favour urban areas to lack of transportation for workers.

vi. Health Challenges

Every organization wants productive employees. For an employee to be productive, he/she has to be in the workplace. The most common reason an employee is absent is due to personal illness. It is evident that workers who suffer from specific illnesses mostly malaria are likely to miss more work days than usual. UNICEF (2012) posits that in a malaria prone region, workers' productivity is being sapped due to high level of absenteeism as a result of malaria and other forms of illnesses. This validates the Yoruba adage which says "*Oku kii sin oba*" meaning the dead or half fit person does not serve the king.

vii. Poor Leadership

Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve common goals (Northouse, 2007). Leadership style is the combination of attitude and behaviour of a leader which leads to certain patterns in dealing with the followers (Dubrin, 2004). The leadership style within an organization has a bearing on encouraging or inhibiting employee's service delivery (Armstrong and Murlis,

2004). Good leadership is like the light, permeating into every aspect of the business; while poor leadership is like the shadow, darkening many areas of the organization. Poor leadership leads to frustration in employees as decision making is either crippled or biased, thus leading to employees' dissatisfaction and poor service delivery. It is evident that if leadership cannot infuse energy into the organization to translate purpose into reality, then organizational performance may be jeopardized. This is the main thesis of Nirmala (2009) when he argues that government departments are guilty of poor service delivery because of the inconsistency between organizational purpose and leadership.

viii. Power Outages

Power outage is the state of complete absence of electricity at the consumer's end (CEIDS, 2001). This variable deals with Nigeria's poor electricity supply which is the greatest infrastructural problem confronting the Nigerian economy. It is evident that power outages have a high disruption costs, thus affecting the effectiveness and efficiency of Nigerian workers. This is the main thesis of Adeola (2005) when he argues that power outages imposes a huge cost on the firm, arising from idle workers, spoiled materials, lost output, damaged equipment and restart costs. Aluko (2005) opines that one of the problems with the Nigerian technological environment is inadequate power supply which leads to inefficient services and eventual poor service delivery.

Theoretical Framework

The theory considered suitable in analyzing and understanding the problem under investigation is Motivation Theory. The term motivation has been defined by various scholars. Motivation according to Blunt (1983) consists of a driving force or a state of need deficiency which inclines a person to behave in a particular manner, or to develop a capacity for certain types of behaviour. Katzell and Thompson (1990) submitted that work motivation pertains to the conditions and processes that account for the arousal, direction, magnitude and maintenance of efforts in a person's job. Luthan (1998) posited that motivation is the process that arouses, energizes, directs

and sustains behaviours and performances. That is, it is the process of stimulating people to action, being committed towards achieving a desired objective, one way of doing this is to employ proper motivational technique which makes workers more satisfied with and committed to their job. Hucznski and Buchanan (2007) defined motivation as a combination of goals towards which human behaviour is directed, the process through which those goals are pursued and achieved and the social factors involved. From the above definitions therefore, motivation is the combination of a person's desire and energy directed at achieving a goal.

The Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's (1974) motivation – hygiene theory are directly applicable to the study. The theories emphasized on the level of needs of a worker and his expectations in an organization. The theories suggested that if an organization can provide positive motivation to its employee, the employee obtains satisfaction, consequently he or she will perform better. The work itself must be such that it is attractive and the environment conducive for workers to work. Workers should be provided with good offices, tables, chairs, stationeries etc. This is in line with Aluko (1998) who found out that a typical Nigerian worker must be positively motivated to put in his or her best. He concluded that factors to be considered when putting the motivation package together for the Nigerian workers consist of monetary incentives, job security and good opportunities for advancement and promotion. If workers are well motivated, they will exhibit positive work ethics and this will enhance service delivery.

Again, it is of paramount importance for management of an organization to provide all necessary assistance to his worker in order to get the best out of him or her. The management must provide enabling environment for the worker to perform. Work must be well organized; a good working environment and sufficient incentives or motivation must be provided. The external environment in which the organization is embedded and in which the worker lives must be favourable and conducive to a level that facilitates good service delivery.

Methodology

The scope of the study covered all the local government councils in Osun State. In order to have a representative sample, the study was carried out along the three senatorial districts in Osun State. One rural and one urban local government councils were randomly selected from each of the three senatorial districts. The local government councils were Oshogbo and Orolu (Osun Central); Ife North and Ilesha West (Osun East); and Ayedaade and Ede North (Osun West). Both primary and secondary sources of data were used. The target population for this research consisted of all the career officers in the six selected local government councils. Out of the total staff strength of 3,342, ten percent (10%) was randomly selected, making 334 respondents for questionnaire administration. Out of 334 questionnaires distributed, 325 were dully filled and returned. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics like tables, frequencies and percentages. To compliment the primary data, the author conducted an intensive review of documentary information relevant to the subject matter. These included books, journals on service delivery, reports, newspaper clippings, articles, the internet material and other sources.

Discussion of Findings

Table 1: Respondents' view on determinants of Service Delivery

	Variables	Very large extent	Large extent	To extent	Small extent	Very small extent	Tot
1	Inadequate remuneration	130 (40.1)	77 (23.6)	60 (18.5)	32 (9.8)	26 (8.0)	325 (100)
2	Lack of provision of work incentives	121 (37.2)	103 (31.6)	49 (15.0)	35 (10.9)	17 (5.3)	325 (100)
	Lack of good working environment	116 (35.7)	76 (23.5)	56 (17.2)	45 (13.8)	32 (9.8)	325 (100)
4	Lack of Training	94 (29.0)	88 (27.1)	74 (22.7)	43 (13.3)	26 (7.9)	325 (100)
5	Chaotic Transport System	121 (37.2)	91 (27.9)	54 (16.7)	36 (11.1)	23 (7.1)	325 (100)
6	Health challenges	74 (22.7)	83 (25.2)	79 (24.3)	61 (18.9)	29 (8.9)	325 (100)
7	Poor Leadership	117 (36.1)	58 (17.9)	62 (19.0)	45 (13.8)	43 (13.2)	325 (100)
8	Power Outages	122 (37.6)	65 (19.9)	69 (21.1)	42 (13.0)	27 (8.4)	325 (100)

In this section, we examine the extent to which each of the variables determines service delivery. This becomes important since the foregoing analysis of data in the preceding sections have shown clearly that no singular variable is the sole determinant of service delivery. Therefore, there is categorical need to determine the impact of each of the variables on service delivery. In this study, the researcher used a rating method to determine the impact of these variables on service delivery. The rating was based on construct assumption statements where the respondents were required to respond by 'very large extent', 'large extent', 'to an extent', 'small extent' and 'very small extent'. The responses to the construct statements were focused to address the central question of this study.

From the table above, the result shows that late payment or nonpayment of workers' salary and workers being underpaid have negative effect on service delivery. 63.7% of the respondents said that inadequate remuneration hinder service delivery to a large extent. This corroborates the view of Ananti and Umeifekwem (2012) and Gbajabiamila (2013). We must recognize that salaries no longer commensurate with the cost of living and for workers not to be paid on time are a double tragedy. This, without doubt, will make workers to engage in negative work behaviour, to be less productive and on the long run affect service delivery adversely.

Work incentives are factors that motivate employees to put in their best in serving their organizations. Lack of this will reduce workers commitment to their organizations. The respondents' opinion on the lack of provision of work incentives shows that lack of provision of work incentives hinders service delivery to a large extent, 69.8% of the respondents testified to this. This corroborates Inger (2009) assertion when he argued that clear and applied performance standards, linked to rewards and recognition contribute to organizational performance.

Working environment refers to an environment in which workers perform their work. The workplace features include lighting, ventilation rates and access to natural light. Therefore if employees are exposed to stressful working conditions, this will have negative impact on service delivery. General respondents' opinion shows that 59.2% of the respondents said that lack of good working environment hinders service delivery. This corroborates Aluko (2005) and Demet (2012) assertions when they concluded that the quality of environment in workplace may simply determine the level of employees' motivation, and subsequent performance. The argument is that a poor working environment may also trigger poor service delivery and *vice versa*.

The goal of staff training is to increase productivity or performance of employees and to achieve organizational goals. Most of the respondents involved in this study were of the opinion that staff training is the key to the services being provided by the workers, 56.1% of the respondents subscribed to this assertion. This corroborates Ajidahun's (2007) and Sri and Gomathi (2015)'s opinions that training is an integral part of vocation or career development and it is fast becoming a global and pervasive phenomenon in any establishment, the absence of which spells doom for such an institution and the presence of which determines the success of any enterprise.

The study further explores the link between chaotic transport system and service delivery. Responses from the employees show that transport problem hinders service delivery to a large extent. It is evident that a lack of stable transportation in one way or the other negatively affects service delivery. This corroborates the thesis of Caldow (2008) that employees whose journeys are longer display poor performance at the work place. Again, Adeyemo (2005) identified insufficient number of medical personnel in the rural areas as well as uneven distribution of healthcare facilities which has been urban-based to lack of good transportation for workers.

With regard to ill health of workers, the findings from this study reveal that ill health hinders service delivery. 47.9% of the respondents testified to this. This shows that workers who suffer from specific illnesses mostly malaria are likely to miss more work days than usual. This corroborates the UNICEF (2012) submission that in a malaria prone region, workers' productivity is being sapped due to high level of absenteeism as a result of malaria illness. This validates the Yoruba adage which says 'the dead do not serve the king.'

In addition, the findings show that 54.0% of the respondents were of the opinion that poor leadership hinders service delivery. Poor leadership can lead to employees' dissatisfaction, low performance, turnover, low morale and lack of understanding of organizational goal. This is corroborated by the findings of Nirmala (2009) that government departments are guilty of poor service delivery because of the inconsistency between organizational purpose and leadership. Poor leadership is the bane of local government councils in Nigeria.

Lastly, the general opinion of the respondents shows that poor electricity hinders service delivery. 57.5% of the respondents subscribed to the assertions that power outages hinder service delivery to a large extent. It is a confirmation that power outages have a high disruption costs, thus affecting the effectiveness and efficiency of Nigerian workers. This corroborates the thesis of Adeola (2005) that power outages imposes a huge cost on the firm, arising from idle workers, spoiled materials, lost output, damaged equipment and restart costs. Aluko (2005) identified that one of the problems with the Nigerian technological environment is inadequate power supply which leads to inefficient services.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The primary objective of the local government is to provide social services to the people at the grassroots. The employees at the local government play a vital role in ensuring effective and efficient delivery of such services. Previous researches have shown that some local governments have not performed well in the quality of services delivered to the people at the grassroots. In this study, the determinants of service delivery were examined across the three senatorial districts in Osun State, Nigeria. The findings showed that service delivery is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. And that it cannot be explained with a singular variable but an array of variables. Therefore, the determinants of service delivery identified according to the level of their weight or potency are: lack of provision of work incentives, chaotic transport system, inadequate remuneration, lack of good working environment, power outages, lack of training, poor leadership and health challenges.

To this end, the following recommendations are made to improve service delivery at the grassroots. First and foremost, financial rewards play a vital role in boosting the morale of employees, therefore, the condition of service and general welfare or incentives packages for workers should be reviewed and upgraded from time to time. Government incentives should foster integrity and good conduct. Salaries and allowances paid to workers should be commensurate with the degree of efforts being put in by the workers. Pension and gratuities of retired staff should be paid promptly as this will serve as a morale booster for those currently in service. Government should facilitate and ensure the provision of health insurance package for workers.

Similarly, government should offer proper health insurance facilities to its employees to keep them motivated and committed to the work. In addition, to enhance employees' service delivery, trainings and workshop/seminars should be organized regularly for the local government employees.

Furthermore, the problem of chaotic transportation should be addressed by providing transportation facilities for the employees in order to enhance service delivery. Also, workplace environment should be made attractive to employees through the provision of good furniture; rugs, flowers, air condition, proper lightening and ventilation and availability of reliable power supply. Leaders should encourage communication between employees and managements. This will promote a feeling of happiness and satisfaction in the workplace and enhanced service delivery in the long run. Finally, SERVICOM Unit should be established in all the Local Government Councils where members of the public can express their grievances.

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BELIEF IN DEMONIC (JINN) POSSESSION AND PATRONAGE OF EXORCISM AS ALTERNATIVE MEDICINE AMONG MUSLIMS IN IBADAN, NIGERIA

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Abstract

Muslim faithfuls are expected according to the religion of Islam to believe in the existence of Jinn and the ability of evil/demonic jinn to cause ill health to humans. The religion also prescribes certain rituals known as rukyah (exorcism) as remedy to any health problems or economic misfortune caused by evil possession. However, despite widespread belief in the ability of evil jinn to cause ill health and the practice of exorcism among this group, this phenomenon has not enjoyed much scholarly attention. The aim of this article is to examine the extent of patronage of exorcism as medical remedy among Muslim faithfuls in Ibadan, Nigeria. With the combination of both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, 215 close-ended questionnaires were administered in addition to 25 in-depth interviews among selected respondents. Furthermore, 15 Key informant interviews were also conducted among exorcists. The results show that there is a widespread belief in evil jinn possession among respondents and exorcism was viewed as an efficacious alternative treatment platform to any persistent ailments after the failure of modern medical system. Respondents' gender, age and level of education were found to have no significant effect on patronage.

Keywords: Exorcism, Demonic possession, Ill health behaviour, Alternative Medicine

Introduction

Health and illness are not just medical terms; they are social issues (Akinsola, 2006). They are crucial conditions that affect all human beings in every society, irrespective of their cultural beliefs, ideologies, age and sex. To be ill involves subjective experience which may indicate a person feeling pains, discomfort among other such feelings (Field, 1976). The subjective nature of the feelings of discomfort and the nature of 'medical' remedies sought by an individual may result from an objective or subjective interpretation. This "illness behaviour" is general to all human beings, though varies from society to society. Accordingly, Owumi (1996) states that to remain healthy is universal, but the methods of evaluating and curing the problems of ill-health vary across cultures and societies. Therefore, while it is true that today human beings live in a modern world where advancement in medical sciences and technology provides a wide ranging medical solutions to health problems, there is divergence in human illness behaviour. One of such diverged means is exorcism – an illness treatment method which is based on magico-religious explanations.

However, there is the tendency for modern medical practitioners, psychiatrists, among others to reject deep religious conviction of illness as such is usually termed superstitious (Pfeifer, 1994). The skepticism on the efficacy of the demonic causation is not limited to medical practitioners or psychiatrists as it extends to others with scientific or logico-rational minds. Yet, religious belief, as a basis of causal explanation of illness, is powerful. Indeed, in the world of religion, adherents do not accept commonsense or natural explanation of occurrences of reality especially in a milieu such as Nigeria. This is perhaps why Erinsho (2006) averred that ultimately the explanation for incidence of diseases/illness is still firmly rooted in magico-religious explanations among Nigerians. However, and to the best of knowledge of these researches, the issues surrounding this phenomenon are not given much priority in literature. Though, traditional method of healing, as an alternative to modern medical practices, commands its rightful place among scholars in different fields of medicine, sociology, among others, that of religion is still being treated with kid gloves, empirically (in this part of the world).

Nigeria is largely a country with world's major religious faithful. Religious

meanings are imputed into every occurrence, good or bad, of man's life, making religious construction of illness a common phenomenon among Nigerians. Despite the seeming widespread belief in jinn possession and the efficacy of exorcism among Muslim, there is little scholarly interest in this phenomenon. Apart from literature written by religious scholars, empirical evidences emanating from rigorous research on *jinn* (spirit) possession and *ruqyah* (exorcism) are missing on the shelves. Hence, with this study, we hope to contribute to knowledge by examining the extent of patronage of exorcism as alternative medicine among Muslims in the city of Ibadan.

Meaning and Nature of Exorcism

Understanding the contemporary meaning of the concept of exorcism shows that the meaning and nature of the term cannot be easily separated from another concept: possession. In fact, it appears that the concepts go hand in hand. According to Toner (2004) exorcism is the act of driving, or warding off, demons or evil spirits, from persons, places or things, which are, or are believed to be possessed or infected by them, or are liable to become victims or instruments of their malice. Earlier, Haar (1987) stated that the most important element in the practice of exorcism is concerned with the belief in spirits and spirit possession. However, in an article titled "Witchcraft, Possession and Exorcism: Transformations of a Voluntary/Involuntary Dialectic" Mayes (1999) concludes that there is usually conflict between the possessed and exorcists leading to what she described as the struggle for voluntarism in human conduct. In her opinion, as far as the phenomenon of possession is concerned, voluntariness was requisite during the awakening of modern times. Mayes insists that possession is not the same thing as sorcery. According to her, while accusations of sorcery occur successively in history, possession is prominent only in the transitional period to the modern times. In truth, early Christianity sought not to eliminate possession, but to substitute "good possession for bad" (Mayes, 1999: 82). Therefore, it is only during the transitional period from the Middle Ages to modern times that possession was designated to be something completely negative and such designation was requisite to the time (Nishiyama, 2003).

Muslims and the Belief in Demon (*Jinn*) Possession

Muslim means a person submitted to the will of Allah by conforming inwardly and

outwardly to His law (Islam) (Murd, 2006). Islam is the name of the religion which implies complete surrender, submission, and resignation to God's Will (Glasse, 2005) while Muslim is the adherent to the religion. Prophet Muhammad (PBUH), who was born in 570AD, founded Islam as a religion in Mecca, an Arabian country in 610AD, and from there, the religion spread to other parts of the world like Persia, Egypt, and Syria in 644AD (Babalola, 1975). The spread of the religion did not stop at North Africa, but spread to other parts of Africa. It was reported by Rahman (2005) that "Islam entered into West Africa region around 8th century C.E". Ahmad (1984) claimed that by the eleventh century, the Kanem ruler, Maiumme Jilmi was converted to Islam and the religion has been widely accepted by ruling elite by the thirteenth century and in the court of Mai of Kanem Empire.

The belief in the unseen is one of the fundamental bases of the Muslims faith. "The faith of a Muslim will be regarded as incomplete if he does not believe in the unseen, known in Islamic theology as *Al-ghaybiyyat or As-samiyyat*". According to Bali, (2005) jinn is part of the unseen and Muslim must believe in its existence. The existence of the jinn and the world of the unseen are things in which the Muslim is required to believe, even though they are hidden from him/her. The Qur'an which is the major source of the Muslim law, made references to this invisible creatures, as many time as possible. "The jinn are mentioned in more than forty verses of the Qur'aan, which are included in ten Surahs (chapters), and there is an entire Soorah which is named after them (Suratul-jinn)"(Ibraaheem, 2005). Likewise, there are many narrations about the jinn in the Hadith which connote the existence of this creature.

The following are some quotations and narration from the Qur'an and Hadith concerning the existences and belief in jinn among Muslims: '...and indeed, We created man from dried (sounding) clay of altered mud. And the jinn, We created aforetime from the smokeless flame of fire.' (Qur'an 15:26-27).

Other verses stressed thus:

And I (Allah) created not the jinn and mankind except that they should worship Me (alone). (Qur'an 51:56).

This is supported by the Hadith of the holy Prophet Muhammed narrated by Ibn Mas'ood said: We were in the company of the Messenger of Allah

(Muhammad) one night, and then we noticed he was missing. We searched for him in the valleys and mountain passes, and then we thought he had either been taken away by the jinn or killed secretly. We spent the worst night that anybody could have ever spent, and then when morning came we saw him coming from the direction of Hira. We said: O Messenger of Allah, we missed you and look for you, but we could not find you, and we spent the worst night that any people have ever spent. He (the Prophet) said: 'A petitioner of the jinn came to me and I went with him and recited the Qur'an to them (Muslim, vol.4/170).

From the above evidences from both the Qur'an and Hadith (the two main sources of the Muslims' traditions and belief system), it becomes clear that the existence of the Jinn, in this world, is firmly rooted in Islamic doctrine and is expected of all Muslim adherents of the faith to believe in it.

The belief in the existence of jinn in Islam goes beyond mere awareness of its being. The belief in Jinn in Islam encompasses the belief in the ability of the Jinn to possess and afflict disease and misfortune on individuals. Muslim writings describe a group of evil beings called jinn, who causes destruction and presides over places where evil activities take place (Encarta, 2009). According to Luqman (1995), Jinn possession is a situation whereby a demon takes control of human being. Jinn possession is manifested in various forms. However, the main manifestation of possession is usually in mental disorder, a condition whereby an individual is not aware of what he/she says or does (Bali, 2005) such that the jinn speaks with the person's voice (Luqman, 1995). Bali (2005) further identified four types of jinn possession in accordance with Islamic belief system. These different forms of possessions include:

- A total possession (i.e. a jinn possesses the whole body of a person such as the one who suffers from seizure);
- A partial possession (i.e. a jinn possesses one particular organ of a body such as an arm or leg or tongue);
- Constant possession (i.e. a jinn possesses the body for a long period of time) and
- Temporary possession which lasts no more than a few minutes, like a nightmare.

The above dimension of jinn possession indicates the degree of severity of manifestation to which Jinn can afflict a person. Manifestation may take a short span to long span and it could also be chronic or acute in nature. The fact that an individual is possessed by Jinn which may lead to loss of consciousness (whether partial or total) goes to show that such seizure may also result in different bodily harms. In addition, Abdul Ahad (2005) has also identified other different ailment that jinn can cause in human being. These include:

- Psychological and nervous disease (insanity, depression, anxiety, tension, epilepsy and personality disorder).
- Physical sickness (i.e. physical sickness that human medicine is unable to treat, and for which there is no medical cause)
- Stirring up hatred between people, causing enmity and division between people such as husband and wife, business partners, friends, family
- Female diseases (infertility, heavy bleeding and menstrual irregularities, infections, etc)

With the above mentioned illness and conditions, the Muslim believes that they can be cured through a special treatment process called Ruqyah (exorcism) which is the preoccupation of this study. Although, some modern medicine practitioners have doubted the efficacy of Ruqyah in resolving/treating such illnesses as mentioned above, such claim has been debunked by Tippett (1995) stating that modern medicine men have “refused to do their thinking outside their own scientific world view”. Pfeifer (1998) argued that different forms of physical ailment have been reportedly healed by rebuking spirits which afflicted an individual through the process of exorcism in modern times.

Health Belief Model as the Conceptual Framework

This article adopts Health Belief Model (HBM) as the theoretical framework. HBD is a theoretical model which largely seeks to evaluate individual's decisions on utilisation of health facilities. It is adopted because it is a “value-expectancy approach” (Becker, Maiman, Kirscht, Haefner and Drachman, 1977: 348) which supports the argument that patient's ill health behaviour is premised on susceptibility to ill health and perceived benefits accruable from an action. In other words, HBD offers explanations on factors that propel individual choices in health care matters

(Kirn, 1991). It is a model that describes patient's decisions and pattern of health behaviour based on four conceptual categories: 1) perceived susceptibility to illness, 2) perceived seriousness of the illness, 3) perceived benefits or the positive outcomes for the presumed action, and d) perceived barriers or negative outcomes for a presumed action (Petro-Nustas, 2001).

The health belief model offers a valuable set of constructs for identifying and understanding the factors (Butraporn, Pach, Pack, Masngarmmeung, Maton, Sriaroon, Nyamete and Chaicumpa, 2004) that may propel individual patronage of exorcism for treatment. According to the HBD conceptual framework, a patient who believes he or she is susceptible to spiritual attacks, evil jinn possession and other external variables is likely to patronise exorcists for remedies to any physical or mental discomfiture experienced by him or her. In addition, an individual who perceived benefits in utilising exorcism, and sees little or no barriers in accessing this form of alternative healing system will most likely hold a positive ideas about exorcism and is likely to patronise an exorcist in the event of ill health. Consequently, patronage of exorcism for treatment of evil jinn possession based on health belief model helps explain possibility of Muslim's beliefs in the efficacy of spiritual healing centers for cure or treatment of an illness. It could also explain the patient's cognitive understanding of susceptibility to and the severity of evil jinn possession; understand the acceptance of the perceived benefits to exorcism; and the decreased perceived barrier to exorcism.

The Method

This study adopted cross-sectional design to elicit information from both male and female Muslim faithfuls, Islamic clerics and exorcists in southeast Ibadan. Cross-sectional design was considered adequate because the focus was to observe a cross-section of a population, in this case Muslim, about patronage of exorcism for health related problems. The study investigates the motivation, dimension of patronage, frequency of use and a host of other reasons for the belief in evil jinn possession and the use of ruqyah (exorcism) as a form of treatment to illness among Muslims. Thus, the purpose of the study was to describe this phenomenon among this group and not to find or discuss any complex causal relations.

The study was conducted in Southeast Local government Area of Ibadan in Oyo state in Nigeria. South East LGA was chosen as a study area because of relative availability of exorcist healing centres in this area. The local government area covers a land area of roughly 58.251 square kilometers with an estimated population of 301,775 people going by 2010 estimation (<http://ibadanland.net/ibadan>). South-East local government is one of the five Ibadan metropolis; a traditional urban centre with twelve political wards including: Ward 1, (Mapo), Ward 2 (Oja'oba), Ward 3, (Oranya), Ward 4 (Kobomoje), Ward 5 (Idi Aro), Ward 6 (Elekuro), Ward 7 (Orital Aperin), Ward 8 (Odinjo), Ward 9 (Kudeti), Ward 10 (Oke Olokun), Ward 11 (Molete) and Ward 12 (Felele).

Participants

The participants involved in the study included 215 Muslim faithful randomly selected from various categories of Muslims whose age, sex, educational qualification and faith/belief system in jinn possession among others may or may not lead them to seek ruqyah (exorcism) as remedy to their illness.

Sampling Technique

To select the respondents, different sampling methods were used at different phases of the study. While purposive sampling method was adopted to select Islamic clerics and exorcists that participated in the study, a simple random sampling technique was used to select Muslim faithfuls sampled from the study population. The latter sampling technique was also used for the selection of the areas within the local government where the instrument of data collection was administered. Out of the twelve wards in Ibadan Southeast local government area, six wards (i.e. Oja'oba, Oranyan, Idi Aro, Orita Aperin, Oke Olokun and Molete) were randomly selected. Administration of questionnaire took place in mosque (Muslims worship place) premises located within selected wards. A total number of 17 mosques were found in the selected wards and were all used for the study. In each of the mosque, lists of members of the congregation (there were separate lists for male and female members) were pasted on one side of the mosque. Male and female lists of congregation members in each mosque were joined together and rearranged in alphabetical order before selection. The number of respondents drawn from each political ward depended on the number of mosques found in the area.

Administration of questionnaires took place after one of the Muslims' five obligatory prayers. To administer the research instrument, the authors sought advice

And help of the Imams of the Mosques used. The Imams agreed to call the names of the selected respondents after any of the Muslims' obligatory prayers (if such person was not around we were asked to come back at the next prayer time) and invite the authors to meet them; after which questionnaires are then administered to them if they agree to participate in the study. In the rare cases (two persons actually declined to participate) of disinterestedness of a chosen person another respondent was randomly selected to replace him/her. The rationale for this was to ensure that a selected respondent from a Mosque's list is still an active member of the congregation where his/her name was drawn.

The qualitative aspect of the fieldwork involves 24 in-depth interviews (conducted among Muslim faithful) and 12 key informant interview (conducted among Islamic clerics and practitioners) of exorcism. The inclusion criteria for selection of participants in the interview sessions are age, acknowledgement of participants' status as either Muslim clerics/Imam or practice exorcists by others; knowledge of the subject-matter of the study (i.e. evil jinn possession, Qur'anic and hadith injunctions about exorcism, among others). Finally, through the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) the quantitative data were analysed by generative simple descriptive statistics such as frequency distributions and correlation coefficients. The qualitative data were transcribed, coded, arranged thematically and content analysed.

Results and Discussion

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 1 highlights the socio-demographic profiles of respondents of the study. The data and the discussion that follow relate to gender, age, marital status, educational level and religious sects of respondents. The table suggests that there are more male respondents in the study as over 60.5% of the total sampled respondents are male, while only 39.5% were female. The reason for this larger number of male respondents, despite the help of two trained female research assistants, may be attributed to the relative easy access to male Muslims than their female counterpart as stipulated by the religion.

Findings also suggest that the majority of respondents in the study were relatively young men and women. This is supported by the frequency and percentage

distributions of the age of respondents as indicated below. Over 81.4% of the total sampled respondents are within the ages of 21 years and 40 years. Between 41 years of age and over 60s is only 19.6%. This is not a surprising data as the Nigerian population distributions have been noted to be bottom heavy. This means that the population accommodates more young people than the old. Though, the country's population policy is essentially tilted towards discouraging large family size, the culture of the people despite education is largely pro-natalist.

In addition, a little above half of the study respondents are married while the proportion of those that are single were 47.0%. Others, that is, those who are separated or widowed were merely 0.5% and 2.3% respectively. This data appears to corroborate the relatively young nature of the majority of respondents. However, a fact that cannot be denied is that increasingly, for various socio-economic and other sundry reasons, years of marriage have been extended beyond age 20s in Nigeria. Apart from the fact that people now spend more years schooling, the harsh economic reality in the country appears to make marriage less attractive to an overwhelming proportion of youths in Nigeria. In any case, a good proportion of respondents are quite educated in terms of western type of education. It also shows that a good proportion has been through Arabic system of education and this is very important to the study. Specifically, apart from the 7.4% who have had no formal education, 6.1% have had only primary education, 39.5% have had only secondary education. For those who have earned a higher level of education, 47.0% have had tertiary education. Respondents who have attended higher education were asked to indicate the degrees obtained, the result shows that the degree mentioned ranges from NCE to ND, from HND to B.SC. None appears to indicate degrees such as Masters or Doctorate. Nevertheless, the result shows the respondents were literate enough to understand how to attend to the questionnaire. Besides, respondents' literacy offered us the opportunity to measure the relationship between levels of education and the use of ruqyah among the respondents. The question here is, does formal education debar people or Muslims from using exorcism?

Finally, since the study's targeted group is the adherent of Islamic religion, that is, the Muslims, we did not bother to inquire into their religious affiliations. However, it was important to ask which Islamic sects respondents belong to though not all Muslims belong to a sect. The result, as presented in table 1 shows that the majority (42.3) of the respondents to the questionnaire belong to the Sunni sect. This is followed by those who claimed to have no affiliation (30.7%). Others are *Tijaniyat*

(10.2%), Quadriyat (8.8), Hammadiyat (5.6%) and Shiat (2.3%). The question is would affiliation influence the respondents' belief system in Jinn and Jinn possession? This question is necessary in order to see whether affiliation of membership of a sect or another would have a significant relationship with the belief in Jinn processions and the uses Ruqyah (exorcism) among Muslims although, 'belief in unseen' which is of the articles of faith in the religion of Islam encompass belief in existence of jinn (Umar, 2002).

Table 1 Demographic Characteristic of Respondents

Variables Percentage	Item	Frequency
Gender 60.5	Male	130
	Female	85
	Total	215
Age 60.0	21-30	129
	31-40	46
	41-50	20
	51-50	15
	61 plus	5
	Total	215
Marital Status 47.0	Single	101
	Married	108
	Divorced	1
	Widowed	5
	Total	215
Highest of Education 7.4	No Formal Education	16
	Primary School Only	14
	Secondary School Only	84
	Tertiary Only	101
	Total	215
100.0		

Jinn Possession as Explanation of Illness among Muslims

We begin the analysis by examining whether respondents, in the first instance, have ever heard of jinn possession and believe in the existence of jinn and jinn possession. Also, we sought to determine respondents' source(s) belief (in)/knowledge (about) the capacity of jinn to possess or cause illness in human. Not surprisingly, the data in Table 2 shows that an overwhelming majority have heard about jinn (demonic) possession. It also shows that the respondent believes jinn has the capacity to possess human beings. In the case of source of information about jinn possession, negligible percent (6.0%) of respondents indicated imam as their source of information while the majority (94.0%) identified the Qur'an and hadith.

Table 2 Respondents' belief in evil jinn possession and source of knowledge

Variables Percent	Frequency
Ever heard of jinn possession	
Yes	211
98.1	
No	4
1.9	
Total	215
100	
Belief in the existence of jinn	
Believe	204
94.9	
Do not believe	11
5.1	
Total	215
100	
Source of belief in the existence of jinn	
<i>Qur'an and Hadith</i>	202
94.0	
Imam	13
6.0	
Other source	-
Total	215
100.0	

Source: authors 2014

The latter finding is explainable by the fact that irrespective of sect differences, all Muslims draw their faith, belief and injunctions from a single Book: the Qur'an; with the Hadith (the deeds of the holy prophet of Islam) serving as a complimentary source for clarity. Therefore, it is expected that all Muslims (irrespective of age, gender or sect) take as given the injunctions about jinn as presented in Qur'an and the Hadith of the Prophet. Indeed, examining the effects of demographic characteristics, we found that respondents' age and level of education are not significant. Respondents' perception about jinn and their capacity to possess and cause harm to human being is universal. The Interviews conducted with several participants confirm the notion that Muslim faithful draw their knowledge of jinn and jinn possession from the Qur'an and Hadith:

The Muslims must believe in the existence of Jinn. The existence of Jinn was mentioned in several verses of the Qur'an and not only that, a complete chapter was named after them in the Qur'an – that is Suratul Jinn: chapter 72 of the Qur'an **IDI/Male/Ibadan SE**.

Another one also said that:

Jinn certainly exist. Allah said “HE created both men and jinn for the purpose of worshipping HIM”. It was also evidence that we cannot see them but they can see us. The Muslim belief in jinn is one belief that is strong because there are lots of evidences from the Qur'an. For example in Chapter 2 verse 275, Allah explicitly provides the Muslims with ample evidence for mankind to know and be aware of the Jinn. It means that jinn exist and they always touch people. Also the prophet of Islam said that jinn pass through human body as blood flows through the vein **IDI/Male/Ibadan SE**.

Having established that the study participants' believe in jinn possession, attention was directed to their attitude towards the belief in jinn possession as an explanation of ill health. The first question that was asked from the respondents was if they thought all Jinn (spirits) are evil in nature. Table 3 highlights the pattern of responses elicited by the respondents. The statistic shows that only 22.8% believe that all Spirits are evil while the Majority (77.2%) believes that not all spirits are evil. Again, this may not be a surprising result as the Muslims Qur'an show that Jinn are of two kinds: the good Jinn (do not possess human beings and are believed to be Muslims as well by the Islamic faith) and the evil Jinn (who are of the devil and have the capability to ruin humans' lives) (Mustafa, 2001).

Table 3 Distribution of Respondents by Perceived Demonic/Harmful Nature of All Jinn

Variables	Frequency
All Jinn are Demonic	
Yes	49
22.8	
No	66
77.2	
Total	215
100.0	
Jinn can cause illness and bodily harm to human	
Yes	192
89.3	
No	23
10.7	
Total	215
100.0	
Causes of illness in human	
Human lifestyle only	28
13.0	
Jinn and Human lifestyles	176
81.9	
Jinn only	11
5.1	
Total	215
100.0	

Source: Authors 2014

Other data on table 3 illustrates respondents' opinion concerning jinn's ability to cause harm to human. The majority of respondents (89.3%) agreed that Jinn can cause ill health to human being while only few (10.7%) feel otherwise. In simple terms, this means that many of the participant ill health behavior could include explanation of bodily discomfiture or ill health by attributing the cause to jinn possession. Demonic *jinn* are, therefore, considered as powerful beings with the capacity to cause human illness. Some of the Key Informants interviewed in this study corroborate this as one of them said:

Jinn are creatures of Allah like human being. Among them we have believers (the good ones) and non-believer (the evil ones) in Allah. Those nonbelievers among Jinn are those normally referred to as demons by English speaking peoples and they are the more dangerous ones. These sets of Jinn have the capacity to possess human being or cause bodily harm to him physically or make him unwell spiritually or destroyed his property, perhaps because the patients have wronged them unknowingly or for no reason (**KII Muslim**

Scholar and Cleric/Ibadan SE/Date).

Yet another one said:

Allah said HE created both men and jinn for the purpose of worshipping HIM. The existence of Jinn has been widely accepted among Muslims since the time of Prophet Muhammad (SAW). But not all Jinn possess human being. Muslim jinn do not cause havoc to human being but non-Muslim jinn can cause a lot of problem to human beings (**KII Muslim Scholar and Cleric/Ibadan SE/Date).**

Of course demonic evil Jinn are of the extra-terrestrial realm and thus, unseen. In other words, the opinion expressed by the respondents is beyond modern medicine's idea of causes of ill health as expressed by the germs theory of diseases (Jegade, 2010; Ajala, 2010). The perception of the participants concerning Jinn possession and as possible cause of illness is based on their acceptance of the dictate of religion. What the above finding suggests is that the search for the causes of illness may reflect more than the simple objective nature of the condition or behavior which forms the central idea of germ theory of diseases (Weitz, 2004). Mechanic (1968) for example, had long time ago argued that causes of illness or disease must be understood in the light of the environment in which the patient operate.

Indeed, the scientific examination of the precinct of the cognitive process that leads Muslim faithful to accept and explain certain form of ill health through the prism of their faith (as drawn from the Qur'an). Yet, this perception and belief in the possibility of Jinn possession and their ability to cause ill health appears to be prevalent among Muslims. As Ajala (2010) stated, certain forms of spirituality have greater influence in shaping people's construction of health and illness. This much is revealed in the data and analysis that follow. Table 4 shows data on what respondents thought causes illness in human beings.

Table 4 Causes of Illness and Belief in Harmful nature of Jinn

Causes of Illness	Belief That Certain Jinn can Affect an Individual		Total	X ²	Df	P
	Yes	No				
Human Shortcoming	20 71.4%	8 28.6%	28 100.0%	15.3	2	<0.001
Jinn And Human Shortcomings	164 93.2%	12 6.8%	176 100.0%			
Jinn Only	8 72.7%	3 27.3%	11 100.0%			
Total	192 89.3%	23 10.7%	215 100.0%			

This provides a wider search for causes of illness beyond the biological factor and does not negate the possibility of faith in this search. Indeed, a chi-square analysis show below established the possible association between faith and perceived cause(s) of illness among the sampled respondents of this study. The chi-square value (P<15.3) suggests a significant association between these two variables. Respondents' opinions on illness causative factors appear to move along the same line of thought which support the Jinn factor in human illness. In support of the above data an interviewee said:

There are two types of illness: Illness that can be treated with various herbs which do not include haram (forbidden) materials. This is related to all illness that people go to hospital for and can as well be treated in our own hospitals too. For example, diabetics, hypertension etc. we can call this BODY ILLNESS. The second one is what is called Magical illness. This may be associated with jinn or some bad people in the society who can charm people the way they want. For instance someone came to me to complain about a health problem which normally can be body illness, but after examination and interrogations we discovered that it was shirr (magic) caused by demonic jinn possession. Such person with this kind of health problem will be treated with Qur'an without using herb and he will be alright **IDI/Exorcist/Ibadan SE.**

This confirms the statistics on the possible causes of illness in human. Essentially, respondents in this study considered illnesses to be of two types. First, like the above quote suggest, is the physical illness which is generally regarded as biological illness or explained by germ theory or caused by disease factor. Second, also mentioned are illness believed to have been caused by other factors which may not be amenable to scientific explanations. Ill health could also be caused by *Shirr* (the Arabic word for magic) through the machinations of evil Jinn on human beings. These two normally deal with spirituality or faith matter. Hence, there is evidence to suggest that explanation of ill health through spiritual lens and the use of *ruqyah* (exorcism) to remedy this appear to be popular among the study respondents.

Patronage of Ruqyah (Exorcism) as Alternative Medicine among Muslims in Ibadan South-East

The respondents in our study consider exorcism as alternative treatment to modern and indigenous medical practices. This matches the widespread belief in extra-medical factor in explanation of causes/sources of diseases and ill health in human being. Hence, it is pertinent to understand the level of patronage of exorcism among the respondents. Findings were derived from both quantitative and qualitative data elicited from both survey and in-depth interviews conducted among the sampled respondents and a group of exorcists. The responses generated from this are illustrated in table 5.

Table 5 Patronage of Ruqyah as Alternative Medicine

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Use of Ruqyah as Alternative to Modern Medicine	140	65.1
Use of Ruqyah as Alternative to Modern Medicine	76	35.7
Use of Ruqyah as Alternative to Modern Medicine	215	100.0
Doesn't had a reason to visit an Exorcist	91	42.3
Doesn't had a reason to visit an Exorcist	124	57.7
Doesn't had a reason to visit an Exorcist	215	100.0
Number of Times engaged in ruqyah (exorcism) or visited an exorcist in the last five years	15	7.0
Number of Times engaged in ruqyah (exorcism) or visited an exorcist in the last five years	20	9.3
Number of Times engaged in ruqyah (exorcism) or visited an exorcist in the last five years	10	4.7
Number of Times engaged in ruqyah (exorcism) or visited an exorcist in the last five years	2	0.9
Number of Times engaged in ruqyah (exorcism) or visited an exorcist in the last five years	2	0.9
Number of Times engaged in ruqyah (exorcism) or visited an exorcist in the last five years	13	6.0
Number of Times engaged in ruqyah (exorcism) or visited an exorcist in the last five years	215	100.0

Source: Authors 2014

Evidences from the above table illustrate the fact that exorcism as medical practice is accepted and widely practiced among respondents as viable treatment techniques. Since over 69% of respondents claimed to patronize exorcists, it can be concluded that they have positive attitude towards the treatment method. The above statistics reveal that over 64% of respondents have engaged in ruqyah (exorcism) between one and three times in the last five years. In contrary 13.0% of them have never used ruqya, 11.6% have engaged in it for 4-6 times, 4.7% have used it for between 7-9 times, and 4.7% have engaged in it for over 13 times and 1.4% have used ruqya to treat an illness for between 10-12 times in the last five years. Although, this shows a kind of decline in number of visit to exorcist (the higher the number the lower the respondent's visit) which may be due to how often the respondents fall sick or Jinn Possession in the last five years. But the information from the above table 5 suggests that ruqyah (exorcism) as a method of treatment of illness is a common practice among the study population as 83% of respondent have had one reason or the other to visit an exorcist in the last five years. To support this claim one of the exorcists interviewed claimed thus:

Our register records as many as ten or sometimes twenty patients daily. Every day a lot of patients come in here seeking help for one problem or the other. Some do not even come into the clinic; they will rather call me to tell me what their problems were and I will instruct them what to do pending my arrival. Many others who may not afford to pay for home service like this visit the clinic regularly. **(IDI/Exorcist/Ibadan SE).**

Another interviewee said that:

In 2004 when this place (the healing center) started we were little known and so started with few patients. But, by 2006 after a mad woman was cured of her insanity of over 25years, we became well known and since then people have been coming to our healing center with one health problem or another. We treat an average of 20 people in a week. Within this period the number of people that are admitted usually number between 3 to 5. **(IDI/Exorcist/Ibadan SE).**

The above information does not only support the findings from quantitative data, it also reveals the dimension of the patronage. For one, it appears that all the exorcists interviewed are able to attract a good number of patients/clients for their services. On the average, an exorcist does attend to more than fifty people in a week. Therefore, the level of patronage of exorcism seems high. In addition, the finding reveals that the social interaction between exorcists and their clients take place at two platforms. On the one hand (and this appears to be the prominent or the more prevalent) is the face-to-face interaction where the patients visit the health center, complain of certain problem and the exorcist examines him/her to diagnose the problem and prescribed what to do. This healer-patient engagement is more of traditional method and persists even within the modern or orthodox medical practices.

On the other hand, it appears from the data that today exorcists do engage in telemedicine. Many of the exorcists stated that some of their patients do call them to relate certain spiritual or physical problems they are battling with to them on telephone. And they (the exorcists) in turn tell them (the patients/clients) what to do (perhaps as a kind of first aid) prior to coming to the clinic, or in the case of the more wealthy patients, the home services. This social interactional platform between the exorcist and the patient is a reflection of the current modern trend of utilization of telecommunication facilities in enhancing treatment. Therefore, the structure of relationship between patients and the exorcists transcend the traditional face-to-face interactions to include somewhat interfacial medium saving which helps collapse time and space in health management. However, the findings also show stratification dimension. In as much as the exorcists stated that they only provide home services to those that can afford to pay for it. It therefore suggests that many of those who 'troop' to the exorcists' healing centers appear to be those who are of low social status while those who get home services are more of the wealthy and highly placed individuals within the same social system.

Having established that the respondents patronize exorcists for treatment of illness, the question that naturally arises is whether level of education can affect the attitude of respondents towards exorcism. Or to ask pointedly does formal education debar people or Muslims from using exorcism? Are those who use this method of treatment uneducated or stark illiterate? In other words, does formal education have implication for the adoption of exorcism as a form of treatment of ailment? Indeed, Education is an important part of the formation of a man. The process of education is an essential aspect of the process of acquisition and transmission of culture or

knowledge from generation to generation (Hogan, 2006). To this extent, this study attempts to establish the relationship between the level of education of respondents and their attitude towards exorcism.

Table 6 Distribution of Patronage by Educational level

Categories	Frequency	Percent
Illiterates	14	6.5
Illiterates and Arabic literates	11	5.1
Arabic literates only	33	15.3
Illiterates and Western Educated Only	3	1.4
Western Educated and Arabic Illiterates only	43	20.0
Illiterate, Western Educated and Arabic Literates	11	51.6
Total	215	100.0

Table 4.30 illustrates that the more than half (51.6%) of the opinion of respondents tended towards the fact that everyone; western educated individuals, Arabic literate people and those who have not had any form of education at all visit exorcists to alleviate any unhealthiness in them or any member of their family. Others 20.0%, 15.3%, 6.5%, 5.1% and 1.4% believe that western educated and Arabic illiterates, Arabic educated only, illiterates, illiterates and Arabic literates and western educated only respectively use or patronize exorcists. What this suggests is that respondents do not see level or kind of education as an impediment to usage of exorcism. In response to the question on whether people with high educational status use exorcism, an interviewee retorted:

Yes, many! Many!! Individuals with high level of education do come to us here for treatment. But this kind of people usually use *ruqyah* as the last remedy for their health problems; mostly after they have been to different healing centre, both the modern and the traditional ways. Among my patients, I do have medical doctors, nurses, and people from other professions and most would have tried to solve their health problem through modern medicine. After which the problem persists, they come to us **(IDI/Exorcist/Ibadan SE)**.

An exorcist who holds a M.A. in Linguistics from the University of Ibadan claimed that:

We have treated professors, physicians, lecturers, company directors here. Many of them do come here from Lagos for treatment for various problems related to demonic Jinn possession which they may have been suffering from and after modern medical attentions have proved abortive. With the help of Allah, they all always get cured with recitation of *Ruqyah*. In fact, people do come here from the USA for treatment after prolonged illness which modern medicine could not cure. Some of these cures are recorded in tapes and we can offer to show you if you are interested **(IDI/Exorcist/Ibadan SE)**.

The quantitative and qualitative data presented above show that all manner of people access the services of the exorcists for medical purpose. Although, it is equally established that before attempting to use exorcism many of the educated ones must have tried the modern clinical medicine and only when such avenue is exhausted would they venture into seeking medical help from an exorcist. The claims of some of the exorcists interviewed suggest that people of modern rationality and urban personality such as members of academic community, drivers of corporate businesses do seek exorcism to dispossess themselves or member of their family of evil Jinn afflictions. The seemingly surprising element from the above data is about the claim that even those of modern medical profession like nurses and physicians seek treatment from such avenue.

Discussion and Concluding Remarks

This study was designed to examine the belief in evil Jinn possession, *Ruqyah* (exorcism) and its implication for healthcare quest among Muslims in Southeast area of Ibadan, Nigeria. The findings from the field suggest that belief in spirit possession is widespread among Muslims in Southeast Ibadan. This belief was discovered to emanate from two sources. One, the study noted that Muslims are enjoined to accept the dictates of the Qur'an (being the Holy Book from Allah). And there are many portions of the Holy Qur'an which mentioned Jinn (generally known as spirit in English) and its ability to possess human being. Secondly, study found out that Muslims' belief in Jinn/spirit possession also emanates from the deed (Hadith) of the prophet of Islam. However, it was found out that not all Jinn possess or cause bodily or spiritual harms to human. Muslims, from this study, believe that there are

some Jinn who are Muslims (or believers) like themselves and this category of good Jinn/spirit neither possess nor inflict harms on people. On the other hand the evil Jinn are the ones that are believed to have the capacity to possess and also cause problems to human health. Finally, the findings suggested that Muslims believe that all health problems that can be caused by the diseases factors can also be caused by evil Jinn. In fact, such bodily diseases as cancer, stroke, diabetes, headache, infertility, and bareness, among others are also believed could be caused by evil Jinn. The only difference, as found out in the field, is that such illness would have defied modern medicine or the patient would have been burdened with it for longer time than necessary for it to heal.

Furthermore, the findings from the field also suggest that Muslims appear to consider *Ruqyah* (exorcism) as alternative medicine capable or effective enough to cure any ailment. The study found out that respondents believed that Muslims could seek to use any form of treatment to treat themselves when they are ill as long as the treatment and the materials used in preparation of the medicine is halal (permissible) in Islam. The study also shows that Muslims consider the treatment of ill health or spirit possession through exorcism as efficacious. Generally, respondents thought that there are enough evidence which support the efficacy of *Ruqyah* in treatment of both bodily diseases and spiritual ill health. However, the study also found out that they resort to treat any health problems they may have through this means especially when they have attempted the modern medical means to no avail. In other words, *Ruqyah* are practiced only if the modern medicine fails. Therefore, it appears that *Ruqyah* is an alternative medicine, though, playing second fiddle to the modern medical practices.

In addition, findings show that usage of *Ruqyah* (exorcism) for treatment of ill health is prevalent among Muslims. The result from the field shows that a good number of Muslims captured for this study use exorcism as alternative medicine. Indeed, the result suggests that many of the respondents have visited exorcists several times since the last five years. This was also confirmed by several exorcists who the researcher interviewed. In fact, the exorcists all claimed that they have as many as over fifty people/patients coming to their clinics seeking solutions for different health problems. In addition, findings reveal that the social interaction between exorcists and their clients take place at two platforms. On the one hand (and this

appears to be the prominent or the more prevalent) is the face-to-face interaction where the patients visit the health center, complain of certain problem and the exorcist examines him/her to diagnose the problem and prescribe what to do. This healer-patient engagement is more of traditional method and persists even within the modern or orthodox medical practices.

Finally, the findings suggest that level of education do not have any influence on Muslims attitude toward the usage of *ruqyah* to treat themselves from ill health. The results from both the quantitative and qualitative data gathered from the field suggest that all manner of people access the services of the exorcists for medical purpose. The claims of some of the exorcists interviewed suggest that people of modern rationality and urban personality such as members of academic community, drivers of corporate businesses do seek for *ruqyah* (exorcism) to dispossess them or members of their family of evil Jinn afflictions. Although, it is equally established that before attempting to use exorcism many of the educated ones must have tried the modern clinical medicine and only when such avenue is exhausted would they venture into seeking medical help from an exorcist.

In conclusion, from all indications, belief in Jinn, Jinn possession and Jinn capability to cause health problems and personal misfortune to human beings and the use of *Ruqyah* (exorcism) appears accepted among Muslims. Therefore, alternative method of treatment, particularly the usage of *ruqyah* as alternative medicine, seems prevalent among the Muslims. The usage of *ruqyah* for treatment has nothing to do with level of education of patients; irrespective of qualifications or social status. The patronage is predicated on failure of modern method of medicine.

As a result of the above, the study recommends that the government, policy makers and donors in the area of health need to explore this health method (*ruqyah*) further. This should be with a view to finding ways to integrate the positive aspect of treatment method into the mainstream. The benefit in the integration of modern medical method of treatment with *Ruqyah* is located in the fact that they are both complementary to each other. The ailment which appears to defy modern health method could be referred to exorcists. Exorcists need to modernise some of their practices in order to douse the negative perception of people on *ruqyah*.

Areas of further study

Why do Muslims in Ibadan patronise exorcism as a remedy for health problems?

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POWERLESSNESS, LEARNED-HELPLESSNESS AND GENDER INEQUALITY DISCOURSE IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

In Nigeria, gender inequality is a topical issue and a lot of resources and efforts are being expended every year in attempts at redressing the disparities between the gender divide. This paper examines the nexus between systemic oppression and women learned helplessness and apathy to gender inequality discourse in Nigeria. This paper specifically explore women powerlessness and learned helplessness as out-come of patriarchy, systemic oppressions and other overt and covert societal practices which a priori discouraged women from aspiring to and assuming leadership role and interest in other power and authority wielding positions in the society. The paper traced the origin of powerlessness and helplessness to the stereotyped socialization of the girl child who is nurtured to be home maker, passive observer of the societal processes, and receivers of crumbs from men's tables rather than active participants' competitor for power-positions in the society. Later in life this biased socialization is enhanced by covert and overt systemic oppression and discriminatory practices against the women folks who with time resign to fate and give up hope of attaining power parity with men.

Keywords: powerlessness; learned-helplessness; gender inequality; cultural heritage; socialization; socio-political arena; systemic oppression.

Introduction

Gender inequality and other forms of discriminations against women are topical issues and usually evoke emotional display of displeasure or rejection of advocates of the call to eliminate such discriminations depending on the side of the divide the individual belongs. Different arguments have been advanced for the origin and perpetuation of all forms of gender discrimination and violence against women. Some of the over-flogged reasons for gender inequality and other forms of violence and discriminations against women include (but not limited to) patriarchy, religious doctrines, injunctions and convictions, culture, traditions and belief systems, machoism and other socio-psychological reasons (Ebohon, 2006). The impact of these factors and other systemic oppressions are passivity, helplessness, hopelessness and even loving and preferring men's hegemony and lordship to the rule of their fellow women. This last state is called "loving the oppressor syndrome" – a term used to describe the women preference for men's rule than supporting their fellow women.

Attention is now shifting to the reasons why women seem to resign to fate and seem to prefer the situation instead of effecting radical changes in the structural ordering and processes of the society. This is what is popularly called 'learned helplessness' on the part of women. Learned helplessness is the learning or perception of independence between the emitted responses of the organization and the presentation and/or withdrawal of aversive events (Seligman et al, 1968). Learned helplessness is a term coined by Seligman (Abramson, Seligman & Teasdale, 1978) to describe this theory that helplessness is a learned state produced by exposure to unpleasant situations from which there is no possibility of escape or avoidance. Seligman's initial trials involved placing a dog in a cage from which there was no escape. A bell sounded, followed by an inescapable shock. Having repeated this procedure over three days, the door of the cage was opened. Seligman noted that even though an obvious escape route now existed, on hearing the bell the dog braced itself for the shock, rather than flee it. Seligman concluded that there exists a pathological helplessness, so extreme that even when an avenue of escape is provided an animal will not take it (Staddon & Ettinger, 1989).

The concept of "learned helplessness" is popular today in many circles-in the field of social and behavioural sciences (both clinical and experimental). The term has since been applied to the failure of human beings to seek, utilize or learn adaptive instrumental responses, as seen most dramatically in the depressed person who seems to have given up hope that effective voluntary control over important environmental events is possible (Fogle, 1978). This paper examines the present subservient and helpless positions of women in patriarchal Nigerian society in the

context of the pronounced gender disparity in socio-economic and political opportunities and performance in Nigeria. The paper specifically explores the reasons why women seem to have given up or resigned to fate in their attempts at wresting power from men or at least demanding for gender balance in power sharing and other opportunities in the economic and socio-cultural endeavours in Nigeria. The paper also examines the nexus between societal oppressions and other overt and covert socio-cultural oppressive forces in the societal processes and women's continued subservient positions and passive dispositions towards the struggle for gender equality in Nigeria.

Methodology

There were many sources of information for this study. This situates the methodology in a personal and social context.

Data Sourcing/Study Setting

The descriptive survey design was adopted for this study. The existing secondary data records of the election unit of the Independent National Electoral Commission was utilised for this study. The records detail the electoral and power sharing data, and other personal records of the women in politics and political office holders. Moreover, the records in archives, internet newspapers and other publications were used as case study for this paper. The content analyses of the records made available for this research constitute the crux of the source and sampling method of this study.

Conceptual Clarifications of Psychology of Powerlessness

The concept of learned helplessness was discovered accidentally by psychologists Martin Seligman and Steven Maier (1976). They had initially observed helpless behaviour in dogs that were classically conditioned to expect an electrical shock after hearing a tone. Later, the dogs were placed in a shuttle box that contained two chambers separated by a low barrier. The floor was electrified on one side and not on the other. The dogs previously subjected to the classical conditioning made no attempts to escape, even though avoiding the shock simply involved jumping over a low barrier. In order to investigate this phenomenon, the researchers then devised another experiment. In one group, the dogs were strapped into harness for a period of time and then released. The dogs in the second group were placed in the same harness but were subjected to electrical shocks that could be avoided by pressing a panel with their noses. The third group received the same shocks as those in group two, except that those in this group were not able to control the duration of the shock. For those dogs in the third group, the shock seemed to be completely random and

outside of their control. Later the dogs were placed in a shuttle box. Dogs from the first and second groups quickly learned that jumping the barrier eliminated the shock. Those from the third group however made no attempts to get away from the shocks. Due to their previous experience, they had developed a cognitive expectation that nothing they did would prevent or eliminate the shocks (Watson, 2005).

The above experiments show that learned helplessness is the expectation that one cannot control the circumstances and often results in passive acceptance of conditions. This result may lead to decreased motivation and persistence and in some cases depression if individuals sense that they have no control over their lives. Essentially, learned helplessness refers to perceived absence of a relationship between an action and its subsequent outcome, resulting in helpless behaviour (Valas, 2001).

Although, generally accepted today, the helplessness phenomenon was historically a controversial observation – or at least the interpretation of what it was. There were two general theories that emerged during the height of the controversy, one being cognitive in nature and the other performance based (Maier and Jackson, 1979). The cognitive interpretation asserted that during exposure to the inescapable shocks, the animal learns that the shock and its response are not contingent and is impaired thereafter in forming relevant contingencies. The other prevailing theory was that the performance decrement reflects a decrease in activity which results either from associating the shock with an inactive response or is simply a product of neurotransmitter depletion (Glazer and Weiss, 1976; Anisman et al, 1978; Sherman and Petty, 1980).

So, learning at its essence entails the discovery of what leads to what. This is because learning of this sort necessarily extends overtime, it is sensible to view it in central (cognitive) terms. Although, there is a disagreement about the final detail of these central representations, it is clear that contingency learning is a critically important psychological process linked to subsequent motivation, cognition, and emotion. It is also linked to desirable characteristics: happiness, optimism, perseverance, achievement and health (Peterson, 2000). In a similar vein, Scheier and Carver (1992) identified personality variable they referred to as dispositional optimism; the global expectation that good things will be plentiful in the future and

bad things, scarce. This explains how people pursue goals, define desirable values, etc. Such optimism enters into self-regulation when people ask themselves about impediments to achieving the goals they have adopted. When these goals are realised, optimism leads to continued efforts to attain the goal i.e. the will to forge ahead and strive for the best but when such optimism fails, pessimism sets in and this leads to giving up (Carver & Scheier, 1981).

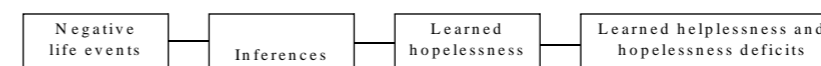
Culture and belief systems play a prominent role in shaping our world, our motivation, aspiration and achievements. The belief that one cannot improve or make any meaningful change always stunts our achievements. Ability inspires self confidence, and does for a while so long as the going is easy. But setbacks change everything. Learning goals inspire a different chain of thoughts and behaviour than performance goals. Attributions are the key ingredients driving the helpless and mastery-oriented patterns. Attribution theory concerns people's judgement about the causes of events and behaviour (Kravovsky, 1992). The effect of that attribution errors and biases form the crux of this paper. In other words, the paper is exploring the effect of the attributions of women to overt and covert societal processes, systemic oppressions, the principles of primogeniture where the eldest surviving son inherit the property of a deceased person, patriarchal belief systems and other factors on the learned helplessness of women in the context of gender inequality discourse in the Nigerian society.

Learning

Learning is the act of acquiring knowledge and skills through observation, study, or instruction. The process of learning is complex and many factors influence its occurrence. Learning is usually a product or an outcome of exposure, instruction or study. Learning can also be understood as an internal process not easily observed. Thinking through a problem or figuring out how to follow a procedure also illustrates the learning process. What we learn is organized according to a network of associations and concepts (often called schema) stored throughout the brain. The process of learning is continuous but its products are observable only when directly assessed. Psychologists use the term performance to refer to the product of learning that the learner demonstrates. Performance is the change in behaviour that we can observe and from which we infer that learning has occurred. It may be the appearance of a new behaviour or an increase or reduction in a behaviour previously learned (Hohn, 1995; Bandura, 1977).

There is a correlation between learning and helplessness. Research is very concerned with how learners think, how, and what they think about themselves, the process of learning task and learning outcome. The learned helplessness theory provides a theoretical framework for studies on hopelessness and helplessness and its cognitive correlates such as negative life events, hopelessness deficits and inferences people make about causes, consequences and self-characteristics (Abrahamson et al, 1989).

Causal Chain Implied in Abrahamson Theory of Learned Helplessness



Source: Chung-Park (2001).

The basic premise of the learned hopelessness theory is that people, in face of negative life events, become passive and sometimes depressed when they attribute negative life events to stable and global causes (Chung-Park 2001). This theory posits that experiences with uncontrollable events can lead to learned helplessness (the expectation of non-contingency between one's response and desired outcomes) which, in turn, results in motivational deficits (passivity and lowered persistence), cognitive deficits (inability to perceive existing opportunity to control outcomes), and emotional deficits (sadness and low self-esteem).

These deficits collectively known as learned helplessness deficits are the components of a general syndrome labelled 'depression'. Abramson et al (1989) theory helps to explain:

- The stability of helplessness deficits in time.
- The generality of helplessness deficits across situations.
- Why people would lose self-esteem when they perceive that they are helpless.
- Individual differences in people's susceptibility to helplessness.

Theoretical Orientation

The theories that inform this study is the Critical Social Work Theory and the Empowerment Theory. The term critical is used to refer to open-minded, reflective approach that takes account of different perspectives, experiences and assumptions. It is about being critical in the common parlance of being negative and destructive .The term critical is discussed here in the professional context with the implication

that it encapsulates what experienced personnel and practitioners does and indeed are called upon to offer (Glaister, 2008) in social work analysis, critical is used in the context to help us move beyond understanding and explaining society passively to critiquing and critically examining the relationship between norms, values and practices in the society.

Here, critical social work theorists insist that all social relationships in the society whether at micro (individual and small groups) meso (organization) or macro (societal) are political with serious implications. In the context of critical theory of social work, political refers to publicizing something or someone in order to introduce the idea that everything has political elements. That is, nothing is neutral as everything involves struggle over power relevance an aspiring have and protect identities (Baines, 2007). Critical social work theory refers to an analysis of power and understanding of social relationships as both personal and political. The personal is political when evaluating and proffering panacea to individual problems, and groups and community problems in social work practice is critical as they connote meaning that incorporate idea of social identity, oppression, domination, privileges, power, justice, creativity, innovativeness and change. The political context is the strives to understand the nature of societies, economic systems and institutions; the nature of societies, economics systems and the interconnection between individuals and societies, economic systems and institutions and to know whose needs are served by systems and institutions (Ibrahim and Owen, 1994).

This theory best explains women powerlessness and leaned helplessness which are the behavioral depositions by woman as a result of the unequal power-authority relationship with their male counterparts who hide under the guise of normative societal ideas to perpetually dominate the women in the society that not only can neglect women to the background to socialize the girl child to regard men as superior and super ordinate and to readily accept the men hegemony as normal and natural. This is in response to the norms, values, culture and traditions and other practices that help indoctrinate these oppressive and discriminative cultural heritages in women as normal and acceptable.

The second theory that informs this paper is the empowerment theory. Empowerment is a concept that has been used so often and so widely that its definition has become blurred in academic literature. The word empowerment means a person's freedom to achieve the desired goals - this focuses on the individual. But empowerment can also be institutional, social or political when it is used in relation to the rules and norms within which the actors make and pursue their choices (World Development Report, 2001).

According to Alsop et al (2006) empowerment is the process of enhancing an individual's capacity to make choices and how to transform the choices into the sought after outcome. Narayan (2002) similarly defines empowerment as increasing poor people or oppressed people freedom of choice and action to shape their own lives. These means that empowerment entails relationship between agency and structure. It also means that empowerment is multidimensional and it can be exercised on many different levels and domains. Empowerment is also rational, because it occurs in relation to whom a person interacts with. World Bank (2002) posits that empowerment is not a zero-sum game, but rather different types of power structures (such as power over, power with and power within and empowerment) are extremely culture specific (Lausch, 2011).

Therefore, empowerment is related to the norms, values and beliefs of a society hence powerlessness is also culture-specific. This theory of empowerment helps to understand the learned helplessness and powerlessness being discussed in this paper because it helps underscore the origin of powerlessness and also how this helplessness can be overcome through appropriate and culture specific empowerment programme and polices like deconstructing and dismantling patriarchy and male hegemony in the Nigerian society.

Psychology of Powerlessness, Learned Helplessness and Gender Inequality Discourse in Nigeria

A review of the literature on learned helplessness indicates that a great deal of attention has been paid to the psychological deficits that result from a perceived lack of control (Alloy, 1982, Roth, 1980). Learned helplessness theory suggests that as individuals experience uncontrollable events they show performance deficits on subsequent tasks. This effect has been found in both experimental research (Benson

and Kennelly, 1976; Jones et al, 1977) and field studies (Glass and Singer, 1972) and suggests that individuals who experience learned helplessness suffers motivational and behavioural deficits, and control withdrawal (Zimmerman, 1990).

In Nigeria, the age long sexism, patriarchy belief system, cultural heritage and systemic oppressions have done much damage to women's sense of identity. This has created a feeling of powerlessness and helplessness as well as ambivalence about their role and gender identity. This psychological state and behavioural dispositions of women start right from the cradle whereby the girl child is given 'special' but stereotyped socialization. The learning process of the growing girl child is beclouded by culture and beliefs that are anchored on patriarchy and religious injunctions. The mind sets of women are conditioned from the onset to see things from very narrow and subjective realities. This assertion is supported by the contingency view of learning which posits that individuals are able to detect cause – effect relationships, separating momentary non-causal relationships from more enduring true ones (Wassermann and Miller, 1997).

The propositions above explain the origin of psychology of powerlessness and learned helplessness associated with the Nigerian women in socio-economic and political spheres of the Nigerian society. Women attribute or explain their perpetual subjugation to men and their abortive failure to compete fully with men in the scheme of things because of impediments embedded in the tenets of the cultural heritage, religion of the people and oppressive forces in the Nigerian society. The model of learned helplessness of Maier & Seligman (1976), proposed that after experiencing uncontrollable aversive events, animal and people become helpless – passive and unresponsive – presumably because they have “learned” that there is no contingency between actions and outcomes. This learning is represented as a generalised expectancy that future outcomes will be unrelated to actions. It is this generalized expectation of response – outcome independence that later produces helplessness. The concern of helplessness theorists with attributions about bad events is explained by the outcomes of historical interest: depression, failure, despair, and illness (Snyder, 1995).

Juxtaposition of this proposition with the Nigerian realities where power, privileges, immunities, authority and opportunities are the lots of men i.e. men wield and possess the above mentioned advantages as opposed to women who have little or nothing in the context of power-authority relations, the right say and have a say and actively participating in socio-political and economic activities of the Nigerian society. As a result of the endemic societal oppressive forces, women are willy-nilly forced to resign to fate or rather to give up any hope of ever attaining the position or pedestal as the men. This is because efforts in the past to relate or contest power, opportunities, immunities and authority with men resulted in dismal failures. With time, women resign to fate and assume that men are 'destined' to dominate and control the resources of the nation via birth rights, religious injunctions, tenets of patriarchy and cultural heritage. The result is learned helplessness resulting from powerlessness to effect any change of the status quo by women in the Nigerian society.

The content analysis of relevant data bordering on political, economic, social and religious matters will add credence to the position of this paper that the psychological feeling of powerlessness and disposition of learned helplessness are fall-outs of the oppressive forces against women and gender inequality in Nigeria. For example, results of elections into various positions in the 1999, 2003, 2007 and 2011 general elections, and appointment into various executive positions show that women fortunes are very minimal and the positions they occupy are infinitesimal vis.-a-vis. those of men

Table 1: Gender Gaps in Labour Force Participation and Earned Income, 2010

Year	Labour Force Participation			Estimated Earned Income (US\$)		
	Female	Male	F/M Ratio	Female	Male	F/M Ratio
2010	45	85	0.53	1,163	2,777	0.42
2009	47	86	0.54	1,054	2,650	0.40
2008	47	86	0.54	652	1,592	0.41
2007	39	72	0.55	669	1,628	0.41
2006	40	75	0.53	614	1,495	0.41

Source: World Economic Forum, Global Gender Gap Index 2010 Nigeria Profile

Table 2: Gender Gaps in Access to Economic Resources

Access to Resource	Female	Male
Credit facility	45.7	54.3
Bank loan	21.9	78.3
Microcredit	27.9	72.1
Grants	28	72
Esusu	55.7	44.3
Cooperative loan	34.7	65.3
Farmland	35.9	64.1
Agricultural inputs	26.7	73.3
Agricultural extension services	22.8	77.2
Storage facility	26	74
Own land	15.8	84.2

Source: UNDP, 2009, Nigeria Human Development Report 2008-2009, p.53

Table 3: Seats Held in National Assembly by Year of Election and Gender

	1999		2003		2007		2011	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Senate								
Men	106	97.3	105	96.3	100	91.7	102	93.6
Women	3	2.8	4	3.7	9	8.3	7	6.4
Total	109	100.0	109	100.0	109	100.0	109	100.0
House of Reps								
Men	348	96.7	338	95.9	334	92.8	339	94.2
Women	12	3.3	22	6.1	26	7.2	21	5.8
Total	360	100.0	360	100.0	360	100.0	360	100.0
Both houses								
Men	454	96.8	443	94.66	434	92.5	441	94.9
Women	15	3.2	26	5.54	35	7.5	28	6.0
Total	469	100.0	469	100.0	469	100.0	469	100.0

Source: NBS, 2009, and National Centre for Women Development.

Table 4: Comparison of women representation in 2003, 2007 and 2011 general elections

Position	No. of available seats	No. of women elected in 2003	No. of women elected in 2007	No. of women elected in 2011
Presidency	-	0	0	0
Senate	109	3 (2.27%)	9 (8.26%)	8 (7.34%)
House of Representatives	360	21 (5.83%)	25 (6.94%)	12 (3.33%)
Governorship	35	0	0	0

Source: Gender Audit and IPT/PARLINE database, 2012.

Table 5: The results of the PDP primaries in 2011 presidential election

Friday, January 14, 2011 People's Democratic Party - PDP of Nigeria Presidential

Primaries

Here are the figures recorded on Friday January 14, 2011 primaries at the Eagle Square Abuja as the state delegates' votes were counted. The third Candidate, Mrs. Sarah Jubril only had her own vote.

State	Goodluck Jonathan	AtikuAbubakar
FCT	24	3
Abia	80	1
Adamawa	76	31
Akwabom	141	0
Anambra	47	8
Bauchi	46	44
Bayelsa	67	0

Benue	72	15
Borno	33	26
Cross River	105	0
Delta	114	7
Ebonyi	82	2
Edo	60	0
Ekiti	76	1
Enugu	89	9
Gombe	55	18
Imo	125	3
Jigawa	100	17
Kaduna	82	41
Kano	21	98
Katsina	147	11
Kebbi	44	33
Kogi	84	24
Kwarra	61	26
Lagos	52	3
Nassarawa	53	8
Niger	16	94
Ogun	80	3
Ondo	69	6

Osun	99	1
Oyo	107	10
Plateau	70	5
Rivers	128	2
Sokoto	32	84
Taraba	62	16
Yobe	29	20
Zamfara	7	70
TOTAL	2635	740

The final official results were:

Dr. Goodluck Jonathan-2635

Alhaji Atiku Abubaka-740

Mrs. Sarah Jubril -1
Total Votes cast: 3376

Table 6 .1: Women Profile in Nigerian Political Office Positions: 1960 – 2012

Period	Performance
First Republic 1960 – 1966	4 females in Federal Parliament. 2 females in Eastern House of Assembly. No female Minister in Federal Cabinet.
First Military Era 1966 – 1979	No female in ruling military Councils and Federal Executive Councils.
Second Republic 1979 – 1983	1 female Senator out of 95. 11 female House of Representative Members out of 450. 3 women Ministers in Federal Cabinet. Few women in State Houses of Assembly. No woman Chairman of Local Government.
Second Military Era – Buhari Government 1984 – 1984	No women in ruling military Council. No woman Minister.
Babangida Transition 1985–1993	2 females out of 19 Political Bureau members. 3 females out of 591 Chairmen in 1991 LGA elections. 27 females out of 1172 State Houses of Assembly members. 14 females out of 589 House of Rep. members. 1 female out of 91 Senators. 8 female Presidential aspirants in 1991. 1 female Presidential aspirant in 1993.
Abacha Transition	20 females out of 360 House of Rep. members. 9 females out of 109 Senators.
Abubakar Transition to Fourth Republic 1999	3 females out of 109 Senators.

Table 6.2: Some Appointments Made by the Civilian Governments at the Federal and State Levels between 1999 and 2010

No	Appointment	Total	Men	Women	%	Names
1.	Federal panel on human rights abuses and mysterious deaths	7	5	2	29	1. Mrs. Elizabeth Pam 2. Mrs. Modupe Areola
2.	Contract Review Panel	7	5	2	29	1. Dr. Rose Abang Wushishi 2. Mrs. Theodora Azinge
3.	Principal officers in the Vice Presidents Office	4	4	-	0	-
4.	Oyo State Commissioner	11	10	1	9	1. Mrs. Kofoworola Oni
5.	Special Advisers to Abia State Governor	2	2	-	0	-
6.	Federal Government Appointed Permanent Secretaries	35	32	3	9	1. Mrs. Grace Enang Archibong 2. Mrs. I. Asugha 3. Ms A.I. Pepple
7.	Akwa Ibom State Commissioners	13	10	3	23	1. Mrs. Eme Essien 2. Mrs. Arit Atim Ekpo
8.	Ebonyi State Commissioners	10	9	1	9	1. Mrs. Kate Chukwu
9.	Probe Panel on failed contracts in Buhari, IBB and Abacha regimes	12	10	2	17	1. Mrs. Tana Iyoha 2. Mrs. Eniola Alakija Sagoe
10.	Osun State Commissioners	11	10	1	9	1. Mrs. Adiamo Lateefat Ibidunni
11.	Federal Executive Council	49	43	6	12	1. Dr. (Mrs.) Bekky Ketebu Igwe 2. Dupe Adelaja 3. Pauline Tallen 4. Dr. Amina Dally 5. Hajia Airshaft Similar 6. Dr. Kamah Chikue

12	Imo State Commissioners	12	10	2	17	1. Dr. Amide Caroline Chika 2. Mrs. Rose Emelike
13	Abia State Commissioners	14	11	3	21	1. Lady Victoria Alana 2. Mrs. Chinyere Adele 3. Mrs. Ezinne Egbe Asoha
14	Edo State Commissioners	9	9	0	0	
15	Lagos State Commissioners	14	12	2	14	1. Mrs. Kemi Nelson 2. Mrs. Maria
16	Zamfara State Commissioners	11	11	0	0	Olateju Philips
17	Special Advisers to Zamfara					
18	State Governor Enugu	4	4	-	-	Mrs. Faustina
	State Commissioners	11	10	0		
19	Plateau State	3	3	0	0	Iyiegbu
20	Other appointments in Lagos State (Special Advisers, Accountant General & Head of Service)	7	5	2	29	1. Ms. Toyin Fagbeyi 2. Mrs. Seyi Williams
21	Probe Panel on Landed Property	7	6	1	14	1. Prof. Bolanle Awe
22	Six person Committee set up by Rivers State Governor to probe past administration	6	5	1	17	1. Mrs. Hannah Aguma
23	Permanent Secretaries appointed by the Edo State Governor	19	14	5	25	1. Mrs. G.K. Olotu 2. Dr. Mrs. E.S. Iluebaera 3. Mrs. E.O. Owen Odeh 4. Mrs. T.Y. Afe 5. Mrs. R. Olotu

24	Special Advisers to Bayelsa State Governor	4	3	1	25	L. Mrs. Jane Alex
25	Kano State Commissioners	13	11	1	9	L. Hajia Halima Soda
26	Sokoto State Commissioners	11	10	1	9	L. Dr. Aishat Isa
27	Senior Assistants to the President	7	6	1	14	L. Mrs. C. Acanlonu
28	Senior Special Advisers to the President	14	13	1	7	L. Mrs. Titu Ajanaku
29	Other Federal Appointments (Service Chiefs, CBN Governor, MD/NNPC)	9	9	0	0	
30	Cross River State Commissioners	9	8	1	11	Mrs. Nella Ewa
31	Newly Appointed Permanent Secretaries in Cross River State	15	13	2	13	Miss Rosemary Ollong Mrs. Mary Clayi
32	Chairpersons of the 5 special committees set up by House of Representatives	5	5	0	0	
33	Delta State Commissioners	10	9	1	10	Mrs. Theodorah Giwa-Annu
34	Kwara State Commissioners	11	9	2	10	Alhaja Nimota Ibrahim Alhaja Hanke Badmus

35	Benue State Commissioners	14	11	3	21	Mrs. Rebecca Apedzan Mrs. Lizzy Suliwa Margaret Loreber
36	Ogun State Commissioners	9	9	0	0	
37	Senate Committee (Chairpersons and Deputies)	90	89	1	1	Khairat Abdulrasaz Gwadabe (Chairperson Women Affairs)
38	Rivers State Commissioners	14	12	2	14	1. Mrs. Aleruchi Cookey-Gam 2. Miss Gloria Fiofori
39	Taraba State Commissioners	10	9	1	10	1. Mrs. Fibi Isa (Women Affairs)
40	Kaduna State Commissioners	14	13	1	7	1. Mrs. Mericidi E. Usman (Women Affairs)
41	Permanent Secretaries in Ogun State	22	17	5	10	Mrs. A.O. Oyejide (Deputy Governor's Office) Mrs. I.O. Odulate Min. of Education Alhaja R.I. Ogunfemi Min. of Information Mrs. A. Oadeyemi (Bureau of Establishment & Training Office) Mrs. O.I. Lewis (Health Project)
42	Members of Revenue Mobilization, Allocation and Fiscal Commission	38	37	1	2	1. Mrs. Bola Kuforiji Olubi

43	Ambassadorial Nominees	106	96	10	1	Political: Dr. Mrs. Deleoluwa (Lagos) Chief Mrs. Ebur Oyegbola (Ogun) Mrs. Renke Adefowope (Oyo) Mrs. Ire Kumbo (Rivers) Career: Amb. Mrs. T.O. Aiyemaye Amb. Miss Harrison Obaemi Amb. Miss A.O. Oyesele (Ogun) Amb. Mrs. F.O. Ukorga (Ogun) Amb. Miss A.A. Kema (Ondo) Amb. Miss I.J. Ayorinde (Osun)
44	Commissioners to INEC	3	2	1	33	Mrs. Kemi Odebiyi
45	EFCC Chairman				N/A	Mrs. Farida Waziri
46	Chairman, Eco State Civil Service Commission				N/A	Dr. J.C. Afe

Source: (1) Adapted from O.O. Arya, 'Women and politics in Nigeria's Fourth Republic' in S.O. Ashaolu (Ed) *Governance: Nigeria and the world*, pp. 314-316. (2) Ebohon, (2012)

Table 6.3: The New Matriarchs

S/N	Name	Portfolio
1.	Zainab Maina	Minister of Women Affairs
2.	Stella Odua-Ogiemwonyi	Minister of Aviation
3.	Diezani Alison Madueke	Minister of Petroleum Resources
4.	Zainab Ibrahim Kuchi	Minister of State for the Niger Delta
5.	Prof. Viola Onwuliri	Minister of Foreign Affairs
6.	Sarah Jubril	Special Adviser on Ethics and Values
7.	Erelu Olusola Obada	Minister of State for Defence
8.	Ama Pepple	Minister of Lands, Housing and Urban Development
9.	Hadiza Ibrahim Mailefia	Minister of Environment
10.	Prof. Rugayyatu Rufai	Minister of Education
11.	Olajumoke Akinjide	Minister of State for Federal Territory Capital
12.	Omobola Olubusola	Minister of Communication Technology
13.	Dr. Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala	Minister of Finance
14.	Joy Emordi	Special Adviser on National Assembly Matters
15.	Sarah Ochekepe	Minister for Water Resources

Source: Ebohon, (2012)

Table 5 above shows the results of the Peoples Democratic Party of Nigeria Presidential Primaries to nominate a candidate to vie for the position of president of Nigeria. The 36 States of the Federation were represented by party delegates at the party convention convened to elect the presidential flag bearer for the General Election scheduled for the month of December, 2011. The party delegates comprised both men and women but none of the women voted for the only female contestant. The vote the only female contestant got was her own vote. The question is why did the female party delegates prefer to vote for the male contestants? The answer is learned helplessness and powerlessness and lack of control over the will power to oppose their oppressors- the men

It is true that some Nigerian women have made some remarkable progress in attainment of gender parity in the context of occupying leadership roles in economic and political arena, like the increase in number of ministerial positions at the Federal level in the last administration of President Goodluck Jonathan that ended on 29th May, 2015. Some notable examples are Dr Ngonzi Okonjo-Iweala who was the Minister of Finance, Princess Stella Oduah who was Minister of Aviation, Mrs. Allison Madueke who was Minister of Petroleum Resources (see table 6.3); Prof. Joy Ugwu who is the current Nigeria's Permanent Representative at the United Nations and few others in political and economic arena. But comparatively, the women still lag behind and continue to play second fiddle positions in most organizations and government departments considering the fact that women are 54% of the over 176 million population of Nigeria (CIA Fact Book, 2014). Some ridiculous positions and designations are usually created to pacify the women folks in the political arena. For example the position of Women leader is usually created at different levels in Political Parties where women are portrayed as being in charge but the men are the ultimate leaders who lord it over women in all ramifications. There is little or nothing the women can seem to do about the situation and the status quo remains till date.

Nigerian women have learned to resign to fate. They have learned to fail and they have learned to always give up or concede defeat to the male counterparts. The 35% Affirmative Action demanded by women for available political positions are a pointer to this fact and the result is learned helplessness. This is why women have literally given up the struggle to wrest power from men because they know the outcome will be dismal failures, yes they are always gallant losers. From the above table, the only female presidential aspirant of the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) Mrs Sarah Jubril as mentioned earlier who got only one vote out of a total votes cast of 3,376 in the 2011 primaries of the PDP attests to this fact. Hundreds of females as party delegates took part in the election that evening, but none voted for Mrs Sarah Jubril. The reason alluded for this failure is learned helplessness and loving the oppressor syndrome. Table 6.1-3 above shows how women have been relegated to the background in the appointments to political and other leadership positions in Nigeria since Nigeria attained her political independence in 1960. Little improvement has been achieved even with the 35% Affirmative Action policy of

the President Goodluck Jonathan's administration. Though women fared better in the aforementioned administration of President Goodluck Jonathan, but when this is juxtaposed with the fact that Nigerian women have numerical majority of 54% of the population, hence the women still advocating for 35% of political positions is a misnomer and a pointer to the fact of the oppression and subjugation of women in Nigeria. The fact that women seem to accept this lopsided scheme of things in favour of the male folk without putting up a fight or a struggle to attain equity with the male folk is a pointer to the fact of powerlessness and learned helplessness inculcated into the women by the culture systemic processes.

The psychological explanation for the women disposition toward their own is generalized expectation (locus of control and trust) projected across time convinced the women that votes for Mrs Sarah Jubril would be a waste because past experience shows that it is a man's world and hence the men will always have the day. This is a clear evidence or manifestation of learned helplessness. When the result was eventually released, the passivity and we-know-it-will-be-so attitude of most women on the outcome of the election also attested to the fact of psychological powerlessness and learned helplessness.

Women are also relegated to the background and made to play second fiddle role by such covert means like the outrageous nomination fee for party elective positions well outside the reach of women. The men also deliberately fix meetings of political parties in the early hours of the night i.e. fixing party meetings from 11pm to about 5am the next day. No woman will like to attend such nocturnal meeting because of socio-cultural and religious constraints the society placed on them as home tender and nurturer of the children and of their husbands. Most party leaders and executives are men and this is a deliberate design to reduce the women influence on the right to have a say on the issues affecting them in the society.

In Nigeria, the gender discourse has always espoused the fact that women are not only discriminated against, dominated in all facets of human endeavours but more pathetic is the fact that women have resigned to fate, prefer men domination (loving the oppressor syndrome) and manifest learned helplessness. The manifestation of learned helplessness is not only stable (long lasting) it is also

pervasive and widespread; and their self esteem *vis-a-vis* their male counterparts, in consonance with Peterson and Seligman (1984:43) who posited that “explanatory style of explaining bad events is a distal influence on helplessness following adversity for a relatively long period of time” and it predisposes specific actions (voting for the male contestants rather than the only female contestant) that are adaptive in concrete situations (helpless and dismal failure of women contesting with men). In the manifestation of learned helplessness on the part of women in the context of power – authority relations in Nigeria, the reactions to the perpetual defeat of women in socio-political and economic arena declared: fifteen years after Beijing pronouncement of 35 per cent affirmative action for women, the women have realised that no threats can move the men to support them; hence the former first lady Mrs Patience Jonathan had changed tactics. Rather than demand for parity with men she appealed to women to support her husband bid for second term for a future better deals for women- a mere rhetoric.

The above stance of women leaders really depicts learned powerlessness and helplessness. Good things do not come cheap and will definitely not come on a platter of gold. Learned helplessness according Seligman (1990: 23)

Does not consist in just learning to say positive things to one self, positive statement alone without first cleaning out negatives will have little if any effect. What is crucial is what you think, changing the destructive things you say to yourself when you fail or have setbacks and making these statements a part of your explanatory style.

This is the crux of the paper. Nigerian women need reorientation to reverse the deep seated learned helplessness in their personality make up.

Implication for Policy Development

As noted earlier in the paper, women because of their limited and circumscribed role in Nigerian politics are hardly involved in the generation of political conflicts. Women hardly hold key positions in political parties, rather they are almost always confined to what is called “women wing” of the party. That means they are not members of the mainstream decision making arm of the parties, and by implication, the government. This has serious implications for social policy development in

Nigeria especially the desire to attain gender balance in all spheres of human endeavours. In the present dispensation, women are only given token appointment to create the semblance of gender sensitivity and equity (MEWC, 2012).

Though there are no clear institutional or legal structures against women's active participation in politics or assuming leadership role and even dominating men, but there are fundamental and underlying constraints that impede the leadership role of women. These constraints include (but not limited to) patriarchy, systemic oppressions, weak financial base of women, cultural heritage and religious injunctions. Others are the covert and overt tactics of men who fix meetings at the wee hours of the night to exclude women, loving the oppressor syndrome whereby women prefer men lordship to the leadership of their fellow women and lack of mobilization at the grassroots level for women. These anomalies and impediments can be remedied or tackled through conscious policy formulation and legal framework to remove these impediments on the way of the women. If laws are enacted to stop the covert and over discriminations against women, that will be a starting and reference point and will affect policy shifts of political parties, organizations and government at the three tiers.

There should be an aggressive and comprehensively sustained advocacy against all forms of discriminations against women and indeed politicisation of the overt abuses and discrimination against women. There should be collaborative efforts by feminists, activists, social workers, legal practitioners, non-governmental organisations (NGO) and other professional bodies and government to sensitize Nigerians to reassess the socialization process of the girl child and reject all forms of discrimination embedded in our cultural heritage and belief systems. Women should reassess themselves – political apathy cannot be cured by political isolation; helplessness, hopelessness and powerlessness are not innate, they are learned, hence, can be unlearned. Information brings about reformation and this result in restoration. Women should be informed about their situations, and consciously tackle them head-on and not shy away from them.

Conclusion

Remediation of learned helplessness and powerlessness is a three-legged stool, and they are necessary to help women gain confidence, hope and strive for mastering of the art of politicking in homes and other spheres of human endeavour. Everyone needs to understand the components of psychology of powerlessness and learned helplessness. This will entail knowing and understanding the root beliefs and the distorted perception they create that cause the self defeating deficits of women. Psychology of powerlessness, learned helplessness and hopelessness are not innate, they are learned and socially constructed hence they can be unlearned through conscious efforts, education, information, collaboration and advocacy. Until they are unlearned, Nigerian women will continue to play second fiddle roles and subservient positions in the Nigerian polity and political arena for a long time to come except action is taken to reverse the ugly trends of gender inequality in Nigeria.

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ESTIMATING EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF POPULATION USING INDIRECT METHOD IN KABBA, KOGI STATE

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Abstract

Unemployment rate has been on the increase in Nigeria. In 1999, unemployment rate was 8.2%. This rose to 12.6% in 2002, but later declined to 11.5% in 2005. By 2007, the rate rose to 13.1% and further to about 23.9% in 2014. The rate thus appears to have been increasing. Unfortunately, census, the primary source of the population data which can be used to determine the unemployment rate has been carried out infrequently in Nigeria. Thus, the data used in estimating the unemployment rate would appear a mere guess. This study seeks to develop a model for estimating the unemployed population using Kabba as a case study. Primary and secondary data were used for the study. Four hundred and eleven copies of a questionnaire which accounted for about 10% of the household heads was administered using systematic sampling technique. The primary data and the 2014 immunization data of Kabba were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The primary and secondary data were regressed to establish a relationship. Two models; (i) $Y = -0.455 + 307x$; and (ii) $Y = 80.627 + 601x$ were developed and used to estimate the unemployed and under-employed populations, respectively. When the average number of unemployed and under-employed persons per quarter was multiplied by the total number of houses in the quarter, the unemployed and under-employed populations of Kabba were 1,034 and 3,642, respectively. Using the first model, Kogi State 2014 estimated unemployed population was put at 43,044. With the second model, the estimated under-employed population for the state was 86,387. The study thus recommended that these models are good to estimate the unemployment population.

Keywords: Population, Unemployment, Under-employment, Model and Estimate

Introduction

Unemployment rate has remained high in the last two decades in Nigeria. Indeed, as far back as 2007, the unemployment rate has been over 13% (Policy Analysis and Research Programmes PARP, 2009). This rate rose to 14.6% in 2008. From all indications, unemployment rate has been on the increase in Nigeria. As a matter of fact, majority of the employees in the major sectors of the economy such as Banking, Textile, Telecommunication, Oil and Gas and other government establishments, among others, have lost their jobs to deregulation and privatization programmes embarked upon by Nigerian government. Though many people over the years lost their jobs, the number of the unemployed persons has rather remained unknown. To worsen the case, population census which remains the main source of the data have not been carried out frequently. Thus, the data being currently used for planning purposes in the country would appear to be a mere guess figures. This has consequently affected most of the government development programmes and projects.

Most of the efforts made by the previous governments to address the high rate of unemployment seem to have less effect. The present plan of the Buhari-led government to address the unemployment issue in Nigeria would therefore require a good and dependable population data since census is irregular in Nigeria. This study therefore is aimed at evolving model for estimating the employment status of Kabba and by extension Kogi State.

The Study Area

This study was carried out in Kabba, the present headquarters of Kabba/Bunu Local Government Area. The town was the first provincial headquarters of the old Oyi LG. Ever since, it has been the primate town among the 28 settlements in Owe-land. Kabba has been an administrative headquarters of a Local Government since the first state creation in 1967. Emanating from the administering function performed by the town, most of the Ministries particularly, Education, Agriculture and Health, including a Specialist Hospital are located in Kabba.

Consequently, the population of Kabba has consistently been increasing through

natural growth and migration. The town which has therefore engulfed most of the settlements around it is presently bounded by Okoro to the west, Iyara and Ogidi to the south, Egunbe to the east, Okebunkun and Ayede to the north (Figure 1).

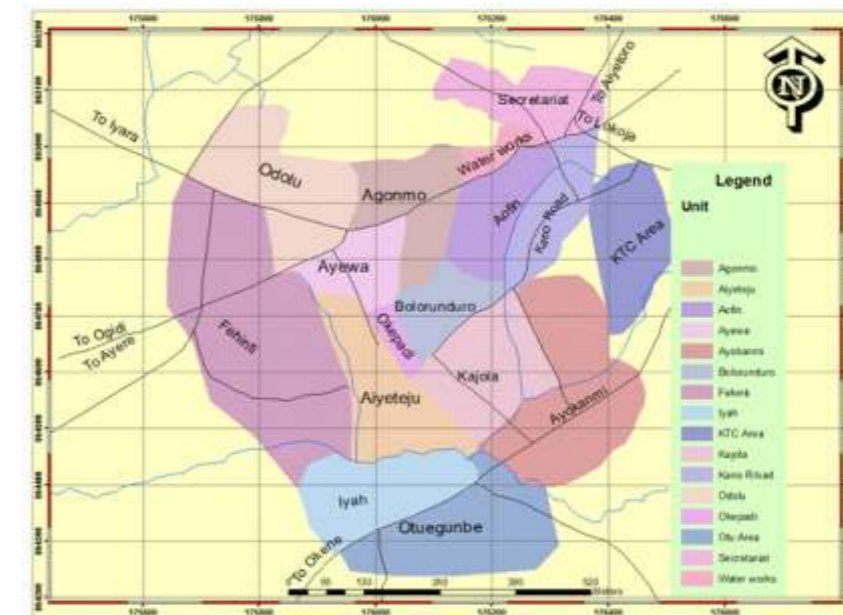


Figure 1: Map of Kabba Town Showing the Sixteen Quarters in the Study Area

Source: Kogi State Lands and Survey, 2014

Kabba has a population of 36,124 out of the 79,276 people enumerated in the local government in 1991 (NPC 1991). In the head count of 2006, the population of all the localities in Nigeria including Kabba town were not released (NPC 2006). Only the LGA and state populations were released. Thus, the enumerated population of Kabba remained unknown in the 2006 census. Evidence from the field study however revealed that there has been a rapid spatial expansion in the town. As a matter of fact, all the hitherto undeveloped space in the south, south-west, west and north-west axes of Kabba have been developed and occupied by residential houses. The population of children below the age of one and people above the age of 18 are 5,756 and 66,651, respectively (NPC (2010). Kabba, being a traditional town, has substantial number of its inhabitants in agriculture, engaging in food crop production like yam, cassava, beans, and market gardening. In addition, plantation

agriculture is also being practiced in the region, especially in the western fringes of the settlement. While most women in Kabba are traders, some are itinerant business women, engaging in rural periodic market system. A sizable number of the youths are self-employed.

Methods and Justification for Using Secondary Data

Data for this study were collected between 9am and 7pm daily from 6th March 2014 to 3rd April 2014 using 7 trained field assistants. A total of 420 copies of questionnaire were administered on the household heads. Of this, 411 copies were returned valid. Incidentally, the number of questionnaire returned accounted for 10% of the 4112 household heads in Kabba, this percentage is often recommended for social science research particularly demographic study (Oludoyi, 2007 and Oriola, 2002).

A systematic sampling technique was employed to select the samples from the sixteen quarters in Kabba. The first house was randomly selected from every first street of each quarter. Subsequent ones were selected from every fourteenth houses, until the last sample in each quarter was secured. In some cases where the selected houses had more than one household, the first household head seen by the interviewer team was sampled. In some instances, where the household head could not be reached among the sampled houses, the adjacent house was selected in replacement.

Frequency distribution and simple percentage were used to summarize the demographic characteristics, household and housing data collected from the respondents. The mean (x), standard deviation (SD), and variance (V) were also calculated. The mean of unemployed persons per house was multiplied by the total number houses in each quarter in Kabba to arrive the total population of the town. Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the degree of association between the paired dependent population and the independent variables (Immunization, Junior Secondary School Enrolment and Bachelor degree holders or equivalent).

In most of the previous studies carried out on population estimation (Lo and Welch, 1977; Olorunfemi, 1980; Weber, 1994; Kraus, 1994; Lo, 2010; Sutton, 1998 and

Deng, 2006, among others), the relationship between population (dependent variable) and other related data (independent variable) were often first determined. Having established the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, the populations were estimated. The approach of establishing a relationship between dependent variable (population) and independent variable (secondary data) was utilized in this study. The population data derived from direct house counting were regressed against immunization, junior secondary school enrolment and the number of those who had Bachelor degree or its equivalent in Kabba.

To estimate the employment status, linear regression was employed using regression formula: $y = a + bx$ (1)

Where y = the population of Kabba obtained from the average number of people per house;

a = constant;

b = slope of regression; and

x = (BCG) Immunization data of Kabba

In recent times, researchers and scholars such as Olorunfemi (1982 and 2005) and Akanbi (2006) have suggested the use of secondary data for population estimation. Indeed, in Nigeria, a number of secondary data have been used for population estimation. In this study, data of BCG immunization (a vaccine often injected on children at birth), junior secondary school enrolment and that of people who had Bachelor degree or its equivalent were used. These three data were adopted because it seems as the number of people in the three groups increase, unemployment rate also increases.

Results and Discussion

In this study, data of respondents which could be of help when planning for human development were generated through questionnaire administration. These data are summarized and presented in subsequent sections.

General Information of Respondents

Data on age, education, occupation and income of respondents are presented in Table 1(a-d). Table 1a indicates that, about 18.2% of the respondents are between 18 and 30 years. It appears most of the people in this group are still pursuing their

education. The table also reveals that about 40% of the respondents are between the ages of 31 and 50, while 41% are in the age of 51 and above. The age distribution suggests that majority of the people (about 60%) are in the working population (18 and 50 years), although the recognized national age bracket for the work force in Nigeria is between 15 and 65 years.

Table 1b shows the educational qualification of respondents. The table indicates that, only very few respondents (about 12%) have no formal education. While about 40% are partially educated (respondents with a certificate lower than Bachelor degree or its equivalent), about half of the respondents (48.9%) have either a HND/ Bachelor degree or its equivalent.

Table 1c shows that about 38% of the respondents are traders or businessmen. This suggests that out of every five household heads in Kabba, two are either traders or businessmen. The table also reveals that one-third (36%) of the people are civil servants. The large population of civil servants observed might be because the town is the local government headquarters. Usually, most of the civil servants particularly in ministries of education, health, and agriculture among other ministries reside in LG headquarters. People engaged in mining activities and other manual jobs not listed in Table 1c accounted for the lowest percentage of 6.4%.

Table 1: General Information of Respondents

1a Age Distribution

S/No	Age	No of People per age group	%
1	18-30	73	18.2
2	31-50	168	40.4
3	51 and above	170	41.4
Total		411	100

1b Educational Qualification

S/No	Educational Qualification	Number of People	%
1	No education	59	12.2
2	FSLC	47	11.4

3	SSCE	73	17.8
4	OND/NCE	40	9.7
5	Degree	147	35.8
6	Others	54	13.1
Total		411	100

1c Occupational Distribution

S/No	Occupation	Number of People	%
1	Farming	51	12.4
2	Trading Business	155	37.7
3	Artisan	31	7.5
4	Civil Servant	148	36
5	Others	26	6.4
Total		411	100

1d Income Distribution

Table 1d shows that about one third of the respondents (36.6%) earned less than #18,000 national minimum wages. Similarly, about one third of the people (33%) earned #40,000 and above. This perhaps suggests that over two third of the respondents earned less than 40,000 per month in the study area.

The monthly salary paid to fresh graduates (civil servant in ministry) in Kogi State is about #38,000. Incidentally, this is one of the least monthly salaries paid to civil servants in Nigeria. In this study, any employee with first degree but earns less than this salary was assumed to be an under-employed person.

Employment Status of Kabba

The employment status of the respondents was calculated from the data generated through the questionnaire. To do this, the number of unemployed persons was calculated by multiplying the average number of unemployed persons per house by the total number of houses in each quarter. Using this method, it was observed that the population of unemployed persons in Kabba is 1,034 (Table 2).

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents' Employment Status per Quarter in Kabba

S/No	Quarter	No of houses (1)	No of unemployed persons (2)	No of under-employ. Persons (3)	Unemployed population (1*2)	Under-employed population (1*3)
1	Agonmo	242	5.26	1.2	46	191
2	Aiyeteju	492	3.78	1.4	130	355
3	Aofin	241	5.3	1.3	45	189
4	Ayewa	162	3.6	0.8	45	190
5	Ayokanmi	306	4.7	1.3	65	229
6	Bolorunduro	237	4.2	1.1	56	210
7	Fehinti	751	10.3	3.1	73	244
8	Iyah	381	5.5	1.6	69	236
9	Kajola	438	3.6	1.3	123	342
10	Kano Road	398	4.5	1.4	88	274
11	KTC	261	10.4	1.6	25	152
12	Odolu	455	10.1	2.4	45	189
13	Okepadi	362	4.4	1.4	83	263
14	Otuegunbe	247	6.0	1.4	41	182
15	Secretariat	463	8.6	2.2	54	207
16	Water work	431	9.4	4.7	46	191
-	Total				1,034	3,642

Source: Authors' Field work, 2014

Data from Table 2 suggests that the population of unemployed persons in Kabba is low compared to those figures reported for most local government headquarters in Nigeria in the last four decades.

The Under-employed Population of Kabba

Furthermore, the total population of the under-employed persons in Kabba is 3,642 (Table 2). This figure appears incredible. Indeed, the under-employed population is almost four times higher than that of unemployed population. This probably

suggests that most of those people often classified as unemployed are actually under-employed. They are being under paid. While about 50% of the respondents have at least a Bachelor degree or its equivalent, only about one third of the respondents earned #40,000 and above per month (Table 1). The table suggests that about 20% of the educated respondents are being under paid.

Relationship between Unemployed Population, Immunization, JSS Enrolment and Bachelor Degree Data of Kabba

The data of the unemployed and under-employed people in Kabba were combined with the immunization, JSS and Bachelor degree Educational qualification data to develop the model(s) used to estimate the population of Kogi State. The population data of the unemployed people in Kabba were first regressed against the BCG immunization (x_1), JSS enrolment (x_2) and Bachelor degree educational qualification (x_3) data to establish a relationship. When the unemployed population data were regressed against the three independent variables (x_1), (x_2) and (x_3), immunization indicates a strong positive relationship of 0.65. This suggests that as the population of children in age one increases, the unemployed population also increases. Similarly, data of people with Bachelor certificate or its equivalent fairly and positively correlate with the unemployed population data (0.51). The distribution implies that, as Bachelor certificate holders or its equivalent increases, the population of the unemployed individuals also increases. In contrast, the Junior Secondary School enrolment poorly and negatively correlates with the unemployed population (-0.176). As revealed in Table 3, as Junior Secondary School enrolment decreases, unemployed population increases. This inverse relationship is perhaps caused by the prevalence of high rate in school drop-out among the secondary school pupils. Most of the children who are supposed to be in secondary school but dropped out often joined the labour force. The table indicates a regression of 0.624 and a coefficient of determination of 0.390. This thus suggests that about 40% of the variation in unemployment is jointly explained by the three independent variables (x_1 , x_2 and x_3).

Table 3: Relationship between Unemployed Pop., Immunization, JSS and Educational Qualification

Y	x_1	x_2	x_3
Immunization x_1	0.65	-0.176	0.506
x_2		0.062	0.214
x_3			0.335
R			0.74
R^2			0.390

Source: Authors' Field work, 2014

Based on the result in Table 3 immunization data had the best relationship with the unemployed population. The data were employed to develop model to estimate the unemployed population from the equation: $y = -0.455 + 307x$(eq.1).

Relationship between Under-employed persons, Immunization, JSS Enrolment and Bachelor Degree Data of Kabba

The relationship between the under-employed persons in Kabba and the three independent variables of immunization, JSS enrolment and Bachelor degree educational qualification were determined. As revealed in Table 4, when the under-employed population was regressed against the three independent variables, immunization has the strongest correlation. It fairly and positively correlates with the under-employed population (0.517), while data for Bachelor degree holder fairly and positively correlate with population (0.500). In contrast, JSS enrolment indicates a poor and negative relationship with the under-employed population (-0.230). This thus suggests that the under-employed population increases as junior secondary school enrolment decreases. Table 4 reveals a regression of 0.651 and coefficient of determination of 0.424. This suggests that about 42% of the variation in the under-employed population in the study area can jointly be explained by the three independent variables, immunization, JSS enrolment and Bachelor Degree educational qualification.

Table 4: Relationship between Under-employed Population, Immunization, JSS Enrolment and Educational Qualification

Y	X ₁	X ₂	X ₃
X ₁ Immunization	0.517	-0.230	0.500
X ₂ JSS		0.077	-0.219
X ₃ Bachelor Degree			-0.494
R			0.651
R ²			0.424

Source: Authors' Field work, 2014

Like the data in Table 3, immunization data was used to evolve model employed to estimate the under-employed population since it indicated the highest correlation with the unemployed population. The equation of the under-employed population is in the form: $y = 80.627 + 601x$(eq.2)

The two equations were employed to estimate the unemployed and under-employed populations of Kogi State.

Estimated Unemployment Population of Kogi State

To estimate the unemployed population, immunization data of the State were substituted to the first model ($y = -0.455 + 307x$). With that, the estimated unemployed population is put 43,044. This unemployed population estimate of the State is much lower than the 66,200 estimated for Kogi State by Policy Analysis and Research Programmes in 2007 (Table 5). Of this unemployed population, Okene LG has the highest number of 4,240. This is followed by Ankpa and Dekina LGAs with 3,465 and 3,396, respectively (Table 5). The high number of unemployed individuals recorded in the state may not be unconnected with low industrial activities in most local governments in Kogi State. Table 3 reveals that Lokoja, the State Capital has less population of unemployed persons (2,557).

Table 5: Estimate of the Unemployed People in Kogi State

S/No	LG Name	Unemployed population
1	Adavi	2,825
2	Ajaokuta	1,588
3	Ankpa	3,465
4	Bassa	1,813
5	Dekina	3,396
6	Ibaji	1,655
7	Idah	1,031
8	Igalamela	1,909
9	Ijumu	1,538
10	Kabba/Bunu	1,878
11	Kogi	1,492
12	Lokoja	2,557
13	Mopamuro	561
14	Ofu	2,489
15	Ogori/Magongo	509
16	Okehi	2,908
17	Okene	4,240
18	Olamaboro	2,058
19	Omala	1,399
20	Yagba East	1,917
21	Yagba West	1,816
	Total	43,044

Source: Authors' Computation, 2014.

Perhaps, the low number of under-employment is because of the presence of some ministries, parastatals, government agencies and other private companies in and around the state capital. Unlike Okene LG, Ogori/Magongo LG, a sister LG, has the lowest population of unemployed persons (509).

Estimate of Under-employed Population of Kogi State

The Kogi State population of the under-employed people was estimated with the second model ($y= 80.627+601x$). When immunization data for the state were substituted in the model, the under-employed population was estimated to be 86,387. This figure would appear surprising as it revealed that the population of the under-employed is higher than that of the unemployed. Looking at Table 6, it can be seen that majority of the under-employed persons are from Okene LGA (8,402). This is followed by Ankpa and Dekina LGAs with under-employed population figures of 6,883 and 6,750, respectively. The three LGAs accounted for more than one quarter of the under-employed population in Kogi State. Ogori/Magongo LGA, on the other hand has the lowest number of under-employed persons (1,098). This is followed by Mopamuro, Idah and Omala LGAs with 1,199, 2119 and 2854 persons, respectively. Indeed, the total population of the under employed persons in the four LGAs are less than that of Okene LGA. Ideally, one may not expect high percentage of unemployed people in Adavi-Okene axis because the area is blessed with the major iron ore mining industry in Nigeria. Not only that, one of the two Colleges of Education in Kogi State is located in Okene.

Table 6: Estimate of Under-employed Population of Kogi State

S/No	LG Name	Under-employed population
1	Adavi	5,632
2	Ajaokuta	3,209
3	Ankpa	6,883
4	Bassa	3,651
5	Dekina	6,750
6	Ibaji	3,341
7	Idah	2,119
8	Igalamelo	3,839
9	Ijumu	3,112

10	Kabba/Buzu	5,776
11	Kogi	5,022
12	Lokoja	5,106
13	Mopamuro	1,199
14	Ofi	4,974
15	Ogori/Magongo	1,098
16	Okelii	5,794
17	Okene	5,102
18	Olumabun	4,131
19	Omala	2,840
20	Yagba East	2,854
21	Yagba West	3,637
	Total	86,387

Authors' Computation, 2014

Conclusion and Recommendations

In this study, the unemployment status of Kabba was determined using the average number of people per house. The total population estimates of the unemployed and under-employed persons in Kabba were 1,034 and 3,642, respectively. The study also observed that the estimated under-employed population was about four times higher than the unemployed population of Kabba. The population data of Kabba provided the raw data for further analysis. The unemployment population data was combined with immunization data to develop the two models used to estimate the unemployed and under-employed populations of Kogi State.

The first model used for the estimation showed that the unemployed population is 43,044 when the 2014 BCG immunization data for the state was substituted in the model. The State under-employed population was also estimated as 86,387 when the same BCG immunization data was substituted in the second model. In contrast, the study observed that this total estimated unemployed population of Kogi State was lower than 66,200 estimated by PARP in 2007. Not only that, the estimated under-employed population of the State is almost double of the unemployed population. In conclusion, Okene, Ankpa and Dekina LGAs have about one quarter of the under-employed population in the State, while the under employment population of Ogori/Magongo, Mopamuro, Idah and Omola LGAs are less than that of Okene

LGA alone.

On this note, this study recommends the adoption of the models developed in this study for population estimation. This would not only be of great help in planning for the unemployed as well as the under-employed persons in the study area, but also provide relevant information on the employment status of any place when applied.

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TOWARDS AN ENDURING PEACE IN AFRICA: REVISITING PREVENTIVE CAPACITY AND NON-MILITARY TOOLS FOR RESOLUTION

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Abstract

The rise of endemic armed conflict has become an integral part of contemporary global trends, with grave implications for both developed and developing countries. Perhaps, until lately, no other region has been affected by armed conflict in recent times than the Africa continent, where such conflict has continued to drain scarce resources and undermine growth and accelerated development. In recognition of these challenges, the African Union (AU) efforts thus far have yielded some progress towards ensuring greater peace and security in Africa. However, despite the modest achievements recorded thus far, AU appears to have consistently prioritized reaction over prevention. Often this reaction has been somewhat 'too little too late'. Reactive military measures are necessary to prevent further loss of lives in emergencies, but even at their most successful can only control a situation not resolve it. Increasing investment in other tools, such as regional capacity to manage conflicts, mediation and peace-building, is needed to ensure existing conflict are resolved as well as future ones prevented. Without such investment, the demand for reactive measure such as military intervention can increase. In view of this realization, this paper articulates a comprehensive policy framework which includes, among others, the need for Africans to take primary responsibility for resolving conflicts in Africa, while developed nations should take responsibility of tackling the negative impact of their participation in trade in small arms and conflict resources which have contributed immensely to Africa's instability. Also, in order to improve post-conflict peace building, long term and predictable grant financing sufficient to meet the reconstruction need of post-conflict should be provided through the collaborative efforts of Africans themselves as well as international donors

Introduction

The institution of the Africa Union (AU) as a supranational legal body with considerable powers of intervention in domestic crisis situations challenges traditional notions of the Westphalian state system and in fact offers us an insight into how a post-Westphalian- or post-nation-state- system might be constituted. In effect, the establishment of the AU provides an alternative structure for organizing a political community (Murithi, 2009; Linklater, 1998). With the continuing attrition of the notion of absolute sovereignty, the international community can begin to legitimize intervention and operationalize the Responsibility to Protect when governments decline to meet the needs of their populations and innocent people are at risk. These new provisions on the African continent combine well with the creation of the International Criminal Court (ICC) and ultimately leaders who commit "crimes against humanity" and other atrocities towards civilian populations can now be held legally accountable (Deng, 1995).

The AU represents a new phase in the evolution of the ideal of Pan-Africanism. Conversant with the lessons from the Organization of African Unity (OAU), the AU has elaborated an expansive peace and security mandate aimed at preventing, managing and resolving conflicts and crises situations on the continent. To a large extent, there has been a steady progress recorded in the process of fully operationalizing the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) though with some variations, particularly in the institution of its key components (Mwanasali, 2004). From the progress achieved thus far, it is clear that the AU has set itself on a new path of improving the lives of Africans by putting in place the policies, mechanisms and processes of dealing with the devastating effects of violent conflicts which have contributed to stunting the socio-economic performance of the continent (Bah et al., 2014). Without a doubt, violence and conflict in the African continent has persistently hindered social and political progress and limit economic growth. Prolonged violent conflicts, such as those in Somalia, Darfur, South Sudan, Central African Republic, the menace of Boko Haram in Nigeria, to list a few; pose huge challenges of peace-making and peace-keeping to African states and

substantial strain on regional institutions that are still in the process of development. Many of these apparently localized conflicts are interwoven and will remain unresolved as long as there are no effective peace and security mechanisms in Africa at continental and regional levels to address them. In the face of these and other regional conflicts, the African continent has made considerable strides towards building common security architecture within the framework of the AU. In spite of all its shortcomings and imperfections, the African Union has shown its commitment to non-indifference by acting as a fire-brigade in conflict situations, where others have hesitated (Bah et al., 2014).

Preventive Capacity cum Diplomacy and other forms of preventive actions intended to impede armed conflicts before they spiral into general violence have been the subject of intense debate. And even with their elevation to a norm in the United Nations (UN) as well as continental bodies such as the AU where they have been debated in the General Assemblies and addressed in famous reports (Boutros-Ghali, 1992), preventive diplomacy and conflict prevention continue to face daunting obstacles (Muggah, 2012; Zyck & Muggah, 2012). Indeed, there is a new appetite amongst AU member states and agencies to advance preventive action, more so, as it has a definite economic appeal. The idea of devoting a relatively modest amount of resources to preventing violent conflict rather than investing in drastically more costly humanitarian, peacekeeping, reconstruction or stabilization operations makes practical sense in a world facing a turbulent economic slowdown (Gowan, 2011). However, as appealing as they may be, preventive diplomacy and other non-military tools of conflict prevention or resolution continue to gain limited grip in policy and practice. While this partly stems from the difficulties associated with anticipating future challenges, the lack of 'uptake' is fundamentally associated with the changing nature of violence.

“An Agenda for Peace” by the former UN Secretary-General, Boutros-Ghali (1992), argued in favor of proactive peacemaking and humanitarian intervention. The report outlined suggestions that would assist intergovernmental organizations to respond quickly and effectively to threats to international peace and security in the

post- Cold War era. In particular, four major areas of activity were identified:

- i. preventive diplomacy;
- ii. Peace-making;
- iii. Peace-keeping; and
- iv. Post-conflict peace-building (Murithi, 2009).

Article 4(h) of the AU Constitutive Act stipulates “the right of the Union to intervene in a Member State pursuant to a decision of the Assembly in respect of grave circumstances, namely: war crimes, genocide and crimes against humanity (AU, 2000). Furthermore, Article 4(j) declares “the right of Member States to request intervention from the Union in order to restore peace and security” (AU, 2000). Specifically Article 7, item (e), of the Protocol on the Peace and Security Council affirms that the Council can “recommend to the Assembly (of Heads of State) intervention, on behalf of the Union, in a Member State in respect of grave circumstances, namely war crimes, genocide and crimes against humanity, as defined in relevant international conventions and instruments” (AU, 2003). This is a major qualitative difference between the Charter of the OAU, which placed a greater emphasis on non-intervention and the territorial integrity of its member states. With the adoption of these legal provisions, for the first time in the history of Africa, the continental organization working through an appointed group of states has the authority to intervene in internal situations that might lead to atrocities being committed against minority groups or communities at risk. In other words, the AU has the right and the responsibility to protect (Murithi, 2009).

It is instructive to note, however, that at the threshold of the Millennium and a relatively “New Global Order” it was difficult to operationalize humanitarian intervention. In the immediate post-Cold War era, the UN was generally reluctant to issue Security Council resolutions that were perceived as infringing the sovereignty of Member States. Consequently, violent conflict perpetrated primarily within states was difficult to deal with. Africa was particularly affected during this period with the conflicts in Angola, Liberia, Congo DR, Sierra Leone, and South Sudan, and the genocide in Rwanda. With the onset of the new millennium, intra-state violent

conflict continued unabated and tragedies like the situation in the Darfur region of Sudan raised added questions about the doctrine of humanitarian intervention. The issue of humanitarian intervention became a key challenge in international relations. At the UN General Assembly in 1999, and again in 2000, former Secretary-General Kofi Annan “made compelling pleas to the international community to try and find, once and for all, a new consensus on how to approach these issues, 'to forge unity' around the basic questions of principle and process involved” in humanitarian intervention (International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty, 2001). Through the leadership of the Government of Canada, an International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS) was established to consider the right of humanitarian intervention (Murithi, 2009).

Literature Review

In a fundamentally anarchical world where conflicts and wars were normal day occurrences, it was apparent that some form of conflict management or resolution mechanism must be devised to stop the world from plunging into a large battle field between various combatants pursuing divergent interests. If the world was foot-dragging, it was enthused into action by the carnages of the First and Second World Wars. The United Nations was therefore formed out of the ashes of World War II to, above all, save succeeding generations from the scourges of war that overwhelmed the world before then. The mechanism through which this very difficult task could be accomplished was through a system of collective security to be shepherded by the victors of World War II known as the Permanent Five (P5). However, the Cold War that engaged these super powers shortly after made it virtually impossible to carry out this mandate. As a consequence, wars and conflicts raged and spread unchecked in most parts of the world. As Boutros-Ghali (1992) in his famous *Agenda for Peace* acknowledged:

Since the creation of the United Nations in 1945, over 100 major conflicts around the world have left some 20 million people dead. The United Nations was rendered powerless to deal with many of these crises because of the vetoes 279 of

them cast in the Security Council which were a vivid expression of that period

Prevented from playing its collective security roles because of the Cold War wrangling, the United Nations had to supplement its collective security roles with mechanisms like peace-keeping and peace-enforcement. What is more? In the contemporary global system, it even appears that the collective security model is now a bit anachronistic going by the nature of conflicts in the world. It seems that the main characteristic of the new security landscape lies in the fact that the gravest and the most frequent conflicts today emerge not between, but within the states. Also, the 11 September terrorist attacks on the United States has shown the significance of non-state actors (which had hitherto been downplayed by international relations theorists) and the dangers they constitute to world peace and security (Ataman, 2003). New threats and dangers have asked for more flexible and subtle responses to the increasing number of regional and intra-state crises (Vankorska, 1999). All these have led to an increasing emphasis on preventive capacity nay diplomacy as a strategic conflict management tool.

Preventive diplomacy presupposes that the causes of war are embedded in material socio-political vectors, which can be isolated, neutralized and eliminated through the deliberate action of good statesmen, working together with leaders in international organizations driven by the moral force of international law. Preventive diplomacy, like most concepts in the social sciences, suffers from a lack of one universally acceptable definition. However, the definitions provided here points to some of its salient features. In the views of Boutros Boutros-Ghali (1992), preventive diplomacy refers to actions meant to prevent disputes from occurring between parties, escalating into conflicts, and to prevent the spread of conflicts when they occur. The strategy explains how leaders in multiethnic societies can develop to pre-empt conflict and encourage social progress by promoting inclusiveness in governmental affairs, and ensuring that group rights are respected and constitutionally protected, to eliminate impulses for secession among minorities and toward promoting national unity.

The highlight is on preventive actions or diplomatic steps that should be taken to

prevent the outbreak of violence in an area where conflict is imminent or inevitable if nothing is done. Preventive diplomacy requires measures to create confidence; it needs early warnings based on information gathering and informal fact-finding; it may also involve preventive deployment and, in some situations, demilitarized zones (Boutros-Ghali, 1992). It should be noted however that preventive diplomacy is closely related, and is sometimes inseparably related to such concepts as “peace-making”, “peace-keeping”, “peace-building”, and “peace-enforcement”. Needless to underscore the point that preventive diplomacy is just a means (amongst many) of resolving conflict. With regards to the relationship between preventive diplomacy and conflict prevention, some argue that preventive diplomacy is a component of broader conflict prevention, while others argue that the two concepts are autonomous. Moreover, the array of measures constituting preventive diplomacy differs significantly, depending on which definition is being used (Strachan, 2013). The *raison d'être* of preventive diplomacy and conflict prevention as well as other non-military tools of resolving conflicts is to stop armed conflicts before they escalate (Muggah & White, 2013; Strachan, 2013). Preventive diplomacy includes activities such as good offices, facilitation, mediation, conciliation, adjudication and arbitration, whereas conflict prevention is broader (Muggah & White, 2013). Conflict prevention includes activities such as the strengthening of human rights oversight mechanisms and efforts to address the root causes of conflict such as improvements in governance, social and economic well-being, equality, and the management of common resources (Muggah & White, 2013). Monitoring, containment, and risk reduction are all aspects of conflict prevention. Together the concepts are often referred to as 'preventive action'. Muggah & White (2013) note that there are experts who consider preventive diplomacy and conflict prevention to be two separate concepts, while others consider preventive diplomacy to be one part of conflict prevention.

In the opinion of Chichaya (2010), the components of preventive diplomacy is wide-ranging, and includes confidence building measures (CBMs), fact finding

missions, early warning mechanisms, conflict impact assessment systems, measures to promote democracy and human rights, preventive deployment of peacekeeping forces, establishment of demilitarized zones, and measures to monitor and limit the trade in small arms. Recent UN reports support the view that conflict prevention may actually play a role in creating local conditions which make possible preventive diplomacy. While preventive diplomacy can resolve one-off crises, it is ineffective in solving recurrent crises (Yabi, 2010). More broadly, the development of the Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development Program, the AU Border Program, the Security Sector Reform program, the counter-terrorism policy, the New Economic Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) Declaration on Democracy and the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), the AU Convention on the Prevention and Combating of Corruption, and the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance demonstrates a clear commitment by the AU to a holistic approach to the question of peace and security on the continent (Bah et al., 2014).

The expression “preventive diplomacy” was first used by former UN Secretary General Dag Hammarskjöld in 1960 (Babbit, 2012; Lund, 2008). Since then the conception has evolved a great deal. Mancini (2011) argues that 'the field of preventive diplomacy has become increasingly crowded' with NGOs, governments, and international, regional, and sub-regional organisations all playing a part. He states that the role played by local actors in preventive diplomacy in their own countries has expanded (Mancini, 2011). Muggah & White (2013) are in accord with this argument stating that the last twenty years have seen a shift away from preventive action driven by external actors towards more local and regional initiatives. Emmers and Tan (2009) state that there has been a shift from a focus on preventing inter-state conflict during the Cold War, to preventing intra-state conflict in the post-Cold War era. Again, Muggah and White (2013) agree, stating that there has been a shift from state-led interventions with 'superman diplomacy' and a focus on interstate conflicts to regional and non-state engagement in intrastate conflicts. A 'sprinkler system' of interventions is increasingly being used to prevent and mitigate organised violence (Muggah and White, 2013). New state actors are also becoming

increasingly active in terms of preventive diplomacy. Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (The BRICS), as well as Turkey and Qatar have devoted considerable resources to preventive action, as well as leading preventive action initiatives themselves (Muggah and White, 2013). New networks of NGOs are also up-and-coming in the field of preventive action. These include the Alliance for Peace-building, the Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict and the Mediation Support Network.

Preventive diplomacy allows for the early and peaceful resolution of conflicts. Within the Responsibility to Protect (R2P, RtoP) framework (GSDRC, 2015), preventive diplomacy offers a set of tools to be used on a case by-case basis by a variety of actors to peacefully act in response to threats and occurrences of mass atrocities by facilitating political solutions. Quiet diplomacy and engagement behind the scenes gives all parties an opportunity to participate in dialogue outside the international spotlight and on their own terms. Mediation, often led by appointed diplomats or special envoys, allows for encouragement from the international community to build political will for peaceful settlement if parties are unwilling to negotiate. Other important tools include political missions, that are civilian-led and can facilitate dialogue to prevent escalating threats or assist in rebuilding efforts such as inclusive governance or reconciliation; and peacekeeping missions, which incorporate preventive diplomacy into their security-based mandates and offer political support to encourage peaceful conflict resolution (International Coalition to Protect, 2015).

In the last couple of decades, the international community has worked to reinforce prevention qua capacity, devoting particular attention to diplomatic tools beginning with the landmark report of Boutros-Ghali's "An Agenda for Peace". Despite some Member States' apprehension that measures can violate their sovereignty, there has been better acknowledgment of the importance of diplomatic tools in prevention and effort to address operational challenges. Between 2007 and 2011, the UN Security Council, through debates, informal dialogues and presidential statements (S/PRST/2007/31; S/PRST/2010/14 and 18; S/PRST/2011/18), has supported

preventive diplomacy as a method of minimizing the human and economic toll in protecting populations and underlined the need to strengthen the necessary tools, capacity of and coherence between all actors. The UN General Assembly made the peaceful settlement of disputes a priority area in 2011, adopting a Resolution on strengthening the role of mediation (A/RES/65/283). These discussions have increased efforts to enhance cooperation and institutionalize dialogue, share information and react rapidly to situations, and strengthen diplomatic tools and processes. In 2011, the UNSG released a Report on Preventive Diplomacy (S/2011/552) elaborating further on the role of UN, regional and civil society actors and critically assessing the operationalization of relevant tools.

The Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict declared in 1997 that there are two types of conflict prevention: operational (short-term) and structural (long-term) (Babbit, 2012). However, Mancini (2011) argues that today both operational and structural prevention aim to achieve results in the medium term. He attributes this change to the realisation that successful operational prevention requires sustained engagement with the conflict parties, and that structural prevention needs to have a discernible positive impact in the medium term.

To be sure, there are different regional approaches to preventive diplomacy. Regional organisations' approaches to preventive diplomacy and mediation depend on their individual historical, geographical and cultural contexts (OSCE and UN, 2011). According to Muggah and White (2013), regional institutions tend to prioritise the interests of their member governments over those of non-state actors. They also tend to 'adhere to strict notions of national sovereignty in which many forms of preventive action are deemed to be inappropriate, if not hostile'. Citing the lack of capacity and finances as a challenge facing many regional organisations engaging in preventive diplomacy, Hara (2011) argues that the AU's institutional capacity to engage in conflict prevention remains inadequate. Moreover, competition between regional powers and individual leaders within the AU has prevented consensus on some key preventive diplomacy efforts, such as failure to effectively address the crises in the Congos (Kinshasa and Brazzaville), Darfur,

South Sudan, Mali, Central Africa Republic, Somalia, to list a few.

Cristescu, Nicolescou and Wandu (2012) contend that Africa is perhaps the most advanced continent with regard to regional approaches to preventive diplomacy, citing regional and sub-regional organisations commitment to 'African solutions to African problems.' The AU's Peace and Security Architecture consists of a Peace and Security Council (PSC), an African Standby Force (ASF), a Continental Early Warning System (CEWS), the Panel of the Wise, and the Peace Fund (Murithi & Mwaura, 2010). Sub-regional bodies such as the South African Development Community (SADC) and, in particular, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) have been for the most part active in attempting to settle disputes before and after they have turned violent. Thus, the collaboration between regional and sub-regional organizations within the framework of the emerging security architecture in the continent has been quite promising.

The legal basis and instruments that define the relationship between the AU and its RECs include the Constitutive Act, the Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the AU Peace and Security Council and the Protocol on Relations between the African Union and the Regional Economic Communities (Bah et al, 2014). The Protocol on Relations between the African Union and the Regional Economic Communities sets out the objectives as to: formalize, consolidate and promote close cooperation among the RECs and between them and the Union through the coordination and the harmonization of their policies, measures, programmes and activities in all fields and sectors and to establish a framework for coordination of the activities of the RECs (AU Assembly, 2007). Through this Protocol the Union and RECs obligate to endeavor to engage in common undertakings, i.e. cooperate and coordinate policies and programmes of the RECs with those of the Union; exchange information and experiences; promote inter-regional projects in all fields and support each other in their respective integration endeavors and agree to attend and participate effectively in all meetings; strengthen their relations with AU; and align their policies, programmes and strategies with those of the AU. Two brief examples will suffice:

The SADC's 2001 'Protocol on Politics, Defence, and Security Co-operation' binds

members to promote peaceful settlement of disputes by preventive diplomacy, negotiation, conciliation, mediation, good offices, arbitration and adjudication by international tribunals (Cristescu, Nicolescou and Wandu, 2012). According to Hartmann (2013), the SADC has a political culture that prefers soft power approaches like mediation, as national sovereignty is 'paramount' for SADC member states. However, discussing Africa more generally, Hara (2011) states that 'the sovereignty of individual member states is no longer considered an absolute bar to intervention within the region.' Hara notes that the principle of 'non-indifference,' which is enshrined in the 2000 Constitutive Act of the AU Charter, has been implemented on a number of occasions (Hara, 2011). In 2007, the SADC mediation effort in Lesotho to address post-election violence was reasonably successful, though, primarily the parties did not accept the SADC mediation mission. Consequently, Basotho church and civil society representatives revived the mediation process with SADC logistical support. The crisis ended four years later, and new elections were held in 2012 (Hartmann, 2013).

The ECOWAS Council of the Wise has been at the vanguard in preventive interventions in West Africa. Members of the Council have been deployed by the Mediation and Security Council to either backstop ongoing mediation efforts or to intervene to forestall the outbreak of violence in potential crisis situations. Since its establishment, Council members have been deployed to Niger, Guinea, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Togo and Guinea-Bissau to deal with varying degrees of conflicts in these countries. The group led mediation efforts in 2009 and 2010 in Guinea, in cooperation with the AU and UN, during the country's transition from military to constitutional rule (Bah et al, 2014; Internantional Coalition to Protect, 2015). According to Yabi (2010), the President of the ECOWAS Commission for the period February 2001-February 2010, fulfilled his role as defined by the Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution, Peacekeeping and Security. He dispatched fact-finding and mediation missions, appointed special representatives, led a number of missions, including at the height of crises (Yabi, 2010). Yabi contends that cooperation between the AU and ECOWAS on Guinea via the

International Contact Group, which they co-chaired, contributed to the successful containment of the crisis (Yabi, 2010; Hara, 2011).

Revisiting Preventive Diplomacy cum Capacity and Non-Military Tools for Resolution.

Africa continues to be afflicted by the scourge of conflicts. The mechanisms mandated to address these violent disputes seem to have a limited capacity to engender and sustain durable solutions. The importance of the role of culture in conflict resolution and governance has become increasingly more prominent. In particular, one growing school of thought argues that indigenous cultural practices and traditional structures of leadership have a central role to play in the building of sustainable peace in Africa. Despite Africa's inability thus far to successfully resolve all its conflicts, there is a case to be made for encouraging the revitalization of indigenous institutions of peacemaking on the continent. How these systems and processes can be incorporated into constitutions of modern African states, and thus become part of the institutional structure of how societies are governed, is a topic that merits further research. Indigenous institutions and cultural traditions in Africa are endowed with important lessons and insights that can contribute towards the urgent task of building and sustaining peace.

The analysis of African traditional methods of conflict management is not a new phenomenon. However, the extant literature on these institutions and processes is inward looking, presenting them as if they existed in a political and structural vacuum. The tendency by many African peace and security analysts and conflict management scholars is to transcend this approach, by focusing on the hybrid nature or complementarity of the relationships between state structures and traditional institutions of governance, justice and conflict management (Martha and Kwesi, 2012).

Since the causes or sources of conflicts are different, especially against the backdrop of new and emerging conflict dynamics, 'it would be better to use different mechanisms for the prevention and resolution of conflicts (Ladan, 2013). The

existence of intrinsic relationships between traditional and conventional methods of conflict resolution underscores the need for complementarity in African conflict management mechanisms. The idea of traditional methods of conflict prevention (preventive diplomacy) cum dispute resolution is couched on the principle of nipping conflicts in the bud through community-based and people recognized initiatives that have pre-dated colonial adventures in the continent. Traditional Methods of Dispute Resolution are a well-structured, time-proven social system geared towards reconciliation, maintenance and improvement of social relationships. The methods are deeply founded in the customs and traditions of peoples that have gradually developed over a long period of time. The importance and utility of these methods lie in the fact that they strive "to restore a balance, to settle conflict and eliminate disputes (Choudree, 1999). Traditional methods are relatively informal and thus, less intimidating. Those who use them are also more at ease in a familiar environment. The role of chiefs, elders, family heads, peer groups and others is not only to resolve conflicts but also to anticipate and stop/or intercept conflicts. Group relationships and rights are as important as individual ones as emphasis is on restoring relationships and reconciling groups. It suffices to note that Complementarity could be possible not only in practice but also conceptually and contextually as well.

Moreover, in terms of concept and philosophy, African conflict resolution deals with the settlement of conflicts that already exist. As a mechanism, it is a social capital, defined as the "capability of social norms and customs to hold members of a group together by effectively setting and facilitating the terms of their relationship... sustainability and facilitating collective actions for achieving mutually beneficial ends" (Fred-Mensah, 2005). Conflict resolution comprises a complex network of forces surrounding the parties in the conflict. It is a healing process in which all individuals contribute positive energy with the sole objective of re-establishing the energy flow within individuals, families and communities so as to rebuild social harmony. Therefore, symbolic gestures are associated to the rituals including the exchange of gifts, slaughter of animals (chicken, goats, cows, and sheep) (Ndumbe,

2001). The African conception and philosophy of conflict resolution entails a spiritual dimension which refers to creating and restoring impaired relationship with God, the spirits, ancestors, family and neighbours as the case might be (Mbiti, 1991) which is very critical in restoring other relationships at the physical levels. The rituals in the resolution process serves as the link between the people with the past, present and future (Bakut, 2013).

Conflicts are understood in their social context involving “values and beliefs, fears and suspicions, interest and needs, attitudes and actions, relationships and networks”, hence the root causes are explored to emphasize shared understanding of the past and present with the immediate objective of mending the broken relationship, rectifying wrongs and restoring justice (Brock-Utne, 2001). The aim is to ensure the full integration of parties into the society again and to adopt the mood of co-operation. Therefore, the objective of African conflict resolution is not merely to reach agreements, but to move away from accusations and counter accusations, to settle hurt feelings and reach a compromise that will help improve relationships. African societies resolve conflicts through the internal and external social controls. The internal social control uses deterrence such as personal shame and fear of supernatural powers while the external control rely on sanctions associated with actions taken by others in relation to behaviour that may be approved or disapproved. Thus, the resolution mechanism focuses on the principles of empathy, sharing and cooperation in dealing with common problems which underline the essence of humanity (Murithi, 2006).

Therefore, African cultural approaches to resolving and managing disputes plays vital roles in promoting peace and social order in African communities. African cultural principles relate to the very essence of existence and being human and how humanity is inextricably related. These cultural values and attitudes provide the basis for interaction and the norms by which individuals and communities live as well as promote the sharing and equitable distribution of resources, thus promoting peace. Consequently, African conflict resolution is underscored by the principles of reciprocity, inclusiveness and a sense of shared destiny between people and provides

the value system for giving and receiving forgiveness precisely because the African society places emphasis on communal life (Bakut, 2013).

The philosophy of African conflict resolution seeks to find a balance between self and others, the destructive and the creative, the good and bad. It moves away from the thinking of social relations in dualistic oppositions, that is and either/or situation, good versus bad, black versus white, self versus the other in seeking to resolve conflicts. The intention is to work toward a situation that acknowledges a mutually beneficial condition. Its accent is on co-operation with one another for the common good as opposed to competition that could lead to grave instability within any community. It emphasizes the whole not part(s) and describes the feelings of the worth of the community and a shared fellowship of men and women (Masina, 2000). This is because Africans believe that 'we are human beings because we belong, share and participate'. Therefore, the approach is holistic and aimed at rebuilding broken relationship and restoring the community (Bakut, 2013).

The field of preventive diplomacy in Africa has become more progressively busy, with actors including NGOs, governments (such as The BRICS), international, regional, and sub-regional organizations all playing increasingly important role. The continent's approaches to preventive diplomacy draws heavily on traditional approaches to conflict prevention. The range of preventive diplomacy measures used include- Civil Society Organisation (CSO) engagement-(Track II dialogues-which involves 'unofficial dialogue and problem-solving activities aimed at building relationships and encouraging new thinking that can inform the official process' (United States Institute for Peace, 2012), Councils/ Panels of the Wise, Early warning, Election monitoring, Fact-finding, Formal mediation/Envoys, Good offices, Legal frameworks/agreements, Norms as leverage for prevention, Quiet diplomacy and Preventive military intervention (Mancini, 2011; Muggah, and White, 2013; Strachan, 2013).

Conclusion

Without a doubt, the comparatively higher prevalence of conflicts in Africa is not so

much due to the ethno-linguistic and religious division of its countries, but rather to high levels of poverty, failed political institutions and economic dependence on natural resources. Put differently, and utilizing the analytical matrix of “concomitant variation”, it is well-known that deep political and economic failures and not necessarily tribalism or ethnic hatred, are the root causes of Africa's tribulations. In line with this re-problematisation of development-security nexus, it has been argued that there is a compelling and mutual reinforcement within these metaphors. Underdevelopment is dangerous since it can lead to violence. At the same time, conflict entrenches and deepens that danger. Societies are left not only worse off, but even more prone to outbreaks of instability. Such commonly held sentiments have provided the underlying principle for the widespread incorporation into official aid policy during the mid-1990s of a commitment to conflict prevention and conflict resolution activities.

To that extent, it is at present the collective wisdom of proponents of regionalism that the successful implementation of plans relating to collective self-reliance in isolation from the prevailing political environment in Africa is quite doubtful. It has to be accepted that essential choices of economic strategy and the foci of development programmes are always political as well as economic. In any case, they cannot be productively implemented in isolation from the transnational and political fabric of the given locale.

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CLIMATE VARIABILITY AND RICE PRODUCTION IN IFO LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OGUN STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

Climate Variability has significant impacts on global and regional food production, particularly the common staple food crops performance in tropical sub-humid climatic zone. This study tries to assess the extent at which variability in climate has affected rice yield in Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State. The climatic data such as rainfall amount, sunshine hours, relative humidity, temperature (maximum and minimum) and wind were collected from Nigerian Metrological Agency (NIMET), alongside rice yield data from Ogun State Agricultural Development Programme (OGADEP) for a period of 15 years. Correlation techniques were employed and the result gotten from the analysis shows that relative humidity, sunshine hours, wind speed and rainfall are directly related with rice yield. The regression analysis showed that climatic variables explained 84% of the variation observed in rice production in the study area. Time series analysis was employed to forecast rice production for a period of 10 years which showed that rice production increased steadily. However, since rice yield is highly dependent on climatic element, it is therefore recommended that funds should be given to research institution to enable them come up with researches capable of improving rice yield.

Key words: Climate change, Climate variability, Temperature, Agriculture, Rice yield.

Introduction

Climate must be taken into consideration in the planning of agricultural operations and in the planning of agricultural development in general. The relationship between the atmosphere and soil-plant system is a complex one which can be simplified and generalized in water balance studies (Ayoade, 2004). The reliability of rainfall amounts is critical for the growth of specified crops over a given area must be assessed before such crops are introduced. Otherwise, persistent crop failures arising from the unreliability of rainfall will make the cultivation of such crops uneconomic and may lead to famine and misery among peasants.

Climate change directly affects precipitation and temperature and a rise in temperature will lead to water deficit and floods in the future, changing soil moisture status, and pest and disease incidence (Tilakasiri, 2008; Chinvano, 2010). Furthermore, increasing temperature or hotter night temperatures can cause increased spikelet sterility in rice and reduce grain yield (Wassmann and Dobermann, 2007; Ayoade, 2004).

The most weather sensitive among all man's activities is agriculture. In Nigeria, agriculture is the main source of food and employer of labour, employing about 60-70 per cent of the population. It is a significant sector of the economy and the source of raw materials used in the processing industries as well as a source of foreign exchange earnings for the country (Mohammed-Lawal *et al.*, 2006).

Since agriculture in Nigeria is mostly rain-fed, it follows therefore that any change in climate is bound to impact on its productivity in particular and other socio-economic activities generally. The issue of climate change has become more threatening not only to the sustainable development of socio-economic and agricultural activities of any nation but also to the totality of human existence (Adejuwon, 2004).

Rice is the most important staple food crop of the world's population. In 2004, rice was the staple food of about 3.23 billion people, wheat of about 1.55 billion people and maize of about 288 million people (Food and Agricultural Organization, 2006).

The immediate impacts of climate change on rice production systems and food security will be felt in the form of adverse effects of extreme weather events on rice production. Floods also cause indirect damage to rice production by destroying the properties and production means of farmers, and infrastructures supporting rice production such as dams, dikes, roads, etc. Agarwal (2008) estimated that the yield of Thai rice was expected to decline to about 18% in the 2020s because of alterations in temperature and rainfall cycles and through changes in soil quality, pests and diseases as consequences of climate change.

The effect of climate change implies that the local climate variability which people have previously experienced and adapted to is changing and this change is observed at a relatively great speed. Local farmers according to Kuta (2011) are seriously concerned about weather variations because of its impact on food security, availability, stability, accessibility and utilization.

The change in weather affects livestock, forestry, fishery and the decreases aquatic plant species including swamp-rice. Production of rice, which is the world's most important crop for ensuring food security and addressing poverty, will be thwarted as temperatures increase in rice-growing areas with continued climate change (Gumm, 2010). He re-affirms that rising temperature during the past 25 years have already cut rice yield growth rate by 10-20 percent in several locations. He considered a change in the rice production methods or new rice strains that can withstand higher temperatures to be the best options to rice farming; otherwise, there will be a loss in rice production over the next few decades as days get hotter.

The major problems associated with rice production according to Ajetomobi, *et al.* (2010) include drought, flooding, salt stress and extreme temperatures, all of which are expected to worsen with the effect of climate change. Drastic changes in rainfall patterns and rise in temperatures will introduce unfavourable growing conditions for rice farming and it will subsequently reduce productivity. Overwhelming scientific research and evidences have shown that the climate is changing (IRRI, 3013). In 2013, the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) reported that by 2050 rice prices will increase between 32 and 37% as a result of climate change. They also

show that yield losses in rice could be between 10 and 15%. Jintana and Srikantha (2011) opined that rice farmers need to change rice variety under climate change in the future because the yields of five rice varieties will be reduced during dry season of the years 2090-2099 in Khon-kaen province, Thailand.

Rice is a crop most suitable for the tropics and subtropics because light and solar energy found in sub-tropics and warm temperate areas probably constitutes an especially favorable factor in rice growing and are perhaps responsible for high average yields. Lack of abundant sunshine because of cloudy weather is one of the causes for yields in tropical region (Bollich *et al.*, 2003). Low temperatures during early growth do not favour early vegetative growth, and even in Japonica cultivators, optimum temperatures on the whole are considered to have a favorable effect on the grain yields of Japonica cultivars, long periods of sunshine are essential for high yields. Rice transpires 600-1,200mm of water for each crop and 1,000-1,800mm for rainfall is needed to produce a rice crop. Although lack of water is the primary constraint to high and stable rice yields, too much water is also a problem (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2001).

The wellbeing of large populations around the world majorly depends on access, stability and availability of food. This is true especially in the developing world with predominant small land holders and subsistence farmers for whom the on-farm and off-farm agricultural labour provides the main source of food and income. The vulnerability of these small holders and subsistence farmers is greatly influenced by changes in climate (Morton, 2007). Changes in climate have already decreased crop yields in several regions and for example, are estimated to have reduced global rice production between 1981 and 2002 (Lobell and Field, 2007). It has been suggested that a larger percentage of the African population will enter poverty as short-term changes in climate will increase the stress on food production (Ahmed *et al.* 2009). However, climate variability is expected to increase in some regions in the future including the frequency and intensity of extreme events (IPCC, 2007). In 2003, unusually high temperature during the summer reduced food production, with cereal and fruit harvests dropping drastically in Europe, especially in Italy and France

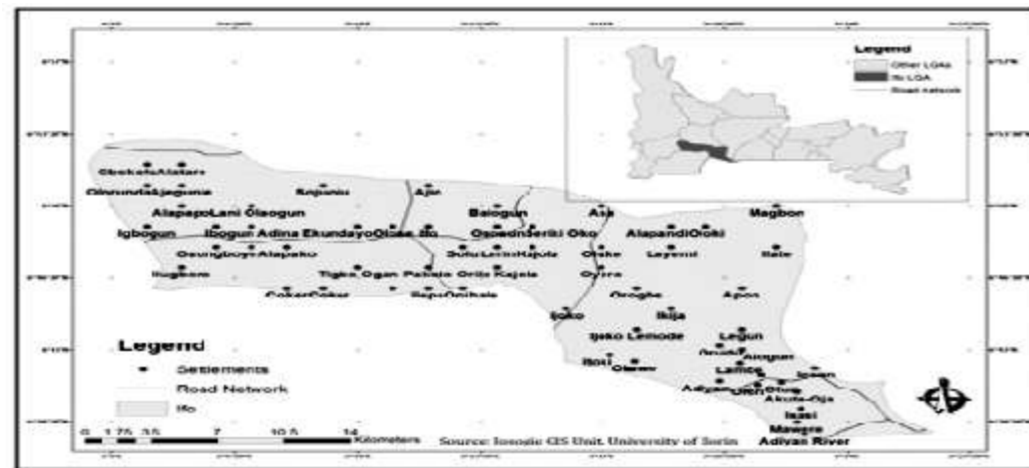
where maize production fell by more than 38% (Cias *et al.*, 2005).

The major area where rice is grown in Ogun State includes the Ifo Local Government Area, Owode Local Government Area and Ago-Iwoye in Ijebu-North Local Government Area. Upland and lowland rice are cultivated in Ogun State. Ogun State is also the major point for the production of Ofada rice in Nigeria. Rice is used mainly for human food and consumed mostly in the form of whole grains. The processing of paddy or rough rice is designed so that a high yield of unbroken grain may be obtained. Rice is usually cooked by boiling in water or by steaming and eaten with vegetables, fish, meat or eggs. It is also used in the form of parched rice, rice flakes, puffed rice and rice pudding, starch made from broken rice is used in manufacturing of cosmetics and textiles, beer, wine and spirit are also made from rice. Rice is also used as roughages for cattle feed, chicken litter, among others.

Study Area

The study area is Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State (figure 1). It is situated in the South-Western part of the state, having almost the same natural characteristics such as climate, soil, vegetation and geology with other areas in the state. With this, Ifo shares the same natural characteristics with other Local Government Areas in the state. The climate of Ogun State follows a tropical pattern with rainfall on-set usually comes by March and ends in November. This rainfall system prepares the study area for dry season between November and March of each year. The mean annual rainfall varies from 128mm in the southern parts of the state to 105mm in the Northern area. The average monthly temperature ranges from 23°C in July to 32°C in February. The northern part of the state is mainly of derived savannah vegetation, while the central part falls in the rain forest belt. The southern part of the state has mangrove swamp vegetation (Ogundele *et al.*, 2004).

Figure 1: Map of Ogun State Showing Ifo Local Government



Source: Adapted from Josogie GIS Unit, University of Ilorin.

Methodology

The data required for this work include data on rice yield for 15 years (1998-2012) which was collected from the Ogun State Agricultural Development Programme (OGADEP). The data on climatic elements such as rainfall, temperature, relative humidity and sunshine for the same period of time were collected from NIMET (Ogun State).

In analyzing the data obtained for this research, two statistical methods were employed; these are descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive Statistics include mean, variance, standard deviation, charts, and tables to show the distribution of the climatic parameters (Temperature, Rainfall, Relative Humidity, and Sunshine) and rice yield in the study area. The inferential statistics used include; time series analysis to show the trend in climatic parameters over time, correlation analysis to determine the relationship between climatic parameters and rice production, regression analysis to examine the magnitude at which climatic variables have affected rice yield and ANOVA to estimate the variation in extent of climatic influences on rice production.

Results and Discussions

From Table1 and figure 2(a-f), it can be observed that there is a deviation from the

calculated mean. In 2006, the mean annual maximum temperature was 33.4°C. This is higher when compared to records in 2007 and 2010 with mean annual maximum temperature of 31.1°C and 31.1°C respectively. Also, between 2007 and 2012, the rainfall amount recorded was greater than the mean annual rainfall recorded. This means that the study area experienced an increase amount of rainfall when compared to what it used to record probably as a result of increase rate of relative humidity, moderate wind speed and measurable convective current to produce heat at this period of time.

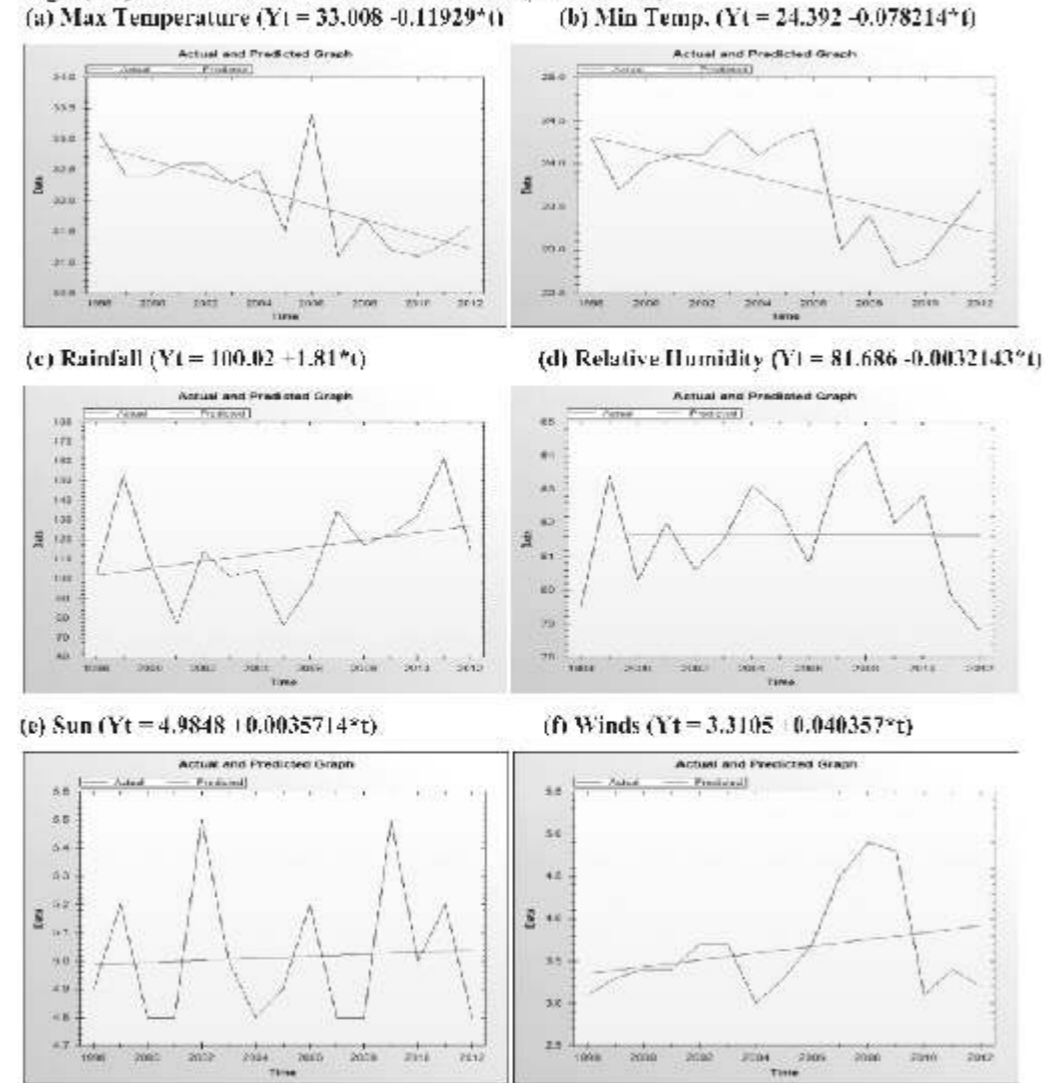
Table 1: Table Showing Climatic Variablties (1998-2012)

Year	Max Temp(°C)	Min Temp(°C)	Rain(mm)	RH(%)	Sun Hours	Winds(m/s)
1998	33.1	24.5	101.7	79.5	4.9	3.1
1999	32.4	23.7	153	83.4	5.2	3.3
2000	32.4	24	109.3	80.3	4.8	3.4
2001	33.6	24.1	77.2	87	4.8	3.4
2002	32.6	24.1	113.9	80.6	5.5	3.7
2003	32.3	24.4	101.2	81.5	5	3.7
2004	32.5	24.1	104.8	83.1	4.8	3
2005	31.5	24.3	76.5	82.1	4.9	3.4
2006	33.4	24.4	97	80.8	5.2	3.7
2007	31.1	23	134.6	83.5	4.8	4.5
2008	31.7	23.4	117.4	84.4	4.8	4.9
2009	31.2	22.8	122.8	82	5.5	4.8
2010	31.1	22.9	131.9	82.3	5	3.1
2011	31.3	23.3	151.6	79.8	5.2	3.4
2012	31.6	23.7	114.6	78.3	4.8	3.2
Mean	32.05333	23.76667	114.5	81.66	5.013333	3.633333
Variance	0.517156	0.292889	539.2333	2.541067	0.058489	0.351556
SD	0.719135	0.541192	23.2214	1.594072	0.241845	0.592921

Source: Nigerian Meteorological Agency, Oshodi 2014.

Relative humidity was relatively high throughout the period of study because the study area is very close to Atlantic Ocean where mean daily rate of evaporation is high. The atmosphere in the area is relatively stable as shown by moderate mean annual wind speed of 3.6m/s in the area. Likewise, Sunshine Hour was recorded in 2012 with 4.8 hours which is lower than the calculated mean of 5.0133 with a variance of 0.0548. This implies that there is an increase in cloud cover with high amount of radiation absorption and scattering with reduced hours of surface absorption. Wind speed was relatively high between 2006 and 2009. This little increase in wind speed accounted for a remarkable rainfall amount recorded in the same period because much water molecules must have been air-lifted to form rainfall producing clouds. It was also noted that more energy was recorded during this period to enhance maximum rainfall amount recorded.

Fig 2(a-f): Trends of Climatic Variables (1998-2012)



Source: Author's Fieldwork 2014

Behaviors of climatic variables examined are shown in figure 2(1-f). They explained fluctuation patterns of the climatic variables in such a way that both maximum (-0.119) and minimum temperature (-0.078) and relative humidity (-0.003) followed a downward trends as explained by their slope of fall in their respective equations. Rainfall amount (1.810), sun shine hours (0.004) and wind speed (0.040) were relatively increased during the period of study. This result shows a strong significant

impact of other climatic variables on rainfall amount which rice production majorly depended upon in the area. Increase on rice yield as a result of desirable amount of rainfall could be attributed to other climatic variables that are favourable to produce maximum amount of rainfall.

Result of Correlation Analysis

Table 2 shows the results of correlation analysis between various climatic variables and rice yield in the study area. The result shows that minimum temperature (-0.669), maximum temperature (-0.625), relative humidity (-0.141) and sunshine hours (-0.125) are inversely related to rice yield while wind Speed (0.306) and Rainfall Amount (0.385) are directly related with Rice yield. This implies that as maximum temperature, minimum temperature, relative humidity and sunshine hours increase, the yield of rice will decrease if other variables being equal. However, increase in wind speed, and rainfall would only amount to increase in the yield of rice.

Table 2: Relationship between Climatic variables and Rice yield

	Mini. Temp	Maxi. Temp	Relative Humidity (mm)	Sunshine Hours	Wind Speed (M/Sec)	Rainfall Amount (mm)	Yield of Rice
Minimum Temp	1.000	.811	-.330	-.175	-.485	-.678	-.669
Maximum Temp		1.000	-.284	.027	-.348	-.448	-.625
Relative Humidity (mm)			1.000	-.146	.426	.080	-.141
Sunshine Hours				1.000	.225	.337	-.125
Wind Speed (Km/Sec)					1.000	.151	.306
Rainfall Amount(mm)						1.000	.385
Yield of Rice							1.000

Source: Authors' Fieldwork 2014

However, an increase in temperature will bring about a drastic reduction in rice yield. Although, rice production needs much water but when the threshold requirement has been reached, the additional water will not be favorable again to the plant, thereby reduction in total output would set in. The fact that temperature, relative humidity and sunshine hours do not have direct relationship with rice yield cannot explain that they have not contributed to high rice yield. These climatic variables have direct links with other variables that are directly associated with maximum output of rice in the area. For instance, relative humidity (-0.141) was inversely related to rice yield but proportionately related to wind speed (0.426) and rainfall amount (0.080). Both wind speed (0.306) and rainfall amount (0.385) are proportionally related to rice yield. This implies that every climatic variable has contributed to the growth of rice in one way or the other.

Table 3: Rotated Component Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
Minimum Temp	-.860	-.370	-.229
Maximum Temp	-.836	-.307	.045
Relative Humidity (mm)	-.003	.920*	-.148
Sunshine Hours	-.056	.015	.959*
Wind Speed (Km/Sec)	.278	.713*	.230
Rainfall Amount(mm)	.634	.031	.527
Yield of Rice	.900	-.111	-.120
Total	2.731	1.600	1.341
%Variance	39.018	22.853	19.156
Cumulative %	39.018	61.871	81.027

Source: Authors' Fieldwork 2014

Table 3 shows the main climatic variables that explained the optimum rice production in the study area. The rotated component matrix selected three components which are expected to be predictors of the yield of rice. These three components are then loaded against the variables in order to identify the most highly loaded factors that have impact on the yield of rice in the study area. The factor naming approach was used and based on the loadings of the variable; a benchmark of 0.7 and above was selected and based on the benchmark, only the variables listed below met with the criteria. Thus, in explaining the factors that are favorable for the production of maximum output of rice in Ifo, there are three components. In component 1, none of the climate variables is highly loaded. In component 2, wind speed and relative humidity are highly loaded and these two factors would be tagged moisture index, which is the relationship between wind speed and relative humidity as it affects rainfall. In component 3, only sunshine hour is highly loaded and it will be tagged heat index.

The implication of this is that 2 factors; heat index (22.85) and moisture index (19.16) are responsible for the high productivity of rice in Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State. These two indices contributed about 42.01% to the explanation of high rice yield in the area. Furthermore, it supports the findings from the correlation matrix that relative humidity, sunshine hours, wind speed, and rainfall amount determines the production of rice in Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State.

Table 4: Results of Regression Analysis

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
Dimension0	1	.915 ^a	.837	.792	.04019

Source: Authors' computation, 2014.

Table 4: shows the result of regression analysis carried out to explain the magnitude of relationship between climatic variables and rice yield in the study area. The coefficient of determination $r^2 = 0.837$ with 0.040 standard error of the estimate. This implies that 84% of the variability in yield is explained by the climatic variables (maximum and minimum temperature, rainfall amount, relative humidity, sunshine and wind speed) with a reduced standard error of 0.040. This model goes to show that there is a very strong direct relationship between climate variables and rice yield in Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State as explained by 84% magnitude level of relationship. However, other human factors like planting season, land clearing, hoeing, number of seed planted per hole etc and environmental factors like topography, soil types could have accounted for the remaining 14%.

Hence, increase or decrease in rice yield is a function of climatic elements especially rainfall amount. Excessive rainfall amount will affect the yield per hectare, so also insufficient rainfall will reduce the yield of rice because rice production has a climatic threshold for maximum output.

Ho: Weather elements do not exhibit any significant impact on rice yield

H1: Weather elements exhibit significant impact on rice yield

Table 5: Rice Yield-Climatic Variables Fit Models

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.
		Coefficients				
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.219	.010		117.433	.000
	Rainfall Amount	.079	.011	.900	7.393	.000
	Relative humidity	-.010	.011	-.111	-.908	.383
	Sunshine	-.011	.011	-.120	-.987	.345

a. Dependent Variable: Yield of Rice

Source: Authors' computation, 2014.

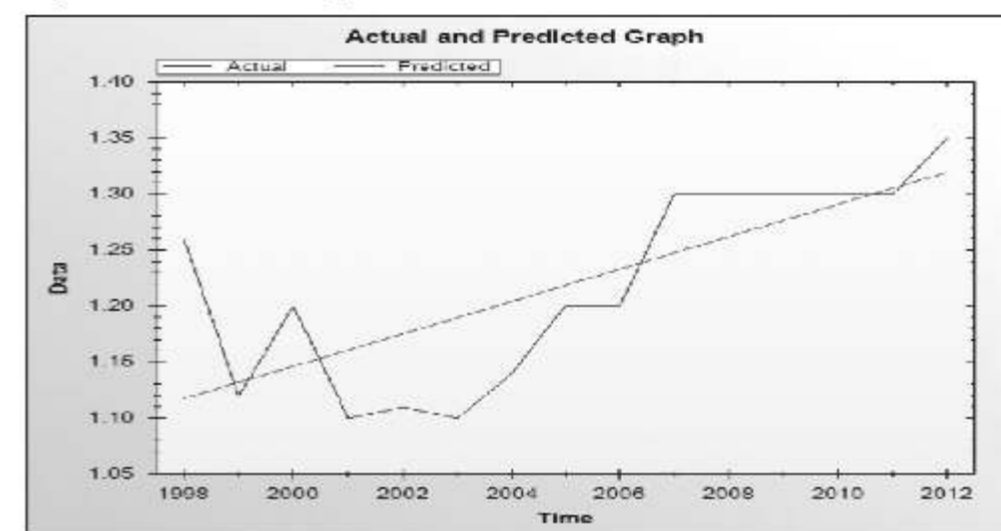
$$\text{Rice} = 1.219 + 0.079_{\text{rainfall amount}} - 0.010_{\text{relative humidity}} - 0.011_{\text{sunshine}}$$

Result in table 5 further explains the fit model of climatic variables and rice yield. The result Shows that rice yield is expected to increase by 1.219 for every increase in Rainfall (+ 0.079), and corresponding decrease in relative humidity (-0.010) and Sunshine hours (-0.011). This model shows that rice yield is highly dependent on each of the variables loaded. However, the P value of the relationships between all the variables shows that only rainfall amount with a p value < 0.05 has a statistically significant relationship with rice yield therefore all other variables are discarded. The result shows that variability in climate plays a very important role in the yield of rice in the study area. This is because from the regression, rice yield is heavily dependent on climatic variables. Thus rice yield can be said to be proportionately related to the climatic elements most especially rainfall. This is because an increase in rainfall is expected to generate proportionate increase in yield of rice, presuming that there are also decreases in sunshine and relative humidity.

Trend Analysis of Rice Yield between 1998 and 2012

Figure 3 shows that the rate of rice yield fluctuates as a result of unstable nature of these climatic variables (Relative humidity, Sunshine, Wind speed and Rainfall amount). The trend line equation $Y_t = 1.1032 + 0.014429 * t$ shows that at constant (k), for every increase in years by 1, rice yield is expected to increase by 0.014429. With the $R^2 = 53\%$, implying that 53% of rice yield is expected to increase by the year.

Fig 3: Trend Line Graph for Rice Yield



Source: Authors' Field Survey, 2014

With the assumptions that the climate of the study area will not experience abrupt change in the next ten years, a forecast of the yield of rice was carried out using the Zaitun's time series model. Table 6 indicates the forecasted yield of rice between 2013 and 2022.

Table: 6 Nature of Rice Yield from 1998-2022

Years	Rice yield (Kg)	Years	Rice yield (Kg)
1998	1.2600	2011	1.3000
1999	1.1200	2012	1.3500
2000	1.2000	2013	1.3341
2001	1.1000	2014	1.3485
2002	1.1100	2015	1.3630
2003	1.1000	2016	1.3774
2004	1.1400	2017	1.3918
2005	1.2000	2018	1.4062
2006	1.2000	2019	1.4207
2007	1.3000	2020	1.4351
2008	1.3000	2021	1.4495
2009	1.3000	2022	1.4640
2010	1.3000		

Source: Authors' Computation, 2014.

From Table 6 shows, rice yield increased steadily. In 2005, Rice yield per kg was 1.200 while in 2010, the yield increased to 1.300 with a variance of 1.00 kg. In 2013 also, Rice yield per kg was 1.3341 while in 2016, it has been predicted here to be 1.3774 with (0.0433 variance). By 2022, rice yield per kg will be increased to 1.4640. Between 1998 and 2004, the yield fluctuated whereas the yield was consistently stable between 2005 and 2006. The yield was increased between 2006 and 2007 and this increase was maintained through 2011. Fluctuations in the yield set in between 2011 and 2015 and the fluctuation followed an increase trend till 2022. This implies that climatic variables in Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State are favorable to the production of rice.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the essence of this research was to assess the effect of climatic variables on rice yield. Studies have shown that climatic elements such as relative humidity, sunshine hours, temperature, wind speed, and rainfall amount have affected rice yield over the last 15 years. It is however necessary to make ready innovations and technological responses in order to improve rice yield in the study area and also adapt to the variation in climate.

This study has analyzed the effect of climatic variability on the yield of rice in Ifo LGA of Ogun state, Nigeria. It shows the level of relationship that exists between the crop and the climatic variables. Among the five climatic variables tested, Rainfall and wind speed were found to be directly associated with rice yield. Factor analysis was used to reduce these variables to two variables (Moisture index and Heat index). These two variables showed a highly significant relationship with rice yield. The findings also showed that as the climatic variables fluctuated every year with a little variance, rice yield also fluctuated but in an upward trend. Local farmers should therefore be encouraged in the planting of hybrid crops so as to have crops resistant to changing climate. Since rice is highly dependent on rainfall, irrigation should be considered as an option of rice growing.

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**TRADE OPENNESS AND ECONOMIC GROWTH IN SUB-SAHARAN
AFRICA:
A DYNAMIC PANEL DATA ANALYSIS**

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Abstract

The paper examines the impact of trade openness on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa as well as the role that Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) plays in the nature of relationship between trade openness and economic growth in the region. The paper used dynamic panel General Method of Moment (GMM) in estimating the data. The data used were sourced from World Development Indicators (WDI) and United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). Results of the dynamic panel GMM show that trade openness had positive impact on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. The results further reveal that FDI played a positive role in the effect of trade openness on economic growth in the countries. The paper concludes that FDI enhances trade openness as a means to further developing economic activities in sub-Saharan Africa.

Keywords: Trade openness, economic growth, sub-Saharan Africa, FDI

Introduction

Trade openness plays an important role in stimulating economic growth in any modern economy. Trade is crucial for the competitiveness of developed and developing economies in the long run. There is a large body of evidence to support this (see BIS, 2013).

The relationship between trade openness and growth is a highly debated topic in the growth and development literature. Yet, this issue is far from being resolved. Theoretical growth studies suggest at best a very complex and ambiguous relationship between trade openness and growth. The endogenous growth literature has been diverse enough to provide a different array of models in which trade openness can decrease or increase the worldwide rate of growth (see Romer, 1990; Grossman & Helpman, 1990; Rivera-Batiz & Romer, 1991; Matsuyama, 1992; Tahir & Ali, 2014).

Haddad, Lim, Pancaro and Saborowski (2012) contend that irrespective of whether the effect of trade openness on output volatility is positive or negative on average, openness lowers output volatility in sufficiently diversified economies, while it increases volatility in those with more concentrated export baskets. Idiosyncratic shocks to specific product markets are more likely to lead to large swings in a country's export volumes and terms of trade if its exports are concentrated on few sectors; similarly, idiosyncratic shocks to demand in specific export destinations are likely to lead to larger swings in economies that export to a small number of geographic regions or countries.

Yusoff (2015) argues that FDI and international trade are indeed important determinants of growth in Thailand. His finding suggests that policymakers in developing countries should liberalize its economy to encourage foreign trade and FDI in-flows to achieve a sustained high economic growth. Tahir & Khan (2014) show that trade openness has contributed significantly to the growth process of the developing countries located in the Asian region. They recommended that developing countries located in the Asian region should speed up the process of trade

liberalization and also pay favourable attention to other determinants of economic growth to accelerate long-run economic growth.

This paper investigates the nexus between trade openness and economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa between 1980 and 2012. The rest of the paper is organized as follows: section two presents the literature review; section three provides methodology; section four discusses the empirical results; and section five provides concluding remark.

Literature Review

Trade openness improves growth and stability and benefits a country through various channels. First, trade openness reduces the probability of crises associated with sudden stops and current account reversals. Economies that are less open to trade have to undergo larger real exchange rate depreciations for a given current account adjustment, face more severe balance sheet effects stemming from depreciations, and, as a result, are more likely to default on their debt. This creates a link between the probability of sudden stops and the likelihood of default, implying that more open economies are less vulnerable to financial crises [Calvo, Izquierdo, & Mejia (2004) and Frankel & Cavallo (2004)]. In addition, trade openness is also expected to mitigate the adverse growth effects of financial crises and facilitate recoveries from crises. It could help an economy to continue servicing its debt and export its way out of a recession since a given exchange rate depreciation would have a larger impact on its export revenues than in a less open economy.

Moreover, trade integration in general seems to be less risky than financial integration. For example, while trade integration can apparently proceed well even in the absence of financial integration, financial integration in the absence of trade integration could lead to a misallocation of resources. Eichengreen (2001) notes that under these circumstances capital inflows may be directed to sectors in which a country does not have a comparative advantage. Martin & Rey (2006) constructs a model in which trade integration has a positive growth effect, but financial integration can lead to asset price crashes and financial crises. They argue that costs

associated with international trade in goods and assets alone could increase the vulnerability of developing countries to financial crises. *Obstfeld and Rogoff (2001) emphasize the importance of frictions related to trade costs (broadly defined) for explaining a number of puzzles in international macroeconomics.* The model has a clear implication—consistent with the received wisdom—that developing countries should liberalize trade in goods before trade in financial assets.

There are many papers validating the traditional preference for liberalizing trade flows ahead of financial flows, but the empirical evidence that trade integration significantly affects the relationship between financial integration and growth is mixed (Kose, Prasad, Rogo? & Wei, 2009). Using trade openness (exports plus imports to GDP) interacted with FDI inflows, Balasubramanyam *et al* (1996) find a positive coefficient on FDI for a sub-sample of countries with higher imports to GDP ratio but Carkovic & Levine (2005) do not find significant interaction effects. Gupta & Yuan (2008) use sectoral-level data and find that there is higher growth following international equity market liberalizations in those sectors that are more trade competitive (defined as the ratio of annual exports in each industry to total annual output of that industry across all sample countries).

However, there appears to be evidence favouring other channels emphasized by the theory. For example, the negative impact of trade openness on the likelihood of sudden stops is indeed empirically important. Calvo, Izquierdo, & Mejia (2004) show that trade openness makes countries less vulnerable to financial crises, including sudden stops and currency crashes; controlling for the endogeneity of trade strengthens this effect. Frankel & Cavallo (2004) & Cavallo (2007) report similar findings. They conclude that a 10 percentage point increase in trade openness reduces the probability of a sudden stop by about 30 percent.

It is also important to examine if trade integration play an important role during the recovery phases from crises. Calvo & Talvi (2005) claim that the collapse of capital flows to Argentina and Chile in the 1990s had a smaller impact on Chile since it is more open to trade flows. *Kose, Meredith & Towe (2005) argue that trade integration has made the Mexican economy more resilient to shocks and contributed to its faster recovery from the 1994–95 peso crisis than from the 1982 debt crisis.*

Other studies also confirm that, among countries that have experienced sudden stops and current account reversals, those that are more open to trade suffer smaller growth declines. For example, Edwards (2005) reports that a decline in trade openness by roughly 30 percentage points increases the negative effect of a current account reversal on growth by approximately 1.2 percentage points.

Some studies also analyze how trade and financial openness affect the negative relationship between volatility and economic growth. Although countries prone to higher macroeconomic volatility would be expected to show worse growth performance than more stable ones, this interpretation does not seem to be entirely borne out by the data. *Ramey & Ramey (1995), Aghion & Banerjee (2005), and Aizenman & Pinto (2006) document the negative relationship between growth and volatility.* In particular, while emerging market countries affected by the recent financial crises faced episodes of high output volatility, they actually posted much better growth rates on average during the past two decades than other developing countries. In particular, during the period 1986-2005, while a number of emerging markets experienced financial crises, their average growth of output was more than two times higher than that of other developing economies. Does this mean that, in a period of rising globalization, the negative relationship between volatility and growth has changed?

Recent studies address this question by studying the relationship between growth and volatility in a large sample of countries over the past four decades (Kose, Prasad & Terrones, 2006). The results indicate that while the negative relationship between growth and volatility reported by previous research for the period 1960-85 has persisted into the 1990s, when it is broken down by country groups, it is far from homogeneous (Kose *et al*, 2009). The relationship appears positive for advanced countries indicating that, for countries in advanced stage of development and integration into the global economy, volatility is not necessarily associated with lower growth. Among developing countries, it is positive on average for emerging market economies and negative for the other developing countries that have not participated as much in the process of globalization (Kose *et al*, 2009).

Both trade and financial integration appear to have played important roles in changing the nature of the volatility and growth relationship for emerging market

economies. The relationship between growth and volatility is negative before trade liberalization and positive after (Kose *et al*, 2009). For financial integration, there is a similar, although less strong, result. In other words, there is suggestive evidence from emerging market economies that both trade and financial integration change the sign of the relationship between volatility and growth.

Regression analysis also suggests that although volatility is still negatively associated with growth, higher trade and financial openness make this relationship weaker. In other words, economies that are more integrated into the global economy have the ability to withstand higher levels of volatility with less adverse effects on growth. *While FDI flows help dampen the adverse impact of volatility on economic growth, other types of flows do not appear to have a significant effect on the relationship between volatility and growth (Kose, Prasad & Terrones, 2006).* Moreover, they argue that these effects may be quantitatively important. When comparing the growth/volatility performance of advanced and developing countries, it is found that the higher levels of trade/financial openness of emerging markets could, under some assumptions, account for about 40 percent of the observed difference in average growth rates between these country groups. Overall these findings suggest that the forces of trade and financial integration could help reduce the adverse impact of volatility on economic growth.

Feenstra (2010) shows that countries with a greater export over GDP ratio will experience higher gains in terms of GDP per capita growth from export variety. His findings suggest that, in addition to the trade dependency ratio, the structure of countries' exports matters regarding the growth effect. Kee (2008) also supports this finding in his empirical analysis between trade openness and economic growth. Huchet-Bourdon, Mouël & Vijil (2014) find that countries exporting higher quality products grow more rapidly. More importantly, they find an interesting non-linear pattern between the trade dependency ratio and trade in quality, suggesting that trade may impact growth negatively for countries which have specialized in low quality products. A non-linear relationship between exports variety, trade ratio and growth is also found, suggesting that countries exporting a wider range of products will grow more rapidly until a certain threshold in terms of dependency of the economy to trade.

In a recent study, Hyea & Lau (2015) revealed that trade openness index negatively impacts on economic growth in the long run. The new evidence is provided by the rolling window regression results i.e. the impact of trade openness index on economic growth is not stable throughout the sample. In the short run trade openness index is positively related to economic growth. Their result further showed that granger causality test confirms the validity of trade openness-led growth and human capital-led growth hypothesis in the short run and long run. In another study, Yeboah, Naanwaab, Saleem, & Akuffo (2012) using a Cobb-Douglas production function and alternative panel models for 38 African countries from 1980 to 2008, found that trade openness had a positive relationship with GDP.

Brückner & Lederman (2012) found that the positive effect of trade openness on

economic growth significantly declines with ethnic polarisation. Hence, while for sub-Saharan Africa as a whole increases in international trade openness were, on average, good for growth, their findings call for some caution in expecting large growth benefits associated with international trade openness in countries that are characterised by strong ethnic divisions.

Despite the bulk of literature on the nexus between trade openness and growth, the nature of relationship still remains a debated issue among scholars. Also, scholars are yet to shift attention on the role of FDI in the effect of trade openness on economic growth. Hence, this paper examines the impact of trade openness on economic growth as well as the role of FDI in the effect of trade openness on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa for adequate and effective policy formulation.

Methodology

The study relied on annual time series data. Empirical investigation was carried out on the basis of the sample covering the period 1980 to 2012 for twenty-one countries in Sub Sahara Africa, namely: Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Gabon, Gambia, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi,

Mauritius, Nigeria, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Togo and Zambia.

Trade openness (TRO) was measured as the sum of exports and imports divided by GDP and sourced from UNCTAD, 2013. Economic growth is proxied by log of Real GDP, sourced from WDI, 2013. Vector of control variables are foreign direct investment (FDI) expressed in percent of GDP and sourced from United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), 2013; domestic credit provided by banking sector (DCB), inflation (INF) and interest rate (INT) sourced from WDI, 2013. Gross capital stock measured in percent of GDP and sourced from WDI, 2013. Labour force measured in percent of GDP and sourced from UNCTAD, 2013.

To evaluate the impacts of trade openness on economic growth, the study considers a panel of i countries, observed over t periods of time. This paper adopts endogenous growth model in line with Prasad, Rajan & Subramanian (2007) and expresses as thus

..... 1
Where GDP = real gross domestic product, KAS = gross capital stock, LBF = labour force, TRO = trade openness, DCB = domestic credit provided by banking sector, INT = interest rate and INF = inflation rate. We express equation 1 in a linear form as thus

..... 2
where ϵ_t is error correction term

In the estimation of the model, the paper adopts the use of the dynamic panel Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) estimators for estimation suggested for the dynamics of adjustment that were developed by Arellano & Bond (1991), and Blundell & Bond (1998). The choice of this technique is to correct for endogeneity problem in the model. The estimated models are specified as thus

The twenty-one countries included in the study were randomly selected from the list of countries in SSA..... 3

This paper also test the hypothesis of Balasubramanyam et al (1996) and Carkovic & Levine (2005) by interacting FDI with TRO in order to show the role that FDI plays in the nexus between trade openness and growth nexus in sub-Saharan Africa. We express equation 3 as thus

The responsiveness of steady state level of economic growth to trade openness can be determined by differentiating Eq (4) with respect to trade openness. This will give the marginal effect of trade openness on economic growth as thus:

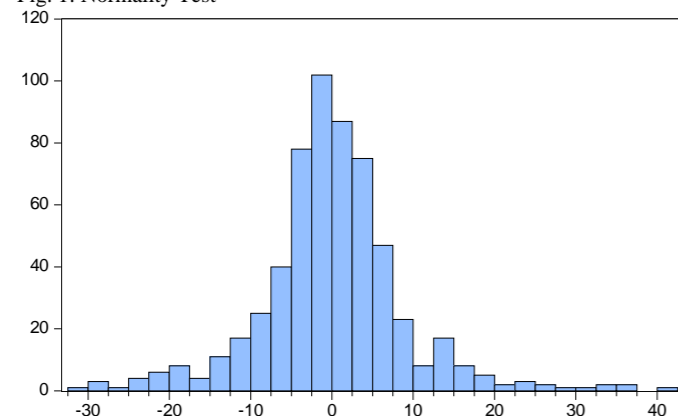
From Eq (5), we calculate the threshold level of FDI i.e. (Greene, 2008; and Ollu, 2000).

So, by estimating Eq (3) and Eq (4) using ordinary least squares could produce biased results as they would suffer from an endogeneity problem where both the independent and dependent variables could influence each other. To solve this problem, exogenous instrument variables are required. However, using such variables for a two-staged least squares estimation could also yield biased estimates as exogenous instrument variables may be weak. To avoid this problem, Arellano and Bond (1991) proposed the use of a Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) to produce more efficient estimates where lagged values of the independent variables are used as instruments. Empirical estimation in this study employed the same approach and use lagged value of the independent variable as instruments.

Empirical Results and Discussion

The normal distribution of the variables was tested and fig. 1 below shows that the variables are not normally distributed. This was affirmed through the acceptance of null hypothesis.

Fig. 1: Normality Test



Also, the statistical properties of the variables are leptokurtic - the distribution is peaked - in nature with value 6.08. This value exceeds 3 and shows the benchmark of kurtosis be peaked in distribution. The positive skewness (i.e. 0.36) of the variables indicate that the distribution has a long right tail. In addition, we accept the hypothesis of normal distribution, hence, the variables are not normally distributed.

Panel unit roots tests (LLC, IPS, Fisher-ADF, and Fisher-PP) are reported in Table 1 for sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 1: Result of Panel Unit Roots Tests

Series	Levin, Lin & chut		Im, Pesaran & Shin W-Stat		ADF-Fisher chi-square		PP-Fisher chi-square		Order of integration
	Level	1 st Diff.	Level	1 st Diff.	Level	1 st Diff.	Level	1 st Diff.	
GDP	-7.48*	-13.79*	-10.44*	-22.08*	189.77*	425.8*	338.3*	560.5*	I(0)
TRO	-1.22	-12.02*	-1.4***	-14.15*	50.36	265.0*	66.59*	491.4*	I(1)
FDI	-2.74*	-8.25*	-3.89*	-16.77*	97.02*	323.6*	166.5*	471.8*	I(0)
DCB	-1.56	-8.89*	-0.74	-11.11*	48.54	203.6*	40.04	352.7*	I(1)
INF	-6.13*	-12.25*	-7.26*	-17.14*	137.2*	333.6*	164.7*	497.3*	I(0)
INT	-4.92*	-14.19*	-5.48*	-17.91*	105.1*	334.2*	200.8*	486.0*	I(0)
KAS	-1.64	-11.18*	-0.58	-11.35*	32.64	209.0*	35.01	371.0*	I(1)
LBF	-1.31	-12.81*	-0.49	-10.74*	41.31	212.1*	38.10	362.1*	I(1)

***, **, * indicate 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance.

The results in Table 1 suggest that we reject the null hypothesis of unit root at levels for economic growth (proxied by GDP), FDI, inflation (proxied by INF) and interest rate (proxied by INT). We reject the null hypothesis of unit root at first difference for trade openness (proxied by TRO) and financial development (proxied by DCB). These results show that the variables were stationary at both level and first difference. Bound testing is required for time series and any dynamic panel model for cross countries if the stationary levels are of different order (see Baltagi, 2008). This paper used dynamic panel General Method of Moment (GMM) in estimating the model.

The results in Table 2 below show the impact of trade openness on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 2: Fixed Effect Dynamic Panel GMM Result

Variable	Model 1		Model 2	
	Coefficient	t-Statistic	Coefficient	t-Statistic
GDP	-0.452***	-3.807	-0.407***	-2.938
TRO	0.135**	1.973	0.161**	1.977
TRO*FDI	----	----	0.364**	1.995
KAS	0.479**	1.971	0.574**	1.979
LBF	0.304*	1.893	0.325*	1.881
FDI	0.105**	1.954	0.412**	1.959
DCB	-0.161*	-1.861	-0.069*	-1.742
INI	0.085*	1.848	0.032*	1.821
INI	-0.018	-0.324	-0.014	-0.031
Scalar pval=@chisq(J-statistic, p-k) ⇒ 0.353				
J-statistic	15.36	Instrument rank		21
Observation	672			

*, **, *** indicate 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance. Figures in parentheses are t-statistic.

The reliability of the GMM estimate depends very much on the validity of the instruments. However, to test for the validity of the instrument used, we examine the value of the J-statistic and instrument rank of the GMM estimate. From Table 2, the instrument rank (21) is greater than the number of estimated coefficients (06), we may use it to construct the Sargan test of over-identifying restrictions. Under the null hypothesis that the over-identifying restrictions are valid, the Sargan statistic is distributed as a $\chi^2(p-k)$, where k is the number of estimated coefficients and p is the instrument rank. Constructing the Sargan test of over-identifying restrictions which is computed using "scalar pval = @chisq(J-statistic, p-k)" with a value of 0.353. From this computation the null hypothesis of over-identifying restrictions are valid.

The results show that trade openness had a positive and significant effect on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. It could be inferred from these results that openness of sub-Saharan Africa to international trade would help a lot in improving economic activities in the region. The results further reveal that foreign direct investment aggravates the positive impact of trade openness on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa (as shown in the fourth column of the results). Based on the estimated coefficients for the trade openness variable and the interaction term, it is found that 0.52 was the threshold value that FDI would attain before it could aggravate the positive effect of trade openness on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. This implies that FDI enhances the positive effect of trade openness on economic growth in the region.

Furthermore, the results reveal that FDI had positive impact on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. This implies that FDI promotes economic activities of the economies. Financial development had negative effect on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. The result suggests that the financial sector in the region is not well developed to enhance economic growth, and need to be developed in order to sustain development in the countries. Interest rate had positive impact on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. This implies that an economy with high interest rate will attract capital inflows which in turn accelerate economic growth of the region. Capital stock had positive and significant effect on economic growth in the economies. This indicates that capital stock serves as a catalyst to economic growth in the region. Moreover, if the rate of capital stock in the countries is sustained and enhanced, the countries will witness sustainable development which in turn improve standard of living of people that reside in the countries. The results further revealed that labour force had positive and significant impact on economic growth in the countries. This implies that labour plays a significant role in economic progress of the region. Therefore governments in the economies should invest on human capital development in order for the countries to attain development.

Concluding Remarks

The study investigated trade openness – growth nexus in sub-Saharan Africa as well as the role that FDI plays in the nature of relationship between trade openness and economic growth in the region. The paper used dynamic panel General method of Moment (GMM) in estimating the data. Results of the dynamic panel GMM show that trade openness had positive impact on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. The results further revealed that FDI plays a positive role in the effect of trade openness on economic growth in the countries. One of the implications of these results was that sub-Saharan African economies witness economic progress as a result of participation in international trade. The governments in this region should enhance their participation in international trade for sustainable development in the countries. Another implication was that FDI serves as a fuel of improving trade openness to further develop economic activities of the countries. Much attention should be focussed on attraction of FDI into the region and appropriate mechanism should be put in place to ensure that the benefits and gains from FDI still revolve around the economies. Lastly, financial sectors should be well developed in order to promote trade openness and attract inflows of capital into the economies.

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