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Editorial

This edition of NIU *Journal of Social Sciences* focuses on Development Administration Social Psychology and Educational Management.

The first part of the Journal addresses issues in Development Administration such as Fiscal Policy, Economic Repositioning, Waste Management, Oil Politics, Rural Development and Good Governance. It is established in one of the papers that deposit money bank credit to agriculture and exchange rates has direct and significant effect on agricultural sector output while interest rate has a direct but insignificant impact on agricultural sector performance. As the solutions to these challenges, the paper concludes among others that need for institutional reforms that will drive credit facilities to the agricultural sector, and promote favorable institutional environments, make it stronger and Anti-corruption laws should be applied strongly, so that illegal agricultural sector business can be curtailed in the country.

Papers in the second section are on Social Psychology. Using residents in poor urban communities in Lagos State, Nigeria as case studies, one of the papers in these sections argues theoretically and demonstrates empirically that vote buying is a major determinant that defines the voting behaviour of poor and vulnerable voters. It is therefore recommended that government must proactively and genuinely embark on effective poverty alleviation schemes in order to address the menace of vote buying.

The last section on Educational Management, one of the papers discusses types of social vices, which includes; Indecent Dressing, drug abuse and alcoholism, cultism, promiscuity and prostitution, examination malpractice, gambling, cybercrime, frauds and money laundering. The paper also discusses roles played by business education in curbing social vices in educational sector.

On the whole, this issue of *NIU Journal of Social Sciences* features many interesting research papers. Some of these papers are empirical in nature while others have theoretical base. Each of them focuses on one specific social and management problem or the other; trying to proffer solutions to them. Readers are therefore advised to make proper use of the ideas presented by the various authors.

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Part One

Development Administration



Fiscal Policy, Institutional Quality and the Growth of the Agricultural Sector in Nigeria

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Abstract. The productivity of the agricultural sector in Nigeria has dwindled over time despite the government's intervention through fiscal policy and institutional quality reforms. It is against this backdrop that this study employed the Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares (FMOLS) methodology to examine the effect of fiscal policy, institutional quality, deposit money bank credit to the agricultural sector, interest rate and exchange rate on Nigeria's agricultural sector using data from 1986 to 2020. The ADF test was employed in testing the stationarity of the variables and the results revealed that all of the series were stationary at first difference. While the Johansen co-integration result revealed that growth in Nigeria's agricultural sector output is cointegrated. This implies that there is a long-run relationship between the growth of the agricultural sector and the explanatory variables. The findings from FMOLS regression results showed that government expenditure on agriculture and total tax revenue as fiscal policy variables have direct and significant impact on Nigeria's agricultural sector output. Also, the fiscal freedom index as institutional quality has an inverse but significant effect on Nigeria's agricultural sector output while the economic freedom index has a direct but insignificant impact on the agricultural sector in the country. Furthermore, deposit money bank credit to agriculture and exchange rates has direct and significant effect on agricultural sector output while interest rate has a direct but insignificant impact on agricultural sector performance. Therefore, the study recommended that the Nigerian government needs to fine-tune its fiscal responsibility by increasing its expenditure on the agricultural sector, there is a need for institutional

reforms that will drive credit facilities to the agricultural sector, and promote favorable institutional environments, make it stronger and Anti-corruption laws should be applied strongly, so that illegal agricultural sector business can be curtailed in the country.

Keynotes: Fiscal Policy, Institutional Quality, Agriculture, Growth of the Agricultural Sector

1. Introduction

Nigeria is a country endowed with over 84 million hectares of arable land and is currently noted for production of palm oil, cocoa, groundnut, rubber and cotton (Brown & Iyabode, 2020). The cultivation of these crops has generated reasonable revenue for the economy and maintained some supply of labour; though in the recent times, its contribution is less than 30 percent of the total GDP (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2020). Despite the large labour force that engages in agriculture in Nigeria, the performance over time seems to be far from the targeted growth. The need to enhance the performance of the agricultural sector has been the main target of this current government and also the previous ones. Policies and programmes focusing on agriculture have emerged from as early as late 1970s to boost agriculture output and revenue generation for the government. These programmes and policies include Green Revolution and Operation Feed the Nation.

The inability of these policies and programmes to bring about the desired target have shown that fiscal policies might not be sustained enough to trigger

growth in agriculture in Nigeria. Studies such as Omojimite (2012), Madni and Chaudhary (2017), Kolawole (2018) and Imoughele and Emeke (2021) have emphasised that institutions matter for enhancing the performance of fiscal policy in causing the needed changes in economic activities.

Furthermore, North (1990) defines institutions as humanly devised constraints that structure the political, economic and social interaction of people. While Bruinshoofd (2016) noted that institutions should be viewed as a basic requirement for economic success and long-term progress and institutional quality are broad perceptions that capture law, individual rights and high-quality government regulation and services. However, institutional quality and economic progress strengthen each other in the long run. Adebisi and Babatope-Obasa (2004) and Omojimite (2012) and Imoughele and Emeke (2021) argued that institutional quality (e.g. economic and legal institutions) matter for economic growth activity, just as other factors such the resource endowment and technical skills. They affirmed that institutions have direct and indirect benefits on economic activities. For example, strong legal institutions that define and enforce property rights attract productive investments from both within and outside the country. They also promote ethical values that promote good conduct and stability in the business environment. These factors have positive effects on overall economic development.

Zouhaier (2012) further claims that a sound institutional atmosphere can provide a positive climate that encourages economic agents, both domestic and foreign, to invest more in economic activities with high added value while on the contrary, institutions of poor quality can increase uncertainty, unpredictability, instability, corruption and transaction and production costs which discourage investment in the economic activities. As a result of this, the Nigerian government has embarked on various policies to address the issue of the decline of agricultural sector performance in the country since institutional quality is a conditional variable that can be modulated by public policy such as fiscal policy. With the above perception, one may be tempted to conclude that the use of the policy variables in Nigeria seems not to have resulted in the desired level of growth of the agricultural sector given the dismal performance of the sector in recent years. From the foregoing, it is clear that the level of activities and growth in the agricultural sector is influenced not only by fiscal policy variables but also by the institutions that have a direct and indirect relationship with the agricultural sector.

Literature proliferated on the impact of fiscal policy on the growth of the agricultural sector in Nigeria. Intellectual such as Lawal, Fidelis, Babajide, Obasaju, Oyetade, Lawal-Adedoyin, Ojeka and Olaniru (2018), Okoh, Amadi, Ojiya and Ani (2019), Keji and Efuntade (2020), Oluwaseun, Oyefabi and Yusuf (2020) among others, have written extensively on the impact of fiscal policy on the growth of the agricultural sector with different finding and conclusion while Omojimite (2012) and Aderinto, Ogunro and Ogunjinmi (2021) have examined the effects of institutional quality on the growth of the agricultural sector in Nigeria. But much attention has not been given to the simultaneous effect of fiscal policy and institutional quality on the growth of the agricultural sector in Nigeria. Institutional quality is a conditional variable that can be modulated by public policy such as fiscal policy. Hence, this study is justified to bridge the noticeable gap in knowledge by examining the simultaneous effect of fiscal policy and institutional quality on the growth of the agricultural sector in Nigeria. Furthermore, the study will contribute to the knowledge by examining the fiscal freedom index and economic freedom index as an institutional quality variable on the growth of the agricultural sector which has not to be examined by other scholars.

2. Literature Review

Theories have been propounded to explain the role of fiscal policy, as well as, institutional quality on the performance of the economy. In this study, we shall consider two of the theories, which provide strong explanation for the role of fiscal policy and institutional quality. One of them is Keynes theory and is among the earliest theories in economics. As explained by Reem (2009), Keynes argued that government in its activities can stimulate economic growth by decreasing or increasing the tax or government expenditure either or the two; that is, tax and government spending simultaneously. As such, government stimulates such sectors as agriculture by promoting tax incentives or increasing its spending to the tune necessary for growth in the sector. Emphasising the role of institutional quality is the modern theory, which specifically showed that environment exerts influence on economic growth and development. The Modern Theory takes its foundation in both Neoclassical and Endogenous Growth Theories. A key component of the environment is the institutions. From Modern Theory, stable rule of law, healthy climate for investment, effective social policy and promotion of human dignity significantly enhances technological

innovations and efficient resources allocation in a country; thereby enhancing economic growth.

Empirically, authors such as Omojimate (2012), Asgari and Nogueira (2013) and Zirra and Ezie (2017) have shown the roles of fiscal policy and institutional quality on agricultural output. On the effect of institutional quality on agricultural sector, Omojimate (2012) used the Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares technique and obtained a positive relationship between deficit financing income, institutional reforms and credit to the agricultural sector while interest rate was negative. Using panel data for 22 sub-Saharan Africa, Asgari and Nogueira (2013) found out that the government expenditure and corruption control have a positive relationship with agriculture performance. Asgari and Nogueira also found out that mortality rate is negatively related to agricultural performance. Zirra and Ezie (2017), on one side, established the relationship between government fiscal policy and agricultural sector output in Nigeria. The results obtained through Fully Modified OLS (FMOLS) method showed that VAT was found to have positive significant influence on the growth of value of agricultural outputs but government expenditure on agriculture was relatively low.

Using ARDL, Lawal, Fidelis, Babajide, Obasaju, Oyetade, Lawal-Adedoyin, Ojeka and Olaniru, (2018) found out that government expenditure on agricultural output was statistically insignificant in the period under study. The main focus of study of Omekwe and Obayori (2018) is the determinants of agricultural output in Nigeria from 1985 to 2016. Omekwe and Obayori's results showed that agricultural funding and climate change are key determinants of agricultural output in Nigeria. The relationship between fiscal policy and agriculture sector activities has been investigated by Okoh, Amadi, Ojiya and Ani (2019). Okoh, Amadi, Ojiya and Ani showed that government expenditure on agriculture had positive but statistically insignificant impact on agricultural output.

Oluwaseun, Oyefabi and Yusuf (2020) analyzed the impact of fiscal policy on agricultural output in Nigeria from 1980 to 2017. In order to achieve the objective of the study, Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root, Johansen co-integration and Vector Error Correction Model were employed. The Result of the regression shows that government capital expenditure on agriculture has a positive and significant impact on agricultural output, while Government recurrent expenditure on agriculture also has a positive impact on agricultural output in Nigeria. Furthermore, the study also revealed that personal income tax has a

negative and insignificant impact on agricultural output.

Keji and Efunade (2020) empirically investigated the link between agricultural output growth and government spending in Nigeria from 1981 to 2018; employing Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) and Bounds co-integration, and the results show that both short and long run effect of government spending on the growth of agricultural output in Nigeria. Olusola (2021) investigated the role of agriculture public financing in agricultural output growth in Nigeria for the periods of 1981 to 2019. The study utilised the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) to estimate the parameters and Granger causality to establish the causal links between government agriculture expenditure and agricultural output growth. The ARDL bounds test reveals that there is a long run relationship between government agriculture expenditure and agricultural output growth in Nigeria. The study found that government agriculture expenditure contributes negatively and significantly to the Nigerian agricultural output growth in the short run, while contributing positively and significantly to long run agricultural output growth. The causality test result showed that there is a one-way causality from public agriculture expenditure to agriculture output growth in Nigeria. Brown and Lyabode (2020) investigated the determinants of agricultural production in Nigeria. The findings of Brown and Lyabode showed that agricultural funding, agricultural credit/loan and exchange rate have positive relationship with agricultural production output. Aderinto, Ogunro and Ogunjinmi (2021) investigated the effect of institutional quality on Agricultural Sector Performance in Nigeria. The authors adopted Co-integration and Error Correction Mechanism (ECM) technique. The authors' results revealed that there is a negative relationship between agricultural output and institutional quality.

3. Methodology

3.1 Model Specification

Different factors have been identified to be responsible for changes in agricultural output. Based on theoretical exposition and following the extant literatures, the model of Olarinde and Abdullahi (2014) who examined the relationship between macroeconomic policy and agricultural output in Nigeria was adapted for the study with some modifications. They specified their model in a functional form thus:

$$AGO = f(GEA, CBA, EXCR, INTR, INF) \quad (1)$$

Where: AGO is agricultural output, CBA is commercial bank credit to agriculture sector, GEA is government expenditure on agriculture, INF is inflation rate, EXCR is Exchange rate while INTR is Interest rate.

For the purpose of this study, equation (1) is modified to capture intuitional quality indicators and taxation and the functional form is given as:

$$AGO = f(GEA, TAX, EFI, FFI, DMA, INT, EXR) \quad (2)$$

Equation (2) is linearly expressed in a log form as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log}(AGO) = & \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{Log}GEA + \alpha_2 \text{Log}TAX \\ & + \alpha_3 \text{Log}EFI + \alpha_4 \text{Log}FFI + \alpha_5 \text{Log}DMA + \alpha_6 \text{EXR} + \alpha_7 \text{INT} \quad \text{ut} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Where

AGO=agricultural sector output

GEA = government expenditure on agriculture

TAX = total tax

EFI = Economic freedom index

FFI = Fiscal freedom index

DMA = Deposit money bank credit to agriculture

EXR = Exchange rate

INT = interest rate

$\alpha_1, \alpha_3, \alpha_5, \alpha_6, > 0$, and $\alpha_2, \alpha_4, \alpha_7, < 0$

Sources of Data

The data used in this study are time series data covering the period 1986 to 2020 and were obtained

mainly from secondary sources. Among these are Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) Statistical Bulletin (various issues), National Bureau of Statistic (NBS) and Heritage Foundation data base.

Method of Data Analysis

The econometric techniques that were used in the study are the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit-root test, Johansen Cointegration test and Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares (FMOLS). The econometric Eview package (Eviews 12) was used to analyse the model. The data for the study were analysed through the application of relevant statistical and econometric techniques. Econometric tools like the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) Unit Root Test were used to test the stationarity of the variables to avoid spurious (misleading) results. The Johansen co-integration test was adopted to ascertain the order of integration among the variables in the long run. The FMOLS was originally designed first time by Philips and Hansen (1990) and Philips and Moon (1999) to provide optimal estimates of Co-integration regressions. This technique employs kernal estimators of the Nuisance parameters that affect the asymptotic distribution of the OLS estimator. In order to achieve asymptotic efficiency, this technique modifies least squares to account for serial correlation effects and test for the endogeneity in the regressors that result from the existence of a Cointegrating Relationships.

4. Discussion of Results

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

This study commences its empirical analysis by examining the characteristics of the series used in it. The descriptive statistics of the entire data series is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

	LOG(AGO)	LOG(GEA)	LOG(TAX)	LOG(EFI)	LOG(FFI)	LOG(DMA)	EXR	INT
Mean	7.7925	4.5670	5.8318	3.9665	4.3795	4.0079	115.1782	18.5257
Median	8.4307	5.5598	6.2617	3.9570	4.4332	4.0227	120.9702	17.9500
Maximum	10.5252	6.9019	8.4608	4.0724	4.4450	6.9562	358.8108	29.8000
Minimum	3.5752	0.0953	1.5041	3.8565	2.9932	0.6043	2.0206	10.5000
Std. Dev.	2.1204	2.0575	2.1496	0.0630	0.2426	1.8202	99.8006	3.8069
Skewness	-0.5498	-1.0175	-0.5366	-0.0027	-5.5579	-0.2154	0.7583	0.8884
Kurtosis	2.0053	2.5424	2.0145	1.7043	32.2716	2.0433	2.8516	4.5448
Jarque-Bera	3.2062	6.3444	3.0958	2.4483	1429.729	1.6053	3.3867	8.0848
Probability	0.2013	0.0419	0.2127	0.2940	0.0000	0.4481	0.1839	0.0176
Sum	242.7368	159.8467	204.1124	138.8277	153.2824	140.2749	4031.238	648.4002
Sum Sq. Dev.	152.8668	143.9329	157.1032	0.1351	2.0014	112.6510	338645.4	492.7358
Observations	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35

Source: Regression Output using Eview

In Table 1 above, the average (i.e. mean and median) of each series shows a good degree of consistency. This is evident in their values which lie between the maximum and minimum values. With regard to the level of spread of the series around its average, all the selected series except exchange rate (EXR) are relatively evenly spread. This is evident in by the low values of standard deviation that each of the series has. As such, the series have no out-liers or extreme large values except for exchange rate.

All the series are negatively and moderately skewed except exchange and interest rates. This is based on the fact that their skewness lies between -0.0027 to 0.8884. The coefficients of the skewness are symmetrical around the mean and thus close to normal distribution. In terms of Kurtosis, only INT have a kurtosis that is above 3 indicating that INT are not normally distributed. However, LOG(AGO), LOG(GEA), LOG(TAX), LOG(EFI), LOG(FFI) LOG(DMA) and EXR are normally distributed.

Unit Root Test:

The Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) Unit root test was used to assess whether the variables are stationary or not and their order of integration. The test involved testing the null hypothesis of non-stationarity of variables against the alternative hypothesis of stationarity. The result of the ADF Unit root test is shown in Table.2

Table 2: Results of Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) Unit Root Test

Variable	ADF Calculated Value In Level	ADF Calculated Value At 1st Difference	Mckinnon 5% Critical Value	Order Of Integration
Log (AGO)	-3.3476*	-	-2.9511	1(0)
LOG(GEA)	-2.1403	-6.4393*	-2.9540	1(1)
LOG(TAX)	-2.2416	-7.1649*	-2.9540	1(1)
LOG(EFI)	-2.1258	-6.9961*	-2.9540	1(1)
LOG(FFI)	-5.2990*	-	-2.9511	1(0)
LOG(DMA)	-0.9789	-6.6725*	-2.9540	1(1)
EXR	-1.7185	-3.9498*	-2.9540	1(1)
INT	-4.3603*	-	-2.9511	1(0)

Source: Regression Output using Eview

*Significant at 5 per cent

The unit root test in Table 2 shows that government expenditure on agriculture (GEA), total tax revenue (TAX), economic freedom index (EFI) and deposit money bank credit to agricultural sector (DMA) are stationary at first difference 1(1) since the calculated ADF is greater than the McKinnon 5% critical values while fiscal freedom index (FFI), interest rate (INT) and agricultural sector output (AGO) are stationary at level 1(0) because the ADF value of the variable at level is greater than the McKinnon 5% critical values.

Johansen Co-integration Test Result

The result of Johansen co-integration test for the model is shown in tables 3 below.

Table 3: Summary of Johansen Co-Integration Trace and Max-Eigen Test Statistic

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigen Value	Trace Statistics	0.05 Critical Value	Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Max-Eigen Statistic	0.05 Critical Value
None *	0.8616	207.1080	159.5297	None *	65.2517	52.3626
At most 1 *	0.7699	141.8563	125.6154	At most 1 *	48.4785	46.2314
At most 2	0.6481	93.3779	95.7537	At most 2	34.4642	40.1776
At most 3	0.4607	58.9137	69.8189	At most 3	20.3768	33.8769
At most 4	0.4114	38.5368	47.8561	At most 4	17.4899	27.5843
At most 5	0.2747	21.0469	29.7971	At most 5	10.6022	21.1316
At most 6	0.1917	10.4446	15.4947	At most 6	7.0231	14.2646
At most 7	0.0985	3.4215	3.8415	At most 7	3.42152	3.8415

*(**)denotes rejection of the hypothesis at 5% significance level

L.R. test indicates 2 co-integrating equation(s) at 5% significance level

Source: Author Regression Outputs

The Johansen Co-Integration trace and Maximum Eigen value result in Table .3 shows that there exist two (2) co-integrating equations at 5% level of significance. This is because the likelihood ratio is greater than critical values at 5%. This shows that there is long run relationship between agricultural output and government expenditure on agriculture, total tax revenue, economic freedom index, deposit money bank credit to agriculture, fiscal freedom index, exchange rate and interest rate. The result indicates that, in the long run; the growth of Nigerian agricultural sector can be efficiently predicted using the specified independent variables.

Long Run Statistic Regression of agricultural Output

The result of the Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares (FMOLS) is presented in the table 4 below

Table: 4. Summary of the FMOLS Regression Results

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LOG(GEA)	0.1925*	0.0437	4.4070	0.0002
LOG(TAX)	0.6031*	0.0746	8.0795	0.0000
LOG(EFI)	0.0315	0.5063	0.0623	0.9508
LOG(FFI)	-0.3029*	0.1026	-2.9525	0.0066
LOG(DMA)	0.1591*	0.0393	4.0467	0.0004
EXR	0.0020*	0.0005	3.6879	0.0010
INT	0.0027	0.0085	0.3156	0.7548
C	2.1169	1.9598	1.0801	0.2900
R ² = 0.8905				
R ² = 0.8580				

Note: *Significant at 5 per cent

Source = Author Regression output

From Table 4 above, it could be observed that the entire variables in the model estimation met their expected sign except total tax revenue and interest rate. Also, government expenditure on agriculture LOG(GEA) has direct and significant impact on agricultural sector output (AGO). One percent increase in LOG(GEA) leads to 0.1925 percent increase in Nigeria agricultural sector output. This is consistent with apriori expectation. This result supports the fact that on the long run expansionary fiscal policy through increasing in government expenditure on agriculture will enhance the growth of agricultural sector performance in Nigeria. This implies that government expenditure on agricultural sector does not crowd out private investment in the sector. This finding is consistent with Omekwe and Obayori (2018) and Brown and Iyadode (2020) who reported that government expenditure on agricultural sector as a fiscal policy variable contribute significantly to the growth of agricultural sector output and recommended that the government should increase its spending on agricultural sector which will in turn promote investment in the sector.

The coefficient of total tax revenue LOG(TAX) as a fiscal policy shows direct and significant relationship with the growth of agricultural sector output in Nigeria. This is not in line with the apriori expectation. One percent increase in LOG(TAX) leads to 0.6031 per cent increase in Nigeria agricultural sector output. This result suggests that total tax revenue contribute to growth in Nigeria agricultural sector. This is not consistent with Zirra

and Ezie (2017) and Keji and Efundade (2020) result who evaluate the impact of fiscal policy on the agricultural sector output in Nigeria and reported that total tax revenue has an inverse and insignificant effect on the productivity of agricultural sector in Nigeria.

The coefficient of economic freedom index LOG(EFI) as an institutional quality variable has a direct but insignificant impact on Nigeria agricultural sector output. One per cent increase in LOG(EFI) leads to 0.0315 per cent increase in agricultural sector output. This is consistent with the apriori expectation. This implies that economic freedom to invest in the agricultural sector will enhance the growth of the sector output in Nigeria. This is conformed to Aderito and Ogunro (2021) result who reported the institutional quality has direct but insignificant effect on the growth of agricultural sector in Nigeria.

The coefficient of fiscal freedom index LOG(FFI) as an institutional quality variable has an inverse but significant impact on Nigeria agricultural sector output. One per cent increase in LOG(FFI) leads to 0.3029 per cent decrease in agricultural sector output. This is consistent with the apriori expectation. This implies that increase in tax burden on farmer or agricultural sector reduce the agricultural sector productivity in Nigeria. This conforms to Omojimite (2012) who reviled that institutional reform has an inverse and insignificant effect on the growth of Nigeria agricultural sector output.

The coefficient of deposit money bank credit to agriculture (DMA) has direct and significant effect on the growth of agricultural sector in Nigeria. This is consistent with the *a priori* expectation. The value of the coefficient is 0.1591 which implies that one per cent increase in LOG(DMA) leads to 0.1591 per cent increase in the growth of agricultural sector. The coefficient of the variable is statistically significant at 5 per cent level of significance with a probability value of 0.0004. This finding is in line with Brown and Iyadode (2020) who revealed that deposit money bank credit to agricultural sector has direct and significant impact on the growth of Nigeria agricultural sector output.

The coefficient of exchange rate (EXR) shows direct and significant relationship with the growth of agricultural sector output in Nigeria. This is in line with the *a priori* expectation. One percent increase in EXR leads to 0.0020 per cent increase in Nigeria agricultural sector output. This result suggests that stable exchange rate contribute to growth in Nigeria agricultural sector.

This result is consistent with Brown and Iyadode (2020) who stated that stable exchange rate contributes significantly to the growth of Nigeria agricultural sector output.

Interest rate (INT) has a direct but insignificant impact on Nigeria agricultural sector output. One per cent increase in INT leads to 0.0026 per cent increase in Nigeria agricultural sector SMEs. This is not consistent with the *a priori* expectation. This implies that Interest rate enhance the growth of Nigerian agricultural sector. This result is in line with Asekome and Ikojie (2018) findings in their study of the impact of interest rate on agricultural sector output in Nigeria. They reported that interest rate has direct but insignificant effect on the country agricultural sector output. Finally, the coefficient of determinations R^2 of 0.8905 indicates that about 89 percent of the total variations in Nigeria agricultural sector output are explained by the variations in the explanatory variables of fiscal policy and institutional quality.

5. Conclusion and Policy Implication

The main thrust of this study examined the effect of fiscal policy and institutional quality on the growth of the agricultural sector in Nigeria. This study employed empirical analysis to examine the effect of fiscal policy variables of total government expenditure on the agricultural sector and total tax

revenue and institutional quality variables of economic freedom index and fiscal freedom index on Nigeria's agricultural sector output using data from 1986 to 2020. The ADF test was employed in testing the stationarity of the variables and the results revealed that government expenditure on agriculture, total tax revenue, economic freedom index and deposit money bank credit to the agricultural sector are stationary at first difference I(1) while fiscal freedom index, interest rate and agricultural sector output are stationary at level I(0).

The Johansen co-integration result revealed that growth in the Nigeria agricultural sector output is cointegrated with government expenditure on agriculture, total tax revenue, economic freedom index, fiscal freedom index, deposit money bank credit to the agricultural sector and interest rate. This is an indication that, there is a tendency for the variable to be equilibrium on the long run. The findings from regression results showed that government expenditure on agriculture and total tax revenue as fiscal policy variables have direct and significant impact on Nigeria's agricultural sector output. Also, the fiscal freedom index as institutional quality has an inverse but significant effect on Nigeria's agricultural sector output while the economic freedom index has direct but insignificant impact on the agricultural sector in the country. Furthermore, the regression results reveal that exchange rate has a direct and significant effect on agricultural sector output while interest rate has a direct but insignificant impact on agricultural sector performance in Nigeria. Therefore, from the findings of the study, the study concluded that the fiscal policy has contributed significantly to the growth of Nigeria's agricultural sector while institutional quality has no robust impact on the growth of Nigeria's agricultural sector productivity because of poor institutional structure in the country.

Therefore, to pursue the quest for growth in the Nigerian agricultural sector the study recommended that: First, the Nigerian government needs to fine-tune its fiscal responsibility by increasing its expenditure on the agricultural sector. Such an increase in expenditure should be aimed at the provision of the agricultural sector-driving infrastructure. Second, the government should encourage and intensify efforts at entrenching fiscal freedom by putting in place functional agencies that would monitor the implementation of tax incentives meant for the agricultural sector. Third, there is a need to redirect fiscal policy measures toward diversifying the Nigerian economy through the agricultural sector. Fourth, government fiscal policies

should place greater emphasis on the principles of effective taxation aimed at promoting investment and the growth of the agricultural sector in the country. Fifth, there is a need for institutional reforms that will drive credit facilities to productive investments in the agricultural sector and finally, the Nigerian government should improve the overall institutional quality in the country, promote favorable institutional environments, make it stronger and Anti-corruption laws should be applied strongly, so that illegal agricultural sector business can be curtailed.

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Strategic Financial Management Practices and Sustainability of Small and Medium Enterprise in Osogbo Metropolis, Nigeria

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Abstract. The study aimed to examine the effect of strategic financial management practices on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo metropolis, Nigeria. The study employed a descriptive survey research design. The population of the study was 2,273 registered SMEs in Osun State. The sample size of 333 SMEs was selected using Krejcie and Morgan sample table to determine the sample size. Questionnaire used was validated and the reliability revealed coefficient value of 0.81 through the crombach reliability test. The statistical method used was Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a and Shapiro-Wilk normality test and correlational analysis to test the research hypotheses. The statistical tool used for the study was SPSS. The findings revealed the following; CB: (N= 333, $r = -.398$, $P=0.000 < 0.05$); FS: (N=333, $r = -.171$, $p = 0.002 < 0.05$); and ID: (N=333, $r = -.334$, $p = .000 < 0.05$); thus, all the null hypotheses are rejected. Therefore, the study concluded that strategic financial management practices have a significant effect on the sustainability of SMEs. The implication to this study was that the it contributed to knowledge by establishing the effect of strategic financial management practices on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo metropolis, Nigeria. It therefore recommended that government and SMEs stakeholders should maintain the approach used in sustaining the SMEs for the improvement of the state economic growth.

Keywords: Strategy, Financial Management, Management Practices, Sustainability and SMEs

1. Introduction

Myriad of studies revealed the factors impelling the sustainability of SMEs in Nigeria but diverge from considering the effect of strategic financial management practices on the sustainability of SMEs. The contributing factor of SMEs sustainability varies from one location to another in Nigeria. As a result, the study evaluates the degree at which strategic financial management practice variables such as capital budgeting, financial structure and investing decision) influence the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis, Osun State. Therefore, the term strategic financial management practices could be described as the process of managing the finances of a business to meet its financial goals (Nasiri, Ukko, Saunila, Rantala, & Rantanen, 2020). The study concentrated on capital budgeting, financial structure and investing decision on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo metropolis. Thus, the success of any business is determined by how successfully it proceeds toward its objectives. However, its success is contingent on the ever-changing external and internal circumstances. As a result, businesses should study and foresee any changes so that they can prepare ahead of time to adapt and remain

competitive. Furthermore, strategic financial management practices are required to attain both immediate and long-term goals. Many businesses were failed as a result of inadequate capital budgeting, government policies, unplanned growth, low strategic and financial projection, excessive fixed-asset investment and capital mismanagement (Alhadhrami & Nobanee 2019).

The need for researchers to evaluate the type of strategic financial management practices adopted by SMEs owners based on the viability of each strategy to gauge their efficacy and longevity of its sustainability. The strategic corollaries of focusing on operational activities while ignoring SMEs' sustainability because they might not be able to draw investors' attention and must drastically cut costs to survive. These dire circumstances are frequently caused by strategies that are not sustainable, avoided by using sustainable principles of financial management (Sternad & Kennelly, 2017). Nigeria among the developing countries in Africa is now embracing the sustainability of small and medium enterprises (SMEs). However, the strategic features have been a focal point of macroeconomics goals of Nigeria since its independence in 1960 to sustain economic growth. To accomplish these goals, the government must expend both capital and recurrent expenditures.

The nation's ability to sustain its SMEs business is a reliable sign of its overall business prospects for the future (Xesha, Iwu & Slabbert, 2014). Small businesses are crucial to the well-being, development, and prosperity of people, communities, and economies (Badenhorst-Weiss & Cilliers, 2014; Nkosi, Bounds & Goldman, 2013). Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are viewed as the driving force behind societal development in the European Union because, it contributes to the GDP, and also serve as a source of employment and training for young people (Nkosi, Bounds & Goldman, 2013). Stable strategic financial management practices is one of the strategic tool sets for the sustainability of SMEs (Bezuidenhout & Nenungwe, 2012). A small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) can only survive in a vacuum if its finance is properly managed. However, the literature depicts that strategic financial management practices are fundamental for the sustainability of SMEs. The question of how strategic financial management practices influence the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo metropolis motivates the interest of researchers.

1.1 Problem Statement

Despite the good position and developmental patterns of Nigerian SMEs, its sustainability in Osogbo metropolis and other emerging states, confronted with numerous challenges. However, the strategic financial management practices in this study rest on the sustainability of SME's. Though majority of SMEs' problems are financial in nature, poor capital budgeting, policies and decision is crucial and ubiquitous to the cause of business failure. Therefore, SMEs are repeatedly suffering from major financial challenges before and after COVID'19 era in Nigeria. The redesign of new naira note is not left out of the challenges posed to the sustainability of SMEs in the state. As a result, the dearth of strategic financial management practices is paired with unpredictability of SMEs business in Nigeria, which can potentially jeopardize the enterprise's sustainability in the Osun State.

The study focused on the effect of strategic financial management practices on the sustainability of small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) in Osogbo Metropolis. To measure the significance of strategic financial management practices on the sustainability of SMEs needs to take into account. Whereas the conventional planning approach entails carrying out previously planned operational activities without considering potential changes and increased the risk of sustainability (Alhadhrami & Nobanee, 2019). Due to the intense competition, SMEs would not have enough reserves to ensure their sustainability in the event of a crisis and might even go bankrupt. The implication is that if they had used strategic financial management approaches, the risk would have been reduced and business will be sustainable (Karadag, 2015; Almarar & Nobanee, 2019). Consequently, using sustainable financing will help small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) avoid greater risks and difficulties, enabling efficient use of the financial resources. This motivated the researchers to examine how the strategic financial management practices influence the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo metropolis using the following predictor variables. Capital budgeting, financial structure and investing decision on the criteria variable which is sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo metropolis. This study seeks to answer the following questions. Does capital budgeting influence the sustainability of SMEs? Does financial structure affect the sustainability of SMEs? Does investing decision enhancing the sustainability of SMEs? This study aims to explore the effect of strategic financial management practice on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo metropolis.

1.2 Research Hypotheses

H₀:1 Capital budgeting does not have significance influence on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis

H₀:2 Financial structures do not have significance effect on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis

H₀:3 Investing decision does not have significance impact on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis

2. Literature Review

In recent years, there has been much interest in the sustainability of SMEs. This is because the majority of businesses frequently experience different kind of financial problems. Some of these challenge are capital budgeting, financial structure and investing decision. Numerous studies have been conducted with varying results. Anangwe and Malenya (2020) carried out a study on the Effect of financial management practices on performance of micro and small enterprises in Bungoma Town. The research method used for the study was a survey with the sample of 72 SMEs businesses. The study made use of both primary and secondary data. The statistical method used was regression analysis. According to the study, the effectiveness of Nigerian listed companies was not significantly impacted by financial management practices.

A study on the financial management practices of businesses in the Australia and Singapore regions was conducted by Mazzarol et al. (2015). Survey research design was used with the sample size of 145 SMEs businesses. Primary source of data collection were used. The study employed correlational analysis to determine the relationship among the variables. The research revealed a wide range of formal and informal financial management practices in SMEs. When the organization's financial management processes were well-organized, its financial performance improved. However, the study pinpointed the precise financial management strategies influencing the research variables. Rathnasiri (2015) studied on SMEs businesses regarding the financial management strategies used concerning various aspects of businesses, such as the level of management education, scale, judicial system, power, and location. Using non-parametric tests, it was determined whether there were any significant differences in the use of financial management tools and techniques depending on how long the company had been operating under the current management and where it was located. The study discovered that the financial performance in the

research area was not significantly impacted by financial management practices.

Similar study was carried out in Kenya by Mureithi (2014) on the face of sustainable SMEs was conducted using a descriptive research design survey with the sample size of 48 listed companies. The study uses random sampling technique. Tables and graphs methods of analysis were used to present the data analysed. The finding shows that companies must contend with the following issues: security, debt collection, an inability to control financial systems, and internal competition. This demonstrates how financial management strategies greatly impact how well businesses perform. To ascertain the extent of financial management practices used by non-listed companies and their impact on Kenyan economic growth, Ouma (2015) conducted a similar study. 41 non-listed companies was sampled using a questionnaire to elicit data from the sampled companies' managers. Thus, the companies need to programme and build their financial management practices capacity.

Aribaba, Oladele, Ahmodu and Yusuff (2019) carried out similar study on the perception of SMEs sustainability. To ascertain their position on taxation, tax incentives, and the growth of the entrepreneurial sector in Nigeria. Data collected from 140 respondents through a structured questionnaire using a 5-point Likert attitudinal scale, reflecting different preferences and levels of agreement with various questions and assertions. This cross-sectional survey research design was used. Spearman's rank correlation and ordinary least square (OLS) regression techniques were used to analyse the data. It was discovered that a greater proportion of respondents agreed that taxes serve as a deterrent to the growth of new businesses because they have seen a causally significant negative relationship. The study also confirmed that there is a positive but negligible correlation between tax incentives and the growth of the entrepreneurial sector in Nigeria. This suggests that to succeed, SMEs must take into account both current and future environmental factors both inside and outside the company.

3. Methodology

The strategies, procedures, and techniques used in gathering information or data for the study to derive new knowledge are known as research methods. The study employed survey research design with the population of 2,273 registered SMEs in Osun State. The sample size of 333 SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis was selected using Krejcie and Morgan sample table

to determine the sample size. Questionnaire used was validated and the reliability revealed coefficient value of 0.81 through the crombach reliability test. The statistical method used was Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a

and Shapiro-Wilk normality test and correlational analysis to test the research hypotheses. The statistical tool employed for the data analysis was SPSS to analyse the data.

4. Results

Test of Normality

Table 1: The Normality Test of Strategic Financial Management Practice Variables

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Capital budgeting	.240	333	.000	.809	333	.000
Financial structure	.313	333	.000	.708	333	.000
Investing decision	.272	333	.000	.796	333	.000
SMEs Sustainability	.258	333	.000	.793	333	.000

SPSS Output (2023)

The table above shows the Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a and Shapiro-Wilk normality test of the variables used to determine whether sample data drawn from the population are normally distributed. To this effect, the outcome of the normality test determines the type of statistical analysis suitable for the study. After conducting this test, the result of Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a and Shapiro-Wilk normality were found to be normally distributed since its significant value is less than 0.05 therefore, the Pearson correlational analysis were found useful for the study to test the research hypotheses. Though, Pearson correlation analysis measures the linear correlation between two set of variables.

Hypotheses Testing

Table 2: Correlational Analysis of the Variables

		Capital budgeting	Financial structure	Investing decision	SMEs Sustainability
Capital budgeting	Pearson Correlation	1	-.171**	-.334**	-.398**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002	.000	.000
	N	333	333	333	333
Financial structure	Pearson Correlation	-.171**	1	.644**	.444**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002		.000	.000
	N	333	333	333	333
Investing decision	Pearson Correlation	-.334**	.644**	1	.659**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	333	333	333	333
SMEs Sustainability	Pearson Correlation	-.398**	.444**	.659**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	333	333	333	333

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

The table above shows the coefficient value of the Pearson correlations analysis of the parameters. The outcome of this correlation portrays the correlation relationship between capital budgeting and sustainability of SMEs with the statistical value of (N= 333, r = -.398, P=0.000 < 0.05); therefore, the null hypothesis, which state that capital budgeting does not have significance influence on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis is hereby rejected. The result of financial structure were correlated and revealed it significant difference with the sustainability of SMEs shows the value of (N=333, r = -.171, p = 0.002 < 0.05); hence, the null hypothesis which states that financial structures do

not have significance effect on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis is hereby rejected. The finding of investing decision depict the statistical value of (N=333, r = -.334, p = .000 < 0.05); thus, the null hypothesis which states that investing decision do not have significance effect on the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis is hereby rejected. The result of correlational analysis implies that among the variables of strategic financial management practice used are coherent and consisted in term of significance. From the hypotheses tested on the variables of strategic financial management practice, it was concluded that strategic financial management practices are significantly influences

sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis, Osun State. The findings against the conclusion of Aribaba, Oladele, Ahmodu and Yusuff (2019) concluded that a number of respondents confirmed the sustainability of SMEs as disincentive to entrepreneurial development with a negative significant relationship. Rathnasiri (2015) also against the study finding that financial management practices did not significantly impact financial performance of SMEs. Mureithi (2014) supported that financial management strategies are greatly impact on the sustainability of SMEs businesses.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings, it was concluded that strategic financial management practices have a significant relationship with the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis, Osun State. Therefore, capital budgeting, financial structure and investing decision as a proxy of strategic financial management practices indicated a significant relationship between the predictor and criteria variables among SMEs in Osun State. The study has shown a strong significance correlation of strategic financial management practices and sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis. These informed the rejection of the tested hypotheses. Thus, strategic financial management practice is a key technique used to enhance the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis.

Therefore, the study recommended that strategic financial management practices should be sustained to improve the sustainability of SMEs in Osogbo Metropolis. Government should also improve the financial support given to SMEs owners in the State. Policy-maker should understand the possible threat and dynamism in reviewing the policy guiding the SMEs. In addition, the study has underscored the importance of sustainability in SMEs businesses. Also, strategic financial management practices adopted in the State should be sustained.

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Assessment of the Impact of Solid Waste Management in Densely Populated Areas of the Kaduna Metropolis, Nigeria

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Abstract. The waste and its management have been a persistent issue in densely populated areas of Nigeria despite the government's efforts to address the menace. The study was motivated by the desire to enhance our understanding of the impact of waste and its management in a metropolitan town. The study investigated the causes, impacts, techniques, and challenges of solid waste management in the Kaduna metropolis. Data was sourced using the survey method from the residents and officers of the Kaduna State Environmental Agency. A multistage sampling technique was applied where by a structured questionnaire and interview guide were used for the data collection. A descriptive analysis was used to compute the results. Findings from the study reveal that households (61.9%), and petty traders (30%) are the main sources of solid waste in the study area. Residents (56.9%) are not satisfied with services rendered by the institutions that regulate waste due to a lack of coordination (40.6%) and political influence (27.2%). The most common challenge of waste management faced by residents is the lack of formal waste collectors within their proximity. Therefore, open dumping (46.9%), waterways (10.6%), and other places (25.6%) are used to dispose of waste in the study area. From these findings, it was recommended there should be wide publicity and awareness by the national orientation agency on environmental laws, and the dangers of violating them, in addition, there should be a well-coordinated policy implementation plan properly spelt out, identifying the roles and responsibility of both formal (public and private) and in formal waste managers.

Keywords: Impact, Causes, Techniques, Challenges, Waste, Management.

1. Introduction

Solid waste management is considered within the context of this study as the combination of all actions

taken to prevent, control or reduce the effect of waste caused by human activity on the environment, and to properly administer it in a way that will not be harmful to both humans and the environment at large. According to Jerry (2010), it involves collecting, treating, and disposing of discarded solid materials that have served their purposes or are no longer useful. Improper disposal of solid waste can create unsanitary conditions, and these conditions in turn can lead to pollution of the environment and outbreaks of vector-borne disease spread mostly by rodents and insects (Butu, Agenda, & Bichi 2013). Samah et al, (2013) opined that population growth; industrialization, urbanization, and globalization are some of the main factors responsible for the increase in waste generation. According to the World Bank (2009), the world's cities generate tons of solid waste amounting to a footprint of 0.74 kilograms per person per day. With the rapid population growth and urbanization, annual waste generation is expected to increase to 3.40 billion tonnes by 2050. According to Dangiwa. (2020) waste management problems emerge due to policy failure, which brings about institutional failure visa-vis market failure

Africa like other continents is facing a growing waste management crisis. Available data from the work of Linda, et al (2019) shows that 125 million tons per annum of Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) was generated in Africa, of which 81 million tons (65%) were from sub-Saharan Africa and is expected to grow to 244 million tons by the year 2025. The study maintains that nearly half of all Solid Waste generated in Africa, remains within our cities and towns, dumped onto sidewalks, open fields, storm water drains, and rivers.

Nigeria like many African countries is experiencing waste and management crises. In riverine areas, waste is dumped in the water to be washed away, and in other areas in the opened fields. The techniques currently used for managing most solid waste include

incineration, landfills, fertilizers, fuel for cooking, open dumping, land open burning, reuse/recycling, and landfilling (Adeyemi, 2013). With the development of modern technologies, it is expected that every state government will come up with effective policies and programs that will tackle the impacts and challenges of solid waste management. Also, to provide mechanisms to help alleviate and control the growing rate of waste and indiscriminate disposal in States in order to ensure a clean and healthy environment for people to inhabit. Since the establishment of the Federal Environmental Protection Agency (FEPA) decree in 1988 and its subsidiaries in the States to ensure a clean and healthy environment the agencies have fallen short of their responsibilities.

One of the principal challenges facing solid waste management in Nigeria has been identified as improper planning of towns and cities (Abila, & Kantola, (2013). Other challenges have to do with governance and the rules and regulations controlling the management of waste. Dangiwa (2020) rightly described the challenges as “institutional failure” which include a weak mechanism for participation in policy and planning, legal constraints, weak staff morale and incentives encouraging corruption, and the difficulties faced when powerful stakeholders (private and public) are not supportive of the institutional responsibilities”. Ezhicheah (2010) observed that solid waste management in Nigeria is still at an emerging stage because of improper organization and for that reason gross inefficiencies are common.

Agencies responsible for waste management in Kaduna State, Nigeria include the State Ministry of Environment, the Kaduna State Environmental Protection Authority (KEPA), and private companies like Cape Gate Investment company limited are still performing below expectations. Adjunct to others is the Kaduna State Traffic and Environmental Law Enforcement Agency whose functions are limited to metropolitan public road networks, traffic, and vehicular inspection only.

The tremendous effect of this process, therefore, falls back on the residents causing air pollution and making breathing difficult which may result in serious health problems, this also puts residential homes and businesses at risk of fire disaster. Waste deposit that ends up in waterways forms blockage and creates stagnant water for insect breeding and flood during raining season, it also creates a safe haven for rodents like rats and reptiles which are the carriers of the deadly diseases like Cholera and Lassa

Fever Endemics that recently claimed 118 lives in 8 weeks from 18 States in early 2020 (NCDC, 2020).

Densely populated areas are found in every city in Nigeria including Kaduna State, and these areas have many households with the majority of the population living there. These areas are characterized by low-level of income, average level of education, and lower economic status. Studies show that most municipal solid waste are generated from such areas because of different human activities (Hussein, & Mona 2018, and Nabegu 2010). Such areas do not sufficiently benefit from government programs and services (Sani (2003). Despite the existing literature (Ajibuah and Terdoo (2013) Abila & Kantola (2013), Abur, Oguche and Duyuna (2014) Butu, Ageda and Bichi (2013), on waste material and management in Nigeria, not much or few empirical studies had identified the challenges that are specific to densely populated areas. Given these developments, the researcher, therefore, sees the need to conduct an empirical investigation in order to find a lasting solution to the problem.

It is therefore against this premise the study is undertaken to answer these research questions:

- What are the causes of solid waste in densely populated areas of the Kaduna Metropolis?
- What are the challenges hindering solid waste management among residents of densely populated areas of Kaduna Metropolis?

This study is guided by the Cradle to cradle theory initiated by William McDonough and German Michael Braungart. The theory is designed to stop the cycle of use-waste-pollute, which suggests that certain products could be reused endlessly to make similar products (cradle to cradle), rather than recycled into lower-grade products until the last stop is a landfill (cradle to grave).

2. Methodology

Location of the Study: This study was conducted in Kaduna Metropolis, Nigeria which is sighted at the heart of Kaduna State. It comprises Kaduna North, Kaduna South, part of Chikun, and Igabi Local Government Area. With an estimated population of 1,104,933 (NPC 2017). Most inhabitants of the study area are civil servants, traders, artisans, and so on (James, 2017). The Metropolis is an industrial and trade Centre and a major transportation hub for the surrounding areas. The prevalence of military, industries, educational and commercial establishment attracts people from different ethnic groups across

Nigeria that serves as a major source of waste emission.

The population of the Study: The key elements of this study are adult residents in the densely populated areas of the Kaduna metropolis, both male and female, from various social strata, and religious and cultural groups. Included also in the study are experts and other relevant stakeholders in waste management like the Kaduna State Ministry of Environment, Kaduna State Environmental Protection Agency (KEPA), and Private waste managers.

Sampling Size & Sampling technique: Krejcie and Morgan's sample size determinant table is used to select a sample of 384 from a projected population (1,104,933) of the metropolis. Kaduna Metropolis is made up of two major local governments, which is Kaduna North (12) wards, Kaduna South (12) wards, and Parts of Chikun (8) wards and part of Igabi (3) with a total of thirty-two (32) wards. From these Local Government Areas, 18 densely populated wards with high volumes of waste were purposively selected. In the second stage, purposive sampling was applied to select two major sub-urban streets from each ward. These are the streets with a high density of residents. In the third stage, 22 households were selected from each of the two identified streets using a systematic sampling procedure. The choice of 22 households is to enable the researcher to get a representative population in the study area. In selecting the households, the researcher used existing house numbering, and every fourth house from both sides was sequentially picked to meet up the required

22 households. In the last stage, questionnaires were served to the head of the households. In the absence of the head, the next in line was selected to respond to the questions.

In addition to the survey questionnaire, the researchers interviewed four (4) key informants who are experts in solid waste management drawn from two Public Organizations-Kaduna State Environmental Protection Authority, Kaduna State Ministry of Environment, and Two Private organizations-(formal) Abu-Rahima Royal Ventures (Informal) scavengers, and truck pusher.

Method of Data Collection: Data for this study was generated primarily through a questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was administered to respondents who could read and write in English, and for those with a low level of education, the researchers read out the questions in a convenient language, and responses were filled in accordingly. The key informant interview KII was done at the interviewee's convenience i.e. office or a designated location.

Method of Data Analysis: Qualitative data were transcribed and subjected to content analysis and presented in Pros. The transcriptions were reviewed to enable the researcher to compile the related quotations that will capture the themes and ideas in each question. While Quantitative data collected from the survey (questionnaire) was checked to ensure its reliability before editing, after which it was coded, cleaned, and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), IBM version 26, and presented in frequency tables and percentages.

3. Result and Discussion

Data analysis is based on three hundred and sixty (360) copies of questionnaires that were retrieved from the three hundred and eighty (384) questionnaires that were administered as well as four (4) interviews with care givers. Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

Survey respondents' socio-economic characteristics such as sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, occupation, employment status and monthly income are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Socio-demographic information of Respondents

Variables Categories		Frequency	Percentage
Location	Kaduna North	109	30.2
	Kaduna South	92	25.5
	Chikun	84	23.4
	Igabi	76	21.2
	Total	360	100.0
Sex	Male	191	53.1
	Female	169	46.9
	Total	360	100.0
Ethnic Groups	Hausa	177	49.2
	Igala	46	12.8
	Nupe	39	10.8
	Kanuri	25	6.9
	Others	73	20.3

Marital Status	Total	360	100.0	
	Single	78	21.7	
	Married	260	72.2	
	Divorced	6	1.7	
	Widower	16	4.4	
Number of Children	Total	360	100.0	
	None	10	2.8	
	1 – 3	184	51.1	
	4 – 6	146	40.6	
	7 – 9	20	5.5	
Religion	Total	360	100.0	
	Islam	231	64.2	
	Christianity	113	31.4	
	Traditional	11	3.1	
	Others	5	1.4	
Educational Level	Total	360	100.0	
	No formal education	13	3.6	
	Less than full primary education	38	10.6	
	Full primary education	18	5.0	
	Less than full secondary education	64	17.8	
	full secondary education	78	21.7	
	Post-secondary education	83	23.1	
	Others	66	18.3	
	Total	360	100.0	
Occupation	Mechanic/vulcanizing	24	6.7	
	Bricklayer/laborer	14	3.9	
	Farming/grass cutter	6	1.7	
	Artisanship	19	5.3	
	Petty trading	18	5.0	
	Unemployed	93	25.8	
	Others	186	51.7	
	Total	360	100.0	
	Type of Resident	Personal house	136	37.8
		Family house	100	27.8
Official/government quarter		25	6.9	
Rented house		97	26.9	
Others		2	0.6	
Total		360	100.0	

Source: (field survey 2021)

It can be seen in the Table that 30.2 % are from Kaduna North while 25.5% are from Kaduna South as against 23.4% who are from the Metropolitan part of Chikun and the rest 21.2% from the Metropolitan part of Igabi in Kaduna.

In terms of age group, 8.6% of the respondents fall within 18-25 years against 30.9% who are within 26-35 years while 43.9% are between 36-45 years and the remaining 31.9% are within the age group of 46-60 years. This shows that most of the respondents are within the age group of 36-45 or from 46-60 years. Data on the Sex of the respondents shows that 53.1% of the respondents in this study are males and the rest 46.9% are females. This shows that both males and females are well represented in the study.

Concerning the ethnic group of the respondents, it can be seen that 49.2% are Hausa while 12.8% are Igala against 10.8% Nupe while 6.9% are Kanuris and the remaining 20.3% are other tribes such as Yoruba Igbo, Ebirra, etc. This shows that the majority are Hausa by trib. Data on religious affiliation shows that 64.2% are from the Islamic faith while 31.4% are of Christian faith against 3.1%

who are of the Traditional religions and the rest 5 or 1.4 % said others such as no religious beliefs etc. This shows that both Islamic and Christianity religions are well represented in this study.

On the respondents' marital status, 21.7% of the respondents are single while 72.2% are married as against 1.7% that are divorced, and the rest 4.4% are widowed. Data on the respondents' number of children shows that 2.8% have no children, with an overwhelming majority (90%) of the respondents indicating they have children between 1-5, as against (6.4%) who claim to have children between 6-8, and the remaining 0.8 of the respondents claim they have 9 children and above.

On the respondents' level of education, (3.6%) had no formal education, while (10.6%) possess Less than full primary education as against (5.0%) that possess full primary education as compared to (17.8%) who possess Less than full secondary education. (21.7%) of the respondent possess full secondary education, while 23.1% possess post-secondary education, and the rest 18.3% had other forms of education such as

Quranic or adult education. Findings on respondents' employment status indicate that (25.9%) are unemployed, and (6.7%) are in the mechanic/vulcanizing profession, 3.9% are bricklayers/laborers, 1.7% are farming/grass cutters while 5.3% are in Artisanship as against 5.0% who are petty trading and the rest 186 or 51.7% are in

other occupation such as students, private business or self-employed apprenticeship.

On the type of residence, the respondents live, 37.8% live in personal houses as against 27.8% who live in family houses while 6.9% live in official/government quarters, 26.9% live in a rented house and the rest 0.6% live in other sources such as living with friends or not having their houses.

4. Causes of Waste in Densely Populated Areas of Kaduna Metropolis

Solid waste disposal in densely populated areas of Kaduna metropolis is attributed to many sources as shown in Table 2

Table 2: Causes of solid waste in Densely Populated Areas.

	Frequency	Percent
petty traders	108	30.0
Household	223	61.9
Agricultural	16	4.4
Industries	7	1.9
Others	6	1.7
Total	360	100.0

Source: (field survey 2021)

Table 2, documented a variety of sources of solid waste in the study area as, household emissions that seems to be the most prevalent as indicated by (61.9%) of the respondents. Furthermore, 30% of the respondents indicate that petty traders are responsible for generating solid waste in the study area. While a fraction of 4.4% and 1.9 believe that agricultural and industrial emissions. Similarly, 1.7% identified other sources responsible. However, a 38-year-old participant during the interview said:

The quality of products consumed in the high-income density areas is mostly superior to that of the high-density low-income areas which are mostly substandard and have a lesser lifespan, which has higher chances of becoming waste in the shortest possible time as against the standard quality products. Also, any human interaction as a result of our

domestic activities, our industrial and commercial activities, waste must be generated.

The opinion above clearly states that apart from household consumables that cause waste, level of awareness and the quality of products among others are factors that cause waste in densely populated areas of Kaduna Metropolis.

Similarly, an officer of the environmental agency said:

Solid waste management issue is the biggest challenge to Kaduna State Government. Sources of solid waste are not limited to households, industries, and the like but due to the increase in population and increasing generation of such solid waste and the burden posed on the municipal budget.

The above view reiterates that solid waste should be viewed in a wider dimension.

5. Challenges Hindering Waste Management

Challenges of waste management are due to numerous causes as discovered in the study. This arises from institutional, waste disposal and technology. Table 3 shows the institutional challenges.

Table 3: Institutional Challenges Hindering Effective Waste Management in Kaduna Metropolis

Challenges	Frequency	Percent
political influence	98	27.2
lack of coordination	146	40.6
conflict between organization	60	16.7
duplications of responsibility	56	15.6
Total	360	100.0

Source: (field survey 2021)

Table 3 shows how institutional challenges hinder effective waste management on streets. The challenges include political influence, according to 27.2% of the respondents, while 40.6% said lack of coordination against 16.7% said the challenge of conflict between organizations and the rest 15.6% said the challenge of duplications of responsibility. This shows that most institutional challenges hindering effective waste management in densely populated streets include lack of coordination and political influence.

The finding is contrary to the responses gotten from the Key Informant from KEPA KII. While responding to the question, a Key informant presented his opinion in the following manner:

When you talk of institutional challenges, manpower is there, in the whole of Kaduna state in KEPA we are sixty, field officers alone we are forty and we are to cover the whole state. by the time you put forty people just within the metropolis is not enough not to talk of Zaria and Kafanchan which are the Major areas, then you talk of other small areas like Samunaka, Soba, Birnin Gwari, you see this is a serious challenge.

The statement clearly shows that the major institutional challenge experienced by waste regulators is the shortage of workers. It also proves

that the Kaduna Environmental Protection Authority is not having sufficient staff to cover the whole state even though it performs the supervisory role. Unlike the opinion of the respondent of the survey questions, other challenges according to another respondent from Aburrahim who took part in the KII identified equipment key challenges. He presented his opinion as follows:

There is personal protective equipment that is needed for the workers like boots, hand gloves, face masks, disinfectants and the rest, but it is not available. Manual labour is mostly used in most cases, based on UN standards there is a certain volume of waste that is not supposed to be evacuated with manual labour, it has to be automated, but most of these types of equipment are not available because of their cost.

The opinion shows that some private contractors do not have the required equipment to effectively carry out their duties, and the workers are also directly exposed to the dangers of contracting diseases or sustaining serious injuries while operating, which poses a serious challenge.

The study also sought to identify the major challenges faced by residents when disposing of waste in the study area. The views of the respondent are presented in table 4.

Table 4: Challenges Faced with Waste Disposal in Kaduna Metropolis

Options	Frequency	Percent
lack of time to dispose	26	7.2
lack of money	27	7.5
lack of waste-bin within the proximity	239	66.4
waste collectors	68	18.9
Total	360	100.0

Source: (field survey 2021)

Table 4 reveals that challenges of waste disposal include lack of time (7.2%) to dispose of while 7.5% said lack of money as against 66.4% who said challenged by lack of waste-bin within the proximity and the rest 18.9% said, waste collector. This shows that the lack of waste-bin within the proximity is the main challenge people face with waste disposal.

Some of those who took part in the KII shares a contrary opinion, with those who responded to the survey questionnaire. While responding to the question a stakeholder in waste management shared his opinion in the following manner:

The very key issue is attitude. Attitudinal issues! this is a practical experience I am going to share. There was a time I was supervising a contractor in Nasarawa, these women usually go out early in the

morning to sweep, areas that they have swept, and you will see somebody will throw dirt from his house on that same spot, by the time you ask why; they will tell you that these women are already paid to sweep. So, every individual has a responsibility, if the government does its own part what about the citizens? People don't really bother, a time we have to go house by house to tell people to sweep the front of their houses and clean the drainage, this is something that it's supposed to be done naturally.

The opinion clearly shows that the resident's careless attitude is also a contributing factor to the failure of sustainable waste management in densely populated areas, it also proves that despite government efforts, some residents don't feel the responsibility to properly manage waste and clean their environments.

Table 5: Respondents' Views on Where Waste is Being disposed in Kaduna Metropolis

	Frequency	Percent
No response	33	9.2
Gutter	38	10.6
Open fields	169	46.9
Landfill	28	7.8
Others	92	25.6
Total	360	100.0

Source: (field survey 2021)

Table 5 shows that a total of 33 or 9.2% declined to comment. The table shows that open fields (46.9%) are the main areas of waste disposal. While 38 or 10.6% said gutter as against while 28 or 7.8% said landfill and the rest 92 or 25.6% said other places.

Table 6: Waste management services in densely populated areas of Kaduna Metropolis

	Frequency	Percent
Satisfied	155	43.1
not satisfied	205	56.9
Total	360	100.0

Source: (field survey 2021)

As shown in Table 6, given the growing rate of waste in the study area, more than half of the respondents (56.9%) are not satisfied with the agencies that regulate waste, while the remaining 43% are quite satisfied with the services. This is to show that most people are not satisfied with the services of the agencies that regulate illegal waste disposal/manage waste.

6. Discussion of Findings

This study examines the conditions that lead to the causes of solid waste, and the challenges hindering effective waste management in densely populated areas of the Kaduna metropolis. Findings from both quantitative and qualitative data indicate that, Household emissions are the most prevalent as indicated by (61.9%) of the respondents. This agrees with the findings of Butu et al (2013) in Karu Nasarawa State and Nabegu (2010) in Kano, that households are the major components of solid waste by discarding material like food wastes, polythene bags/sachets, paper, plastics, glass bottles and metals mostly gotten from domestic and commercial activities.

The study also noted that given the growing rate of waste emission in the study area, the majority of the respondents (56.9%) are not satisfied with services rendered by the institutions that regulate waste due to lack of coordination (40.6%) and political influence (27.2%). This confirms the findings of Nabegu & Mustapha (2015) who observed that the legal provisions for Solid Waste Management show a clear gap leading to a lack of coordination and conflict between the federal, state, and local governments.

The study found that the variety of solid waste in the environment is a set-back in its management. The study revealed that there no waste bins within their proximity (48.1%) and formal waste collectors (18.9%). The inability to have the waste collectors around them led to open dumping (46.9%), waterways (10.6%), and other places (25.6%) are for disposal of waste. Ojo (2014) who observe that 87% of Nigerians use unsanitary methods of solid waste disposal like open fields, streams waterways, further stressed this. Ogwueleka (2009) also revealed that Nigeria adopts open dumping or uncontrolled landfills as their disposal route.

7. Conclusion

The problems of waste and waste management are increasingly becoming persistent in the study area, in as much as human activity continues, therefore sustainable and efficient means of managing it needs to be harnessed, the main factors responsible for its generation must be properly regulated through proper formations and effective implementation of policies in this regard. The consequences of poor management have delayed the socioeconomic health and environmental development of the people.

Recommendation

It is recommended there should be wide publicity and awareness by the national orientation agency on environmental laws, and the dangers of violating them, in addition, there should be a well-coordinated policy implementation plan properly spelt out, identifying the roles and responsibilities of both formal (public and private) and in formal waste managers. In addition, Government should provide

adequate skilled workers and waste bins within proximity as well as provide modern incinerators and waste enclosures in all the strategic places of the study area.

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Sources of Health Information on COVID-19 and Adherence to Measures to Prevent Community Spread among Rural Dwellers in Rivers State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This paper examines the source of health information on COVID-19 and the level of adherence to the necessary measures to prevent community spread in rural communities. The study was carried out in five rural communities in Rivers State, South-South Nigeria. Two research questions guided the study. The instrument for data collection was a structured questionnaire tagged “Instrument for Assessing Sources of Health Information on Covid-19 and Adherence to Measures to Prevent Community Spread in Rural Areas (ASHICAMPSRA)”. The data generated were analyzed using descriptive statistics to answer the research questions. Mean and percentages were used to analyze the data. The study reveals that community education centre was the major source of health information on COVID-19, that rural dwellers acquire knowledge on basic health literacy on prevention of community spread of the virus, the symptoms when infected, management of infected persons, and information on vaccination from the community education centre. The study also reveals that rural dwellers adhere to three preventive measures out of seven to a high extent. The preventive measures adhered to highly are: staying home during the lockdown, hand washing and avoiding large gathering. Based on the finding, the conclusion is that there was inadequate use of the old and new media like community radio and community newspaper as well as relative poor adherence to the measures to prevent community spread of the corona virus. The study provides an insight on sources of health information in COVID-19 in rural communities and the extent of adherences to the preventive measures. These findings can inform tailored community intervention to promote health information on COVID-19.

Keywords: Health Information, Rural Dwellers, Community Education, COVID-19 Prevention

1. Introduction

Health illiteracy is a global problem with an estimated 776 million adults across the world majority of whom are in the rural communities lacking basic literacy. Health literacy largely focuses on reading and numeracy in the context of health care; the lack of this type of literacy constitutes health illiteracy. Health literacy is a set of life skills that people need to function effectively in the health care environment (Berkman, Terry, & McCormack cited in Sayah, Williams, & Johnson, 2012). These skills include the ability to read and understand written text, locate and interpret information in documents, and write or complete forms (functional); the ability to speak and listen effectively and communicate about health-related information (interactive); the ability to navigate the health care system and make appropriate health decision (critical); and the ability to use numeric information for tasks, such as interpreting information on prevention of spread of Covid-19, body temperature, and social distance of 2 meters as well as having appropriate behaviour as required under the new normal fostered by the sudden outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Health literacy has a profound impact on all aspects of health and is a contributing factor to health outcomes. There is relationship between Low health literacy, poor health outcomes and health disparities and inequities (Berkman, Sheridan, Donahue, Halpern, & Crotty cited in Barbel, 2022). Thus, those with low literacy are more likely to have poor health condition, and those with low income are as well likely to have poor health condition. It is important to promote and improve

health literacy on Covid-19, particularly among rural populations who are disproportionately low income earners and impacted by low health literacy and health disparities.

The COVID-19 pandemic was declared by the World Health Organization (WHO) in early 2020 as global health challenge. To address this challenge, WHO came up with some preventive measures such as hand sanitization, use of face masks in public places, and social distancing. This measure requires a behavioral change and people require health information. The rural dwellers had to acquire information about the new normal on the prevailing health challenge and to adapt their behaviors. Rural communities were considered a target group in COVID-19 transmission due to their form of socialization, poor personal hygiene, low level of literacy, rural economic activities as well as poor health facilities.

In addition, the literature shows how some rural dwellers will also present health risk behaviors, a fact that deserves attention because, according to Akoko, Akpeki and Uahomo (2022), this group of the population seeks health care services at lower frequencies. Akoko et al (2022) observed that some rural dwellers in Nigeria lack adequate knowledge on corona virus prevention. To address this lack of knowledge there is need for health literacy. Nonetheless, health literacy plays a vital role in health promotion and disease prevention as well as navigating the health care system (Neter & Brainin, 2019). Today health information is widely and readily available via the internet, so eHealth literacy has also become increasingly relevant. eHealth literacy includes media, computer, health, and scientific literacies. Having adequate eHealth literacy contributes to better communication with health care providers, improved self-management, and greater access to health care information (Neter & Brainin, 2019). This is relevant to create health awareness on the prevention of corona virus and in the treatment and management of those infected by the virus. Health Literacy is a field under construction, of a complex, multidimensional and interdisciplinary nature involving the government and non-governmental agencies.

Taking from the WHO as cited in Kickbusch, Pelikan, Apgel, & Tsouros, (2013:23), a person is considered to be health literate if they are able to:

- understand and carry out instructions for self-care, including administering complex daily medical regimens;
- plan and achieve the lifestyle adjustments required for improving their health;

- make informed, positive health-related decision;
- know how and when to access health care when necessary;
- share health-promoting activities with others and address health issues in the community and society.

On the basis of this parameter, one is considered health literate on COVID-19, if the person is able to trace the histories of the emergence of the corona virus, understand and carry out the instructions on personal hygiene for the prevention and spread of the virus, plan and achieve the lifestyle adjustment required for prevention of the spread of the virus, make informed and positive health-related decision on COVID-19 pandemic, know how and when to access health care when infected by the Covid-19 virus, share health promoting activities with others and address health issues on COVID-19 in the community.

A lot of public health campaigns on Covid-19 have been carried out by the government and by Non-government Organisations including individuals. The media and the public space have been awashed with the campaign materials on the prevention of the spread of corona virus. Patrick and Adekola observed that radio and television were the dominant source of information on health literacy among the older adults in urban communities. Similarly, Malengue and Abílio (2021) conducted a study on raising awareness about COVID-19 in rural communities in the province of Huambo-Angola. While Akwa, Ning and Maingi (2020) assessed the perception and awareness of Cameroonians on the spread of COVID-19 They employed the qualitative survey using online questionnaire that were sent to Cameroonian respondents through email and WhatsApp. The finding suggested that the awareness of COVID-19, transmission and preventive strategies was relatively high. While literatim exist on the level of awareness or health literacy on Covid-19 in urban areas in Nigeria, little is known on the sources of knowledge or information on COVID-19 and level of adherence to the known protocols in rural areas of Nigeria. To fill this gap is the crux of this study. This study aimed to investigate the sources of knowledge on COVID-19 pandemic among rural dwellers in Emohua Local government area of Rivers State; and to ascertain the extent of observation of the measures to avoid community spread among rural dwellers. To address this, two research questions is the problem of this study. Thus, the research arising from these objectives are: what are the sources of knowledge on COVID-19 among rural dwellers in Emohua Local

Government Area? Secondly, to what extent rural dwellers observed the measures to avoid community spread of the corona virus in rural communities in Emohua Local Government Area?

2. Research Methodology

The study was carried out in Emohua Local government area, an area about 50 kilometers away from Port Harcourt city a hub for oil and gas in Nigeria, and a centre of international business with seaport and airport. Emohua Local government area is made up of typical rural communities in which the residents are predominantly farmers and artisans of diverse trade. Because of its proximity to the city centre, the villages witnessed the outbreak of pandemic. Consequently, this informed the choice of this study in Rivers State, Nigeria. This study is an exploratory and cross-sectional study. A cross-sectional survey study, a sample population in a single point in time. The choice of this research design is based on the fact that this design will aid the researchers to collect data in particular time to investigate the sources of information on COVID-19 pandemic among rural dwellers; and to ascertain the level of knowledge of rural dwellers on the prevention and management of COVID-19 virus in Emohua Local government area of Rivers State. Purposive and convenient sampling technique was used for this study. Consequently, the researchers relied on their own judgment when choosing members of the population to participate in the study. Therefore, the population of this study comprises members of five CBOs drawn from five rural communities in Emohua Local Government Area, Rivers State. 400 adult members of the CBOs were administered the instrument. They all consented to participating in the study voluntarily by signing the consent form before filling the questionnaire. The instrument was administered in November 2022 during the dry season when most of the rural peasant

farmers are often at home due to reduction in the intensity of farm activities. The instrument for data collection in this study was a structured questionnaire titled- Instrument for Assessing Sources of Health Information on Covid-19 Adherence to Measures to Prevent Community Spread among Rural Dwellers (ASHICAMPSRD)". The instrument consists of three sections, section B deals with items sites for learning about Covid-19, while section C deals with the level of literacy on Covid-19. Section B is a semi structured questionnaire. Section C of the instrument is a four-point likert scale consisting of 23 items. The response options are Very High Extent (VHE) = 4, High Extent HE = 3, Low Extent = 2, Very Low Extent = 1

The face and content validity of the instrument (questionnaire) was established by three experts, one each from the Department of Adult and Non formal Education, Department of Measurement and Evaluation in Faculty of Education, and Department of Family Medicine College of Medicine all in University of Port Harcourt. To determine the reliability of the instrument, the test retest method was used. The instrument was administered to a pilot study group of ten person who were not part of the sample for the study. After two weeks the same instrument was administered to them. The two set of the administration of the instruments were correlated using pearson product moment correlation statistics and the calculated co-efficient was 0.79 which indicates a high degree of consistence of the response. The data generated were analyzed using descriptive statistics to answer the research questions. Thus, mean and percentages were used to analyze the data. In order to determine the acceptance and rejection levels of each research question item, a division was made based on the following; the criterion level of agree and disagree. Any mean from 2.5 and above is considered as agreed and any mean from 2.49 and below is considered as disagree.

3. Result

Research Question 1: what are the sources of information on Covid-19 among rural dwellers?

Table 1: Sources of Information about COVID-19 among Rural Dwellers

	Object of Learning	Newspaper	Radio	TV	Community Education Centre	Social Media
1	Sources of knowledge of outbreak of the virus	75 (18.75%)	96 (24%)	86 (21.5%)	113 (28.25)	30 (7.5)
2	Sources of the knowledge on how to prevent the transmission of the virus	25 (6.25%)	75 (18.75%)	47 (11.75%)	172 (43%)	81 (20.25)
3	Sources of knowledge on the symptom of Covid-19	19 (4.75%)	93 (23.25%)	34 (8.5%)	169 (42.25%)	85 (21.25%)
4	Sources of knowledge on management of infected persons	21 (5.25%)	89 (22.25%)	28 (7%)	189 (47.25%)	73 (18.25%)
5	Sources of the knowledge on means of transmission of the virus	42 (10.5%)	175 (43.75%)	39 (9.75%)	99 (24.75%)	45 (11.25%)
6	Sources of the knowledge on being vaccinated	32 (8%)	97 (24.25%)	55 (13.75%)	201 (50.25%)	15 (0.37%)

Table 1 shows the responses of the respondents on the sources of knowledge on Covid-19. The table shows that in item 1 which where the rural dwellers got information on the outbreak of the covid-19 pandemic, 75 respondents representing 18.75% got their information about the outbreak of the covid-19 pandemic from the newspaper, 96 respondents representing 24% from the radio, 86 respondents representing 21.5% of the population from TV, 113 respondents representing 28.25 from community education centre, and 30 respondents representing 7.5 from social media. In item 2 which is on the source from which the rural dwellers obtained knowledge about prevention of the spread of the virus, the table shows that 25 respondents representing 6.25% obtained their information on prevention of the spread of the virus from newspaper, 75 respondents representing 18.75% from radio, 47 respondents representing 11.75% from TV, 172 respondents representing 43% from community education centre, while 81 respondents representing 20.25 from social media. In item 3 which is on where the rural dwellers obtained information about the symptoms of Covid-19 infection, 19 respondents representing 4.75% obtained the knowledge about symptoms from the newspaper, 93 respondents representing 23.25% from radio, 34 respondents representing 8.5% from TV, 169 respondents representing 42.25% from community education centre, while 85 respondents

representing 21.25% from social media. This indicates that community education was the major site for learning about the symptoms of the corona virus.

In item 4 which is on where the rural dwellers obtained knowledge about management of infected persons, 21 respondents representing 5.25% obtained information on management of infected person from newspaper, 89 respondents representing 22.25% from radio, 28 respondents representing 7% from TV, 189 respondents representing 47.25% from community education centre, while 73 respondents representing 18.25% from social media. This indicates that community education centre is the major source from where the rural dwellers obtained knowledge about management of infected person. In item 5 which is on where the rural dwellers obtained information on transmission of the virus, 42 respondents representing 10.5% obtained their knowledge on transmission of the virus from newspaper, 175 respondents representing 43.75% from radio, 39 respondents representing 9.75% from TV, 99 respondents representing 24.75% of the respondents obtained information on transmission of virus from community education centre, while 45 respondents representing 11.25% of the respondents obtained their knowledge of the transmission from social media. In item 6 which is on how on how to obtain

vaccination, 32 respondents representing 8% obtained their information on vaccination from newspaper, 97 respondents representing 24.25% from radio, 55 respondents representing 13.75% from TV, 201 respondents representing 50.25% from community education centre, while 15 respondents

representing 0.37% obtained their information on vaccination from social media. The table shows that community education centre was the predominant source of information on all basic literacies on Covid-19 pandemic.

Research Question 2: What extent rural dwellers observed the measures to avoid community spread of the corona virus in rural communities?

Table 2: Mean responses of respondents on extent rural dwellers observed the measures to avoid community spread of the corona virus in rural communities?

S/N	Items	VHE	HE	LE	VLE	Mean	Remark
1	Extent to which you stayed at home during the lockdown	178 712 (44.5%)	198 594 (49.5%)	16 32 (4%)	8 8 (2%)	3.36	HE
2	Extent to which you wear face mask in public places	48 192 (12%)	78 234 (19.5%)	159 318 (39.75%)	115 115 (28.75%)	2.14	LE
3	Extent to which you observe social distance of 2 meters	18 72 (4.5%)	59 177 (14.75)	182 364 (45.5%)	141 141 (35.25%)	1.88	LE
4	Extent to which you observe the hand washing hygiene	138 552 (34.5%)	109 327 (27.25%)	121 242 (30.25%)	32 32 (8%)	2.88	HE
5	Extent to which you observe V shape elbow while coughing and sneezing	23 92 (5.75%)	57 171 (14.25%)	169 338 (42.25%)	151 151 (37.75%)	1.88	LE
6	Extent to which you avoided public places or large gathering during the pandemic	142 568 (35.5%)	119 357 (29.75%)	79 158 (19.75%)	60 60 (15%)	2.85	HE
7	Extent to which you avoided touching your mouth, eye, nose	30 120 (7.5%)	129 387 (32.25%)	173 346 (43.25%)	68 68 (17%)	2.30	LE

Table 2 shows the extent of the rural dwellers' observation of the COVID-19 protocols for prevention of community spread of the corona virus. In item 1 which is on the extent to which rural dwellers stayed at home in compliances to the lockdown, 178 respondents complied to a very high extent representing 44.5% of the respondent, 198 respondents complied to a high extent representing 49.5% of the respondents, 16 respondents had low compliance representing 4% of the respondents, while 8 respondents had very low compliance representing 2% of the respondents. The mean score of the respondents is 3.36 which is above the criterion mean of low extent of compliance and therefore there is indication that there was high compliance to the lockdown to prevent community spread. In item 2 which is on the extent of compliance to wearing of face mask in public places, 48 respondents complied to a very high extent representing 12%, 78 respondents complied to a high

extent representing 19.5% of the respondents, 159 respondents complied to a low extent representing 39.75% of the respondents, while 115 had very low compliance representing 28.75% of the respondents. The mean score of the respondents is 2.14 which implies that there was low compliance of the rural dwellers in respect of wearing face mask in public places. In item 3 which is on observation of social distance of 2 meters, 18 respondents complied representing 4.5% of the respondents, 59 respondents complied representing 14.75% of the respondents, while 182 respondents representing 45.5% had low compliance in observing social distance of 2 meter, and 141 respondents representing 35.25% had very low compliance in observing social distance of 2 meter. The mean score of respondents is 1.88 which implies that there was low compliance in wearing face mask among the rural dwellers.

In item 4 which is on the extent to which the rural dwellers observed hand washing hygiene, 138 respondents representing 34.5% had very high compliance of hand washing hygiene, 109 respondents representing 27.25% had high compliance, 121 respondents representing 30.25% of the respondents had low compliance and 32 respondents representing 8% of the respondents had very low compliance. The mean score of the respondents is 2.88 which implies high compliance level. In item 5 which is on the extent of observing V shape elbow while coughing and sneezing, 23 respondents representing 5.75% of the respondents had very high compliance, 57 respondents representing 14.25% of the respondents had high compliance, while 169 respondents representing 42.25% respondents had low compliance and 151 respondents representing 37.75% respondents had very low compliance. The mean score of the respondents on compliance of V shape elbow while coughing and sneezing is 1.88 which implies that the level of observation of V shape elbow while coughing and sneezing is low. In item 6 which is on extent to which rural dwellers avoided public places or large gathering during the pandemic, 142 respondents representing 35.5% of the respondents had very high compliance, 119 respondents representing 29.75% had high compliance, while 79 respondents representing 19.75% had low compliance, and 60 respondents representing 15% of the respondents had very low compliance in avoiding public places or large gathering during the pandemic. The mean response of the respondents is 2.85 which implies that there was high level of compliance. In item 7 which is on extent to which rural dwellers avoid touching their mouth, eye, and nose, 30 respondents representing 7.5% of the respondents had very high extent of compliance, 129 respondents representing 32.25% of respondents had high extent of compliance, while 173% of the respondents representing 43.255 of the respondents had low compliance and 68 respondents representing 17.5% of the respondents had very low extent of compliance. The mean score of the respondents on the extent to which the rural dwellers observed avoid touching of mouth, eye and nose is 2.30 which implies low extent of compliance.

4. Discussion

Increased health literacy ensures improved compliance of preventative measure, adherence to prescribed medical and medication regimens, increased access to health information for health promotion and disease prevention, and empowerment to become involved in health decision-making

leading to behavioral changes (Fleary & Ettienne, 2019; and Robinson, 2020). There are diverse ways in which one acquire the necessary health literacies. Some of these sites for acquiring these health literacies are radio, TV, community education centres, social media. These sites do not have equal capacity to reach people and to inform them. Some of these sites are effective in education people on specific issues and cannot be used in certain areas of the society. The study reveals that community education is the most common source through which the rural respondents acquiring knowledge on health education in diverse areas of COVID-19. The study reveals that the most of the rural dwellers became aware of the outbreak of the corona virus through community education centre. Majority of the rural people acquire other basic health literacy concerning the COVID-19 pandemic such as how the prevention of community spread of the virus, the symptoms when infected, management of infected persons, and information on vaccination from the community education. This is an evidence that community education centres are the plausible outfit for community mobilization in times of pandemic. Community education centres according to Leowarin (2010) provides equal access to education and serves as firm mechanism to provide lifelong learning in the rural communities, a focal point providing non-formal education activities for local people. Perhaps why it seems to be the most plausible means of learning on community health matters is because it belongs to the communities, provides a venue for conducting community meetings and social gathering where community members discuss common health concerns and share information. Other factors that may be adduced are the use of local language and the active involvement of the people because of its participatory and democratic approach.

The study reveals that intensive radio campaigns were done during the outbreak of the pandemic from where the rural dwellers acquire reasonable level of knowledge on Covid-19 pandemic. The study also reveals that majority of the rural dwellers had the knowledge on means of transmission of the virus through radio. Radio also played a significant level of awareness creation and developing the health literacy of the rural dwellers in the areas of prevent of the transmission of the virus, in management of the infected person, knowledge on the symptom of Covid-19, and on the importance of vaccination. Thus, it is evident that radio played an important role in community mobilization and enlightenment on the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic. Darder (2012) had observed that radio enhance critical public pedagogy and sustain effort to speak to the people through the

critical lens of the society so as to inform and transform mainstream public discourses. The use of community radio creates an important pedagogical and political space where hegemonic belief systems can be challenged and alternative views can be mobilized for social action. The effectiveness of community radio in times of outbreak of pandemic has been pointed by Megwa (2007). Megwa asserts, in his writings about community radio in South Africa, Community radio gives listeners a sense of community and identity and creates action space for people to have both direct and indirect link with community power structures as well as to have access to resources. Community radio is an integral part of the community in which it is located. It is acceptable to the community as a tool for promoting good health and social change. Community radio can mobilize communities to act as change agents by engaging groups and organizations to direct their resources in order to actualize strategies at individual, group, and organizational levels.

The study shows that the social media is the third in the various sources of knowledge on the Covid-19 among the rural dwellers. 20.25% and 21.25% of the respondents had their knowledge on prevention of the transmission of the virus, and the symptom of Covid-19 from the social media respectively. Social media usage is ubiquitous in everyday life according to Gülbahar, Rapp, Kilis, and Sitnikova, (2017), it is applicable to health education and can be used to mobilize people in rural areas on health education in times of outbreak of any pandemic. The finding of this study suggests that social media opens wide opportunities for community of practice in health education through blogs and sites such as Facebook, WhatsApp, YouTube and Twitter. This is called the new media. However, the finding of this study in respect of the having social media as the source of knowledge on COVID-19 is contrary to the findings and assertion of Rine, Margaret, Dauda and Patricia (2020) that respondents had good knowledge of COVID-19 mainly through the internet/social media (55.7%) and Television (27.5%). The old media include the newspaper and the television. Health education can be disseminated through the newspaper editorial, Colum, and advertorial. Newspaper is a public pedagogy which is a print media and requires the ability to read. The highest response on the use of newspaper for accessing knowledge on Covid-19 is 18.75% and this is in area of knowledge of outbreak of the virus. The study reveals that newspaper is least among the various sources of health literacy in the rural communities. This perhaps is because the newspapers circulations are limited to urban communities and the absence of rural

community newspapers. Television is a public pedagogy involving motion picture and audio presentation of information. It requires having a television set to receive broadcast signals. These sources of health literacy on COVID-19 seem not to be predominate. The highest number of respondents who used these sources of accessing health literacy on COVID-19 is 21.5% of the respondents and this is on the knowledge of outbreak of the corona virus; while only 7% of the respondents had knowledge on management of infected persons from TV. Perhaps the poor level of health literacy from TV broadcast is the limited signal of the TV broadcast in rural areas and the level of poverty in rural community which is responsible for the few numbers of families having a TV set in their home. The finding of this study on the use of TV as a source of knowledge does corroborate the study by Dauda, and Patricia (2020) that the level of knowledge obtained from TV is low

In respect of the extent rural dwellers observed the measures to avoid community spread of the corona virus in rural communities. These measures are the preventive practice. Preventive practice is talking about the degree to which the people are involved in practicing the preventive measures of managing the spread of COVID-19. The study reveals that out of the 7 protocols to be observed to prevent community spread, the rural dwellers observed only 3 in a high extent with a mean above 2.5. The study reveals that the rural dwellers observed the stay at home during the lockdown. Every country declared a state of emergence during the outbreak of the pandemic in which there was restriction of movement. This study corroborates the observation of Baig, Butt, Haroon and Rizvi (2020) that the prevailing situation is also driven by lockdown and restrictions to prevent community spread. The study also reveals that the rural dwellers observe the hand washing hygiene which is one of the measures for prevention of community spread of the corona virus. The study also reveals that rural dwellers adhere to the avoidance of public places or large gathering during the pandemic.

On the other hand, the study reveals that the extent to which 4 out of 7 measures were adhered to were low. The rural dwellers could not observe 4 measures strictly. The 4 measures are: wearing of face mask in public places, observing social distance of 2 meters, observing V shape elbow while coughing and sneezing, and avoiding touching the mouth, eye and nose. This is in in line with a study conducted in Delta State rural communities among traditional healers and religious clerics by Asmelash, Fasil, Tegegne, Akalu, Ferede, & Aynalem, (2020), where only 15.6% of the participants had good preventive

practice regarding the prevention and early detection of COVID-19.

5. Conclusion

The extent of health information an individual has or accesses will determine the level of health literacy; and the lower the level of health literacy, the likelihood of increase risk health behaviours and serve health outcomes. This is why proper health education is very important and in any event of outbreak of a pandemic such as the COVID-19, there ought to be serious and aggressive health education. Such education can be accessed through diverse ways such as the old and new media as well as community education centre. This study examines the sources of health literacy on COVID-19, and the extent of the adherence to the necessary protocols to prevent community spread in rural communities. The finding from this study suggests that community education centres are the major source of health information on COVID-19 pandemic. The study also reveals that out of 7 measures to be strictly observed to prevent community spread of the virus, only 3 measures were strictly observed to a high extent. Therefore, it can be concluded that there was relative poor adherence of the COVID-19 preventive measures among rural dwellers. This suggest that rural dwellers continue to perpetuate risky behaviour during the hit of the COVID-19 pandemic in rural communities.

Given the result of this exploratory study, which shows the source of information on COVID-19 and the relative poor level of adherence among rural dwellers to measures for preventing community, it is clear that health promotion and education in the rural communities are not adequate and consequently it is recommended that local languages be used in health education and promotion on COVID-19 and health education be disseminated through community radio and community newspaper in the rural communities. This study provides an insight on health literacy on COVID-19 in rural communities and how health literacy intervention should be tailored toward the needs of rural dwellers. This study is limited by its purposive and convenient sampling methodology, which may result in unexpected biases. This study is limited by the number of the study population and the rural communities used which makes it difficult to make generalization. Therefore, there is need to replicate this study in other rural communities and to ascertain the level of variation in the level of adherence on the basis of gender, education and income.

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Contribution of Agroforestry Practices to improvement of Crop Production among farmers in Odeda Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The poverty status of many smallholder farmers is a serious challenge to agricultural production especially in the area of input supply which led them to traditional farming system. Therefore, the study investigated the contribution of agro-forestry practices to improvement of crop production among farmers in Odeda Local Government Area of Ogun state. Purposive sampling was used to select Odeda LGA due to high concentration of farmers whereas simple random sampling procedure was used to select 120 respondents through well-structured interview schedule for the study. The data collected were analyzed with descriptive statistics and inferential statistical tool, to test the hypothesis. The study revealed that the majority of the respondents that practiced agroforestry in the study area were males (56.7%). Majority of the respondents (62.5%) were married and also majority of the dweller (48.3%) had no formal education. The results also showed that all the respondents (100%) frequently cultivated arable crops in the study area. The findings further revealed that the majority of the respondents (83.8%) practiced shifting cultivation. Virtually all the respondents (100%) benefited from agroforestry practice with a significant improvement on their crop production which brought increase in income to the farmers. There was a significant association between the types of agroforestry practiced and improvement of arable crops in the study area ($p < 0.01$). Finally, it was concluded that agro-forestry is profitable as it gives room for intercropping with other crops, which with other agro-forestry practices, aid replenishing the soil nutrient. It was recommended that the Forestry Department should organize practical demonstrations of some agroforestry practices among

the rural farmers. It also recommended that the government should empower the extension agents to enlighten the farmers on the best practices in agroforestry without destroying the ecosystem.

Keywords: Agroforestry Practices, Crop Production, Improvement

1. Introduction

Agroforestry is defined as a dynamic ecologically based natural resource management system that through the integration of trees on farms and in the agricultural landscape, diversifies and sustains production for increased social, economic and environmental benefits for land users at all levels (Alao and Shuaibu, 2013). Agroforestry practices have been successful in sub-Saharan Africa (Kuyah *et al.*, 2016) and in parts of the United States (Iqbal and Nausheen, 2018) and (Schoeneberger and Michele, 2017). The need for sustainable agroforestry practices is key to optimizing the mix of products and services from the forest. (Bargali, *et al.*, 2004), (Bargali, *et al.*, 2009) and (Parchaar *et al.*, 2015). Optimizing benefits in the long term involves making trade-offs between benefits, which can be reaped today and those which should be left for the future as argued by (Onumadu *et al.*, 2000). Nearly 500 million people around the world depend on forest for their livelihood; among them is high number of forest and wood workers (Bowling, 2000). Sustainable forest management must include safe, stable jobs, adequate wages and working conditions (Udofia, 2005). Most forest-dependent people wholly live on the forests for their sustenance, some at subsistence level, and others on commercial basis. However,

owing to the increasing pressure on the forest to meet increasing demands, for forest goods and services, there is over exploitation of the forest resources (Bargali *et al.*, 2015). Consequently, the actual value and contributions of the forest sector to the economy are not adequately appreciated by government and the general public. According to Okunade and Yekinni (2007), adoption of agroforestry practices among farmers could be a response to ensuring alternative sources of sustaining their families. The adoption of agroforestry might have been an attempt by the farmers to ensure security against crop losses and wastage, as the agroforestry products will provide alternatives to food income and other uses.

The level of poverty among smallholder farmers is a major constraint to agricultural investment in terms of inputs supply and this has led many farmers to traditional farming system (Steinfeld *et al.*, 2010). The traditional farming system of African farming (shifting cultivation and fallow) was formerly sustainable. There is more demand for food, leading to more pressure on forestlands and forest products. Moreover, recent increases in urbanization and infrastructural development have further increased pressure on forestland. As a result, fallow periods are shortened; there is reduction in productive capacity of the soil and decrease in crop yields. Therefore, the import of agroforestry that is, land use systems and practices to social and environmental sustainability cannot be downplayed especially where woody perennials are deliberately grown in combination with agricultural crops and/or animals to help find solution to problem of food insecurity and environmental challenges (Thangataa and Hilderbrand, 2012). However, apart from contribution of agroforestry to food security, timber resources and amelioration of environmental challenges, it also helps in protecting the soil from erosion and extreme temperatures (Adedire, 2004).

1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to examine the contributions of agroforestry practices to improvement of crop production among farmers in Odeda Local Government Area of Ogun state, Nigeria.

The specific objectives are to:

- Examine the socioeconomic characteristics of the crop farmers;
- Identify arable crops cultivated by crop farmers;
- Assess the types of agroforestry practices by crop farmers; and

- Examine the benefits of agroforestry on production improvement.

1.2 Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis (H₀):

- There is no significant relationship between types of agroforestry practices and improvement of production by crop farmers.

Alternative Hypothesis (H₁):

- There is a significant relationship between types of agroforestry practices and improvement of production by crop farmers.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Study area

The study was carried out in Odeda Local Government, Area of Ogun State, Nigeria which is about 20 kilometers away from Abeokuta, the capital city of Ogun State. It is located between Latitude 7° 20'1N and Longitude 3° 56'1 E with an altitude of 159m above sea level. Odeda Local Government area is divided into ten wards which include; Odeda, Itesi, Osiele, Obantoko, Alabata, Obete, Opeji, Olodo, Alagbagba and Ilugun. The Local Government land mass is approximately 1, 263 square km with human population of approximately 219,000 Ogbonlowo, (2010). It has annual rainfall of about 1,232 mm, an average temperature of about 32°C and humidity as high as 95%. Its vegetations are moderate forest cover and thick grasses. Its land is suitable for forestry, agriculture and livestock farming. The type of crops grown includes maize, cassava, yam, cocoyam, tomatoes, melon, and vegetables among others.

2.2 Sampling technique and sample size

Purposive sampling technique was used to select Odeda Local Government Area, Ogun State as the study area. There are 10 wards in Odeda Local Government Area and Ilugun ward was purposively selected because of the high concentration of farmers who practice agroforestry. Simple random selection was used to select six (6) villages from Ilugun ward and the villages were Olokemeji, Oguntolu, Mosafejo, Temidire, Olori, and Atakon. Simple random sampling was used to select 20 respondents from each of the six villages. The reason for the equal distribution of the interview schedule was due to the high concentration of arable crop farmers in these villages who also practice agroforestry. In all 120 respondents were sampled. Data collection was carried out with a well-structured interview schedule.

Data collected were analyzed with both descriptive and inferential statistics. Stated hypotheses on the relationships among the variables of interest, were tested for either acceptance or rejection, based on the level of significance.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

The Table 1 reveals that majority of crop farmers (56.7%) who practiced agroforestry were males. This indicated that a greater number of crop farmers that engaged in practice of agroforestry in the study area were males. This is corroborated with the submission of Kiyani *et al.*, (2017) that majority of local residents that engaged in agroforestry in Nyamagabe

district are males. Half of the respondents (50%) that practiced agroforestry were within the age range of 30 – 45 years. This indicated that half of the respondents who engaged in agroforestry practice were youthful with strength and agility. This is aligned with the work of Gebru *et al.*, (2019) that young people are the majority of the household members that engaged in agroforestry practice. The result further shows that 48.3% of the respondents did not have formal education. This indicated that 51.7% respondents who were involved in agroforestry practice in the study area were mostly literate which means formal education is important to the farmers that practice agroforestry; however, embracing practical experience overtime over time is also important. This result agrees with the submission of Gebru *et al.*, (2019) that the level of literacy has a significant effect on agroforestry practice.

Table 1: Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents (n = 120)

Variables	Percentage
Sex	56.7
Male	43.3
Female	
Age	
≤ 30	-
31-45	50.0
46-60	21.7
≥ 60	28.3
Marital Status	
Single	8.3
Married	62.5
Divorced	20.0
Widowed	9.2
Education	
No Formal	48.3
Primary	29.2
Secondary	14.1
Tertiary	8.4

Field Survey, 2021

3.2 Types of arable crops cultivated in the study area

The results in Table 2 show that all the respondents (100.0%) were involved in frequent cultivation of maize, and cassava as the staple food mostly consumed by the people in the study area. This indicated that most crop farmers cultivated cassava, yam, and maize more frequently with tree plants in the practice of agroforestry. This corroborated with the submission of Ajake (2012) that cassava, yam, and maize were widely cultivated in intercropping structure arrangement with permanent tree crops.

Table 2: Types of arable crops cultivated (n =120)

Types of crops	Frequently(%)	Occasionally(%)	Never(%)
Maize (<i>Zea mays</i>)	100		
Cassava (<i>Manihot esculenta</i>)	100		
Yam (<i>Dioscorea spp</i>)	83.3	16.7	
Potato (<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>)	81.7	18.3	
Cowpea (<i>Vigna unguiculata</i>)	25.0	34.2	40.8
Rice (<i>Oryza sativa</i>)	20.8	35.0	44.2
Sugarcane (<i>Saccharum officinarum</i>)	16.7	67.5	15.8

Percentages in parentheses

Field Survey, 2021

3.3 Types of agroforestry practiced among crops farmers in the study area

Table 3 shows that majority of respondents (83.8%) practiced shifting cultivation regularly while about 41.7% of the respondents practiced parkland or scattered trees on farmland, taungya farming, agro-pastoral system and hedgerows occasionally. This indicated that shifting cultivation is the regularly practiced agroforestry among crop farmers in the study area which is a rural area. According to Raintree and Warner (1986), shifting cultivation is an indigenous form of agroforestry which helps in sustaining intensive traditional land use. This is not line with the submission of Alao and Shuaibu (2013) that shifting cultivation is not commonly in use any longer due to rapid population growth and high demand for food.

Table 3: Types of agroforestry practiced among crop farmers (n = 120)

Agro forestry practices	Regularly(%)	Occasionally(%)	Never(%)
Tree on farmland	33.3	37.5	29.2
Parkland or scattered trees	33.3	41.7	25.0
Shifting cultivation	83.8	12.5	4.2
Taungya farming	37.5	41.7	20.8
Agro-pastoral system	37.5	41.7	20.8
Hedgerows	33.3	41.7	25.0
Alley farming	29.2	33.3	37.5

Percentages in parentheses
Field Survey, 2021

3.4 Benefits of agroforestry practices on production improvement in the study area

The results in Table 4 reveal that virtually all the respondents (100%) benefited from agroforestry practices with a significant improvement on their crop production, and resultant increase in income. The results further showed that majority of respondents (83.3%) benefited from provision of forest resources for their building purposes while majority of respondents (73.3%) enjoyed provision of fuel wood for commercial and domestic purposes. This indicated that agroforestry practice among crop farmers added significant improvement to their production which brought increase in their income, created more sources of income and other economic and social benefits. This corroborated with the works of Adekunle and Bakare (2004), Kalaba *et al.*, (2013) who opined that agroforestry contribute greatly to good production and add to per capita income of the farmers.

Table 4: Benefits of agroforestry practises on production improvement (n = 120)

Benefit derived	S A(%)	A(%)	D(%)	SD(%)
Increase in income	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Forest resources for building	83.3	16.7	0.0	0.0
Increases Fodder production	25.0	56.7	15.0	3.3
Increase in crop yield	33.3	56.7	5.8	4.2
Availability of more source of revenue	66.7	25.0	4.2	4.2
Source of medicinal plants	62.5	18.3	16.7	2.5
Source of non-timber forest products	58.3	21.7	17.5	2.5
Provision of fuel wood	73.3	18.3	55.0	3.3

SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree
 Percentages are in parentheses
Field Survey, 2021

3.5 Hypothesis testing of relationship between agroforestry practices and improvement of arable crops production

The results in Table 5 reveal that significant association existed between the types of agroforestry practiced and improvement of arable crops production such as increase in income ($\chi^2= 112.13, p<0.01 @1\%$), fodder for animals ($\chi^2= 29.85, p<0.01 @1\%$), increase in crop yield ($\chi^2= 39.20, p<0.01 @1\%$), availability to more sources of income ($\chi^2= 85.00, p<0.01 @1\%$), source of non-timber forest product ($\chi^2= 36.65, p<0.01 @1\%$) of the respondents. This result indicated that the types of agroforestry practices had a great improvement on crops production in the study area.

Table 5: Chi-square showing relationship between agroforestry practices and its improvement on arable crop production

Variables	χ^2	df	P-value	Decision
Increase in income	112.13	1	0.000	Significant
Forest resources for building	53.33	1	0.000	Significant
Fodder for animals	29.85	2	0.000	Significant
Enhancement of environment	60.00	2	0.000	Significant
Increase in crop yield	39.20	2	0.000	Significant
Availability of more sources of revenue	85.00	2	0.000	Significant
Source of medicinal plants	43.35	2	0.000	Significant
Source of non-timber forest products	36.65	2	0.000	Significant
Provision of timber for industrial use	18.05	2	0.000	Significant
Provision of fuel wood	88.20	2	0.000	Significant

Level of significance at 1%
Field Survey, 2021

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings from the study revealed that half of the respondents who engaged in agroforestry were young and agile with about 52% of them having formal education. All the respondents were also involved in the cultivation of common arable crops such as maize and cassava, which serves as an added advantage. The findings further revealed that majority of the respondents engaged in different types of agroforestry practices in which shifting cultivation was the most prominent. The practice of agroforestry among the respondents brought increase in their income, economic and social benefits. Finally, the hypothesis showed a significant association between types of agroforestry and its improvement to crop production in Odeda Local Government Area of Ogun State.

5. Recommendations

It was recommended that the Forestry Department should organize practical demonstrations of some agroforestry practices among the rural farmers. It also recommended that the government should empower the extension agents to enlighten the farmers on the best practices in agroforestry without destroying the ecosystem. Finally, government should also make improved seedlings of trees available to farmers for improved agroforestry practices.

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Analysis of the Nexus between Oil Prices, Exchange Rate and Economic Growth in Nigeria

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Abstract. The study empirically investigated the short and long run interaction effect of oil price cum exchange rate on the Nigerian economy. Data were drawn from Macrotrend.net and World Bank from 1970 to 2020. The interaction effect was examined using Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares, as well as, Dynamic Ordinary Least Squares. The finding of the study has shown that exchange rate and oil price with the inclusion of interaction term exerted significant impact on economic growth. In addition, exchange rate and oil price have significant impact on economic growth in the short without inclusion of interaction term while it is only oil price that is relevant in the short run with inclusion of interaction term. The study recommended that policy, which will influence both oil price and exchange rate should be put in place.

Keywords: Oil price, exchange rate, economic growth, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Nigerian economy has been significantly dominated by oil in terms of its contribution to revenue and export. Being an oil based economy, the value of the revenue generated is therefore a subject of international price of oil and the exchange rate. Since the country over time has not been able to diversify the economy, the share of its contribution to the world export is low; thereby causing instability in the balance of payment account. In line with Jhingon (2002), the exchange rate is very important determinant of international competitiveness and the performance of Nigerian economy. The impact of exchange rate passed beyond the boundary of any country. On the other hand, in the oil dependent

country like Nigeria, oil price may not be a macroeconomic variable but it has exerted great impact on the domestic economy especially for oil importing countries (Berument, Ceylan & Dogan, 2010).

The global competitiveness and globalisation have led to great advancement in exchange of goods and services; and this have led to exchange rate and oil price being powerful decisive forces in the economies of countries of the world. This has made exchange rate and oil price to be one of the areas of studies by researchers and policy makers. In this regard, studies have emerged, which have examined the relationship among oil price, exchange rate and economic growth. Notable among these are Berument, Ceylan and Dogan (2010) and Welsh and Lin (2018). Nevertheless, there is seemed to be some gap in the literature on impact of oil price and exchange rate on economic growth. Studies that basically examine the interaction effect of oil price and exchange rate on economic growth are quite few. It is on this basis that this study intends to examine both short- run and long – run interaction effect of oil price and exchange rate on economic growth.

2. Literature Review

Studies on exchange rate, oil price and economic growth have received great attentions, especially in the oil dependent countries such as Nigeria. This relationship between exchange rate, oil price and economic growth has been empirically investigated by authors, which include Berument, Ceylan and Dogan (2010). In the study by Ali- mulali (2010) in Norway, the focus is on the impact of oil shocks on the real exchange rate and economic growth. The

result of Ali- mulali's Vector Autoregressive showed that increased oil price has led to increase in Norway's GDP. Using Vector Autoregressive, Berument, Ceylan and Dogan (2010) showed that increase in oil price contributes significantly to the growth in output of some MENA countries while the oil price shocks do not have the expected impact on the Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Morocco and Tunisian.

Osigwe (2015) examined the effects of exchange rate fluctuations on crude oil price and economic growth. Osigwe adopted both Ordinary Least Squares and Two- Stage Least Squares. The findings of Osigwe showed that real exchange rate and crude oil price exerted positive impact on economic growth. Wesseh and Lin (2018), using unrestricted VAR model, examined the nexus between oil, exchange rate and growth. The findings of Wesseh and Lin showed that oil price seemed to have moderate impact on Liberian GDP and exchange rate depreciation weakened the GDP. Further on the study on exchange rate, oil price and economic growth in Nigeria is by Musa, Maijama'a, Shaibu and Muhammad (2019). Musa, Maijama'a, Shaibu and Muhammad employed the use of Autoregressive Distributed Lag to examine the relationship among exchange rate, oil price and economic growth and found out that crude oil price and exchange rate exerted positive significant impact on economic growth.

Akinsola and Odhiambo (2020) investigated the impact of oil price on economic growth in seven sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries, using panel Autoregressive Distributed Lag and Non- Linear Autoregressive Distributed Lag. The findings of Akinsola and Odhiambo showed that mixed effects of impact of oil on economic growth both in short run and long run. With the use of Toda- Yamamoto model and drawing data from 1995 to 2018, Gylych, Jibrin, Celik and Isik (2020) examined the impact on oil price on monetary instruments in Nigeria. The authors found out that oil price exerted significant impact on exchange rate and interest rate.

3. Methodology

This study adapted the model used by Musa, Maijama'a, Shaibu and Muhammad (2019) to examine the relationship between exchange rate, oil price and economic growth. The model is specified as:

$$GDPPC = f(EXC, OILP)$$

(1)

The model is written econometric form as:

$$\ln GDPPC_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln EXC_t + \beta_2 \ln OILP_t + \mu_t$$

(2)

Where, GDPPC = Gross domestic product per capita, EXC = Exchange rate, OILP = oil price, \ln = natural log, β_0 to β_2 coefficient to be estimated, t = time and μ = stochastic term.

Equation (2) can be adapted to include the interaction term between exchange rate and oil price. The equation can be rewritten as follows:

$$\ln GDPPC_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln EXC_t + \beta_2 \ln OILP_t + \beta_3 \ln EXC_t \bullet \ln OILP_t + \mu_t$$

(3)

Where, EXC·OILP is the interaction term in the equation.

Equation is estimated in this study using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS), Fully Modified OLS and Dynamic OLS. The estimation of equation by Fully Modified OLS and Dynamic OLS requires conducting Unit root test and Cointegration test.

In this study, the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) is applied for the Unit root test while the cointegration via residual method is applied for the cointegration test. The presence of series being stationarity at First Difference and existence of long- run relationship mean that the model can be estimated using Fully Modified OLS and Dynamic OLS. The advantage of two techniques is that it accounts for endogeneity and serial correlation. The inclusion of interaction term in the model is to be justified if the slopes of the exchange rate and oil price are not parallel (Rekah, 2019; Star Trek, 2021). The authors will plot the graphs of the two variables to examine the relative importance of including the interacting term in the model. If the graphs are not parallel, there exists an interaction between exchange rate and oil price. Lastly, the need not to exclude the interaction term in the final estimation depends on either (i) it is significant or (ii) the coefficient of determination (R squared) in the model with interaction term performs better than the model without interaction terms.

All the data are sourced from Macrotrends.net and Worldbank.org from 1960 to 2020. The choice of 1960 to 2020 is informed by the estimation techniques, which require a long period of time for robust estimation.

4. Data Analysis

This section involves explanation of the analysis of data used in the study. The section is divided into descriptive statistics, trend analysis and regression output.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1: Descriptive statistics

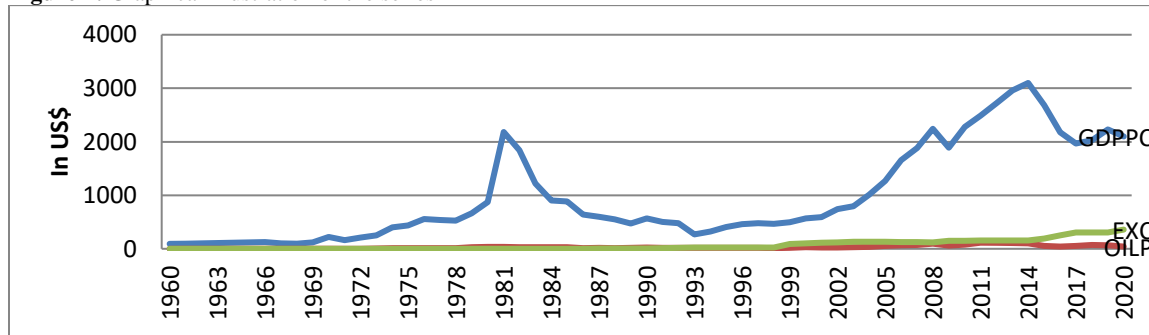
Statistics	GDPPC	EXC	OILP
Mean	968.06	66.31	31.12
Median	567.53	8.04	20.00
Maximum	3098.99	358.81	111.67
Minimum	92.96	0.55	1.80
Std. Dev.	875.91	94.31	30.26
Skewness	0.93	1.43	1.26
Kurtosis	2.50	4.24	3.77
Jarque-Bera	9.37	24.84	17.71
Probability	0.01	0.00	0.00
Observations	61	61	61

Source: Authors' Computation

In all the series the values of the mean were ₦968.06 billion, ₦66.31 and ₦31.12 for gross domestic product per capita (GDPPC), exchange rate (EXC) and oil price (OILP) respectively. These values of mean were greater than their corresponding values of median. These showed that there is possibility of all the series being positively skewed. The value of the Skewness in the table confirmed the existence of positive Skewness of the series, and as such, the series are rightward skewed. GDPPC is moderately skewed while OILP and EXC are highly skewed. The values obtained for Kurtosis showed that there is possibility of outliers in the series. From the values obtained for Jarque- Bera, it can be concluded that the series are not normally distributed. Hence, there is need to transform the series to remove the outliers and all the series are converted into natural logarithm.

Trend Analysis

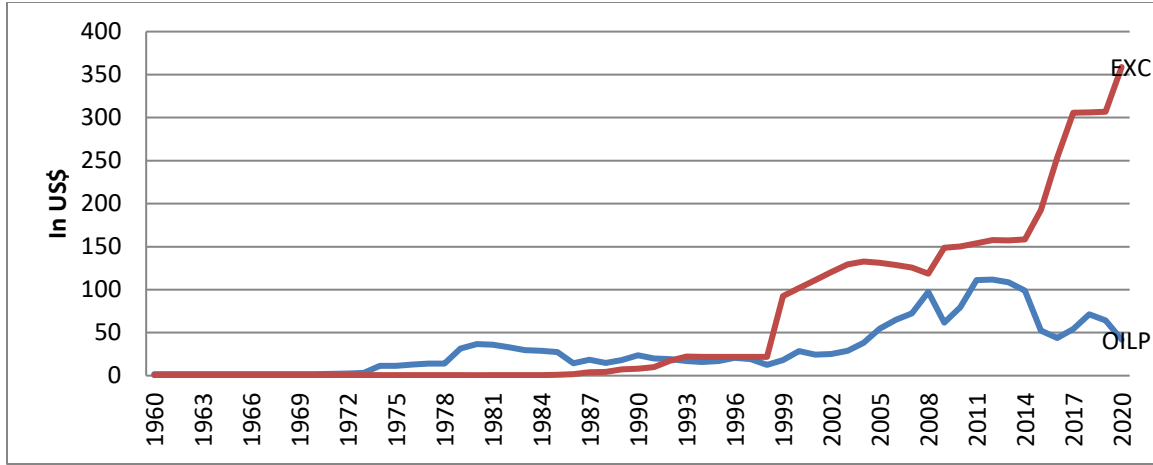
Figure 1: Graphical illustration of the series



Source: Authors' computation

The figure above showed the values in natural logarithm for all the series. A cursory look at the figure revealed that all the series exhibited cyclic trend throughout the period under study. There was sharp rise for GDPPC in 1982 and the exchange rates (EXC) were at the lowest from 1975 to 1985. There was sharp rise in exchange rate from 1996 to date. The oil price has exhibited a moderate cyclic trend than the other series. One fact to draw from these trends is that the exchange line seemed to be steeper in nature than oil price (OILP) (See Figure 2), which provided some evidence for possible interaction between oil price (OILP) and exchange rate (EXC) (StarTrek, 2021).

Figure 2: Graphical illustration showing Possible Interaction between EXC and OILP



Source: Authors' computation

From Figure 2, the graphs of both the exchange (EXC) and oil price (OILP) exhibited cyclic nature and between 1991 and 1992 the two graphs intersected. This was due to a fall in oil price and depreciation of naira in Nigeria. Similar scenario was also nearly experienced in 1996. It can be concluded as such that the graphs of the two series did not parallel throughout the period under study.

Regression output

The authors executed unit root test to investigate the stationarity of the series and the result obtained is summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Unit root test

Variables	Test for Unit root in:	ADF Statistics	ADF Critical	Order
lnGDPPC	Level	-1.3656	-2.9109	
	First difference	-6.4881	-2.9117	1(1)
lnOILP	Level	-1.5180	-2.9109	
	First difference	-6.7282	-2.9117	1(1)
lnEXC	Level	0.4159	-2.9109	
	First difference	-6.0550	-2.9117	1(1)
lnOILP-lnEXC	Level	0.1838	-2.9109	
	First difference	-5.8639	-2.9117	1(1)

Note: *5% Level of significance

Source: Authors' computation

The result from the Table 2 has shown that all the series are stationary at First difference. This provided the first step in applying the cointegration regressions, which are Fully Modified OLS and Dynamic OLS to investigate the relationship among the series. The second step is to investigate the existence of cointegration among the series. The authors carried out this by using cointegration via residual method. According to the method, cointegration is said to exist if the residual obtained from the OLS is stationary at level. The result was provided in Table 3.

Table 3: Cointegration via residual based method

Model	Series	Statistic	Critical	Prob.
Model without interaction term	Residual	-3.0769	-2.9109	0.0337
Model with interaction term	Residual	-4.1331	-2.9109	0.0018

Note: *5% Level of significance

Source: Authors' computation

Using cointegration via residual based method, as shown in Table 3, the residual is stationary at level at 5 percent. As such, there is long- run relationship among the series. Hence, the model specified can be regressed using Fully Modified OLS and Dynamic OLS; and the ECM can be carried out to obtain the speed of disequilibrium.

Having established the presence of long- run relationship among the series, the authors proceed to estimate the model using Ordinary Least Squares, Fully Modified OLS and Dynamic OLS. Table 4 showed the results of the long run relationship among the series.

Table 4: Regression output (Long run)

	OLS	OLS [†]	Fully Modified OLS	Fully Modified OLS [†]	Dynamic OLS	Dynamic OLS [†]
Dependent Variable: lnGDPPC						
Constant	4.204* (40.576)	4.249* (46.070)	4.207* (25.909)	4.221* (35.999)	4.228* (24.662)	4.241* (33.193)
lnEXC	-0.019 (-0.768)	-0.286* (-4.213)	-0.026 (-0.704)	-0.354* (-4.230)	-0.037 (-0.962)	-0.384* (-3.567)
lnOILP	0.795* (17.563)	0.766* (18.851)	0.819* (11.172)	0.782* (15.365)	0.833* (11.280)	0.785* (13.969)
lnEXC· lnOILP		0.073* (4.151)		0.090* (4.138)		0.095 (3.420)
R- squared	0.915	0.935	0.908	0.931	0.932	0.956
Adj. R- Squared	0.913	0.932	0.905	0.928	0.920	0.954
F- statistic	314.037	273.688				
	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a				
Durbin Watson	0.633	0.966				
Jarque Bera	0.698	8.595				
	0.705 ^a	0.013 ^a				
Serial Correlation	23.618	11.138				
	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a				
Heteroscedaticity	0.167	0.350				
	0.847 ^a	0.789 ^a				
Wald Test	314.037	273.688	404.479	519.548	373.082	429.341
	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a

Note: [†]With interaction term, *1%, **5% and ***10% Level of significance, t- statistic in parenthesis, ^aProb

Source: Authors' computation

In the estimated models, the coefficient of interaction term is statistically significant and the R- squared performed better in all the models when interaction term is included. Since both of the conditions are satisfied, the presence of the interaction term is meaningful in the model. In line with Rekah (2019), this means the inclusion of the interaction term contributed meaningfully 'to the explanatory power of the model'. Based on this conclusion, the authors proceed to discuss the findings of the study.

The values obtained for coefficient of determinations were high for all estimations. They were 0.928 and 0.954 when the interaction term was included for estimation with Fully Modified OLS and Dynamic OLS. This showed that 92.8 percent and 95.4 percent of the variation in the GDPPC was explained by the independent variables. The value of 273.688 obtained for F- statistic in estimation done through OLS showed that the model was statistically significant at 5 percent level. It cannot be said that there was problem of serial correlation and endogeneity because the use of Fully Modified OLS and Dynamic OLS has taken care of such issues. As such, the Durbin Statistic in OLS estimation can be ignored.

In all estimations, the coefficient of exchange rate was significant only when the interaction term was included and possessed the expected sign in all estimations. This showed that the exchange rate exerted negative impact on the GDPPC in the period under study. On the other hand, the coefficient of oil price was significant in all estimation as well and has the expected sign. Lastly, the coefficient of interaction term was positive and significant in all estimations. A conclusion to be drawn from this is that the performance of Nigerian economy is influenced by oil price being conditioned by the exchange rate.

The authors also examined the short run relationship among the series and Table 6 showed the results obtained. The authors reported the parsimonious ECM for Model without interaction term and the one without interaction term.

Table 6: Regression output (Short run)

Dependent variable: D(GDPPPC)	OLS	OLS [†]
Constant	0.057* (2.115)	0.027 (1.0950)
D(lnOILP)	0.392* (4.594)	0.407* (4.827)
D(lnEXC(-1))	-0.270* (-2.668)	
ECM(-1)	-0.288* (-3.480)	-0.401* (-4.250)
R- squared	0.381	0.380
Adj. R- Squared	0.347	0.358
F- statistic	11.272	17.453
Durbin Watson	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a
Jarque Bera	1.954	1.696
Serial Correlation	82.491	154.101
Heteroscedaticity	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a
	0.358	1.073
	0.965 ^a	0.349 ^a
	0.167	0.302
	0.918 ^a	0.740 ^a
Wald Test	11.272	17.453
	0.000 ^a	0.000 ^a

Note: [†]With interaction term, *1%, **5% and ***10% Level of significance, t- statistic in parenthesis, ^aProb

Source: Authors' computation

The coefficient of determination of the parsimonious ECM for Model without interaction term was 0.381 and for Model with interaction term was 0.380. This showed that 38.1 percent of the variation in GDPPC was explained by the independent variable in Model without interaction term and 38.0 percent of the variation in GDPPC was also explained by the independent variables in Model with interaction term. The F- statistics of 11.272 and 17.453 showed that the models were statistically significant at 5 percent level.

The EMCs have the expected sign and the rates of adjustment to the previous periods were 28.8 percent and 40.1 percent respectively. In the Model without interaction term, the current oil price, D(lnOILP) and previous exchange rates, D(lnEXC(-1)) were correctly sign and significant at 5 percent level of significance. This showed that the current oil price is the major force to be reckoned with influencing economic growth in the country and also the previous price of dollar to naira has decisive force on the performance of the economy. In addition, in the Model with interaction term, it was clearly seen that the current oil price, D(lnOILP) not the exchange rate is the major determinant of economic growth. One fact to be drawn from this finding is that it has shown the relative importance of oil on the Nigerian economy. The oil has impact on the exchange rate and this assertion is visible when the oil price and the exchange rate interacted. This finding is tandem with Abed et al (2016), who found out that oil price is the

major factor influencing the determinant of domestic currency.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study has basically examined the interaction effect of exchange rate and oil price on the economic growth. The finding of the study has shown that the performance of the economy is conditioned on the performance of oil in the international market. The findings further showed the current oil price matters for economic growth in Nigeria. In addition, in the absence of interaction between oil price and exchange rate, the previous exchange rate exerts significant impact on the economic growth. Lastly, the interaction between exchange rate and oil price should not be ignored in matter relating to economic growth. As such, policy that will influence both oil price and exchange rate should be put in place. In conclusion, the authors suggest that there is need for further investigation on the interaction effect of oil price and exchange rate on the economy.

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A Historical Analysis of the Dynamics of Political Transition to Civilian Rule in Nigeria, 1998-1999

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Abstract. In Nigeria, military regimes have at different times professed their intentions to hand over power to civilian governments. Two of such transition programmes in the late 1970s and 1980s were successful. For instance, the 1998-1999 transition culminated in the transfer of power to an elected government within a short period of time and ushered in the longest period of civilian governance in Nigeria's history. Relying on a historical and structural approach as units of analysis, this paper examines the genesis, nature and dynamics of the Nigerian military-civilian political transition programmes. The paper finds out that the military-led transition to civilian rule and its outcome was shaped by a change in the military's organisational orientation, societal pressures and international support for an end to military rule.

Keywords: Civilian Rule, Democracy, Military, Transition

1. Introduction

A transition to civil rule is a political process of handing over power to civilians under certain structural, constitutional and other conditions that may not be obvious in the open political space. For instance, the incumbent regime (especially if it is a military junta) could bargain with civilian groups as a condition for handing over power. Generally, the power that the military wields in terms of the level of internal cohesion it enjoys and the scope of support it has in the society, as well as the international arena, determine its willingness to withdraw from the main political arena by installing a democratic civilian leadership. As at 1999, Nigeria had witnessed six transitions to civilian rule, out of which one was midwifed by the colonial government in the 1950s to set the phase for political independence. The other five were carried out by different military regimes,

out of which two reached their logical conclusion of a return to civilian rule.

It must be noted that military rule in Nigeria has been retrospectively viewed as a political aberration, or in other words, a temporary corrective measure meant to address the problems that threaten national unity and stability (Dare, 1981: 351). In a typical fashion, the military attempts to legitimise its rule by discrediting the anti-populist policies of its predecessors. Secondly, the regime makes a pledge to withdraw from the political scene on an appointed time. Thirdly, it introduces and executes a framework for civilianising the political structures of decision making (Dare, 1981: 351). The military's drive for implementing a transition to civil rule and withdrawing to the barracks however, depends on: the capacity of an incumbent military regime to checkmate certain military and civilian groups opposed to disengagement; the ability of the regime to use civilian-based networks to legitimise its brief rule before handing over to civilians and; lastly, the ability of the regime to portray some semblance of political neutrality in the process of handing over to civilians (Dare, 1981: 351). Another important angle of this discourse can be seen within the concentric lenses of the organisational, societal and external orientations toward the imperative of military withdrawal to the barracks and transfer of power to elected civilian groups. These forces consist of political elite excluded from power and sections of the business community, professional groups and many senior officials of previous military dictatorships and the international community (Ake, 2000: 127-128, 132). An attempt to elongate its tenure could affect its internal cohesion as witnessed in the first (1966-1979) and second (1984-1999) periods of military rule in Nigeria where a number aborted and successful countercoups took place. Similarly, the pressures emanating from the society for an end to military rule as a result of political and

economic drawbacks can force the regime to retreat to the barracks. In conjunction with domestic forces within the military and civilian circles, the international community can introduce, or withdraw incentives in order for transition to civil rule programme to take place.

In the case of Nigeria, the military regime of General Abdulsalami Abubakar came into being after the death of General Sani Abacha in June, 1998. The new regime formulated and executed the shortest transition to civil rule programme that culminated in the installation of an elected civilian government in May, 1999. The regime adopted the presidential system that was operated in the short-lived Second Republic (1979-1983). This transition is significant for two reasons (1) it is the shortest transition to civilian rule in the history of Nigeria and (2) it paved the way for the longest period of uninterrupted civilian rule under a presidential democracy. This is in contrast to the short-lived First and Second Republics. Surprisingly, the head of a former military regime, which handed over power to civilians in the Second Republic was elected as the executive president.

This paper therefore, examines the transition from military rule to civilian rule in Nigeria from August, 1998 and May, 1999. In so doing, the paper raises a number of questions; what were the forces and factors responsible for the transition to civil rule programme? What was the significance of the transition and what was the outcome of the process?

The paper adopts the constitutional evolutionary model as a framework, while relying on the historical and structural approaches as units of analysis. The paper also examines the types of transition to civil rule, identifies the forces and factors that provided its trajectory, processes and significance.

2. Types of Political Transitions under Military Rule

The literature identifies three broad types of military transition to a civilian administration. These are counter-coup approach, the military turned-political approach and constitutional evolutionary model (Adekson, 1979: 214-216). The first type is the counter-coup inspired approach in which a military regime is ousted by a dissident faction because its policies are seen to be eroding the political legitimacy of the military in the eyes of society (Adekson, 1979: 214). Depending on the motives behind the counter-coup, the new regime partakes in a partial, or complete disengagement from the political

arena. For example, one of the legitimising policies adopted by the Babangida regime in 1985 was a promise on behalf of the military to hand over power to an elected civilian government. The transition ended up installing an interim government that eventually gave way to another military regime.

The second type is the military-turned-political pattern that involves a military regime transmuting to a pseudo-civilian government. In order to deflect pressures for democratisation, a military regime mutates into a 'competitive authoritarian regime' as a strategy for preserving its status quo. A restricted form of electoral democracy is instituted to merely legitimise the transmutation from a military regime to a civilian government (Levitsky and Way, 2003; Levitsky and Way, 2006). Where the organisational cohesion of the military is threatened, an intra-corporate struggle between two groups takes place. A pro-disengagement faction challenges the institutionalisation of a military permanence in mainstream politics. If the anti-disengagement group has the ascendancy, especially in alliance with prominent civilian groups, it carries out a purge of these challengers (Anene, 1997: 64). This regime type adopts certain aspects of democratic rules to widen its support base in the society. This model clearly fits the Abacha transition where the military ruler attempted to transmute to a civilian leader under a *de jure* government controlled-five party system (Fayemi, 1999: 71; Ojo, 2014: 32).

The third type is the constitutional evolutionary model. Here, the military regime engages in complete disengagement for a civilian dispensation under a "workable relationship between the military and civilian sectors of society" (Adekson, 1979: 216). This type has significance in explaining the transition programmes of the Obasanjo and Abubakar administrations, which respectively succeeded in installing elected civilian governments in October, 1979 and May, 1999.

3. Regime Type and Transition Policy

The life-span and outcome of transitions can be categorised in two ways on the basis of the motives of the regime (Bennett and Kirk-Greene, 1978). In the first type, the military is more of a caretaker regime. A swift transition is initiated due to negative consequences in the continuation of military rule. To the caretaker regime "coexistence with a new set of political leaders is possible" (Bennett and Kirk-Greene, 1978: 13). As such, the military hands over to an elected civilian government within the shortest possible period. Meanwhile, it portrays itself as a

corrective regime. It is based on the belief that “comprehensive systematic reforms are required, which only the military can achieve” before it hands power to an elected civilian government (Bennett and Kirk-Greene, 1978: 13). The transition is executed in phases. The colonial transition to independence under Governors Lyttleton and Robertson was in phases (Nasidi, 2018: 4-6). This was characterised by granting some form of self-rule at the sub-national levels and setting the process of creating an indigenous officer corps for the military in preparation for independence at a later period.

In the post-colonial era, the regimes of Yakubu Gowon (1966-75) Muhammadu Buhari (1984-85) and Ibrahim Babangida (1985-93) fit this corrective picture given their decisions to postpone the dates of terminating their rule. The Murtala-Obasanjo (1975-1979) regimes seem to have some peculiarities because they have dual functions (of a caretaker and a corrective government).

4. The Driving Forces and Factors behind the 1998/1999 Transition to Civil Rule

The death of General Sani Abacha in June, 1998 saw a change in the political direction of Nigeria. The policy of transmuted a military dictator to a civilian president suddenly gave way to a new transition that ensured the handing over power to a civilian regime through a more credible electoral process. The implication is that the praetorian orientation among military leaders gave way to an abdication scenario (Anene, 1997: 64). This is because a web of forces and factors shaped the transition to civilian rule and the drive for the military withdrawal from the political centre-stage.

The first factor can be attributed to the protracted factionalism that existed within the officer corps. This is because, military intervention(s) had negatively affected the level of professionalism in the political structure of the Nigerian state. There was the need for officers in order to accept subordination to constituted (civil) authority and insulate the military from external influence (Whiteman, 2008: 32-33). Besides, the military had already inflicted other damages to its own well-being. It is observed that:

Budgetary allocation to various military formations was misappropriated by unit commanders without developing the military institutional infrastructure like the barracks, (equipment, materials) and logistics research and development. Furthermore, staff allowance, welfare packages and pension benefits were embezzled by officers' corps who had no opportunity to occupy political offices (Yoroms, 2011: 123).

As a result of the annulment of the June 12, 1993 presidential elections and its protracted crises, the officer corps within the military hierarchy had crystallised into two broad factions- the pro-disengagement and the anti-disengagement factions. The latter were beneficiaries of military rule and had a strong reason to oppose military withdrawal because of the possibility of retribution when civil rule sets in (Anene, 2000). These military officers and their civilian cohorts were largely the loyalists of Abacha and had the upper hand during the regimes of Babangida and Abacha. With Abacha's demise, the tables of opportunity turned in favour of the military democrats. The emergence of General Abubakar as the new head of state however, favoured the faction that opted for the policy of military disengagement. The pro-disengagement faction placed the “value the survival and efficacy of the military above all else” a policy of “a return to the barracks as a means to preserve military unity” (Ulfelder, 2005: 318). This conformed to the demands of a wide section of the civilian elites. A combination of self-conviction and intense external persuasion made this new ruling faction to believe that the military should relinquish power if its corporate and professional outlooks are to be restored. Prolonged military rule with its attendant problems of governmental corruption, factionalism and indiscipline had done much damage not only to the civilian sphere of the state, but also to the ethos of military professionalism (Oluwabiyi & Duruji, 2021). In tactful admittance of past mistakes and to solicit domestic and international support for the policy direction of the new regime, General Abubakar made a national broadcast on Monday July 20, 1999 where he stated that:

.... mistakes have been made, particularly as our most recent attempt at democratisation was marred by maneuvering and manipulations of structures and actions. At the end, we have succeeded in creating a defective foundation on which a solid democratic structure can neither be constructed nor sustained (Guardian Newspaper, July 21, 1998: 15).

Because of the protracted failure by previous military regimes to execute a smooth transition to civil rule programme that would reach its logical conclusion, the military establishment had realised the grave error in terms of the effect this had on its corporate image and internal cohesion. As such, the military institution had over time lost respect, especially in the public domain. The emergence of new leaders within the top echelons of the military favours a withdrawal from governance. The new military regime was therefore, dominated by those who realised that the corporate survival and role of the Nigerian military can better be accomplished in the barracks as against

when it remains in power. The way forward was for the regime to install democratic governance and leave the centre-stage. This group had now dominated the levers of decision making and was able to placate potential dissenters.

The second factor is the influence wielded by retired military officers who in the past held strategic appointments in previous military regimes. As a group, they never developed as a major force during the nationalist movement of the colonial period largely because they seldom crystallised into a cohesive group among the emergent indigenous elite classes (Olusanya, 1968). In the post-colonial period, a number of factors such as the cycle of military coups, the civil war (1967-1970), mass purges and economic factors led to a large number of military retirements and dismissals (Adekanye, 1999: 3-14). It is important to observe that the emergence of the military elite both in uniform and in retirement as a powerful bloc has its roots in the mid-1970s. The indigenisation and nationalisation policies created the conditions that enhanced their emergence and dominance in the state-driven processes of primitive accumulation. This dominance became obvious towards the end of first dispensation of the military rule. It is observed that 'many of the military officers who ruled the country between 1975 and 1979 successfully established themselves as businessmen and politicians courtesy of the nationalized companies with close links to the military' (Fayemi, 1999: 69). During the transition to civil rule programme of the late 1970s, a number of them joined the parties of the Second Republic and even contested for executive offices within these parties. Some contested for positions during the December 1976 local government elections. About 43 percent of those who contested for the 69 councillorship positions in Kaduna state for example, were retired military personnel (Adekanye, 1999: 71). On the other hand, however, most of the retired senior officers preferred to remain behind the scene as supporters of such parties. In retirement, most engaged in private economic activities, which covered agriculture, defence contract procurement, banking, private security, shipping, mining and construction to mention, but a few (Adekanye, 1999: 35). During the Second Republic, a number of them also contested for legislative and executive positions at the federal and state levels. It was however, not until latter part of Babangida's transition programme that their influence in partisan activities increased, especially after the annulment of the elections of June 12, 1993. Their activities were not coordinated under cohesive umbrella because of their political inclinations within the context of the June 12 crises.

For example, while General Akinrinade was an advocate of the June 12 mandate, it was noted that Generals Obasanjo and Yar'Adua supported the idea of an interim government of national unity (Momoh and Adejumbi, 1999: 256). These inclinations were largely defined by political culture of factionalism that permeated the military and post-military realms. These ex-military men were also unable to crystallise into a single political group after retirement despite being monolithically socialised for a long time, especially during their military service.

Between 1991 and 1998, the number of retired military officers that visibly joined partisan politics increased and included personalities like Generals Yakubu Gowon, Ibrahim Haruna, Olufemi Olutoye, Shehu Musa Yar'Adua, Joseph Garba, Dumuje and Colonel Yohanna Madaki (Adekanye, 1999: 192). During Babangida's transition programme (1987-1993) one of the most prominent political gladiators that emerged was Major-General Shehu Musa Yar'Adua. He established the Peoples Front (PF), a strong political structure that was used to build a network of political bridges. In addition, a former head of state, General Yakubu Gowon joined one of the two government-approved parties to contest for the presidency in 1992. It was not until at the height of agitations against military rule in the late 1990s that many of them became members of interest groups (in various ways) demanding an end to military rule. They included Olusegun Obasanjo and Shehu Yar'Adua (both of whom were imprisoned by General Abacha), Dan Suleiman, Alani Akinrinade, Joseph Garba, David Mark, Ike Nwachukwu, Emeka Odumegu Ojukwu, Lawrence Onoja, Abubakar Umar, Braimoh Yusuf, Tunde Ogbeha, Theophilus Danjuma, Muhammadu Buhari, Tunde Idiagbon, Ibrahim Babangida, John Shagaya, Jeremiah Useni, and Augustus Aikhomu.

As new self-professed democrats, they were now increasingly convinced that civil rule was the viable option out of the Nigeria's protracted political crises (Nasidi, 2023: 19). Despite being out of military service, they maintained some form of informal ties with serving officers in successive regimes and at the same time established bonds with civilian elite in the political and economic realms. Their role in the transition process particularly in the activities of political parties is a manifestation of the influence they had in the transition agenda of General Abubakar.

The third factor was the direct and indirect roles of the international community. Many Western governments, intergovernmental bodies like the

European Union (EU), the Commonwealth (CW) and the United Nations (UN), which made policy pronouncements of condemnations and sanctions against prolonged military rule, as well as the support they provided to pro-democracy Civil Society Organisations (CSOs). These include the National Democratic Coalition (NADECO), Campaign for Democracy (CD), Civil Liberties Organisation (CLO), Civil Rights Congress (CRC), and the Campaign for the Defence of Human Rights (CDHR). In retrospect, the role of external forces provided support to the domestic agitations for military withdrawal in Nigeria (Obasanjo, 1999: 263).

Similarly, most Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) mounted persistent pressures on the regimes of Babangida, Shonekan and Abacha to quit and respect the results of the June 12, 1993 elections. In 1998, the Group of 34 (G-34), a coalition of prominent, but strange bedfellows comprising both civil and retired military leaders called on the Abacha regime to abandon his obvious transmutation agenda, which was supposed to have culminated in his assumption of a civilianised presidency by October, 1998. It must be noted however that, the role of the CSOs was limited in scope and intensity given the fact that they were not united in the struggle against military rule because of their 'enfeebled and incapacitated nature' (Momoh and Adejumbi, 1999: 295).

The fourth factor was the apathy of the general public who had largely lost confidence in the political system. This subjective posture was largely due to years of governmental corruption, repressive socio-economic policies and the cumulative effect of the Babangida and Abacha failed transitions had considerably 'eroded public trust in government and deepened ethno regional divisions' (Enemuo, 1999: 3). Leading political activists notably Chiefs Gani Fawehinmi, Chief Anthony Enahoro and General Alani Akinrinade made a series of agitations ranging from the convening of a Sovereign National Conference (SNC) to the establishment of a Confederation and regional army commands through the devolution of powers (Enemuo, 1999: 3). The general mood of the majority of Nigerians was largely a mixture of skepticism and relative indifference to events at the political centre-stage. This development also coupled with the harsh policies of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), which made a wide section of the populace to lose confidence in government.

The Abubakar regime departed from past tendencies and set in motion, the process of restoring the public

confidence in the political system. This was clearly demonstrated by the pledges to restore civil rule and the release of many political prisoners on 16th June, 1998. General Obasanjo was among the 16 high profile detainees released. He had been incarcerated and convicted to serve a commuted life sentence by the Abacha regime. The social bond between government and the society is a major prerequisite for the corporate existence and stability of the country.

5. Significance of the Transition

The transition programme embarked upon by the regime of General Abdulsalami Abubakar was characterised by a number of significant events. These had an impact on the nature and outcome of the transition programme. The Abubakar transition is the shortest in Nigeria's history as it was executed within a period of nine months (July, 1998 to April, 1999). Since the late 1970s when the Obasanjo military regime had successfully organised a transition with political zeal, no other military government after it had done so until 15 years after the Second Republic had been sacked by soldiers who claimed to have intervened as a corrective measure.

The endorsement by the international community notably the Commonwealth (CW) and the United Nations (UN) of the transition programme was manifested through the partial lifting of certain diplomatic restrictions on top government officials. This was followed by the visits of diplomatic delegations from the CW and the UN led by their scribes, Chief Emeka Anyaoku and Mr. Kofi Annan, respectively. In addition, some western governments sought to broker a solution over the crisis between the regime and Chief Abiola, the presumable winner of the annulled June 12, 1993 presidential election, who later died on July 7, 1998 while having a meeting with an American delegation in Abuja that included Susan Rice, the Assistant Secretary of State for African Affairs. Nigeria's diplomatic isolation came to an end as Nigerian officials resumed interactions with foreign governments on bilateral and multilateral relations.

A gathering took place in Abuja on Saturday October 3, 1998 that would have implication for the transition programme and the nature of civil-military relations in a post-military dispensation. The military regime invited both serving and retired top brass drawn from the military and police. It consisted of all military and police officers equivalent to the rank of Brigadier-general and above who had served from the 1970s to

the late 1990s. The parley between serving and retired military brass did come not as a surprise because “long after leaving the force, typical retired top officers continue to wield an amazingly powerful hold over their colleagues, meaning most erstwhile juniors, still in active service” (Adekanye, 1999:175). The gathering discussed the way forward regarding the military’s image and a framework for consigning the military to the barracks, as well as preventing its return to power. The two visible absentees were former heads of state, Generals Obasanjo and Buhari (Adekanye, 1999: 195).

The regime opened the arena to the politicians to set up their own parties in order to contest for elections. The new regime opted for a slightly amended version of the defunct 1979 constitution. On July 20, 1998, it unveiled a ten-month transition programme that commenced in August, 1998 and ended in May, 1999 (Onuoha, 2002: 322-324). The elections were conducted in three phases- the Local Government elections on December 5, 1998; the Governorship and State Legislative elections on January 9, 1999; the Federal Legislative Elections on February 20, 1999; and the Presidential election on February 27, 1999 (Enemuo, 1999). The performance of the political parties that participated in the Local government election was used as the basis for eventually registering three of them- the People’s Democratic Party (PDP), the All Peoples’ Party (APP) and the Alliance for Democracy (AD) (Nasidi, 2020: 45-48). The national spread in membership of the PDP was more than the other two parties and included the members of the defunct SDP and of significance, ‘the solid support of most retired military officers, some suggest as many as 200 of them’ (Mustapha, 1999: 282). The APP was an aggregation of conservative and pro-Abacha politicians. While the PDP and APP had greater national spread than the AD, the latter drew most of its membership from the Southwestern part of Nigeria among the disciples of the late Obafemi Awolowo and members of NADECO, a June 12 pressure group. The AD was registered in order to broaden the political space and douse potential opposition to the transition.

The PDP held its primaries on November 26, 1998 and two major groups competed for the presidential ticket. The first group consisted mainly of elements that belonged to the defunct ruling party in the Second Republic, the National Party of Nigeria (NPN). They fielded Chief Alex Ekwueme, a former Vice President in the Second Republic. The disciples of late Shehu Yar’Adua and many retired military officers preferred General Olusegun Obasanjo. As a result of the money-bag politics displayed by the

retired generals at the convention, the candidature of Obasanjo carried the day (The New Humanitarian, 23 February, 1999). This group had served under General Obasanjo during the civil war days and when he was the military head of state in 1976. The APP convention on December 11, 1998 was characterised by a crisis and violence as Alhaji Abubakar Olusola Saraki, a highly prospective aspirant met a strong opposition to his candidacy, especially from party executives. His candidature was viewed as threatening to the ‘gentlemen’s agreement’ of zoning the presidency to the south. Eventually, Chief Ogbonnaya Onu was appointed as interim presidential flag bearer. On the same day, the AD convention, Chief Olu Falae, a federal technocrat and a former secretary to the military government of General Babangida defeated Chief Bola Ige. The latter was a former civilian governor in the Second Republic and an ardent critic of military rule. The APP formed an alliance with the AD. Chief Onu of the APP was substituted with Alhaji Umaru Shinkafi, a former spy chief as the running mate to Chief Falae. The transition programme was a calculated process where two presidential candidates had emerged by December, 1998. The serving and retired military leaders in alliance with a broad section of the civilian elite had opted for two presidential aspirants from the south in order to mollify the divisive agitations in the political arena already aggravated by prolonged military rule. In the same light, the candidates were relatively connected to the military establishment. Olusegun Obasanjo was part of the military establishment from 1961 to 1979. The regime of General Babangida sponsored his bid to become the UN secretary general. Chief Olu Falae was a federal bureaucrat who had served under the Babangida regime as the county’s top civil servant. He was known to have defended some of the regime’s harsh policies, notably, the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). Like Obasanjo, he was under detention during the Abacha regime and was released on 16th June, 1998 on the orders of General Abubakar. The presidential election took place on February 27, 1999 with Obasanjo winning the contest having scored 62.78 percent of the total valid votes.

The processes that led to the emergence of General Olusegun Obasanjo as an elected president implied that the military regime in alliance with some civilian groups, masterminded the transition. The outcome of the transition was made possible by ‘the emergence of the military in retirement as the most potent force in Nigeria, based on its massive fortunes accumulated, and social networks established, during its long stay in power’ (Enemuo, 1999: 7). A veiled reference was made of the ‘prominent role played by

retired and serving military officers in the whole process of party formation and selection of presidential candidates' (Fayemi, 1999: 69). Generals Danjuma and Babangida had visited Obasanjo just after his release from prison custody in order to persuade him to contest the presidential elections. The manner in which Obasanjo was released from prison and how he was persuaded and supported to return as Nigeria's leader seems to suggest that the Abubakar transition was also a calculated one. This transition is no doubt a deliberate and calculated process of transferring the reins of power through an election from a military regime to civilian regime, which has the vested interests of members of the departing regime and those of the governing elite. The emergence of new leaders in the process is determined by the interests of domestic elite and their external allies. Where domestic opposition is weak and the external environment is disposed to such a direction, the calculated transition is easily undertaken by the departing military regime. As such, the process involves the careful selection of those who would emerge as contestants in the electoral process. Those who were viewed as harmful to such vested interests are either proselytized, or schemed out in the struggle for power. While the military establishment had finally come to terms with the fact that civil rule was the only viable option, it came with a political caveat. As identified by Kohn (1997) and reinforced by Dinneya (2006), prolonged military rule tends to create a materially privileged and bureaucratically-equipped military elite. This social engineering gradually creates a general impression among the military elite, both serving and retired, of a doubt about the civilian elite abilities to forge the bonds of national unity and stability. As such, the calculated transition becomes the only rational option. This discrete policy played a role in shaping the direction and outcome of the transition programme to civil rule. Thus, it was more of a question of who the military would hand over to before stepping aside.

The emergence of Obasanjo presidency in May, 1999 can be situated within Ekeh's civilianisation thesis, based on 'the bold-faced assumption that the affairs of the post-military state can be effectively managed only by the former military rulers' (Ekeh, 1999: 75). In retrospect, this line of thinking was openly declared by Shehu Musa Yar'Adua during the Babangida transition of which he (Yar'Adua) was a presidential aspirant. At the 1992 SDP campaign rally in Sokoto, he declared that:

Being a retired soldier was one of the reasons why I and my friends decided that I should contest... I am the most competent to stop the military from coming

back to power because as a retired military man, I know them very well and they know me. I possess the capability of preventing them from staging coups (Farris and Bomoi, 2004: 200).

The democratic mandate of General Obasanjo can be attributed to two major inter-connected factors. The first reason had to do with his personality. He represented the federal side and negotiated the terms for Biafra's surrender in 1970. He was a former military head of state between 1976 and 1979 and made history as the first Nigerian military ruler to hand over power to an elected civilian regime. In 1983, the coup leaders had solicited that he resumed his military commission to head the new military regime. He allegedly turned down the offer (Obasanjo, 1990: 227). For these achievements, he became not only a respected national figure, but also an international statesman having connections with international bodies such as the Commonwealth (CW) and later, Transparency International (TI). He was also a member of the Eminent Persons Group of the CW, which was saddled with bringing an end to the Apartheid rule in South Africa. He eventually became a critic of subsequent military rule under Generals Buhari, Babangida and Abacha as he consistently advocated for a return to civilian democratic rule. He became a political prisoner in 1995 when he was jailed in connection with a coup plot against the regime of General Abacha. The second one had to do with the support base he quickly cultivated as a candidate within the rising retired military elite and a wide section of Nigeria's civilian elite across ethnic, religious and geographical divides. In a revelation, General Babangida gave the reason why Obasanjo was picked to contest for the presidency. He said:

The emergence of Obasanjo came as a result of what happened in the country. The country was in a very serious crisis and we had to find the solution to these problems... So, we looked for a man who has been involved in the affairs of this country, who held position either in the military or in the cabinet and who has certain beliefs about Nigeria (Sunday Trust, 10th March, 2013:3).

The retired military officers who supported him contributed 400 million Naira for his electoral bid (Enemuo, 1999: 5). The PDP remained united despite the acrimony that accompanied his emergence as its presidential flag bearer and went ahead to exploit the crisis within the APP as some of its leading figures like Olusola Saraki and Emmanuel Iwuanyanwu supported his candidacy (Enemuo, 1999: 5).

6. Conclusion

This paper examined civil-military relations within the context of the previous attempts at transiting from military rule to civilian rule from the eve of Nigeria's independence to the period 1998/1999. It concludes that a combination of factors both internal and external to the military establishment, in various degrees, have shaped the genesis, direction and outcomes of the Abubakar transition in 1998 and 1999. It is also established that the military's withdrawal from mainstream politics was characterised by the emergence of a 'pro-democratic' military leadership. The fear of factionalism and continued political turmoil in the country greatly shaped the orientation of such military leaders. Their worldviews converged with domestic and the international agitations. The latter on the other hand, imposed certain conditions regarding democratic governance in its economic relations with the Nigerian state. This implies that the transition was a product of many overlapping forces.

In essence, the transition was made possible by an aggregative agitation of domestic and external forces within the context of a political caveat nurtured and executed by the departing military regime and its allies in the civilian realms. The transition was carefully arranged and calculated to ensure the emergence of a civil leadership that was fairly acceptable to a wide section of interest groups that cut across the military, civilian and international divides. That was what ensured the success of the Obasanjo political regime because of his unique role in agitating for a smooth political transition from the military regime to the civilian rule.

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Part Two
Social Psychology



Variability in Flood Sensitivity: A Household-Based Perception Study in Lagos Metropolis Nigeria

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Abstract. Climate change has severe impact and one of such is incessant flooding with complex and far-reaching consequences on humans, the natural and built environment. While different flood types and impact are evident in many countries, little is known about the impact of each flood type on households. Based on this gap, this study seeks to understand the variation in flood sensitivity at household level in Lagos metropolis, Nigeria. This evolved a question of whether statistically significant variations exist in pluvial, fluvial and coastal flood sensitivity in Lagos Metropolis, Nigeria by delineating spatial zones based on different flood types. Stratified random and systematic sampling techniques are used for data collection through questionnaire survey from 512 selected households. The data collected were analysed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with the Levene Statistic serving as a pre-test of homogeneity of variance and the Tukey HSD of multiple comparison as a post hoc test. Findings showed that the sensitivity to flood was higher in males than females and the low income earners in all the flood zones. Observing similar flood exposure, the aggregate results indicate no statistically significant difference in flood sensitivity across the zones as the p-values are greater than the significant level of 0.05. It is concluded that households that have experienced surface, river and surge flood expressed similar perception of impact to these flood types in Lagos metropolis.

Keywords: Disaster Management, Climate Change, Coastal Flood, Urbanisation Impact, Environmental Hazard and Risk

1. Introduction

Flood is one of the challenges of climate change and has been the subject of investigation in different climes. In the literature (Lankao & Tribbia, 2009; Cardona et al., 2012; Tauzer et al., 2019; Zischg & Bermúdez, 2020), consideration has been given to

exposure and sensitivity metrics in the assessment of flood impact. Generally, exposure is defined as “the nature and degree to which a system is exposed to significant climatic variations” while sensitivity is “the degree to which a system is affected, either adversely or beneficially, by climate-related stimuli (IPCC, 2001, p. 995). Adapting these definitions, exposure defines the contact between flood hazard and social-ecological systems. It is assessed through the inventory of available human population and economic assets in locations where the flood events are possible. On the other hand, sensitivity describes the level of harms posed by flood events as experienced by the exposed human population and assets. Thus, while people living in flood risks zones are exposed, their sensitivity differs by the degree of flood impact experienced. Whereas, it is this sensitivity that determines the level and severe of flood impact.

Worldwide, flood impact has complex and far-reaching consequences on humans, the natural and built environment (WHO, 2002; Hajat et al., 2005; Olajuyigbe et al., 2012; Dutta & Herath, 2014; Liu & Xia, 2016; Leis & Kienberger, 2020; Dube et al., 2021; Ishiwatari & Sasaki, 2021; Lucas, 2021; Ritter et al., 2021). The immediate consequences include drowning, physical injuries, death, loss of economic goods and property as well as damages to infrastructure. Beyond the immediate are emotional and psychological problems such as anxiety, depression and mental disorders; and communicable diseases such as malaria, typhoid and cholera in which some eventually lead to death. The extent of flood impact has been studied considering among different socioeconomic groups comprising gender, age, income and ethnicity. The impact of flood was highly observed among women, children and elderly, ethnic minorities, low income earners and physically-challenged.

Whilst flood events are evident in Nigeria, Lagos State has been the focal point of most studies (Olajuyigbe et al., 2012; Oyekale, 2013; Wahab et al., 2014; Nkwunonwo et al., 2016; Oladele, 2018; Wahab & Ojelowo, 2018; Olanrewaju et al., 2019). The reason being that Lagos State which is a political, administrative and spatial entity in Southwestern Nigeria has been experiencing flood over the years due to natural and man-made causes (Nkwunonwo et al., 2016). The natural cause is due to the geographical nature of the State as it is located on a low-lying land occupied by ocean, seas, lagoons, creeks and rivers. These water bodies and wetlands both account for 78 per cent of the entire land mass of the State (Lagos State Government, 2014). The man-made cause pertains to increasing urbanisation in the State. High population and resulting human activities have brought about significant impact as land use/land cover change, pollution and climate change with dysfunctional effects on the ecosystem (Wahab & Ojelowo, 2018; Olanrewaju et al., 2019). Evident are wetland losses in the State due to large built up areas and activities like sea dredging; land reclamation through filling up of swamps and floodplains; and destruction of mangroves and wetlands.

The joint effects of natural forces due to the presence of water bodies and urbanisation process make the State susceptible to surface, river and surge floods (Adelekan & Asiyanni, 2016; Nkwunonwo et al., 2016). These are otherwise known as pluvial, fluvial and coastal floods respectively (Maddox, 2014). The pluvial flood is caused when heavy rainfall submerges the dry land independent of an overflowing water body. Fluvial flood is associated with intense and excessive rainfall with long duration which causes the water body to exceed its capacity. Coastal flood is attributed to areas that lie on the coast of seas or oceans and it is caused by extreme tidal conditions resulting from sensitive weather. Pluvial flood occurs in upland areas of Lagos State due to heavy rainfall over a short time independent of overflows from any surrounding water bodies. As for river flood, it occurs in river plains due to the river overflowing its bank due increased in water volume because of intense rainfall or other water bodies flowing into it, among other factors. Coastal flood happens in coastal areas of the State as storm surges displaced ocean and sea water into surrounding areas.

Studies have similarly shown that different types of flood are peculiar to some LGAs in Lagos State to their geography. Each flood occurrence in different forms of impact in terms of death tolls, affected persons and property losses have been documented (Etuonovbe, 2011; Gelleh et al., 2016; Nkwunonwo

et al., 2016; Adewara et al., 2018). Nkwunonwo et al. (2016) presented a tabulated summary of flood events and impact from 1968 to 2012. Information from other sources also showed evidence. According to Akanni and Bilesanmi (2011), areas such as Ikoyi, Lekki and Victoria Island experienced coastal flood which was exacerbated by torrential rainfall in July 2011. Oyinloye et al. (2013) stated that in 2012, both coastal and fluvial flood occurred in Lagos State due to torrential rainfall which caused sea level rise in Atlantic Ocean, thereby causing the lagoons to rise and spread into flood risk areas of River Ogun. LGAs like Kosofe was affected due the release of water from Oyan dam as well as heavy rainfall, blockage of drainages and climatic factors. In 2017, areas in Lagos State that witnessed pluvial flood included mushin, Ogba, Agege and Ojoduwere while areas such as Lekki and Ajah witnessed coastal flood (Ayedun et al., 2018). While these different flood types are evident, little is known about their individual impact on households which depend on their exposure and sensitivity. Based on this gap, with evidence of similar exposure of households to flooding, this study seeks to understand the variation in the sensitivity to pluvial, fluvial and coastal floods in Lagos Metropolis, Nigeria.

2. Methods

This study was conducted in Lagos Metropolis that comprises sixteen local government areas (LGAs) out of the twenty LGAs in Lagos State (Fig. 1). Lagos Metropolis therefore forms the largest urban agglomeration in the State. This research is a cross-sectional study that commenced in April 2019 and ended in September of the same year. A stratified random sampling technique was employed in the selection of the LGAs where data were collected from households. The background knowledge is that all the 16 LGAs are affected by different types of flood during the raining season yearly and households are exposed to this hazard. Owing to the peculiarity of the objective of this study, the LGAs were at first stratified into homogenous zones based the dominant flood types. Two LGAs were selected from zones apiece using simple random sampling technique. These are Alimosho and Agege LGAs in the pluvial zone, Ikeja and Kosofe LGAs in the fluvial zone, and Apapa and Lagos Island in the coastal zone. Information from available studies (Wahab et al., 2014; Wahab & Ojelowo, 2018) provided the number of existing streets, flood-risk streets and buildings in the Metropolis. Using the information, a total of 512 buildings were selected based on systematic sampling for household questionnaire survey (Table 1). One household from

each building were administered the questionnaire, making up 512 respondents from whom the questionnaires were retrieved.

The questionnaire contained socioeconomic characteristics (gender, age, occupation and income) of respondents and three sensitivity scales that were developed using 5-point Likert scale (1 – Not Sensitive at All; 2 – Not Sensitive; 3 – Moderate; 4 – Sensitive; 5 – Very Sensitive). These are the Human Health Scale (HUHS), Personal Property Scale (PEPS), and Public Property Scale (PUPS). The data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS 26 (Statistical Product and Service Solutions). The cross tabulation makes up the descriptive statistics and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) the inferential statistics. The Levene Statistic served as a pre-test of homogeneity of variance and the Tukey HSD of multiple comparison served as the post hoc test. ANOVA test is likewise referred to as the Fisher analysis of variance (F). It is the main inferential statistic in this study that is used for hypothesis testing and is based on the F-distribution. ANOVA in its true sense is used in comparing whether there is significant variation in treatment or group means. In using ANOVA test, parametric test assumption in which the data contained by the dependent variables must exist on either interval or ratio level of measurement and the independent variables contained data on nominal level of measurement must be met. The test therefore applies to two quantitative datasets whereby one is categorical or grouped and the other is continuous. The types comprise one-way or factor ANOVA, two-way or factor ANOVA or multiple ANOVA depending upon the type and arrangement of the data. As mathematically expressed in the following equations, the one-way ANOVA was employed in this study.

Where,

F = ANOVA Coefficient

MST = Mean sum of squares due to treatment

MSE = Mean sum of squares due to error

MST is expressed as:

Where,

SST = Sum of squares due to treatment

K = Total number of groups

N = Total number of samples in a population.

MSE is expressed as:

Where,

SSE= Sum of squares due to error

S = Standard deviation of the samples

N = Total number of observations or populations

For the cross-tabulation analysis, flood sensitivity was an aggregate measure of all the variables in the three sensitivity scales and was also determined on the level of high and low sensitivity. The primary null hypothesis is that no statistically significant difference exists in flood sensitivity across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones in Lagos Metropolis. However, this was tested on the basis of the indices computed from the composite scoring of variables disaggregated based on each sensitivity scale. The computed indices are the Human Health Index (HUHI), Personal Property index (PEPI), and Public Property index (PUPI). Three null hypotheses were then formulated as follows:

Ho1: There is no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to human health across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones in Lagos Metropolis.

Ho2: There is no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to personal property across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones in Lagos Metropolis.

Ho3: There is no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to public property across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones in Lagos Metropolis.

3. Results

The results in Table 2 provide very useful descriptive statistics about the mean scores, standard deviations, 95% confidence intervals and the ranges of the datasets (maximum-minimum) for flood sensitivity to human health, personal property and public property across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones. The mean scores are descriptively considered similar. However, what is required is the measure of statistical significance of these mean scores. Down the lane is test of homogeneity of variances determined using the Levene Statistics which further compares the median scores. The results (Table 3) show all the p-values to be greater than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). These show equality of variances for households' flood sensitivity to human health, personal property and public property across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones (that is, no significant difference in their variances). The Table 4 is the output of the ANOVA analysis. It is required to understand whether any statistically significant difference exist between the group means as indicated by the three hypotheses of study. All the hypotheses were test at a level of significance of 0.05

($\alpha = 0.05$). The first hypothesis (Ho1) being tested shows that there is no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to human health across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,509) = 1.240$, $p = .290$). The second hypothesis (Ho2) also shows there is no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to personal property and public property across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,509) = .151$, $p = .860$). The third hypothesis (Ho3) also shows there is no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to public property across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,509) = .947$, $p = .389$).

If this is the case, could there be significance between paired flood zones? This is later determined using the post-hoc which is the Tukey test as equality of variance has earlier on been confirmed. Although, some studies have restricted proceeding to the post-hoc test, if the ANOVA result is not significant, others suggested that continuing with the post-hoc test, for two reasons: (i) the ANOVA and post-hoc tests are not the same statistics, so they are achieving different objective; and (ii) there might be variation within pair of sample groups, which might not have been detected when other sample groups are involved. Furthering the analysis to post-hoc test, the results are presented in Table 5. For the first hypothesis, the Tukey post hoc test reveals no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to human health between the pluvial and fluvial ($p = .698$), pluvial and coastal zones ($p = .640$), as well as fluvial and coastal zones ($p = .260$). For the second hypothesis, the Tukey post hoc test reveals no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to personal property between the pluvial and fluvial ($p = .859$), pluvial and coastal zones ($p = .930$), as well as fluvial and coastal zones ($p = .982$). For the third hypothesis, the Tukey post hoc test reveals no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity to public property between the pluvial and fluvial ($p = .608$), pluvial and coastal zones ($p = .397$), as well as fluvial and coastal zones ($p = .967$). In general, the results for all the flood zones therefore indicate no statistically significant difference in households' flood sensitivity across the zones as the p-values are greater than the significant level of 0.05. While the claim is assertive as no statistically significant differences exist between pairs as indicated by the post hoc test. These results as the same when the observed variables under the descriptive composite scores were subject to test (Tables 6-11).

4. Discussion

Lagos State has a long history of flood occurrences while many were basically disasters because by international standard, the events answered to any of the four criteria provided by CRED (2011) which are: ten or more human deaths; 100 affected persons; declaration of a state of emergency; or a call for international assistance. As such, there were occurrences of deaths and damages to property such as land, buildings, vehicles, farmlands and investments as well as critical infrastructure including electricity, water supply and bridges. Nkwunonwo et al. (2016) provided some documentations on many of the flood events and their impacts in Lagos State. Based on these documentations and several others, the types of flood across various area in Lagos metropolitan areas were determined and those areas delineated into pluvial, fluvial and coastal flood-risk and -disaster zones.

Having similarly exposure to flooding as an extreme climate event, the perception of households of each zone on flood sensitivity to their personal and community lives provides great insights. In all the flood zones, it is generally established that flood negatively affects the respondents in terms of their health, personal property and public property at varying degree of sensitivity. The health issues were related to loss of lives, illnesses and diseases such as malaria and typhoid. Personal property comprised buildings, livestock and vehicles while public infrastructure included roads, drainages and electricity. Considering respondents' socioeconomic vulnerability, their socioeconomic attributes were related to the perceived sensitivity of flood. The sensitivity of flood was higher in males than females. The sensitivity of flood was also higher among the poor who are basically the low income earners. Although these were the cases in all the zones, they were more evident in the pluvial and fluvial zones compared to the coastal zone. This implies that high poverty increases people's sensitivity to disaster which in this case is flood as it is the highest driver of vulnerability in this location. These results agree with some studies (Odunuga et al., 2012; Zou & Thomalla, 2008; Nkwunonwo et al., 2015; de Almeida & Mostafavi, 2016; Nkwunonwo & Ugonna, 2016) in Nigeria and other climes but which have individually studied each flood type.

In the result section, it is established that the sensitivity of households to flood in the pluvial zone is not significantly different from that in the fluvial and coastal zones. It is good to remember that the sensitivity assessment or evaluation is perceptual (subjective) and not actual (objective) measurement.

Only the experiences and feelings of losses of the households are reflected and contextualised. If an objective assessment were made, the results might likely be different. Nevertheless, the results of this study have been able to prove that the measure of loss is likely to be the same among households that live with flood and is independent of the areas they live or flood types they are exposed to. To put things in perspective, is to consider individuals or households that lost their only means of livelihood to flood. Although these could be petty trades such as small farmlands or farm produce businesses, the victims are likely to be more grieved than those who lost one of their many vehicles to flood even if the cost implication is much more than those of the petty trades. This kind of scenario might have played out confounding the results across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal zones, therefore resulting into the significant difference in flood sensitivity established by the results of this study. Further studies might therefore seek to understand the influence of experience and emotions in the evaluation of sensitivity of different flood types.

5. Conclusion

This study has considered the sensitivity of households to different flood types in Lagos

Metropolis. The sensitivity to flood in the metropolitan area were attributed to human health, personal property and public problem. The flood sensitivity attributes were descriptively related to the socioeconomic characteristics of respondents. The households’ sensitivity to flood was higher in males than females and the low income earners in all the flood zones. Further, the literature establishes households’ exposure and sensitivity to flood as measures of flood impact. As households’ exposure to flood in the delineated zones is similar and no variability exit in their sensitivity to flood in these zones, the impact as perceived by households is therefore not significantly different across the pluvial, fluvial and coastal flood zones. It is therefore concluded that households that have experienced surface, river and surge flood expressed the similar perception of impact of losses to these flood types in the metropolis. Emphasis is then laid on the descriptive results of this study, particular regarding the situation of the low socioeconomic group. This study therefore recommends flood mitigation strategies and responses in all the zones and priority should be given to the households belonging the low socioeconomic class in the different flood zones in the disbursement of limited government resources.

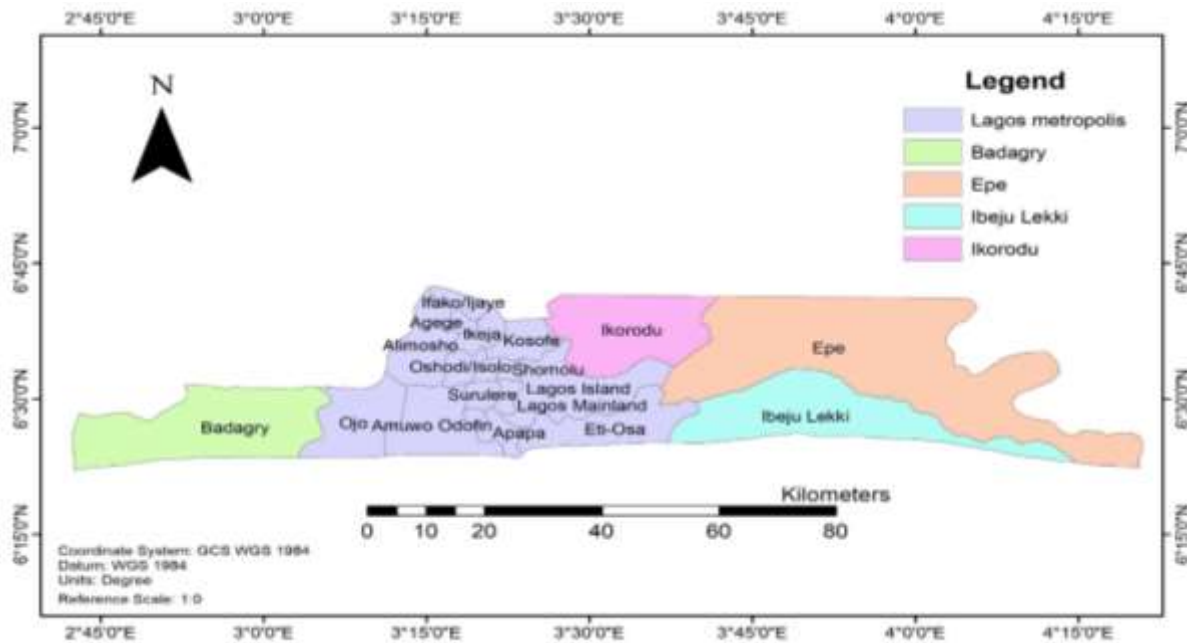


Fig. 1: Local Government Areas in Lagos State

Table 1: Sample Frame and Sample Size in Flood Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Flood Zone	Streets	Flood-risk streets	Selected flood-risk streets	Buildings on selected flood-risk streets	Buildings sampled
Pluvial	1985	355	27	1708	213
Fluvial	600	107	23	1053	132
Coastal	470	83	24	1332	167
Total	3055	546	74	4093	512

Table 2: Descriptive Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity across Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% CI for Mean		Min	Max	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Human Health Index	Pluvial	213	3.4110	.42955	.02943	3.3530	3.4690	2.82	4.27
	Fluvial	132	3.3712	.44124	.03841	3.2952	3.4472	2.82	4.27
	Coastal	167	3.4524	.46429	.03593	3.3814	3.5233	2.82	4.27
Personal Property Index	Total	512	3.4142	.44435	.01964	3.3757	3.4528	2.82	4.27
	Pluvial	213	3.1062	.57853	.03964	3.0281	3.1844	2.25	3.88
	Fluvial	132	3.1402	.60690	.05282	3.0357	3.2446	2.25	3.88
Public Property Index	Coastal	167	3.1280	.56687	.04387	3.0414	3.2146	2.25	3.88
	Total	512	3.1221	.58127	.02569	3.0716	3.1725	2.25	3.88
	Pluvial	213	3.2638	.28394	.01946	3.2255	3.3022	2.70	3.80
Index	Fluvial	132	3.2348	.25740	.02240	3.1905	3.2792	2.70	3.80
	Coastal	167	3.2269	.27756	.02148	3.1845	3.2694	2.70	3.80
	Total	512	3.2443	.27521	.01216	3.2204	3.2682	2.70	3.80

Table 3: Levene Statistic Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity across Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Variables	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Human Health Index	1.668	2	509	.190
Personal Property Index	1.823	2	509	.163
Public Property Index	1.476	2	509	.229

Table 4: ANOVA Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity across Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Variables		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Human Health Index	Between Groups	.489	2	.245	1.240	.290
	Within Groups	100.406	509	.197		
	Total	100.896	511			
Personal Property Index	Between Groups	.103	2	.051	.151	.860
	Within Groups	172.549	509	.339		
	Total	172.652	511			
Public Property Index	Between Groups	.143	2	.072	.947	.389
	Within Groups	38.560	509	.076		
	Total	38.704	511			

Table 5: Tukey HSD Summary of Multiple Comparisons in Lagos Metropolis

Dependent Variable	(I) Flood Zone	(J) Flood Zone	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Human Health Index	Pluvial	Fluvial	.03980	.04920	.698	-.0758	.1554
		Coastal	-.04136	.04591	.640	-.1493	.0665
	Fluvial	Pluvial	-.03980	.04920	.698	-.1554	.0758
		Coastal	-.08116	.05173	.260	-.2027	.0404
	Coastal	Pluvial	.04136	.04591	.640	-.0665	.1493
		Fluvial	.08116	.05173	.260	-.0404	.2027
Personal Property Index	Pluvial	Fluvial	-.03393	.06450	.859	-.1855	.1177
		Coastal	-.02177	.06018	.930	-.1632	.1197
	Fluvial	Pluvial	.03393	.06450	.859	-.1177	.1855
		Coastal	.01216	.06781	.982	-.1472	.1715
	Coastal	Pluvial	.02177	.06018	.930	-.1197	.1632
		Fluvial	-.01216	.06781	.982	-.1715	.1472
Public Property Index	Pluvial	Fluvial	.02900	.03049	.608	-.0427	.1007
		Coastal	.03690	.02845	.397	-.0300	.1038
	Fluvial	Pluvial	-.02900	.03049	.608	-.1007	.0427
		Coastal	.00790	.03206	.967	-.0674	.0833
	Coastal	Pluvial	-.03690	.02845	.397	-.1038	.0300
		Fluvial	-.00790	.03206	.967	-.0833	.0674

Table 6: Descriptive Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity to Human Health across Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Variables		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% CI for Mean		Min	Max
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Incidence of human death	Pluvial	213	3.00	1.135	.078	2.84	3.15	1	5
	Fluvial	132	2.93	1.043	.091	2.75	3.11	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.09	1.113	.086	2.92	3.26	1	5
	Total	512	3.01	1.104	.049	2.91	3.11	1	5
Incidence of food poison/ contaminated food sources	Pluvial	213	3.23	1.516	.104	3.02	3.43	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.22	1.608	.140	2.94	3.50	1	5
	Coastal	167	2.95	1.582	.122	2.71	3.19	1	5
	Total	512	3.13	1.564	.069	3.00	3.27	1	5
Incidence of polluted water sources	Pluvial	213	3.71	1.431	.098	3.52	3.90	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.61	1.507	.131	3.35	3.87	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.68	1.415	.109	3.47	3.90	1	5
	Total	512	3.67	1.443	.064	3.55	3.80	1	5
Incidence of malaria	Pluvial	213	3.41	1.758	.120	3.17	3.65	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.38	1.745	.152	3.08	3.68	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.54	1.664	.129	3.28	3.79	1	5
	Total	512	3.44	1.723	.076	3.29	3.59	1	5
Incidence of cholera	Pluvial	213	3.31	1.476	.101	3.11	3.51	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.19	1.457	.127	2.94	3.44	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.49	1.405	.109	3.27	3.70	1	5
	Total	512	3.34	1.450	.064	3.21	3.46	1	5
Incidence of typhoid	Pluvial	213	3.62	1.108	.076	3.47	3.76	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.59	1.070	.093	3.41	3.78	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.50	1.052	.081	3.34	3.66	1	5
	Total	512	3.57	1.079	.048	3.48	3.67	1	5
Incidence of pink eyes	Pluvial	213	3.64	.877	.060	3.52	3.76	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.61	.853	.074	3.47	3.76	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.57	.991	.077	3.42	3.72	1	5
	Total	512	3.61	.908	.040	3.53	3.69	1	5
Incidence of dermatitis or skin diseases	Pluvial	213	3.75	.927	.064	3.62	3.87	2	5
	Fluvial	132	3.77	.915	.080	3.61	3.92	2	5
	Coastal	167	3.90	.811	.063	3.77	4.02	2	5
	Total	512	3.80	.889	.039	3.72	3.88	2	5
Incidence of hypertension	Pluvial	213	3.43	1.099	.075	3.28	3.58	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.37	1.135	.099	3.18	3.57	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.53	1.091	.084	3.37	3.70	1	5
	Total	512	3.45	1.106	.049	3.35	3.54	1	5
Psychological problems	Pluvial	213	3.10	1.354	.093	2.92	3.28	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.07	1.388	.121	2.83	3.31	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.27	1.301	.101	3.07	3.47	1	5
	Total	512	3.15	1.346	.059	3.03	3.26	1	5
Incidence of injuries	Pluvial	213	3.34	1.086	.074	3.20	3.49	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.35	1.026	.089	3.17	3.53	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.46	1.057	.082	3.29	3.62	1	5
	Total	512	3.38	1.061	.047	3.29	3.47	1	5

Table 7: Descriptive Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity to Personal Property across Zones

Variables		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% CI for Mean		Min	Max
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Damage to building structure	Pluvial	213	3.25	1.189	.081	3.09	3.41	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.21	1.192	.104	3.01	3.42	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.32	1.125	.087	3.15	3.49	1	5
	Total	512	3.26	1.168	.052	3.16	3.36	1	5
Damage to water supply utilities in the building	Pluvial	213	2.81	1.029	.071	2.67	2.95	1	5
	Fluvial	132	2.80	1.032	.090	2.62	2.97	1	5
	Coastal	167	2.83	1.045	.081	2.67	2.99	1	5
	Total	512	2.81	1.033	.046	2.72	2.90	1	5
Damage to electricity utilities in buildings	Pluvial	213	3.19	1.088	.075	3.05	3.34	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.26	1.067	.093	3.07	3.44	1	5
	Coastal	167	2.95	1.029	.080	2.79	3.11	1	5
	Total	512	3.13	1.069	.047	3.04	3.22	1	5
Damage to drainage utilities in the building	Pluvial	213	2.74	1.007	.069	2.61	2.88	1	5
	Fluvial	132	2.80	1.022	.089	2.63	2.98	1	5
	Coastal	167	2.85	1.128	.087	2.68	3.02	1	5
	Total	512	2.79	1.051	.046	2.70	2.88	1	5

Damage to sewerage in the building	Pluvial	213	3.22	1.293	.089	3.05	3.40	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.30	1.301	.113	3.08	3.53	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.33	1.355	.105	3.12	3.54	1	5
	Total	512	3.28	1.314	.058	3.16	3.39	1	5
Damage of vehicle	Pluvial	213	2.98	1.032	.071	2.84	3.12	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.05	.987	.086	2.88	3.22	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.03	1.100	.085	2.86	3.20	1	5
	Total	512	3.01	1.042	.046	2.92	3.10	1	5
Disruption of business	Pluvial	213	3.38	1.154	.079	3.23	3.54	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.47	1.094	.095	3.28	3.66	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.34	1.107	.086	3.17	3.51	1	5
	Total	512	3.39	1.123	.050	3.30	3.49	1	5
Death of Livestock	Pluvial	213	3.27	1.511	.104	3.06	3.47	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.23	1.543	.134	2.97	3.50	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.37	1.391	.108	3.16	3.58	1	5
	Total	512	3.29	1.479	.065	3.16	3.42	1	5

Table 8: Descriptive Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity to Public Property across Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% CI for Mean		Min	Max	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Community water supply disrupted	Pluvial	213	3.38	.912	.063	3.26	3.51	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.38	.904	.079	3.22	3.53	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.29	1.024	.079	3.13	3.44	1	5
	Total	512	3.35	.947	.042	3.27	3.43	1	5
Community electricity disrupted	Pluvial	213	3.35	1.079	.074	3.21	3.50	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.48	1.088	.095	3.30	3.67	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.50	1.113	.086	3.33	3.67	1	5
	Total	512	3.43	1.092	.048	3.34	3.53	1	5
Community roads damage/could not be plied	Pluvial	213	3.08	1.193	.082	2.92	3.24	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.01	1.287	.112	2.79	3.23	1	5
	Coastal	167	2.89	1.177	.091	2.71	3.07	1	5
	Total	512	3.00	1.213	.054	2.89	3.11	1	5
Community health care centres could not be accessed	Pluvial	213	3.11	.894	.061	2.99	3.23	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.11	.840	.073	2.96	3.25	1	5
	Coastal	167	2.99	.931	.072	2.85	3.13	1	5
	Total	512	3.07	.893	.039	2.99	3.15	1	5
Community drainage systems damaged	Pluvial	213	3.79	1.246	.085	3.63	3.96	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.71	1.201	.105	3.51	3.92	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.82	1.253	.097	3.63	4.01	1	5
	Total	512	3.78	1.235	.055	3.67	3.89	1	5
Community markets could not be accessed	Pluvial	213	3.13	1.004	.069	2.99	3.26	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.15	.977	.085	2.98	3.32	1	5
	Coastal	167	2.94	.929	.072	2.80	3.08	1	5
	Total	512	3.07	.976	.043	2.99	3.16	1	5
Community telecommunication networks disrupted	Pluvial	213	3.11	1.104	.076	2.96	3.26	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.02	1.070	.093	2.83	3.20	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.24	.995	.077	3.09	3.39	1	5
	Total	512	3.13	1.062	.047	3.03	3.22	1	5
Transport facilities damaged	Pluvial	213	3.20	1.157	.079	3.04	3.35	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.03	1.217	.106	2.82	3.24	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.03	1.229	.095	2.84	3.22	1	5
	Total	512	3.10	1.197	.053	3.00	3.20	1	5
Disruption of water bodies and catchments	Pluvial	213	3.00	1.057	.072	2.85	3.14	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.02	1.126	.098	2.82	3.21	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.04	1.008	.078	2.89	3.20	1	5
	Total	512	3.02	1.058	.047	2.92	3.11	1	5
Destruction of green infrastructure	Pluvial	213	3.49	.775	.053	3.38	3.59	1	5
	Fluvial	132	3.45	.755	.066	3.32	3.58	1	5
	Coastal	167	3.53	.751	.058	3.42	3.65	1	5
	Total	512	3.49	.761	.034	3.43	3.56	1	5

Table 9: ANOVA Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity to Human Health across Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Variables		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Incidence of human death	Between Groups	1.917	2	.958	.786	.456
	Within Groups	621.034	509	1.220		
	Total	622.951	511			
Incidence of food poison/contaminated food sources	Between Groups	8.273	2	4.136	1.696	.184
	Within Groups	1241.429	509	2.439		
	Total	1249.701	511			
Incidence of polluted water sources	Between Groups	.881	2	.441	.211	.810
	Within Groups	1063.648	509	2.090		
	Total	1064.529	511			
Incidence of malaria	Between Groups	2.335	2	1.168	.393	.676
	Within Groups	1514.022	509	2.975		
	Total	1516.357	511			
Incidence of cholera	Between Groups	6.692	2	3.346	1.595	.204
	Within Groups	1067.527	509	2.097		
	Total	1074.219	511			
Incidence of typhoid	Between Groups	1.237	2	.618	.530	.589
	Within Groups	594.090	509	1.167		
	Total	595.326	511			
Incidence of pink eyes	Between Groups	.518	2	.259	.313	.731
	Within Groups	421.136	509	.827		
	Total	421.654	511			
Incidence of dermatitis or skin diseases	Between Groups	2.381	2	1.190	1.510	.222
	Within Groups	401.299	509	.788		
	Total	403.680	511			
Incidence of hypertension	Between Groups	2.075	2	1.037	.848	.429
	Within Groups	622.502	509	1.223		
	Total	624.576	511			
Psychological problems	Between Groups	3.823	2	1.912	1.055	.349
	Within Groups	922.190	509	1.812		
	Total	926.014	511			
Incidence of injuries	Between Groups	1.368	2	.684	.607	.545
	Within Groups	573.364	509	1.126		
	Total	574.732	511			

Table 10: ANOVA Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity to Personal Property across Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Variables		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Damage to building structure	Between Groups	.877	2	.439	.321	.726
	Within Groups	696.052	509	1.367		
	Total	696.930	511			
Damage to water supply utilities in the building	Between Groups	.102	2	.051	.048	.953
	Within Groups	545.271	509	1.071		
	Total	545.373	511			
Damage to electricity utilities in buildings	Between Groups	8.265	2	4.133	3.652	.027*
	Within Groups	575.967	509	1.132		
	Total	584.232	511			
Damage to drainage utilities in the building	Between Groups	1.120	2	.560	.506	.603
	Within Groups	562.934	509	1.106		
	Total	564.055	511			
Damage to sewerage in the building	Between Groups	1.223	2	.612	.353	.703
	Within Groups	881.394	509	1.732		
	Total	882.617	511			
Damage of vehicle	Between Groups	.402	2	.201	.184	.832
	Within Groups	554.502	509	1.089		
	Total	554.904	511			
Disruption of business	Between Groups	1.236	2	.618	.489	.613
	Within Groups	642.856	509	1.263		
	Total	644.092	511			
Death of Livestock	Between Groups	1.606	2	.803	.366	.694
	Within Groups	1116.448	509	2.193		
	Total	1118.055	511			

Table 11: ANOVA Summary of Households' Flood Sensitivity to Public Property across Zones in Lagos Metropolis

Variables		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community water supply disrupted	Between Groups	1.023	2	.511	.569	.567
	Within Groups	457.696	509	.899		
	Total	458.719	511			
Community electricity disrupted	Between Groups	2.432	2	1.216	1.019	.362
	Within Groups	607.310	509	1.193		
	Total	609.742	511			
Community roads damage/could not be plied	Between Groups	3.305	2	1.652	1.123	.326
	Within Groups	748.695	509	1.471		
	Total	752.000	511			
Community health care centres could not be accessed	Between Groups	1.682	2	.841	1.055	.349
	Within Groups	405.787	509	.797		
	Total	407.469	511			
Community drainage systems damaged	Between Groups	.918	2	.459	.300	.741
	Within Groups	778.582	509	1.530		
	Total	779.500	511			
Community markets could not be accessed	Between Groups	4.378	2	2.189	2.312	.100
	Within Groups	481.948	509	.947		
	Total	486.326	511			
Community telecommunication networks disrupted	Between Groups	3.843	2	1.921	1.707	.182
	Within Groups	572.905	509	1.126		
	Total	576.748	511			
Transport facilities damaged	Between Groups	3.473	2	1.736	1.213	.298
	Within Groups	728.447	509	1.431		
	Total	731.920	511			
Disruption of water bodies and catchments	Between Groups	.203	2	.102	.091	.913
	Within Groups	571.672	509	1.123		
	Total	571.875	511			
Destruction of green infrastructure	Between Groups	.550	2	.275	.474	.623
	Within Groups	295.418	509	.580		
	Total	295.969	511			

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Perception of Social Media Credibility and Health Information seeking Behaviour: A Cross-Sectional Online Survey of Youths in South West Nigeria

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Abstract. There is a growing need to understand the credibility of social media especially in relation to users' health information seeking behaviour. The social media provide unprecedented level of information on diverse matters, including health, to the youths since they have difficulties accessing traditional health services. This study, therefore, investigated the relationship between perception of social media credibility and health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria. The study was anchored on source credibility theory, while adopting a cross-sectional survey and focus group discussion (FGD) as research designs. Non-probability convenient, purposive and snow ball sampling procedures were used in selecting (n=407) respondents who participated in the survey and (n=48) discussants who took part in the FGD. Results revealed that respondents are very active in their search for health information on social media. Results also showed that there is a significant relationship between perception of social media and health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria. It is also recommended that relevant government regulatory agencies should develop clear policy frameworks and guidelines that will ensure that both governmental and non-governmental health organizations/institutions leverage on the potentials of social media in their provision of medicare. These are expected to enhance robust medical coverage with better health outcomes for all patients, especially the youths.

Keywords: Social media, credibility of social media, youths, health information seeking behaviour, South West Nigeria, perception

1. Introduction

The advent of Web 2.0 which features social media sites has altered the global public square of information which hitherto was the exclusive

preserve of the traditional news media. The arrival of digital media precipitated an influx of user-generated contents which seemed to compete with contents from the mainstream media in terms of speed of dissemination, ease of accessibility, ubiquity of use and limitless information (Jack cited in Salaudeen & Onyechi, 2020). Social media platforms have emerged as the leading communication channels, as well as information resources, which allow users to connect and to share information in a ubiquitous and easily accessible manner (Hong cited in Keshavarz, 2020).

Today's youths have grown up with the influence of technology, especially Internet (Fauzi & Kadir, 2015). Generally, youths are considered to be social media savvy and the Nigeria youths are not left out in this social media frenzy. Nche cited by Omotayo and Folorunso (2020:134) succinctly captures it by asserting that "in the manner of a wildfire in harmattan, the phenomenon of social media (networking) has spread to all nooks and crannies of Nigeria, engulfing a large number of her youths and that social media usage has become so common among the youths, that it has become unfashionable for youths not to engage in at least one of the social networking sites." Nnamonu cited by the same authors sees the Internet as the chief host of social media sites, while the youths are the most predominant clients. The prevalence of social media among this cohort is no more in doubt as they continue to be "submerged" in the super high way of technology.

The gratifications people derive from their media exposure will largely determine their future exposure patterns. One of the most frequent information sought on the Internet by youths is health and health related issues (Fauzi & Kadir, 2015). Health information seeking behavior refers to ways through which people obtain information about health,

diseases, health promotion, and health threatening behaviors, such as high-risk behaviors (Lalazaryan, Zare-Farashbandi, Rahimi & Hassanzadeh cited by Esmaeilzadeh, Ashrafi-rizi, Shahrzadi & Mostafavi, 2018). Youths naturally gravitate towards the internet (including social media) since it offers them confidential and convenient access to an unprecedented level of information about a diverse range of subjects, including health (Gray, Klein, Noyce & Sesselberg, 2005, Gray & Klein, 2006). Furthermore, health information seeking behaviour by the youths on the social media might be explained by Gray et al's. (2005) observation of the obvious difficulties this cohort encounter in accessing traditional health services.

Beyond these limitless opportunities, practitioners, scholars and other media stakeholders have continued to express concerns on the issue of fake news, hate speech, misinformation, etc. dominating social media platforms. These concerns call to question the issue of social media credibility. According to Onyechi and Adeitan (2019) media source and message credibility continue to dominate discussions by researchers since the introduction of digital media. For this reason and considering the huge daily patronage by those who forage for news, interrogating the credibility of the sources of information, information itself and medium constitute a fundamental issue or concern (Oyero, 2013, Marco & Pasi, 2017, Osong & Egba, 2020) and this has also assumed new social relevance and historical urgency (Salaudeen & Onyechi, 2020). For instance, the quality and trustworthiness of health information on the internet has been consistently queried (Gray et al., 2005, Marar, Al-Madaney & Almousawi, 2019, Maitz et al., 2020). Maitz et al. (2020) have alleged that commercial sites, discussion lists, online support groups, newsgroups and social media frequently provide, misleading information, poor quality or even false health information.

Despite an increased awareness of the issue of credibility of social media, evidence-based researches to enhance better understanding of youths' perception of social media credibility in their health information seeking behaviour are still lacking. Attention on this cohort is critical since according to Manganello (2008), youths as well as adolescents are at a crucial stage of development and learning skills, they will carry with them into adulthood. This study, therefore, investigated perception of social media credibility and health information seeking behaviour among youths in south west Nigeria.

The source credibility theory propounded by Hovland, Janis and Kelly in 1953 provided the

theoretical underpinning for this study. The theory states that people or receivers are more likely to be persuaded when the source presents itself as credible (Umeogu, 2012). The assumption of the theory is that the more credible a source is the more likely receivers will believe the information and vice versa. This study, therefore, argues that the more credible that youths perceive social media, the more likely they will seek health information from the social media platforms. Furthermore, Hovland et al. identified the factors or elements that positively influence source credibility: perceived expertise and trustworthiness of the source. Hovland et al. described the influence of perceived expertise and trustworthiness on how people process information and create attitudes (Lamm, Owens, Telg, Ricky & Lamm, 2016). Researchers have focused on these and other factors or elements in their studies. For instance, some studies found that the perception of the information source credibility is affected by source expertise and trustworthiness (Fan & Sun, 2012; Luo et al., 2015; Pan, 2014, Levy & Gvili, 2015; Lim & Van Der Heide, 2015; Willemsen et al., 2012 all cited by Ismagilova, Slade, Rana et al., 2020). The study by Hu(2015) found that source credibility is influenced by multi-dimensional factors such as competence, trustworthiness, social tie, attractiveness, dynamism, and technology affordance (Hu, 2015,iii). However, this present study focused on only expertise and trustworthiness in assessing youths' perception of social media credibility as source of health information.

This study addressed the following research questions:

- What is the perception of social media credibility among youths in South West Nigeria?
- What type of health information do youths in South West Nigeria access on social media?
- What is the relationship between perceived credibility of social media and health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria?
- Is there any significant relationship between some demographic factors and health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria?

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Study Designs

This study adopted a mixed method that employed both survey and focus group discussion (FGD) approaches. A cross-sectional online survey was adopted in order to easily reach a great and diverse youth population across south west Nigeria. The FGD, a qualitative approach, was also adopted in order to elicit detailed information as well as gain a deep understanding of the issue under investigation.

2.2 Participants

The 2019 Nigeria's National Youth Policy definition of youths as young people within the ages of 18 and 35 years. The inclusion criteria are youths who are within the ages of 18 and 35 years and are on social media platforms. The exclusion criterion are youths who meet the age qualification but are not on any social media. Consequently, participants who took part in this study were between the ages of 18 and 35 years old and who are on any social media account. Participation in the study was voluntary. There was no form of compulsion on the participants and their withdrawal right at any point in the course of the study was also respected. Participants were only drawn from the south west part of the country.

2.3 Sampling procedure and sample size

Considering that this study is a web-survey, non-probability convenient, purposive and snow ball sampling procedures were employed for the selection of the participants. It was convenient for this researcher to purposively select youths who are on social media platforms. Through the deployment of snow ball sampling approach, this researcher leveraged on her social media contacts and other youth social media groups in selecting those who participated in the study. Those who already filled the questionnaire were encouraged to send the questionnaire to their contacts. In order to discourage multiple entries, submission of completed questionnaire automatically disallowed any further access to the Google form. A total of four hundred and seven (407) responses were received when the instrument was taken down. The total sample size for the survey was 407 while FGD sample size was 48.

2.4 Data Collection

The questionnaire was launched online on the 9th of September, 2022 and taken down on the 30th of September, 2022. Data collection for the survey, therefore, lasted three (3) weeks. The FGD sessions were held at two (2) major cities (Lagos and Ibadan) in south western Nigeria. The selection of the cities was based on the fact that the cities present a good

opportunity to select good representation of the youth population. The researcher used her discretion to arrive at such decision. A total of eight (8) sessions were held while four (4) sessions were held in each city. There were six (6) discussants in each session making a total of forty-eight (48) discussants. Data collection for the FGD lasted for one week in both Lagos and Ibadan.

2.5 Method of statistical analysis

In order to analyze the quantitative data, descriptive statistics expressed in simple percentages and frequency counts were adopted. Furthermore, spearman rho and chi square were used in order to establish relationship among the variables. The qualitative data generated from the focus group discussion were transcribed while excerpts that represented the opinions of the discussants were utilized in the analysis of the data.

2.6 Measures

In order to generate data for the survey and the FGD, questionnaire and FGD guide respectively were utilized. The FGD guide has a total of eleven (11) questions. The questions on the FGD guide focused on these key issues namely the patterns of social media exposure, online health information seeking behaviour as well as perception of social media credibility. The questionnaire has three (3) sections and a total of twenty (24) questions. These sections are discussed hereunder.

2.7 Demographics

Information on their demographics was sought by asking the respondents to respond to their sex, age, level of education and religious affiliation.

2.8 Online Health Information Seeking Behaviour (HISB)

To probe into their online health information seeking behaviour, respondents' opinions were sought on the type of health information they access from the social media, frequency of accessing such information, what social media platform they prefer to access the information, social media platforms they seek health information on, preference for sources of health posts. Furthermore, respondents' opinions were sought on trust and usefulness of health information derived from the social media, barriers encountered in accessing such information and the most important reason(s) for searching for health information from the social media.

2.9 Perception of Social Media Credibility

In order to investigate their perception of social media credibility, questions asked focused on the trustworthiness and expertise of sources of health information on social media platforms. They were asked, “how much trust do you have in the

information you get from social media?”, “do you sometimes or always confirm with other sources (such as medical personnel, friends, family members, etc) any information from the social media before using it?”, “do you believe most of the information from the social media or careful in believing most of the information?”, “how credible would you describe social media?”.

3. Data analysis

3.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 1 focuses on the socio-demographic information of the respondents and shows that majority of the respondents who participated in the study (n=265; 65.1%) are females, (n=124; 30.5%) were within the age bracket 21-25 years old , (n=229; 56.3%) were HND/BSC holders and (n=360; 88.5%) are Christians.

Table 1: Socio-demographic information of the respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency (%)
Sex	Male	142 (34.9%)
	Female	265 (65.1%)
	Total	407 (100%)
Age range	18 - 20 yrs	103 (25.3%)
	21 - 25 yrs	124 (30.5%)
	26 - 30 yrs	94 (23.1%)
	31 - 35 yrs	86 (21.1%)
	Total	407 (100%)
Level of education	WASSCE	83 (20.4%)
	NCE/OND	23 (5.7%)
	HND/BSC	229 (56.3%)
	MSC/PHD	62 (15.2%)
	B.A in view	1 (0.2%)
	Undergraduate	9 (2.2%)
	Total	407 (100%)
Religious Affiliation	Christian	360 (88.5%)
	Moslem	46 (11.3%)
	Traditionalist	1 (0.2%)
	Total	407 (100%)

3.2 Perception of Social Media Credibility

Youths’ perception of credibility of social media is low as shown on Table 2. Majority (n=218; 53.6%) of the respondents perceived the social media as having low credibility while (n=189; 46.4) of the respondents perceived the social media as having high credibility. Specifically, their responses point to trust deficit as majority (n=232; 57%) of the respondents have less trust while the remaining (n=175; 43%) have much trust on the information they get from social media. It is not unlikely that because of the trust deficiency, majority of the respondents (n=350; 86.0%) said they are careful in believing most of the information from the social media while the remaining (n=57; 14.0%) believe most of the information from the social media. But what is surprising is that an overwhelming majority (n=392; 96.3%) rarely verifies the information they get from the social media.

Table2: Perception of social media credibility among the respondents

Category	Frequency	Percent
low credibility	218	53.6
high credibility	189	46.4
TOTAL	407	100

Majority of the youths who participated in the focus group were categorical in stating that social media credibility is always questionable because of its open access to all users. According to a discussant (20year old male undergraduate):

I won't say it is credible because it is a platform anybody comes to share anything they want to share. There is no way of verifying the authenticity of the information. I won't say it is credible. It is at users' risk.

Another discussant (19year old female undergraduate):

It is not totally credible. You can't depend on it. You have to verify so you don't fall into the wrong hand. You can't depend on the information you get from the social media platform without verification.

3.3 Online health information seeking behaviour (HISB)

Respondents are very active in their search for health information on social media. Table 3 shows that a total of (n=298;73.2%) are high online health information seekers while (n=105; 25.8%) are average online health information seekers. Only a negligible number (n=4; 1%) are low online health information seekers. On probing further, majority of the respondents(n=329;80.8%) said they will first search for health information on social media when the need arises. Furthermore, the result shows that many of the respondents (n= 323;79.4%) consider health information from the social media platforms somewhat very important while the remaining respondents(n=123;20.6%) believe that health information from the social media platforms is somewhat not very important. It is ironical that youths are very active in their search for health information on social media despite the fact that their perception of credibility of social media is low (as shown on Table 2)

Table 3: Online health information seeking behaviour among the respondents

Class	Frequency	Percent
Low information seekers	4	1.0
Average information seekers	105	25.8
High information seekers	298	73.2
Total	407	100

3.4 Type of health information searched for on social media

The study probed further into the type of health information they searched for on social media. They were at liberty to select as many as applicable. Result shows that many youths searched for mental, preventive and lifestyle health information on the social media. Specifically, majority (n=176;43.2%), (n=138; 33.9%) and (137; 33.7%) searched for mental, preventive and lifestyle health information respectively. Also sexual/reproductive health (n=130; 31.9%), wellness and nutrition (n=120; 29.5%), dental/oral health (n=86;21.1%) and others (21;5.2%) came in that order in their search for health information. Since earlier finding showed trust deficit, it is, therefore, not surprising that majority (n=267; 65.6%) and (n=104;25.6%) of the respondents found information they got not useful and not very useful respectively while (n=21;5.2%) and (n=15;3.7%) of them found the useful and very useful respectively. Similarly, finding reveals that (n=281;69%) rarely, (n=51; 12.5%) sometimes and (n=75;18.4%) always confirm with other sources (such as medical personnel, friends, family members, etc.) any health information from the social media before using it.

Many discussants identified the type of health information they search for on social media to include wellness, preventive and mental health information. This finding corroborates the result presented above.

3.5 Reasons for seeking health information on social media

In order to analyse the result, strongly agreed and agreed were merged together, the same was done for strongly disagreed and disagreed. The result (Table 4) shows that youths searched for health information on social media because it is accessible and convenient. Majority (n=337; 82.8%) of the respondents agreed that accessibility is a reason for searching for health information on the social media. Only a small number (n=37; 9.1%) disagreed that accessibility was a factor for searching for health information on the social media. Similar overwhelming majority (n= 334; 81.9%) agreed that they search for health information on social media because it is convenient. As shown on Table 2, the number of respondents who disagreed and are undecided on the issues of confidentiality and reliability as reasons for seeking health information on social media should not be ignored. A sizable number (n=72; 17.7%) disagreed that confidentiality was a reason for searching for health information on social media, while (n=66; 16.2%) was undecided on the issue. On reliability factor, those who disagreed (n=91; 22.4%) and undecided

(n=100; 24.6%) on the factor of reliability was also high. Large number of respondents (n=300; 73.8%) agreed that they seek information from the social media because response is always timely while only (n=67; 16.5%) disagreed with the statement. Also a large number of respondents (n= 311; 76.4%) said they seek health information from social media because it is easy to understand. Only a small number (n=48; 11.8%) disagreed with this statement. A total of (n=285; 70%) respondents agreed that the cost of seeking health information on social media is cheap.

Table 4: Reasons for seeking health information on social media

	Agreed	Undecided	Disagreed
I seek health information from the social media because it is very accessible	337(82.8%)	33 (8.1%)	37(9.1%)
I seek for health information from the social media because it is convenient	334 (81.9%)	32 (7.9%)	41(10.1%)
I seek health information from the social media because of the confidentiality it provides	269(66.1%)	66 (16.2%)	72 (17.7%)
I seek health information from the social media because response is always timely	300 (73.8%)	40 (9.8%)	67 (16.5%)
I seek health information from the social media because the information is easy to understand	311(76.4%)	48 (11.8%)	48(11.8%)
I seek health information from the social media because it is cheap	285(70%)	55 (13.5%)	67 (16.6%)
I seek health information from the social media because it is reliable	216(53.1%)	100 (24.6%)	91(22.4%)

Majority of those who took part in the FGD said that accessibility is a key factor when seeking health information on social media. Other reasons identified by the discussants include privacy, timeliness, speed and convenience.

One of the discussants (22 year old male) in his response summed up some of the reasons this way:

It is very easy to access like on demand, it's faster, uhm like they've said, it's faster than going to meet a professional or having to schedule a call with a professional and then there is privacy also, uhmm well, even that of the professionals is also private but it is not as private as online because you don't have to speak with anyone or ashamed if it is a kind of sexual or personal related, so you don't have to feel embarrassed when talking about the information or when getting the information, so it is easier to access and then it is faster and it is more private than offline.

3.6 Barriers encountered when searching for health information on social media

Inability to determine the appropriate health information that addresses their health need and absence of appropriate health information addressing their health issue were identified by majority of the youths as barriers encountered when searching for health information. Specifically, (n=167; 41%) were unable to determine the appropriate health information that addresses their health need while (n= 159; 39.1%) said that absence of appropriate health information addressing their health issues was a barrier (see Table 5). A total of (n=97; 23.8%) and (n=97; 23.8%) of respondents said network problem and fear of disclosing their sickness to others respectively constituted barriers to them. Other barriers include language barrier(n=55;13.5%), absence of electricity(n=42;10.3), inability to search for the health information that they need (n=32; 7. 9) and lack of fund to purchase data (n=49; 12%).

Table 5: Barriers encountered when searching for health information on social media

Barriers	Frequency	Percentage
Absence of appropriate health information addressing my health issue	159	39.07
Health information is not written in a simple understandable language	55	13.51
Network problem	97	23.83
Absence of electricity	42	10.32
Fear of disclosing my sickness to others	97	23.83
Inability to search for the health information that I need	32	7.86
Unable to determine the appropriate health information that addresses my health need	167	41.03
Lack of fund to purchase data	49	12.04

The focus group discussants identified network problem, fake news/information and information overload (in that order) as the major barriers they encountered when searching for health information on social media. Many discussants first identified network before discussing other barriers. For instance, one of the discussants (22 year old male) said, “you have network issues aside the network issue ...” Another discussant (23year old male) said, “apart from network issues, it is overloading of information”. On the issue of fake news/information, a 20year old female

said “there is so much fake information flying around and most times it is as a result of people that have little learning”.

Discussants expressed a lot of frustration on being bombarded with lots of unsolicited information on social media platform. According to a discussant (26year old female):

...when you are looking for information, you don't get a precise information. Like, it is not the information that you want and it is not well detailed and when you go back to search for the information, there is an overload of information about the same issue you are talking about or searching for.

Another discussant (28year old female) said:

Apart from network issues, it is the overloading of information for example when you see something on fitness or let's say something relating to common disease or infection and let us you say did not bookmark it or save it when you are now going back on social media, you see so many details that you just get lost because when you type the keyword many things just come up. I think there are lots of information that you may not be able to get the correct one or miss the one that is actually true. So that is like the challenge that I face.

Relationship between perceived credibility of social media and online health information seeking behaviour

Table 6 reveals that the Spearman's rho correlation value is 0.821 and this value is statistically significant at 5 percent level of acceptance. This result shows that there is a significant relationship between perceived credibility of social media and online health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria. The implication of this finding is that the more credible youths perceive the social media, the more active they are in seeking online health information. Conversely, the less credible youths perceive the social media, the less active they are in seeking online health information.

Table 6: Relationship between perceived credibility of social media and online health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria

			online health information seeking behaviour
Spearman's rho	perceived credibility of social media	Correlation coefficient	.821**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	407
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

Relationship between socio-demographic factors and online health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria

Result on Table 7 shows contingency coefficient values of 0.250, 0.367, and 0.293 for gender, age and level of education respectively. These values are statistically significant at 5 percent level of acceptance. This result shows that a significant relationship exists between some demographic variables (gender, age and level of education) and online health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria. Respondents who are females, younger and with more education exhibited higher online health information seeking behaviour than their counterparts who are males, older and with less education. However, the result also shows contingency coefficient value of 0.397 for religious affiliation and this value is not statistically significant at 5% level of acceptance. The implication of this result is that religious affiliation has no correlation with online health information seeking behaviour of youths who participated in this study. Religion is not a determining factor in the way the youth seek online health information.

Table 7: Correlation between demographic variables and online health information seeking behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria

Online health information seeking behaviour		Gender	Age	Religion	Level of education
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	20.735**	48.546**	58.483	29.363**
	Contingency coefficient	.250	.367	.397	.293
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.019	.060	.034
	N	407	407	407	407
** Chi square value is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					

4. Discussion

As confirmed by literature (Gong and Verboord, 2020, Maitz et al., 2020, Akoja & Nwenezi, 2020) the problem of social media credibility has continued to be identified with social media platforms. Youths in this study believe that social media are not credible. The unconventional nature of social media that enables netizens unprecedented access to the social media platforms remains very problematic. Akoja & Nwenezi (2020) point to the alteration that enables amateurs and non-professionals to generate and distribute media content for public consumption, (thereby altering the traditional newsgathering, packaging, and delivery process) hereby eliciting lack of credibility, misrepresentation, disinformation, intrusion of privacy, and other vices. Banda cited by Salaudeen and Onyechi (2020), however, hinged the social media credibility issue on the multiplicity of media organisations and the proliferation of news outlets, which have inundated the users with numerous choices of media platforms and media contents, resulting in wide-spread skepticism about the authenticity of media platforms and the veracity of information they churn out.

This current study shows that respondents are very active in their search for health information on social media. This goes to corroborate much of what is in literature (Marar, Al-Madaney & Almousawi, 2019) concerning the level of activity displayed by youths in their search for health information on social media. Young people have difficulties accessing traditional health services, so they gravitate towards the internet and the social media which offer them confidential and convenient access to an unprecedented level of information about a diverse range of subjects, including health information (Gray et al., 2005).

Although youths' perception of credibility of social media is low (as shown on Table 2), it is rather ironical that majority (n=281; 69%) of them would rarely confirm with other sources (such as medical personnel, friends, family members, etc.) any health information from the social media before using it. Neely, Eldredge and Sanders (2021) in their study also reported that most social media users were unlikely to fact-check what they see on the internet with a health professional, despite the high levels of mistrust in the accuracy of COVID-19-related information on social media. These findings point to a gap in knowledge that needs to be interrogated.

This current study (like Anaeto, Nwokike and Ojo, 2021) also reveals that youths mostly searched for mental, preventive and lifestyle health information on

social media. This finding is very important and may be helpful in articulating health policy statements that are aimed at improving youths' health and wellbeing. Since adolescents and youths exhibit high sexually curiosity (Fauzi and Kadir, 2015), it is surprising that sexual/reproductive health information is not one of the most searched health information on social media by the youths who participated in this study. It is not unlikely that this may be connected to the unwilling tendency in people, including youths, in this clime to shy away from discussing sex and sexually related matters. Sex is traditionally a very private subject in most Nigerian cultures and discussion of sex with teenagers is often deemed as inappropriate (Odigbo, Ugwu & Ekemezie, 2017).

Scholars (Marar, Al-Madaney & Almousawi, 2019; Gong & Verboord, 2020; Adegbilero-Iwari, Oluwadare & Adegbilero-Iwari, 2021; Malik et al., 2022) have alluded to the potentials of social media in granting unrestricted sharing of information, including health information. With a mobile device and data, users can access the social media platform at their convenient time and place. This is highlighted by another finding of this study which shows that youths seek health information on social media based on accessibility and convenience. These factors point to the ubiquitous nature of social media.

If youths are unable to determine the appropriate health information that addresses their health needs, they may run the risk of accessing and utilizing inappropriate health information in their quest to address their health needs. This may have grievous consequences both in the short and long term on the health and wellbeing of the youths of the country. Maitz et al. (2020) have observed that although many children and adolescents (including youths) are surrounded by smartphones, tablets, and computers, very few of them know how to select appropriate information from reliable sources. They warned of the dangers this may pose, especially when health issues are under consideration, where it is vital to identify incorrect or misleading information. This should call for urgent action in order to mitigate any consequential danger or threat to the health and wellbeing of the youths who are the future of any country.

Social media such as Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, and Twitter have radically enhanced the public access to health information. Many experts have however questioned their quality and credibility (Gong and Verboord, 2020, Maitz et al., 2020). Commercial sites, discussion lists, online support groups, and newsgroups frequently provide poor

quality or even false health information. (Marar, Al-Madaney & Almousawi, 2019, Maitz et al., 2020). In line with the above, researchers have continued to interrogate the issue of social media credibility vis-a-vis users' online health information seeking behaviour. This current study has revealed that the more credible youths perceive the social media, the more active they are in seeking online health information and vice versa. This finding upholds the key assumption of the source credibility theory that the more credible a source is, the more likely receivers will believe the information and vice versa. This finding has implication for youths' online health information seeking behaviour and points to the urgent need to address the issue of social media credibility.

Previous studies (Demirci, Uğurluoğlu, Konca & Çakmak, 2021, Jacobs, Amuta & Jeon, 2017, Jia, Pang & Liu, 2021) have established a correlation between socio-demographic factors and online health information seeking behaviour. In this current study, gender, age and educational level were found to correlate with youths' online health information seeking behaviour. Women than men, younger than older ones and those with higher levels of education more frequently sought online health information. Since youths have difficulties accessing traditional health services, the younger and female youths may resort to discrete search for health information online. Further, the more educated youths in their search for health information, may not have much difficulties navigating through the social media landscapes.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Credibility of source of information remains a critical factor in the overall acceptability of an information. Despite the popularity of various social media platforms among users globally, social media credibility appears to be a limiting factor in the information seeking behaviour of users, especially for health and health related issues. The finding of this study revealed that credibility of the social media is a key determinant in the activity of youths in seeking health information from the platforms. The finding has again provided an impetus to strengthen the calls by concerned scholars (such as Marar, Al-Madaney & Almousawi, 2019) and other stakeholders to articulate policy that will sanitize the rule of engagement on social media platforms, especially in the health sector.

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that health care providers/practitioners and health care organizations should be more visible on social media platforms by creating health support

groups where accurate information and knowledge will be shared towards achieving better health outcomes for the people, especially the youths. This will address the recurring credibility issue of the social media. Furthermore, adopting this approach will be very beneficial, especially in the areas of preventive care and mental health. A typical example was during the COVID-19 pandemic period that was characterized by fake news, misinformation and disinformation that may have resulted in avoidable deaths of some Nigerians.

It is also recommended that relevant government regulatory agencies should develop clear policy frameworks and guidelines that will ensure that both governmental and non-governmental health organizations/institutions leverage on the potentials of social media in their provision of medicare. These are expected to enhance robust medical coverage with better health outcomes for all patients, especially the youths.

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Perceived Causes of Mental Illness among Patients with Psychiatric Disorders in Kaduna State, North-Western Nigeria

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Abstract. Although it has been established that mentally ill individuals experience social stigma during the course of therapy, some studies suggest that perception about the illness can affect patients' readiness and willingness to seek and adhere to treatment regimen (Averous *et al.*, 2018 and Argungu *et al.*, 2018) This study aims to assess the perceived causes of mental illness among patients with psychiatric disorders in Kaduna state. Two objectives were stated: To assess the perceived causes of mental illness among patients with PD, find the relationship between socio-demographic/clinical Information and perceived causes of mental illness among patients with PD. A descriptive cross-sectional research designed was employed with quantitative data collection approach. A total of 325 patients with mental illness were recruited from Out-patients of the only 3 mental health institutions in Kaduna state namely; the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Barnawa, Ahmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital and Barau Dikko teaching Hospital, Kaduna. Researcher administered questionnaire was used as the tool for data collection. Systematic sampling technique was employed to select the participants based on the inclusion and the exclusion criteria. A total of 291 questionnaires were finally analyzed (response rate of 89.5%) using SPSS version 23.0. The result revealed that the mean age of the participants is 36.5 years, majority of the participants are Hausa by ethnicity, literate and lives in the urban area. The majority of the participants perceived mental illness to be caused by Substance Abuse (87.7%), Brain malfunction (86.9%), Physical

injury to the brain (86.9%), Stress and overthinking (84.5%), Traumatic life event (80.4%) and evil spirit (73.8%). Relationship was found between perceived causes of mental illness and monthly income ($p=0.035$), perceived causes of mental illness and psychiatric diagnosis ($p=0.018$). Based on the findings of the study it was recommended that there is need for health care providers to do more in updating their knowledge as well as educating patients with mental illness on evidence-based risk factors and causes of mental disorders, media organizations were also encouraged to take part in public enlightenments on that.

Keywords: Perception, Causes of mental illness, Patients with mental illness

1. Introduction

The American Psychiatric Association (APA), in 2013 redefined mental disorders in the 5th edition of Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders: DSM-V as a syndrome characterized by clinically significant disturbance in an individual's cognition, emotion regulation, or behavior that reflects a dysfunction in the psychological, biological, or developmental processes underlying mental functioning (APA, 2013). The 10th revision of international classification of Diseases: ICD-10 also contains similar definition.

In 2019, 1 in every 8 people, or about 970 million people around the world were living with a mental

disorder, with anxiety and depressive disorders the most common while schizophrenia affects approximately 24 million people or 1 in 300 people worldwide (Institute of Health Metrics and Evaluation, 2022). According to American Psychiatric Association (2018), nearly one in five (19 %) of adults in the United States experience some form of mental illness, one in 24 (4.1 %) has a serious mental illness, one in 12 (8.5 %) has a diagnosable substance use disorder (APA, 2018). In Nigeria, an estimated 20%–30% of our population is believed to suffer from mental disorders (Onyemelukwe, 2016). Considering that Nigeria has an estimated population of over 200 million, this number is very significant

It is established among mental health professionals that there is no sole cause of mental illness. The predominant view as of 2018 is that genetic, psychological, and environmental factors collectively referred to as Biopsychosocial causes or contribute to the development or progression of mental disorders (Arango, 2018).

The biopsychosocial model is usually interpreted as implying that biological, psychological, and social factors are coequal partners in the etiology of mental disorder (Kinderman, 2005). Biological factors include; genetics, prenatal damage, exposure to toxins, infections, substance abuse and brain defects or injuries. Environmental and psychological triggers complement one another resulting in emotional stress, which in turn activates a mental illness (Ahn et al., 2009). The psychological approach treats mental illness as if it were a sickness or abnormality in the mind or psyche (i.e., the soul) (Scheid and Brown, 2010). Stresses and strains related to socioeconomic status (SES) or social class have been linked to the occurrence of major mental disorders, with a lower or more insecure educational, occupational, economic or social position generally linked to more mental disorders (Muntaner et al., 2004). Theorists of child development have argued that persistent poverty leads to high levels of psychopathology and poor self-concepts (McLeod et al, 1993).

Public perceptions of mental illness vary widely across different cultures worldwide, and there exist widespread negative beliefs, attitudes, stereotypes and myths concerning mental illness and the mentally ill in different communities (Arnault, 2009). A World Health Organization report states that the beliefs and attitudes held by members of a community may influence many facets of mental health care (WHO, 2001).

In Ancient Mesopotamia, diseases and mental disorders were believed to be caused by specific deities (Black and Green, 1992). In ancient Hindu, Mental disorders were generally thought to reflect abstract metaphysical entities, supernatural agents, sorcery and witchcraft (Bhugra, 1992). According to Chinese thought, five stages or elements comprised the conditions of imbalance between Yin and yang. Mental illness, according to the Chinese perspective is thus considered as an imbalance of the yin and yang because optimum health arises from balance with nature (Lam et al., 2010).

Different regional studies reveal different views (Choudhry et al., 2016). Pacific Islanders believe mental illness is as a result of family conflicts (Douglas and Fujimoto, 1995). In a study performed in Myanmar, a Southeast Asian country, economic, family and domestic issues, excessive worry, spirits and trauma are perceived to be the causes of mental illness (Fellmeth et al., 2015). Another study conducted in India revealed almost half (45.4%) of the patients believed in a supernatural/religious aetiology for their illness. Among the specific causes, planetary influences (13.5%) and God's will (30.8%) were the most common supernatural and religious cause, respectively (Grover et al., 2016). This view is not only limited to Asians; some western countries hold this view. A study conducted in Switzerland, with psychiatric patients, revealed that demons were considered the main cause of mental health problems (Pfeifer, 1999).

A study performed among relatives of people with mental illness in the predominant Muslim country of Saudi Arabia has revealed that evil eye followed by personal weakness are believed to be the main causes of mental illness, males more than females attributed mental illness to personal weakness (Elbur et al., 2014). Evidences from rural Cameroon shows that Christians (22.7%) had a greater tendency to associate epilepsy to witchcraft compared to Muslims (13%) (Bain et al., 2013).

Benti et al (2016) reported supernatural causes like evil spirit, God's punishment, and witchcraft as the perceived causes of mental illness among residents of a rural town in Ethiopia.

In Nigeria despite cultural and ethnic differences various studies have shown similar beliefs about the causes of mental illness. A study performed in the South Eastern Nigeria among native Igbo found mixed endorsements of the supernatural, biological and psychosocial causal explanations with supernatural causations being significantly more

endorsed (Ikwuka, 2016). Also, in Ekom Iman community in Akwa Ibom State in the South-South region of Nigeria, Jombo, Iyanam and Idung (2019) reported many believed psychoactive substance abuse, brain illnesses/trauma and supernatural factors were etiologic to mental illness.

Adewuya and Makanjuola (2008) conducted a study on lay beliefs regarding the causes of mental illness in south-western Nigeria and found out Beliefs in supernatural factors and the misuse of psychoactive substances were the most prevalent. A similar study conducted by Murtala *et al* (2020) revealed that brain disease (16.20%), domestic violence (14.52%), hereditary (13.13%), evil spirit (12.85%) and trauma (12.01%) were identified as the major causes of mental illness among adults in Birnin Kudu metropolis, Jigawa state, North western Nigeria.

1.1 Problem Statement

Mental health disorders are common, global burden of diseases report 2010 stated that, mental and substance abuse disorders accounted for 7.4% of diseases burden. This is more than HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, diabetes, or transport injury (Murray *et al.*, 2012). The increase in the prevalence of mental health illness is alarming; it is unarguably one of the major challenges of our time

There are different widely held beliefs on the causes of mental illness all over the world. Choudhry and his colleagues (2016), are of the opinion that attitudes and beliefs of lay individuals about mental illness are shaped by personal knowledge about mental illness, knowing and interacting with someone living with mental illness, and cultural stereotypes.

Over many years of working and interacting with patients living with mental illness in different mental health institutions in Nigeria, the researchers observed that most of the patients had poor perception on the causes of mental illness. Furthermore, it was understood by the researchers that cultural beliefs as well as perceptions of patients on the causes of mental illness are often neglected in planning and delivery of care in mental health institutions in Nigeria in which mental health institutions in Kaduna State are inclusive.

The researchers noted that public and individual's perception on the causes of mental illness often influence treatment of people living with mental illness. It encourages hopelessness on the outcome of the treatment among the patients as well as giving up on the medical treatment as a whole. This study aims to investigate the perceived causes of mental illness

among patients with psychiatric disorders in Kaduna state, Northwestern Nigeria.

1.2 Objectives of the study

- Assess the perceived causes of mental illness among patients with mental illness in Kaduna State.
- Find the relationship between socio-demographic/clinical information of patients and the perceived causes of mental illness among patients with mental illness in Kaduna State, Nigeria.

2. Methodology

Because the research aimed to assess the perceived causes of mental illness among patients with psychiatric disorder, Descriptive Cross-sectional research design, with quantitative data collection approach was employed. The study was conducted at the only 3 hospitals that provides psychiatric services in Kaduna state, namely the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Barnawa, Ahmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital and Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital. Kaduna state is located in the North-west geo political zone of Nigeria. Systematic sampling was used to select each respondent, using outpatient's registers as the sampling frame. Cochran's formula (WG Cochran, 1977) was used to calculate the sample size, attrition rate of 10% was added, bringing the sample size to 325. The number was proportionally distributed based on the population of patients in the 3 participating facilities as follows; 248 patients were recruited from the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Kaduna, 75 patients were recruited from Ahmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital, while 2 patients were recruited from Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital.

Those included in the study are: A) All patients with mental illness attending psychiatric out-patients units in hospitals in Kaduna state. B) Patients with mental illness aged 18 years and above. C) Patients that are diagnosed with mental illness for at least 3 months at the time of the study. D) Patients with full insight so that they will be able to respond to the items on the questionnaire. Insight was assessed using a method applied by a study conducted among patients with psychiatric disorder in the North-eastern Nigeria. Three (3) dichotomous questions were asked, a score of No was assigned zero while the score of Yes was assigned 1 for any item answered; Do you think that you require a treatment? And, do you think you require a treatment to stay well? And, do you think you require your medication to stay well? A perfect score of 3 is regarded as full insight (Ibrahim et al,

2015). Only the patients with full insight were included in this study. While all psychiatric in-patients and those with poor command of English or Hausa language were excluded from this study

The data collection period for this research was from 1st November to 21st January 2021 (11 weeks).

2.1 Instrument for data collection

A questionnaire was used as the instruments for data collection. The questionnaire was obtained from the similar studies done in Nigeria, and modified for the purpose of this research.

2.2 Section “A” Socio-demographic/Clinical Information

Socio demographic and clinical information of the respondents which was developed by the researcher, it contains information like psychiatric diagnosis of the patient, age, marital status, level of education among others.

Section “B” Perception on the causes of mental illness questionnaire

It is a 15 items 4 points likert scale questionnaire. It was designed for the respondents to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement under 3 subheadings as follows; Psychosocial/Environmental causes, Biological/Genetic causes, Spiritual/Supernatural causes. The questionnaire was adapted from similar research performed in the North Western Nigeria by Kabir et al (2004).

2.3 Scoring System

The responses were categorized in to 2 dichotomous responses. With strongly agreed and agreed been represented by YES while strongly disagreed and disagreed been represented by NO. The responses were presented in frequency and percentage to show how the respondents perceived the causes of mental illness.

2.4 Data collection and analysis

Ethical approval was sought for and was granted to the researchers by the research ethical committees of the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Barnawa Kaduna, Ahmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital (ABUTHZ/HREC/F42/2021) and Barau Dikko

Teaching Hospital Kaduna (BDTH/MAC/GEN/134/VOL/1).

The researchers trained five (5) research assistant in the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Barnawa, Kaduna. One (1) of the research assistants is a lecturer with the school of post basic psychiatric Nursing of the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Barnawa, Kaduna while the rest are students of the same institution. One (1) Nursing student from the department of Nursing Ahmadu Bello University Zaria was recruited for data collection in Ahmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital, Zaria, while in Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital, the data collection was done by the researchers. The research assistants were provided with the Hausa version of the questionnaire, in order to use in translation of the item of the questionnaire to the respondents. Half day training was provided to the research assistants on the objectives of the research, more details on the items of the questionnaire, the inclusion and the exclusion criteria, sampling technique as well as process of obtaining informed consent. The researchers were responsible for carrying out the insight assessment while the research assistant administered the questionnaire as well as obtaining the informed consent from the participants.

The data obtained from the questionnaire was coded and entered into the computer coding sheets. The data was processed using the statistical package for social science (SPSS, version 23.0). Appropriate descriptive statistical techniques including frequency tables, percentages and inferential statistics (Chi square) were applied.

3. Results

The sample size of this study is 325 patients but 291 were analyzed which signifies response rate of 89.5%. The attrition rate is attributed to withdrawal of consent midway in to the data collection by some of the respondents (n=12), inability of the patients to answer more than 5 items in the questionnaire (n=16), and missing questionnaires (n=6).

The questionnaires were analyzed and presented in the form of descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings were organized based on the objectives of this research. The presentation starts with the socio-demographic/clinical information, followed by the perceived causes of mental illness.

Table 1: Distribution of the patients according to socio-demographic/ clinical Information. N=285

Variables	F	(%)
Gender		
Male	144	49.5
Female	147	50.5
Age:		
Mean: 36.1 years, Range: from 18 to 80 years. SD: 12.62		
Place of residence (locality)		
Local	103	35.4
Urban	135	46.4
Semi Urban	53	18.2
Religion		
Christianity	98	33.7
Islam	193	66.3
Ethnicity		
Hausa	191	65.6
Igbo	15	5.2
Yoruba	27	9.3
Others	58	19.9
Level of Education		
Primary Education	51	17.5
Secondary Education	99	34
Tertiary Education	86	29.6
No Formal Education	55	18.9
Marital Status		
Single	110	37.8
Married	151	51.9
Separated	30	10.3
Average Monthly Income		
Less than 30,000	89	30.6
More than 30,000	56	19.2
No Income	146	50.2

Results in table 1 shows that 50.5% of the respondents are females, the mean age of the respondents is 36.1 years. It also shows that 46.4% of the respondents live in the urban area while 35.4 percent of the respondents and 18.2% of the respondents live in the rural and urban areas respectively.

The table shows that 66.3% of the respondents are Muslim while 33.7% are Christians, majority of the respondents are Hausa by ethnicity followed by other minority ethnic groups then Yoruba and Igbo. It shows that 17.5% have primary education, 34% of the respondents have attained secondary education, 29.6% tertiary education while 18.9% have no formal education., majority of the respondents are married (51.9%). Half of the respondents 50.6 have no income at all.

Table 2: Distribution of the patients according to their psychiatric diagnosis

N=291

Variables	(F)	(%)
Schizophrenia	74	25.0%
Psychoactive Substance Use Disorders	47	16.2%
Bipolar Disorder	42	14.7%
Psychosis	36	14.4%
Depressive Disorder	35	12.0%
Psychosomatic Seizures	20	6.9%
Puerperal Psychosis	17	5.8%
Obsessive Compulsive Disorder	13	4.5%
Anxiety Disorder	7	2.4%

Table 2 shows that 25% of the respondents were diagnosed with schizophrenia, 16.2% psychoactive substance use disorders, 14.7% bipolar disorder, 14.4% psychosis, 12.0% depressive disorder, 6.9% psychosomatic seizures, 5.8% puerperal psychosis, 4.5% obsessive compulsive disorder, and 2.4% anxiety disorder.

Table 3: Distribution of the patients according to their Perceived causes of mental Illness. N=291

Variables	YES		NO	
	F	%	F	%
Psychosocial and Environmental Causes				
Caused by Stress and Overthinking	236	84.5%	45	15.5%
Caused by Traumatic Life Event	234	80.4%	57	19.6%
Caused by Problems From Childhood	202	68.9%	89	31.1%
Caused by Poverty	190	65.3%	101	34.7%
Caused by Lack of Social Support	127	64.3%	104	35.7%
Biological and Genetic Causes				
By Drug Misuse	254	87.3%	37	12.7%
By Physical Injury to the Brain	253	86.9%	38	13.1%
By Brain Malfunctions	253	86.9%	38	13.1%
Is Inherited	197	67.7%	94	32.3%
Caused by Viral and Bacterial Infection	147	50.5%	144	49.5%
Spiritual and Supernatural Causes				
By Evil Spirit	215	73.8%	76	26.2%
By Witchcraft	259	60.5%	115	39.5%
By Magic	155	53.3%	136	46.7%
By Punishment from God	136	46.7%	155	53.3%
By Blessing from God	126	43.3%	165	56.7%

Table 3 Shows that the respondents endorsed psychosocial and environmental factors as follows; 84.5% of the respondents perceived mental illness to be caused by Stress and Overthinking, 80.4% of the respondents perceived traumatic life event as the cause of mental illness, 68.9% Caused by Problems From Childhood. Based on the biological and genetic causes 67.7% perceived mental illness to be Inherited, 65.3% Caused by Poverty, 64.3% Caused by Lack of Social Support, 50.5% Caused by Viral and Bacterial Infection, 86.9% By Physical Injury to the Brain, 86.9% By Brain Malfunctions, 87.3% By Drug Misuse. On the spiritual and supernatural causes 53.3% perceived mental illness to be caused by magic, 73.8% By Evil Spirit, 60.5% by witchcraft, 43.3% by blessing from God, 46.7% by punishment from God.

Inferential Statistics

Table 4: Relationship between the perceived causes of mental illness and socio-demographic/clinical information of the patients with mental illness in Kaduna state. N=291

Perception	Chi-square	p-value
Socio-demographic/clinical information		
Gender	34.758	0.480
Age	1512.795	0.959
Place of residence	77.584	0.250
Religion	37.870	0.340
Tribe	94.780	0.764
Level of Education	103.404	0.526
Occupation	94.649	0.756
Marital Status	70.051	0.476
Monthly Income	92.849	0.035*
Psychiatric diagnosis	369.612	0.018*

P<0.05

Table 4 shows that there is a statistically significant relationship between perceived causes of mental illness and monthly income. It also shows a statistically significant relationship between the perceived causes of mental illness and psychiatric diagnosis.

4. Discussion

The findings of the study revealed that the study is gender balanced with almost equal gender distribution. This may be connected to psychiatric diagnosis of the respondents with female having more prevalent of depression (Abate, 2013) and mood disorders (Burrone et al, 2020) while males having more prevalent of substance (Fentaw, Fenta and Biresaw, 2022) and schizophrenia (Chukwujekwu, 2019). The median age of the respondents is 36.3 years, with 18 been the age of the youngest respondent and 80 been the age of the oldest respondent. This shows that majority of patients with mental illness in Kaduna state are within the most productive age of their lives. This finding is supported by a study conducted by Nwoga et al (2017) in which the mean age of 36.5 was reported among patients with mental illness in the neighbouring Jos, Plateau state Nigeria. This finding has led to another finding of this study that the majority of the participants of this study earn less than the Nigeria's minimum wage of NGN30,000 or have no income at all. This may be connected to the negative effect of mental illness in their professional and occupational lives. The negative impact as shown has affected the income and financial wellbeing of many families.

Majority of the respondents are Hausa followed by 23 minor tribes who are dominant in southern Kaduna and middle belt states of Nigeria. The higher prevalence of Hausa tribe may not be unconnected with the high population of Hausa people living in Kaduna and other neighbouring states.

In terms of educational attainment this study found that 30.2% of the respondents have tertiary education, 34% have secondary education, and 17.2% have primary education while 18.2% have no formal education. This is similar to the findings of Balarbe, (2015) in which Tertiary education (34.7%), secondary education (21.5%), primary education (13.5) and no formal education (12.5) among schizophrenic patients in tertiary hospitals in Kaduna state was reported. From the above findings of this study, it should be noted that, the formal literacy rate is 80.8% among patients with mental illness in Kaduna state. The literacy rate finding is significantly higher than the Nigeria's literacy rate, in which national average of 62% was reported by the U as at 2018 (World Bank, 2021). This has shown that majority of people living with mental illness are educated and can contribute to the development of the society.

More than half of the respondents are married, and 38.6% of the respondents are single while 9.5% of the respondents are separated due to divorce, death of spouse or separated because of the difficulties related to mental illness. Mojtabai et al., (2017) reported that individuals with common mental disorders have greater risk of marital dissolution, and are less likely to enter new marriages

In terms of the psychiatric diagnosis of the respondents psychiatric of the respondents (26%) are schizophrenic, followed by substance use disorders with 16.5%, while 14.7% bipolar disorder, 12.6% psychosis followed by depressive disorder. The findings are similar to the findings of the study conducted in the neighbouring Jos, Plateau state, where 28.2% of the respondents were schizophrenic, bipolar disorder 26.7%, 21.5% depressive disorder, drug related cases 11.3% and anxiety disorder 1.5% (Nwoga et al., 2017).

The findings of this study revealed that majority of respondents endorsed Drug misuse as the major cause of mental illness, followed by physical injury to the brain with the same endorsement as brain malfunction. Stress and overthinking was ranked 4th, followed by traumatic life event. Evil spirit and inheritance also received a major endorsement by the respondents. The findings of this study in which drug misuse is perceived to be the major cause of mental illness is in agreement with the findings of Kabir et al (2004) in which Drug misuse including alcohol, cannabis, and other street drugs was identified as a major cause of mental illness, in a rural community in North western Nigeria. Johnson and Benso, (2017) also conducted a study in south southern Nigeria in which the findings of this study are supported by revealing the perceived causes of mental illness to be substance abuse, followed by brain diseases and traumatic events. In another perspective Yar'Zever (2017) assessed 266 patient's relatives' beliefs about causes of mental illness in Kano, North Western Nigeria and reported (49.6%) of the subjects thought that evil spirit was the major cause of mental illness, followed by personal weakness (47.4%). Another study conducted in the neighbouring Plateau state is also not in agreement with the findings of this study, by revealing that 88(45.1%) of the participants attributed their illness to spiritual causes, 48(24.6%) to medical causes, 19(9.7%) as due to frustration in life while 19(9.7%) rationalized it as the will of God (Nwoga et al., 2017). Okpalauwaekwe, Mela and Oji (2017) systematically reviewed 25 similar literatures to assess the knowledge and attitude toward mental illness by Nigerians. The finding shows some cross-cultural variations, however, still similar in outcomes.

Accordingly, most common knowledge of causes of mental illness observed in scoping articles were supernatural causes including magic, witchcrafts, sorcery, and divine punishments. Majority 88(45.1%) of the participants attributed their illness to spiritual causes, 48(24.6%) to medical causes, 19(9.7%) as due to frustration in life while 19(9.7%) rationalized it as the

A statistical significant relationship was found between the perceptions of patients on the causes of mental illness and monthly income. This may not be unconnected with the status of the respondents within the society, despite that the higher number of the participants lives within the urban area, majority of the respond either have no income at all or lives below the Nigeria's minimum wage.

A statistical significant relationship was also found between perception of patients on the causes of mental illness and psychiatric diagnosis. This shows that psychiatric diagnosis may positively or negatively affects patient's perception on the causes of mental illness. This may also be connected with the level of insight associated with different mental disorders

5. Conclusion

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

- The majority of the participants perceived mental illness to be caused by Substance Abuse (87.7%), Brain malfunction (86.9%), Physical injury to the brain (86.9%), Stress and overthinking (84.5%), Traumatic life event (80.4%) and evil spirit (73.8%).
- There is a relationship between perceived causes of mental illness and monthly income ($p=0.035$),
- There is a relationship between perceived causes of mental illness and psychiatric diagnosis ($p=0.018$)

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that:

- The high formal literacy rate among the respondents has shown that, people living with mental illness are capable of contributing in policy formulation. Therefore, they should be included in mental health policy formulation, this will help in

providing sound policies that will assist in treatment and care of people living with mental illness.

- There is need for health care providers to do more in updating their knowledge as well as educating patients with mental illness on evidence-based risk factors and causes of mental disorders. Media organisation are also encouraged to take part in public enlightenments on that.

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Influence of Socio-cultural Factors in Solid Waste Generation in Bida Town

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Abstract. Waste generation rates vary across countries and cities due to differences in influencing factors. This study assesses the socio-cultural factors and the relationships between socio-cultural factors and solid waste generation in Bida. The study employed a quantitative approach with a structured questionnaire to assess seven (7) socio-cultural factors: geographic location, economic situation, beliefs, religion, urbanization, awareness, and practice. A total of 400 households were sampled using stratified random techniques based on traditional and modern settings in Bida town. Exploratory factor analysis was employed to analyse the factors that influenced waste generation. The relationship between these factors and waste generation was tested using Pearson correlation and regression analysis. The findings show that social factors such as "urbanization" ($\alpha > 0.894$), "geographical location" ($\alpha > 0.757$), "awareness" ($\alpha > 0.719$), and "economic situation" ($\alpha = 0.791$) as well as cultural factors such as "practice" ($\alpha = 0.798$), "belief" ($\alpha = 0.782$), 'religion' ($\alpha = 0.715$) influences solid waste generation in Bida. Also, "urbanization" ($r = .124$; $p = .05$), "awareness" ($r = .197$; $p = .01$), and the cultural factor "local practice" ($r = .195$; $p = .01$) were found to have weak and significant associations with solid waste generation in Bida. However, the relationship between variables was moderate ($R = .290$) and accounted for only 8.4% ($R^2 = .084$) of the variance in the waste generation rate in Bida.

Keywords: Awareness. Socio-cultural factors, Urbanization, Urban future, Waste generation.

1. Introduction

The world is moving toward urban agglomeration due to urbanization, and the amount of municipal solid waste, one of the most important by-products of an urban lifestyle, is growing even faster than the rate of urbanization (Hoornweg & Bhada-Tata, 2012),

indicating that solid waste generation levels are expected to double by 2025. The higher the income level and rate of urbanization, the greater the amount of solid waste produced (World Bank, 2021). According to Hoornweg and Bhada-Tata (2012), the present global urban solid waste generation levels are approximately 1.3 billion metric tons per year and are expected to increase to approximately 2.2 billion metric tons per year by 2025, representing a significant increase in per capita waste generation rates from 1.2 to 1.42 kilograms per person per day in the next fifteen years. However, global averages are only broad estimates, as rates vary considerably by region, country, city, and even within cities.

Waste generation rates are of different kinds among different countries and cities of the world, as they are influenced by different factors (Tassie Wegedie, 2018; Kolekar *et al.*, 2016). Factors influencing waste generation and composition are diverse in different regions of the world due to variations in local conditions like climate, standard of living, technology, customs, and culture (Chikowore, 2021; Darban & Hajilo, 2017). As a way of life, culture provides the context within which all human activities take place; the influence of culture is felt on a host of societal functions, including the generation of waste (Purcell & Magette, 2010). The significance of culture suggests that many social activities and societal circumstances are linked to cultural considerations, thereby emphasizing the role of culture in solid waste generation (Ajani & Sunday, 2021). Because of this, it is very important to understand how socio-cultural factors and solid waste are related because they have long-term effects on future generations.

Society and culture have a more momentous effect on solid waste generation than other attributes of economic factors like income and education, due mainly to the difficulties in assessing the actual

income of the residents (Mohd *et al.*, 2002). The relationship between socio-cultural factors and solid waste generation is influenced mostly by household attitudes, family size, lifestyle, and indigenous knowledge on the efficient use of materials (Darban & Hajilo, 2017). While its composition varies from country to country and even within a country (Abdel-Shafy & Mansour, 2018; Kolekar *et al.*, 2016), this is because of differences in geography, economy, and waste management rules.

Solid waste generation is growing at a rate beyond the capacity of the city authorities to control for a sustainable urban environment (Umunna, 2011). According to Pardini *et al.* (2019), the increase in waste generation is a significant challenge for enormous urban centers globally and a menace to fast-growing cities with rapid population growth. In many developing countries, the deplorable condition of urban waste management poses a challenge to public health, with more adverse effects in low-income residential areas (McCoy, Hall, & Ridge, 2012). In Nigeria, it is one of the major environmental problems in the cities and urban areas due to the increase in the influx of people into the urban area, which puts a strain on many services, including waste management services (Aderemi & Falade, 2012). Thus, forecasting the production of municipal solid waste (MSW) has become a key tool for decision-making in urban contexts, not only

owing to its crucial role in successful waste management but also because it gives insight into the complexity of the variables that drive MSW creation (Izquierdo-Horna, Kahhat, & Vázquez-Rowe, 2022). So, this paper looked at the social and cultural factors that affect solid waste production in Bida, a town with a unique social and cultural setting.

2. Methodology

2.1 The Study Area

Bida Town, a traditional emirate, is the Local Government Headquarters in Niger State. It is located along the A124 highway (a regional road) that connects Ilorin to Minna and Abuja, between longitudes of 6°01'E and 6°017'E of the Greenwich Meridian and latitudes of 9°05'N and 9°08'N of the equator (See Figure 1). It has an overall population of 188,181 people based on the 2006 National Population Census and covers a land area of about 51 square kilometres. The major ethnic group found in this city is the Nupe. It is the home base of Nupe Land, with many districts like Agaie, Baddeggi, Enagi, Katcha, Kutigi, Lapai, Lemu, Mokwa, Patigi, and Lokoja. Bida town is about 240 kilometres from Abuja (the Federal Capital Territory) in the north-east direction. Located in the southwestern part of Minna (the state capital), it stretches along the Bako River, which is a tributary of the popular River Niger.

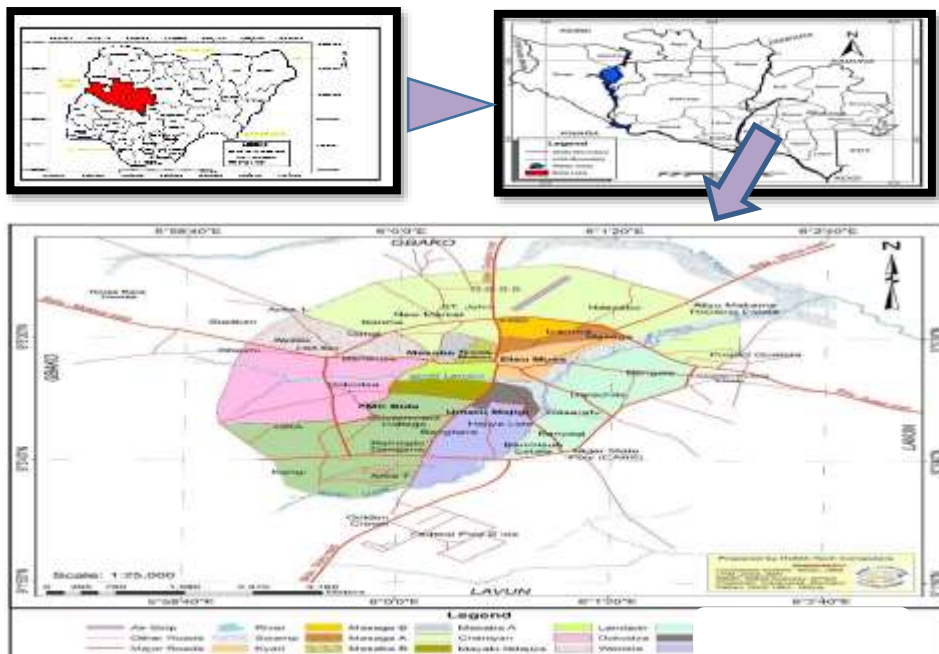


Figure 1: Bida the Study Area

2.2 Methods

The study employs a random number selection to identify four (4) each from both the core traditional and modern areas out of the fourteen (14) administrative wards in Bida. The exponential model was used to project the 2006 National Population Census of 188,181 at 3.87% to 2021. All wards are expected to have a population of 332,515 ($332,515 / 14 = 23,758$; $23,758 * 8 = 190,064$) in 2021. The study sample frame was 31,680 households, calculated by dividing the expected study population of 190,064 by 6. Taro Yemane (1973) was used to estimate 400 households for the sample. Demographics, socioeconomic situation, and home waste management practices were collected through the use of closed-ended questionnaire. Exploratory Factors Analysis (EFA) and Pearson correlation were used to identify socio-cultural factors that affect solid waste generation. Regression analysis was used to estimate how socio-cultural variables affect solid waste creation.

Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were employed to assess sample adequacy, relationship strength, and EFA data significance. KMO values range from 0 to 1, with a minimum of 0.5 and a significant level of $p < 0.005$ (Hair et al., 2010). Spearman correlation analysis determined significance and direction. The consensus is that $\rho = 0.10$ accounts for 1% of the overall variation when small, 9% (.3) when medium, and 25% when high (.5).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Households

A sample of 400 households was taken from the study area to collect information based on personal and socio-cultural backgrounds. The analysis shows the majority of respondents (41.9%) have an average household size range of 5-7 persons and 29.7% have an average household size range of 8–10 persons. In all, more than 80% of the respondents had an average household size of between 5 and 10, which indicated that a lot of waste generation is expected from the study area. Also, more than 40% of the households earn less than ₦40,000 (the equivalent of \$87.55) as monthly income, meaning that the majority of the residents are living below the poverty level as described by the World Bank (i.e., the number of people living on less than \$1.90 a day), and it is expected that they will rely more on the food materials that generate waste than the processed foods. The analysis also showed that 60% of the respondents lived in the study area. This shows that the information from the study is reliable and can be used for further analysis (Table 1).

Table 1: Socioeconomic Characteristics of the respondents (n = 400)

Variables	Freq (%)	Variables	Freq (%)
Gender of the household head		Average Monthly Income	
Male	255 (63.6)	less than N20,001	79(19.7)
Female	146 (36.4)	₦20,001- ₦40,000	111(27.7)
Age		₦40,000 - ₦80,000	146(36.4)
< 18	2 (0.5)	Above ₦80,000	65 (16.2)
18 – 25	33 (8.2)	Duration of stay in the area	
26 – 35	90 (22.4)	Less than 3 years	35 (8.70)
36 – 45	170 (42.4)	4-8 years	124 (30.9)
46 -55	52 (13.0)	9-13 years	125 (31.2)
Above 55	54 (13.5)	14-18 years	56 (14.0)
Average Household Size		Above 18 years	61 (15.2)
2 – 4	60 (15.0)	Distance to the permitted Dump site	
5 – 7	168 (41.9)	< 50 meters	46 (11.5)
8 – 10	119 (29.7)	50 to 100 meters	190 (47.4)
11 – 13	33 (8.2)	> 200 meters	165 (41.1)
14 above			
Education level			
None	21 (5.2)		
Primary	31 (7.7)		
Secondary	48 (12.0)		
Tertiary	175 (43.6)		
	147(36.7)		

3.2 Social and Cultural Factors Influencing Solid Waste Generation in Bida

3.2.1 Social Factors Influencing Solid Waste Generation in Bida

Social factors that determine solid waste generation in Bida were assessed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The result of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity conducted to verify the sampling adequacy and the significance shows sampling adequacy for social (KMO = 0.843; *p* 0.01) and cultural (KMO = 0.773; *p* 0.01) and is significant for the analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2012). Table 2 presents the results of the social factors that influence solid waste generation in Bida town. Results show that out of nine (9) social factors considered, four (4) extracted factors (eigenvalue > 1) influence waste generation in Bida. The remaining five items had 0.3 loadings and double cross-loading on other factors, so they were deleted.

The first of the four (4) extracted social factors ("urbanization") had an eigenvalue of 6.101 ($\alpha > 0.894$) and consisted of seven (7) items with loadings ranging from 0.769 to 0.706, accounting for 38.129% of the variance explained. The second factor, "geographical location," with an eigenvalue of 2.375 and high reliability ($\alpha > 0.757$), has four (4) items with factor loadings ranging from 0.762 to 0.647 and explains 14.842% of the variance. The third factor ("awareness") has a Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.719 and three (3) items with loadings ranging from 0.747 to 0.709, accounting for 7.397% of the variance. Lastly, the fourth factor, "economic status," had an eigenvalue of 1.004 ($\alpha = 0.791$), with two (2) items (factor loading = 0.837 and 0.722) explaining 6.274% of the variance. Hair *et al.* (2012) found that the four factors contributed 66.643%, which proves that a cumulative variance threshold of more than 50% is acceptable.

Table 2: Social Factor Influencing Waste Generation in Bida

Indicators	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Healthy environment	0.769			
Urbanisation	0.764			
Distance to the municipal dump site	0.754			
Awareness				
waste generation control	0.750			
Household participation	0.729			
Waste as a future treasure	0.727			
Increase income	0.706			
Increase in household size		0.762		
Change in seasons		0.731		
Public participation of waste management		0.680		
More wastes are generated in dry season		0.647		
Environmental sanitation			0.747	
Waste recycling			0.737	
Level of education			0.709	
Family that dines out generate less wastes than the ones that cook at home				0.837
Age				0.722
Eigenvalue	6.101	2.375	1.184	1.004
% of Variance	38.129	14.842	7.397	6.274
Cumulative Variance	38.129	52.971	60.369	66.643

3.2.2 Cultural Factors Influencing Solid Waste Generation in Bida

Table 3 presents the results of the analysis on cultural factors that influence solid waste generation in Bida. The results reveal three (3) cultural factors with eigenvalues > 1 out of nine (9) factors considered to have an influence on waste generation in the town. The first factor, "practice" (factor 1) (eigenvalue = 4.485; $\alpha = 0.798$), consists of five (5) items with loadings from 0.788 to 0.634 and accounted for 34.497% of the variance explained. The second factor (beliefs) had an eigenvalue of 1.850 ($\alpha = 0.782$), had four (4) items with loadings from 0.810 to 0.647, and accounted for 14.228 percent of the variance. Finally, "religion" (factor 3) had four (4) items with loadings of

0.807–0.565 and accounted for 9.404% of the variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.184 ($\alpha = 0.715$). The total effect of the three factors was 58.129%, which is more than the 50% threshold for acceptable cumulative variance (Hair et al., 2012).

Table 3: Cultural Factor Influencing Waste Generation

Indicators	Factor		
	1	2	3
Regular sweeping	0.788		
Waste separation	0.749		
Religion preaches cleanliness	0.703		
Sweeping of homes during the day times	0.699		
Culture provides the context for waste management	0.634		
What you “see” or “feel” is a dirt		0.810	
Culture definition of dirt		0.786	
Waste is a dirt		0.706	
Time		0.647	
Cleanliness is next to Godliness			0.807
Religion does not support waste of materials			0.733
Waste minimization			0.569
Food stuff			0.565
Eigenvalue	4.485	1.850	1.223
% of Variance	34.497	14.228	9.404
Cumulative Variance	34.497	48.725	58.129

Overall, the social and cultural factors revealed to influence waste generation in Bida demonstrate a high degree of reliability ($\alpha > 0.70$) and are considered acceptable in corroboration with the findings of Field (2000), who suggests that the items measure the corresponding factors perfectly. Thus, factors such as "urbanization," "geographical location," "awareness," and "economic status," as well as "practice," "beliefs," and "religion," influence the increase of solid waste generation in the sociocultural environment. This finding corroborates with previous studies on waste generation. In the context of geographical location, Nathanson (2020) found that solid waste generation varies among the cities and nations of the world, and the generation rate of different nations varies gradually according to the level of their development. The developed nations like the United States generate 2 kg of solid waste per person per day; Japan generates half of that; Canada generates 2.7 kg; and most of the developing countries generate a little above 0.5 kg per person per day. Hilles (2011), on the other hand, found that awareness of people towards waste management focuses on the role of culture and behaviors, which are believed to control attitudes towards the solid waste management process. Relating these to developed countries, Hilles (2011) found out that the usage of any solid waste management program like recycling schemes is always influenced by demographic factors and attitudinal changes in site usage, due to the specific and individual information on the effects of solid waste management and the billing system. Similarly, other studies (Trang *et al.*, 2017; Senziege *et al.*, 2014) found that the socio-economic status (education, income, and occupation) of the population is a determining factor for solid waste generation rates and composition in the municipalities. Alagbe *et al.* (2021) and Khan *et al.* (2016) reported that different socioeconomic groups produced different kinds and quantities of waste, with the middle socioeconomic group generating the most waste.

3.3 Association between Socio-Cultural Factors and Waste Generation

Social norms are the primary driver of trash production and recycling behaviour. This is especially true in collectivist societies where people are more influenced by other people's opinions (Morren & Grinstein, 2016; Sorkun, 2018). Hence, using the correlation coefficient, the link between socio-cultural aspects and garbage creation in Bida was investigated. The results of Pearson’s correlation coefficient tested on the relationship between social and cultural factors with waste generation reveal a weak but significant correlation in the social factors such as "urbanization" ($r = .124$; $p = .05$), "awareness" ($r = .197$; $p = .01$), and "local practice" ($r = .195$; $p = .01$) in influencing solid waste generation in Bida, as presented in Table 4. This indicated that, despite the level of urbanization, the lack of awareness among the residents about waste handling could not change the local practice of solid waste generation and management.

The results also show that factors such as "geographical location" ($r = .030$; $p = .546$) and "economic situation" ($r = .064$; $p = .198$), "beliefs" ($r = .065$; $p = .198$), and "religion" ($r = .195$; $p = .193$) have non-significant associations with solid waste generation in Bida.

Table 4: Correlation between Waste Generation Rate and Socio - Cultural Factors in Bida

Attributes	Waste Generation Rate		Significant Test
	Pearson Correlation (r)	Sig. 2-tailed (p)	
<i>Social Factors</i>			
Urbanization	.124*	.013	Significant
Geographical location	.030	.546	Not Significant
Awareness	.197**	.000	Significant
Economic	.064	.198	Not Significant
<i>Cultural Factors</i>			
Practice	.195**	.000	Significant
Beliefs	.065	.193	Not Significant
Religion	.095	.057	Not Significant

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A multiple regression was performed to predict waste generation from social factors (urbanization, geographical location, awareness and economic) and cultural factors (Practice, beliefs and religion). The results reveal (Table 5) these variables statistically and significantly predicted solid waste generation, $F(7, 393) = 5.146$, $p < .01$. The relationship between variables were moderate ($R = .290$) and accounted for 8.4% ($R^2 = .084$) of the variance in waste generation rate. The table shows that practice had a statistically significant impact $\beta = .167$, $t = 2.462$, $p < .05$, geographical had a statistically significant impact $\beta = -.190$, $t = -2.702$, $p < .01$ and lack of awareness had a statistically significant impact $\beta = .251$, $t = 3.552$, $p < .001$. Whereas the remaining 4 variables did not, beliefs $\beta = -.079$, $t = -1.033$, $p = .302$, religion $\beta = .001$, $t = .022$, $p = .983$, urbanization $\beta = .139$, $t = 1.866$, $p = .063$, and economic $\beta = -.073$, $t = -1.135$, $p = .257$. The effect size of their relationship was tested with the use of Cohen's $F^2 = (R^2 - / (1 - R^2))$ which indicated that $F^2 = 0.084 - / (1 - 0.084) = 0.095$ small positive effect size (Cohen,1988).

Table 9: Regression Analysis between Socio Cultural Factors and Waste Generation Rate

Waste Generation Rate				
Variables	B	Beta (β)	t	Sig
Practice	.097	.167	2.462	.014*
Beliefs	-.046	-.079	-1.033	.302
Religion	.001	.001	.022	.983
Urbanization	.077	.139	1.866	.063
Geographical	-.109	-.190	-2.702	.007**
Awareness	.129	.251	3.552	.000***
Economic	-.033	-.073	-1.135	.257
R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	
.290	.084	.068	.41265	

Note: Waste generation rate as dependent variable, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

4. Conclusion

The social factors reviewed in the literature that mostly influence solid waste generation in the study area include the economic condition of the residents, the value attached to waste, public enlightenment and awareness campaigns on waste management, public cooperation, urbanization, and geographical factors. On the other hand, the cultural factors reviewed include the lifestyle of the people, their perception of

the issue of waste, their norms, beliefs, practices, and religion. Findings from the study revealed that social factors (urbanization, geographic location, awareness, and economic status) and cultural factors (practice, beliefs, and religion) influence solid waste generation in Bida. The degree of reliability was tested to check the acceptability of the items for corresponding factors using Cronbach's alpha value ($\alpha > 0.70$) and an acceptable internal consistency, indicating that the items measure the factors perfectly. This finding adds

valuable information to future studies on MSW prediction that will aid in achieving more precise outcomes. There is a need for more investigation into the relationship between the amount of solid trash individuals create and the number of households.

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Drama Communication as an Instrument for addressing Out-of-School Girls' Phenomenon in Nigeria

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Abstract. United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in 2022 stated that: “Nigeria has about 20 million out-of-school children. Globally, the organization submitted that there are 244 million children and youth between the ages of 6 and 18 worldwide (who) are still out of school (Ogunode and Adanna, 2022). A survey conducted by the United Nations International Children's Education Fund (UNICEF) indicates that the population of out-of-school children in Nigeria has risen from 10.5 million to 18.5 million, making it the world's third highest of which sixty percent are girls. For this challenge to be effectively addressed, it is essential to seek a strategic communication intervention such as drama communication to disseminate the issues of out-of-school phenomenon, especially in areas where it is prevalent. Drama enacts vivid situations that will be explored by the participants, inviting them to find out more about the process of how a situation like girl-child dropout exists. It will lead them into comparing perspectives in the here and now, thereby working towards identifying the inherent problems with a deeper understanding of the challenge thereby proffering solutions. Anchoring this discourse on the Constructivist Learning Theory and Experiential Learning Theory, this paper explores the potentials of drama communication towards addressing the issue of out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria. The paper provides an overview of drama and its capacity for encouraging dialogue for social progress, as well as transforming the mindset of the population towards reducing the incidence of girl-child drop-out. The paper concludes that there is power in drama communication towards promoting and sensitizing the populace and it a potential effective instrument and tool for addressing the problem of out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria. This paper recommends that there is a need to make the

education of the girl-child a media agenda through the use of drama communication in order to reduce the rate of out-of-school girls in Nigeria.

Keywords: Drama Communication; Tool; Out-of-school Girls; Girl-Child Dropout; Out-of-school Girls' Phenomenon; Nigeria.

1. Introduction

Nigeria is one of the most populous nations of the world with over 200 million in population. Education as a development tool is essential for progress in every society especially developing nations. Without access to quality education in a nation, development in any form becomes very limiting for both boys and girls. According to Ogunode and Adanna (2022), a report from UNICEF (2022) observed that about 18.5 million children, the majority (60%) of whom are girls, do not have access to education in Nigeria. Article 26 of the UN Charter asserts that, everyone has the right to education and that education should be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages of schooling (Human Rights Charter, 1948).

Nigeria, a nation full of socio-economic potentials has for several decades faced multiple challenges in the area of development especially in the education sector. While several interventions at various times have been deployed towards reducing or eradicating the phenomenon of out-of-school girls, the challenge persists with Nigeria having the highest out-of-school children in the world. This invariably creates a barrier to efforts aimed at attaining Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG4) in Nigeria.

This thereby indicates that there is an urgent need for a strategic intervention in the area of girl-child dropping out-of-school. One strategic intervention

that would prove invaluable in this issue of girl-child dropout in Nigeria is the use of drama communication. The essence of drama communication is to allow social problems to be portrayed in their most simple forms which would help the audience to connect with the story as well as see the situation in another perspective. This will eventually lead to the making of informed decisions on issues presented. It is against this backdrop that this paper explored through an opinion perspective, the use of drama communication as an instrument for addressing out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The issue of the girl-child dropping out of school is a global one. It is most prevalent however, among the developing nations. Within this context, Nigeria has one of the highest incidents of out-of-school girls in the world. Nigeria has the highest number of children not attending formal education in the world with a figure of 18.5 million out-of-school children, 60% of who are girls who have little or no access to education (UNICEF, 2022). There is a very serious implication to the society if the girl-child is not educated, especially on sustainable human development. Education has the potential of improving the lives of girls and women directly and indirectly. It allows them to have greater control of their lives and provides them with skills that will enable them to contribute to the development of their societies.

Very high level of out-of-school girls in Nigeria is due to many reasons ranging from social, environmental, to economic, thereby making it impossible for them to effectively contribute to the growth and development of the society. This is quite challenging in a nation like Nigeria. For any nation to grow and develop, there is an urgent need to address or stop this phenomenon. Madu and Obi (2021) acknowledge previous efforts that Nigeria has made in this regard. They however are of the view that much more need to be done in this critical area especially as it affects the north and south of the country:

It is true that some efforts have been made by successive governments to improve the girl child education in Nigeria. Much still needs to be done if women must fully contribute to the development of the nation. Recent statistics still showed that despite marked improvement in female enrolment in the country, girls still lack behind in the formal education system particularly in the North and South-South region of Nigeria.

It is in this light that this study explored the use of drama communication as an instrument for addressing out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are to:

- provide valuable insight on drama as an effective communication tool.
- explore the potential impact of drama communication tool as an instrument and veritable strategy for addressing out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria.

2. Understanding the Concepts: Drama Communication and Out-of-school Girls' Phenomenon

2.1 Drama Communication

Drama is the form or genre of literature which is intended to be performed usually in some sort of theatre. Drama is both similar to and different from the other forms of literature. It is just like fiction and poetry in being a text which aims at communicating ideas about certain issues. However, it differs from both fiction and poetry in several aspects. Drama has one characteristic peculiar to itself; it is written mainly to be performed, not to be read. Moreover, drama presents ideas and transforms those ideas into some form of performance. Drama can be translated or communicated in different forms hence radio drama. Drama communication grabs the attention of the audience and varies in pace and length of scene; it's intended to keep the listener's attention as well as express the characters in dialogue and interaction.

According to Costa, Faccio, Belloni, and Ludici (2014), drama techniques have been widely implemented in many different areas of education and in clinical settings. They further emphasized the effectiveness of using theatre as a means of promoting change by pointing out its strong emotional component is attributed to two main functions: a cathartic function and a performative one. Drama, they maintained, is, first of all, entertainment and could be useful for implementing educational interventions based on its techniques- especially with children and adolescents. In this regard, drama can serve as a communication strategy that could be tailored to the target population.

Kalidas (2014) confirms that:

The use of drama as an effective and valuable teaching strategy is becoming increasingly common in educational contexts. The use of drama promotes

meaningful, active and reflective thinking processes as well as enhancing communication skills development. Further adding that one of the reasons drama is able to enhance students' learning experience is because of its unique ability to accommodate many different learning styles and thereby able to motivate the learners.

Drama is more concerned with providing people with lived-in experience, with the enactive moment, rather than with performing the rehearsed moment. Drama communication can be used as a tool for social change and development including reducing the incidence of girl-children dropping out of school. Nigeria is a nation that thrives on the performance of drama as seen in the Nigerian Nollywood and Kannywood. Most Nigerians are galvanized towards drama performances as it helps one to see in real life the social challenges and possible ways to resolve them as well as showing the connection inherent in socio-economic scenarios.

2.2 Out-of-school Girls' Phenomenon

Out-of-school girls refer to girls that are meant to be in school but are not due to both external and internal factors. For the purpose of this study, the out-of-school girls in focus are girls that are of primary school age; that is, those between the ages of six and eleven. The term, 'out-of-school girls' therefore refers to the girls that have no access to full primary school education over a period of time. It also includes the girl-children that have left school. In most cases, the families of these girls do not give them the opportunity of being enrolled in school. At other times, even those that are enrolled are not given the opportunity of completing the programme; they abandon the educational system without completing the academic year especially primary school due to one factor or the other.

Gisore, (2004) proposes four groups of factors that could account for the girl child dropping out of school. These are socio-economic background, socio-cultural level, the pedagogical conditions and psychological development of the child.

3. Exploring the Use of Drama Communication

Nigeria as a nation has a cultural heritage that is steamed from drama and this is evident in the Nollywood and Kannywood films produced and distributed all over the world. Drama is basically a form of literature which is intended to be performed in different formats. Drama aims to communicate ideas about certain issues. Drama Communication

can be performed in theatres, film, radio and other outlets towards expressing information on ideas meant to transform and change perspective. It involves acting and presenting ideas and transforming those ideas into some form of performance.

With out-of-school girls in mind, drama communication can be used as a tool for projecting the thoughts inherent in the importance of the girl-child remaining in school. This can be done first through the production of a script that has the ideas needed or relevant to be translated into drama. To do this, effort has to be put in researching on possible ideas for performance and deciding in what format the presentation will be rendered as well as the delivery pattern. The intention is to express the characters in dialogue, using music and sound effects to help the listener imagine the characters being portrayed in the story. An example is having the idea that remaining in school is vital to socio-economic development and then producing a drama script that speaks to this effect. The script would then be performed in a theatre setting that is accessible to the target audience.

The drama presentation has the capacity of providing the audience with a new experience thereby leading them to a change of mind and transformation by accepting this new reality and information. The message needed to be communicated in the drama should be clearly presented. For the purpose of this study, the message that will be produced to the audience will focus on the eradication, or reduction of the incident of out-of-school girls. This means that using the instrument of drama communication will communicate the need for the girl-child to go to school or remain in school and reduce the rate of dropping out.

4. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this paper is anchored on two leaning theories, namely, the constructivist learning theory and experiential learning theory.

4.1 The Constructivist Learning Theory

The general understanding of constructivism is that it is a theory of learning or meaning making. It postulates that individuals create their own new understandings on the basis of an interaction between what they already know and believe and ideas and knowledge with which they come into contact (Resnick, 1989). The constructivist learning theory explains that we learn by 'constructing' knowledge in

our minds. Constructivism argues that learners have an active role in thinking things through, mulling them over, and coming to conclusions based on logic and critical thinking. The constructivist theory is based on the idea that learners are active participants in their learning journey and that knowledge is constructed based on experiences. In the same vein, parents of out-of-school girls will imbibe knowledge through the introduction of drama communication which will help them to make decisions of allowing their girl-children to go to school.

The main point in constructivist learning theory is that Knowledge is constructed. Every learner begins the learning journey with some pre-existing knowledge and then continues to build their understanding upon that. The shaping of further understanding could be through drama communication where the information that would be performed in the drama would be a social issue like reducing or eradicating the dropout rate of the girl-child in Nigeria. This would lead to discussions, conversations, interactions and then understanding which would ultimately lead to a positive action.

Constructivist learning theory therefore, elicits prior knowledge and this is built when new ideas are presented. The power inherent in drama communication is enough to encourage the audience to provide feedback, thereby causing reflection on learning. The resultant effect would be action which could be in the form of mindset change towards allowing the girl-child to go to school.

4.2 Experiential Learning Theory

David Kolb is best known for his work on the experiential learning theory. Kolb published this model in 1984, getting his influence from other great theorists including John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, and Jean Piaget. Experiential learning theory recognizes that learning problem is not just for children anymore; there are learning challenges for all adults, as well. There are learning challenges at every level of the society whether it is at the level of the individual, family, community, organization, institution, or even the nation. Experiential learning theory (ELT) is a dynamic, holistic theory of the process of learning from experience and a multi-dimensional model of adult development. It is a holistic theory that defines learning as the major process of human adaptation involving the whole person. As such, ELT is applicable not only in the formal education classroom but in all arenas of life. The holistic nature of the learning process means that it operates at all levels of human society from the

individual, to the group, to organizations, and to the society as a whole.

The basis for the experiential learning theory is learning by doing. Experiential learning focuses on the idea that the best way to learn things is by actually having experiences. Those experiences then stick out in one's mind and help you retain information and remember facts. This is in tandem with the purpose of this study and justifies its adoption in the study. Drama communication creates an experience that will foster remembrance especially with information about keeping girls in school and how the mindset of parents or guardians of out-of-school girls can evolve based on communication in drama through performance. When comparing the experiential learning theory with other traditional theories, a prominent difference in the overall approach is formed. A very different outlook has arisen in education that entails the proper relationship between learning, work and other life activities and the creation of knowledge itself (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

5. Research Methodology

The major objective of this paper is to provide valuable insight on the use of drama as a communication strategy for addressing out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria. This is an opinion paper where valuable insight is explored on the strategic use of drama communication as an instrument for reducing the incident of out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria. To build this argument, this paper therefore used secondary data from journal articles, books, reports and such other sources. Through on-line and desk research, the researchers organized and analyzed data from all the secondary sources used.

The scope of the findings was limited to factors that contributed to the girl-child dropping out of school as well as challenges faced by the girl-child. The literature review allowed the progressive exploration of factors that contribute to girl-child dropping out of school. This paper used the opinion of the researchers as its core methodological approach. The concluding statement is that communication strategy in the form of drama communication approach is an effective instrument for reducing or ending out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria.

6. Review of Empirical Studies

This section describes the literature related to the subject of out-of-school girls' phenomenon and the

factors responsible for contributing to this. Generally, the aim of this review is to broaden understanding of what has been done in-relation to this study. This review is on a combination of sources derived from textbooks, journal articles both online and offline and several other publications and other official reports that are related to girl-children dropping out of school in Nigeria.

6.1 Reasons for Out-of-School Girls' Phenomenon

There are several reasons why the phenomenon of out-of-school girls exists. They range, from social, to cultural, to economic, to environmental and to even structural. Uwaezuoke (2019) is of the view that several factors contribute to the phenomenon of out-of-school children in Nigeria. According to him, they include gender inequality, insurgency, child marriage, natural disasters and child labor and other negative socio-cultural norms. His study went on to indicate that despite the presence of the legislative arm of the government in the country, it does not appear that the phenomenon of out-of-school children is decreasing. The link between the decrease of out-of-school children and national development is apparent even as there are several models brought forth to explain this relationship.

In addition, he proposes the provision of attendance and completion of junior secondary school education as a pre-qualification for statutory marriages in Nigeria. This should be accompanied by sanctions which should serve as deterrent and reward which should serve as encouragement. This simply means that one has to have some sort of academic certification before embarking on marriage. The researcher stressed however that it is the reward approach rather than the sanction approach that has the potential of attracting persons to the legislation. He is of the view that this approach has the capacity to hasten the achievement of the desired goal of enacting any legislation through its "friendly-mien" which allows persons to feel that they are part of that legislation. This strategy of possible reward could prove to be another way of reducing the phenomenon and creating incentive for parents or guardians to allow their children to attend school. What this researcher failed to see is that this approach may not work in all the states taking into consideration how dynamic a nation like Nigeria is and that one thought process may not work for a country as economically and culturally diverse and sensitive as Nigeria.

Similarly, Nabugoomu (2019) working from the Ugandan experience, confirmed that some factors responsible for out-of-school phenomenon include,

poor academic performance, failure to cope with school, lack of social skills to cope with life's challenges. Other factors include early employment, early pregnancy, lack of parental care and role models, child-headed families, media influence, and drug abuse, poor payment of teachers, poverty among parents, child labor, long distances to school, family gardening, and lack of school/personal effects.

In like mind but with a broader perspective, Mikisa (2019) argues that other factors responsible for girl-child drop-out especially in a country like Uganda include internal factors (perceived self-efficacy motivation to go to school, and perception of gender equality), family environment (household chores, perceived parental attitude toward education, and adolescents' perceptions of parents' ability to meet family needs), and school environment (school infrastructure, and perceived teacher support, and safety at school). These points provide some level of clarity towards solving a continental problem of girl-child dropping out of school.

Another researcher, Banura (2019), who worked on the same subject of girls dropping out of school, identified environmental factors as a major influence for girl-child dropout. The study found out that that school and family related factors were responsible for the girl-child dropping out of school. It specifically identified such school related factors like long distance to school, inadequate and inappropriate water and sanitation facilities, lack of provision of scholastic materials, lack of guidance and counselling. Specific family related factors include early and forced girl-child marriages.

7. Strategic Insight into the use of Drama for Development Communication

The use of drama as an effective and valuable teaching strategy is becoming increasingly common in educational contexts especially in the area of development communication. It promotes meaningful, active and reflective thinking processes as well as enhancing the development of communication skills. Drama communication provides a unique and irreplaceable education experience involving both feelings and emotions in a way that results in a more effective form of education (Best, 1996). This is explored through the process of role-playing with provided information and the act of exploring and discovering oneself and the wider world in a way that protects them from the consequences that would normally follow in the situations they recreate (Edmiston, 2000).

According to Joronen, Konu, Rankin and Åstedt-Kurki (2011), educational drama can be very effective in improving pupils' interpersonal relations in the cultivation of cooperation and in improving the general climate in the classroom. In light of this, drama communication can therefore serve as a tool for improving and encouraging reduction in girl-child dropout from school. Drama communication involves role-playing and performance. Its utilization as a communication strategy requires some level of research that will enable the effective delivery of the information to the target audience. In this case, the communication of drama on the issue of eradicating girl-child dropping out of school to parents or guardians involves the reflection on values and beliefs.

Drama as a valuable form of communication creates dramatic situations to be explored by the participants, inviting them to find out more about the process of how a situation like girl-child came into being, to shift perspectives in the here and now. It also identifies and sometimes solves inherent problems and deepens further understanding of the challenge. It further gives learners the chance to express themselves more effectively in everyday situations. In other words, drama communication encourages learners to learn how to influence others and how to put themselves in other people's shoes.

Drama Communication represents what life is all about in Nigeria where so many people see more clearly when their situation is dramatized or depicted visually before them. The challenge of out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria is a huge issue with complications in the socio-economic area. Drama communication would serve as a language that most people may understand and respond to as well as react to thereby creating a situation of change where the incidence of girl-child dropout is a thing of the past. Drama communication when properly applied will certainly serve as an instrument for addressing out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria.

8. Conclusion

This paper concludes that Nigeria as a nation has the highest incidence of out-of-school girls' dropout and this has had socio-economic impact on the nation especially in terms of development and growth. Over the years various strategies have been deployed in the attempt to address this challenge yet the percentage remains high in Nigeria. This paper is an opinion paper that explored the use of drama communication strategy for addressing out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria. This paper has also brought

forth valuable insight in the use of drama communication towards this phenomenon with the hope that this strategic instrument will be used for socio-economic development in Nigeria.

Educating the girl child is an investment because everyone, whether male or female has the right to make meaningful contribution to the society. This can only be achieved when people are properly equipped with the right tools or instrument. In this case, education is an apt tool needed for individual progress in life. Drama communication can be a very important tool for prompting development in a nation like Nigeria. This therefore justifies its use as a strategic intervention tool for ending the phenomenon of out-of-school girls in Nigeria.

9. Recommendations

This paper recommends the strategic use of drama communication as an instrument for addressing out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria. It could be achieved in the following ways:

There should be a media agenda communicated through the use of drama to the general public with the sole aim of promoting and encouraging the girl-child to remain in school and not to drop out of school.

The content of the media agenda communicated in the drama should include the adjustment of policies, rules and regulations that would encourage the importance of education in Nigeria thereby improving the retention of girl-children in schools.

The media agenda communicated in the drama should include all the stakeholders in the public and private sectors who must be involved in the advocacy of making education a priority as a way of reducing the incidence of girl-child dropout from schools in Nigeria.

There should be the creation of theatre sites, town hall presentations, development film presentation and general publicity on the issue of promoting the importance of the girl-child remaining in school.

Nigeria has great potentials in every front and this can be further actualized through the promotion of education in the life of the girl-child. The possibilities of other communication strategies that can be used are endless. This paper provides a path towards a real solution for the out-of-school girls phenomenon or girls dropping out of school. This research brings to light the confidence that drama communication

stands as an effective instrument towards addressing out-of-school girls' phenomenon in Nigeria.

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Remote Sensing Satellite Systems and Capabilities in Mapping Environmental Resources

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Abstract. In the dynamic field of remote sensing, cartography and geographic information systems (geoinformatics), remote sensing is bulk data generating format. This research review tends to present satellite remote sensing environmental data capture capabilities with their mode of images data acquisition method. It involves the presentation of detailed historical background of the systems' emergence since 80s to the present-day design, modes of data capture, height of sensor, bands and bandwidth, resolutions (m), wavelengths, scene, etc., highlighted for non-professionals to understand. Now, earth resources data are available through land observation satellite, the use of remotely sensed data for environmental baseline studies, have made it possible in acquiring earth's data which are cost effective, timely and repetitive in a consistent manner especially with the high-resolution satellites data promoted with the use of geographic information systems (GIS,) for analysis presentation. This is an effective procedure in establishing trend, nature and in location of surface phenomena for acquisition of environmental remotely sensed that include land, soil, vegetation, water, housing, settlement, climate, security, etc. data and their attributes data derived. Also, limited subsurface data on hydrology, soil, oil and gas, etc. are derivable from space studies and assessment due to increased spatial resolutions in modern satellites. These include: Landsat TM (30m), Landsat ETM plus (15m) and SPOT-HRV (high resolution visible) and HRVIR (high resolution visible infrared) of 10m, Nigeria Sat-1, 2, X (like Landsat TM of (30m)), Ikonos image (3.2m) panchromatic i.e. black and white (0.8m), Quickbird (2.4m) panchromatic (0.6m), and Worldview 1 (the world highest resolution satellite) with 0.5m resolutions respectively, using various wave bands. Thus, increased environmental surveillance and data collection are derivable from the emergence of updated and improved modern satellites' technology for space studies and assessment due to the increased performance in high-spatial resolutions, cost

effectiveness, timeliness and repetitiveness in a consistent manner.

Keywords: Remote sensing, Satellite systems, Capabilities, Mapping, Environment, Resources.

1. Introduction

Remotely sensed satellite data is used for more than ten decades in various environmental programs and research studies across the globe from high-resolution orbit satellites. Thus, terrain and other environmental features image (imagery mapped are analyzed with increased ground resolution using Nigeria Sat-1 like Landsat TM (30m), Landsat ETM plus (15m) and SPOT-HRV (high resolution visible) and HRVIR (high resolution visible infrared) of 10m, Ikonos image (3.2m) panchromatic or black and white (0.8m), Quickbird (2.4m) panchromatic (0.6m), and Worldview 1 (world highest resolution satellite) (0.5m) resolutions at various wave bands. Satellite remote sensing methodology is overwhelming and all-embracing in images (imageries) and digital elevation models (DEM) and with basic and adequate rudimentary knowledge of aerial methodology and interpretation using basic interpretative elements cannot be done without for thorough understanding of the overall practical and adherence to the global best practices applications. The use of satellite remotely sensed data for baseline studies have made it possible in acquiring remotely sensed earth's image data that are cost effective, timely and repetitive acquisition which are in a consistent manner especially with the high-resolution images This is promoted with the use of geographic information systems (GIS,) for analysis of data and presentation of results and therefore an effective procedure in establishing trend, nature and in location of surface phenomena on acquired image data. Also, limited subsurface data on hydrology, soil, oil and gas, etc. are derivable for

studies and assessment due to increased spatial resolutions in the modern satellites build.

1.1 Objectives of study

The aim of this study is to examine satellite systems and capabilities in mapping environment resources for the potential of using remotely sensed data for environmental studies in provision and the manipulations of data to make decision and modeling.

1.2 Research Methodology

The data collected for this study are from secondary sources textbooks, journals, internet, remote sensing bodies manual and periodicals, government publications, etc.

1.2.1 Study Area

The study is restricted to satellite systems and capabilities in mapping environment resources. The use of various satellite data for environment could image features repetitively for a defined cycle that could also monitor inaccessible areas.

2. Literature Review

The historical review on remote sensing satellite system is further highlighted together with their capabilities in generating data is present below:

2.1 Skylab

This is an American spacecraft that was launched in May 14th 1973 and 11/ 7/79, it came down the earth in pieces. It was designed with earth resources experiment package (EREP) which was initially unmanned. It was later occupied sequentially by three astronauts from a period of May 25th 1973 to Nov 6, 1973. At the end of the period of Skylab, i.e. after four-space missions of the spacecraft, it was deactivated. In 1979, Skylab was airborne the earth's atmosphere and disintegrated over Australia. The EREP sensor systems included two photographic and four electronic sensor packages- multi spectral photographic systems used six identical cameras with different, film filter combinations in viewing the ground area simultaneously over the (0.4-0.8 um) band range.

Skylab 2 was launched in October 1985 and had a geocentric orbit at approximately 400 km consisting of 3 platform and a unique structure called igloo on which several equipments will be exposed to space environment. The ESA equipment pointing systems are included in the payload. The Spacelab 3, which was launched in April 1984, is designed requiring a

low gravity and motion stable environment emphasising material processing.

2.2 Heat Capacity Mapping Mission

This is an American program launched on April 26th 1978 designed using thermal kinetic (ability of a substance to resist change in temperature with variation of incident energy for example over a daily circle). The mission was designed to acquire repetitive thermal data twice daily at times close to the expected daily surface temperature (minimum and maximum. The satellite position is nearly sun-synchronous circular orbit for maximum sun ascending (1.30 PM) and its minimum (4.30 am) of the diurnal cycle. This is one of NASA application explorer mission (NEM) and is smaller and less expensive compared with Landsat series. Also, it is less precise in orbit accuracy and stabilization of altitude.

It carries one sensor-heat capacity mapping radiometer (HCMR). HCMR has 2 channels with the first equivalent to mss bend 7 (0.8-1.1 um) and the second is a thermal infrared radiation (10.5-12.5 um) which is a measure of thermal radiation. It transmits analogue data to 6 NASA receiving stations when the satellite is within range. It has spatial resolution of 600 m at the nadir. The HCMM is oriented to broad applications especially in areas of geology, hydrology and agriculture. It was initially planned for duration of one year but later had life span of 2-1/2 years. It is credited in provision of 6000 data passes and 26,500 frames of imagery. The data has been used in distinguishing rock types even though with vegetation cover, discriminate geology units (of similar albedo) from determination. Also, identify water tables, estimate moisture content, map industrial thermal pollution and map aerial snow extent.

2.3 Seasat

The USA launched Seasat on June 26 1978 on the proposed series of oceanographic research satellites. It is a platform orbit of near polar orbit at 800 km for provision of alternating data (day and night) covering 95% of the earth's ocean every 36 hours. The five sensors aboard Seasat are: (1) A compressed pulse radar altimeter to provide precision altimeter for marine body and sea surface topographic studies. (2) A wavelength scatterometer that measure global wind speed and directions. (3) A two scanning radiometers operating in the visible 0.52-0.73 (um) and infrared (0.5 to 12.5 um) portion of the spectrum to monitor the ocean colour and temperature. (4) Radiometer

with five bands imaging between 6.6 and 0.8 cm. (5) An H-band (25 cm) synthetic-aperture imaging radar (SAR) to provide a determination of wave pattern and sea ice in selected areas.

SAR provides the first synoptic high-resolution radar images of the earth's surface with high rate of data acquisition (110 megabits per second). The SAR data were not recorded on board the satellite, but were transmitted to the earth when it is within range of ground receiving station and recorded on ground in five receiving stations receptive of SAR data. During its 90 days of operation, the Seasat SAR acquired images covers about 100 miles. The SAR have objective of potential monitoring of global surface waves-field and polar-sea condition. The image of the oceans revealed a circle spectrum of oceanic and atmospheric phenomena, which include: internal waves, current boundaries, eddy, front's bathy metric features, rainfall and storms. Except SAR, the other sectors were designed for continuous operation. SAR operates only when it was over selected high-data rate ground stations with incidence angle ranging 7° in high-relief terrain to 2° in low-relief terrain to reduce shadowing which create problem in landform discrimination in high relief regions owing to fore shorting and layovers. In Seasat-1, a massive short circuit in the electrical system terminated subsequent acquisition of data on October 10, 1978.

2.4 Space Shuttle

A space shuttle vehicle was launched first on April 1981 by USA, which marked a new era of manned space flight that could be repeatedly used. It has seven experiments selected to demonstrate its potential for earth resource research with a eight-man crew (commander, pilot, a mission specialist (NASA astronauts) and four pay load specialist that conduct shuttle if an orbital laboratory to conduct highly specialized experiments in the weightless and vacuum space condition and to receive and strategically place earth-orbiting satellites. The shuttle flight system consists of the orbital, external tank with ascent propellant used by main engines of the orbits, and two solid rockets, each with a sea-level thrust of 11.8 million Newtons.

The seven experiments will be used for investigating, geology, atmospheric chemistry, meteorology, marine, biology and plant physiology. It is being managed by office of space and terrestrial applications (OSTA) and the data will be available to the public with 6-12 months after mission completion.

The sensors of the shuttle include: (1) The shuttle imagine radar (SIR-A), (2) The shuttle multispectral

infrared radiometers (SMIR). These are involved in the measurement of air pollution from satellite (MAPS), (3) The night and day optical survey of lighting (NOSL), (4) The ocean colour experiment (OCE), (5) The feature identification and location experiment (file) and (6) The helianthus annuus flight experiments (Heflex) Bio engineering test (HBT).

2.5 European Space Agency (Esa) Satellites

This was designed by European space agency (ESA) for ocean observation ESA resources satellite (ERS-I) use spot vehicle launched by ARIANE and launched in the period 1986-87. The sensor payload includes five (5) sensors (1) A synthetic aperture radar (SAR) With son resolution with 100 km swath, (2) Oceanic colour monitor 60 cm with 10 spectral bands (0.4-11.5 μm), (3) Imaging microwave radiometer (IMR) operating in 6 frequencies (4), Two frequency scatterometer for detection of wind direction and velocity and (5) Radar altimeters for six sea state determination.

An advanced ESA satellite (AERS) had been launched around 1989 geared principally for land observation using spot vehicle and its payload to include SAR from ERS 1 an optical imaging instrument which would have six spectral bands (0.5-3025 μm) with IFOV of 30m. And panchromatic band with a 15m IFOV and a 175 km swath

2.6 Canadian Radarsat

It was launched in 1990 and consists of a three axis stabilized platform of sufficient power and weight capacity to carry a c-band and an L-band synthetic aperture radar (SAR). It is designed to provide information on ice and water ocean body and to provide remotely sensed applications in forestry, geology, hydrology and agriculture. The wavelengths are l-band (23.5 cm) or c-band (5.7 cm)

2.7 Other National Systems

2.7.1 Chinasat

The people's Republic of China has launched several satellites since the launch of Chinasat-1 in 19th July 1975. No images from Chinasat 1 to Chinasat 10 (launched Dec. 1976) have been made available to international community.

Additional Chinasat were scheduled and launched e.g., Chinasat 10 carried a 2-channel meteorological radiometer and infrared bands. In Nov. 1980, china announced the development of 11-band multispectral scanner, linear array sensor and synthetic aperture radar.

2.7.2 India Bhaskara

The Indian space research organisation (ISRO) developed an earth observation satellite (BHASKARA) placed in orbit by a USSR (Russian federation) vehicle launched from a cosmodrome in USSR (Russian federation).

It was designed to conduct earth resources observations in forestry, hydrology and geology using a two-band television camera system. It also conducts surface ocean studies using a two-frequency microwave radiometer system. USSR (Russian federation) launched an identical satellite (BHASKARA-2) in December 1981. ISRO developed second generation India resources satellite with collaborative services of NASA and Russian agency.

The Netherlands agency space program in co-operation with Indonesia developed a tropical earth resources satellite (TERS) that carried a Dutch built multispectral linear sensor into a low inclination orbit. The sensor design is adapted to weather condition and vegetation types in the tropical area.

2.7.3 Ocean Monitoring Satellites

Most of the space satellites currently in use are modelled after the wavelength band of earlier ones like Spacelab and space shuttle. These include:

The coastal zone color scanner (CZCS). This is to provide coverage of large areas in repetitive regular intervals and designed specifically for ocean monitoring. Two CZCS sensors are carried on Seasat satellite. CZCS was launched by U.S.A. in 1978 and operated in June 1986. The designing as a proof of concept mission; will measure ocean colour and temperature in coastal zones having imagery of 1600 km swath with a resolution of 825 m. A single imagery (with images) represents 2 minutes of data. Collection provides imaging of a 160 km (across track) by 800 m (along track) area.

It uses six channels and four bands in the visible portion, with a near infrared band and a thermal infrared band (see fig).

Bands	Wavelength (m)
1	0.43-0.45 (blue)
2	0.51-0.53 (green)
3	0.54-0.56 (green)
4	0.66-0.68 (red)
5	0.70-0.80 (near IR)
6	10.5-12.5 (thermal IR)

Fig. Showing wavelength bands used in CZCS.

Data from CZCS are used to map suspended sediment and phytoplankton organisms in coastal regions. CZCS data studies provide.

GEOSTATIONARY SATELLITE STATUS (GOES): The geostationary operation environment satellites provide atmospheric monitory of parameters such as cloud cover humidity and temperature for weather prediction goes satellites are civilian designed programme by the United States. It is a good stationary satellite orbiting the earth at 36,000 km i.e. in the same rotating direction of the earth therefore assumed a geostationary stationary position relative to the earth. Two GOES satellites covers north America area at longitude 75° west and GOES-west at longitude 135° west with two others covering Europe and Japan GOES produces images in 2 high visible (0.55-0.75 urn) and in the thermal infrared bands (10,2-2.5) have resolutions 8 to 14 km during the day and night.

The satellite imaging of the earth as a circular orbit covers longitudemo°E and 100°W and latitude 70°N and 70°S produced at the rate of 2 per hour, one on each band. Although, smaller areas can be frequently imaged such as in monitoring development of sever storm. GOES has equipments for detecting infrared in 12 separate wavelength bands.

The equipment collects data in a selected area (at a time) without producing the image the computer-processed data generate vertical temperature and moisture profiles through the atmosphere and are used in for casting weather conditions.

Application of GOES is in weather prediction, detection and tracking of sever storm events. These are used by the US action weather services and data stations in other countries to provide data on wide range of weathering warnings to the public, aviation, marine interest etc.

The sensors of the shuttle include: (1) The shuttle imagine radar (SIR-A), (2) The shuttle multispectral infrared radiometers (SMIR). These are involved in the measurement of air pollution from satellite (MAPS), (3) The night and day optical survey of lighting (NOSL), (4) The ocean colour experiment (OCE), (5) The feature identification and location experiment (file) and (6) The helianthus annuus flight experiments (Heflex) Bio engineering test (HBT). Nigeria Sat-1, 2, X):

2.7.4 Nigeria Sat 1

In April 1999, the government of Nigeria established the national space research and development agency

(NASRDA), with six operational centres, and mandated it to consolidate all space science and technology related activities in order to make a greater impact on scientific development efforts in Nigeria. The initiative has crystallised in the building and launching of the first Nigeria's satellite, called Nigeria sat- 1 on 27th September, 2003 (fig 1 &2).

The product of advanced technology in micro-satellite having a manageable size (100KG) and low-cost(affordability). Nigeria sat 1 is a camera based system with sensors in 3 spectral bands of green (0.52-6um), red (0.63-069um) and near infrared (076-0-9um) and a strong potential for NDVI normalised differential vegetation index), this can be used for a variety of applications and inferences including family early warning and appropriate decision-making to enhance food security.Has a ground sampling distance(GSD) of spatial resolution of 32um, as a swath width of 600km with a maximum of 600x570km ground coverage on a single image, equivalent to nine (9) scenes of US LandSat-TM which has similar resolution (30m)and Constellation with 4 other satellites (Alsat-1, UKDMC, BILSATA and china sat belonging to Algeria, UK, turkey and china respectively) gives Nigeria-1 added advantage of global coverage and daily revisit with provision of real time data. Nigeria sat 1 and the other satellites are launched and spaced in orbit(fig :3) to achieve a disaster monitoring constellation (DMC) facilitating partner-nations value added business and high public profile in terms of international disaster support and worlds first coordinated EO satellite constellation.

According to Wasrda, Nigeria Sat 1 offers a great potential for environmental and disaster management and monitoring such as deforestation, desertification, flooding, oil spills and environmental degradation, etc. Images are readily available in various formats at affordable cost and can be purchased in local and foreign currencies.

2.7.5 Nigeria Sat-2 and Nigeria Sat-X

Nigeria successfully launched two earth observation satellites to boost Africa capabilities for natural resources managements, as well as aid disaster relief through the disaster monitoring constellation Two of Nigeria satellites Nigeria sat-2 and Nigeria sat-x were successfully launched by 8:12am, Nigeria Sat-2 and Nigeria Sat-x space crafted were lifted into orbit aboard a Russia rocket from a launch pad in the two of Yasny, southern in Russia. It is one of the most advanced earth observation micro satellites ever to be launched. It was designed and assembled at SSTL in Guildford, it provide the Nigeria national space

research and development agency (NASRDA) and the disaster monitoring constellation Sat-2 is based on the latest SSTL300 platform and deliver multiple viewing modes to a maximum 2.5m parichromatil (black and white) ground sample distance (GSD) and 5.0m multi-special (colour) GSD across a 20km swath width.

A second 32m GSD, 300km swath multi-spectral imager will provide data continuity with Nigeria previous SSTL- built satellite (Nigeria SAT-1) launched in 2003 and 13 still operational it is a high resolution satellite with a designed average life span of 7 years and a total weight mass of approximately 300kg. The Nigeria sat -2 has the ability to image various modes and provoke high resolution data. Nigeria and the rest of Africa in spatial data infrastructures in the following key sectors of the economy. Agriculture and food security, urban and rural planning, education, infrastructural monitoring amongst others.

2.7.6 Landsat

The land observation satellite (LANDSAT) was originally called the earth resources technology satellite (ERTS). It has been a valuable and prolific source of remotely sensed earth resource data since the first landsat was launched in 1972. A lot of progress has been made in processing and information techniques (NASA, 1982) to which imaging data and non-imaging data collection system (DCS) are applied for their practical use. Two more satellites were launched in 1975 and 1978. A second operational generation earth sensing capability. Landsat was designed for the limitation of the multispectral scanner (MSS) instrument. This landsat 4 was launched in July 10, 1982 after a decade of development effort. This is an improved earth observation sensor system called the thematic mapper. It has been a valuable and prolific source of remotely sensed earth resource data since the first landsat satellite, was launched on July 23, 1972 with most recent Landsat 7(ETM+) on April 15, 1990 as shown in table 2a below.

Table 2a. Landsat

Imaging and non-maging data collection system (DCS) generated and applied for practical terrain applications are used in an open non-discriminatory access policy of United States. Two more satellites landsat 2 and 3 were launched in 1975 and 1978. In 1975, ERTS satellite was renamed Landsat The thematic mapper (TM) achieved many improvement capabilities which adds simultaneously to the effectiveness with which the landsat data can be used.

The 4TM bands have a 30m picture elements (pixel) size except for band 6 having 120m.

2.7.7 Multi-Spectral Scanner (MSS):

These are mounted on landsat 4 and 5 being one of the older generation sensors, routine data acquisition for MSS was terminated in 1992. The resolution was 82m with radiometric coverage in four spectral bands ranging from the visible green to the NIR wavelengths. The MSS sensor characteristics are shown below.

Table 1: Showing wavelength bands of MSS

	Band	Wavelength (mm)	Resolution (m)
Green	4	0.5-0.6	82
Red	5	0.6-0.7	82
NIR	6	0.7-0.8	82
NIR		0.8-1.1	82

2.7.8 Thematic Mapper™:

The TM is also carried on Landsat 4 and 5. The sensors also detect reflected radiation from the earth's surface in the visible and NIR wavelengths, but the TM sensor provides more radiometric information than the MSS sensor. The wavelength range for TM sensor is from the visible blue, through the mid-infrared, into the thermal infrared portion of the EM spectrum the TM sensor characteristics are given below:

Table 2: Showing wavelength bands of TM

	Band	Wavelength (mm)	Resolution (m)
Blue	1	0.45-0.52	30
Green	2	0.52-0.60	30
Red	3	0.63-0.69	30
Near IR	4	0.76-0.90	30
SVIR	5	1.55 – 1.75	30
Thermal IR	6	10.40 – 12.50	120
SWIR	7	2.08-2.35	30

The wavelength range for TM sensor is from the visible blue, through mid-infrared, to the thermal infrared portion of electromagnetic of the (EMS) spectrum. The observation bands are essentially the same as TM and a newly added panchromatic band 8 with a high resolution of 15m added. An instrument malfunction occurred on May 31, 2003 that the scenes acquired since July 14, 2003. Landsat 4 & 5 TM scene has an instantaneous field of view of 30m by 30 meters i.e. 900 square meters in band 1 through 5 (as in band 7) and band 6 of 120 meters by 120 meters (14, 400 m²) on ground resolution.

2.7.9 Landsat 7 (ETM+)

The US congress in 1992 approved a low cost multi-purpose satellite that supplied data to users into the next century. The program is committed to provide digital data to the users community in greater quantities, more quickly and at lower cost than any previous time in the program's history. The earth-observing instrument enhanced thematic mapper plus (ETM+) replicates the capabilities of highly successful thematic mapper instruments on landsat 4 and 5 with a panchromatic band of 15m-spatial resolutions and a thermal IR channel of 60m resolutions. The ETM+ also induces feature that makes it a more versatile instrument for global studies, land/use cover monitoring, assessment and large mapping area than the designed forebears. The primary new features present an advantage (table 4) of

- * a panchromatic band with 15m spatial resolution.
- * on board full aperture, 5% absolute radiometric calibration and
- * a thermal IR channel with 60m spatial resolution

Table 3 Shows landsat ETM+ Infrared bands.

	Band	Wavelength (um)	Resolution
0Blue	1	0.45-0.52	30
Green	2	0.52-0.60	30
Red	3	0.63-0.66	30
Near IR	4	0.76-0.90	30
SW IR	5	1.56-1.75	30
Thermal IR	6	10.40-12.50	60m
SW IR	7	2.08-2.35	30

The ETM+ is similar to TM instruments on landsat 6 that failed. The instrument is supported by ground network that receive ETM+ data via X- band in the receiving stations of US Geological surveys, Eros data centre in Sioux, South Bakota and it is managed by NASA.

Free download of Landsat image

Landsat TM & ETM+ and 742 Compressed mosaics and SRTM Google Earth Free online 'natural colour' TM or higher resolution images, perspective views are gotten as follow;

USGS <http://landsat.usgs.gov> Landsat 7 ETM+ to purchase, browse and order <http://edcsns17.cr.usgs.gov/EarthExplorer/> worldwide cover of Landsat TM/ETM+ scenes, EO-1 AII data (table1-2 for costs) Instrument Costs (US\$) Resolutio Swath (km)

Landsat-7 ETM+ 475 (April 1999-May 2003) 275-300 (after May 2003) 15, 30m, 60 m* 180
 Landsat-4 and -5 TM 425 (1982-2005) 30 180

ASTER 80 15, 30, 90m* 60, EO-1 ALI 250 10, 30 m* 37* depending on band.

Table 1-1 Costs < US\$ 500 of satellite scenes. Web site Available data Global Land Cover Facility (University of Maryland, USA)

<http://glcf.umiacs.umd.edu/portal/geocover/>

Landsat TM & ETM+ and 742 Compressed mosaics and SRTM, Google Earth Free online

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USGS <http://landsat.usgs.gov> Landsat 7 ETM+ to purchase, browse and order

<http://edc.sns17.cr.usgs.gov/EarthExplorer/> worldwide cover of

Landsat TM/ETM+ scenes,

EO-1 ALI data (table 1-2 for costs) & Instrument Costs (US\$) Resolution Swath (km)

Landsat-7 ETM+475 (April 1999-May 2003), 275-300 (after May 2003) & 15, 30m, 60 m* 180

Landsat-4 and -5 TM 425 (1982-2005) 30 180, ASTER 80 15, 30, 90m* 60 & EO-1 ALI 250 10, 30 m* 37

* depending on band. Table 1-1 for Costs < US\$ 500 of satellite scenes.

SPOT

It was designed and operated by French space center nationale d, etudes spatiales (CNES). The program began in 1978. The Systeme Probatoire d'observation de la Terre (SPOT) (fig.2) was designed to be a long-term operational commercial system, and subsequent satellites in the series are already being manufactured. It is a French design sensor which carries 2 Identical HRV push broom scanners, two tapes and recorders, and telemetric equipment to transmit data to the earth. The SPOT-1 was launched in early 1986 and has developed into an international programme with available data outlet in more than 30 countries for multidisciplinary use. It is advantageous in that, it has no moving parts, greater geometric fidelity, long life expectancy and better geometric accuracy. In addition, it has a resolution of 32m.

Spot has a sun-synchronous orbit at an altitude of 832 km and a return period of 26 days. When spot sensors are vertically pointed, they jointly acquire image of 117-km wide swath with each recording 60-km swath. And since the sensors are pointable, it has the capacity of viewing a location move frequently level producing repetitive timely data. It can be directed

127° left or right of the ground track by means of plane mirror, steerable by ground command. Thus, it is possible to view angles to achieve stereoscopic coverage of spot stereo images. The recent automation generates elevation data directly from digital imagery. The 2 identified push broom scanners called high resolution visible (HRV)

3. Conclusion

The satellite program no doubt is committed to provide affordable and free images (since declassification) and digital data for researches and other user's community in greater quantities, more quickly and at lower cost than any previous time period in satellite program's history.

Therefore, relatee companies and the government are enjoined to use the methodology for corporate social responsibility to the track natural hazards and nefarious activities in their area. The satellite world is very dynamic as improved technology upgrade performance for higher image resolution capabilities to upgrade environmental features with upgraded existing devices or production of new outfits. Therefore, researchers are enjoined to consistently contact countries and regional remote sensing offices for new inventions and development of the satellite-based technology from time to time.

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Cohabitation among Undergraduates of the University of Benin, Edo State, Nigeria

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Abstract. There has been a steady upsurge in students' embrace of off-campus accommodation in Nigerian universities. This ordinarily ought not to be an issue but for the fact that the students have turned such off-campus accommodation into cohabitation centres. This study therefore interrogates cohabitation among undergraduates of the University of Benin, Nigeria. The study anchors its theoretical orientation on the norm activation theory. The study was conducted using the descriptive survey method where 650 undergraduates from 63 departments in the university were sampled and administered a self-designed questionnaire. The study found that inadequate provision of hostel facilities by the university management is a motivation for cohabitation by students' resident in off-campus accommodation and that most of such students end up with unwanted pregnancies and abortion. The study therefore recommends the provision of more hostel facilities by the management of the University of Benin, Nigeria as well as engaging landlords of off-campus accommodation and community leaders in a bid to have them assist in supervising and monitoring off-campus students.

Keywords: Prevalence, cohabitation, university, off-campus, hostel issues, undergraduates

1. Introduction

In the past, all undergraduates in Nigeria universities were given hostel accommodation within the school campuses (Fareo & Moses, 2018). However, with the establishment of more universities by the Federal, State and more recently, private individuals and religious bodies, the greater demand for university education and increase in the number of undergraduates being admitted without a concomitant increase in the provision of hostels or halls of residence for them due largely to paucity of funds on

the part of the establishing authorities (Onoyase, 2020 & Adeniyi, 2019). The enrolment of students as at 2019 shows that 1,200,825 were in federal owned universities, 544,933 were in state owned universities and 102,500 were in private owned universities. These figures have further gone up to 2.1m as at 2021 with Nigeria's 99 private universities accounting for only 5% of students.

Regrettably, the current economic crunch has further made most of the universities to lack the capacity to build students' halls of residence. The resultant effect of the inability of university management to provide hostel accommodation for all its students is that students have had to therefore resort to off-campus accommodation in the nearby communities but however close to the school. In these off-campus hostels, there are no formal rules of engagement like what obtains in the halls of residence in the various Nigerian universities.

With no parental control, a number of these undergraduates living in off-campus accommodation have resorted to staying with the opposite sexes. This act, as Jiya & Zhiri (2019) puts it, is nothing more than cohabitation which is one of the important shifts in family demographics of the past century (Alo, 2002). Cohabitation has been defined by Ogunsola (2014) as an act of a man and woman living together and sometimes sharing marital intimacy without being legally married. In his view, they are those who are legally or conventionally not married, reside mutually and enjoy all or some values of marital relationship. Duyilemi, Tunde & Adekola (2018) add that, the phenomenon of cohabitation among undergraduates is now referred to as 'campus marriage' or 'campus coupling'. Unfortunately, this social malaise is on the rise in various Nigerian universities and it would appear that it is unlikely to decrease in the near future except of course,

deliberate and adequate measures are put in place to stem the ugly tide. This is against the background that the phenomenon can be encapsulated as both a status and a process and also an alternative type of housing for at least one of the cohabiters.

1.1 Statement of Problem

The social phenomenon called ‘cohabitation’ in universities across Nigeria has indeed become a cause of concern this is because as Jiya & Zhiri (2019) have rightly noted the number of new students usually admitted into the universities to take the few available hostel facilities is always in geometric progression. Without mincing words, the end appears not to be insight with regards to the increasing intakes of students via-a-vis the inadequate hostel accommodation in the various universities. This hitherto unheard-of shortage of accommodation for students has inadvertently led to off-campus hostel facilities with the attendant males and female now sharing the same apartment cooking together and in almost all the cases having sexual intimacy too.

It is no exaggeration to say that cohabitation among undergraduate students in Nigerian universities have become an endemic issue which needs to be tackled head on else, parents, students and the society at large will regret their inaction. In fact, it is contrary to the cultural norms and values of the African communities to allow young adults and unmarried persons to stay together particularly if there is no family affinity whatsoever. (Ogiadimma, 2013). Scholars have put forward several predisposing factors in cohabitation which range from non-availability of hostel facilities, economic hardship, age and abandonment of chastity and cultural norms and values. (Aluko, 2011, Soboye, 2013, Adeoye, Ola & Aliu, 2012)

Regrettably, the act of cohabitation which is now the in thing amongst undergraduate students is fraught with several unforeseen consequences such as unwanted pregnancies, abortion, poor academic performance and health hazards. (Onoyase, 2020).

It is quite glaring from the preceding discussion that some studies have been conducted on cohabitation among students in Nigerian universities. In spite of these studies, the incidence & prevalence of the social malaise still persists. The question begging for answer and which is the lacuna, this research effort seeks to bridge is why in spite of the previous works, undergraduate students are still indulging in the unwholesome practice.

1.2 Research Questions

The following questions guided this study:

- Does cohabitation result in high rate of abortion among students of the University of Benin, Nigeria?
- Is inadequate provision of hostel accommodation a cause of cohabitation among students of the University of Benin, Nigeria?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study sought to investigate cohabitation among undergraduates of the University of Benin, Nigeria. However, it specifically sought to:

- Examine whether the inadequate provision of hostel accommodation is a cause of cohabitation among undergraduates of the University of Benin, Nigeria.
- Ascertain if the high rate of abortion is a consequence of cohabitation among undergraduates of the University of Benin, Nigeria.

2. Brief Review of Related Literature

There is a plethora of studies conducted to examine the rising wave of cohabitation among off campus, undergraduate students in tertiary universities in Nigeria. There is yet to be an ad-idem among scholars on the cause or effect of the phenomenon. This is perhaps due to the differences in their background and orientation. This section examines the motivation for cohabitations and the social consequences.

2.1 Motivation for Cohabitation among Undergraduates

2.1.1 Financial needs

Several authors have argued that some students are literally forced into cohabitation due to the economic hardship which they are facing, resorting to sharing a room or moving into a room with the opposite sex usually a male is due in some cases to financial distress (Lichter, 2000) In fact, Adeniyi (2010) and Alo and Akande (2010) when they opined that many undergraduate embrace cohabitations due to economic reasons and as a way of saving on rent, food and other living expenses.

2.1.2 Inadequate Hostel /Halls of Residence

Time past when all students irrespective of level in Nigerian universities are given hostel accommodation on campus. Gradually, it slid into 100 level and final year students only. Today, some universities still find it difficult to accommodate all 100 level and final year students on campus. Little wonder that Svodziwa and Kurete (2017) believes that it is the non-availability of adequate halls of residence in public universities that make students to embrace off campus residential accommodation. Soboye (2013) puts it bluntly when he accused the management of universities of not providing hostel facilities to their students which have made them in some cases to resort to cohabitation outside the school campuses. This view had also earlier been expressed by Aluko (2011) when he lamented the steady increase in population of students without a corresponding growth in the hostel facilities which have made cohabitation very attractive to students.

2.1.3 Cultural Norms and Values

Africans in the traditional societies were noted for their values and cherished norms. In fact, these kept the societies together. Today, these values and norms appear to have been jettisoned by the “new generation”. One of the well-entrenched, cherished and valued customary practise was chastity among the girl child. The girl child was forbidden from having sexual intimacy with anyone until marriage rites have been performed and bride price duly paid. It was a thing of honour to the girl child and her family if her husband “meets her at home” (is the first person to have sexual relations with her) This regrettably is no longer the case as Adeoye, Ola and Alin (2012) have stated that the youth of this era have abandoned the revered and cherished African norms and values for the inglorious culture of premarital sexual activities. This view finds support in the work of Arisiken (2013) where he opined that cohabitation among students is totally unacceptable and alien to African society.

2.1.4 Compatibility Test

Adeniyi (2019) have argued that one of the motivation for cohabitation is to ascertain the level of compatibility of the cohabiters as well as determine whether they can “hit it off” together in marriage Ogunsola. (2004) puts it succinctly as an opportunity to carefully study each other if they really match for marriage. To Brien, Lee and Steven (2006), couples in this instant case, students learn about the quality of their relationship during cohabitation and some of them decide not to go through with their marriage.

2.1.5 Sexual intimacy

In all most all the cases, cohabiters indulge in sexual intimacy even though they are not legally or traditionally married. In fact, White heed & Popenoe (2006) insists that all young men usually show greater acceptability of cohabitation than all young women, the reason being that the males enjoy the benefits of cohabitation in terms of sexual intimacy and sharing of domestic chores than the females.

2.1.6 Independence from Control.

When students are accommodated in the halls of residence, they have no choice but to abide by the hostel/school rules and regulations. Defaulters or deviants are severely sanction by school management. At home, parents keep their eyes on the children whether they are undergraduates or not. There are rules that govern or regulate behaviour at home for the children and any child that breaks the roles is dealt with. Consequently, children particularly look forward to leaving the house for school where they could have their independence. This view has equally been shared by Ogunbamila (2013) when he said that cohabitation is an in thing among students due to the fact that many of them are having their freedom for the first time, and hence, they tend to enjoy the independence with no eyes on them to the fullest. This "fullest" unfortunately involves cohabitation.

2.2 Social Consequences of Cohabitation

It is a truism that these days, many children enter into the university at ages 15, 16, 17 years and are often naive, impressionable and curious. Their naivety and curiosity often lead them into cohabitation once they are outside their comfort zone of the watchful eyes of their parents. Most regrettably, quite a number of students ignorantly engage in cohabitation and are oblivious of the complications and implications.

2.2.1 Unwanted pregnancy and abortion

Cohabitation and pre-marital sex are becoming a life style among students in higher institution of learning in Nigeria. If the truth were to be told, it is fast becoming a kind of norm were the students not only share their rooms but also, their blankets. (Murray Swart, 2005). I dare to say that, the “under blankets” often leads to unwanted pregnancy. In a bid to getting rid of the unwanted pregnancy, many of the students resort to abortion. The lucky ones have successful termination of pregnancy while the not so lucky ones

end up having complications and in some extreme cases, untimely death.

2.2.2 Distractions

Undergraduate students are sent to school by their parents or guardians to acquire knowledge and certificates but because of their involvement in cohabitation, they often lose focus; “you can serve two masters at the same time”. Rather than reading their books, the females are either going to the market to shop for the house, cooking or washing the clothes of their male partners. This as Adeniyi (2019) puts it, makes them to lose concentration and failure becomes inevitable.

2.2.3 Contacting Infection

Without doubt infection is one of the common side effects of unprotected sex. Pre-marital sex tends to be the foundation upon which cohabitation is built upon. Many undergraduate students who cohabit often contact infectious diseases such as syphilis, H.I.V and other communicable diseases. Some of these diseases when left untreated do result into infertility in later life of the cohabiters.

2.2.4 Social Vices

Due to the unfettered freedom, the cohabiters have, some of them end up developing bad behaviour, while others join bad clubs/gang while others take to drug abuse, Yahoo plus, kidnapping and in extreme cases armed robbery. They do this because they are free from the hostel’s rules and regulations, and the guidance of their parents.

3. Theoretical Orientation

This study anchors its theoretical orientation on the norm activation theory as propounded by Schwartz (1977). This theory is adjudged the commonest employed model to forecast pro-environmental behaviours. Three key elements viz personal norms, ascription of responsibility and awareness of consequences play a vital role in predicting environmental behaviour. The thrust of the theory is that personal norms can directly provide sustainable desirable behaviour. The theory is well suited in the explanation and decision making in moral situations like to pro-environmental behaviour (Stern, Dietz & Kalof, 1999). The norm activation theory sees humans as people who are responsible for their actions. In fact, the actions based on these norms could lend credence to the sense of self-satisfaction and pride, whereas, those against such feelings may

develop a sense of guilt and sadness. This theory has adherents such as Abrahamse and Steg (2011), who have posited in line with Schwartz (1979) that an individual is expected to have an understanding or awareness of social implications of the behaviour manifested and consequently be responsible for the penalty.

In relation to the topic under investigation, undergraduates have personal norms which tend to influence their behavioural pattern in relation to cohabitation. Constant awareness on the implications of cohabitation among undergraduates will help them change their behaviour and its consequences can in a great way help students to take responsibilities that could lead to positive behaviour change.

4. Methods and Materials

The study was conducted using the descriptive survey method. It was adopted because Fajonyomi and Fajonyomi (2003) have stated that it serves an explanatory purpose and aids easy data collection from a group of individuals at the same time for the sole aim of describing any form of study or phenomena. The population for the study include all undergraduates of the University of Benin, Nigeria.

The sample size for the study included six hundred and fifty students (respondents) randomly selected from 13 faculties/schools housing 63 departments in the University of Benin. The study involves the random selection of male and female undergraduates from each of the 13 faculties. The instrument for data collection was a self-designed questionnaire known as ‘cohabitation among University of Benin undergraduate’s questionnaire’(CAUBUQ). The research instrument was designed using items from the review of related literature. The instrument was made up of twenty-seven items, with six dealing with the demographic characteristics of the respondents while the remaining 21 items dealt with the main topic under investigation. The research instrument was validated by two experts in the Faculty of Education. Suggestions made by them were incorporated into the final copy of the instrument to enhance its efficiency and usability. A reliability coefficient of 0.89 was obtained using Pearson’s Moment Correlation which is considered significant. The instrument was self-administered with the assistance of two research assistants who were trained prior to the commencement of the study. The data collected for the study were organized and analysed on the basis of the research questions generated. Frequencies were counted and percentages computed for both the demographic category and the research questions.

5. Data Presentation and Analysis

This section is devoted to data presentation and discussion of findings which are done in line with the specific objectives of the study.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Sex		
Male	400	62
Female	250	38
Total	650	100
Age		
17-19	250	39
20-22	200	31
23-25	100	15
26 and above	100	15
Total	650	100
Religion		
Christianity	600	92
Islam	50	8
A.T.R.	-	-
Total	650	100
Educational status		
100 level	50	8
200 level	100	15
300 level	200	31
400 level	200	31
500 and 600 levels	100	15
Total	650	100
Marital status		
Single	500	77
Cohabiter	130	20
Married	20	3
Total	650	100

Source: Field survey, 2022

Table 1 indicates that there were 400 (62%) male respondents while the number of female respondents was 250 (38%). This implies that there were more male respondents than female in the study area. The table also reveals that respondents within the ages of 17-19 years were 250 (39%), those between 20-22 years were 200 (31%), while those within the ages of 23-25 years were 100 (15%) and those who were 26 years and above were 100 (15%). This indicates that majority of the respondents were between the ages of 17-19 years. On religion, 600 (92%) of the participants were Christians, 50 (8%) were Muslims while were no practitioners of African traditional religion. On educational status, 50 (8%) of the participants were in 100 level, 100 (15%) were in 200 level, while 200 (31%) were in 300 and 400 levels respectively and 100 (15%) were also respectively in 500 and 600 levels. This shows that majority of the respondents were in 300 and 400 levels. For marital status, 500 (77%) of the participants were single, 130 (20%) were cohabiters and 20 (3%) were married. This means that majority of the respondents were single.

Table 2: Percentage Score of inadequate Hostel Accommodation and Cohabitation

Question	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Is inadequate hostel accommodation the cause of cohabitation among University of Benin, students?	Yes	500	77
	No	150	23
	Undecided	-	-
	Total	650	100

Source: Field survey, 2022

Table 2 shows that 77% of the participants affirmed that inadequate hostel accommodation is the cause of cohabitation among University of Benin students, 23% was in the negative while none was undecided. This research finding supports the works of Svodziwa and Kurete (2017), Soboye (2013) and Aluko (2011) when they insist that it is the non-availability of adequate halls of residence in public universities that lead students to embrace off campus residential accommodation.

Table 3: Percentage Score of Cohabitation and Abortion

Question	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Is abortion a social consequence of cohabitation among University of Benin students?	Yes	400	61
	No	200	31
	Undecided	50	8
	Total	650	100

Source: Field survey, 2022

Table 4 reveals that 61% of the participants affirmed that abortion is a social consequence of cohabitation among University of Benin students, 31% was in the negative while 8% was undecided. This research finding supports the work of Swart, (2005) when he observed that cohabitation often results in unwanted pregnancy, and in a bid to getting rid of the unwanted pregnancy, many of the students resort to abortion. The lucky ones have successful termination of pregnancy while the not so lucky ones end up having complications and in some extreme cases, untimely death.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

The prevalence and incidence of cohabitation amongst undergraduates of the University of Benin, Nigeria as evident in this study is as a result of multifaceted factors that ought to be attended to by the management and visitors of the various public universities. The present study shows that cohabitation among the undergraduates of the University of Benin is on the increase and due mainly to the non-provision of hostel accommodation to more than half of its students. The unaccommodated students have consequently bought into the idea of cohabitation. Unfortunately, the paucity of funds by the university management and visitors to the university has made it impossible for the provision of new halls of residence to be a reality. The study also shows that most of the cohabiting students have ended up with unwanted pregnancies and abortions among other social hazards that such students have had to contend with. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

- The university management as a matter of urgency, should provide more hostel facilities for the undergraduates, more particularly the females.
- The university management should solicit the assistance of multinational corporations, philanthropists vis-à-vis building of new hostels.
- The university management should collaborate with community leaders and landlords of off-campus accommodation with a view to ensuring that rules and

regulations that govern students on campus are equally extended to those off-campus.

- The university management should from time to time hold programmes where the ills of cohabitation are highlighted to the students.
- The hostel accommodation provided by the university management should be made more conducive and appealing to the students.
- The university management should encourage parents to pay unscheduled visits their children in their off-campus accommodation in addition to talking with them.

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Vote Buying and the Perceptions of the Urban Poor in Nigeria: An Empirical Study

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Abstract. The study examines the phenomenon of vote buying from the perceptions of the residents in poor urban communities in Lagos State, Nigeria. This study adopts primary research method and applies quantitative technique to gather data. The study identifies that there is a nexus between poverty and vote buying. It concludes that vote buying is a major determinant that defines the voting behaviour of poor and vulnerable voters. In addition, a large majority of the respondents fault the credibility of the electoral process, stating that vote buying affects the progress of the electoral process. On the contrary, the vast majority of the respondents answered that they are politically active and vote buying does not discourage them from exercising their electoral franchise. Sadly, the larger percentage of the respondents are not aware that vote buying is an unlawful act. The study recommends that the government must proactively and genuinely embark on effective poverty alleviation schemes in order to address the menace of vote buying. Significantly, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) involved in developmental issues must broaden the reach of their specific intervention projects, towards educating voters residing in poor communities on the devastating effects of vote buying on the electoral process in Nigeria.

Keywords: Elections, Politicians, Voters, Poverty, Vote buying

1. Introduction

Elections in a democratic state should serve as a veritable medium to ensure the succession of leaders in a free and transparent manner. The concept of election and the practicality of voting infer that the independent choices of the citizens as to who governs

them should not be derided. Vote buying is an integral feature of electoral politics in new democracies across the world (Jensen & Justesen, 2014). The negative influences of political leaders on the outcome of elections in African countries are overwhelming. Nigeria is no exception in this regard. In fact, elections conducted since 1999 when Nigeria returned to democratic governance have been rife with various forms of electoral malpractices, thus affecting the outcome of elections and quality of democracy in Nigeria (Aluaigba, 2016). Aliyu et al. (2020) explicate that the desperation for power, the negative mindset of politicians that politics is an investment and an opportunity to enrich themselves, as well as the idea that the election period serves as an opportunity to unleash vengeance on political opponents are some of the major causes of electoral violence. Electoral fraud in Nigeria includes under age voting, snatching of ballot boxes, intimidation of voters at the polling unit by hoodlums or state security in constituencies favourable to the opposition, voting by unregistered voters, stuffing of ballot boxes with fake votes, improper counting of votes, as well as vote buying (Agbi & Saka-Olokungboye; 2019; Ugwuala et al, 2020). Vote buying as an electoral fraud takes place when a voter sells his or her vote in exchange of monetary or other material benefits. According to Ozoemena & Evangeline (2019), vote buying involves the inducement of voters with financial or material incentives by a political candidate, political party, party agent or supporter. The motive is to influence voters to cast their votes or desist from voting in order to increase the chances of victory for a particular candidate. On the other hand, the fact that voters are willing to sell their votes due to financial and material inducements is alarming and portends inherent setback for the political and electoral

processes in Nigeria (Ovwasa, 2014; Agbi & Saka-Olokungboye, 2019). Electoral malpractice, including vote buying is linked to factors such as bribery and corruption, illiteracy, lack of confidence on the part of political candidates and their supporters, inadequate political education as well as poverty (Ozoemena & Evangeline, 2019; Aliyu et al., 2020).

Desperate politicians and their allies pay as low as ₦2,000 to voters and induce them with food items, to buy their votes due to the level of poverty in Nigeria. Olarinmoye (2008) emphasize that money is a significant factor in elections, and often use to bribe officials and induce voters to support particular candidates, especially during party primaries. Sadly, vote buying has remained a consistent feature of elections in Nigeria because of the lack of political will to eradicate the menace. According to Babatunde (2019), the growth of democracy will continue to be in jeopardy until the monetization of politics, vote buying as well as germane issues such as poverty are addressed. Given that there exists a correlation between vote buying and poverty, this study aims to examine the perceptions of vote buying among the urban poor in Lagos State, Nigeria. In particular, it seeks to analyze and understand the phenomenon of vote buying from a novel perspective. It therefore examines the perceptions of the respondents with respect to the following questions; (1) Is vote buying inappropriate? (2) Do voters sell their votes because they believe it will not count? (3) Does vote buying affect the credibility of the electoral system? (4) Does vote buying lead to bad governance? (5) Is vote buying unlawful? The structure of the study is as follows; Section one gives a brief introduction of the study and highlights the research questions. Section two explores existing literature on the subject. Section three discusses the research method employed for the study. Section four analyzes the research findings. Section five covers the conclusion and recommendation. Section six focuses on the delimitations of the study and raises the issues for further investigation.

2. Literature Review

In Nigeria, vote buying is a major challenge inhibiting the progress of the electoral process. Vote buying is not a new phenomenon in the electoral history of Nigeria and there have been allegations of vote buying in previous elections that predate the return to democratic governance in 1999 (Oladapo et al, 2020). However, vote buying has attained a normative status in the political and electoral arrangement of Nigeria since the return to democratic rule on 29 May 1999. According to Yakubu (2020),

vote buying is a contract and two-way process that involves the buyer and seller. Politicians and their agents distribute cash and food items as a way of manipulating the electorates to vote for their candidates. It is interesting to note that voters that participate in vote buying sell their votes to the highest bidders. Political observers have described elections in Nigeria as cash-and-carry democracy (Onuoha & Ojo, 2018). The term cash and carry signifies that elections in Nigeria have been monetized and winning elections is a reflection of the highest bidder. A plethora of factors; attitudinal, social, emotional, as well as psychological, motivate the voting behaviour of voters (Adamu et al, 2016; Nkwede, 2019). In the Nigerian context, factors such as ethnicity, tribe, religion, gender, monetary gratification, as well as poverty influence the voting behaviour of the electorate. As it stands, it is not uncommon for politicians and their agents to bribe voters with stipends in order to manipulate them to vote for their political parties during elections. Elections in Nigeria are therefore not a true representation of the will of the people. According to Agbaje & Adejumobi (2006), politicians in Nigeria are merchants or barons that suppress the voices and choices of the people by hijacking the electoral process. The appalling level of corruption in Nigeria has infected the electoral process that political candidates and their parties do not repose confidence in the vision of their manifestoes and agendas to win elections. Rather, they rely on the manipulations of vote buying to win elections. It is pertinent to state that politicians in Nigeria are desperate for power and thus explore any means to attain political power, regardless of the approach and strategy.

The political behaviour of many politicians in Nigeria is exhibited in their do-or-die affair approach to politics, as well as winning elections at all cost. Clearly, the campaign strategies adopted by political parties often involve cash and material inducements to influence voters to vote for a political party or its candidate during elections (Yakubu, 2020). Vote buying influences the political behaviours of both the politicians and the electorates with negative impacts on the credibility of the electoral process and the civic right of the voters (Casimir et al, 2013; Onwe et al, 2015; Suleiman, 2016; Chukwurah et al, 2019). Although, a study conducted by Muhtadi (2019) observed that vote buying influences the voting behaviour of 10% of the respondents. As Muhtadi (2019) argues, every vote matters, and the minimum number of voters that engage in vote selling is enough to sway election results in favour of a particular political candidate. The consequences of vote buying transcends its damning effects on the

voting behaviour of voters. Voting buying and money politics have dire implications as they pose a threat to human lives and property. In the view of Babatunde et al (2019), money politics and vote buying ignite electoral violence, social unrest, bad governance, separatist agitations, insurgency, as well as threat to national security. When analyzed within the parameters of the ethos of democracy as a representative system of government, it is evident that vote buying constitutes a drawback to viable leadership and good governance in Nigeria (Ovwas, 2014; Nkwede & Abah, 2019). Agbi & Saka-Olokungboye (2019) emphasize that vote buying is a disturbing phenomenon that portends a drawback to the growth and consolidation of democracy in Nigeria. During the 2019 general elections, Ozoemena & Evangeline (2019) observed that there was vote buying in all the stages of election; Presidential, National Assembly, Governorship and House of Assembly elections, and transactional voters sold their votes for as low as ₦2,000, ₦3,000, ₦4,000 and ₦5,000. To state the obvious, the menace of vote buying makes mockery of the right of voters to express their free will during elections.

The right of the citizens to elect the candidates of their choice is subsumed under the influence and manipulation of vote buying. According to Braton (2008), there is an interlink between vote buying, political intimidation and electoral violence in Nigeria, especially during electoral campaigns. And as Agbi & Saka-Olokungboye (2019) assert, the ugly trend of vote buying has become a subject of discussion and natural embarrassment to political parties that are unable to organize their political activities in a decent manner especially during political electioneering campaigns. Similarly, Olu-Adeyemi (2018) and YIAGA Africa Initiative (2018) report that massive vote buying takes place at polling stations and this undermines the transparency of the electoral process. According to these authors, vote buying is often conducted with impunity and total disregard for the electoral laws. As a stimulus to vote for their political parties, party agents often patronize voters with cash prior to voting on election day. This strategic but awkward approach is triggered at polling stations as a last-minute resort to influence the voting choices of voters. Babatunde et al (2019) concludes that the growth and consolidation of democracy in Nigeria will not be achieved unless money politics is discouraged and eliminated. In his opinion, Ovwas (2014) emphasized that it may be difficult to curb the ugly trend of vote buying and money politics, however the menace can be reduced with the concerted efforts of stakeholders involved in the electioneering process. As a way forward, Chukwurah et al (2019) recommend that there is need

to embark on effective institutional reforms and the strict implementation of the electoral act in order to curb monetary politics and vote buying. While the plethora of existing literature on vote buying have identified poverty as a major factor that promotes the phenomenon, scholars, particularly in the Nigerian context, have yet to examine the perceptions of people who are poor on vote buying. Despite various approaches adopted by successive governments since independence to tackle poverty as a development issue, the reality of chronic and complex poverty remains a challenge to a growing population (Aliyu & Dansabo, 2017). Muhtadi (2019) ascribes the success of vote buying to poverty in third world countries. However, literature on poverty suggest that discussions on the impacts of poverty on the political system as well as the electoral process in Nigeria have received minimal attention (Akinaso, 2019). This study seeks to contribute to the literature on vote buying by addressing this lacuna.

3. Research Methodology

This study applied primary research method. It adopts quantitative technique and utilizes questionnaires as its instrument of research. The respondents were selected from Mushin, Ijora-Badia, and Orile-Iganmu areas of Lagos State. Mushin, Ijora-Badia and Orile-Iganmu are areas that are densely populated with majority of residents classified as people who are poor. The respondents are within the ages of 24-60, and the majority have voted at least once. Thus, the larger percentage of the respondents are conversant with the concept of vote buying. The data gathered were vital in providing information on the perceptions of vote buying among the respondents. A close-ended Questionnaire was designed to gather data from respondents. The questionnaire was divided into two sections. The first section focused on demographic information of the participants, while the second section focused on questions relating to the respondents' perceptions of vote buying. The second section contains a 5 point likert scale structured as follows; Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Undecided (UD), Agree (A), and Strongly Agree (SA).

The 5-point likert scale was relevant and effective as respondents were able to articulately respond to the questionnaire from multiple options rather than a two-fold yes/no response. Voluntary response sampling technique was effective to draw the required sample from the target population. The sampling technique is inexpensive and provides the researcher a less cumbersome method of selecting the respondents from a larger population. A total of 527

respondents participated in the study. The number of respondents provided the researcher with an ample sample required to evaluate the topic of research. Quantitative technique was applied to analyze data

gathered from the respondents and data were interpreted in tabular forms using frequency and percentages.

Table 1: Demographic Data of the Respondents

	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Sex of Respondents		
Male	303	57.5
Female	224	42.5
Total	527	100
Age of Respondents		
24-30 years	77	14.6
31-40 years	198	44.0
41-50 years	195	43.4
51-60 years	57	12.6
Total	527	100
Educational Qualification		
Primary School	128	24.3
Secondary School	297	56.4
Tertiary Education	102	19.3
Total	527	100
Occupation of Respondents		
Employed	420	79.7
Unemployed	107	20.3
Total	527	100
Number of Times Voted		
None	36	6.8
Once	59	11.2
Twice	57	10.8
Three	93	17.6
Four	104	19.7
Five	102	19.4
Six	77	14.6
Total	527	100

As described in Table 1.0 above, 57.5% of the respondents are males. Furthermore, majority of the respondents 44.0% are between the ages of 31- 40. In addition, majority of the respondents, 56.4% attended secondary school. In terms of occupation, 79.7% of the respondents are employed, while 20.3% are unemployed. Lastly, 6.8% of the respondents answered that they have never for once voted.

Table 2: Questions on vote buying and the perceptions of the respondents

S/N	ITEMS	SD	D	UD	A	SA	Total
1	Accepting cash and other material inducements from politicians to vote for them is appropriate	313 (59.4)	178 (33.8)	12 (2.3)	19 (3.6)	5 (0.9)	527 (100%)
2	Voters sell their votes because they believe their votes do not count	63 (12.0)	65 (12.3)	39 (7.4)	139 (26.4)	221 (41.9)	527 (100%)
3	Vote buying negatively affects the credibility of the electoral process	37 (7.0)	76 (14.4)	57 (10.8)	121 (23.0)	236 (44.8)	527 (100%)
4	Vote buying leads to bad governance	78 (14.8)	234 (44.4)	5 (0.9)	173 (32.8)	37 (7.1)	527 (100%)
5	Vote buying discourages me from voting	473 (89.8)	15 (2.8)	0 (0)	31 (5.9)	8 (1.5)	527 (100%)
6	Vote buying determines my voting behaviour	98 (23.0)	47 (11.0)	83 (19.4)	168 (39.3)	31 (7.3)	527 (100%)
7	Vote buying is an unlawful act in Nigeria	28 (5.3)	88 (16.7)	273 (51.9)	93 (17.6)	45 (8.5)	527 (100%)
8	Vote buying should be eradicated	22 (4.2)	179 (34.0)	74 (14.0)	211 (40.0)	41 (7.8)	527 (100%)

4. Findings and Discussion

Table 2.0 presents the questions on vote buying and the responses of the respondents. The respondents were asked whether it is right to accept inducements to vote for a political party or candidate. The responses from the respondents indicate that indulging in vote buying is inappropriate. 59.4% strongly disagree and 33.8% disagree that vote buying is appropriate. This study agrees with the work of Ovwasa (2014); Onuoha & Ojo (2018); Ozoemena & Evangeline (2019); Agbi & Saka-Olokungboye (2019); Yakubu (2020), that vote buying is inappropriate and a drawback to the growth and progress of democracy in Nigeria. Although, a small percentage of the respondents answered that vote buying is appropriate, however, it is significant to note that the responses from the respondents imply that the majority of people that indulge in vote buying are aware that the phenomenon is inappropriate and as such morally wrong. Furthermore, 41.9% strongly agree and 26.4% agree that voters sell their votes because they believe their votes do not count. The responses of the respondents may find justification on the submission that political parties have a way of manipulating election results to favour their candidates. With this, the votes of voters do not count as elections are always won by the best manipulating political party. Onuoha & Ojo (2018) explained that voters trade their political rights for material gains. In this light, vote buying violates the rights of voters to elect the candidates of their choices (Nkwede & Abah, 2019). Apparently, the citizens, particularly people who are poor have become frustrated due to bad governance in the country that the significance of their rights to vote means less to them. The menace of vote buying makes mockery of the right of voters to express their free will during elections (Ejue & Ekanem, 2011). The submissions from the respondents bear incontrovertible evidence to the level of decay in Nigeria's electoral process and the lack of political trust on the part of the electorate. The credibility of the electoral process is an important feature of elections. Therefore, the respondents were asked if in their opinion, vote buying negatively affects the credibility of the electoral process. In their responses, 23.0% agree and 44.8% strongly agree that vote buying negatively affects the credibility of the electoral process. This study aligns with the work of Casimir et al. (2013); Onwe et al. (2015); Agbi & Saka-Olokungboye (2019); Yakubu (2020); Magaji & Musa (2022); Oduntan (2022) that vote buying is detrimental to the development of the electoral process and growth of democracy in Nigeria. There is no doubt that the inimical act of vote buying has had a devastating

impact on politics, elections, as well as democracy in Nigeria. As it is, this study further lends credence to the level of decay in Nigeria's electoral process. The study reveals that not only do the majority of respondents understand that vote buying is inappropriate, a large percentage equally recognize and have the understanding that vote buying serves as an albatross that impedes the possibility of conducting free and fair elections in Nigeria.

The responses from the respondents indicate that 14.8% strongly disagree and 44.4% disagree that vote buying leads to bad governance. These responses contradict existing literature, Ovwasa (2014); Aluaigba (2016); Agbi & Saka-Olokungboye (2019); Babatunde et al (2019); Nkwede & Abah (2019); Oladapo et al. (2020); Osimen & Iloh (2022) on vote buying and good governance. These authors, just like many others clearly assert that vote buying and selling have significant negative consequences that affect good governance in Nigeria. This assertion is hinged on the fact that vote buying/selling promotes the commodification of votes and thus what matters to the vote sellers is not the desire to elect good and formidable leaders but the financial and material benefits they can get from politicians. On the other hand, politicians have lost confidence in their political manifestoes and ability to win elections without buying votes. In reality, most of the politicians are desperate for power without genuine intention to entrench good governance and effect positive change in government (Ovwasa, 2014). Thus, the large percentage of candidates that contest for political offices in Nigeria do not have the genuine interest in the progress of Nigeria, but partake in politics for their personal benefits and that of their cronies. Significantly, that the majority of respondents do not see a correlation between vote buying and bad governance means that they hold the perception that vote buying does not have negative and dire impacts on governance in Nigeria. The responses reveal that vote buying is not a factor that discourages the majority of the respondents from exercising their franchise. A large percentage of the respondents, 89.8% strongly disagree that vote buying discourages them from voting. As Nwankwo (2018) notes, vote buying did not discourage the masses from participating in the voting exercise during the 2018 Ekiti governorship election. What is actually not clear is the motive behind the responses of the respondents that answered that they are not discouraged to vote regardless of vote buying. It should be noted that some of the respondents will participate in voting because they want to sell their votes. For them, it is an avenue to make some cash as they commercialize their votes, while for others they

participate in elections with the genuine intention to vote for their desired candidates, and will not sell their votes.

A below the average percentage, 39.3% answered that vote buying determines their voting behaviour. Although not totally convincing, however, the study supports previous studies Sakariyau et al (2015); Nwankwo (2018); Cinjel et al (2019); Oladapo et al (2020); Magaji & Musa (2022); Osimen & Iloh (2022) that identify vote buying as a prominent factor that determines the voting behaviour of voters. The responses of the respondents depict that most voters that are poor are willing to sell their votes if the offer or incentive is appealing. These incentives come in form of cash or food items and sometimes both. Several existing literature Sakariyau et al (2015); Chul et al (2017); Nwankwo (2018); Adeabgo & Omodunbi (2019); Adigun (2019) underline that distributing food items and cash are strategies politicians adopt during elections to induce voters to sell their votes. Similarly, Cinjel et al. (2019) stated that money, food additive, grains, shoes, attires, salt, maggi, sugar, wrappers, exercise books and many others are mostly used as the bait to entice the desperately awaiting voters. While the issue of what appeals to them may vary from one voter to another, what is certain is that the incentives offered, be it cash or food items are usually minimal and of little significance. For example, commercial voters sell their votes for between ₦2,000 and ₦5,000 (Ozoemena & Evangeline, 2019). Nwankwo (2018) reported how the news circulated in the media of aggrieved commercial voters that received ₦3,000 but complained that they should receive ₦5,000 instead. The study supports the submissions of Jensen & Justesen (2014), Akinnaso (2019) and Muhtadi (2019) that poverty is a major motivating factor that endorses vote buying. The feedback from the respondents reflects the sad realities of the level of poverty in the country. Poverty has become an intractable phenomenon ravaging the lives of many. In fact, poverty has eaten deep into the fabrics of the society and is a profitable weapon of exploitation for politicians to achieve their political goals at the expense of the suffering masses. In progressing, there is an urgent need to affirm that poverty is a reality that influences the political behaviour of both politicians and electorates in Nigeria. The word influence in this regard will point to having a negative impact on democratic growth considering that voters who are poor are vulnerable to the monetary influences of desperate politicians.

Vote buying is an unlawful act in Nigeria according to article 127 (a&b) of the Electoral Act 2022. Section 127 states that a person who: *corruptly by his or herself or by any other person at any time after the date of an election has been announced, directly or indirectly gives or provides or pays money to or for any person for the purpose of corruptly influencing that person or any other person to vote or refrain from voting at such election, or on account of such person or any other person having voted or refrained from voting at such election; or being a voter, corruptly accepts or takes money or any other inducement during any of the period stated in paragraph (a), commits an offence and is liable on conviction to a fine of ₦100,000 or imprisonment for a term of 12 months or both.*

As depicted in table 2 above, 51.9% of the respondents were undecided in their responses when asked whether vote buying is an unlawful act. This study establishes that the majority of respondents understand that vote buying is an immoral act, but on the contrary, the majority of respondents are not aware that vote buying is unlawful. The finding shows that apart from being poor, the majority of respondents lack knowledge of the electoral act and its stipulations, especially as regards to vote buying and selling. Evidently, the lack of knowledge of the electoral act can be adduced to the low level of voter education in the country. This study aptly reflects the views of Cinjel et al. (2019); Mohammed (2020); Oladapo et al. (2020), that the low level of voter education promotes the menace of vote buying. In essence, it buttresses that beyond poverty, a plurality of factors trigger vote buying and given this, the causes of vote buying are multidimensional.

On whether vote buying should be eradicated, 40% of the respondents agree that vote buying should be eradicated. This study identifies with several existing literature that stress the urgent need to eradicate vote buying. Scholars such as Aluaigba (2016); Onuoha & Ojo (2018); Babatunde et al. (2019); Chukwurah et al. (2019); Aliyu et al. (2020); Yakubu (2020) emphasize that vote buying is an ugly trend that negatively affects election outcomes and the growth of democracy in Nigeria. The fact that 40% of the respondents agree that vote buying should be eradicated clearly indicates that vote buying in Nigeria, is a disturbing phenomenon that requires urgent and significant attention. Conversely, the fact that 34% of the respondents disagree that vote buying should be eradicated implies that some of the respondents are not aware of the hazards of vote buying, while others in this category may prefer that vote buying persist because of the financial and

material benefits that accrue to them. Consequently, this infers that a lot still requires to be done to curb the menace of vote buying. Curbing or eradicating vote buying as it is, will require a fundamental and consolidated approach that will involve all stakeholders in the electioneering process; electoral body, political parties, political candidates, voters, security and law enforcement agents, as well as the legislative and judiciary arms of government.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study was able to establish a nexus between poverty and vote buying. It equally justified that vote buying influences the voting behaviour of voters. Clearly, it observed that while vote buying does not influence the voting behaviour of every voter suffering from poverty, the majority of voters suffering from poverty are willing to sell their votes for monetary and material gains, even though they understand that the menace is inappropriate and amoral. Again, it established that the voters that sell their votes believe that their votes do not count. By this, the study underlines that voters that sell their votes lack confidence in the legitimacy of their rights to vote and are not willing to protect this suffrage. In essence, the study affirms that the pernicious act of vote buying is an albatross that impedes voters from expressing their rights to freely elect a leader to represent their interest in government.

Sequel to the findings of this study, it is recommended that government policy responses towards poverty alleviation should focus on comprehensive programs aimed at drastically reducing the level of poverty in the country. Significantly, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) that promote developmental agendas should broaden the reach of their specific intervention projects, towards educating voters in poor communities on the hazards of vote buying, and its consequences on the electoral process in Nigeria. These projects should also include educating this category of people to protect their rights to vote regardless of their level of poverty, as this remains the most legitimate and assured means to positively transform the electoral process. In addition, stakeholders in the electioneering process must initiate projects and programs to inform poor and uneducated voters that vote buying is an unlawful act that contravenes the electoral law and that anyone caught indulging in vote buying is liable on conviction to a fine of ₦100,000 or 12 months imprisonment or both. To this end, the government must implement and enforce stringent laws to punish the perpetrators of vote buying.

6. Delimitations of the Study and Issues for further study

A major challenge encountered during the fieldwork for this study was the refusal of some persons that fell within the target group to participate in the study. They were afraid to share their perceptions because they were not convinced of the researchers' genuine intentions. It is important to point out that the perceptions of those that declined to participate in the study would have deepened the insight gained from this research. Secondly, the lack of funds from external sources, and reliance on the limited resources of the researchers limited the scope of study. Thirdly, restricting the scope of study to 3 study areas in Lagos State limited the depth of research as well as the results considering that findings from similar study areas could have broadened the scope of the study. Notwithstanding these issues, this study has contributed significantly to the literature on vote buying.

During the course of undertaking this study, issues arose that warranted the need for further investigation. In taking this research forward, it is expedient to broaden the scope of study to cover similar study areas within and outside Lagos State. Ultimately, it is suggested that empirical research be conducted to understand the strategies adopted by NGOs and other stakeholders in the electioneering process to educate voters on the hazards of vote buying. Understanding these strategies, will enable a detailed analysis of the strengths and weaknesses, as well as impacts of NGOs and other stakeholders with respect to curbing vote buying.

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Impact of the Extended Family System and Access to Health Care Services in Kogi State, Nigeria.

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Abstract. The extended family system is prevalent in Africa society particularly Nigeria and Kogi State. However, such extended relationship is posed to the challenge of accessing health care services. This paper is written to interrogating the extended family system and access to health care services in Kogi State, the work examines how the extended family system affects easy access to health care services in the State. The study adopts descriptive research design and the top-man sample size formular was adopted in determining the sample size from the infinite population. The frequency and percentage methods were adopted in data analysis and hypothesis tested using chi-square statistical technique. The study shows that the extended family system adversely affected access to health care services in Kogi State. Therefore, the study recommends that government should intervene through provision of adequate health care facilities in Kogi State Nigeria.

Keywords: family, Extended family, health, care, services

1. Introduction

Family is among the most important social institutions in the world. Sociologists recognize the centrality of families in providing their members with valuable resources, both economic and noneconomic, in creating and shaping self and collective identities, and in the rearing and socialization of children. There is no doubt that family relationships and processes affect individual social and economic well-being in profound ways.

Family plays a significant role in every society across the globe. This suggests that family and not individual persons make up the households which

transforms into community and the nation at large. Family refers to a group of people involving the father, mother and children (Ernest and Uyi, 2017). Though, this concept is apt but only applicable to a nuclear setting. Thus, extended family extends beyond the basic unit of society involving only the father, mother and children but involves other relations, kinsmen or in some instances involving a man and more than one wife that is, the polygamous settings which characterize most African societies including Nigeria.

Therefore, family structure is largely characterized with interrogation of status, power and relationships through which their dealings within and outside are executed. More so, in extended family structure, the family relationship goes beyond the father, mother and children but involve the married sons and daughters, brothers, cousins, aunties, uncles and other persons connected either through birth, marriage or kinship. Undoubtedly, this kind of family setting posed several economic, socio-demographic and psychological burdens to members of the family especially the family heads or their representatives who most times are responsible for providing other members of the family with such care. Family relationships may influence the health of its members by changes in cognition and emotion that results in physiological responses, which in turn can influence health outcomes.

Health care services are part and parcel of indices that build confidence to existence of human society. This is because, no matter the magnitude of provisions made available to family members, it will be considered incomplete where health cares are either not provided or inadequate. However, adequately providing health care services could sometimes attract unbearable economic and social

costs. To this end, family members could be posed with inadequate economic and social fortunes needed to take care of such expense. Therefore, the members of the family are adversely affected as they are face with constraint in accessing adequate health care services. This is no doubt affects their social and economic wellbeing, thereby leading to depression, agony, neglect, anxiety and sometimes even death. Therefore, this study fundamentally examines the impact of extended family system on health care services in Kogi State, North Central Nigeria.

Despite the quantum of studies available on this topic, no study of this nature has been conducted particularly in Kogi State, to determine how the family system affects access to health care services in the State. The study will contribute to the existing literature in this area; however, the study will be useful to family across various communities, private and Government in policy making and execution targeted at improving family access to Health care services in Kogi State, and Nigeria in general.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In Kogi State, the extended family system seems to have been affected by the socio-economic and demographic conditions of the state. Frank, (2021) opined that, factors such as where we live, the state of the environment, genetics, income/educational level, and our relationships with friends and family has impact on our health and the quality of health care services access. However, while extended family system attracts socio-economic and demographic ties, it is also unclear whether these integrated benefits are without any forms of economic and social burdens especially increased pressure in accessing health care services among family members. Therefore, it is pertinent to empirically establish the veracity as well as magnitude to which extended family systems affects accessibility to health care delivery services in Kogi State.

1.2 Statement of Hypothesis

The study formulates a hypothesis which is stated in its null form:

H₀: Extended family system does not affect easy access to health care services in Kogi State.

2. Conceptual Clarifications

Concepts relevant to the study were reviewed to provide a detailed understanding of the topic under study.

2.1 Family

The World Health Organization has characterized the family as the “primary social agent in the promotion of health and wellbeing”. Burgess and Locke (1945) defined ‘Family is a group of persons united by ties of marriage, blood or adoption constituting a single household interacting and inter-communicating with each other in their respective social roles of husband and wife, father and mother, son and daughter, brother and sister, creating a common culture. Family is defined as a specific group of people that may be made up of partners, children, parents, aunts, uncles, cousins and grandparents (Omale, 2021). The family is a social group characterized by common residence, economic cooperation and reproduction. It includes adults of both sexes, at least two of whom maintain a socially approved sexual relationship, and one or more children, own or adopted, of the sexually cohabiting couple (Murdock, 1949 quoted in Steel, Kidd, & Brown, 2012, p. 2). A family is a group of two people or more (one of whom is the householder) related by birth, marriage, or adoption and residing together; all such people (including related subfamily members) are considered as members of one family (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012).

Family is seen as the basic unit of human society. This means that the society is a combination of various families. Ernest and Uyi, (2017)) noted that family involves the head of the family usually father or his representative, the mother and children. To this end, family serves as a building block and fundamental of human living. Though, the ideological philosophy of having the father, mother and children as the segments of family structure has both theoretical and empirical backings. Aize (1995) further explained that, family structure in Africa is dominantly extended to other members such as cousins, in-laws, grand-fathers, grand-mothers within the family. This is because the extended family structure serves as networks of economic, social and emotional security for members of the families.

Onipede & Uche, (2006) explained that, Health is seen as the state of complete emotional and physical organization. Ojomah (2019) defined health as the condition of being sound in mind, body or spirit which entails total freedom from pain or physical disease. Health care is seen as an organized framework targeted at the provision of medical care to community and or individuals (Akpomuvie, 2010). More so, Omonona, (2015) see health care as a conscious effort made to restore, maintain or provide physical, emotional or mental wellbeing by a professional medical practitioner. Omonoma, (2015)

also noted that sound health is pivotal to a socially and economically productive living thereby, it is critical to nations productive capacity. This is because; inadequate provision of health inflicts significant hardship on households, family and societies.

To this end, provision of adequate health care propels individual and nations economic and social wellbeing. Thus, Peter (2011) argued that proper accessibility and utilization of health care services is anchored on the cost, quality and family structure. This implies that the number of persons accessing health care services will go a long way to dictate the quality of health care they could access. In addition, Aghion, (2010) argued that there is an economic burden attached to provision of health care. Therefore, the family structure largely dictates quality and accessibility to quality health care, accessibility could be in form of self medication, traditional care, private hospitals or government health care facilities and its accessibility depends on demographic, social and economic profile of the people.

3. Impact of the Extended Family on Health Care Services

The quality of our relationship with our extended family, Mother, father, siblings, aunts, grandparents etc., could make a real difference in their access to health care service. Attah (2016) opined that smaller families tend to result in higher IQ (intelligent quotients), academic achievement, and occupational performance. Large families produce more delinquents and alcoholics. Perinatal morbidity and mortality rates are higher in large families as birth weights decrease.

Ramashala (2013) Oluwasogo and Ibrahim (2020) argued that the extended family system especially in Africa is institutionalized towards rendering networks of mutual assistance to members of the family. Through this, there are bonds which regulate their relationships as well as strengthening their social securities. More so, Haqen, Zanker and Tawakoni (2012) argued that family membership especially the extended family structure integrates bond from the first through fourth generations, thereby institutionalizes social, material and material supports to each other. Though, Milton (2014) noted that modernization is gradually eroding cultural value which characterizes empathy, selfishness, mutual understanding and affinity. To this end, the reality of cultural erosion which characterizes individualism has posed great threat to humanities. This scenario is worrisome because the extended family structure

hitherto is embedded in togetherness where marriages, inheritance and kinship are properly defined and institutionalized.

However, Abdullah (2018) argued that, a healthy lifestyle is usually developed, maintained, or changed within the family setting. Behavioral health-risk factors cluster within families because family members tend to share similar diets, physical activities, and use of substances (e.g., tobacco, alcohol, and illicit drugs). Hannatu (2021) observed that, Parents' health related behaviors strongly influence whether a child or adolescent will adopt a healthy behavior, and family support is an important determinant of an individual's ability to change an unhealthy lifestyle. Johnson (2013) added that, almost every important health behavior is a family activity or is strongly influenced by the family. An emphasis on physical activity and fitness is usually a shared family value. Parents' exercise habits and attitudes have a strong influence on their children's level of physical activity. Yakubu (2000) argued that family dynamics significantly impact health in both positive and negative ways. Having a close-knit and supportive family provides emotional support, economic well-being, and increases overall health. "Family relationships can influence physical health by changes in cognition and emotion that results in physiological responses, which in turn can influence health outcomes" (Campbell, 2003). This includes the effect of stress on the immune system and psychosomatic illness.

Functions of the Extended Family System in Kogi State, Nigeria

An extended family consists of people who are closely related living together in the same house or compound. Usually, it consists of parents, grandparents, uncles, aunts, cousins, nephews and nieces all living together in a huge house.

Extended family system performs certain functions in Nigeria and Kogi State in particular. Ekeopare (2012) noted that these functions include imparting of traditional education, discipline, social security for members of the family and serving as an economic security for the members of the family. Therefore, Ekeopare (2012) revealed that the extended family system serves as educating and teaching members of the family about the traditional norms, ethics and values. This is done through influencing the traditional behavioral pattern to its members. Discipline is properly inculcated through the instrumentality of the extended family system. This is carried out based on the consciousness that a well behaved child is a pride to the members of the family.

Therefore, effective discipline is ensured through provision of rewards and recognition to a well behaved member of the family as well as punishment to erring members of the family. More so, the extended family system is charged with the responsibility of providing an adequate social security and support to its members in terms of crises or other adverse circumstances that could warrant immediate network of supports.

Finally, the extended family system is charged with the responsibility of ensuring that its members consciously pursue genuine economic endeavors. This is done by rendering economic support and mentoring when the need arises as well as ensuring that members of the family who needs economic supports are given through contributions of financial or material items by kinsmen.

3.1 Disadvantages of Extended Family

- Difficulties in accessing quality health care services due to the large family size and the socio-economic conditions of the family heads.
- Individual’s privacy may be denied in some cases because of the large number of people. There are some things you will want to do alone or sometimes one may want to think or spend time alone in privacy all of which is very hard to do in the extended family especially a very large one.
- There is also a kind of monarchy in extended family; this means that a decision made by the elderly (grandfather) usually cannot be challenged by any other person. This is a disadvantage because one may not be allowed to exercise his rights of freewill.
- Children get spoiled in extended family by the grandparents. Because the grandparents so love them, they are given freewill to do almost anything, for some even the bad deeds are ignored. The grandparents may also prevent the parents from taking action on their children and this brings about disrespect from the child’s end.
- Trouble, quarrel and conflicts are almost inevitable in extended family. Most times,

there are fights especially when there is no mutual understanding among members. You hear about cousins fighting cousins, an uncle hates his nephew and so on and so forth.

4. Methodology

This study adopts a survey research design which comprise of primary data. The population of the study is the total number of families in Kogi State. Though, there are available records of total population in Kogi State but such does not translate into a family structure especially considering the complexity of extended family structure in Africa society.

Therefore, the research considers the population of this study as an infinite population and questionnaire were distributed to heads of house hold and health personnel. To this end, the study adopts Topman sample size in obtaining the sample size for the population which is established as an infinite population.

The topman sample size formular is given thus:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 Pq}{E^2}$$

Where n = The sample size
 z = Standard deviation for 95% level of confidence (1.96)
 p = Percentage of success rate (50%)
 q = Percentage of failure rate (50%)
 E = Limit of tolerable error = (5%)
 Hence; n = $\frac{(1.96)^2 \times (0.5 \times 0.5)}{(0.050)^2}$

$$n = \frac{3.8416 \times 0.25}{0.0025}$$

$$n = 384$$

Therefore, the sample size is 384, however, out of the total number of respondents reached only 322 dully completed and returns their questionnaire given a retrieval rate of 84%. The instrument used in eliciting responses from respondents was a structured questionnaire which contains both demographic information of respondents and research questions. The data were analyzed using frequency and percentages while the hypothesis was tested using chi-square statistical techniques.

5. Data Analysis and Results

Table 1: Demographic Information of Respondents

S/No.	Demography	Options	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Gender	Male	144	45
		Female	178	55
		Total	322	100
2	Family Size	1- 5	74	23
		6 – 10	123	38
		11 and above	125	49
		Total	322	100
3	Religion	Christianity	121	38
		Islam	176	55
		Traditional	25	7
		Total	322	100
4	Marital Status	Married	239	74
		Divorced	21	7
		Widowed	24	7
		Separated	28	12
		Total	322	100
5	Educational Qualification	No formal Education	96	30
		Adult Education	22	7
		Primary	53	16
		Secondary	88	27
		Tertiary	63	20
		Total	322	100
6	Age of Respondents (in years)	18 – 30	68	21
		31 – 50	189	59
		51 – 70	48	15
		71 and above	17	5
		Total	322	100
6	Occupation	Artisan	39	12
		Trading	177	55
		Civil Servant	49	15
		Farmer	48	15
		Others	09	3
		Total	322	100

Source: Field research, 2022

Table 1: Shows the demographic information of respondents. The table revealed that 144 respondents (45%) are male while 178 (55%) are female. Again, it shows that 74 (23%) respondents have family size between 1 – 5, 123 (38%) 6 – 10 years, 125 respondents (49%) have family size of 11 and above. The religion of respondents shows that 121 (38%) are Christians, 176 (55%) are of Islam religion, 176 (55%) while 25(7%) are of traditional religion. In addition, the marital status of respondents revealed that 239 (74%) are married, 21 (7%) are divorced, 24 (7%) are widowed while 28 (12%) are separated. The educational qualification of respondents shows that 96 (30%) have no formal education, 22 (7%) have adult education, 53 (16%) primary education, 88 (27%) secondary education and 63 (20%) have tertiary education. More so, age of respondents shows that 68 (21%) are between the ages 18 – 30, 189 (59%) 31 – 50, 48 (15%) 51 – 70 years and 17 (5%) age of 71 years and above. Finally, the occupation of respondents shows that 39 (12%) are Artisans, 177 (55%) are traders 49 (15%) are civil servants, 48 (15%) are farmers while 9 (3%) are engaged in other kinds of occupations.

Table 2: To what extent do you agree that extended family system affects easy access to health care in Kogi State?

Options	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly agreed	122	38
Agreed	79	25
Strongly Disagree	67	21
Disagree	54	16
Total	322	100

Source: Field Research, 2022

Table 2 shows the extent to which respondents agreed on how extended family system affects easy access to health care in Kogi State. 122 respondents (38%) strongly agreed, 79 respondents (25%) agreed, 67 respondents (21%) strongly disagree while 54 respondents (16%) disagree.

Therefore, it can be concluded that most of the respondents strongly agreed that extend family system do affects their easy access to health care in Kogi State.

Table 3: What are the kinds of health care you normally access?

Options	Frequencies	Percentage
Self medication	81	25
Government	63	20
Private	145	45
Traditional	33	10
Total	322	100

Source: *Field Research, 2022*

Table 3 shows the kind of health care the respondents normally accessed. From the table, 81 respondents representing (25%) said they do access healthcare using self medication, 63 respondents representing (20%) said through government, 145 respondents representing (45%) said through private means while 33 respondents representing (10%) said through.

The traditional means of medication, this means that most of the respondents do access health care through private means.

Test of Hypothesis

The hypothesis is tested using chi-square statistical technique to be able to make a valid inference on whether the extended family structure affects easy access to health care services in Kogi State.

The chi-square test is executed using the formular:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(o - e)^2}{e}$$

Where o = observed frequency

e = expected frequency

with 5% level of significance and degree of freedom as (19 - 1).

Where k = number of options which in this case is (4 - 1) = 3.

The decision is to reject the null hypothesis if calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value or otherwise it will be rejected.

Recall table 2, we have

Option	o	e	o - e	(o - e) ²	$\frac{(o - e)^2}{e}$
Strong agree	122	80.5	41.5	1722.25	21.39
Agree	79	80.5	-1.5	2.25	0.028
Strongly disagree	67	80.5	-13.5	182.25	2.26
Disagree	54	80.5	-26.5	702.25	8.72
Total	322	322	0		32.41

Source: *Field Research, 2022*

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(o - e)^2}{e} = 32.41$$

The critical value 7.82 hence, since the calculated value of 32.41 is greater than the critical value of 7.82, the null hypothesis that extended family system does not affect easy access to health care services in Kogi State in rejected.

6. Conclusion

The study revealed that though the extended family system is part and parcel of most African settings and Kogi State in particular but such has posed huge economic and social burdens to its members especially access to health care services.

7. Recommendation

The research established the pivotal role of extended family system in strengthening networks of social interactions as well as social and economic security. To this end, its effects in hindering health care services by the numbers is recommended to be addressed through increased involvement by government and social health workers by providing free health care services to the citizenries. Again, the economic burden resulting from the network of

extended family setting should be addressed through provision of empowerment programmes by the government.

Finally, communal efforts in strengthening economic integration towards making easy access to health care services to members of the families should be adopted.

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Perceived Organizational Politics and University Lecturers' Demographics Influences on Turnover Intentions

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Abstract. This study investigated perceived organizational politics and demographics influences on turnover intentions among Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-iwoye lecturers with specific objectives examining whether university lecturers perceived organizational politics will significantly influence their turnover intentions and whether there are independent and joint influences of age, gender, length of service and organizational politics on turnover intentions. The study adopted survey research design using stratified sampling technique to select 305 lecturers from Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-iwoye, Nigeria. Data obtained was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics while the hypotheses were tested at 5% level of significance. The results showed that, perceived organizational politics did not significantly influence lecturers' turnover intentions. Also, there was no significant independent and joint influences of lecturers' gender, age, length of service and their perceived organizational politics on turnover intentions. The implication of this findings is that, irrespective of lecturer's gender (male or female), their age levels and years spent in service coupled with high or low perceived organizational politics, they did not indicate any willful intent to leave their university for another. Therefore, the management of the university should make policies allowing for equitable distribution of resources, implementation of promotion without discrimination, appointment of officers based on merit and approval of staff development programme devoid of favouritism in order to sustain their continued retention.

Keywords: University Lecturers, Demographics, Organizational Politics, Turnover Intentions

1. Introduction

Organization's owners today are concerned about employees' withdrawal or turnover due the cost association with such unanticipated withdrawal which involves, new recruitments and training of such recruited staff to replace outgoing ones into the organization. Notably, turnover of employees can be involuntary or voluntary. Therefore, when employees leave their present employment or profession due to their employers' decision (in terms of disengagement or termination of contract), it is regarded as involuntary turnover. But when employees leave their present employment or profession, it is regarded as voluntary turnover. Consequently, Verhees (2012) posits that, actual turnover over the years could not be measured adequately due to inadequate data but concluded that based on this short coming, researchers have resorted to assessing employee turnover intentions instead of actual turnover.

Turnover intention is therefore, the intent of an employee to willingly separate from his or her present employment or profession in order to seek employment in another profession or organization (Yung, Wan & Fu, 2012). Admittedly, employee's intention to separate from his or her current organization is a psychological process of that person associated with it (Hunjra, Ali, Chani & Ur-Rehman, 2010). Also, Lasun & Nwosu (2011) submitted that, an employee's intention to separate from his or her organization is predicated upon an immediate

precursor of turnover decisions. In addition, Kabir, Mohindru & Pankaji, (2003) sees turnover intentions as a voluntary decision of an employee to leave his or her organization or profession. Notwithstanding, turnover intention is regarded as a mere thought which may lead to actual turnover.

Employee demographic here, entails a profile detailing the characteristics and composition of a working group or population. According to Pfeffer (1981), it is the study of organizational composition in terms of social entity of members which involves age, gender, occupation, seniority, ethnicity, salary level, marital status, family status in addition to work experience and race. These variables over the years have assisted in determining certain occurrences that affects employees in terms of flexibly hours of work, and job sharing which are pertinent for health care and family responsibilities. Furthermore, these demographics determines or reveals to organization's management strategies to adopt in sourcing for adequate manpower needs in order to meet set goal(s). In this study, the demographic variables of interest are gender, age, length of service.

Within the sphere of organizations, managers and leaders are frequently faced with the need to balance self-interest and organizational or institutional interest. Following this, Dappa, Bhatti & Aljarah (2019) noted that organizational politics is an unavoidable aspect of an organization. Therefore, in order for the organization to have a proper balance between the two, the workers who sought to attain self-interest would readily seek to serve their organizational or institutional interest. Hence, organizational politics are activities that employees engage in, to acquire, enhance and use power and other resources to derive their desired results during uncertainty and or disagreement (Pfeffer 1981). Also, Abass, Raja, Dart, & Boukenooghe (2014) explains organizational politics to reflect the manner an employee perceives his or her supervisor or manager's behaviour to have a semblance of self-centeredness among others that are co-workers. In other words, managing organizational politics is complex, and therefore demands first, the understanding of the reasons for political behaviour which involves unclear goals, scarce resources, technology and environment, management decision and organizational change (Miles, 1987). Second, the technique of political behavior involving control of information, the use of consultants or advisers, game planning and building coalition (Pfeffer, 1981). Third, strategies for limiting the effect of political behavior involving, open communication within the organization, reducing uncertainty and creating

awareness on the causes and techniques of political behaviour (Pfeffer, 1981). Notwithstanding, Dhar (2011) noted that, political behaviour exhibition in an organization is unauthorized, problematic and is founded on inequality in its operation. Hence, employee who may not want to be involved in such behavior within their organization would seek for equity by leaving the organization. In the same drive, Poon (2003) posits that, employees who perceives their organization to be higher in politics, indicated a high level of turnover intention than those who perceive their organization to be low in politics.

Unfortunately, the Nigerian educational system has for more than one decade faced with several challenges ranging from inadequate funding, infrastructure, strike actions by various unions within the university system, especially the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), unequipped libraries and laboratories, brain drain to cultism and examination malpractice (Infoguide Nigeria, 2022). Each of these challenges over the years have hindered the university system from performing optimally thereby compromising the quality of research and productivity of the academic staff in Nigerian universities (Ogunode & Adamu, 2021). Based on these challenges, there has been increased in turnover rate of Nigerian university lecturers over the years to foreign universities, politics and or other sectors of the economy (Onwuka, 2021). Also, Ologunde (2005) noted significant lower level of motivation among university lecturers arising from these challenges and brain drain. In the same view, Ibukun (2007) argues that, Nigerian universities have witnessed crises in terms of movement of lecturers out of the system indicating a system enveloped in crises. In addition, Afolabi (2005) examination of lecturer's turnover in private universities in Nigeria reported a 46% turnover rate among private university lecturers to other jobs or universities while Aibinu (2015) reported that, 23,000 lecturers withdraw from African universities annually. However, Abbas & Rubab (2020) summed that, turnover intention is experienced as crucial in both private and public educational systems. More specifically, adequate and qualified academic staff in both developed and developing countries are difficult to acquire and retain (World Bank, 2010). However, Seo, Ke & Price (1995) concluded that, information on turnover intentions of workers enables organizations effectiveness in terms of managing its outcome. This conclusion is based on the fact that, turnover intentions can be measured to determine the intent of employees who wants to leave their organization (Ngamkroejoti, Ounprechauvaie & Kijboonchoo, 2012).

Studies on turnover intentions in African universities and specifically Nigerian universities have been documented scantily in literature. For instance, Onnubiko, Emmanuel & Chidiadi (2020) examined demographic variables and their functions in forecasting turnover intentions among librarians in public libraries in Nigeria. Also, Akpa & Olalekan (2016) examined the effects of demographic factors on employee intention to leave in selected private universities in Southwest, Nigeria. While, Ssali, Onen & Musoke (2019) studied factors determining the retention of academic staff in universities. On the other hand, Hussain, Ali & Hussain, 2020; Adeyeni-Adewoyin, 2019) investigated organizational politics and turnover intentions in universities and a comparison of private and community school teachers. While, Ologunde, Asaolu & Elumilade (2006) studied motivation and labour turnover among university teachers in Southwestern Nigeria. Meanwhile, Kanu, Ugwu, Ogba, Ujuotuonu, Ezech, Eze, Okore, Agudiegwu & Ugwu (2022) investigated psychological contract breach and turnover intentions amongst lecturers using organizational climate as a moderator variable. More specifically, Ajayi & Olantunji, 2017; Likoko, Ndiku & Mutsotso, (2018) investigated demographic analysis of turnover intention amongst Nigerian high school teachers. Furthermore, Adekoya (2018) studied the effect of organizational politics on employee turnover in private institutions in Nigeria. While, Okeke (2019) examined Organizational politics and employee performance in selected tertiary institutions in Anambra State. Each of these studies over the years were focused on the independent influence(s), effect and or relationship between demographic variables or factors and or organizational politics on turnover intentions without assessing the joint influences of those demographic variables or factors and organizational politics to determine their effects on turnover intentions among university lecturers which could have provided better explanations on the concept of turnover intentions in these universities.

Based on the above observed gap in literature, this present study is set to investigate perceived organizational politics and demographics influences on turnover intentions among Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-iwoye lecturers in order to bridge the observed gap. In addition, emphasis on specific objectives is to examine whether university lecturers perceived organizational politics will significantly influence their turnover intentions and to examine whether there are independent and joint influences of age, gender, length of service and organizational politics on turnover intentions.

Also, answers will be provided to the following research questions in the study as follows:

- Will university lecturers perceived organizational politics influence their turnover intentions?
- Will university lecturers' age, gender, length of service and perceived organizational politics independently and jointly influences their turnover intentions?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Perceived Organizational Politics and Turnover Intention

Social exchange theory is used here to explain for understanding the relationship of the independent variables (perceived organizational politics and employee demographics) and dependent variable (turnover intention) in the study. Social exchange theory is predicated on the fact that social behaviour in the interaction of two parties are based on a cost-benefit analysis in determining risk and benefit. The theory in addition, focus on economic relationship and the cost-benefit analysis that accompanies the relationship when parties have something of value to exchange (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). The theory suggests a condition that occurs in a relationship and concluded that, if the cost associated with the relationship is higher than the reward, then such relationship may be discontinued.

According to Saks (2006) study on engagement of employees in organization. Saks (2006) noted that social exchange theory tries to explain the obligation that generates from some interaction existing between persons in a reciprocal interdependence. The study indicated that when workers receive economic and socio-emotional resources from their employer or organization, they feel obligated to repay with compliance to undertake assigned duties and responsibilities. This however indicates, a greater level of cognitive, emotional and physical resources the workers bring in, to undertake their jobs. On the other hand, when their organization breaches in providing these economic and socio-emotional resources, the employees are more motivated to withdraw their services or themselves from the organization.

However, to gain workers full potential and to provide behaviour and attitude considered necessary for competitive advantage among organizations, requires three basic managerial controls. First, a

change in organizational and job design; second, organizational culture and third, personnel policies and techniques (Brayton & Gold, 1999). Therefore, in order to achieve these, acquiring political skill and knowledge of its function in organizational behaviour which is the third focused issue of organizational politics is required. Organizational politics is mostly seen as a pursuance of a person's self-interest without recourse to others benefit(s). According to Abbas, Ansari, Gulzar, Zameer & Hussain (2021), politics is regarded as a tool adopted by organizations to promote a reduction of workers and to cause them to leave their employment. Abbas et. al. (2021) went further to add that, when workers perceived their organization to be more political, they start losing their best hands and ultimately end up not achieving their set goals(s).

In the same vein, Bryne (2015) noted that when workers perceive an organization to be highly political, it brings about negative results that are harmful to employees and the organization itself. The study of Hussain, Ali & Hussain (2020) comparing private and community school teachers based on organizational politics and turnover intention, reported a no significant difference between private and community school teachers on organizational politics and turnover intentions. Meaning that with perceived organizational politics among teachers, they indicated no intention to leave their employment. More specifically, Adeyemi-Adewoyin (2019) study on the influence of organizational politics on employee turnover intentions in Universities in Ogun States showed that extrinsic factors associated with motivation inhibited satisfaction and performance of workers which ultimately caused an increase in turnover intentions among them, while Adekoya (2018) study, examining the effect of organization politics on employee turnover in private institutions in Nigeria reported a no significant effect of organizational politics on turnover intention in private institutions. Also, Uzundu, Nwonyi & Ezenwa (2015) study on the relationship of job stress, politics and turnover intention indicated a no significant relationship existing between perceived organizational politics and turnover intentions. But Guangiin & Lee (2010) found a significant relationship between perceived organizational politics and employee turnover intentions. In the same drive, Khan, Kaewsaaeng-on, Zia, Ahmed & Khan (2020) study examining perceived organizational politics and their interactive effects on job outcomes established a significant positive relationship with employee turnover intentions. While, Adeyemi-Adewoyin (2019) found a significant difference in organizational politics among non-academic staff of three public universities

in Ogun state. Arguably, their study implicated intrinsic motivation to have a promoted self-interest over institutional goal as source of organizational politics. In addition, the study of Vigoda (2000) examining the relationship between perception of organizational politics, job attitudes and work outcomes indicated a negative relationship with job satisfaction and organizational commitment but revealed a positive relationship with turnover intentions. Furthermore, Andrew, Witt, & Kacmar (2007), found in their study a negative relationship between organizational politics perception and managers retention ratings in their organization.

2.2 Employee Demographics and Turnover Intention

Turnover intention has received a lot of attention by researchers who have investigated the causes, consequences, outcomes and different managerial strategies to reduce its effect on organizations production and attainment of set goal(s). However, the effect, influence and or relationship of employee demographics have not been adequately documented in literature. Consequently, Nyamubarwa (2013) posits that several factors influence turnover intentions of workers in organization that ultimately informs their decision to want to stay or leave their organization or profession. Nyamubarwa, went further to identify these factors to include: age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, family responsibilities, educational level and personality style.

Meanwhile, Akpa & Olalekan (2016) study on the effect of demographic factors on employee's intention to leave in selected private universities reported that age, marital status, length of service at present universities, higher education attainment, present academic rank and present monthly income had significant influences on turnover intentions of university employees. In the same vein, Kamau, Muathe & Wainaind (2021) examination of demographic factors and turnover intentions in secondary schools revealed an association between age and turnover intentions of teachers. Meanwhile, Khan, Nawaz, Khan, Khan & Bakht Yar (2013) study on impact of demographics on intentions to leave of academicians in Pakistan showed that age, gender, marital status, and educational level did not moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and intention to leave. However, Moynihan (2008) reported that age and work experience of employees had negative effects on turnover intentions. Yet, Nzundu, Nwonyi & Ezenwa (2015), revealed in their study a no significant relationship between gender and turnover intentions while age had a significant

positive relationship with turnover intentions. Additionally, Begiim, Orhan & Haluk (2015) revealed that, employees' age and gender significantly determined turnover intentions. They further explain that, older employee reported lower intention to leave their organization than younger employees.

More specifically, Ajayi & Olatunji (2017), study showed that turnover intentions among high school teachers reduces according to teacher's age, but tend to increase significantly at 35 years of the teachers' age but tend to reduce drastically before 55 years of the teacher's age. Also, Ajayi & Olatunji (2017), reported that teacher's turnover intentions significantly increased among teachers who have been in service for less than 15 years and significantly reduces among those who have been in service for more than 16 years. However, Hayes (2015) found a significant negative relationship between employees' age and turnover intentions. In other studies, for example, Likoko, Ndiku & Mutsotso (2017) indicated in their study the existence of a significant effect of employees' tenure and their turnover intentions but a no significant effect of employees' gender and their turnover intentions.

3. Methodology

This study adopted survey research, the independent variables are; employee demographics and perceived organizational politics, while the dependent variable is turnover intentions. The study was conducted among lecturers in Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria. The general population of the study were all full-time lecturers in the university who have been on employment for at least three (3) years. The study excluded all other categories of lecturers who are on contract, temporal, adjunct or part-time and sabbatical or annual leave.

A sample size of three hundred and five (305) from the population of lecturers in the university were drawn using a stratified sampling technique for inclusion in the study. The stratified sampling technique used was adequate since it allowed the researchers to ensure that each category of lecturers (that is; Assistant Lecturer, Lecturer 2, Lecturer 1, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor or Reader and Full Professorship) were represented within the sample. A structured questionnaire with three (3) different sections (A, B and C) was used for data collection. Section A obtained information on the

demographic profile of the participants. Section B measured the perceived organizational politics of lecturers using a modified 12 item scale developed by Kacmar (1997) with a Cronbach Alpha of 0.87. Section C measured turnover intentions of the lecturers with a modified version of turnover intentions scale developed by Roodt (2004) with a reliability coefficient of 0,80.

The permission for participation by lecturers in the study was sought for and obtained by the researchers before interaction with the participants (lecturers of the institution) in compliance with the ethical conducts in research. On meeting with the participants, they were informed of need for the study and a guarantee of the confidentiality of their responses. The questionnaires were administered to the participant during working hours through the assistance of three (3) research assistants. However, in many cases, the participants requested that the questionnaire be dropped in their pigeon hole and that it should be picked up the following work day, while other participants attended to the questionnaire and returned the same day. Out of the Three Hundred and sixty-five (365) questionnaires administered, Three Hundred and Twenty-five (325) copies were returned, indicating a response rate of 89.04%. The usable data were however, analyzed for Three Hundred and five (305) participants of the Three Hundred and Twenty-five participants. The researchers derived this number due to the fact that some of the questionnaires were not properly filled out or unfilled out-rightly and returned. More importantly, to answer the questions posed in the study, the researchers controlled for extraneous variable by administering the questionnaires to participants who had been in the employment of the university for at least three (3) years. The data obtained were analyzed using simple percentages, One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), t-test of independent measures and Multiple Regression. While, the hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

4.1 Research Hypotheses

- Lecturers perceived organizational politics will significantly influence their turnover intentions.
- Lecturers' gender, age, length of service and perceived organizational politics will significantly independently and jointly influence their turnover intentions.

4. Results and Discussion of findings

4.1 Analysis of demographic variables of the participants

VARIABLES	GROUP	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Gender	Male	180	59.01%
	Female	125	40.98%
	Total	305	100.0%
Age Group	31-40 years	77	25.25%
	41-50 years	95	31.15%
	51-60 years	73	23.93%
	61-70 years	60	19.67%
	Total	305	100.0%
Educational Qualification	M.Sc/M.A/M.Ed	101	33.11%
	Ph.D	204	66.89%
	Total	305	100%
Rank of Lecturer	Assist Lecturer	34	11.11%
	Lecturer II	43	14.09%
	Lecturer I	74	24.26%
	Senior Lecturer	101	33.11%
	Reader	35	11.47%
	Professor	18	5.90%
	Total	305	100%
	Marital Status	Single	63
Married		205	67.21%
Separated/ Divorce		24	7.86%
Widowed		13	4.26%
Total		305	100.0%
Length of Service	Between 3- 5 years	44	14.42%
	Between 6- 10 years	70	22.95%
	Between 11- 15 years	87	28.52%
	16 years and above	104	34.09%
	Total	305	100%

Source: Authors' Computation

The analysis of the socio-demographic of the respondents revealed that 305 respondents participated in the study, 180 (59.01%) are male and 125 (40.98%) are female. The table also revealed the age group of the respondents as 31-40, 41-50, 51-60 and 61-70 with 77 (25.25%), 95 (31.15%), 73(23.93%) and 60 (19.67%) respectively. The table also showed the educational qualification of the respondents as follows: MSc/MA 101(33.11%) and M. Ed./ Ph.D 204 (66.89%). The distribution of the respondents based on rank, Assistant Lecturer 34 (11.11%), Lecturer II 43 (14.09%), Lecturer I, 74 (24.26%), Senior Lecturer 101(33.11%), Reader 35 (11.47%) and Professor 18 (5.90%). Marital status of the respondents indicated, single 63 (20.65%), married 205(67.21%), separated/divorced 24(7.86%), widowed 13 (4.26%). Assessing length of service of respondents, 44(14.42%) had worked between 3-5 years, 70(22.95%) worked for between 6-10 years, 87(28.52%) worked for between 11-15 years while 104(34.09%) had worked with the university for more than 16 years.

4.2 Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis One

There will be a significant influence of perceived organizational politics on turnover intentions among academic staff of Olabisi Onabanjo University

Table 4.2: Summary table t-test showing the influence of perceived organizational politics on turnover intentions

Variable	N	Mean	SD	DF	T	P
Low organizational Politics	157	26.46	4.4	303	-.734	>.05
High organizational Politics	148	26.23	4.1			

Source: Authors' Computation

The result presented in table 4.2 revealed a no significant influence of perceived organizational politics on turnover intentions among academic staff of Olabisi Onabanjo University (t =-.734; P>.05). Thus, the hypothesis is rejected. Hypothesis Two

There will be a significant independent and joint influence of perceived organizational politics, gender, length of service, and age group on turnover intentions among academic staff of Olabisi Onabanjo University.

Table 4.3: Summary table of regression showing the independent and joint influence of age group, gender, length of service and perceived organizational politics on turnover intentions

Variables	Beta (β)	T	P	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F	Sig	P
Age group	-.095	-1.088	>.05						
Gender	-.089	-1.543	>.05						
Length of Service	-.053	-.683	>.05	.253	.028	.011	1.357	.231	>.05
Perceived organizational Politics	.047	-1.32	>.05						

Source: Authors' Computation

The result presented in table 4.3 revealed that age group (β = -.095; t = -1.088; P >.05) gender (β = -.089, t = -1.543, P >.05) length of service (β = -.053; t = -.683; P >.05), and perceived organizational politics (β = .047; t = -1.32; P >.05) did not significantly, independently influence turnover intentions among academic staffs of Olabisi Onabanjo University. In addition, the table revealed a no significant joint influences of participants' gender, age group, length of service, and perceived organizational politics on their turnover intentions (R = 0.253; F = 1.357; P >.05) The joint percentage prediction is 28% while the independent prediction is age group 10%, gender 9%, length of service 5% and perceived organizational politics 5%. Therefore, hypothesis two was not supported.

5. Discussion of Findings

Turnover intentions are the intent of an employee to willfully separate from his or her current employment in order to seek employment in another organization (Yung, Wan & Fu, 2012). Several researchers in the area of organizational politics and turnover intentions in universities have reported how university lecturers perceived their institutions management as being political and their level of turnover intentions. (Olufayo, Akinbo & Martha,2022; Adeyemi-Adedoyin, 2019; Akpa & Olalekan, 2016; Ologunde,

Asaolu & Elumilade, 2006 and Kanu et al,2022). These researchers examined lecturer's demographics and or perceived organizational politics on turnover intentions.

From the result of this present study, hypothesis one which stated that lecturers perceived organizational politics will significantly influence their turnover intentions was not supported. The result means that, even when lecturers perceive their institution to be highly political, they are not demotivated or dissatisfied to want to leave. This finding collaborates the results obtained in the studies of Hussian, et al 2020; Adekoya, 2018 and Uzundu, et. al. 2015 which reported a no significant difference, effect and or relationship between perceived organizational politics and turnover intentions. The result of this study is however, at variance with the studies of Adeyemi-Adedoyin, 2019; Guangiin & Lee,2010 and Khan, et al, 2020 which revealed significant influence, relationship or effect of perceived organizational politics on turnover intentions. The result of this study however, provides avenue for further studies by researchers to assess the factors that could have caused a no intent to quit employment by lecturers even with a high perceived level of organizational politics.

The result of Hypothesis two which stated that lecturer's gender, age, length of service and perceived organizational politics will significantly independently and jointly influence lecturer's turnover intention was not supported. This means that irrespective of lecturer's gender (male female), age, years spent in the service of the university coupled with high perceived organizational politics, the lecturers did not have any willful intent to leave their employment. The result of this study is in line with the study of Khan, et. al (2013) which reported that age, gender, marital status and educational level did not moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and intention to leave. Also, Nzundu, et al. 2013 and Likoko et. al. (2017) studies is in supported of this present study, noting no significant relationship between gender and turnover intentions. The result of this study is however a total departure from the finding of Akpa & Olalekan, 2016; Moynihan, 2008; Begiin, Orhan & Haluk, 2015 and Ajayi & Olatunji 2017 which reported that age, marital status, length of service at present academic rank and present monthly income influences and or affects turnover intentions negative respectively.

6. Conclusion

This study investigated university lecturers' demographics and perceived organizational politics influence on turnover intentions among Olabisi Onabanjo University Lecturers in Ogun State, Nigeria. Several Studies in this area had hitherto focused on the independent influence of demographic variables or perceived organizational politics without considering the joint influences of these variables in determining turnover intentions of lecturers.

In this study, two hypotheses were tested using t-test of independent group and a univariate analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA). The result of the analysis showed that a no significant influence of perceived organizational on turnover intentions of Olabisi Onabanjo University lecturers. Also, a no significant independent and joint influences of gender, age, length of service and organizational politics on lecturer's turnover intentions was found. The implication of this findings is that, irrespective of lecturers in Olabisi Onabanjo University gender (male or female), age level. Length of service with the university and level of perceived organizational politics (high or low), the lecturers are not motivated to have any willful intent to separate from the university.

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Exegetical Interpretation of Proverbs 4 in the Context of Homeschooling among the Urhobo People of Delta State

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Abstract. Homeschooling as a form of child education helps to teach children the basic ways of life and moral values which help to mould them morally in the society. The biblical parent in Proverbs 4 exemplifies commitment to this important form of child education. Similarly, typical African parents were both beneficiaries and benefactors of homeschooling. This is no longer the case with most modern parents, especially among the Urhobo people today. Effective homeschooling has lost its place for so many reasons. The effect of this is moral decadence and ailing society. The aim of this paper therefore, is to use Proverbs 4 to address this unpleasant phenomenon ravaging contemporary Urhobo society. The methods used in the paper are historical, exegetical and hermeneutical. Phenomenological approach was also employed, of which oral interview was used to gather information randomly from Urhobo people in different communities. From the exegesis of Prov 4, the study finds that a child who is properly homeschooled would be more morally upright and better ethically oriented; consequently, the society would be healthier and more stable. The study concludes that the moral crises confronting the modern society today is due largely to poor parenting as manifested in the defective and inadequate homeschooling among the Urhobo people. Therefore, modern parents in Urhobo contemporary society should take homeschooling very seriously in order to mould their children properly.

Keywords: Proverbs 4, Homeschooling, Urhobo people, Modern Parents, Moral Values.

1. Introduction

Homeschooling is as old as the history of human being. Korkmaz and Duman (2014, p. 3891) assert that "the term homeschooling is used with reference to parents who teach their children at home". During this teaching, parents inculcate their culture, religion and mostly their moral values to their children.

As Regalado (2001) noted with regard to the Old Testament, the home was the foundation of education and the major source of learning in ancient Israel. He added that at an early age, Jewish children were trained in the daily duties of the family such as the pasturing of sheep, the work of the fields, household crafts such as baking, spinning, and weaving (cf. 1 Sam 16:11, 2 Kgs 4:18, 2 Sam 13:8, Exod 35:25-26). These roles were mostly as a result of Divine commands (cf. Deut 6:4-9; Prov 22:6; 19:18-19). Schoeman (1997) is of the opinion that the early Hebrews regarded school education as highly important but they saw the family as the primary educational institution where parents pass on to their children what they themselves learnt from their parents at home. The evidence of this homeschooling in ancient Israel is seen in Proverbs 4 which shows how a parent calls his children to pay attention to his instructions and admonitions.

African peoples, particularly the Urhobo of Delta State, practiced homeschooling fundamentally in the olden days, just like the ancient Israelites. Omosor (2018) states that this form of education is the informal type of education that goes beyond the "curriculum-based ...morals pedagogically thought in formal schools" (p. 115). The Urhobo

culture/traditions, acts of wisdom and moral values were passed on to the children through the medium of homeschooling. However, in contemporary Urhobo society, most modern parents no longer commit themselves to the teaching of their children at home. According to Ugwu and Ugwu (2018, p.6), “Most parents are involved in one form of work and other, thereby living their children to decide their own way of life”. The implication is an increase in moral decadence among teenagers and young adults in Urhobo land. This paper is an analysis of Proverbs 4 in the context of homeschooling among the Urhobo people of Delta State. The objective is to apply the text to address the unpleasant decline in parents’ commitment to homeschooling, which is one of the cardinal factors causing moral decadence and the attendant social ills.

1.1 The Socio-Literary Background of Proverbs 4

The book of Proverbs is classified as wisdom literature. The title of the book was derived from the Latin Vulgate *Liber Proverbiorum*. In the LXX it is rendered as *Paroimiai*, which approximates “Proverbs” in English Everret (2017). The authorship of the book of Proverbs is a subject of debate. As Rao (2020.) rightly pointed out, the Old Testament books were named based on three major criteria, namely, the opening verse such as *B^ereshit* (In The Beginning) for Genesis and *Shemot* (Names) for Exodus, the key individual or author of the text such as Ezra, Nehemiah or Esther, and the content of the text such as in Psalms and Songs. Commonly referred to as the Book of Wisdom, the book of Proverbs is generally ascribed to King Solomon as the author. But Evarett (2017) and Rao (2020) have observed that the content of the book shows that the final form of it could not have been shaped earlier than the post-exilic period. It is therefore likely that Solomon compiled or wrote down early portions of the book, but Jewish scribes probably expanded it from around 720 B.C while the diaspora Jewish writers added more to it. Thus, the exact date of the completion of the book is not known.

In terms of literary genre, Proverbs 4 is a didactic poetic, swinging between instruction (vv. 1-19) and admonition (vv. 20-27). In order to make the motif easily understandable and simple for the audience to comprehend, the parent made use of synonymous parallelism (vv.1-2), personification (vv. 6-9), metaphor (v. 9) and imagery (vv.11-14) to convey his message to his audience. Proverbs 4 is structured into two parts. The first part is a father's instruction (4:1-9) while the second part is the two ways: way of wisdom and way of the wicked (4:10-27) The pericope deals with parental instruction. The content

of this instruction is different from every other form of instruction in Proverbs 1-9. The instruction in this literary unit (pericope) is rooted in the instructor’s family background (Prov. 4:3-4), though, there is no concensus among scholars that the context of the book of Proverbs is rooted in the family background (Liphadzi, 2017).

Its social setting reflects different milieux, beginning from the era of the monarchy. Scholarly opinions represented by Everett (2017) which relied on both source and form criticism hold that Proverbs 1-9 which embeds the text under study was written in the early period of Israelite monarchy. There is a reflection of court-elite morality of the pan-Near Eastern “Wisdom Movement” associated with aristocrats and scribes in Egypt and Babylon (Rao, 2020). This was a form of homeschooling. It was meant to inculcate the core religious, moral and cultural values of the society in the children. As Omosor (2018) noted, it was by such didactic moral education that the values system of societies were preserved to ensure proper functioning of individuals in the society towards peaceful coexistence and harmonious living.

As a didactic literature, the purpose of the instructions to the young ones is to prepare them for the right way to live. Another purpose is for the young people to know the ways of wisdom and understanding and to live a moral life in the society. The young ones ere admonished to take their father’s wise instructions very serious as one could find in Prov. 4:1, 20; 5:7; 6:20; 7:1-2; 8:32-34; 1:8; 3:1; 2:1-2. They are also given the reasons why these series of instructions and wisdom guide should be kept (Prov. 4:2, 10, 22; 5:2; 6:22-23; 7:5; 8:35; 3:2, 4, 22-24; 1:9). The children are instructed to seek wisdom and understanding and never depart from them, for they would not only protect them but would also exalt them (cf. Prov 4:5-9; 8:11-22; 9:10-12; 3:13-18; 2:1-22).

2. Exegesis of Proverbs 4

2.1 מִן־אָבֻסָרְ - *mū-sar ’āḥ* (A father's instruction) vv. 1-9

The passage begins with the instructor parent introducing his teaching to his sons (בָּנָיִם) with the *qal* imperative masculine plural שִׁמְעוּ (hear) in verse I. The word *šim ’ū* (hear) is used in the text to call the attention of the children to heed the instructions of their parent at home in order to have good understanding. According to Pemberton (1999, p.135), "the introduction consists of the vocative sons and the rhetor's reference to himself as a father". This verse uses the terms אָבֻסָרְ (father) and בָּנָיִם (sons) to

represent parents and children respectively. This is a reflection of the patriarchal nature of the Old Testament culture and more so, the recognition of the fact that the man is the head of the home.

In verse 2, the relative conjunction *כִּי* (for) introduces the text. According to Williams (1976, p. 72), this verse introduces a causal clause *כִּי* (for) which states the reason or ground for paying close attention to parental instruction. Hence, the phrase *לְכֶם נְתַתִּי טוֹב* *כִּי* *לִלְמַדְתִּי* (for I give to you good teachings, principles or precepts) indicates the parent's purposefulness for the homeschooling. In verse 3, the relative conjunction *כִּי* (when) speaks of the parent as one who was once under the tutelage of his parents too. According to Aitken (1986, p. 53), in this verse, the instructor brings to his children what he has learnt from his parents.

Verse 4 starts with the lesson that the father received from his parents, which he is now passing on to his own sons (Liphadzi 2009, p. 100). In a similar view, Swaggart (2013) asserts that in verse 4, the instructor recalls the countless hours that his father painstakingly taught him the ways of the Lord, and the value of the instructions is the good life that it gives by preservation. In verse 5, the phrase *בִּינְיָה קְנֵה* *קְנֵה* (acquire wisdom; get understanding) indicates that wisdom and understanding are needed for one to live a moral and proper life. In addition, Liphadzi (2009, pp. 43-44) asserts that for a family survive for generations, it must live by wisdom". In verse 6, the Hebrew word *אהב* suggests that there should be a close relationship between the young person and wisdom (Murphy, 1998 as cited by Liphadzi, 2009). This shows that inasmuch as the child gives his heart to learning wisdom, he will be highly exalted in wisdom. In verse 7, the word *קְנֵה* (literarily to purchase) appears three times. Semantically, it means "to acquire", and a child is expected to make all sacrifices to learn and require wisdom and get understanding. Wisdom is to be cherished like a treasure for which we can give away everything we have in order to get it.

Verses 8 and 9 draw the sons' attention to the fact that wisdom is beneficial. In verse 8, the parent mentions honour as one of the benefits of wisdom. The phrase *סִלְסַלְהָ* (cherish her) is metaphorically used in verse 8 to impress the need for his sons to hold wisdom in high esteem as it is rewarding. In verse 9, the reward for embracing wisdom in verse 8 is well expressed in the use of the metaphor and imagery of the adornment and the beauty of a woman. The Hebrew expression *תִּמְגַנֵּן תְּפָאֲרַת עֲטָרַת תָּן לְיוֹתָם לְרֵאשִׁיף* (She will place a garland of grace on your head; she will shield you with a beautiful crown) reinforces the honour and dignity that attend the acquisition of wisdom by a listening child who has been fruitfully

taught domestically (cf. Prov 1:9). This interpretation agrees with the view of Waltke (2004) who asserted that the metaphors are used here to show the authority, the beauty and the personal dignity that will accompany those who embrace wisdom as a friend.

2.2. The two ways (vv. 10-27)

Verses 10 -27 present a contrast of the two ways of life: the way of wisdom and the way of the wicked. According to McCreesh (2019), this motif is also found in Prov. 2:12-15 but is here reinforced in Prov. 4 by the use of with imageries such as way, road, track, walk, run and stumble. In verse 10, the instructor implores his audience to listen and embrace his words (instructions). The phrase *תַּיִם שְׁנוֹת* (year of life) refers to fruitful life as a result of keeping parental advice. It refers not only to the duration of life, but also to the goodness thereof (Longman, 2006, p. 151).

Verses 11-13 speak of the path of wisdom (*הַדֶּקְמָה*) as the path to a successful and peaceful life (*בְּדַרְרָה*). He maintains that *הַדֶּקְמָה* (wisdom) is universal and entails a sensible approach to life by God's principles and standards, beginning with the fear of the Lord which is always demonstrated in one's behaviour (Crenshaw, 1998, p. 3 and Leliovskiy, 2016, p. 11).

Verses 14-19 point to the consequences that attend the way of the wicked (*בְּאֲרָחַת רָשָׁעִים*) and evil men (*דָּרָךְ רָעִים*). These verses contrast the way of wisdom in the previous verses (vv.11-13). The instructive parent presents the contrasts with the use of negative imperatives, warning the sons against taking to the path of wickedness or evil (Pemberton, 1999, p. 150). In verses 20-27, the instructions given in the previous verses are reechoed and the parent once again instructs his audience to heed his words.

Verses 24-27 conclude the passage by urging the children to be firm and steadfast in uprightness and show modesty in attitude, speech and conduct.

3. Homeschooling in Contemporary Urhobo Society

Homeschooling simply means home education. According to Korkmaz and Duman (2014), homeschooling as a concept references parents who communicate values and educate their children in their homes. In the same vein, Allan and Jackson (2010) assert that homeschooling is usually organised and conducted by one or both of the child's parents from a home base. Parents who teach their children at home do not only do so informally and at any given opportunity, but they also plan and create suitable time for it because they know that the life of their

children depend on the teachings they receive from them at home.

Homeschooling is part and parcel of the African culture. It involves oral traditions which embodies the wisdom, value system and worldview of the people. Through this means of homeschooling, African religious beliefs, culture and traditions, wisdom tenets, didactic proverbs and stories and moral values were passed on to children. Thus, in Africa, the home is a strategic and sensitive factor in the moral training of children (Mijah, 2017). African parents teach their children at home by sharing their life experiences, insights, religious values, culture/traditions and moral codes and principle with them.

Unfortunately, this is not the case with most families in Africa today, particularly in contemporary Urhobo society where most parents had failed to homeschool their children. As a result, the culture, religious beliefs and moral values that were typical of Urhobo people that were also transmitted to successive generations during are at the verge of being totally eroded. The implication is moral decadence in the society. Criminal acts such as cyber fraud, kidnapping, armed robbery, pipeline vandalization, examination malpractice, raping, negative peer pressure, cultism, prostitution, drug and substance abuse, indecent dressing and other immoral acts are currently trending in Urhobo society as a result of lack of homeschooling.

During interview, it was gathered that majority of parents in Urhobo society do not teach their children at home owing to various reasons, particularly occupational engagements. Out of the few parents who teach their children at home, a good number of them admitted that the teaching of their children at home occurs occasionally and that, it was only when a child got something wrong that they develop interest in teaching or correcting them that child at home. This particularly affects the children most in the area of domestic skills and indigenous knowledge system.

3.1 Factors Militating Against Homeschooling in Urhobo Land

3.1.1 Broken Homes and Single Parenthood

Most children from broken homes are not properly taught values at home and it affects them throughout their lives. According to Ibrahim (2015), the two major factors of broken homes are parental death and parental divorce or separation. Most adolescents, teenagers and young adults that cause all kinds of

nuisance in most places today are either orphans who lost their parents at tender age or children with single parent due to divorce or separation. As a result, these children lack that basic African mould of morality, care and values system which responsible parents transmit and inculcate to their children.

3.1.2 Western Culture and Civilization

Since the invasion of Western culture and civilization in Africa, it has become difficult for most African ideas, beliefs and practices to survive, especially those who have gone to live in towns and cities. Those once cherished African ways of live have unfortunately become primitive, archaic and regrettably unacceptable in public domain for many so called civilized Africans (Arowolo, 2009). It has been rightly observed by Sibani, (2018) observed that “Africans have imbibed the Western culture and have appropriated it so much that it now becomes almost part and parcel of their lives” (p. 57). Indeed, this is the problem with most modern parents in Urhobo society. Some of these parents believe that the teachings their children receive in schools are enough for them to live a moral and ethical life. In his paper on the unfortunate alienation of African cultural values and knowledge system, Omosor (2020) lamented the fact that most contemporary African parents have allowed themselves to be over-civilised to the point of failing to preserve the core African values which sustained the people morally, socially and economically and have thrown the prospects of developing from within while adapting and domesticating the technologies of the west into jeopardy. According to him, such values are rich cultural and humanistic heritages that the African peoples entrench in their children through the homeschooling by parents.

3.1.3 Parental Conflict

When both parents are not in a good relationship in the home, it affects the upbringing of their children negatively. This is the case with most Urhobo modern parents. According to Alamoudi (2016), it is mostly the case that parents have frequent disagreements; thus, parents should control their conflicts because such conflicts could have psychological, emotional and physical effects that would cause behavioural dysfunction among children. Parental conflict is a dangerous and harmful weapon that destroys home training of children. When parents engage in constant disagreements, it leads to hostility and also confuses children as they may not know which part to take. Parents have to agree on what moral codes and values children should imbibe.

3.1.4 Drugs and Substance Abuse

This phenomenal case of drug abuse and addiction is a disturbing reality in contemporary societies. According to Ayiera (2018, p. 153), People who engage in drug and substance abuse lack self-control, leading to involvement in social ills such as fighting, stealing, premarital sexual abuse and so on. All these are common attitude of most parents in Urhobo society. Since drug and substance abuse affects one psyche and behaviour, parents that are drug and substance abusers are likely to raise disorderly children in their families because of their inability to think and make good decision at the right time and as well exercise effective positive control on their wards,

3.1.5 Occupational Factor

In some homes, both parents have jobs and businesses that take greater part of their time throughout the week. While some parents stay in their places of work and visit their families occasionally, others return from work very late. Such parents may not have the time to teach their children at home due to tiredness. As a result, their children may lack that African cultural pattern, traditional skills and moral values system that parents usually teach and inculcate in children at home. The extended family members that could offer help in this regard are not usually available for many reasons such as the individualism that has become the orientation of most African which negate the African principles of *Ubuntu* and *Ujamma*. Ugwu and Ugwu (2018) have rightly noted that “This makes child upbringing solely the duty of his/her immediate family against the communal way of correcting a child” (p. 6).

3.1.6 Forced Marriage

During personal interviews with some Urhobo respondents, it was gathered that one other thing that is responsible for lack of proper homeschooling in Urhobo society is forced marriage, a situation where parents go into an unplanned conjugal relationship that eventually leads to having unplanned children. Uddin and Ahmed (2000) assert that “Forced marriage is a marriage in which either one or both parties do not give their consent, or do so only under duress” (p. 10). As Kazmirski (2009 stated, “Duress can include physical, psychological, financial, sexual and emotional pressure” (p. 10). Most marriages today in Urhobo society are forced marriages as a result of unwanted pregnancies which are in most cases an indication of parental failure in proper children training. In such marriages, both parties find it very difficult to live in peace and get along

harmoniously with each other and it affects children's home training negatively.

3.1.7 Negative Peer Pressure

Peer influence is another factor that causes child dysfunctional behaviour. The reality of peer influence stares the African society in the face particularly in this digital age of social media. Omosor and Kowhiroro (2021) have decried the negative influence of peer groups on child behaviour in contemporary Urhobo society, particularly in Ugheli South Local Government Area of Delta State. According to Poonam and Rajesh (2017), human beings are influenced by various factors to act in a certain way, and it may be in such a way that may ruin one’s entire life. Most modern parents in Urhobo society are equally influenced by their peers into unwholesome acts. So, the phenomenon of peer influence is not exclusive to children. Some of these parental misconducts include cyber fraud, kidnapping, pipeline vandalization, armed robbery and other forms of criminality and moral depravity. Some parents lack the moral credentials to correct and guide their children properly in terms of morality. For example, it is an open secret that majority of parents in Nigeria today promote examination malpractice by encouraging schools to render such illicit help to their children during examinations. This may be so because the parents are themselves products of the corrupt system or they failed to do the right thing in training their children at home and would want to make up for their inefficiency. This parental misconduct affects children negatively. Omonijo and Fadugba (2011) noted that “the power to persuade children to indulge in examination misconduct can be linked to warm and supportive relationships between them and their parents” (p. 298). A parent who indulges in such misconducts would find it difficult to teach children properly at home. This is the case with some parents among the Urhobo people.

3.2 Effects of Lack of Homeschooling among the Urhobo People

From the personal interviews conducted in Urhobo communities, these researchers have established that juvenile and adult crimes and all kind of immoral acts are pervasive among the Urhobo people because of the absence of effective homeschooling in most homes. Thus, African culture/traditions, moral and humanistic values, traditional skills and the ideal of integrity are fast dying away. The observation of Ugwu and Ugwu (2018) is apposite in the context of the Urhobo people. They lamented that the African society in general is full of immorality in its many

colourations. For instance, the dress pattern of the teenagers, youth and most adults are disheartening as they move about almost, if not completely, naked without fear or shame. Vices of untold dimensions are rife in the society. The consequences of lack of homeschooling have also led to the destruction of homes, depression and untimely death. Parents who failed to homeschool their children suffer most at old age, because they do not have responsible children that would take care of them. Even when they appear to be stable economically at old age, such ill-trained children are often liabilities to them as they may not only depend on them for livelihood, but also cause problems that unsettle them. Most parents are currently in depressed state due to their children's misconducts while some teenagers and adults have lost their lives due to wrong choices.

4. Reading Proverbs 4:1-9 in the Context of Homeschooling among the Urhobo People

Proverbs 4 provides a model of homeschooling that would build children's moral life and prevent them from making wrong decision. Just as the biblical parents in Proverbs 4 showed interest in inculcating in the children the core cultural values, moral principles, ethical practices and public behaviours, parents in Africa, particularly in Urhobo land have to also show interest in homeschooling their children because such tradition has been part and parcel of the African way of life. Children who involve in all forms of immorality in the society are either poorly homeschooled or not at all. To remedy this trend, some practical steps are imperative as discussed below:

4.1 Sacrifice and Dedication

Homeschooling is a conscientious engagement. Parents must have that sense of obligation. To give a child proper homeschooling requires a lot of sacrifice and dedication from parents and guardians. Ross-Aseme (2012) has aptly noted that "Sacrifices must be made to reach a desired level of parental involvement" (p. 56) in home education. In the study text (Prov 4), the instructor sacrificed and dedicated his time to teach his children. He proved his effort in the moral upbringing of his children by keeping the divine command and traditional obligation to ensure that the children are taught properly at home (cf. Prov 22:6, 19:18, 29:17, Deut 6:7, Joel 1:3, 1 Chro 28:9, Gen 18:19, Ps 119:9, Eph 6:4, Col3:21, 1Tim 5:8). Therefore, Contemporary Urhobo parents should emulate this biblical example for it will help in inculcating good morals and good conducts in their children.

4.2 Early Home Education

One thing that is evident in Prov. 4 is the child's early home education which involves both the teachings of both the direct father and the grandfather. According to Nurlaela (2013), education improves the moral values of a child. The biblical parent in Prov. 4 is aware of this truism. Hence, he taught his children by giving them examples and illustrations which are based on how he was taught by his father too. Such example should be replicated by contemporary Urhobo parents. Therefore, if parents in Urhobo society homeschool their children as early as possible like this biblical parent in the study text, the tendency for them to live moral and godly life is very sure.

4.3 Close Instructive Relationship between Parents and Children

What normally creates a healthy relationship between parents and children is love. According to Aleksiejuk (2015), "Love is the source and role of a family life" (p. 160). This parental love for children is very much prevalent in Prov. 4. As tradition demands, the instructor in Prov. 4 handed over to his children what he learnt from his godly father. This is a good example for modern parents in Urhobo society. If modern parents in Urhobo society emulate this biblical parent, the rate of immorality will drop reduce among the Urhobo people.

4.4 Being an Exemplary Parent

The instructor's instruction in Prov. 4 shows that he is a loving and God-fearing father who also wanted his children to follow his footsteps by loving and fearing God (Prov 4:3-4). This godly lifestyle of the biblical father is worth emulating. Contemporary Urhobo parents should see themselves as not just a father who caters for his children but also as a leader, a teacher and a role model for their children. During personal interview, most interviewees emphasized the need for parents in Urhobo contemporary society should follow the divine imperative for them to train their children properly at home.

4.5 Effective Teaching

The instructor in Prov 4 composes himself in order to make his teaching very attractive and effective to his children. According to Kola et al (2015), an effective teacher must possess the knowledge, attitudes and skills required to achieve the goals of home education and be able to use the knowledge and skills appropriately if the goals are to be achieved. Wise parents encourage a child to see the benefits of proper

behaviour". (Wegner, 2005, p. 720). It is therefore advisable for modern parents in Urhobo society to follow the footsteps of this biblical instructor. It is only through that that their teaching at home will be more effective in their children's lives.

5. Conclusion

Proverbs 4 is one of the Old Testament texts that lay emphasis on homeschooling. This text sees homeschooling as a very important tool for shaping the children's ways of life by inculcating cultural practice and moral values to children. However, due to the fact that most parents in Urhobo contemporary society no longer teach their children at home, these children therefore, grow up becoming nuisance to the society. Consequently, African culture/tradition and moral values that mould children through homeschooling have lost their place in the contemporary Urhobo society.

One learns from the exegesis of Prov. 4 that children who are properly homeschooled will not get involved in any forms of the misconducts pervading the society. There is need therefore, for contemporary Urhobo people to take the responsibility of teaching their children properly at home serious. An early homeschooling will help build children's moral lives as well as prevent them from involvement in immoral activities, unethical behaviours and unproductive lifestyles. Therefore, Parents/Guardians are to follow strictly the example good parenting as shown in Prov. 4 for the betterment of their children, the whole Urhobo people and the larger African society.

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List of Oral Interviewees

Names	Gender	Age	Town	Occupation	Date
Abor Onome	Female	53	Egbo-Uhurie	Farmer	02/03/2022
Gbaga John	Male	22	Abraka	Student	15/03/2022
Majemite Ovo	Male	29	Otu-Jeremi	Farmer	10/04/2022
Onojite Isio	Male	70	Ughelli	Police (rtd)	28/04/2022
Ote Queen	Female	55	Oghara	Teacher	09/02/2022
Ovoke Bini	Female	23	Sapele	Hair-dresser	14/04/2022
Paul Okoh	Male	55	Agbarho	Businessman	06/03/2022
Salubi Queen	Female	45	Ovwian	Businesswoman	28/03/2022
Ubi Lafua	Male	16	Osubi	Student	02/04/2022
Yoma Efe	Female	17	Otokutu	Apprentice	04/04/2020



Mbopo Initiation Rite in Ibibio: Ibibio Cultural Heritage

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Abstract. In Ibibio pre-colonial time, Mbopo culture was found to be practiced in every family, it was a pride of every young maiden then to be initiated in this cultural institution, without which the person will not be regarded in the society. Mbopo institution was highly rated and esteemed in Ibibio pre-colonial era. The aesthetic aspect of the Mbopo was the fundamental principles found in Mbopo culture. This paper investigates reasons for the sudden negligence this cultural heritage in some of the Ibibio communities which was a pride to the people, in respect to checking the moral behaviour of young girls then. This paper shall equally examine the concept of Mbopo initiation, mode of feeding, fattening preparation and ceremonial outing of Mbopo in Ibibio land. This work shall adopt analytical method in tackling the Mbopo initiation rite. Although the practice has some ill effect, this study recommends that good values should be upheld for the continuity of Ibibio cultural heritage.

Keywords: Mbopo, Rite, Ibibio, Cultural Heritage

1. Introduction

The African traditional society is anchored on the facts that institutions, beliefs, social order, norms and several practices, which are of truth, must of necessity be given foundational rites of passage. This empowerment is usually through visual interpretation, which may reflect in several forms of art ranging from dance, music, folklore most often the interpretations are engaged to demonstrate and highlight social demeanor and decorum, as it is mirrored in the thought and beliefs of a cherished culture of the people.

Among the Ibibios, typical African settings were not in any way short of this prodigious admiration in the search for a pleasant society that would systematize, pride and prestige. In responding to the need for such a visual interpretation, various institutions meant to serve and salvage the numerous socio-political and economic needs and problems of the people were established. Among these are “*Ekpe*”, “*Ebre*”, “*Ekong*”, and *Mbopo* etc. Mbopo is one of such rare cultures the Ibibio people institutionalized solely for the reason of inculcating social order, chastity and oral values as a way of life of maidens. In this attempt to give a clear picture of Mbopo institution, Umotuk (1995), wrote “Mbopo is an Ibibio customary way of preparing a young girl for her future role as a woman. This customary way manifest itself through the institution of Mbopo”, from the clarification given above, it is apparent that Mbopo institution establishes women of dignity and respect whose morality permeates through the fabric of society and forms the bedrock of a sustained marital life, full of honour and respectability. This work adopts an analytical method in ascertaining Mbopo initiation rite in Ibibio, which is the Ibibio cultural heritage. Analytical method will help to critically analysed the process of Mbopo and challenge the modern girl child on morality which is absent in today’s society.

2. Mbopo Morphology

Mbopo or Nkoho institution is a conglomeration of several structures and forms, the structure evolving from stage to stage are brought together harmoniously to demonstrate a common strength, beauty inculcate in the young girl, the attributes and responsibilities of womanhood that are ideal to the

norms of social and moral behaviour which are jealously, regarded as well as acceptable to the society.

The institution is segmented into several forms, ranging from initiation rites, institutional education in morals, skills and home craft lessons, body care and house wifery, music and dance entertainment and ceremonial outing and the kinetic invisible and audible tale bearer (masquerade). Music, dance and entertainment and ceremonial outing and kinetic invisible and audible tale-bearer are those veritable forms of Mbopo institution that display some very high level of aesthetic appellation and grandeur. The hairstyles are especially designed to reflect the coming of age in Ibibio-land, virginity is often regard as a mark depicting beauty and of character.

The hairstyle is an epitome of excellent achievement of artistic weaving with indigenous hair attachment. Hairstyle ranges from *Mkpuk Eba, the Mkpum or Eba-Nkaiferi, Ibuot-Ekong, Fiom Inyams Mmonmmon (back view), Mmon-mmon (front-view), Ayo and Iwombo and Idet Ubok, utom Eku Eteine, Otine Iso Inang-Ofri Etine*. The hairstyles viewed as a whole are very advanced and sophisticated; they seek to speak the aesthetical renditions of skill and artistry. According to Okon (1985), the hairstyle and make up can be grouped as standard and romantic in appeal and approach. Body adornment/decoration is regarded as a very important aspect of fashion and wear in Mbopo institution. It is most often classified into two groupings: the temporary adornment and the permanent adornment. The first one is the decorating of the skin, feet, nails and hands.

The second is the practice of modification of the body part so as to enhance beauty, such as body marks and tattooing, fattening, circumcision and clitoridectomy and also the removal of teeth to create an opening in the dentation. The Mbopo institution made use of both the temporary and permanent type of body decoration and the practice of painting their body with “*Odung*” is very common among the Mbopo. The painting applied directly on the skin with the aid “*Okpo Ayang*” or “*ndukpat*” (broomstick, buck of a bamboo stick respectively). This type of body painting is called and classified as *Okukin* or *Odung* as it is a cherished body painting by the women and for Mbopo rituals. The *Okukin* though it is grouped among the temporary body decoration, has the staining ability to be retained on the skin for upward of three weeks or a month. This body decoration simply defined the aesthetical sense of the decorator and the people atlarge. The use of assorted beads, worn round the neck and the waist

complement the body beautified with *Odung, Okukin Ndom* and *Iduot* to ginger admiration and also inspire the maiden, to be proud and overflow with air of achievement and satisfaction.

3. The Origin Surrounding Mbopo

Historically, it is very difficult to trace the origin of Mbopo. The myth surrounding its evolvement attests to the fact that probably Mbopo institution maybe as old as Ibibio society. In his finding on the origin of “*Nsibidi*” Ubom (1987), suggestively group the Ekoi, Ibibio and Cross River Igbo scripts writing with that of “*Akwansi*” stone figures. Interesting, it is worthy to note that Mbopo institution is also reflected with notation of “*Nsibidi*” symbols. These notations or reflection of “*Nsibidi*” symbols in Mbopo language of communication may possibly induce several schools of thought on how and what led to this involvement.

The available ethnological findings on Ibibio cultural institution are not conclusive on the origin of Mbopotradition. Keith Nicklin (1981), in his ethnographic field work on the Ibibio pottery production conducted from 1971-1978 also observed the need for interest on Ibibio studies about whom relatively little research has been done.

According to him “since the monographs of Talbot (1915), and R.A Talbot (1923), in view of the patchy nature of literature-historical studies of Southern Nigeria tended virtually to ignore the Ibibio”. Nicklin’s findings are of a truth as the facts remains that a lot are still required by scholars to unearth the mysteries of Ibibio institutions. Ibibio society as an embodiment of the larger African society is suffering from the same dilemma that Africa faces today. Lovemore (2005), observed that the dilemma that Africa faces today is that it has been a continent with no tangible history and also in the words of late Steve Bainto Biko “A people without a positive history is like a car without an engine”. It is through a corrected version of Ibibio history that Ibibio can obtain the inspirational references, that will instill confidence in the harnessing and amassing the vigor needed in reaffirming, re-constructing and resurrecting the rich Ibibio cultural heritage that has been distorted, stolen or pushed aside during the nightmare years of slavery and colonialism.

In attempt to proffer a solution, Udo Ema (1978), suggests that “as the march toward African renaissance goes on, there is need for proper documentation of the divers strand of arts, music, dance, sculpturing, crafts and institution that identify

the Africa traditional personality". He also called for the need of creating a reservoir of information that will facilitate proper understanding and appreciation of African's cultural past. In the words of Ogbechie and Oyeoku (1991). "Creativity involve an ability to extract order out of the chaos, form out of the none form and thus make meaning out of the variegated level of experience... ability to control the energies inherent in the act of itself which enable the required transmutation to take place".

An exploration into Mbopo institution can be classified as timely, especially now that in all parts of the black world, particularly in today's African continent, cultural revival activities is blowing like a breath of refreshing air across the world. The burst of cultural revival and the eagerness with which it is being perused have been unprecedented, from the hamlet to the village, from national arenas to international theatres, the black man is thrusting open the recesses of his glorious cultural traditional past.

4. Mbopo Practice and Functions

Uford (1986), in agreement with Ekwere's finding remarks that those women in Ibibio traditional culture who are not circumcised are called "*Edu*" that is the they are classified as infamous and infidels and above all, misfit for the society.

Clitoridectomy is practiced severally in some part of the world, it is not only in Africa, the World Health Organization (WHO) and Human Rights Information Pack (HIP) are currently organizing several campaigns and research on the adverse effect of female genital mutilation (FGM) and male neonatal circumcision (MNC). Currently, some exponent of the practices in several other countries supports the continuity of the practice. Njeri (2005), observed "Circumcision makes women clean, promotes virginity and chastity and guards young girls from sexual frustration by deadening their sexual practice". According to Amnesty International (2004), in its campaign to eradicate violence against women, it was observed that the available data on the short and long-term medical effect on FGM could not be reliably estimated. But all the same WHO has instructed countries where FGM and MNC are in practiced to make laws that will put a stop or discourage the continuity of the practice. For the Ibibio, Ekong (1983), while writing on the sociology of the Ibibio, observed that September was most generally accepted as the month or period prospective brides (maiden) went into the Mbopo fattening room for seclusion. Usually the "Annang" speaking Ibibio normally refers to the month as "Anantia". The

maidens maybe kept in the fattening room for three months or may be extended to nearly three years of seclusion.

Jeffery's (1950), work provided a clue on the time of circumcision (Clitoridectomy), who does it and how it is done. He observed that, usually, it is done toward the end of the Mbopo seclusion rather than at the beginning by a member of a certain society namely *Njama* or *Ndam* society. Okon (1985), explained further the purpose of Mbopo institution to include other functions other than circumcision and fattening. He emphasizes the fact that Mbopo serves other purpose in the preservation of social and moral rectitude among the girl-child. It provides facilities for relaxation, a system of formal education, which trained the brides in childcare, mother craft and domestic science and in the traditional norms and etiquettes.

5. Mbopo Initiate

Mbopo initiate is a young girl who is put in the house of seclusion for fattening, which involves preparing the girl for marriage and her future life under native laws and customs. Before a girl is fattened, it means she has come of age (puberty). It was a rule that a girl must be fattened before marriage. The fattening period lasted for three to six months depending on the wealth of the parents. The girl continues to stay with her parents, she was not to do any domestic work because her main duty was to eat, wakeup and eat. If the girl is betrothed, the girl's would-be husband with his friends has to build a fence called "*Atang Mbopo*" behind the mother's in-law's yard to seclude the fattening section called "*Etuk Mbopo*". The function of "*Etuk Mbopo*" was to keep the girl out of other people's view even if they come into the yard, tins of palm oil have to be provided by the would-be husband for the oiling of the girl's body. The fattening girl will have young girls around her as maid to assist her.

According to Antia (2005), the fattened maiden will choose and invite about two to four young girls to serve her as attendants throughout her period of confinement. They were called "*Udo Mbopo*". A strong elderly and experienced lady will be invited by the Mbopo's mother (*Eka-Mbopo*) to bathe, massage, oil and advise the Mbopo. She was called "*Ayed Idem Mbopo*" (*Mbopo tender*). Mbopo's parents also made sacrifices requesting for the protection and good health of the girl throughout her seclusion and confinement period, all these sacrifices are offered to village deities and dead ancestors.

6. Fattening Preparation

During the period of fattening, the girl is being kept away from her family and friends. They are not allowed to do strenuous works; she is provided elaborate meals rich in starch, carbohydrates, vegetable and meats; and she is frequently bathed and rubbed with shea butter and other local ointments in order to make her body smooth and shiny in all, the ladies are pampered but prevented from wandering too far from the fattening home. She is being cared for by older women and she is not allowed to come in contact with other people. She is put in a room where on a daily basis, she is massaged at least three times and make sure she has a sufficient sleep or rest, Esemma (2002), affirms that; “this process ensures the bride to get a healthy waistline, according to the Ibibio traditional belief, a woman who is full figured with a healthy waistline was said to be beautiful”.

William (2009), also add that; beyond being spoiled, the elderly women also help the young women to improve on their overall domestic and interpersonal skills, which include trading, cooking, decorating the home, cloth weaving, hair plaiting and for braiding as well as knowledge of certain crafts. Because beauty constitutes a key aspect of the process, they are also taught to dress themselves flamboyantly and to apply make-up in a manner that constantly ensure their attractiveness regarding their health and the health of their future offspring. They receive instructions on how to achieve sexual fulfillment, how to adopt proper nutritional habits at the fetal and post birth phase, how to stimulate milk production for breast feeding and how to identify herbal remedies for labour pain. They also receive training and/or retraining on the moral value, customs, more and taboos of their communities.

The fattening room is a school of sorts where young women are educated to subjects that covers biology, Psychology, Sociology, culture, home management, cosmetology fashion design and other skills enhancement. In some instances, the ladies also learn new performances of dances in what is typically referred to the “Outing Ceremony”. This usually takes place on the streets and commonly ends in the village or town square. At this time the participants are showed with gifts from relatives, would-be suitors, loved ones and well-wishes. They essentially present an arena and fundamental resources for nurturing beauty and for preparing young women to face life as wives, mothers, workers, and business owners. As an old rite of passage, they facilitate the passage from maidenhood to womanhood and wifehood, much like several male rituals facilitate the

passage from boyhood to manhood, and prepare young men to be future husbands, fathers, warriors, workers, entrepreneurs and providers.

7. Ceremonial Outing

Preparation for the Mbopo outing was always very exciting and elaborate, depending on the financial ability of the two families involved. The outing ceremony, being the day appointed for the public presentation of all the Mbopos in the village was usually very special and it involved the entire community and even beyond. The women are expected to dance with all the dance groups and to dance before the audience. Certain things must have to be cleared from perspective dancers before they can enter the dancing square (Awan Mbopo), such clearance included the mother of Mbopo having to swear to a deity the people they have choose have never caused or assisted her daughter to cause abortion by her daughter while in the house of seclusion. The daughter must have to swear the same thing. Mbopo must not be under menstrual period to enter the square including those who are going to dance with her.

Antia (2005), maintained that during the Mbopo outing ceremony, there are some ceremonies attached to it. These fattening ceremonies are;

Ekpo’s Visitation: About one week before the fattened girl made her first public appearance since she was in confinement, it was customary for Ekpo masquerades to accept her as a messenger of the ancestral spirits to visit all the fattened girls in the village to see and assess how fat, and beautiful they had grown.

Esema (2002), confirmed that, the fattened girls are led out and made to sit on a stool where Ekong Mbopo dances round her and eventually embraces her. He breaks a raw egg over her, a gunshot is fired to signify the acceptability of Mbopo before Mbopo will return into the fattening room.

Utua Ukot Ke Efe (First Public Appearance)

This ceremony always took place at night on a day set aside for it, one group drummers played for all the Mbopo in the village starting from the first house to the last, as they were followed by a group of dancers who came out to show herself in the public. Led by her supervisor, she danced to and from the position of the drummers. A pregnant or skeletal Mbopo was titled *itiitipMbopo* was bored at the crowd while the fat and plumpy Mbopo was cheered and praised.

Nka Urua Mbopo (Market Presentation Ceremony)

Bassey (1966), asserted that all the Mbopo were taken to the market in semi-nudity before they were given to their husbands. Akpabot (1975), maintained that if she is unmarried, this is the time when interested suitors comes forward to ask for her hand in marriage. He also points out that, at the beginning of the presentation, the instrumentalists start with the brilliant musical rendition, the mother of Mbopo, dances to this to the admiration of the audience. The introduction of dialogue by the Mbopo's mother while praising her daughter makes for variation which prompts a higher aesthetic appeal to the audience. Her waist dance which takes her out of the arena still serves as a unit of the aesthetic experience shared by the audience. They brightly costumed maidens attract smiles and admiration from the audience. Their songs heightened the general aesthetic appeal of the performance.

In the market, marketers watched them dance with admiration and gave them presents according to the fatness and beauty. They were usually carried on the shoulders by strong men who were handsomely paid for the job. On this special day known as Urua Mbopo (market day for the virgins), ntung, (rattles) are slide on her ankles and a chicken hung around her neck as sign of purity; tiny cowbells (*nyoro*) are fixed round her waist to signal her approach. She is led in a procession in which her husband (if she is married), fire gunshots, a group of women hold an umbrella over her head and an orchestra featuring wooden drums precede her signing:

Ibibio Mbopo ayaya aboho

nsuto ayen iyaya ntom

English (Mbopo is very pretty, what a pretty maiden this is)

UsoroAdiahaOwo (feast of the first Daughter)

It is pertinent to note that before the Mbopo finally went to live with her husband (if she is married), parents had to perform a great feast. The scale of such feast varied with the order of birth and the ability of the parents. If the daughter is Adiaha (The First daughter), usually had seven cows slaughtered for her by father that even if the father was unable to provide seven cows, in as much as he has made provision for one, that still goes on to projecting the image of the family that a cow has been slaughtered for the first daughter. This is why all the first daughters in every family in Ibibio land is known as "Adiaha Enang Itiaba" up till today. On the feast day, the first daughter had to set her feet placed on the body of a cow whose neck was being cut. Other daughters usually have one, two or no cows

slaughtered for them but all depending on the wealth of their parents.

Udad Mbopo nno Ebe (Taking Mbopo to the Husband)

It was noted that on returning from the market place, (if she married) the husband notifies those in charge of the fattening room that he is ready to take his wife home. The man also present gift to the women that were in charge of the fattening room to stimulate and encourage them. This calls for yet another ceremony at which he presents money to members of the household and buys more palm wine and food for the villagers, at the end of all the ceremony, the husband consulted his parents in-laws and fixed a date for his wife to be sent to him. Before she is sent to her husband, the parents, relations, friends and other guests, presented the Mbopo with gifts of different kinds including cooking utensils, beds, yams, food items and other household properties. The amount and qualities of gifts, of course depending on her parent's wealth, dancing and jubilation also accompanied the ceremony. A party from the husband's side was sent to the parents of the Mbopo to carry the wife shoulder high to the husband, members of the party were sumptuously entertained before they led the wife with her belongings to her husband. Dancing and merry-making continues far unto the night before the couple honey-moon period started with a test of virginity of the Mbopo. This test according to the tradition demanded for the couples to spend their first night together on a clean and stainless white bedsheet while enjoying the first fruit of their marriage life officially.

8. Socio-Cultural Implication of Mbopo Institution

Apart from providing an occasion for merriment and entertainment, Mbopo festival comes with a hue of beauty. Unable to understand this aesthetics, the anthropologists gave various inapplicable reasons to the observance of some of these festivals. Mbopo festival affords a form of relaxation and recreation both to the initiate who take part in the drumming and dancing and the uninitiated who watch, clap and sometimes take part in the general dancing and festivities that go along with the festival. Both men and women including children take part in this festival.

By cultural pride, we mean that a girl who has been accorded this high honour in the traditional society was the pride of her family. This high honour was never given to a girl who had sexual intercourse with any man. The interference here is that Mbopo was an

importance social factor to control moral laxity of girls.

It was a time of rest for the well behaved girls. During this time, they ate without cooking. There were people who cook for them, people to bathe them and experience local nurses to make sure that the girls in the fattening rooms grow fatter and lovelier with their bodies very smooth.

Traditional fattening festivity is an affairs of every members of the community and because it is organized at the certain period in the year. For everybody, it could be called the rite of intensification.

Ekong (1983), says “Mbopo” festival is a rite of passage and intensification which is common among the Ibibio communities. The custom requires especially in those days before the eroding influence of agents of social change every parents to put her daughter through the process of seclusion before she goes into her matrimonial family.

This is so because, it is a common belief, generally current among the people that if such a ritual is not carried out certain calamities may visit the whole community. Many societies whatever their sizes and degrees of complexity, need controls to ensure the maintenance of equilibrium and control come in several forms. Mbopo also brings higher status to the family and commands a high bride price. Its role, as tool for transition to motherhood and wifehood, where new behavior is learnt, cannot be overemphasized. Apart from the pride of family, another factor which gives Mbopo a high status was the pomp and pageantry associated with it. Mothers bagged their daughters to bless them by keeping their virginity so they could go into the exalted seclusion. The whole village would ridicule and chant obscene songs in a tradition of eyomouwooh, literally meaning the mockery of a loose girl; this was the way in which de-virginised girls were referred to. The parents and relatives of such a girl, tagged uwooh, would search for and hound the young man responsible for the shameful act until he marries the girl, as no one else would accept to marry her. Despite succeeding in getting the two erring youths to marry, the girl would still be stigmatized and so also her family. Mbopo was and is still one of the bases of our kinship system. By and large, it is very correct to say that Mbopo bring with it general merriment and cultural pride. On the other hand, it is an occasion for traditional religious ceremonies.

9. Conclusion

Today, Mbopo festival is not commonly observed except in some few communities in Ibibio land where the extant practice of the tradition still lingers on education and civilization. Fewer number of men do not even like their wives to grow fat; women now exercise themselves often to be slim. Clearly the Ibibio world has people’s conception about fatness and other attach values to Mbopo institution has changed. All aspects of life including traditional rites have been blown by the turbulent wind of change. Itis considered that the Ibibio have led a civilized life of their own. This paper is therefore a reminder that some measure be taken to bring back Mbopo culture and its aesthetic.

Finally, nearly all the neighbouring communities surrounding Ibibio speaking tribe are now practicing Mbopo cultural norms as a borrowed culture.

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Transformative Learning to Resolve Grief among Bereaved Older Adults in Urban Indigenous Communities in South-South Nigeria

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Abstract. This study examines how older adults resolved grief when bereaved of their spouse in urban indigenous communities in South-South Nigeria. The study was anchored on transformative learning theory by Mezirow. The study as guided by three research questions. Which are: What is the extent of grief among older adults on the loss of spouse? What are the effects of grieving among older adults who lost their spouse? How do older adults learn to resolve grief of bereavement of a spouse? The mixed research approach was adopted. Questionnaire was use to collect quantitative data which were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Qualitative data were collected using semi-structured interview. Using purposive sampling technique, 270 older adults from 65 years to 80 years in urban indigenous communities in Port Harcourt, Rivers State South-South Nigeria were selected. 210 were administered the questionnaire, but only 205 questionnaires were properly filled and returned while 60 persons were interviewed. The findings of the study were among that older adults inspect of their experiences about life, had very deep grief when their spouse died, that they suffer such effects like obsessive thinking, sleeplessness most of the times, extreme fatigue, weight loss, hallucination, numbness and shock on the death of their spouse, and that the degree of the effects of grieving varies and depends on the circumstances of the deceases. The study also reveals that the grieving process is in line with the transformative learning. It was concluded that that perspective transformation can occur among older adults following the death of their spouse.

Keywords: Transformative learning, Grief, Bereavement, Older Adults.

1. Introduction

‘.....until death do you part’ and “...let no man put as asunder.” These are some of the common phrases

in a wedding ceremony. But having married for years into an old age, the invisible hands of death come to put the marriage asunder and separate the couples permanently. Losing a spouse is a daunting experience that entails a painful adaptation process. Death is a permanent and extreme form of loss; it brings an unbearable pain and consequently grief. This is most horrible among older adults who are said to be very vulnerable and emotional. Older adults are most grieved with the death of their love ones which could be their spouse, child, grandchild, relatives, or an old childhood friend. In some African culture, a bereaved is expected to mourn for a certain period of time and within this period is not allowed by culture to do certain types of social, economic and physical activities. The length of time for mourning depends on the closeness and the attachment of the death to the bereaved, the cultural praxis and whether deceased died suddenly or after a long and protracted illness. The period of mourning is quite traumatic and coming out of the emotional trauma is very challenging. Grieving is a necessary emotional release on the death of a loved one. Not everyone expresses the same amount of grief when they are bereaved.

Grieving is a process; the process entails three main phases. This process is not necessarily linear, but is sometimes overlapping. The phases are: a process of gradual separation from the deceased, acceptance of the loss, and adaptation to the new reality (Kersting, Brähler, Glaesmer, & Wagner, 2011). The first phase is characterized by shock and denial of the loss, often accompanied by sense of emotional numbness, shock, disbelief, feeling of guilt, and anger. The first phase is also called early reaction. The second phase is called acute grief. This second phase may begin with the cognitive and emotional acknowledgment of the reality of the loss. It is characterized by intensive preoccupation with the loss along with elevated levels of cognitive, behavioral, somatic, and social

manifestations of distress. Some of the experiences in the second phase include memory loss and insomnia (insomnia not being able to sleep), extreme fatigue, abrupt changes of mood and loss of appetite, flawed judgment and thinking, stint of crying. The corollary of these manifestations is weight loss or gain, a variety of symptomatic health problems, lethargy, and reduced productivity, hallucination (hallucination: feeling, hearing, seeing the deceased and irrational resentment). The third phase is called leveling-off period. During the final phase of the grief process, the bereaved experience sadness with feeling of nostalgia, some pleasant memories of the deceased, even tinged with humor while gradually making meaning of the loss, learning to adjust and cope with the permanent loss.

The process of grieving is in tandem with Mezirow's (2011), transformative learning theory. The overriding concepts of the transformative learning process as enunciated by Mezirow are the disorienting dilemma, critical reflection, and new lived perspectives. Mezirow argued that an adult passes through 10 phases of meaning making at the end of which the adult learner undergoes a perspective transformation. A perspective transformation often occurs as result of acute personal or social crisis such as death of a loved one, divorce, a incapacitating and fatal accident, war, job loss, retirement. Apart from these few examples mentioned by him, this form of learning and meaning making has been applied in different circumstances and in diverse societies and groups.

Mezirow's transformative learning has been applied widely in adult learning such as in conflict resolution by Fetherston and Kelly (2007), in the making of scientist-environmentalist by Walter (2013), and stories of transformative learning edited by Kroth and Cranton (2014) in which series of stories of transformative learning were recounted by contributors in the areas of psychological dilemmas, transformation in response to loss and trauma, transformation through educational experiences, transformative learning and social change, transformative learning and spirituality. None of these stories focuses on the experiences of older adults following their loss of spouse. Also, most studies on grieving focuses on mothers or parents who lost their children and not older adult cohort specifically. The age of participants in all of the studies on transformative leaning and bereavement were between young to middle adults. Some of the research works that come to the fore are Akerman & Statham (2014); Bogensperger, & Lueger-Schuster (2014) and Enez, (2018). It is against this backdrop that this study seeks to examine the extent of grief

among older adults when they lost their spouse, the effects of the grieving and how they resolved grief in urban indigenous communities in Nigeria. Older adults do have a long traumatic experience if not well managed could result in their own untimely death or undermine their health and relationship with people. It is also argued that it is far healthier for people to release and express their grief (Goldstein, et al. 2018); but knowing the intensity, dimensions, and how they come out of such experience is important for counselors, adult educators, and care givers as well as older adults in management of grief arising from bereavement. How can one seek to explain older adult's experiences in times of grief and how they learn and cope with changes in life when bereaved of spouse using the prism of transformative learning theory of Mezirow? Thus, this study hopes to fill the gap on the limited research on transformative learning to resolve grief among bereaved older adults. In doing this, three research questions guided this study. These are: What is the extent of grief among older adults on the loss of spouse? What are the effects of grieving among older adults who lost their spouse? How do older adults learn to resolve grief of bereavement of a spouse?

2. Research Methodology

The research method adopted for this study is the mixed research design. Both the quantitative and qualitative research designs were adopted. The questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data relating to research question one and two, while we used semi-structured interview to collect qualitative data. We used the qualitative design because it allows us to understand how the participants resolved their grief as a result of loss of spouse. Furthermore, we used the qualitative research design in this study because of its flexibility to allow for the pursuit of research in diverse contest and multi-method strategy as observed by Silverman and Patterson (2022). Using the purposive sampling method, we selected 270 older adults from 65 years to 80 years in urban indigenous communities in Port Harcourt, Rivers State South-South Nigeria. Indigenous communities are aboriginal people who are the natives in a metropolis. Four indigenous settlements in Port Harcourt metropolis were used in this study. The communities are Abuloma, Amadi-Ama, Elekahia, and Nkpolu-Oroworukwo. Our choice of the older adult cohort is based on the fact that they of experience physical and cognitive difficulties that may undermine their ability to cope in times of grief over the loss of their spouse.

We used questionnaire and semi-structured interview for data collection. The questionnaire has two sections. Section A contains the demographic background of the respondents. Section B is divided into two parts. Part one addresses research question one and response option are Yes or No, while part two of Section B is a self-structured four-point likert instrument with the following weighted options: Strongly Agree 4, Agreed 3, Disagree 2, and Strongly Disagree 1. Of the 270 participants in this study, 210 were administered the questionnaire, but only 205 questionnaires were properly filled and returned. We set out to have one-on-one interviewed with 60 bereaved older adults, 15 persons each from the four indigenous communities. However, only 51 people granted us interview. A semi-structured interview guide was used to collect data for research question 3. However, the interview guide was used to also compliment the quantitative data in research question one and two. The following are examples of the interview questions: How long did you feel grieved and why did it get to that extent? How did you react when aware of his or her dead? What were the essential task you find difficult to perform when you your bereaved? Do you have any health challenges when you were bereaved and what were the challenges? How did you cope with grief? For those who could not understand English Language, the questionnaire and the interview questions were interpreted in the local language and their responses were interpreted to us. The interviews were recorded and transcribed

The face and content validation were used to validate the questionnaire and the interview schedule. Two professional counselors and one adult educationist helped to validate the instruments. To determine the reliability of the questionnaire, the test-retest method was used. The validated questionnaire was administered to a pilot study group of 20 bereaved older adults in two different times in an interval of two weeks. The participants in the pilot study were not part of the sampled study group. The data collated in the pilot study were correlated using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistics. The calculated co-efficient was 0.78 which indicates that there was high level of consistency in the response of the pilot group and so the instrument is considered reliable.

The data collected to answer research questions 1 and 2 were analyzed using the descriptive statistics and the data were presented in tables. The interviews were recorded and transcribed. For the analysis of the responses from the interviewees, we used the constant comparative method which involves the

process of coding and recoding data in qualitative research. This method develops and connects categories by comparing incidents in the data with different incident, incidents with categories, and categories with different categories (Creswell, 2005 and Silverman, & Patterson, 2022). We read the interview transcripts and notes while writing down the notes in the margins with regard to the research questions. We compare the notes of one set of data with another set of data looking for patterns. Through these comparisons, tentative categories of feeling were developed: emotionally overwhelmed; bout of anxiety anger and guilt; troublesome thinking patterns; withdrawal syndrome, health problem; and difficulty in handling task. With these categories we examine the grief processes and how each of these categories was resolved.

3. Results

A total of 270 older adults participated in the study, 210 were administered questionnaire and 60 were interviewed, but five were excluded due to incomplete questionnaire response and fifty-one granted interviews resulting in the final sample of 256 older adults. Of these number, 55% (n=141) were female, 44% (n=115) were male. In terms of educational background, 6.3% (n=16) had university education; 58.9% (n=151) had secondary education, 14.8% (n=38) had primary education while 19.9% (n=51) had no formal education. The average age of the participants is 73.6 years.

Table 1: Extent of Grief among Older Adults on the Loss of Spouse.

S/N	Items	N	%
	Very deep grief	145	70.7%
	Deep grief	25	12.3%
	slight grief	18	8.9%
	Very Slight grief	7	3.4%
	No grief	10	4.8%

Table 1 shows the extent of grief among older adults when they lost their spouse. The table shows that 145 respondents representing 70.7% of the respondents have very deep grief on the death of their spouse, 25 respondents representing 12.3% of the respondents have deep grief, 18 respondents representing 8.9% have slight grief, 7 respondents representing 3.4% and only 10 respondents representing 4.8 have no grief. The table shows that older adults grieve when they lost their spouse.

The participant in this study were also asked in the interview section how long they felt grieved and why did it get to extent. There was diverse response on the extent of the period of grieve. Most of the

respondents said with 5 to 7 years and that why they mourned for that long period was because they never expected they will lose their spouse so suddenly that the death was a shock and traumatic. One of the

respondents in the interview section stated: it was a bombshell which created a wound in my heart that is difficult to heal.

Table 2: The Extent of effects of grieving when an older adult spouse died

S/N	Statement	VHE (%)	HE (%)	LE (%)	VLE (%)
1	Had Inability to concentrate and obsessive thinking	83 (40.4)	74 (36.0)	27 (13)	21 (10.2)
2	Having Insomnia (sleeplessness most of the times)	55 (26.8)	79 (38.5)	42 (20.4)	29 (14.1)
3	Had loss of appetite, taste or smell	31 (15.1)	23 (11.2)	66 (32.1)	85 (41.4)
4	Having a feeling of anxiety	43 (20.9)	35 (17.0)	72 (35.1)	55 (26.8)
5	Had Extreme fatigue	59 (28.7)	78 (38.0)	56 (27.3)	12 (5.8)
6	Had weight loss	83 (40.4)	62 (30.2)	22 (10.7)	38 (18.5)
7	Had hallucination (feeling of hearing & seeing the deceased)	71 (34.6)	69 (33.6)	33 (16.0)	32 (15.6)
8	Had emotional numbness and shock	41 ((20.0)	73 (35.6)	63 (30.7)	28 (13.6)
9	Having sense of anger	28 (13.6)	46 (22.4)	41 (20.0)	90 (43.9)
10	Having feeling of guilt	34 (16.5)	51 (24.8)	78 (38.0)	42 (20.4)
11	Having irritation or withdrawal syndrome (awkwardness)	36 (17.5)	53 (25.8)	62 (39.2)	54 (26.3)
12	Having difficulty in handling essential task	42 (20.4)	30 (14.6)	110(53.6)	23(11.2)

Table 2 shows the extent of effects of grieving when older adults lost their spouse. Out of 205 respondents, 40.4% of the respondents had very high extent of the inability to concentrate and obsessive thinking when they lost their spouse, while 10.2% had very low extent of inability to concentrate and obsessive thinking, 26.8% of the respondents had very high extent of insomnia while 14.1% had very low extent. 15.1% of the respondents had very high extent of Loss of appetite, taste or smell while 41.4 had very low extent. Table 2 also shows that 20.9% of the respondents had very high extent of a feeling of anxiety when their spouse died while 26.8 had very low extent. 28.7% had very high extent of extreme fatigue, while 5.8% of the respondents had very low extent. 40.4% of the respondents had very high weight loss when their spouse died, while 18.5% had very low extent. On the Hallucination (feeling of hearing & seeing the deceased), 34.6% had very high extent while 15.6 had very low extent. 20% had very extent of emotional numbness and shock while 13.6% had very low extent. On Sense of anger, 13.6 had very high extent while 43.9 had very low extent. 16.5% of the respondents had very high extent of feeling of guilt while 20.4 had very low extent of feeling of guilt. Furthermore, the table shows that 17.5% of the respondents had very high extent of irritation or withdrawal syndrome (awkwardness) while 26.3% had very low extent of irritation or withdrawal syndrome and 20.4 had very high extent of difficulty in handling essential task while 11.2 had very low extent of difficulty in handling essential task.

In complimenting the questionnaire instrument, interviews were conducted. When asked what was the immediate reaction on the death of their spouse? The majority of the respondents felt emotionally

overwhelmed, crying and yearning for the deceased, they said they had sudden and abrupt change in mood. It was a shock and devastating one. One of the participants clearly expressed her experience: ‘...When I lost my husband unexpectedly, I was initially numb, I couldn’t even cry at first when the doctor confirmed him dead, I was so overwhelmed that at times, I could not believe my husband was dead. It was like a bombshell my heart bled a wound was created which took long to heal. A man also recounts his experience ‘‘. ... my wife’s death was devastating and traumatic she was not just a wife but friend, sister and my mother, we share 36 years together, now I most times feel lonely, a better part of body had been taken away’’ most of the participants also experience a bout of anxiety, anger and guilt when they lost their spouse. The circumstances of the death are what makes the grieved angry or guilt. One of the women interviewed said she was so angry with herself when her husband died and the anger was prolonged, the sense of anger comes each time she reflects on the circumstances of his death, she felt she can replay the events and rewrite the script to prevent his death. She said she also felt guilty asking herself what she has done wrong that would warrant the death of her husband and for God to allow her to suffer. Some of the bereaved had troublesome thinking patterns, their thought become erratic and illogical, some of the bereave imagine that the deceased spouse can be heard or seen, some also lost sense of concentration or to remember things. One of the participants said this: sometimes I when having conversation, my minds sometimes is not there, it tends to wonder about, moving round reflecting about the death of my husband. The loss of concentration is itself distressing. This loss of concentration result in health challenges. Some of the respondents pointed

out that they have health problems such as loss of appetite, weight and sleep. One of the participants reported that following the death of her husband, she had sleepless nights, she wakes up at the same time he passed on every night thinking about his death and how can she survive without him. Some of the participants reported having depression and were diagnosed of hypertension and other illness associated with depression. In respect of difficulty in handling essential tasks, participants identified some essential tasks they could not do which their spouse helped out. This they consider as the real challenge of the death of their spouse, role and responsibility gap that arises as a result of the death of one's spouse, handling matters that were previously handled by their spouse. One of the female participants said this, "...my husband does a lot of things which I cannot do such as on/off generator, power change over, fix minor electrical fittings such as change bulb, bank transactions, and assistant in the store to get stocks, school runs. Each time I am faced with any of these issues, I remember my late husband." Another female participant expresses a contrary and seemly gloomy picture of her new order after her husband's death, "My priority is only me now, I do not have to put another person first, I did when my husband was alive...he was the domineering person in our relationship and everything was centered around what he wanted to do, he chose his work which I assisted him, we were together every day, now my priority is only me." On the other a male participant also narrated his challenges, "when I return home after long and stressful activities in the office, I find it difficult to prepare food to eat, my children are all grown and had left the house, am alone. On several occasions I nearly have burnt my apartment I left port on the gas burning and slept off in the parlor, doing the house shopping has been a daunting one, in the open market some of the women selling will insult you if your price below their market price".

How do the bereaved overcome all of these? Overcoming these during the grieve period is transformative in nature. How long does it take to overcome it. Participants gave divers responses; for some it takes a few months, for many a year or two may pass before they notice themselves feeling better. Some even need more time. When asked how they cope with their grief, some of the measures they adopted were: having support from family, friends, work colleagues, and religious organisations. Family members, work colleagues, and the religious are always around, giving consolation, helping to do some house chore, engaging the bereaved in discussion to avoid loneliness, isolation and to avoid the mind going round and round reflecting on the

deceased. Counselling from the religious, family members, friends and neighbours who have passed through this journey helped to come out of the grief period. The participants were of the view that with the presence of family members, friends, work colleagues and the religious they were able to avoid self-destructive habits such as the use of alcohol and drugs. Some said they try to force themselves to have plenty of sleep and have relaxation. Some participants said they try to engage in other activities that tends to temporarily distance them from the pain, such as learning new skills, engaging in recreational activities, reading (the Bible for the Christians and Koran for the Muslims, novels and other secular books of interest), attending religious activities regularly, taking vacation relocating to a friend or relations house, resume a normal routine as soon as possible and keeping positive activities. One of the participants express her feeling about her husband death, "my husband's death made me feel that we don't know how long we will be here on earth and we should try to make the best of everyday because we don't know what tomorrow will bring." The participant had never had this sense of life before her husband dead, so the dead of her husband brought about this transformation.

4. Discussion

The study reveals that when older adults lose their spouse, they have a very deep grief. 70.7% of the respondents in this study attest to this. It is awful to lose a spouse and it is difficult to get over it because of the shared experience and the meaning the older adults attributed to the death of their spouse. The finding of this study tends to be contrary to assertion of Holland, Currier, and Neimeyer (2006) that elders who have been true lifelong learners and gained from previous transformational growth, bereavement may be less painful to endure, and that older adults are resilient grievers, and show only transient symptomatology to loss and quickly reestablish their psychosocial functioning and equilibrium. Our findings do not agree with the position of Holland et al (2006). Aldwin, Sutton, Chiara, and Spiro (1996) asserted that the older adults due to a greater accumulation of experiences of gains and losses, they may be more adept at adaptation and coping. Others argue that successful adaptation to past losses in turn facilitates the construction of expanded worldviews to interface subsequent life losses. However, Moss, Moss, & Hansson, (2001), and Parkes, (2001) observed that there also exists the possibility of bereavement overload while Norris & Murrell (1990) observed that cumulative negative effect can cause very deep and prolong grief.

The study reveals that the effects of grieving among older adults are inability to concentrate and obsessive thinking, sleeplessness most of the times, extreme fatigue, weight loss, hallucination, numbness and shock. The findings of this study corroborate the assertion of Moon (2008) that it is evident that grief and bereavement in old age can be experienced in a multiplicity of ways due to the vast permutational nature of humans' individual differences. So, some them will have sleeplessness, weight loss, hallucination, numbness and shock. The finding shows that participants expressed significant distress to the disorienting dilemma of death events. One of the female participants described the response to her husband's sudden death: "I had...a shock type of reaction." She compared her shock reaction in the course of her bereavement for her husband to a particular past loss event. Our finding is in line with Morgan's (1994) shock and devastation, and Bowlby and Parkes cited in Moon (2008) loss event and numbness and Mezirow's model of Transformative learning, which is perceived as being rather linear and phasic, designates disorienting dilemma as the first step.

The study shows the diverse and varying levels of the effects of bereavement among older adults on the death of their spouse. Death, grieving, and the state of bereavement are all potent life markers that the bereavement literature confirms as tremendous life-impacting forces (Attig, 2004; Schaefer & Moos, 2001; Wong, 2000). Grief theorists had shown how the whole person (sense of self) is disrupted by a death event as it brings about a diverse range of reactions and responses. This disruption is the disorienting dilemma which Mezirow identified as the first step in the transformative learning process. The study also reveals that the loss of appetite, taste or smell as well as feeling of anxiety was not a common effect of the grieving period. This study reaffirms that perhaps older adults can control their emotional outburst and reduce some of the common effects of grieving. This finding tends to corroborate the observation of Gilden, cited in Moon (2008) that older adults may be inclined to accept death based on intrinsic religiosity and so the effects of grieving will reduce and there may be no loss of appetite, taste, smell, and feeling of anxiety. Similar view has been echoed by Fry (2001) that the older adult who may fare better in grief as they possess personal meaning for life, optimism for the future, and devotion to religion. According to Fry these are predictors of psychological well-being and coping strategies.

The study shows that the process of grieving is in line with the transformative learning process. For instance, from the study, the grief process entails the

following elements: loss event and numbness, yearning and searching, despair and disorganization, reorganization, and reintegration. When compared to Transformative Learning, the grieving process takes the same order with the empirical elements and order of transformative learning. Thus: shock and devastation are to the loss event and numbness phase; pain and rejection is to the yearning phase; immobilization and depression is to the despair/disorganization phase; gaining confidence, exploring options are to the reorganization phase; decision making and establishment of independence is to the reintegration phase. The finding of this study also corroborates Mezirow's (2011) version of perspective transformation cited in his study of widows, which specifically emphasized elements of disorienting dilemma, life assumptions, critical reflection, and transformation of life assumptions. Here we find the death of their spouse causing disorienting dilemma with an attendant shock, and disbelief among the participants in this study. Like the man whose wife's death was devastating and traumatizing. Also, the woman who could not believe her husband was dead suffers from. The study also shows a perspective change in all of the research participants, including changes in sense of self, attitudes, and life choices.

From our study what brought about transformative learning is the acute distress, reflection, emerging sense of change in perspective. The women who reported that her priority is only herself now has a change of perspective. Similarly, for the women whose husband does most of the things which she cannot do, the inability to do those things when it now confronted and no one to do it her thinking of how to do them and the action to do it is a complete process of the transformative process. Here they all have passed through the process of TL such as disorienting dilemma, self-examination with feeling of guilt, critical assessment of socio-cultural assumptions, Recognition that one's discontent and the process of transformation are shared and that others have negotiated a similar change, Exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions, Planning of a course of action, Acquisition of knowledge and skills for implementing one's plans, Provisional trying of new roles, Building of confidence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships; and A reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's new perspective. (Mezirow, 2011). According to Cranton (2013) perspective transformation is a structural reorganization in the way that a person looks at himself and his relationships and the world. Consequently, the study shows that the changes in

behavior among older adults due to the death of spouse is based on the way they looked at themselves and their new role in life. The study reveals that most of the bereaved older adults resort to religious activities and are supported by the religious to overcome their grief. This finding is in line with Wolff and Wortman (2006) that religious beliefs may ease the sting of death, and facilitate finding meaning in the loss, by providing a ready framework of beliefs for incorporating negative events. Through such framework the older adult sort for meaning of death and life after the loss of a spouse. Through such meaning they have perspective transformation.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

From the findings three overarching conclusion can be reach. First, that the loss of spouse among older adults can result in deep grief and disorienting dilemma irrespective of their experience and having several death episodes in life and accumulated wisdom on how to deal bereavement in life. It can also be concluded that the loss of spouse can result in several grieving effects and that these effects depend on individual life experience resulting in varying degree or extent of the impact the loss of spouse on the life of the bereaved. It can also be concluded that the degree of grief depends on the circumstance of the death. Based on our findings we therefore conclude that older adults mourn and grief deeply on the death of their spouse; that perspective transformation can occur among older adults following the death of their spouse; and that transformative learning is sharpened by the relationship of the deceases to the bereaved.

The finding of this study may be used by adult educators and educational gerontologist in particular to further their own knowledge base concerning the commodious capacity of older adult learners to engage in transformative learning and lifelong learning. Most essentially, the study will enable adult educators to learn their own way in discovering what truly matters to elders in in time of grief. Adult educators may also apply the findings from my study in constructing learning programmes for older adults, taking into account the likelihood of an oscillatory processing pattern as well as how reflection may be done in old age – that social discourse and dialogue may not always be the prescribed method to nurture transformative experiences in elders.

Educational gerontologists, to be more specific, may more explicitly synthesize issues late life grief into learning activities for elders. Holding deliberate and planned discussions on these topics need not be

relegated only to religiosity and trained professional counsellors. Also, not all death and grief talks require psychological counseling and facilitation, other social activities and self-directed learning is needed.

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Part Three
Educational Management



Social Vices in Nigeria Educational Sector: Implication for Business Education

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Abstract. Social Vices is a serious problem that can destabilize any higher institution of learning in order to do this Business education as a programme introduced into the educational sector prepares the learner for future life. The paper determines social vices in Nigeria educational sector and how it affects business education programme. This paper discusses types of social vices, which includes; Indecent Dressing, drug abuse and alcoholism, cultism, promiscuity and prostitution, examination malpractice, gambling, cybercrime, frauds and money laundering. The paper also discusses roles played by business education in curbing social vices in educational sector. It was recommended that Government should avoid strike in our institutions, for the sake of our children because when they are idle for a long time they tend to engage in social Vices, Government, stakeholders in education should try and meet the demands of Lecturers, Business Education as a department should engage students on recreational activities like sports, athletics, football, track events, debating society and creative writing, there should be award at least every session this will help reduce social vices in our institutions, there should be dress code for every profession/programme to discover rape indecent dressing in our institutions, like as in Medical, Law, Accounting department, Business education should follow suit, Parents should try as much as possible to educate their wards on good living, the norms and values of life acceptable in the society because the bible made mention of a quote “train up a child in a way he should grow when he grows up he will never depart from it among others.

1. Introduction

It is rare to find a school or an institution Void of Social Vices, this depicts that they are present in all the educational sectors – Primary, Secondary and Tertiary institutions. They are acts that violate social norms and values, immoral actions which are viewed as criminal and evil behavior that does not

conform to the societal expectation or belief. Some of the social vices includes, Rape, Cultism, Murder, Prostitution, Alcohol abuse, indecent dressing, cyber-crime, bribery, kidnapping, youth restiveness, terrorism, examination malpractice, drug abuse, child abuse, forgery and corruption, hooliganism, gambling, smoking, premarital sexual activities, robbery, pocket picking and fraudulent acts. Social Vices are common among young male and females.

“Igbo (2013) describes Vices as virus that destroys the moral conditions of society and make way for social maladies or ills”. If the vices are curbed or controlled the ills would be minimized, Vices can be seen as crime, evil and criminal actions or behavior in the society.

Basic education is one of the fundamental foundations for national development, peace, security and acts as an agent of health and livelihood and contributes to social stability of the individual and nations at large. Adegboyega (2006), in his finding discovered that societies with higher literacy level enjoy relative peace and unity, constant growth and economic empowerment the essence of education according to National Policy on Education (FRN, 2012) one of the major aim is molding of character and development of sound attitude and morals in the child, starting from the Primary School. Fadipe and Oluchukwu (1999), asserts that the qualitative aspect of education should be viewed as a living and moving thing whose goodness resides not only in its excellence relative to certain standards but in its excellence and fitness to the changing needs of the particular students and the society it is intended to serve. Good education should therefore lead to detectable gains in knowledge, skills and values, education is regarded as a very important tool for natural development, education is also an investment in human resources and also an essential source of economic growth (Aja and Awuru 2013). Education can be regarded as a great instrument per

excellence for reconstruction and revitalization of what is intended to achieve by its establishment; these include the whole good of society that is expressed in decent living, honest attitude and general progress in all spheres of life. Education is power and the process of acquiring knowledge and idea that shapes and conditions man's attitude, actions and achievements; it is a process of developing the child physically, morally, emotionally and intellectual power for social reforms. Furthermore, education is a means of achieving positive change in human development, but the system and processes of education in Nigeria appears to be in danger generally in the state of destruction and deratration facing the prevalent social vices.

Business Education has been in existence for decades. It is the education needed to teach people business, and needed to handle personal affairs and education needed for business in order to be good citizens of society and sky away from social vices. Ogunmoyi (2010) citing the joint committee of National Business Education Association defines it as bread and comprehensive discipline whose instructional programme encompasses

The vocational knowledge, attitude and skills needed for entry into employment and advancement in broad range of Business career.

The knowledge attitude and skills needed by all the citizen in order to effectively manage their personal business and economic system. This is like this due to, the society is not recognizing the relevance of business education and this is the reason that individuals will seat ideal without engaging their minds to become productive or earn a living, they can easily be lured into evil and social vices by the evil men and hoodlum. As the saying goes, "An ideal mind is a devil's workshop". In another form Ubulom and Ukwuizu (2000) asserted that business education is that aspect of educational programme, that prepares students for careers in business and its needed to teach people business and to handle personal affairs in order to be satisfied individual to deceased from social vices. This paper will discuss types of vices, its effects on business education.

2. Roles of Business Education in curbing Social Vices, Conclusions and Recommendations.

2.1 Types of Social Vices

There are so many vices this article will discuss only these ones. Indecent dressing, drug abuse and alcoholism, cultism, promiscuity and prostitution, examination malpractice, gambling, cybercrime, frauds and money laundering.

Indecent Dressing: Educational Institutions in Nigeria have been bedeviled with indecent dressing particularly by female students. Most girls go bare, display their navels and boobs and wearing what are just ample clearages on display, depicting size and shape of the private parts with skirts that are very short (micro mini) it appears now that be fashionable, one has to be almost nude, dressed in see through dresses and tops without Bras, according to Estwange (2004), this constitutes to weapon of mass Distraction and sexual harassment. These seductive dressing thus has profaned negative effect on both the students and the lecturers alike as they can hardly concentrate in their academic work under such environment. Dressing seductively and provocatively comprises the manner contrary to a normal (acceptable) dressing code in a cultural environment. Studies have shown that the person who engages in indecent dressing learn the behavior from bad company, magazines, internet usage, and felerism, parents and family. Some have admitted that they engaged in it to gain recognition, popularity and acceptability among peers, Olori (2013) opined that the major motive for this misbehavior is to seduce the opposite sex by exposing as much as possible of their critical body parts.

Drug Abuse: Olatunde (1979) defined a change as a substance of biological or chemical origin which when applied to a living tissue, produced an effect. Igboke (1997) posited that drug abuse is irregular use of drugs; drug abuse is also the excessive or irregular or self-administration of any drug whether, prescribed by a doctor or not. But government agencies acknowledged that drug abuse is any use of illicit substance like cocaine, marijuana (Indian hemp; wee-wee), heroine, opioid and so on. When a person engages in self-medication he/she is equally engaging in drug abuse, drugs can either be soft or hard as the case may be. When a person sole depends on a drug and cannot be able to be in his normal state the person is said to be a drug addict. Individual (Business education students) engage in drug abuse as a result of peer group encouragement or depression. Many students are misled by their friends in other to belong to a certain group they become so addicted to the drugs which leads them to deprestram trauma and this degenerates to a serious problem.

Cultism: cultism is an aspect of the social vices that affects the teaching and learning of Business education programme. According to Denga (1991) cultism is people ideology to share and propagate secret activities with one mind as members. Cultism leads to outbreak of violence on the campus and destruction of lives and properly.

Nwadike (2003) mentioned that there are about 45 secret cults in Nigerian Institutions of Learning and are all equipped with an elaborate hierarchy, Insignia and distinct attire. Some of the most notable of these secret cult groups includes the Sea Dogs, Black axe, Aiye, Vikings, Amazons, White Angels, Black Brassiers, Buccaneer Confraternity and a host of others. In most cases youth join cult groups to gain recognition and popularity and to enhance social life on the campus cultist hardly pay attention to their studies as they are fond of cajoling the lecturers into passing them in examination whether they have done well or not.

Promiscuity and prostitution: Makinde (2009) stated that both vices connote the involvement of persons in illicit sexual relationship with the opposite sex or same sex either for money, kind or for pleasure. Sexual promiscuity among students of tertiary Institution in Nigeria is another serious Vice that calls for serious concern. Most of one students who for the first time, gain some social freedom from their parents' watchful eyes and guidance easily fall prey to the temptation of casting the "forbidden fruit" some of them become wild on illicit lovemaking that they give most of their time and attention to the detriment of their studies they engage most of their time in sleeping outside their hostels, during the day they don't attend classes believing they will seduce the male lecturers to get marks for their examination. Most of these students become morally bankrupt that they rely absolutely on their womanhood to pass their examination they seduce fellow students to help them write their examinations.

Examination Malpractices: In Nigeria society, people place great emphasis on success goals without equivalent emphasis on institutional means of attaining these goals. The country has turned to a commercial venture and no longer a place for selfless services but rather a place to make quick money and quick certificate, the country is now faced with social and economic ills especially examination malpractices (Oyeikere 2004). Examination Malpractices is a counter practice to the ethics, rules and regulations guiding the conduct of any examination. Eyeka and Nwosu (2013) defined examination malpractice as a misconduct and improper practice in any examination with a view to obtaining excellent result through fraudulent practices these social vices crept into the fabric of all levels of the educational sector in the country with its inherent devastating effects on both Business education students and the society at large. Instead of giraffing where students have a glimpse of what other students are writing the students nowadays have learnt more sophisticated ways of cheating, according to Ivowi (1997) and Nwadiani (2005),

exam malpractice ranges from cheating i.e. copying from another person's work or extra works materials brought in to the examination hall, in personation plaferism, scoffing, authorized communication, influencing examination officials through gratification, unauthorized change of sitting position, disobeying examination instructions, possession of examination materials such as examination question paper before the examination, attacking or threatening of invigilators. This pitiable condition in our educational system is leading to the declaring morale, tight of talent, the specter of violence, and so on (El-Rufia, 2006). If these situations were not arrested Business education students will be academically affected.

Gambling: Refers to mutual agreement with a token or encore between two or more persons in a giving place and in a particular time frame. In the society today, gambling tends to turn the order of the day and is been practiced more often especially in the Business education students' academic environment. Some Business education students use gambling as their day-to-day business via the game centres and tends to Naija Bet centres, Baba Ijebu while some others gamble for fun.

Cyber Crimes, Fraud and Money Land erring: Fraud occur globally, fraud is not associated with a particular race or sector of the economy as the society began to grow, develop the complexity of operating fraud become intensified (Ude, 2010). Fraud according to the institute of fraud examiners (2013) is a crime, and also a civil violation. Defrauding people of entities of money or valuables is therefore a common purpose of fraud but there have also been fraudulent "discoveries" e.g. In science, to gain prestige rather than immediate monetary gains. Ude (2010) citing its department of Justice (2001) affirmed that internet fraud involves any type of fraud scheme that uses one or more components of internet such as chart rooms, email, message board or websites to present fraudulent transactions or to transmit the proceeds of financial institution or others connected with the scheme. Ude (2000) further grouped fraud into Advanced fee fraud/con Artiste or 419, Management Farcical deception, known as management fraud and padding away of Assets known as Bite fraud.

Money lamdering is the process by which criminals attempt to hide and disguise the true origin and ownership of the proceeds of their criminal activities thereby avoiding prosecution, conviction and confiscation of the criminal funds all these are against the law most times students get involved in these acts and when they are caught, they are made to bear the consequences.

Some other causes of social vices in our society today are as follows poverty, Government overemphasizing on certificate, unemployment, incessant strike, bad governance.

Poverty: Poverty of the body and the mind is one of the contemporary problems facing the Nigeria society. There is lack in the country judging from the developed country Niger is one of the poorest countries in the world this tend to give rise to social vices like bribery and corruption, immoral acts (Famoyin 2007)

Government overemphasizing on certificate in Nigeria, employment of an individual must be solely on certificate and not on acquisition of skills. This is a problem in Business education, if one acquires vocational skill and does not have a degree, the person will not have the opportunity to work in a government parastal and as a result of this, students by all means involve themselves in examination malpractices in order to get a certificate so as to enable them secure a job.

Unemployment: Nwadiolor (2011) stated that one of the causes of social vices in Nigeria educational sector in unemployment, especially among the youth. He observed that about 40% of Nigerians Nigerian youths are not gainfully employed, school graduate lack vocational skills like business education in school usually they end up start learning a vocation after learning school. It is better to engage in vocational training during their school time.

Incessant Strike: Strike is one of the things that gives rise to social vices like the saying that an ideal mind is a devil's workshop, student out of the school engage in different activities because of the school closure which is detrimental to the youth. There is need for government to address the issue to avoid strike actions. Strike action obstructs the school calendar and it can lead the student into depression looking at how long he/she spent at home. The there is need that during strike action youth should be encouraged to get involved in vocational skills.

Bad Governance: Good governance is required for the growth and development of any nation. Unfortunately, in Nigeria bad governance is more than good ones resulting in disjointed development. The World Bank (1992) identified the main characteristics of bad governance to include:

- Inability to establish predictable framework for Law and government behaviour in a manner conducive to development, or arbitrariness in the application of laws and rules.

- Excessive rules, reputations, lensing requirement and so forth which impede the functioning of markets and encourage rent-seeking.
- Priorities that are inconsistent with development, thereby resulting in misapplication of national resources, and
- Exceeding narrow base for, or non-transparent decision making.

3.2 Roles played by Business Education in curbing Social Vices in Educational Sector.

Social Vices is a serious problem that can destabilize any higher institution of learning in order to do this Business education as a programme introduced into the educational sector prepares the learner for future life, according to the National policy of education (FRN 2012) the philosophy and goals of Nigeria education is the acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competences both mental and physical as equipment for the development of the society secondly, the aim of business education programme in schools is to help develop the vocational skills of students and ability to engage themselves in productive activities in their leisure time rather than involving themselves in social vices that are detrimental to their lives as we can see that business education has the capacity to mold an individual to become independent we can see that education is an instrument of change and it is transformational in Nature education has the capacity of changing the value system of the people and re-appraising undue obsession to materialism and primitive wealth accumulation which is the mania that somehow responsible for corrupt practices in the society which invariably destroys national transformation.

Business education engages the three things: the head, the heart and the hand. It is also known as the domains (Affective, cognitive and psychomotor) thus providing a holistic and qualitative education to the youth intellectually (head) emotionally and spiritually (heart) physically (hands) and also instilling the essence of patriotism and naturalism, including the values of respect, propriety and industry.

The Head: it is the first domain of education, the cognitive and Business education tasks the students mentally in critical thinking to become intellectual giant and academically competitive through the combination of academic with practical courses.

The Heart: The heart symbolizes the second domain of education the affective or the emotional and spiritual sides of a learner. Business Education not only equip students with knowledge but most importantly through heart, with character formation and right attitude. This is because, business

education engages the all of the students to gain focus, strong concentration resulting in stability and fulfilment. Through Business education instituting of higher learning are able to produce competent independent and socially responsible individuals.

The Hands: The hands represent the third domain of education which is the psychomotor. Business Education engages the students manually for skill development through certain course like keyboarding (Typewriting) and shorthand for those in the secretarial option. Thus, the hands symbolize the learners' ability to apply what he/she has learned. The 3 domain embracing the head the hand and the heart also represent the three important education transmitters. The home, the school and the community. These three entities are the frame support for the students to be successful in his/her academic endeavor. Business Education emphasis the active participation of these three entities in empowering the students by involving them in the teaching/learning process. This occurs when the students are sent out on teaching practice and Industrial attachment to the end that can put into practices what they have been taught and learn on the job in a real life situation what one world and the society requires of them.

From the foregoing we can observe that business education is a Rich course that engages the students from the beginning to when they graduate and become employed but most importantly self-engaged and employer of Laser.

Other roles of Business education include:

- To help develop in all students the ability to choose wisely the goods and services that business has to offer.
- To prepare students to enter into and follow business career.
- To prepare students to business education teachers.
- To prepare students for more effective study in the field of Business
- To develop the students to have an intelligent understanding on the part of all students of the various occupation to be found in to world of business.

In preparing student to develop a profitable career path in Business education the student will have to learn to shun vices, because social vices distract students from their future goals and ambitions.

3.3 Conclusion

Business education plays a great role in curbing social Vices found in most educational institutions of learning today. The government, parents and institutions and society at large have their roles to play towards realizing the goals of business

education programme by finding a lasting solution to the menace of these social vices. The increase in social vices among students in Nigeria Institutions especially in Business education might be responsible for the general decline in the quality of the graduate being produced there is need that all hands should be on deck to burb social vices in our educational sector.

3.4 Recommendations

- Government should avoid strike in our institutions, for the sake of our children because when they are idle for a long time they tend to engage in social Vices. Government, stakeholders in education should try and meet the demands of Lecturers.
- Business Education as a department should engage students on recreational activities like sports, athletics, football, track events, debating society and creative writing, there should be award at least every session this will help reduce social vices in our institutions.
- There should be dress code for every profession/programme to discover rape indecent dressing in our institutions, like as in Medical, Law, Accounting department, Business education should follow suit.
- Parents should try as much as possible to educate their wards on good living, the norms and values of life acceptable in the society because the bible made mention of a quote "train up a child in a way he should grow when he grows up, he will never depart from it".
- Government should also discourage certificate racketeering by making sure that at every point of employment there should be entrance examination to determine whether you are the owner of the certificate you are carrying.
- Business education should be a guide for moral, psychological and physical support to students, teach it, preach it and live by it. This will help students avoid social Vices.
- Parents should monitor these children and the kind of association they keep.
- National assembly should strengthen the existing laws on drug abuse examination malpractice sex trade among others in the country in order to save the country from incessant social Vices among the youth.
- Guidance counsellor should organize workshops, talk show, symposium and seminars for Business education students at all levels of education, including the

religious organization and youth organization this will help curb social Vices in our society.

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Effects of Using Field Trip Technique to teach Drug Abuse on the Academic Achievement of Upper Basic Students in Social Studies in Pankshin, Plateau State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study investigated the effects of using field trip technique to teach drug abuse on the academic achievement of Upper Basic Education students in Social Studies in Pankshin Local Government Area of Plateau State. The quasi-experimental research design was adopted for the study. One objective, one research question and one hypothesis guided the study. The population of the study was made up of 1,202 Upper Basic two students in Pankshin local government area of Plateau State. Purposive sampling technique was used to select two schools for the study; the sample used was 90 students from two intact classes. The instrument used for the study was the Social Studies Field Trip Test (SOSFTT). The reliability of the instrument was established using test-retest and Cronbach Alpha methods of reliability which yielded reliability index of 0.81 for the SOSFTT. The statistical tools used in answering the research questions were percentage, mean and standard deviation. The findings revealed that field trip technique enhances students' academic achievement in learning drug abuse as a topic compared to the lecture method. Based on these findings, it was recommended among others that efforts must be made by educational stakeholders to utilize the use of field trip technique in teaching drug abuse as a topic in social studies Upper Basic secondary schools, because the technique will enhance students' high achievement in the topic.

Keywords: Academic Achievement, Drug Abuse, Field Trip Technique, Social Studies.

1. Introduction

Education is seen as an instrument for development to all nations who desire rapid growth and advancement in technology, economic, social, political and other spheres of life. Thus, the education policy and curriculum of every nation is designed to meet the national goals and objectives of each country. The core disciplines of the 9-year

Basic Education Curriculum include; English Language, Arithmetic and Social Studies education among others. Social Studies Education is considered core among these subjects because its contents constitute the values, morals, beliefs and the desired way of behaviour of the society the students are expected to acquire.

Social Studies as a subject is one of the core subjects offered at Junior Secondary School level of the Nigerian education system. It is placed after Mathematics, English and Basic Science because of its capacity to equip the students to be conscious of their nation, culture and instill in them the desired morals, values and attitudes of the society. The Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council designed the curriculum to be taught from JSS 1 to JSS 3 (NERDC, 2007). To support the declaration of the 9-year Basic Education programme, the Nigerian government, through the National Council on Education (NCE) directed the NERDC to restructure and re-align the existing Primary and Junior Secondary Curricula to meet the target of the 9-year Basic Education in the Context of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). This led to the development of Social Studies curriculum that captured contents on emerging issues like value orientation, peace and dialogue, human right education, HIV and AIDs, Entrepreneurial Skills and drug abuse among others (NERDC, 2007).

Drug abuse is the intake of any natural or artificially made chemical which is used as medicine without the prescription of a professional doctor or physician. Such substances are either natural or artificial things that are used or taken by people for the purpose that is often best known to them. Substances like hemp, heroin, cocaine, morphine are declared illegal but the most unfortunate thing is that, it is the illegal drugs that

many people desire to take into their body for enjoyment or pleasure. Drug abuse can have effects on the individual, the community and the international community. It is one of the topics that is taught in Social Studies.

In spite of the relevance of Social Studies, students' achievement in the subject shows a growing decline. There is a continuous fluctuation in students' achievement in both internal and external examinations in Social Studies. The situation is evident in Plateau State where there is a continuous fluctuation in students' achievement in both standardized and teacher made examinations in Social Studies. For instance, BECE Chief Examiner's report, (2016 & 2018) indicated that there is students' low achievement in Social Studies. From 2016 to 2017, there was 70% decrease in achievement, there was 2% increase from 2017 to 2018 while from 2018 to 2019, there was 10% decrease in achievement (BECE, 2019). This implies that the attainment of the objectives of Social Studies have not been feasible due to social issues such as drug abuse.

Many reasons have been advanced for this fluctuating state of students' achievement in Social Studies. Some of the reasons for the students' poor achievement in the subject have been attributed to the low quality of teachers and wrong application of teaching strategies and techniques (Busola, 2011). This may be because the teachers who are the implementers of curriculum do not possess the competencies to produce the desired results. In addition, there has also been an increased criticism that employing the traditional lecture method of teaching Social Studies has been one of the reasons for low achievement in the subject. The field trip technique of teaching was seen as necessary for instruction in some Social Studies topics such as drug abuse in the curriculum contents.

The field trip is one technique in Social Studies that encourages firsthand knowledge of the students about the subject contents. It involves visits to places outside the regular classroom and are carefully planned to help the students achieve better in difficult Social Studies contents areas that allows students to discover things themselves. It is in the line of this thought that Ganiyu (2016) disclosed that the field trip technique is comprehensive, systematic, tasking and expensive.

Considering Ganiyu's view, field trip is comprehensive because it involves a whole lot of arrangement and stakeholders in the planning process. It is systematic because of the step-by-step procedure in its execution, tasking because it is time demanding. Thus, most teachers of secondary schools are lazy and not creative to put forward a plan for field trip. While it is true that jamboree and

entertainment are parts of the reasons for field trip, teachers should not fail to evaluate the extent of achievement of students in class when they make use of the field trip technique. Ogunlade (2017) revealed that teachers have lukewarm attitudes towards using field trip and that most teachers in all fields including Social Studies do not use the technique as required. Lesley and Gallo (2015) however found that there is no significant effect of field trip on students' achievement.

Attempts have been made by several scholars to unravel the factors responsible for the poor achievement in Social Studies that are related to problem of poor teaching in Social Studies (Mezeobi, 2012). Though, there is none or little research where field trip learning technique was employed particularly in Plateau State to improve Upper Basic students' achievement in Social Studies. The inconsistency in achievement of students in Social Studies is attributed to a number of factors including teachers' teaching methods to meet students' abilities. Therefore, whether the use of field trip learning technique in teaching drug abuse will motivate students to learn and thereby helping to improve students' achievement in Social Studies is an issue this present study will address.

1.1 Objective of the Study

The objective of this study was to:

- Find out the achievement of Students taught drug abuse using field trip technique and those taught with lecture method in Pankshin Local Government Area of Plateau State.

1.2 Research Question

The following research question guided the Study:

- What are the post-test achievement mean scores of students in drug abuse when exposed and not exposed to field trip technique?

1.3 Hypothesis

The following hypothesis was formulated and was tested at 0.05 level of significance:

- There is no significant difference between the posttest drug abuse mean scores of students exposed to field trip technique and those not exposed.

2. Literature Review

Social Studies was defined as a spiral ecological study which starts from the self, to the family, hamlet, village, town, district, Local Government

Area, State, Continent and world (Kazi, 2017). In the views of Omoobas, Obi and Olabode (2008), Social Studies is a programme of study which a Social Studies teacher uses to instill in students the knowledge, skills, attitudes and actions it considers important concerning the relationships human beings have with one another, their world and themselves. Social Studies may be simply defined as an “integrative field of study which probes man’s symbolic relationship with his environment endows man with the reflective or contemplative capacities, intellectual, effective, social and work skills, to enable him understand his world and its problems and to nationally solve or cope with them for effective living in the society (Meziebi, Fubara & Meziebi, 2008).

From the above various concepts and definitions of Social Studies, Social Studies can therefore be summarised as a discipline or area of study, centered on man and everything that occurs around him. It seeks to address man’s common societal problems. This it does by instilling the desired values, attitudes, skills and knowledge for effective citizenship. Social Studies is an integrated, multidisciplinary and inter disciplinary area of studies that promotes centripetal forces and discourages centrifugal forces in the society. Balyejusa (2011) rightly asserted that the scope of Social Studies will remain an ever-changing area given the factors of space, time and human development.

Social Studies discipline has a variety of techniques of teaching; some of such techniques include, group discussion, panel discussion and field trip techniques amongst others. Field trip is an excursion taken outside the classroom for the purpose of making relevant observation and also for obtaining some specific information (Buhari, 2017). A well organized and planned field trip affords the students the opportunity to become actively engaged in the teaching and learning process. Field trip is therefore a valuable technique of teaching as it provides the most realistic means for studying real things and practical processes (Abdullahi, 2012). Oyetunde (2017) disclosed that for field trips to be effective, the students must have a clear idea of what they are going for and why.

Field trip technique of teaching is a planned and organized academic endeavour that takes place outside the four walls of the classroom that offers both teachers and learners’ firsthand information on people, places and things for the permanency of learning experiences (Adesoji, 2018). Garner and Gallo (2015) further revealed that popular field trip sites include; arms of government like executive, legislative and judiciary, media houses, railways,

companies, hospitals, packs, museums, factories, markets, hills and mountains, rivers, seas, peoples and archives. It basically involves trips to places, people and things. It can be used to teach many topics in social studies. One of the topics is drug abuse. This explains why Bolaji (2014) discovered that the field trip technique of teaching greatly influences the academic achievement of secondary school students.

There are different strategies and approaches to organizing field trips. Some require short term planning while some require long term planning, depending on the topic and the place, thing or person to visit. However, many researchers hold an idea that in the field of Social Studies, it is more educationally beneficial for teaching and learning when it is organized as a three-part learning (Salihu, 2015). The three-part stages of organizing field trip include; pre-field-trip activities, the field trip, and the post field trip activities. These three stages are logically connected.

According to Anekwe (2016), Academic achievement is something which has been accomplished successfully, especially by means of exertion, skill, practice or perseverance. Achievement is seen as a test for the measurement and comparison of skills in various fields of academic studies. It involves the determination of the degree of attainment on individual tasks, courses or programmes to which the individuals were sufficiently exposed. Academic achievement is commonly measured by assigning scores to the outcome of continuous assessments and examinations. Ndioho (2017) revealed that the scores students obtain at the end of every academic endeavour gives an idea of their achievements. Thus, social studies as a discipline or subject taught in Upper Basic Level of education in Nigeria is also graded at the end of every year. At the level of Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE), the grades obtained by the students are simply their achievements.

Factors affecting students’ academic achievement in Social Studies as presented in the study of Marione (2015) include the non-availability of laboratory. Field trip is seen to be important to the teaching of Social Studies; Drug abuse is one of the topics in social studies that can be taught using field trip technique. This study therefore filled that gap by carrying out a study on the effects of using the Field Trip technique to teach drug abuse on the academic achievement of Upper Basic Students in Social Studies in Pankshin, Plateau State, Nigeria.

Methodology

The quasi experimental research type was adopted for the study, specifically, the non-equivalent pre-

test, post-test, control group design. The design is suitable for a study where from the onset, full experimental control is lacking (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2017). The authors further explained that Quasi-experimental design employs at least two groups of research participants, one of which is the control group who receives either no treatment or alternative treatment, while treatment is given to the experimental group, in order to determine the effect of treatment on participants' post-test achievement. It is used when a study intends to make use of intact groups without interrupting the normal school setting.

The population of the study consisted of all the 1,202 Upper Basic 2 students from the 25 public schools in Pankshin Local Government Area. The population comprised 665 boys and 537 girls. The sample of the study consisted of 90 students from 2 intact classes from 2 public schools in Pankshin Local Government Area. Out of the 2 schools, one was used as experimental group and the other school as the control group. Purposive sampling technique was used to obtain 2 public schools with comparable characteristics in Pankshin Local Government Area. The 2 schools that were sampled were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Being a quasi-experimental study, all the Upper Basic two students offering social studies in the two schools were used in the study. The intact class in school A

was used as experimental group while the intact class in school B was used as the control group because each of the schools has only one arm of upper Basic 2 class offering social studies. One instrument was used for collecting data for the study. The instrument was Social Studies Field Trip Test (SOSFTT). SOSFTT consists of two sections, A and B. Section A seek demographic data of the respondents namely; name of school, gender and school type. Section B constitutes 50 four-option multiple choice items from the Social Studies topic of drug abuse which is related to social issues and problems in Nigeria. Each of the 50 multiple choices carried 2 marks to make up 100% for each participant.

To ensure the content validity of the instruments, the judgment of four experts in the areas of Social Studies Education, Research, Measurement and Evaluation units were sought using the University of Jos Faculty of Education expert evaluation form. In this study, the reliability of the instrument was established using Cronbach alpha method and a coefficient of 0.925 was obtained. Any coefficient between 0.7 and above is generally accepted as a sign of acceptable reliability. The study used both descriptive and inferential statistics for data analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.5 software was used to analyze the data collected. Percentages, mean and standard deviation were used in answering the research questions.

3. Results

Research Question One: What are the post-test achievement mean scores of students in drug abuse when exposed and not exposed to field trip technique? The result was computed and presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Posttest achievement of JS II Students in Drug Abuse in the Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	After Mean	SD	\bar{x} - Difference
Experimental	60	66.20	13.71	25.93
Control	52	40.27	11.26	

Data in Table 5 reveals the post-test mean score of Upper Basic students in drug abuse in the experimental and control groups. From the result, the post-test mean score of the experimental group was ($\bar{x} = 66.20$, $SD = 13.71$) which is higher than the mean score of the control group ($\bar{x} = 40.27$, $SD = 11.26$) with a mean difference of 25.93, indicating that the experimental group performed better than the control group in drug abuse. It then means that field trip technique does increase students' achievement in drug abuse.

Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference between post-test drug abuse mean scores of students exposed to field trip technique and those not exposed. The result was computed and presented in Table 2.

Table 2: ANCOVA Result on Posttest Drug Abuse Mean Scores of Students Exposed to Field Trip Technique and those not Exposed

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	18948.208	2	9474.104	59.545	.000	.522
Intercept	29305.211	1	29305.211	184.183	.000	.628
Pre-drug abuse group	216.932	1	216.932	1.363	.245	.012
Error	17945.805	1	17945.805	112.789	.000	.509
Total	17342.899	109	159.109			
Corrected Total	364830.000	112				
	36291.107	111				

a. R Squared = .522 (Adjusted R Squared = .513)

Data in Table 2 revealed that ANCOVA was used to determine the difference between post-test drug abuse mean scores of students exposed to field trip technique and those not exposed. The main effect of experimental group yielded (\bar{X} = 66.20; SD = 13.71) and control group (\bar{X} = 40.27; SD = 11.26); $F(1, 109) = 112.79$, $P < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = .509$. Since the p value of .000 is less than the 0.05 level of significance with an effect size of 51%, the null hypothesis was rejected. This indicates that the drug abuse mean score of students in the experimental group significantly differ from that of the control group. The result reveals that the experimental group performed better than the control group. The result further reveals an adjusted R squared value of .513 which means that 51.3 percent of the variation in the dependent variable which is students' achievement in drug abuse is explained by variation in the treatment of field trip technique, while the remaining is due to other factors not included in this study. Table 3 shows the result of Sidak Post hoc comparison of difference between the drug abuse mean score of the experimental and control groups.

Table 3: Result of Sidak Post hoc Comparison of Difference between the Drug Abuse Mean Score of the Experimental and Control Groups

I	J	X-diff. (I - J)	Std. Error	P-value
Experimental	Control	25.58	2.41	0.000

$P < 0.05$

The Sidak post hoc test in Table 3 confirms that the corrected difference between experimental group and control group was statistically significant, $(I - J) = 25.58$. Hence, we can say that field trip technique do increase students' achievement in drug abuse.

4. Discussion of Findings

The findings on the achievement of students taught drug abuse in Social Studies using field trip technique and those taught with lecture method revealed that field trip technique was found to be effective in improving the achievement of Upper Basic school students in Social Studies as indicated in the Post-test result that there is significant difference between the achievements of students in the experimental and control groups in Social Studies in favour of the experimental group. The findings contradicted that of Lesley and Gallo (2015) who found that there is no significant effect of field trip on students' achievement. Bolaji (2014) however conducted a research on the influence of field trip technique of teaching on the academic achievements of social studies students and discovered that the field trip technique of teaching greatly influences the academic achievements of secondary school students in Lokoja, Kogi State. Ogunlade (2017) found that field trip technique was effective in improving achievement in various subjects and topics such as drug abuse.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

Based on the findings of the study which revealed a better academic achievement of Social Studies students who were taught drug abuse using the Field Trip Technique compared to those who were taught with the Lecture Method, it can be concluded that the field trip technique is a better technique of teaching drug abuse compared to the

lecture technique. This means that students' academic achievement in drug abuse can be enhanced through the use of Field Trip Technique.

It is therefore recommended that the field trip technique should be adopted by the relevant stakeholders in the education sector to teach drug abuse to Upper Basic Social Studies students. For this to be effective, it is further recommended that adequate funding should be provided by government, Parents Teachers' Associations and well spirited individuals, this will go a long way in ensuring the success of the field trip technique in teaching drug abuse as a topic in social studies for Upper Basic Students.

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Assessment of the Threats and Weaknesses of Entrepreneurship Education in the Management Universities in South-East, Nigeria

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Abstract. The study assessed the treats and weaknesses of entrepreneurship education in the management of Southeast Universities, Nigeria. The study was guided by two objectives, two research questions and hypotheses. A descriptive survey research design was adopted for the study. The sample for the study was composed through a multi-stage sampling technique. This gave a sample of 463 respondents used for the study. A questionnaire titled Treats and Weaknesses of Entrepreneurship Education Questionnaire (TWEEQ) was designed and used for the study. This instrument was validated and the overall reliability ascertained to be 0.77. From data collected, mean and standard deviation were used to answer the research questions while T-test statistic was used to test the null hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. Results show that universities have opportunities of managing entrepreneurship education. Results further show that there is no significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the management of entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria. Based on this, the work recommends that, the universities authorities should make provision for lecturers to go for workshops or seminars so as to be exposed to current trends in EED programme. The Federal Government of Nigeria should maintain a policy aimed at making adequate fund available for entrepreneurship education in the universities.

Keywords: Threats, Weaknesses, Entrepreneurship, Education and University.

1. Introduction

The standard of education and its functionality has been a major concern for educational administrators in Nigeria, especially in this 21st century. This is probably due to global interest in

education which has been identified as a means of development by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) targeted towards eradication of poverty across the globe. In a bid to improve educational standards in Nigeria, different governments had come up with different policies in education, all aiming at solving inherent social and economic problems like arm-robbery, kidnapping, hostage taking, and graduate unemployment amongst others. Literature is replete with the fact that many Nigerian graduates leave the university without jobs and with little or no hope of securing any for many years. For instance, Dabalén, Oni and Adekola (2000) observe that, unemployment among graduates in Nigeria is high, and their prospects for job have been worsened over time and without hope. They recycle themselves as postgraduates. Others without such opportunity and no hope of self-sustenance engage in various anti-social and nefarious activities such as cultism, armed robbery and insurgency (Hinde, 2000). These challenges, according to Nwosu and Ohia (2009) are common among university graduates in the South East states like Imo, Abia, Anambra, Enugu and Ebonyi. As a result, several graduates of Nnamdi Azikwe University, Awka and Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University Uli have indulged in acts of cultism, armed-robbery and other vices, worthy of university graduates. This problem is indeed, a fallout of the inability of the government, especially in Anambra State (since the inception of democracy in 1999), to provide 4 opportunities for the steaming graduates in the State.

As a result of the above problem, entrepreneurship education was introduced by the government in institutions of learning. The idea was to enable the students to appreciate the true and dynamics of entrepreneurship, and subsequently, the acquisition of skills that would make it possible for them to

develop functional skills which would enable them to depend less on government jobs, but rely on their abilities to provide for themselves the means of livelihood. In this regard, Nwosu and Ohia (2009) contended that, entrepreneurship education (Ed) is central to national development as it prepares students for jobs and careers based on annual or practical activities, and help them develop skills in a particular trade that promotes considerable self-employment for socio-economic, cultural and even political advancement of a nation. Entrepreneurship education has academic aspect (Curriculum and Pedagogy) and administrative aspect which determine the entrepreneurship institutional quality. Both aspects heavily contribute to the quality and success of the overall entrepreneurship education (Brown, 2003). The ultimate goal of entrepreneurship education is to facilitate the creation of an entrepreneurial culture as stated by United Nations Conference on Trade and Development in Essien (2006), which in turn would help potential students to identify and pursue opportunities. Aina (2012) also stressed that, entrepreneurship education inculcates in trainees the ability to assess their strength; seek information and advice; make decisions; plan their time; carry an agreed responsibility; communicate and negotiate; deal with people in power and authority; solve problems; resolve conflict; evaluate performance; cope with stress and tension; and achieve self-confidence. These abilities are what could be termed employable skills. Students could therefore, be trained to succeed in entrepreneurship irrespective of their gender and educational background so as to enhance the development of core entrepreneurship traits and skills such as: diligence and capacity for hard work (task orientation); confidence; risk taking; decision making skills; interpersonal skills; leadership skills; and goal setting to improve individuals (Chiaha & Agu, 2008). The benefits of entrepreneurship education to students are numerous and include such positive outcomes as increased sense of locus of control; greater awareness of personal talents and skills; improved school attendance; higher academic achievement; enhanced creativity skills in business situations; enhanced business opportunity recognition skills; ability to handle business situations ethically; problem-solving skills; understanding of steps essential in business startup; enhanced awareness of career and entrepreneurial option; use of strategies for idea generation and assessment of feasibility of ideas; understanding of basic free market economy; enhanced basic financial concepts; increased awareness of social responsibility and entrepreneur's contribution to society; and greater likelihood of graduating to next education level (Broecke & Diallo, 2012).

Entrepreneurship education therefore, appears to be a formal structured instruction which conveys entrepreneurial knowledge and develops in students, focused awareness relating to opportunity, recognition and the creation of new ventures. Nwosu and Ohia (2009) defined entrepreneurship education as the process of providing individuals with the ability to recognize Commercial opportunities and the knowledge, skills and attitudes to act on them. Acknowledging the view above, Brown (2003) contends that, entrepreneurship education and training programmes are aimed directly at stimulating entrepreneurship which may be defined as independent small business ownership or the development of opportunity-seeking managers Within companies. Brown added that, these innovative, creative, independent and self-reliant qualities are lacking in most university graduates, who have become mere white-collar jobseekers rather than job-makers. However, entrepreneurship seem to be the hub of both small and medium enterprises in America, Europe, Asian Tigers, among other advanced countries Where private sector compliments the efforts of government in provision of employment opportunities, social security and welfare services to the citizenry.

The realization of the importance of entrepreneurship education and its implementation in universities is basically the concern of two main groups of staff in universities. But despite the structural organization of entrepreneurship education, Banabo and Ndiomu (2011) identified the challenges affecting entrepreneurship education in federal and state universities in the North Central states to include lack of sufficient and skilled manpower, inadequate funding, poor state of infrastructure, and lack of relevant reading materials. For Okebuola (2011), these challenges include cultism, lack of vibrant staff development programme, frequent labour disputes and the closure of universities, inadequate information technology facilities, poor leadership and poor policy implementation. It is important to note that, three types of universities exist in Nigeria. They are: federal, state and private universities. The major difference between them lies in the funding. While the federal government funds federal universities, state universities are funded by their various state governments, whereas private universities are funded by private individuals that own them. Nevertheless, they are all under the supervision of the Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC) that ensures quality and minimum standards in the universities while the various funding bodies make administrative policies. However, some universities like Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Imo State University, Owerri, Nnamdi Azikiwe University,

Awka; Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Uli; Alex Ekwueme Federal University Ndufu-Alike and Michael Okpara University of Agriculture Umudike amongst others, in the South East States of Nigeria appears to be bedeviled by the challenges of effective entrepreneurship education management.

Based on the above, this study proposes a strategic management of the challenges facing entrepreneurship education in universities in South East States of Nigeria, through the application of a SWOT, which denotes Strength, Weakness, Opportunity and Threats. Johnson and Scholes in Hinde (2000, p. 14) stated that the aim of SWOT analysis is to identify the extent to which the current strategy of an organization and its more specified strength and weakness are relevant to, and capable of dealing with the change taking place in the management of universal education. This means that, every university in the North Central Nigeria needs to increasingly become aware of their Strength, Weakness, Opportunity, and Threats in managing the challenges of entrepreneurship education. To succeed in any field, weakness must be overcome through strength and threats must be transferred into opportunities. Based on the above, the fundamental questions to be asked are that: Have all the universities in the South East States zone complied with the directive on entrepreneurship education? Has the entrepreneurship education been properly integrated into the universities' curriculum in the universities in the South East States of Nigeria? Do the universities have adequate personnel in terms of quality and quantity for the entrepreneurial education? Do they give adequate facilities for entrepreneurial education? Are they producing entrepreneurs in the various disciplines? Have the university graduates stopped seeking for paid employment? Are majority of them self-employed? These posers have suggested that, there may be challenges facing universities in the implementation of the entrepreneurship education policy, especially in South East states of Nigeria, which this study is set to investigate and find out how they can be strategically managed in the interest of achieving the objectives of entrepreneurship education.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

One observes with dismay, the deepening level of graduate unemployment in Nigeria, and this is in a country that is blessed with abundant natural resources such as ore, coal, chromium, cobalt, hydroelectric power, manganese and millions of hectares of uncultivated farmland and abundance of oil and gas. Regrettably, able-bodied men and women have become beggars on the streets of their

fatherland. Realizing the above danger, entrepreneurship education was introduced and made a compulsory course in Nigerian universities. The idea was to enable graduates to acquire skills for the development of functional skills which would enable them to depend less on government jobs, but rely on their own abilities to provide for themselves the means of livelihood. This, apart from addressing the problem of graduate unemployment, would also strategically position the Nigerian economy for leadership in Africa. Ever since entrepreneurship education was introduced in Nigerian universities, many graduates still remain unemployed for a long time after graduation. It appears that, the entrepreneurship education delivered to undergraduates does not meet the aims and the objectives of the course. Consequently, the challenge of graduate unemployment, with its attendant effects has continued to undermine chances of survival in Nigeria, thus making mockery of the content and philosophy of entrepreneurship education in the federal and state universities in the South East States. Such universities are faced with the challenge of effective entrepreneurship education management. This research is therefore, an attempt towards understanding the above malaise in terms of the content of entrepreneurship education; how the programme is managed; what impact it has on the socio-economic progress of university graduates in the South East States of Nigeria, and how this challenges could be addressed in the interest of achieving sound entrepreneurship education in the management of Southeast Universities, Nigeria South East States universities, and Nigerian universities at large.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the treats and weaknesses of entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in the South East, Nigeria. Specifically, the study sought to:

- Find out the threats to entrepreneurship education in universities in the management of Southeast Universities of Nigeria.
- Ascertain the weaknesses of entrepreneurship education in universities in South East State of Nigeria

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study:

- What are the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in the South East, Nigeria?

- What are the weaknesses of entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in the South East, Nigeria?

1.4 Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were formulated to guide the study:

- There is no significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers coordinators on threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in the South East, Nigeria.
- There is no significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers coordinators on the weaknesses of entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in the South East, Nigeria.

2. Research Methodology

This study adopts a descriptive survey design. The study was carried out in the South East of Nigeria. The population of the study is 126 respondents, comprising of 116 Entrepreneurship Education lecturers, ten (10) entrepreneurship education coordinators in the ten universities. The use of the coordinators and lecturers is due to the fact that they have direct relationship with the management of universities. Due to few numbers of the respondents, the entire population was used, which include the 10 Entrepreneurship Education coordinators and 116 lecturers. The instruments for data collection were the researcher’s designed questionnaire tagged “Treats and Weaknesses of Entrepreneurship Education Questionnaire (TWEEQ).” The questionnaire has two sections, A and B. Section A is structured to collect the demographic data of the respondents. Section B is structured to collect information on the treats and

weaknesses of entrepreneurship education. It has two clusters, cluster 1 is on the threats to entrepreneurship education, and cluster 2 focuses on the weakness of entrepreneurship education. The items are designed on a four-point rating scale of Strongly Agree (SA); Agree (A); Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) and weighed 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

The questionnaire was subjected to face-validated by presenting the initial draft of the instrument to three experts. The experts were distributed as follows: two from the area of Educational Administration and Planning and one from Measurement and Evaluation, all of University of Nigeria, Nsukka. These experts were requested to critically and analytically examine the research instrument. They were also requested to point out to the researcher, statements that were poorly worded and those that did not agree with the purpose of the study. In addition, they were also asked to advise the researcher on the suitability of the rating scale. Their recommendations were taken into consideration in the modification of the initial draft leading to the development of the final instrument. The validated instrument was trial tested with twenty (20) university staff (two entrepreneurship education coordinators and eighteen entrepreneurship education lecturers) from University of Benin, Benin-City, and Delta State University, Asaba both in the South-South of Nigeria. These States were selected because they were outside the area of study and the universities possess the same characteristics with respondents under study. To ascertain the internal consistency of the instrument, cronbach’s Alpha correlation coefficient was used for its analysis. Reliability coefficients for the cluster were as follows; A: 0.78 and cluster B: 0.76. These gave an overall reliability score of 0.77. The result indicated that the instrument was reliable and therefore considered appropriate for use.

3. Results

Research Question 1: What are the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in the South East, Nigeria?

Table 1: Summary of mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria

S/N	Item Description	Lecturers N= 116			Coordinators N = 10		
		\bar{X}	SD.	Dec.	\bar{X}	SD.	Dec.
1.	Lecturers have poor knowledge of the curriculum content.	1.25	0.87	Disagree	1.08	0.67	Disagree
2.	Transport services are not made available for staff to go out and see what others are doing.	2.83	1.04	Agree	3.55	0.66	Agree
3.	There is rise in student involvement in examination malpractice.	2.88	0.78	Agree	2.51	0.73	Agree

4.	Increasing rise in the cost of university education.	2.79	0.85	Agree	2.65	0.73	Agree
5.	There is shortage of qualified manpower.	2.70	0.84	Agree	2.68	0.70	Agree
6.	There is an increasing rate of graduates' unemployment.	2.72	0.83	Agree	2.69	0.76	Agree
7.	Budgeting allocation to universities is reducing year after year.	2.67	0.87	Agree	2.52	0.68	Agree
Cluster Mean		2.54	0.86	Agree	2.53	0.61	Agree

Key: N = number of respondents, \bar{X} = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, Dec. = Decision

As can be seen in Table 1, the results of data analysis that answered research question one shows that both the lecturers and coordinator disagree with only item 1 which says (lecturers have poor knowledge of the curriculum content) as one of the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria. Item 1 had a mean score below the criterion mean of 2.50. However, all the other items were accepted by both lecturers and coordinators as the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria. The overall cluster mean value of 2.54 and 2.53 for both lecturers and coordinator show that they agreed with the items as the threats to entrepreneurship education challenges in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria.

Research Question 2: What are the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria?

Table 2: Summary of mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria

S/N	Item Description	Lecturers N= 116			Coordinators N = 10		
		\bar{X}	SD.	Dec.	\bar{X}	SD.	Dec.
1.	Equipped entrepreneurship centers are not enough.	3.25	0.67	Agree	3.08	0.71	Agree
2.	Lack of workshops for the teaching of EED practical programme.	2.78	1.70	Agree	2.67	0.39	Agree
3.	Lack of interest from students.	2.67	0.65	Agree	3.06	0.41	Agree
4.	Lack of involvement of staff in the practical aspect of EED programme.	2.56	0.49	Agree	2.98	0.55	Agree
5.	Most of works on entrepreneurship education in the library bare outdated.	1.70	0.60	Disagree	1.68	0.65	Disagree
6.	Lack of exposure to practical and information on existing opportunities.	2.88	0.62	Agree	3.01	0.62	Agree
7.	Lack of capital to finance acquired skills.	2.87	0.76	Agree	2.67	0.77	Agree
Cluster Mean		2.67	0.78	Agree	2.74	0.56	Agree

Key: N = number of respondents, \bar{X} = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, Dec. = Decision

From table 2, the results of data analysis that answered research question two shows that both the lecturers and coordinators agreed with all the items except items 5 as the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in Universities in South East, Nigeria. This implies that all the items apart from 5 in this cluster had mean scores above the criterion mean of 2.50. Therefore, the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria include; equipped entrepreneurship centers are not enough, lack of exposure to practical, lack of information on existing opportunities; lack of capital to finance acquired skills; lack of involvement of staff in the practical aspect of entrepreneurship education programme; lack of workshops for the teaching of entrepreneurship education practical programme; and lack of interest from students. The overall mean value of 2.67 and 2.74 for lecturers and coordinator also show that all the items agreed on are the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria.

Table 3: Summary of t-test statistic on significant difference between the mean response of lecturers and coordinators on the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Df	Sig.	Level of sig.	Decisions
Group Lecturers	116	3.15	0.38	-1.92	124	.07	0.05	Accepted
Coordinators	10	3.36	0.24					

As shown in Table 1, the result of data analysis for hypothesis four indicates that the exact probability value of 0.07 is greater than the ‘a priori’ probability value of 0.05. Therefore the null hypothesis one which states that there is no significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the threats to entrepreneurship education in the Universities is not rejected, $t(124)=-1.92, p=0.07$. This is an indication that both lecturers and coordinators have similar ideas on the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria.

Table 4: Summary of t-test statistic on significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Df	Sig.	Level of sig.	Decisions
Group Lecturers	116	3.26	0.64	-1.22	124	.33	0.05	Accepted
Coordinators	10	3.15	0.55					

As shown in table 4, the results of data analysis for hypothesis two indicates that the exact probability value of 0.33 is greater than the ‘a priori’ probability value of 0.05. Therefore the null hypothesis two which states that there is no significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in the Universities is not rejected, $t(124)=-1.22, p=0.33$. This is an indication that both lecturers and coordinators have similar views on the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria.

4. Discussion of finding

The research question 1 sought to determine the threats to the entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria. It was found that staff do not attends workshop and seminars; lecturers have poor knowledge of the curriculum content; transport services are not made available for staff to go out and see what others are doing; there is a rise student involvement in examination malpractice; increasing rise in the cost of university education; lectures do not cover their scheme of work before the end of the semester. Moreover, the study unveils the fact that, there is evidence of shortage of qualified manpower as lecturers have excess workload; an increasing rate of graduates’ unemployment; staff low media competence level, and the dwindling budgetary allocation to universities year-in, year-out. These clearly indicate that universities in South East states need special attention if entrepreneurship education most achieves its desired objectives. The

analysis of data generated revealed that lecturers do not have poor knowledge of the curriculum content, and it may be based on this premise that the respondents are looking at their situation as being enhanced for productivity. The study confirmed that there is no significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the threats to entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria. The present finding is in line with Mainoma and Arua (2012) who noted that such challenges included lack of sufficient and skilled manpower, outright lack of funding, Poor State of Infrastructure, lack of relevant reading materials. According to Aina (2012), the challenges range from brain drain, cultism and other vices like, lack of vibrant staff development programme, frequent labour disputes and the closure of universities, lack of information technology facilities, poor leadership and poor policy implementation.

Research question 2 sought to find out the weaknesses of entrepreneurship education in the management of Universities in South East, Nigeria. The analysis of data generated revealed equipped entrepreneurial centres are not enough, lack of exposure to practical, lack of information on existing opportunities, lack of capital to finance acquired skills, lack of involvement of staff in the practical aspect of entrepreneurship education programme, lack of workshops for the teaching of entrepreneurship education practical programme, lack of constant power supply, lack of interest from students, and most of the works on entrepreneurship education in the library are

outdated. The study confirms that there is significant difference between the mean responses of lecturers and coordinators on the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education challenges in the Universities. In other words, lecturers and coordinators have similar views on the weaknesses to entrepreneurship education challenges in the Universities. The present finding supports earlier findings of scholars like Hinde (2006), Ugwoke, Basake, Daria and Chukwuma (2013), which for instance, revealed a dearth of professional and qualified teachers for the teaching of vocational/technical subjects; inadequate infrastructure and equipment in schools; insufficient instructional materials and books in schools; and that schools are generally poorly financed. While Ugwoke et al (2013) revealed that, there were inadequate provision of funds, facilities and personal; Essien (2006) unveil the fact that, out of the sampled students, some have learnt significant self-employable entrepreneurial skills in 6 out of 36 vocational areas. Also, their entrepreneurial capability was found low, as there were no significant production of marketable goods and services to show for their practical knowledge.

5. Conclusion

Based on the findings obtained from the study, the following conclusions were made: the entrepreneurship education programme in operation is a worldwide programme which is providing a solid foundation for lifelong learning, self-awareness, and citizenship and life skills. In order to ensure the effective achievement by substrung of the entrepreneurship education programme in Nigeria universities, University authorities would need to adopt Strategic management techniques, which will enable them build on their strength which Includes: the making funds available and encouraging high enrolment of students for the Programme. The entrepreneurship education programme holds viable prospect and opportunities, which includes amongst others, that the course involves hand-on learning-by-doing activities. the courses encourage creative thinking; and students from all backgrounds are enrolled into entrepreneurship education programme and that universities management should work on overcoming the threats and weaknesses while vigilant should be kept on Staff attendance to workshops and seminars; COS of university education; lecturers' workload and budgeting allocation to universities, as well as exposure to practical; funding; acquired skills; and power supply.

6. Recommendations

The following recommendations have been proffered based on the findings and implication of the study:

- The universities authorities should make provision for lecturers to go for workshops or seminars so as to be exposed to current trends in entrepreneurship education programme.
- The Federal government of Nigeria should maintain a policy aimed at provide adequate funding for entrepreneurship education in the universities

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Awareness of Undergraduate Students towards the Health Supporting Services of Trees on the Ecosystem

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Abstract. The study was carried out to assess the awareness of undergraduate students towards the health supporting services of trees on the ecosystem. Three (3) research questions were raised to guide the study. The method adopted by the researchers was the descriptive survey research design. A review of related literature was carried out. A total of one hundred and eighty nine (189) undergraduate students in University of Benin constituted the population study sample. The instrument used for gathering data from the selected sample was a questionnaire. The reliability of the instrument was established at 0.79 using Cronbach statistics. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics in form of percentages and mean. The study revealed that, the students are aware that nutrient cycling a supporting service of tree on the ecosystem, soil formation a supporting service of tree on the ecosystem, provision of habitat a supporting service of tree on the ecosystem, the respondents' benefits of the supporting services of trees on the ecosystem. The maintenance and increase of biodiversity sustain the forest, maintaining a system of institutions, policies, regulations that supports the forest can improve the forest, supporting services of trees by increasing environmental literacy, maintenance of diverse can forest improve supporting services of trees and supporting services can be improved by incorporating the value of ecosystem into decisions to be made are strategies for improving ecosystem services. It was recommended that; trees should be regularly planted to save the mankind and the animal world.

Keywords: Trees, health, environment, awareness

1. Introduction

Globally, trees play a significant role in reducing erosion and moderating the climate. They remove carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and store large quantities of carbon in their tissues (Cole & Rapp, 2013). Trees and forests provide habitat for many species of animals and plants. Tropical rain forest

is among the most bio diverse habitat in the world. Trees provide shade and shelter, timber for construction fuel for cooking and heating, and fruit for food as well as having many other uses. Trees also called forests, play an important role in the climate system in general and tropical in particular store a substantial part of the global carbon (Bonan, 2008). The tropical rain forest also holds a significant part of the world's tree species (Poorter, 2005).

Supporting services are ones which enable the on-going structure of ecosystem to endure, as well as the living creature, plants and elements within them. Supporting services are those that are necessary for the production of all other ecosystem services they differ from provisioning, regulating, and cultural services in that their impact on people are either indirect or occur over a long period of time, whereas changes in the other categories and have relatively direct and short-term impacts (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005).

Ecosystem Plants from the critical base of food chain. Through photosynthesis, plants harvest the energy of the sun, providing both food and habitats for organisms. For example, plants are fed upon by insects, which may be eaten by birds which are in turn eaten by birds of prey, and so on. The supporting services of trees can be made known if various measures of awareness are being employed, in bringing to the knowledge of people. The benefits of the supporting services of trees have been established with the reduction of erosion, moderating the climate and the removal of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere while the burden is deforestation and loss of habitat for species.

1.1 Statement of Problem

More than ever before, it has been established that changes in land use can profoundly alter landscape patterns and ecosystem functions, which compromises the supply of ecosystem services. Diverse land use does not only foster biodiversity,

but also provides potential ecosystem services such as natural pest suppression, soil conservation, nutrient retention, and crop pollination. It has been discovered that people living in places exposed to forest, lowland floodplains or unused land were generally more conscious of the benefit provided by ecosystem services. People were collectively aware of provisioning services provided by the ecosystem, such as crops, bio-fuel, natural medicine, wildlife, and several cultural services. Majority of villages in Nigeria also appropriate the spiritual value of the surrounding natural environments; to varying degrees, this appreciation is reflected by how they identify specific ecosystem services in relation to land use (Laskin, 2004).

Unfortunately, people were generally unaware of the regulating and the supporting services of trees on the ecosystem. Environmental issues that may arise as a result of cutting down of these trees are very disastrous. It is against this background that the research investigated the awareness and perception of under graduate students towards supporting services of trees on the ecosystem (Baillie & Neary, 2015).

Furthermore, awareness of supporting services on the ecosystem is requiring attention. However, much uncertainty exists about the awareness of the supporting services of trees among Nigerian students (FAO, 2014). Despite efforts to increase awareness, there is still large turnout of misconception about the supporting services of trees among undergraduate students. It is against this background that this study sought to assess the awareness of undergraduate student on the supporting services of trees on the ecosystem.

1.3 Research Question

For this study, the following research questions will serve as a guide:

- To what extent are undergraduate students aware of the supporting services of trees on the ecosystem?
- To what extent are undergraduate students aware of the benefits of the various supporting services of trees on the ecosystem?
- Are undergraduate students aware of the strategies of improving supporting services of trees?

2. Methodology

The study employed descriptive survey research design. According to burke and Christensen (2017), this design focuses on accurate description of the characteristics of a given phenomenon with a single point collection of data from research participants. The target population of this study will consist of undergraduate students of the University of Benin 2019/2020 session with the total population of 43772. The sample was 189. This was selected using random sampling techniques of balloting by replacement. Firstly, 28.57% of the 14 faculties in the University of Benin was selected, then one department was selected using convenience sampling from the four faculties selected. Lastly, simple random sampling techniques of balloting by replacement was used to select 10% from the department selected.

Table 1: Sample Distribution of Study Respondents

Faculties	Departments	Population	Sample
Agriculture	Animal sciences	470	47
Education	HSE	743	74
Life sciences	EMT	419	41
Social science	Geography	227	27
Total			189

A self-administered structured questionnaire tailored for this study was used for the collection of data from the research participants. The questionnaire consists of two sections. Section A and section B. items in section A include demographic data of participants while section B comprises of the items on the awareness of supporting services of trees. To determine if the instrument is capable of measuring what it is supposed to measure, it was subjected to series of content validity which involves the project supervisor and experts in the Departments of Health Safety and Environmental Education, University of Benin, who are required to make corrections, comments and suggestions where necessary. The reliability of the instrument was ascertained after a pilot study of twenty students from outside the sample group but from the population. The data generated was analyzed using Cronbach Alpha. An Alpha value of 0.79 was obtained. The instrument will be analyzed using descriptive statistics such as percentage and frequency.

3. Result

Table 2: Awareness of health supporting services of trees on the ecosystem

S/N	ITEMS	Aware (%)	Frequency	Unaware (%)	Frequency
1	Is nutrient cycling a supporting service of tree on the ecosystem?	96.2	182	3.8	7
2	Is soil formation a supporting service of tree on the ecosystem?	91.5	173	8.5	16
3	Is provision of habitat a supporting service of tree on the ecosystem?	92.1	174	7.9	15
4	Do tree support the ecosystem in primary production?	89.1	168	10.9	21
5	Do trees support the ecosystem in the prevention of erosion?	88.2	167	11.9	22
6	Do trees support the ecosystem through the completion of the Nitrogen, Phosphorus and Sulphur cycle?	79.4	150	20.6	39
7	Is the provision of protection to the earthworm population a supporting service of trees on the eco system?	81.5	154	18.5	35
8	Do trees help in the creation of organic compounds and plants biomass for atmospheric CO ₂ in4he eco system?	85.7	161	14.3	28
9	Trees helps in the transport of mineral nutrient for plant growth	94.7	179	5.3	10
10	Do supporting services of trees help in controlling climate change?	85.7	162	14.3	27
	TOTAL	88.41	167	11.59	22

The data above in Table 2 revealed that the 96.2% respondents are aware that nutrient cycling is a supporting service of tree on the eco system while 3.8% respondents were not aware. It also revealed that 91.5% respondents are aware that soil formation a supporting service of tree on the eco system while 8.5% respondents are no aware. It also revealed that majority of the respondents (92.1%) are aware that habitat is a supporting service of tree on the eco system, tree support the ecosystem in primary production (89.1%), trees support the eco system in the prevention of erosion (88.2%), trees support the ecosystem through the completion of the Nitrogen, Phosphorus and Sulphur cycle (79.4%), provision of protection to the earthworm population is a supporting service of trees on the eco system (81.5%), trees help in the creation of organic compounds and plants biomass for atmospheric CO₂ in4he eco system (85.7%). It revealed that 94.7% respondents are also aware that trees help in the transport of mineral nutrient for plant growth and 85.7% are aware that supporting services of trees help in controlling climate change In summary, the finding in the table revealed that majority of the respondents are aware of the health supporting services of trees.

Table 3: Perceived benefits of the supporting services of trees on the eco system

S/N	ITEMS	AGREE (%)	Frequency	DISAGREE (%)	Frequency
1	Do you enjoy air regulation where trees are present?	85.7	162	14.3	27
2	Have enjoy spiritual enrichment from trees?	43.4	82	56.6	107
3	Are you satisfied with the aesthetic services of trees?	85.7	162	14.3	27
4	Have you enjoy recreation from trees?	73.3	138	26.7	51
5	Do you enjoy temperature regulation by trees?	70.9	134	29.1	55
	TOTAL	71.80	135.6	28.2	53.4

The data above in Table 3, it revealed that 85.7% revealed that they enjoy air regulation where trees are present while 14.3% respondents disagreed. It revealed that 43.4% respondents agreed that they enjoy spiritual enrichment from trees while 56.6% respondents disagreed. It revealed that 85.7% respondents they are satisfied with the aesthetic services of trees while 14.3% respondents disagreed. It also revealed that 73.3% respondents agreed that they enjoy recreation from trees while 26.7% respondents disagreed. It also revealed that 70.9% respondents agreed that they enjoy temperature regulation by trees while 29.1% disagreed.

In summary of Table 3, it revealed that the total percentage of 71.80% respondents agreed that they have benefited from the supporting services of trees on the ecosystem while 28.2% disagreed.

Table 4: Perceived Strategies for improving eco system services

S/N	ITEMS	AGREE (%)	FREQUENCY	DISAGREE (%)	FREQUENCY
1	Maintenance and increase of bio-diversity sustain the forest	92.5	175	7.5	14
2	Do you think maintaining a system of institutions, policies, regulations that supports the forest can improve the forest?	84.7	160	10.1	29
3	You can improve supporting services of trees by increasing environmental literacy	89.9	170	9.1	19
4	Maintenance of diverse can forest improve supporting services of trees	85.7	162	14.3	27
5	Supporting services can be improved by incorporating the value of eco system into decisions to be made	91.5	173	8.5	16
TOTAL		88.66	168	11.34	21

The data above in Table 4, it revealed 93.5% respondents agreed that maintenance and increase of bio-diversity sustain the forest is one of the strategies for4 improving ecosystem services while 7.5% respondents disagreed. It also revealed that 84.7% respondents agreed that maintaining a system of institutions, policies, regulations that supports the forest can improve the forest while 10.1% disagreed. It revealed that 89.9% respondents agreed that they can improve supporting services of trees by increasing environmental literacy while 9.1% respondents disagreed. It also revealed that 85.7% respondents agreed that maintenance of diverse can forest improve supporting services of trees while 14.3% respondents disagreed. It revealed that 91.5% respondents agreed that supporting services can be improved by incorporating the value of eco system into decisions to be made while 8.5% respondents disagreed.

4. Discussion of Findings

In research question one the findings revealed that revealed that the respondents are aware that nutrient cycling a supporting service of tree on the eco system, soil formation a supporting service of tree on the eco system, provision of habitat a supporting service of tree on the ecosystem, tree support the eco system in primary production, trees support the ecosystem in the prevention of erosion, trees support the ecosystem through the completion of the Nitrogen, Phosphorus and Sulphur cycle, the provision of protection to the earthworm population a supporting service of trees on the eco system, trees help in the creation of organic compounds and plants biomass for atmospheric CO₂ in4he ecosystem, trees helps in the transport of mineral nutrient for plant growth and supporting services of trees help in controlling climate change are awareness of supporting services of trees on the ecosystem. This is in line with the findings of IPCC (2007) stated that forests also influence climate by regulating air quality, temperature, and concentrations of atmospheric greenhouse gases. Trees sequester many pollutants from the air,

including nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide, ozone, and carbon monoxide. They provide shade and surface cooling, block winds, and restore moisture to the atmosphere through transpiration, which eventually returns to the earth as precipitation. Because plants sequester carbon in biomass through photosynthesis, they have the potential to mitigate climate change caused by increasing concentrations of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂).

In research question two revealed that the respondents' benefits of the supporting services of trees on the ecosystem. This is in line with the findings of Neary (2009) stated that regulating services are the benefits obtained from an ecosystem's impact on natural processes, which influence climate, water flows, and plant reproduction. Forests play a critical role in the water cycle by capturing, storing, and transferring water, and enabling its gradual discharge over time Precipitation infiltrates forest soils, where water is stored and slowly released to plant roots, surface water resources, ground water, and the atmosphere through transpiration

In research question three revealed that maintenance and increase of bio-diversity sustain the forest, maintaining a system of institutions, policies, regulations that supports the forest can improve the forest, supporting services of trees by increasing environmental literacy, maintenance of diverse can forest improve supporting services of trees and supporting services can be improved by incorporating the value of eco system into decisions to be made are strategies for improving eco system services. This is in line with the findings of Woodland Trust (2012) maintain a system of institutions, policies, regulations, and incentives that support forest sustainability at multiple spatial scales. Increase environmental literacy and engage a wide range of stakeholders in sustainable forest management.

5. Conclusion

Trees are an important part of every community. Our streets, parks, playgrounds and backyards are lined with trees that create a peaceful, aesthetically pleasing environment. Trees increase our quality of life by bringing natural elements and wildlife habitats into urban settings. We gather under the cool shade they provide during outdoor activities with family and friends. Many neighborhoods are also the home of very old trees that serve as historic landmarks and a great source of town pride.

6. Recommendations

Base on the findings it is recommended as follows:

- Trees should be regularly planted to save the mankind and the animal world.
- Tree plantation and its after-care is a pleasing work too. We can get much pleasure in planting trees and in taking care of them.
- Students should plant trees in their school-compounds and in the front-yards, backyards and side-yards of their schools and near their own houses and in other places wherever possible.
- They should explain to their neighbours the goodness of tree-plantation and encourage them to plant and care new trees. We should consider the fact that we all need trees and trees are important to us humans.
- Save them and they will save us in return. Plant more trees and as you plant trees you are planting life too because of the fact that they are giving us fresh air, woods that we people used to build our houses. They stand as our shelter most specially to the animals, a shield to heat.

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The Impact of Bride Price Payment on Women's Autonomy in Marital Relationship in Ankpa, Kogi State, Nigeria.

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Abstract. The universally accepted concept of marriage is that between a man and a woman or women, and it is a social institution that cuts across different cultures both developing and the developed world, though, in practice variation exist from cultures to cultures. This variations for example, in a multicultural and multi religious society like Nigeria, could be a mix between traditional marriages, English marriage, court/registry or church marriages, and Islamic marriages, in some cases, it could be a hybrid of more than one of these types of marriages. In this situation a traditional wedding process starts and ends either in the courts, or the church or before an Imam. In Nigeria, presenting and accepting gifts is central to any marriage, a critical perusal of the role of the bride price in a marital relationship could help understand the role of female autonomy and possibly reduce some of the challenge's women face in this social union. Women's autonomy is important for them to address matters affecting their status as wives, their health and access to health facilities when they need to, and generally their fundamental human rights as human beings not just as housewives. The study examined married women's perspectives on bride price and its impact on their autonomy in Ankpa. Employing phenomenological qualitative case study, A total of 20 in-depth interviews (IDI) and 10 focus group discussions (FGD) were conducted with married women in Ankpa. Rather than bride price, patriarchy, polygyny and gender role delineation, were responsible for the absence of female autonomy in marital relationships. Participants across all shades agreed that bride price was perceived as a necessary condition for validating marriages and according women respect as housewives and as a source of pride, rather than being responsible for the lack of female autonomy in the home. To address female autonomy among married women in Ankpa, patriarchy, polygyny and gender role delineation must be addressed. A

woman's capacity to address her reproductive health needs and access health care when in need must be understood as an inalienable right. Therefore, training, capacity building and education that will help build women's capacity for independent decision-making is recommended.

Keywords: Autonomy, Bride price, Culture, Gender, Multicultural, Patriarchy, Phenomenology, Patrilocality.

1. Introduction

The practice of dowry is contemporarily popular in South and Eastern Asia, Europe and some part of the Americas (Botticini and Siow 2003). In South Asia the term groom price can be used in place of dowry since payment is typically to the groom and family. Dowries exist in societies where group interests value the nature of wealth, and rights are negotiated and transferred (Fleising 2003). The dowry is dependent on the socio-economic status of the groom and the payment usually made to the family of the groom. However, family members of the bride can sometimes collectively help to pay dowry or meet the cost of payment.

Historically, bride-price is a normal practice in subsistence economies where horticultural or pastoral farming practices exist. For instance, in Uganda, and some parts of west Africa, including Nigeria, bride-price can involve payment of money as well as goods such as cows and goats to the family of the bride. The totality of the exchange whether in cash or goods and services as compensation to the family of the bride constitutes bride-price. Gaulin and Boster (1990) suggested prevalence of bride-price in predominantly agricultural labor-intensive societies where the contribution of women and children is highly valued.

Therefore, the favored type of marital exchange practice is that of bride-price since wealth is owned by the family and cannot be transferred, regardless of gender. In certain parts of Africa, depending on the type of agricultural practices, bride-prices may be favored over dowries. For example, non-plow agriculture requires more labor, while plow agriculture requires less labor, hence the role and contributions of women to the labor force are more highly valued in the former than the latter. It is therefore not surprising that bride-price is common in non-plow system while dowry is favored in plow economies. Botticini and Siow (2003).

Individual wealth is more important than collective wealth, hence the absence of a dowry and bride-price in such economies as the United States. The significance of individual investment as dictated by market forces prevails over wealth accumulation within the larger family context of the bride. The dowry system is a complex process in stratified societies (Harrell and Dickey 1985; Fleising 2003). In India, the connection between dowry and social stratification is clearly discussed in the research literature (Goody and Tambiah 1973; Gaulin and Boster 1990).

In monogamous virilocal economies where subsistent -agriculture is predominant, children are valued assets and the need to remain in the family is a daunting reality. Technically, leaving home means that the daughter can no longer contribute to the wealth of the parents or family. Sons primarily receive inheritance while daughters receive theirs in the form of dowries (Goody and Tambiah 1973; Botticini and Siow 2003). Botticini and Siow (2003) predicted and justified the transfer of property rights and dowry in virilocal societies where married daughters are expected to leave home.

However, the exception to this was contemporary in sub-Saharan Africa where even though many economies are virilocal, bride-prices are preferred. However, in some contemporary sub-Saharan African countries, bride-prices are more prevalent than dowries. Botticini and Siow (2003) examined previous research done by Murdoch (1967) indicating that 7 percent of African societies with bride-prices are collectivistic instead of individualistic in terms of property rights. The study revealed that 66 percent of cultures practice bride-price while only 3 percent practice the dowry system.

Haviland 1996, 2000, opined that Marriage is a transaction and resulting contract in which a woman and a man are recognized by society as having a continuing claim to the right of sexual access to one another, and in which the woman involved is eligible to bear children, while RAI, (1951) observed that Marriage is a union between a man and a woman such that the children born to the

woman are recognized as legitimate offsprings of both partners. Though, universally marriage has become an acceptable institution Haviland (2000) concluded that marriage may not always, accomplish the following:

- Establish the legal father of a woman's children and the legal mother of a man's;
- Give either or both spouses a monopoly in the sexuality of the other;
- Give either or both spouses rights to the labor of the other;
- Give either or both spouses rights over the other's property;
- Establish a joint fund or property—a partnership—for the benefit of the children;
- Establish a socially significant "relationship of affinity" between spouses and their relatives.

Marriage as a religious invocation is a necessary requirement for the union of male and female sexes in Islam and the Quran sets out the conditions that must be met before marriage is considered legal and binding. Quran chapter 58 listed four conditions that must be met before a marriage is considered legal for consummation; these conditions are:

- The boy and the girl must be mutually attracted to each other;
- There must be parental consent from both parents;
- There must be exchange of gifts (bridal wealth);
- There must be witnesses at the marriage ceremony (no secret marriage).

While the bible expects that from a groom a certain portion of his wealth be presented to the bride as gift, the Quran set a minimal amount as bridal wealth, but no upper limit to be paid as a condition for the marriage to be legalized. Despite the universality with which marriage institution is accepted, the actual practice of marriage is as local as the people involved. Its conditions, cultural practices, and sociocultural recognitions vary from country to country as concluded by Rees et al. 2016; Walker et al. 2011. Traditional marriages and the church or English marriages were the more diverse in practice than the Islamic and court marriages, especially, where the traditional marriage proceeds any of these types of marriages.

The sociocultural acceptance of giving and receiving gifts and bridal wealth in marriages in Nigeria, like other sub-Saharan African countries is a phenomenon that is as old as the practice of marriage itself. The exchange of the bridal wealth

from the groom to the bride is the most significant event in traditional marriages. Depending on the cultural practice the bridal wealth can be paid in instalments before the actual day of the marriage ceremony, while in some other cultures once the bride price has been paid the couples can as well consummate the marriage and do not need any other ceremony (Ngutor, Yandev, and Arumum 2013; Rees et al. 2016). Marriage is not recognized Islamically and culturally, in countries like Nigeria, without the payment of a bride price (Irabor and Omonjezele 2009).

Irabor and Omonjezele (2009) reported that the exchange of gifts between groom and bride signifies a display of interest by the groom to seek the hand the bride in marriage according to established custom a formal recognition of the couple has begun, the payment of the bride price solidifies the marital relationship. The significance of the bride-price is such that when an unmarried woman gives birth to a child, the child remains with the mother until either the father or any other man wishing to marry her pays the bride-price (Orisaremi and Alubo 2012)

In Nigeria, like other sub-Saharan African countries the traditional marriage process starts with traditional procedure before the church and or Islamic rights and it's during these earlier procedure that the bride price is collected or how the payment will be made is concluded, as Mwambene (2010) pointed out marriages takes place after the bride price is paid supersedes any other form of marriage, such as the church or registry wedding, this position is also supported by the Nigerian marriage act which recognizes customary marriage with the exchange of gifts and payment of bride price, the Nigerian Marriage Act (2004).

The hadiths which form part of the Islamic jurisprudence establishes clear guidance for the exchange of gifts between groom and bride, the minimal amount of money to be paid as bridal wealth, the time of payment, and in the absence of money what alternative items can be used that are acceptable as bridal wealth. It also establishes clearly who has a right to the bridal wealth, and in case of the groom's inability to pay either all or part of the bride price what should be done:

- In Islamic marriage the bride price is called Sadaaqi and is exclusively the right of the bride and she can dispense with it as she likes;
- While there is no upper limit, the sharia fixes a lower limit for the sadaaqi which as at April 2023 is N25,000.00;

- The bride can decide that she does not want money as bride price and can ask the groom to pay her in intangible items;
- Where the bride's family decides, they do not wish to collect the sadaaqi from the groom then they must pay the bride whatever she requires as sadaaqi;
- The bride price can also be paid in instalment if the bride agrees;
- If the groom is knowledgeable and the bride is not, she can also decide that he teaches her whatever she wants to learn as her bride price;
- The Islamic bride price therefore can be paid off once and for all or can be paid off in instalment throughout the lifespan of the marriage;

The Islamic sharia allows the groom to collect back the bride price as a right in the event of a dissolution of the marriage, especially if the marriage was not consummated. The shariah however advises that it will be better if he forgives or refrains from collecting it, unless the bride insist on returning it.

Unlike in the traditional, church and registry marriages exchange of gifts and payment of bride price varies from culture to culture, from church to church and from country or state to state, the exchange of gifts and payment of bride price in Islamic marriage is however, regulated and adherents are strictly encouraged to abide by the ruling of the shariah. Though documents are not given, the Nigerian Marriage Act recognizes both customary and Islamic marriages (with a bride price paid along with required gifts (2004).

Refusing to or ignoring payment of the bride price has consequences for the woman as she is regarded by her culture as a concubine and not a wife, while in Islam she is regarded as an adulterer, in the eyes of both the grooms family and the society she is regarded as a concubine, and she and her children have no right to inheritance or any other privilege in the grooms family, this position is shared by Ndolo, 2011, Quran, and Hadiths, in fact in extreme situation the Bible and the Quran prescribes the death penalty.

Sections 10-13 of the Nigerian Marriage Act allows up to 3 months waiting period for any objection before concluding a registry marriage, this period is intended for any person(s) who for whatsoever reason has objection to the couple being joined as husband and wife. While the payment of the bride price provides the groom unlimited access and right to the bride it however, does not in any way stop the man from marrying another wife should the man wants to practice polygyny and when a man

has children outside wedlock as soon as the bride price for their mother has been paid, both mother and children enjoy equal status with those in the house. (Onyango and Mott 2011).

While in Islam children born outside wedlock do not enjoy same status with those born inside wedlock, but once the bride price is paid and marriage conducted according to Islamic rites the former concubine can enjoy the full status of a wife but the child(ren) born outside will not enjoy the same right and privileges as those born inside wedlock, whatever children born by the woman after payment of bride price and completion of marriage rites will enjoy all the rights and privileges denied these born outside wedlock. Bride price and the position of women in Nigeria.

The payment of bride price, though an accepted part of the marriage process in Nigeria and indeed Africa has been the subject of studies by scholars, Hague, Thiara, and Turner (2011) opined that the practice is gradually attracting negative sentiments due to unpleasant experiences associated with the unregulated practice of bride price payment in some cultures. Some researchers have come to associate bride price payment with reduced autonomy of women in marital relationships and have concluded that women are commodified as objects for sale (Kingah and Kingah 2010; Dodoo, Horne, and Biney 2014; Heenren et al. 2011).

Studies by Hague, Thiara, and Turner in 2011 hinted that when exorbitant bride prices are paid the grooms tend to be unhappy and so allow such bride limited freedom in the conduct of their own affairs in the union and this could be responsible for diminished autonomy of the women in marriages (Muthhegeki, Crispus, and Abraham 2012). Earlier research work has however suggested that the reduced or diminished autonomy noticed by women is as a result of the role of patriarchy and other cultural practices inherent in the society in which they women find themselves (Fahmida and Doneys 2013; Rahaman, Mostofo, and Hoque 2014).

The payment of bride price among Ankpa people who are predominantly Igala speaking people of Kogi state takes one of two forms, a mix of traditional and either Islamic or Christian rites, or a mix of traditional, Christian and registry form. It is unlike the Indian subcontinent where the bride price is paid by the bride's family to the groom's family, here the grooms family pays the bride price to the bride's family but unlike in the Indian subcontinent the bride price paid is not perceived as diminishing the women's autonomy. (Arisi and Oromareghake 2011; Hague, Thiara, and Turner 2011).

2. Gender and Marriage in Africa

When we peruse gender relationship between the sexes in Africa, we come to the conclusion that there exist a subordinate relationship between the sexes from birth, Africa being a subsistent agricultural economy attaches significance to the birth of male children owing to their added value on the farm, the more male children one has means more able hands involved in farming activities. (Hussayn, 2017) To understand further the gendered differences between the sexes one must understand the persistent role expectation accorded the male child as the one to continue the family lineage (Hussayn, Rajwani & Baba 2016)

Despite the heterogeneity of culture in Africa, when it comes to the secondary role assigned the female gender from birth, there seems to be some common unspoken agreement in socializing the sexes differently, this according to (Alabi, Bahah, and Alabi 2014). The birth of a child naturally ushers in some form of joy to the family the level of joy often depends on the gender of the child. The mother of a male child is showered with gifts and in some cases (as in the eastern part of Nigeria) gunshots may be fired in honor of the arrival of a male child (Alabi, Bahah, and Alabi 2014). Kingah and Kingah (2010) reports the opposite in the case of the birth of a female child, which comes with a mixture of sadness and joy. (Kingah and Kingah 2010).

Marriage in most of West Africa is considered the only legal institution for bearing children (Nsirim-Worlu 2011). In an African marriage union, the husband is required to provide for every need of his wife and children. For this reason, the wife is expected to obey and submit to her husband's decisions and desires. However, in most cases, the wives are left to fend for themselves and their children (Frost and Dodoo 2010). For a married woman, once married, she is expected to surrender her sexual and reproductive rights to her husband; for fear of being thrown out of their matrimonial homes or being beaten (Ngutor, Yandev, and Arumum 2013; Nsirim-Worlu 2011). A typical Nigerian family would prefer that their daughter remains married to her husband irrespective of the condition of the marriage (Arisi and Oromareghake 2011; NsirimWorlu 2011).

3. Women's Health and Lack of Autonomy

Having control over one's life is correlated with ability to make decisions that affect one's health, overall well-being and other several health issues (Whitehead et al. 2016). In sub-Saharan Africa,

about a million women die each year from pregnancy and lack of access to adequate health care (Adjiwanou and LeGrand 2014). The limitations women face in highly patriarchal societies such as Nigeria erode their autonomy and restrict their lives (Ononokpono and Azfredrick 2014). According to Pennington et al. (2018), women depend on permission from husband or male figures in the family to access education, employment outside the home, health care for themselves and children. Patriarchal societies hinder women from participation in decisions that affect their health and overall well-being (Adjiwanou and LeGrand 2014; Pennington et al. 2018).

Gender inequality exposes women to mental health risks, Banda et al. (2017), women’s lack of

autonomy exposes them to maternal health risk because of gender inequalities. Previous studies have concluded that many married women have constrained reproductive and sexual autonomy, and this could cause serious health problems (Corroon et al. 2014; Ononokpono and Azfredrick 2014). Forced marriage can result in lack of autonomy as young girls do not have the needed RH knowledge to negotiate safe sex and cannot access family planning without their husbands’ consent (Gona and DeMarco 2015). In Nigeria, rape in marriage is not recognized because sex is obligatory in marriage. For in marriage a woman is not expected to refuse his sexual overtures (Okemini and Adekola 2012).

4. Purpose of the Study

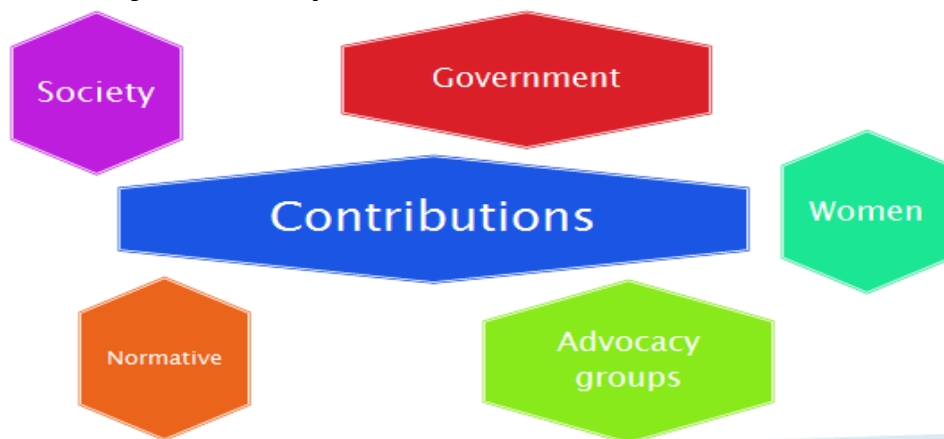


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This study adds value to the existing body of knowledge of the social development of the people in the study area because, despite a plethora of studies on issues of women, little has been done in the area of married women’s autonomy in marital relationship in the study area. The few studies include “Muslim Women’s Contribution to RHDM in Ankpa LGA of Kogi state 2017”, “Women’s control over their sexuality implications for STDs and HIV & AIDS transmission in Nigeria” It is in the light of this that this research is being carried out in order to add to existing knowledge.

This study addressed the overall exercise of autonomy by married women in their marital life on issues that concern their health and health seeking behavior in a society with differentiated gender roles and expectations and explained the relationship between women’s participation in family RHDM process and their access to health in a culture that treats women as subordinates in power relations in marriage, the effect of gender relations, role expectations and differentials, their influence and control on the behavior of male and

female members of the community was also presented in the study.

The area in which discrimination in the power relation process is most manifest was identified, and portrayed, whether the discrimination is located in the cultural, religious, and/or social sphere in the lives of the people and its implication for the exercise of autonomy by women was studied and explained. Another theoretical significance of the study is the issue of early marriage and its effects on how women exercise autonomy under the weight of religious and cultural role limitation.

It has been observed that most of the women in Northern Nigeria in general and Ankpa in particular marry early to people that are older almost like a father figure to their wives as a result of which spousal communication becomes a problem, making it almost impossible for the women not only to participate in decision-making but to exercise autonomy on matters that concern them and their family. The significance of the study

therefore lies on how to bridge the decision-making gap between couples.

Early marriage, a traditional phenomenon in the study area like most parts of Nigeria as shown in a 2007, 2016, 2017 study over 54% of girls from the North West, between ages 15 – 24 were married by age 15 and 81% were married by age 18 with little or no knowledge of RH including HIV & AIDS. (Population Council, 2007; NDHS, 2008, Hussayn & Ahmadu, 2016 Hussayn, 2017). The development of a communication model that facilitates quality communication for spouses, can help improve family discussion and gradually develop the rapport needed to engage in autonomous decision making.

In the area of practical contribution, it is hoped that this study will help in drawing the attention of policy makers on how to formulate policies regarding gender equality especially as it influences women in decision making and exercising autonomy on matters that affect their health. In addition to the above, the practical contribution of this study lies in drawing the attention of women in particular to identify and play their role in RHDm since it is important in reducing their vulnerabilities.

The overall aim of this study was to examine narratives from married Ankpa women on their perception of payment of bride price and factors that limit the exercise of their autonomy in marriage. For the purpose of this study autonomy is defined as the ability to make decisions and act on one's decisions without external interference (Beauchamp and Childress 2009). Finally, when women are involved in exercising autonomy at home the likelihood that family welfare and quality of life of women and children will be the better for it is enormous.

5. Methodology

This study was conducted in Kogi State, which is one of the 36 states in Nigeria. It is located in the confluence area where the River Niger and River Benue met, the area from which lord Lugard first set up government in Nigeria, the state is host to the Ajaokuta steel complex which at inception represented Africa's quickest route to industrialization. It has a population of about 5.5 million and a HIV prevalence of 5.4% above the national average of 4.7%. (National Population Commission 2010, NACA, 2007, NACA, 2009).

The Igala people live in 9 out of the 21 Local Government Areas (LGA) of Kogi State, namely: Ankpa, Idah, Igalamela/Odolu, Dekina, Olamaboro Omalla, Ibaji and Ofu LGAs. The Igala make up 57

percent of the total population of the state (National Population Commission 2010). They are in the majority and own more than 60 percent of the arable land in Kogi State (Okemini and Adekola 2012, Hussayn 2017). The Igala starting originally as animist have embraced both Islam and Christianity (Imaa 2004, Hussayn, 2017).

Traditionally, Igala women marry at a young age. However, the average age of marriage varies from state to state. A 2007 study showed that 54% of girls between ages 15–24 from the North West, where the study was located were married by age 15 and 81% were married by age 18. The study showed that when girls marry early, they have little knowledge of reproductive health and reproductive life including lack of knowledge on reproductive health rights (Population Council, 2007). This practice can contribute to the lack of spousal communication because men who are considerably older are likely to have been involved in multiple sexual partnering and therefore involved in concurrent and serial multiple sex with all the attendant's risks (NDHS, 2008).

Findings have also shown an increasing polygynous family system in the study area. The Igala people are predominantly Muslims and the majority ethnic group in the study area, incidences of polygynous marriage is on the increase (NDHS, 2003, 2008). Polygyny, cultural heterosexual relationships, poverty and the lack of empowerment of girls and early marriage result in lack of autonomy by women in sexual relationships in both developed and developing countries (Bureau of Global Health, 2003; Catholic Agency for Overseas Development, 2003, Hussayn, 2017).

5.1 Eligibility Criteria.

Only Igala women aged 18-60, married and residing in Ankpa at the time of the study were eligible to participate in the study. Participants were purposively selected across the seven districts of Ankpa LGA of Kogi State. They were reached through trusted designated women leaders who then recruited participants. The support of the community leaders was sought because of the sensitivity of the research topic and because participants would only participate in the study if their husbands gave informed consent.

The objectives of the study and all other information necessary for the conduct of the exercise were explained first to the women leaders and then to the participants after which a list of about 45 women was provided from amongst whom 30 women were selected as participants in the research. If two or more women were married to a man, only one was chosen to avoid any

conflicts that might arise in the house. They received informed consent documents to read and sign.

Participation was entirely free and participants could withdraw at any time from the exercise if they so choose and that data generated for the exercise was to be used purely for the research exercise. Participants' recruitment for in-depth interviews (IDIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs) followed the same procedure. Participants

have different educational backgrounds and were from both monogamous and polygynous marriages.

While 10 participants indicated interest in participating in the FGDs, 20 agreed to participate in the IDI. They were informed that some of the IDIs and FGDs would be conducted in the presence of a male supervisor so that he could observe and ensure that the various interview were carried out according to established procedure.

Study design



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5.2 Data Collection

The method employed for data collection for this study was the collective/multiple case study described by Stake (2000). Collective case study involves the investigation of more than one case in order to “study a phenomenon, population, or general condition”. The assumption of this approach is that investigating a number of cases leads to better comprehension and better theorizing (Brantlinger, Jimenez, Klingner, Pugach, & Richardson, 2005, Hussayn, 2017).

Miles and Huberman (1994) contended that studying multiple cases gives the researcher reassurance that the events in only one case are not “wholly idiosyncratic”. Furthermore, studying multiple cases allowed us to see processes and outcomes across all cases and enabled a deeper understanding through more powerful descriptions and explanations.

This study identified the extent to which women perceived their role as married women in marital relationships involved in decision-making in their homes and how this perception contributes to their day-to-day life amidst the power relations and the cultural expectations that dictated the gendered roles, role delineation and expectations under which they operate. The construct of the research study is that of a phenomenological qualitative design. As defined by Creswell (2007, Hussayn, 2017), “phenomenology is a research strategy of inquiry in which the researcher identifies the essence of human experiences about a phenomenon as described by participants”.

As also described by Moustakas, 1994, Hussayn, 2017 Phenomenological content analysis seeks meanings from appearances and arrives at essences through intuition and reflection on conscious acts of experience, leading to ideas, concepts, judgments, and understandings. As such, the focus of this phenomenological research study was to, through QCA attempt a holistic understanding of the extent to which the gendered role design and expectations in Ankpa LGA and indeed rural areas in Kogi state Nigeria provided an environment in which women cannot engage in spousal communication that allowed them exercise autonomy within their matrimonial set-up.

A QCA research design provides an understanding of the themes and patterns portrayed by the study's participants. The participants in the study were asked open ended interview questions, such that their specific experiences can be identified. Hussayn (2017) stated, “The empirical phenomenological approach involves a return to experience in order to obtain comprehensive descriptions that provided the basis for a reflective structural analysis that portrays the essences of the experience”.

Groenewald, (2004) opines that “The operative word in phenomenological research is “described”. The aim of the researcher was to describe as near accurately as possible the phenomenon, refraining from any pre-given framework, but remaining true to the facts. The phenomenologist is concerned with understanding social and psychological phenomena from the perspectives of the people involved”. A variety of methods can be used in

phenomenological research that includes but not limited to QCA, Ethnographic Content Analysis, and the Grounded Theory, for this study the researcher employed the QCA and the techniques of interviews, observations and focus group meetings.

The object of QCA can be all sort of recorded communication (transcripts of interviews, discourses, protocols of observations, video tapes, documents ...). Content analysis analyzes not only the manifest content of the material—as its name may suggest. Becker & Lissmann (1973), Hussayn (2017) differentiated levels of content exists: themes and main ideas of the text as primary content; context information as latent content. The analysis of formal aspects of the material belongs to its aims as well.

Accordingly, Hussayn (2017) opined that QCA as an approach of empirical, methodologically controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytical rules and step by step models, without rash quantification and listed the following steps:

Fitting the material into a model of communication: the determined on what part of the communication inferences shall be made, to aspects of the communicator, respondent's opinions, experiences, and feelings, to the situation of text production, to the socio-cultural background, to the text itself and to the effect of the message;

The next step the researcher determines the rules of analysis: The material was analyzed step by step, following rules of procedure, developing the material into content analytical units;

Categories in the center of analysis: This aspect of text interpretation, was guided by the research questions, as they are put into categories, which were carefully founded and revised within the process of analysis (feedback loops).

For QCA the criteria of reliability and validity have the pretension to be inter-subjectively comprehensible, to compare the results with other studies in the sense of triangulation and to carry out checks for reliability. For estimating the inter-coder reliability used in this QCA (contrary to quantitative content analysis) only the researcher conducted the coding as a result of the small sample size and produced the standards of coder agreement this is supported by (Hussayn, 2017).

For this research study, the researcher conducted an in-depth interview and focus group discussion with women aged 18 – 60 in their matrimonial homes in Ankpa LGA. The interview questions were directed at the participant's experiences and feelings. At the root of phenomenology, "the intent is to understand the phenomena in their own terms to provide a

description of human experience as it is experienced by the person allowing the essence to emerge" (Cameron, Schaffer, & Hyeon-Ae, 2001, p. 34, Hussayn 2017).

This research method correlates well with the intent of the study to understand the experiences of women as they meander their way through the dual role of productive and reproductive activity in Ankpa LGA with a view to achieving family and personal goals under the weight of all forms of inequality in the society in which they live, operate and try to claim their rights. Though small qualitative studies are not aimed at generalization in the traditional sense, some have redeeming qualities that set them above the requirement for generalization (Myers, 2000).

The research value of qualitative studies is based on the participant's responses in context to the research questions, as such; the issue of generalization of the research finding needs to be explored. According to Yin (2003) "Qualitative research can be generalized. Analytic data can be generalized to some defined population that has been sampled, but to a theory of the phenomenon being studied, a theory that may have much wider applicability than the particular case studied.

In this, it resembles experiments in the physical sciences, which make no claim to statistical representativeness, but instead assumes that their results contribute to a general theory of the phenomenon" (Yin, 2003). As the construct of the research study would be that of a qualitative phenomenology design, the focus of this research was to understand how effective current practice affect women's effort to exercise autonomy in a society where polygyny/multiple sexual partnering, serial and concurrent extra-marital relationship, girl child marriage result in wide spousal age gaps and communication between spouses (Sen, 2000).

Detailed notes were copiously taken to collect the participants' responses. To compile and analyze the data, all of the responses were appropriately coded. Though the responses were qualitative, a classification coding system was designed and developed that represented a theme for the responses, thus offering the ability to create a coding table allowing for data aggregation and analysis as was consistent with the research each theme and the sub-themes were assigned a code and the transcribed interview analyzed under code on the basis of the frequency in which each responses followed.

The research data was identified through various data collection methods. Open-ended questions and written comments were solicited from the above-

mentioned participants as well as testimonials through FGD to produce data elements, comprehensive data journals were kept through which all raw data can be identified and used for coding and data aggregation.

6. Data analysis

Data analysis process is a way to discover “patterns, coherent themes, meaningful categories, and new ideas and in general uncover better understanding of a phenomenon or process” (Sutter, 2006, p. 327, Hussayn, 2017, Patton, 1990, Creswell, 2007). While Creswell (2007), suggested that content analysis categorizes, synthesizes and interprets qualitative text data by describing the phenomenon being studied. This study employed an open-coding system to carry a content analysis of participants’ narrative responses line-by-line, phrase-by-phrase and word-by-word (Creswell, 2007; Sutter, 2006).

The analysis identified patterns or similar ideas relevant to the participants’ experiences and perspectives about the effectiveness of their participation in the exercise of autonomy in decision concerning their health and health seeking behavior. The final analysis led to the development of a report presenting the interpretation of results, limitations, individual and independent insights, and generalizations of the study.

Ethical considerations and approval

This study protocol was certified by the Faculty of Education, University of Jos Ethics committee and approved by the UJ/JUTH, University of Jos, Nigeria.

20 women participated in the IDIs, while 10 participated in the FGDs, providing data from a total of 30 married women. The study’s response rate was 75% percent. More than half of the participants were educated and some of the participants were in polygamous marriages.

6.1 Participants’ Understanding of Autonomy

All participants defined autonomy as having the power and will of independent thought and action, implying that they do not need to seek for permission from any one before taking action if truly they are autonomous beings. They also, agree that being Muslims and Christians, their religious and cultural obligations as married Igala women places a burden of acting in consonance with the dictates of their husbands. More than half of the respondents wish they could have and exercise certain level of autonomy but do not agree that it was necessary for women to have full autonomy on all issues concerning her and her family. A small

number however believes that seeking for autonomy for women will amount to placing women on equal pedestal with their husband.

Despite their educational level respondents seemed to have a consensus of opinion on the kind of autonomy women need to exercise without recourse to their husbands, on household chores, issues of what to cook, the general issues of the home where men are less concerned, women feel they can exercise autonomy without necessarily waiting for permission from husbands. I know that autonomy means to be in control of one’s self. But as a married woman I cannot do that because that is not our culture, and that is not how God designed it to be. The man is the head of the woman. Therefore, the woman should submit to the man and not equate herself with her husband.

6.2 Justification for bride price

Bride price payment has been an acceptable part of the Igala culture prior to the advent of the textual religions, it is a necessary condition for any form of relationship with the bride. It is important to the point that once an amount is paid to the bride’s family as part of the bridal wealth no other person can be allowed as a suitor for the girl again unless the first person withdraws and collects the money. Marriage confers on the girl security, deductions from IDI and FGD suggests that once the bride price has been paid even if marriage ceremony has not been conducted the status and carriage of the girls change automatically, she is no longer like any other girl around.

Apart from changing the girl’s status, the honor and respect she has brought to her family by the presence of her in laws and the transfer of her responsibility and welfare to the groom relieves her family of catering for her. The level of a woman’s education and her social status enhances her bride price, as a cultural and religious obligation which over shadows whatever upward mobility the woman has achieved. The bride price must not necessarily be paid by the groom, the mother, the uncle, his father or even the bride’s family may pay it as the case be, what is most important is that it must be paid.

6.3 Societal status

All the FGDs and IDIs were unanimous on the fact that woman’s status in the community, among her peers, and indeed her family is raised appreciatively when her bride price is paid rather than just eloping and living with a man, the status of the bride age wise, previously married, widowed, or had children outside wedlock, working class, highly educated or already living

with and had children for the groom is immaterial as long as she is getting married the bride price must be paid. Women face serious social stigma and discrimination for living with men when their bride price have not been paid.

6.4 Perusing the bride price from the point of view of the family and the society.

The bride price has undergone series of modification since the cultural contact occasioned between Igala culture with Islam and Christianity, this contact rather than discourage the payment of the bride price has not only strengthened it but modified it as a moderating societal and family value that must be constantly progressively reviewed, stressing that emphasis should not be placed on the monetary value of the amount paid but on the significance of the symbolism of the amount paid represents to the society.

When a woman elopes to live with a man, she is not only disobeying the traditional laid down ritual of the processes the marriage procedure should follow, after payment of the bride price, the bride will be formally handed over to the in laws in the presence of witnesses in a formal colorful ceremony. By eloping she is truncating the procedure and denying people opportunity for merry making involving many other members of the community marriage in Ankpa is not an individual affair, the society and the family therefore treats such intransigence seriously with sanctions were possible.

6.5 Patriarchy

From birth, male and female children have been socialized differently of role expectation and role delineation along gender lines in Igala society and Ankpa in particular, girls are socialized to gentle, meek, shy and submissive while boys are socialized on the hand to strong, bold domineering and aggressive. Participants in IDIs and FGDs reported that what seems to have an impact on how wives exercise their freedom with regard to their autonomy is not that the man paid a bride price, but it is rather more of a cultural practice whereby the woman, whether married or not, is expected to be totally submissive to male authority. Like most Nigerian cultures, the Igala, Islamic and Christian culture's is patriarchal and emphasizes absolute respect for men. In such an atmosphere, a woman's autonomy is necessarily compromised if not diminished

6.6 Male Child Preference

Participants brought out a culturally sensitive issue, which is at the core of patriarchy in most African societies, the emphasis on male children who are seen as the only way of guaranteeing the continuity

of the family lineage. A woman without a male child is not 100% comfortable in the marriage. Being able to produce a male child is one way of proving a husband's masculinity and exercise of authority in his home. This is culturally a disconcerting situation that has compromised women of their autonomy, as women in polygynous relationships compete to produce male children.

6.6 Polygyny

Multiple marriages and serial polygynous relationships have affected women's display of autonomy greatly, in a society where the right of the man to marry more than one wife is not only accepted but is encouraged as a requirement and proof of his masculinity. Women in monogamous marriages are equally constrained from any exercise of autonomy as their husbands can without consulting them take another wife or concubine. Cultural polygamy as well as the negative perception of divorced women, as women who are not able to hold onto a husband has gone a long way to force women to bear with stoic patience their married situation.

Women have been socialized to accept that marriage is about pleasing the man, culturally men are expected to come into marriage more experienced than their brides and women are expected as much as possible to come into marriage with little or no RH health experience, she, therefore, enters the most important aspect of her life ill prepared, naive and meek. This background implies that the man must provide the needed knowledge and leadership for the couple, albeit, she is prepared to depend on him on any and all issues.

7. Discussion

The culture of the Igala people of Ankpa is the subject of this paper on phenomena of bride price among the Igala people with respect to its effect on the exercise of autonomy on issues concerning women, particularly their health and health seeking behavior, in a cultural setting that places significant emphasis on her subordinated relationship to her husband. The voices of Igala women presented in this paper substantiate that payment of a bride price was necessary to accord them respect and recognition as wives in their marital homes and in the society (Lanre-Abass 2012; Ndolo2011). The FGD and IDI showed good of autonomy and its different implications participants, what however came out from the various interviews and discussion was that salient cultural issues in the socialization of males and females in Igala society more than bride price payment was more correlated

to women's diminished exercise of autonomy than the payment of bride price.

The findings of the paper therefore agree more, (Lanre-Abbas, 2012; Ndolo, 2011; Hussayn and Ahmadu, 2016; Hussayn, 20217) and differ significantly from (Turner, 2011; Dodoo, Horne and Biney, 2014; Hague, Thiara, and Turner 2011; Muthegheki, Crispus, and Abraham 2012; Rees et al. 2016) that linked married women's diminished autonomy to the payment of a bride price.

While the payment of dowry in the Asian sub-culture to the man does not diminish the autonomy exercised by the man it must be perused in the same way that payment of bride price to women should also not diminish their autonomy. What paying the price does is to simply legitimize the marriage and confer societal recognition on the bride and groom as couples. Women's diminished autonomy is perused as a broader cultural issue affected by patriarchy, lack of tolerance for single motherhood, and any attempt to reduce the cultural disparity between men and women.

The subordination of women is a cultural practice noticed from birth as agreed by participants in the study as well as studies by (Hussayn and Ahmadu, 2016; Hussayn 2017; Alabi, Bahah, and Alabi, 2014; and Kingah and Kingah 2010). When they noted that the subordination of women is not only in marriage, as female subordination can be seen in the preferential treatment accorded male children from birth and in the family. Thus, in a patriarchal society which emphasizes having male children, a wife will sacrifice her autonomy to remain married.

The threat to a woman's life is heightened by the fact that she is expected to have a large number of children in rapid succession in a cycle that begins with pregnancy, delivery and breastfeeding and back to pregnancy without any break and consideration for her health. Family planning and child spacing are considered at all, researchers like Arisi and Oromareghake 2011; Jeyaseelan et al. 2015; Nsirim-Worlu 2011, and Hussayn 2017 concluded that a woman's health can be jeopardized to satisfy husband's desires.

8. Study limitations

The fact that only married Igala women living in Ankpa at the time of the study were the focus of this study, thereby excluding non-Igala married women living in Ankpa, or other Igala women living in the remaining 8 LGAs of the Kogi state, obviously limits the responses. Married men were also excluded from the study, knowing fully well that being the object of the whole discussion about gender their views on female autonomy in marital

relationship is of equal importance. It is therefore possible that all these population that were conveniently excluded may have different perception of the impact of bride price on female autonomy

Further research is therefore advised since even the perceptions expressed by the Igala women of Ankpa in Kogi state is not the exclusive preserve of Igala woman since they form part of a larger culture. Therefore, further research is needed to explore the views of husbands on pride price and women's autonomy. Finally, social desirability cannot be excluded because female participants may have provided responses that were influenced by their understanding of what the research topic was.

9. Conclusion

Power relations in the home diminishes a woman's autonomy as women are expected to carry out roles reserved for them by culture which is their way of life just as the man goes about fulfilling his own roles of taking care of the home and providing for every need of the family so woman should accept her subordinate roles entrusted on her by the society, this erodes her individual identity. Based on the findings of this study to conclude that the diminished autonomy of the women is resulting from the payment of bride price will be a fallacy.

Women's lack of autonomy impacts their RH as she can neither ask her husband to use condom nor can she refuse to have sex with him despite knowing that her husband is involved in multiple sexual partnering as he enjoys the support and protection of the society. The life of women is controlled and influenced by the role of the men in their lives.

In the case of the women's health seeking behavior, the women cannot initiate any action without their husbands' express consent, consent in this case could be providing the needed logistics as well as permission to leave the house, the implication of this has grave consequences for women's health. Women need good health to engage actively in positive development of the family.

Therefore, the cultural practices that erode women's decision-making rights need to be addressed. Creating awareness at the grassroots level on the importance of women's autonomy could help to enhance and promote the exercise of women's autonomy. Further studies involving larger samples of married and unmarried men and women would give balanced knowledge on the reasons for Igala women's diminished autonomy and the perceived effect of bride price.

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The Relative Impact of Domestic Credit to the Private and Public Sectors on Economic Growth in Nigeria

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Abstract. Despite the adoption of multiple policy measures aimed at promoting credit growth, the Nigerian economy has failed to experience remarkable progress. The financial sector continues to face challenges such as insufficient long-term funding, liquidity mismatch, inefficiencies in fund allocation, inadequate domestic credit to investors, among others that hinder its growth. To address this gap, this study aims to investigate the relative contributions of domestic credit to the private and public sectors to economic growth in Nigeria from 1981 – 2020. The study employs descriptive and inferential statistical techniques, including stationary tests, lag selection criteria, and an Autoregressive Distributed Lag bound model to capture the short- and long-run relationships among the variables. The findings indicate that credit to the private sector contributes significantly to economic growth, while credit to the public sector has an insignificant impact. The study recommends that the government must avoid a one-size-fit-for-all policy in promoting domestic credit in Nigeria. Rather, domestic credit policy should be sector specific. There is a need for increased synergy of public and private sector collaboration as well. Effective risk management practices should be introduced to monitor credits, especially those to the public sector, to improve the impact of domestic credit on economic growth.

Keywords: Domestic Credit (to public and private sectors), Economic Growth, Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL)

1. Introduction

The desire to achieve sustained economic growth over the years has necessitated the need for a developed financial system, which brought about the implementation of different financial reforms in Nigeria since independence. Financial reforms were implemented through the deregulation of the

financial sector in 1986 under the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP), the banking recapitalization exercise in 2005, and the establishment of Credit Bureaus in 2008. The purpose of these reforms was to encourage the growth of the financial services sector, including domestic credit that would contribute to sustainable economic growth.

It is expected that a sophisticated financial system will improve the operations of the banking sector by enabling efficient intermediation and allocation of credit from the surplus sector to the deficit sector in the economy.

Credit plays a crucial role in driving economic growth in developing countries like Nigeria. By increasing the purchasing power of individuals and households, it generates ripple effects throughout the economy (Evans, 2013). Scholars such as Schumpeter (1934), McKinnon (1973), and Awad and Karaki (2019) have highlighted that a robust banking sector is essential for promoting technological innovation and effective allocation of funds through financial intermediation, which is crucial for achieving desired growth targets. Additionally, a well-developed banking system encourages investment by identifying and financing profitable business ventures, mobilizing savings, facilitating trading activities, diversifying risk among investors, and efficiently allocating credit (Odufuye, 2017), (Adekunle, Salami & Adedipe, 2013).

Credit creation increases economic activities through investments by businesses beyond their savings capacity, household items purchase on credit, government spending structuring by mitigating cyclical patterns of tax returns and investing in infrastructural projects (Awad & Karaki (2019).

The amount of credit that is accessible and how it is distributed to various stakeholders, including private investors and public sector agents, is a critical factor in determining whether or not the desired macroeconomic goals can be achieved. (Levine, 2005, Abina, 2020). Credit extended to the Private sector is a critical driver of investment in the private sector and economic development, as evidenced by research demonstrating its promotion of innovation, efficiency, competition, and growth (Erzen, 2008; Alaba & Lawal, 2019). Despite this, in developing countries, the lack of incentives for private investment and the expected beneficial impact of government spending on the economy, consistent with Keynesian theory, have emphasized the government's responsibility for economic management. As a result, the banking sector has experienced an increase in credit extended to the public sector by domestic banks.

Research studies have shown that extending credit to the public sector can be an effective tool for stimulating economic growth and development by facilitating the provision of essential business infrastructure that can promote credit to the private sector. (Khan & Reinhart, 1990).

While it is commonly acknowledged that credit is critical for promoting economic growth, in Nigeria, the ratio of net aggregate credit to real GDP has remained below 50% for a considerable portion of the 1981 to 2020 study period, despite various financial policies aimed at boosting credit. The financial sector suffers from inefficiencies, including problems with long-term funding, liquidity mismatches, and inefficient allocation of funds. The persistently low rate of credit expansion is both a symptom and a driver of the weak state of the economy.

Although extending credit to the private sector is crucial for driving economic growth, the high lending rates in the banking sector and the limited effectiveness of credit on the public sector have restricted its impact on economic growth. The

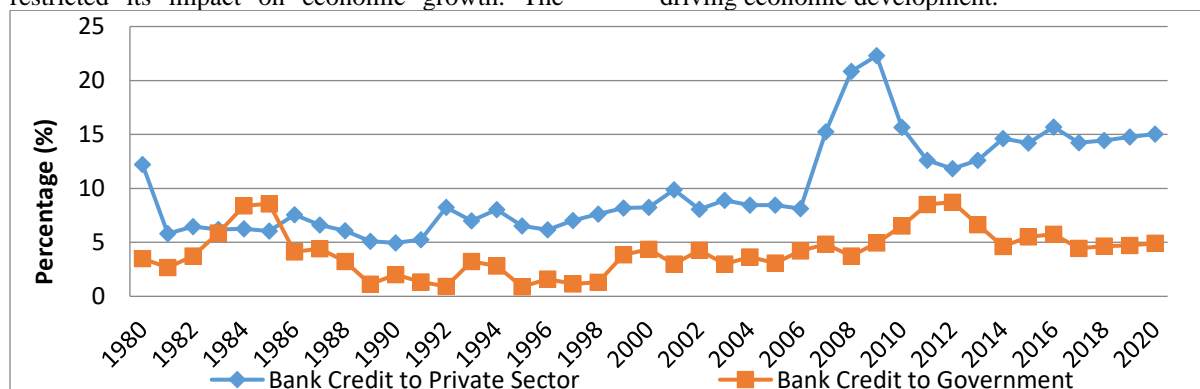
deregulation of the financial sector in 1986 and the bank recapitalization exercise in 2005 were intended to address the issue of insufficient domestic credit. However, the insufficient level of investment in the economy and the unstable growth that has been observed have impeded the meaningful impact of domestic credit on the economy.

The relative contribution of domestic credit extended to the private sector (CPR) and domestic credit extended to the public sector (CPB) on economic growth in Nigeria is difficult to ascertain. Arguments exist in previous studies that domestic credit extended to the public sector crowds-out domestic credit extended to the private sector, thereby reducing the potential impact of domestic credit extended to the private sector in promoting economic growth.

Generally, previous studies have primarily focused on examining the separate impacts of domestic credit to the private and public sectors on economic growth in Nigeria. While some studies have examined the relationship between domestic credit and macroeconomic variables, particularly economic growth (Akani & Onyema, 2017; Anyanwu et al., 2017; Adelegan, 2018), and the real sector (Ume et al., 2017), there is a lack of research on the relative contribution of these two types of domestic credits to economic growth in Nigeria, unlike in Romania (Banu, 2013). This article aims to fill these gaps.

2. Literature Review

Credit plays a crucial role in fostering economic growth, especially as private sector investment contributes significantly to overall investment in many economies. Monetary authorities utilize credit policies as a means to achieve macroeconomic goals, including the promotion of growth in particular sectors. It is therefore undeniable that credit has immense importance in driving economic development.



Source: Author's computation using data from Census and Economic Information Center (CEIC), 2020.

Figure 2.1: Bank Credit to Private Sector and Bank Credit to Government in Nigeria

Figure 2.1 from the study period indicated that the domestic credit ratio to the private sector in relation to real GDP was higher than the credit to the government ratio and public enterprise in relation to real GDP. However, both private and public sector credit showed significant volatility. A significant decline occurred in 2010, which can be attributed to the delayed effects of the 2007/2008 United States financial crisis that impacted financial institutions worldwide. On average, the domestic credit to the private sector ratio in relation to real GDP and the credit to the government and public enterprise ratio in relation to real GDP were 9.7% and 4.1%, respectively. Nonetheless, these figures fall below the global averages in 2019 and 2017, which were 54.77% and 12.06%, respectively (The Global Economy, 2020).

The findings suggest that there is room for improvement in the domestic credit extended to the private sector in Nigeria. As per the World Development Indicators (2020), the proportion of credit to the private sector in Nigeria as a percentage of GDP was merely 11.2%, which is substantially lower than that of South Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa, and the global economy, which had percentages of 62%, 26.7%, and 98%, respectively. A study by Nwanyanwu (2012) aimed to investigate the impact of bank credit on the economic growth of Nigeria. Surprisingly, the results revealed no significant positive correlation between bank credit and economic growth, which was attributed to the lack of interest in lending to the private sector for productive purposes. The study recommended that regulatory bodies such as the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) should implement direct credit controls that would benefit the real sector of the economy.

In their study covering the period from 1970 to 2008, Akpansung and Babalola (2012) investigated the relationship between credit in Nigeria's banking sector and economic growth, using the Granger causality test. The results revealed a one-way causal relationship between GDP to private sector credit (PSC) and the industrial production index (IND) to GDP. The study concluded that credit extended to the private sector has a positive impact on economic growth, whereas lending rates hinder economic growth.

Banu (2013) conducted a study to examine the impact of credit on economic growth in Romania. The research revealed that credits offered to households contributed significantly more to GDP formation than those extended to the public sector. Based on these findings, the study recommended that Romania should implement measures to attract foreign investments and utilize European funding to promote economic growth.

Aliero, Abdullahi, and Adamu (2013) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between credit advances to the private sector by banks and economic growth in Nigeria from 1974 to 2010, utilizing the Autoregressive Distributed Lag estimation technique. The results indicated that in the long run, bank credit to the private sector has a positive and significant impact on economic growth.

Modebe, Ugwuegbe, and Ugwuoke (2014) conducted a research study with the objective of examining the impact of bank credit on economic growth in Nigeria, using annual time series data spanning from 1986 to 2012 and the Ordinary Least Square method. The results indicated a negative and significant long-term relationship between gross domestic product and total bank credit to the private sector. However, the study also revealed that the requirements for accessing credit in Nigeria's banking industry were not favorable to the most active sector of the economy due to their informal nature.

Emecheta and Ibe (2014) utilized annual data from 1960-2011 and the reduced Vector Auto-regression approach to study the relationship between bank credit and economic growth in Nigeria. The study found a significant positive relationship between bank credit to the private sector, broad money, and economic growth. The study recommended further steps to ensure the stability of the banking sector in Nigeria.

Aliyu and Yusuf (2014) used the OLS methodology to investigate the effects that bank lending has on economic growth in Nigeria. The investigation found about 82.6% changes in economic growth in Nigeria was as a result of bank lending. The research indicated that bank lending tremendously influenced the activities of the Nigerian economy.

Olowofeso, Adeleke, and Udoji (2015) applied fully modified ordinary least squares (FMOLS) to analyze the effect of the increase of private sector credit on output. The study revealed a positive impact of private sector credit growth on output. The study also found that an important element of financial intermediation is the banking sector and that through this, financial resources are galvanized for productive investment.

Iwedi, Igbani, and Onuegbu (2015) conducted a thirty-three-year analysis (1980-2013) to investigate how bank domestic credits impact economic growth in Nigeria, utilizing ordinary least squares regression. The findings demonstrated a correlation between credit to both the private and government sectors and GDP in the short run. Nonetheless, the study concluded that there exists

an insufficient long-term association between domestic credit indicators and gross domestic product in Nigeria.

Okafor and Chijindu (2016) examine the effect of public sector credits on economic growth in Nigeria from 1987-2013. The study found that public sector credit had negative and insignificant effects on economic growth in Nigeria.

Makambi, Muhindi and Nduku (2017) analysed the link between domestic bank lending to the government and credit to the private sector in Kenya for the period spanning 1966 – 2014. The study utilized the Markov switching model and the autoregressive distributed lag model. The ARDL estimate showed that fiscal policy regimes are significant in explaining the relationship between government debt-private sector credit. More so, the study showed evidence that persistent increase in government debt crowds out private sector credit.

Mohammad, Mohammad, and Zarinah (2018) investigated the link between domestic credit and economic growth in Bangladesh. Adopting Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL), they found that an increase in real domestic credit had a positive effect that was statistically significant on real GDP. Nevertheless, an increase in real lending rates had a negative impact on real GDP.

Kouam and Mua (2020) examined the impact of private-sector credit and government lending on real GDP growth in Cameroon. The study observed that private-sector credit significantly enhanced economic growth more than the effects of public-sector lending on economic growth. More so, the study observed that greater linkages between commercial banks and the public sector promote financial stability risks as weaker oil prices affect the capacity of the public sector to pay back its loans to Cameroon’s commercial banks.

3. Methodology

3.1 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this research is based on the endogenous theory; the AK model espoused by Pagano (1993). The theory posits that financial development has a positive impact on economic growth and development. Following the above theoretical exposition, a simple endogenous production function without diminishing returns is expressed as:

$$Y = AK \tag{1}$$

Where A is a positive constant that reflects the level of the technology and K in a broad sense to include both physical and human capital.

Expressing equation (1) as a ratio of Labour (L) to obtain output per labour, we have:

$$\text{Where } y = \frac{Y}{L} \tag{2}$$

$$\text{and } k = \frac{K}{L} \tag{3}$$

Then equation (1) becomes:

$$y = Ak \tag{4}$$

Equation (4) is the output per capita, and the average and marginal products of capital are constant at the level $A > 0$.

For the linear function of this study, therefore, from the simple endogenous production function in equation (4) ($y = Ak$), according to Lucas (1988), capital (k) can be broken down into human capital (k_H^α) and physical capital (k_P^β) as in

$$\text{Thus, } k = (k_H^\alpha, k_P^\beta) \tag{5}$$

Incorporating equation (5) into the endogenous production function:

$$y = Ak_H^\alpha k_P^\beta \tag{6}$$

The physical capital k_P^β can be decomposed into accumulated capital k_{CP}^ϕ and incremental capital or investment k_{IP}^ϕ . Incorporating this into equation (6) becomes:

$$y = Ak_H^\alpha k_{CP}^\phi k_{IP}^\phi \tag{7}$$

Investment k_{IP}^ϕ in equation (7) can be divided into public investment k_{PB}^γ and private investment k_{PR}^η . Thus equation (7) becomes:

$$y = Ak_H^\alpha k_{CP}^\phi k_{PB}^\gamma k_{PR}^\eta \tag{8}$$

Furthermore, the endogenous growth theory implicitly highlighted the influence of institutional quality (IQ) on growth (Recuero & Gonzalez, 2019). Thus, incorporating “ IQ ” into equation (3.14):

$$y = Ak_H^\alpha k_{CP}^\phi k_{PB}^\gamma k_{PR}^\eta IQ^\kappa \tag{9}$$

From equation (9), α , ϕ , γ , η and κ are elasticities of human capital, accumulated capital, public investment, private investment and institutional quality respectively. Public investment and private investment are adapted as domestic credit to the

public sector and domestic credit to the private sector respectively.

Domestic credit (to the public and private sectors) channeled to productive use will increase investments; income will improve, and this will result in growth in capital and economic growth. Strong institutional quality is expected to cause an increase in domestic credit and economic growth. Notably, human capital and accumulated capital are crucial determinants of growth and are endogenously provided. Arrow (1962) regarded labour (human capital) as endogenous when he introduced the concept of learning by doing, thus leading to economic growth.

3.2 Model Specification

From the theoretical framework and (9) above, the empirical models for this study is derived from the endogenous growth approach, which throws light on the impact of endogenous variables like domestic credit to the public and private sectors on economic growth in an economy. Thus, the model for this study, adapted from Pagano (1993) and Recuero and Gonzalez (2019) is specified as

$$y = f(Ak_H^\alpha k_{CP}^\phi k_{PB}^\gamma k_{PR}^\eta IQ^\kappa) \tag{10}$$

Taking natural logarithms of equation (10), we obtain:

$$\ln y = \ln A + \alpha \ln k_H + \phi \ln k_{CP} + \gamma \ln k_{PB} + \eta \ln k_{PR} + \kappa \ln IQ \tag{11}$$

All variables are expressed in natural logarithmic forms to give a better result as compared to linear functional form and also to reduce problem of heteroscedasticity.

From equation (11), (y) is economic growth, (k_H) is human capital (lab), (k_{CP}) is cumulative capital stock (cps), (k_{PB}) is domestic credit to public sector (cpb), (k_{PR}) is domestic credit to private sector (cpr), and (IQ) is institutional quality. Re-writing equation (11) in estimation form taking into cognizance vital control variable (that is government expenditures (gxp), which have been identified by literature (Farkas, 2012), thus equation (11) becomes:

$$\ln y_t = \delta_0 + \delta_1 \ln lab_t + \delta_2 \ln cps_t + \delta_3 \ln cpb_t + \delta_4 \ln cpr_t + \delta_5 \ln IQ_t + \delta_6 \ln gxp_t + \varepsilon_t \tag{12}$$

Equation (12) is the empirical model of this study, to determine the relative impact of domestic credit to the private sector on economic growth more than domestic credit to the public sector. Theoretically, it is expected that δ_1 , δ_2 , δ_3 , δ_4 , and δ_5 would promote economic growth.

To determine the relative contribution to economic growth by credit to private sector and credit to the public sector, the ARDL framework is adopted and it is expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \ln y_t = & \delta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{1i} \Delta \ln lab_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{2i} \Delta \ln cps_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{3i} \Delta \ln cpb_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{4i} \Delta \ln cpr_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{5i} \Delta IQ_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{6i} \Delta \ln gxp_{t-i} + \delta_7 \ln y_{t-1} \\ & + \delta_8 \ln lab_{t-1} + \delta_9 \ln cps_{t-1} \\ & + \delta_{10} \ln cpb_{t-1} + \delta_{11} \ln cpr_{t-1} \\ & + \delta_{12} IQ_{t-1} + \delta_{13} \ln gxp_{t-1} \\ & + \mu_{1t} \end{aligned} \tag{12a}$$

Where δ_0 is the intercept; $\delta_1 - \delta_{6i}$ and $\delta_7 - \delta_{13}$ are short-run and long-run elasticities respectively, of output with respect to the variables identified above; while μ_{1t} is the error term; Δ is the difference operator; and n is the lag length.

Thus, the expression for the error correction model of the ARDL model is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \ln y_t = & \delta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{1i} \Delta \ln lab_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{2i} \Delta \ln cps_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{3i} \Delta \ln cpb_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{4i} \Delta \ln cpr_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{5i} \Delta IQ_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^n \delta_{6i} \Delta \ln gxp_{t-i} \\ & + \alpha_1 ECM_{t-1} + \mu_{1t} \end{aligned} \tag{12b}$$

Where α_1 represents the coefficient of the ECM; ECM_{t-1} is the error correction term lagged by one period; and all other variables are as previously defined.

3.3 Estimation Techniques

Equation (12) is estimated with appropriate technique, the magnitudes and the signs of the coefficients δ_3 and δ_4 determines if domestic credit to public sector (cpb) and domestic credit to private sector (cpr) have relative impact on economic growth.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

The results of the descriptive statistics of the variables and major statics are presented in Table 4.1. The results indicated that the average value of economic growth (Y) is ₦46,855.79b while the median value is ₦46,012.52b, suggesting an increasing trend in economic growth within the period. Also, the mean value of the labour force (lab) is 48,157,271 billion with a median value is 48,620,127 billion. This supports the view that the labour force was on the increase over time.

The capital stock (cps) has average value of ₦4,683.1b, with a median value of 2,053.01b, while the mean value of institutional quality (IQ) is 1.988 with a median value of 1.97. The average values of credit to the public sector (cpb) and Credit to the private sector (cpr) are ₦18.59b and ₦9,335.28b respectively. The credit to the public sector (cpb) and Credit to the private sector (cpr) recorded median values of ₦5.30b and ₦6,920.5b respectively. This corresponds to the view that the trend of credit to both public and private sector were unstable within the period, partly because of the delayed effect of the 2007/2008 USA financial crises that affected almost all the global economies. Accordingly, the average value of government

expenditure is ₦3541.48b with median value of ₦3240.8b

The maximum values of economic growth, labour force and capital stock are N73,681.8b, 6,322,671.8m and ₦11,815.13b respectively while their minimum values are ₦21,177.92b, 34,803.27m and 204,047.6b respectively. For the credits to the public sector and credits to the private sector, their maximum values are ₦137.61b and ₦25,835.01b respectively while the minimum values are ₦0.079m and ₦238.6m respectively.

The results of the standard deviation showed that institutional quality showed the least value of 0.57 while labour force (lab) showed the highest standard deviation value of 8301981.

The skewness statistics showed that economic growth (Y) and institutional quality (IQ) are negatively skewed, which means it has a tail to the left, while the remaining variables were positively skewed, which means they have a long tail to the right.

The kurtosis statistics disclosed that economic growth (Y), labour force (lab), capital stock (cps), and credit to private sector (cpr) are platykurtic because they are less than 3, suggesting that their distributions are flat relative to normal distribution while credit to the public sector (cpb) is leptokurtic, suggesting that the distribution of the variable is peak relative to normal distribution. However, the distributions of institutional quality (IQ) and government expenditure (gxp) are relatively mesokurtic, suggesting that the variable had a normal distribution. Finally, the Jarque-Bera statistic rejected the null hypothesis of normal distribution for credit to the public sector (PBI) while the null hypothesis of normal distribution of Jarque-Bera statistic was not rejected for the remaining variables at a five percent critical value.

Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics

	rgdp	lab	cps	cpb	cpr	IQ	gxp
Mean	46855.79	48157271	4683101	18.85863	9335.279	1.9876	3541.481
Median	46012.52	48620127	2053006	5.3043	6920.5	1.97	3240.82
Maximum	73681.83	63226718	11815129	137.6100	25835.01	3.1	9925.13
Minimum	21177.72	34803279	204047.6	0.079	238.60	0.69	337.218
Std. Dev.	18944.56	8301981	4546249	38.07368	9196.297	0.572417	2837.776
Skewness	-0.02082	0.122046	0.363342	2.324766	0.499231	-0.23641	0.792412
Kurtosis	1.461968	2.036005	1.312735	6.760348	1.702708	2.838967	2.748612
Jarque-Bera	2.465913	1.03007	3.515555	37.24829	2.791554	0.259891	2.682149
Probability	0.29143	0.59748	0.172428	0.0000	0.247641	0.878143	0.261564

Source: Author's computation from E-views 9, 2023.

From the correlation matrix presented in Table 4.2, the results showed that economic growth is positively associated with labour force (lab), capital stock (cps), public sector credit (cpb) private sector credit (cpr), Institutional quality (IQ) and government expenditure (gxp). The degree of association between the variables and economic growth is above 60 percent with exception to public sector credit which is 48 per cent. The results reveal that there is no high correlation between the variables, thus, there is no serious concern for multicollinearity in the estimation models. The evidence from the correlation matrix would be substantiated by the regression estimates.

Table 4.2 Correlation Matrix

	rgdp	Lab	cps	cpb	Cpr	IQ	gxp
RGDP	1.0000	0.8732	0.7551	0.4869	0.6588	0.6290	0.7299
LAB		1.0000	0.8162	0.6245	0.7519	0.5455	0.6670
CPS			1.0000	0.4864	0.7667	0.5267	0.6130
CPB				1.0000	0.5831	0.0102	0.7119
CPR					1.0000	0.4662	0.7656
CPI						1.0000	0.4345
GXP							1.0000

Source: Author's computation.

4.2 Unit Root, Co-Integration and Lag Order Selection Tests

The Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) and the Phillip-Perron (PP) tests were used to test the stationarity of the variables used in this study. Results from both tests, as shown in Table 4.3, indicate that none of the variables were stationary at the levels but became stationary after the first differencing, indicating that the series were integrated of order one, that is, the variables were I(1) series.

Table 4.3. Stationarity Test.

Augmented-Dickey Fuller (ADF) Test				Phillip-Perron (PP) Test			
Variables	Level	1 st Difference	Status	Level	1 st Difference	Status	
ly	-1.6723	-4.4803*	I(1)	-1.2604	-5.3045*	I(1)	
llab	-1.2335	-3.7721*	I(1)	-1.3709	-3.5152**	I(1)	
lcps	-1.2157	-4.3126*	I(1)	-1.2322	-4.3138*	I(1)	
lcpb	-1.2641	-6.0005*	I(1)	-1.2641	-6.1784*	I(1)	
lcpr	-1.4880	-4.6468*	I(1)	-1.8636	-8.2778	I(1)	
IQ	-2.6420	-5.0282*	I(1)	-2.6666	-5.005*	I(1)	
lgxp	-1.5875	-8.1797*	I(1)	-2.0608	-8.0339	I(1)	
CRITICAL VALUES				CRITICAL VALUES			
1%	-3.737853	-3.752946	1%	-3.737853	-3.752946		
5%	-2.991878	-2.998064	5%	-2.991878	-2.998064		
10%	-2.635542	-2.638752	10%	-2.635542	-2.638752		

Source: Author's computation from E-views 9, 2023. Note: * and ** indicate 1% and 5% significance values respectively. LY = log of real gross domestic product; LLAB = log of labour force; LCPS = log of capital stock; LCPB = log of credit to the public sector; LCPR = log of credit to the private sector; IQ = Institutional quality; and LGXP = government expenditure.

4.3 Lag Order Selection

To ensure appropriate estimation technique, the study conducted the lag order selection criteria and the results is presented in Table 4.4. From the results, lag order two was selected as the most apt lag value for the estimated model as indicated by four of the selection criteria. Thus, the study proceeded in estimating the relationship among domestic credit, institutional quality and economic growth using the autoregressive distributed lag technique at order two.

Table 4.4. Lag Order Selection Criteria

Lag	LogL	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	-34.7341	NA	8.89e-08	3.6291	3.9746	3.7160
1	82.3766	152.7530	2.94e-10*	-2.2936	0.4711	-1.5983
2	209.9704	88.7610*	1.51e-12	-9.1279*	-3.9441*	-7.8242*

Source: Author's computation from E-views 9, 2023. * indicates lag order selected at 5% significance level. FPE = Final Prediction Error; AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; SC = Schwarz Information Criterion; and HQ = Hannan-Quinn Information Criterion

The co-integration test to ascertain if the variables have long run relationship among each other was conducted using the autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bound co-integration technique. The results of the estimate

presented in Table 4.5, showed that the variables were co-integrated. This is because the F-statistic value which is 55.37 was greater than the upper bound critical value (4.43 at one percent significance level. This shows that the variables have long run relationship.

Table 4.5 ARDL Bounds Co-Integration Test

ESTIMATED MODELS	F-statistic Value	
Objective One Model	55.3681	
Objective Two Model	11.2854	
Objective Three Model	18.1093	
Objective Four Model	4.0031	
Critical Value Bounds	I(0)/Lower Bound	I(1)/Upper Bound
10%	2.12	3.23
5%	2.45	3.61
1%	3.15	4.43

Source: Author's computation from E-views 9, 2023.

4.4 Regression Results

Table 4.6. Regression Estimate on Domestic Credit and Economic Growth in Nigeria

Regressors	Estimated Co-efficient	Standard Error	t-Statistics	Prob.
Long Run Regression Estimate				
<i>llab</i>	0.607730	0.442617	1.373039	0.1857
<i>lcps</i>	0.116665	0.036709	3.178105	0.0050
<i>lcpb</i>	-0.000227	0.000403	-0.562811	0.5801
<i>lcpr</i>	0.123806	0.053119	2.330748	0.0309
<i>lgxp</i>	-0.032082	0.067356	-0.476308	0.6393
C	-2.540808	7.302109	-0.347955	0.7317
Short Run Regression Estimate				
$\Delta(LLAB(-1))$	-2.058537	0.777571	-2.647395	0.0331
$\Delta(LCPS)$	0.006300	0.036982	0.170360	0.8695
$\Delta(LCPS(-1))$	0.097631	0.029701	3.287094	0.0134
$\Delta(CPB(-1))$	0.001084	0.000334	3.248919	0.0141
$\Delta(CPR(-1))$	0.207357	0.063279	3.276865	0.0135
$\Delta(LGXP)$	0.010208	0.046600	0.219055	0.8329
CointEq(-1)	-0.372573	0.112698	-3.305954	0.0048
R ² = 0.7102		F-stat. (Prob.) = 9.19 (p < 0.05)		
Adjusted R ² = 0.6329		Durbin-Watson = 1.8539		
Diagnostic Tests				
Serial Correlation		Normality Test		
F-Statistics: 0.837043		Jarque-Bera: 0.311591		
Prob: 0.4721		Prob: 0.855734		

Source: Authors' computation from E-views 9, 2023. * and ** signifies 1% and 5% level of significance.

The aim of the study is to ascertain the relative impact of domestic credit to the private sector on economic growth more than the impact of domestic credit to the public sector on economic growth in Nigeria. The result found that credit to the private sector had the expected theoretical sign and indicated a positive and significant impact on economic growth while credit to the public sector did not have the expected theoretical sign and also it is insignificant, indicating a negative and insignificant relationship with economic growth. Consequently, a unit increase in credit to the private sector is expected to enhance economic growth by 0.124 units in the long-run.

An increase in labour is expected to increase economic growth by 0.61, while a unit increase in credit to the public sector has an insignificant negative impact on economic growth. More so, a unit increase in government expenditure will affect economic growth by 0.03. As noted, credit to the private sector has a positive significant impact on economic growth in the long-run. It shows that

economic growth will go with increases in credit to private sector, especially as credit to the private sector will lead to the creation of more jobs, grow wages, accelerate private consumption and improve living standard. The positive and significant impact of credit to the private sector on economic growth can be attributed to the increased efficiency of credit to private sector (private investment) over credit to the public sector. It is also an indication that private sector is relying on bank credits for expansion of business activities and it could be seen that the credit policies of government is yielding result. Therefore, more credit extended to the private sector will contribute to improvement in productive and capital investment, as well as sustainable economic growth in Nigeria. This result aligns with the findings of Orji (2012). Specifically, the significant and positive impact of credit to the private sector on economic growth is an indication that an increase in the credit to the private sector will boost productivity level and investment capital in Nigeria.

While credit to private sector positively enhanced economic growth, the credit to public sector had insignificant contributions to economic growth in Nigeria. The positive-significant impact of credit to private sector on economic growth is in line with Akpansung and Babalola (2012), Aliero *et al.* (2013), Emecheta and Ibe (2014) and Olowofeso *et al.* (2015), but in contrast with Abubakar and Gani (2013), and Modebe *et al.* (2014). More so, the relative impact of credit to private sector and credit to public sector on economic growth is in line with Banu (2013) and Kouam and Mua (2020) which observed that credit to the private sector significantly enhanced economic growth more than the impact of public sector lending on economic growth. The positive impact of credit to private sector to economic growth in Nigeria can be attributed to the desire of private investors in maximizing returns on their investment while the insignificant impact of credit to public sector on economic growth in Nigeria might be attributed to the unproductive investment on credit to the public sector which is mostly used in financing consumption. This result supports that improvement in the credit to the private sector will boost economic activities and indeed lead to sustainable economic growth.

Regarding the short-run estimate, the results found that the first lagged values on capital stock ($\Delta\text{CPS}(-1)$), credit to the public sector ($\Delta\text{LCPB}(-1)$), and credit to the private sector ($\Delta\text{CPR}(-1)$) had positive and significant effect on economic growth in the short run while the first lagged value of labour force ($\Delta\text{LLAB}(-1)$) had a negative and significant impact on economic growth. More so, current values of capital stock (ΔLCPS) and government expenditure (ΔLGXP) had an insignificant impact on economic growth in the short run. In addition, the estimated models showed a stable long-run relationship among the variables, as evidenced by the expected negative signs of the error correction term. The error correction term had a coefficient of -0.3726, indicating that the model corrects its short-run disequilibrium by 37.26 percent towards the long-run equilibrium. The coefficient of determination (R^2) demonstrated a good fit, with about 71.02 percent of the variation in economic growth explained by the explanatory variables, while the remaining 28.98 percent was attributed to variables outside the model. The regression estimate was relatively free from auto-correlation problems, as shown by the Durbin-Watson statistics of 1.8539, making it appropriate for policy references. The diagnostic tests using serial correlation LM and normality estimate supported the results of the Durbin-Watson statistics, as the tests were insignificant.

5. Summary

The aim of this study was to investigate the relative contribution of domestic credit to the public sector and the private sector to economic growth in Nigeria over the period 1981 to 2020.

The results of the co-integration test carried out indicated that the null hypothesis of no co-integration between the variables was rejected, suggesting the presence of co-integration among the variables from 1981 to 2020.

The results of the regression analysis indicate that credit to the private sector has a positive impact on economic growth, while credit to the public sector does not significantly contribute to economic growth in Nigeria.

Drawing from the above findings, the study concludes that credit to the public-sector and credit to the private sector had relatively different impact on economic growth in Nigeria. The contribution of Credit to the private sector to economic growth is statistically significant while the contribution of credit to the public sector to economic growth in Nigeria is not statistically significant.

Arising from the empirical outcomes of this study the study, therefore, recommends that the government must avoid a one-size -fit-for-all policy in promoting domestic credit in Nigeria. Rather, domestic credit policy should be sector specific. There is a need for increased synergy of public and private sectors credit options. From the study, understanding the relevance of credit to the private sector and noting that it is still low compared to SSA and Global economy, a robust credit system should be put in place to improve credit options and credit availability. Lastly, it is important to accelerate risk management practices in both public and private sectors of the economy, to monitor credits, and enhance the impact of domestic credit on economic growth. This would go beyond what the credit bureaus are currently doing and would also ensure that there are interventions before the credits go bad. This will also help in ensuring a good fiscal policy discipline that would ensure that credits to the public sector are appropriately used for a growth-enhancing purpose.

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Challenges faced in funding Business Education in Nigeria Educational Sector

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Abstract. This paper attempted to review the challenges faced in funding business education in Nigeria educational sector. Business education in particular aims at equipping its recipients with practical skills and values to become self-reliant and employable in the world of work. The main purpose of education is to equip individual with knowledge, skill, attitude and values desirable in the society. The discusses the relevant conceptual analysis which covers challenges faced with underfunding business education, Lack of Training and Re-Training of Business Education Teachers, Inadequate Facilities, Lack of Functional Equipment, Obsolete Machines and Poor Laboratories, the effect of adequate funding of business education and the roles of educational stakeholders in funding education in Nigeria, which includes. The paper recommends that Government should sensitize educational managers how to manage the hard earned resources allocated to education, Workshops and orientations should be organized by the official in the Ministry of Education, National Universities Commission to manage the funds allocated to education and home to implement the funds as they prepare their budgets, Government and other educational stakeholders should be creative by generating another source of revenue for funding education and that Government should sensitize parents, Civil Society Organization, Non-Governmental Agencies and other stakeholders that funding education is a responsibility of all.

Keywords: Business Education, Funding, Nigeria Educational Sector, Stakeholders.

1. Introduction

The main purpose of education is to equip individual with knowledge, skill, attitude and values desirable in the society. Education takes the

society out of ignorance and poverty. It makes individuals to be aware of their persons, environment and act in more constructive and productive fashion. A nation cannot achieve any significant and meaningful goal that may lead to its development without giving priority to education, the priority could only be through investing heavily in education. One can say precisely without fear of contradiction that Nigeria is seriously fighting poverty, corruption, drug trafficking, drug addiction, illiteracy and insurgency. Education in general has the power to transforms and reforms in terms of character molding, becoming an independent mind, creative and been more articulate and innovative. Business education in particular aims at equipping its recipients with practical skills and values to become self-reliant and employable in the world of work, (that is education for business about business and entrepreneurial motives). Osuala (2004) defined business education as education for office occupations, distribution and marketing occupation, business teaching, business administration and economic understanding.

The main pre-requisites of the business education responses to the 21st century include appropriate financial commitments to meet up with the demands of inculcating appropriate skills for the new economy. It is in the light of the foregoing empirical study in finding of business education programme in business of education programme became imperative.

The financial policies of education of any country are reflection of its value, choices, its order of priorities in the allocation of its resources and its political philosophy. Finance constitutes a serious challenge to the successful implementation of Business education in Nigeria, Okeke and Eze (2010) acknowledge that business education in

general is capital intensive. Funds are needed to procure relevant equipment machines, materials, facilities staff development and maintenance of equipment regrettable they noted that funds are insufficient and it has not been channeled to Business education which, is the major problem plaguing the system. In the same vein, Ugiabe (2003) affirms that poor funding cause acute shortage of computer system, typewriters, furniture and sizeable laboratories for Business education programme to become effective and efficient as at it's found in most developed nations.

Funding of Business education programmes is below expectation according to Awodi (2000) which has resulted to poor or lack of modern workshops, training facilities and consequently death of Business education teachers. It has been observed that the sources of funding Business education system depends on proper planning, efficient administration and adequate funding.

However, in spite of all these efforts by the government to fund education in general one can see that it is grossly inadequate. The inadequacy is due to the following reasons among others: Overdependence on government for funds, Inadequate budgetary provisions from the government and Poor spending by the head of the Administration in charge.

Nigerian educational system has not received the kind funding it deserves because of Budgetary allocation which is the major source of funding education in Nigeria over the years had not met the prescribed minimum budgetary allocation as stipulated by the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). UNESCO prescribed minimum budgetary allocation for education at 26th percent (26%) (Bamisayemi, 2014) but world bank (1997) established that Nigeria is yet to meet the 26% target of UNESCO stipulated as the minimum national expenditure on education from 1985 – 2006 as follows:

1995	-	7.2%
1996	-	12.32%
1997	-	17.59%
1998	-	10.27%
1999	-	12.12%
2000	-	8.36%
2001	-	7.00%
2002	-	1.83%
2004	-	10.5%
2005	-	No allocation
2006	-	11.00%

Source Ibane (2011)

From the above table one can see that between 1995 and 2006, Nigeria has not allocated up to 26% of her annual budget to education as

prescribed by UNESCO the total budget from 1999 – 2013 is 35.133 trillion with education. The budgetary allocation from 2016 – 2022:

2016	-	7.92%
2017	-	6.12%
2018	-	7.14%
2019	-	7.12%
2020	-	5.62%
2021	-	5.68%
2022	-	4.30%

Source: Federal Ministry of Education Budget.

Taking 3.128 trillion this is 8.82% of the total budget. This information showed that Nigeria is presently allocating below half of the recommended budget. Uzoka (2008) noted that the major crisis in Nigeria educational sector revolves around adequate funding as government expenditure on education has been inadequate to cope with the financial requirement of education. Bainisayeme (2014) also opined that it is time for the three tiers of government to unite to ensure the full implementation of the 26% budgetary allocation to education as stipulated by UNESCO.

Ezekwesili (2013) asserted that Nigeria was under funding education. According to the author, education budget to GDP was 7.9% for South Africa, 4.4% for Ghana, Angola 4.2% while Nigeria was 0.79%. She stated that worse than the funding issue was the misallocation of investment issue which had adversely affected the effective management and administration of Business education programme irrespective of huge sum disbursement to tertiary education fund (TETFUND) through education Tax.

Tertiary Education Trust Fund which is an intervention agency established by the government in 2011 in charge with the responsibility for managing, disbursing and monitoring the education tax to public institutions in Nigeria. The Act imposes a two percent (2%) education tax on the assessable profit of all registered companies in Nigeria. The purpose of this tax on company are for:

- Provision of Fund for academic staff training and development
 - Provision of fund for Research and publication
 - Provision and maintenance of essential physical infrastructural for teaching and learning
 - Provision and maintenance of instructional material and equipment and essential need that can lead to improvement and maintenance of standards in the higher educational institutions.
- (www.tetfund.gov.ng)

All these are to ensure adequate funding, according to Otti (2014) TETFU allocation to each University grew from #303 million in 2010 to #912 million in 2014. Also, allocation to polytechnics rose from 183 million in 2010 to #661 million in 2014 while that of Colleges of Education moved from 157 million in 2010 to #581 million in 2014 which is about 48% increase compared to 2013 allocation, even with these it is quite unfortunate that many departments of business education that benefited from these funds have not really felt the impact of these funds.

Adamu (2014) affirmed that between 2004 and 2007, 7 billion naira was allocated to technical education while #15.3 billion (15.3b) was increased in 2011 for VTE equipment yet business education which is an integral part of vocational/Technical education is still finding it difficult to implement the programme as a result of inadequate machines equipment and other facilities. With the increase in the allocation earlier (48%) not 5e by Otti (2014), there would be no reason for any institution not to provide business education departments the necessary fund equipment and facilities needed to run the programme effectively

2. Challenges faced with underfunding Business Education

In this age of speedy scientific, technological and industrial progression around the globe Nigeria is still retarded and lagging with terrible stumpy standard of education. The destruction of the system today is as a result disregard of education sector by succeeding government a decade after the country affairs its political freedom in spite of the lip service paid to it. It is apparent from the dilapidated classrooms, inadequate teaching aids and facilities inadequate lecture halls. Lack of training and re-training of teachers in Business education.

Lack of adequate equipment, Laboratories and machines, in adequate Research work. Absent of libraries and where the libraries are available is without relevant textbooks, poor quality teaching and students and ceaseless strikes in education. It is true no one can say Nigeria educational system suffered has suffered backwardness from our short sighted and narrow-minded politicians. In the light of this the following are the challenges faced by underfunding business education.

2.1 Lack of Training and Re-Training of Business Education Teachers

Poor funding of business education programme affects the ability of teaching staff/personnel to undergo training and retraining that can help them

cope with the challenges brought by new technology. Business educators are to be trained and retrained in the world of ICT so they can be able to adapt and delurer in the changing world of technical knowledge, nobody can teach what he/she does not know or operate a machine he/she is not acquainted to. Utaware and Edionwe (2012) asserted that funding seems to be more challenging as it affects the acquisition and in – science training of teachers for utilization of the ICTs tools in Nigeria higher institutions. In line with this Onyeson, Egbule and Ewere (2012) affirmed that teachers' improvement remains cardinal and pivot in the success of business education programs. They further said that business teachers should be acquainted with the present issues of technological advancement Njoku (2010) affirmed that many business teachers' lack adequate training and non – training of these teachers make them to be professionally obsolete and not current.

2.2 Inadequate Facilities

Most Business education department lack adequate lecture theatre, while some are in a dilapidated state and this affect teaching and learning. On the other hand, due to inadequate facilities the enrolment of student outweighs the number of the available facilities to accommodate the students at a time. During the lecture time students are found outside the building hanging on doors and windows this hinders effective learning

2.3 Lack of Functional Equipment, Obsolete Machines and Poor Laboratories

Most of the institutions offering Business education programme lack adequate functional equipment, workshops, laboratories machines as result of poor funding. Awodi (2000) acknowledged that funding of Business education is below expectation which has resulted to poor or lack of necessary workshops training facilities and consequently dearth of Business education teachers. This situation contradicts the characteristics of Business education which states that the leaving environment must be a replica of what is found in the work place (Azuka, Nwosu Kanu & Agomuo 2006). Even where these facilities are available, they are not adequate comparing with the number of students that make use of them.

In most of the schools, the few computers are treated like scarred cows, students are not allowed easy access to them. Typewriters that have been in use for over twenty-five years are still found in the typing lab. Most of these typewriters had broken down to the point of no repair. No efforts is also made to bring in new ones. As a result of these, lecturers resort to teaching the students theories in

courses that require practical. Iweh and Ufot (2012) acknowledge that Business education department in some Colleges of Education and Universities lack adequate computer studio as a result, the Institutions continue with the use of traditional method of teaching. This situation is very pathetic in the educational sector.

2.4 Politics

Government movement in the running of the University administration through political appointees who may not be specialist in their appointed position these affect the educational sector because they make decision that can only affect their wellbeing and their learning the system with little or no funds. Example like the Appointment of the Governing Council in the Tertiary institutions.

2.5 Inadequate Research

Funds are not readily available to carry out research in Business education in terms of project writing, networking between institutions. Only a few lecturers engage in serious research work because there is no enough fund. Research is the most important tool that can connect Business education programme to the public and this will help the public to know the importance of Business education programme.

Other challenges include:

- Inconsistent government policies in education
- Lack of prioritization of available resources by University Administrator.
- Misappropriation of fund money meant for education are been diverted for social activities and political reasons.

3. The Roles of Educational Stakeholders in funding Education in Nigeria

The effects of adequate funding of business education include:

- Adequate funding and implementation of polices in Business education will bring about viable and sustainable economy.
- It gives room for procurement of modern teaching facilities that will enhance the Business education curriculum.
- Makes Maturation and training of manpower possible thereby ensuring up to date delivery.

The success of any well-meaning educational system is hugged on adequate funding of the

system. These are some of the stakeholders in educational system in Nigeria:

- Government
- Community
- Teachers
- Parents/Guardian
- Non-governmental Agencies

Government: In the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria stated that in Section 18 (1) – (3) that government shall direct its policy towards provision of adequate and equal educational opportunities at all levels. Government shall promote science and technology. Government shall strive and eradicate illiteracy and to this end government shall as when practicable provide:

- Free Universal and compulsory primary education.
- Free University education
- Free adult literacy programme

However, government as the leading stakeholder in the educational sector assist in funding school programme in different ways which includes but not limited to the following:

- Employment of teaching and non-teaching staff and payment of their salary
- Funding in Monitoring of each of educational policy implementation.
- Building and Maintenance of school infrastructures.
- Provision of teaching aids.
- Building and Maintaining of educational inspectoral units.
- Funding of capacity building.
- Providing school with civoelmetrition.
- Provision of Facilities and equipment such as laboratories, Libraries, ICT facilities etc.
- Providing Scholarship to students who excel but without financial base.
- Provision of counselling services etc. (Ngiro, 2002)

There are other government bodies that fund education in Nigeria like Nigeria Educational Tax Fund, Nigeria Education Bank they were created to respond to the need of funding education other area includes:

- Petroleum Tax Development Fund
- Industrial Training Fund
- National Science and Technology Fund (Federal Republic of Nigeria 1998)

Community: Community are another source of fund to school. Most school emanate from the community where they come from. Most community play a major role in funding the education of its people through the following avenue:

- Fund raising for individual school.

- Levying education taxes on members of the community
- Raising fund to school project and programme well executed
- Awarding scholarship to the less privileged children
- Payment of P.T.A. dues
- Involvement of old students in raising funds to build a project.

Teacher: A teacher is a trained person, certificated by the College to train others the school system (Jumare, 2015) Teachers play the following role in funding the academic activities of children in the following ways:

Provision of gifts to students that excel in academic activities.

Encouragement of regular attendance of students by awarding student with good morals.

Payment of school fees to the less privileged students.

Parents/Guardians: These are the people that train and sponsor the education of their child/ward in the school system. They provide suitable atmosphere for the education of their children. Parents contributes immensely in funding school programmes such as:

- Raising funds to help in the execution of school programme (National Teachers Institute, 2009)
- Provision of facilities and equipment such as laboratories, Libraries, books, ICT facilities through P.T.A. fund.
- Provide all needed materials for his children/ward such as uniform, books, other learning material.
- Payment of students' school fees and other financial charges by the school.
- Giving donation for the execution of school projects and programmes
- Payment of parents' teachers' association dues.

Non-Governmental Agencies: These are bodies and Organization like plulanthropist, Businessmen and women Opinun leaders, civil servants, civil societies and well meaningful individuals who have interest in education. They help in one way or the other in funding education through the following avenue:

- Sponsor the education of less privileged children
- Development of education infrastructure
- Award scholarship to students that excel in their area of interest
- Giving donation for execution of school programmes and project

- Provision of teaching and learning materials /facilities (Universal Basic Education, 2007).

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the decaying structure of our educational institution is dangerous to the development of our Nation Nigeria. Therefore, there is need for all the stakeholders in the education industry to put all hands on deck to find a lasting solution I funding educational system because education in Nigeria is at the verge of collapse. With the growing demand for education from our seeming youth, government alone cannot overcome all the multifaceted problems that take our educational institution to the verge of downfall. Other educational stakeholders should know that most of our today leaders and senior civil servants who benefited largely from the parotic commitment of the political leaders of the past should endeavour to put all necessary machinery in place to improve the standard of education in Nigeria by allocating the UNESCO Benchmark on funding education.

5. Recommendations

- Government should sensitize educational managers how to manage the hard-earned resources allocated to education.
- Workshops and orientations should be organized by the official in the Ministry of Education, National Universities Commission to manage the funds allocated to education and home to implement the funds as they prepare their budgets.
- Government and other educational stakeholders should be creative by generating another source of revenue for funding education.
- Government should sensitize parents, Civil Society Organization, Non-Governmental Agencies and other stakeholders that funding education is a responsibility of all.

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School Location and School Type Differentials in Attitude towards Schooling among Primary School Pupils in Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The attitude of pupils to primary education determines the sustenance of interest in continuation or dropping out of the school system. However, there have been several controversial submissions on the influence of location on the attitude towards schooling. This study examined attitude towards schooling among pupils in rural and urban primary schools as well as attitude towards schooling among pupils in public and private primary schools in Oyo State. A sample size of three hundred and two (302) primary one pupils were used in this study, they were randomly selected from public and private schools of the selected rural and urban areas of Oyo State. Data were collected using Pupils' Attitude Questionnaire (PAQ) and the reliability coefficient of the instrument is 0.85. T-test indicated that there is no significant difference in the attitude towards schooling between pupils in rural and those in urban schools. The study also showed that a significant difference existed in the attitude towards schooling between pupils in public and those in private schools ($t= 2.889$; $df =300$; $p < .05$). It was recommended among others that basic amenities should be provided in the rural areas so as to make the place conducive and make life comfortable for both the teachers and pupils *thereby improving their attitudes towards schooling.*

Keywords: Attitude, Urban, Rural and Schooling.

1. Introduction

The transitioning process from home to school is a critical period in the lives of pupils. Pupils that have hitherto enjoyed the comfort of their homes are made to face the rigours of being separated from their parents and loved ones, hence could be traumatic. They are expected to experience life style change because they are made to attend school punctually and regularly. Pupils enrolled in

primary schools are exposed to some experiences and routines which could be demanding or tasking. This includes meeting with total strangers that could be teachers, care givers and classmates; sitting in a particular position and listening to the teacher for a particular period; engaging in classwork and going home with assignments/homework. All these novel experiences could shape the attitude of children towards schooling. Attitudes have been identified to have either positive or negative effects on pupils' goals and choices hence, the pupils that are able to adjust and develop a positive attitude towards schooling tend to succeed later in life. The attitude of pupils to primary education determines the sustenance of interest in furtherance or dropping out of the school system. This is because primary education is the bedrock on which the other tiers of education are laid.

Researchers have confirmed that the attitude of an individual or a community towards a certain goal or assignment will decide whether that goal or assignment will be accomplished or fruitful (Angrey 2004; Bassey & Iruoje 2016). Attitude refers to a person's opinion, behaviour and conduct. An attitude is a person's mindset towards an idea or entity in daily existence which consistently affects the person's point of view and beliefs. Any person can cultivate a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards any issue or matter. However, for an individual to ensure any particular task is done acceptably, the person requires a positive attitude towards it (Fareo, 2015). It has significant consequences for the teacher, the learner, the direct contemporaries that the learner relates with and the whole school system. Attitudes are outcomes of certain learning experiences that pupils undergo (Mensah, et al. 2013). One's assessment of attitude about matters can be said to be positive, neutral or negative (Fareo, 2015). Attitude of the pupils transitioning from home to

primary schools, the pupils are between six or seven years of age. The six-year-old child feels once again, the difficulties of making up his or her mind, a difficulty experienced earlier at age two-and-a-half, as the child rapidly changes from one alternative to another. The seven-year-old child is calmer with fewer conflicts when compared to the six-year-old. The seven-year-old has better ability to concentrate and his or her attention span has improved. The pupils at this stage are gradually developing the ability to tell the difference between what is right and proper and what is wrong. Pupils who are goal-oriented generally possess positive state of mind regarding their school experiences, they have the attributes of self-control, assiduousness, and ingenuity, they are bookworms and have a habit of dedicating a smaller amount of time towards leisure recreation activities. It is important for the pupils to have a positive outlook as regards their schools, teachers and school subjects. Pupils through positive attitude will be capable of devoting themselves enthusiastically to book learning and bring forth the anticipated learning outcomes (Maina, 2010). Attitude towards schooling can be said to be an individual's way of viewing school and things that pertains to the school system. The attitude that primary school pupils convey to the school setting inspires the significance of education that are evident to all (Angrey, 2004). Scholars in education have discovered that pupils' attitude to schooling can be used to explain pupils' performance. Kubiakto (2013) also emphasized that if attitude towards schooling is positive, the performance of pupils gets better. This was also corroborated by Payne (2003) who stressed that learners who had a positive attitude towards school have the tendency of having high educational ambitions.

Scholars have associated attitude of pupils towards schooling with parental involvement and adequate home to school transition plan (Shoaga, 2019). Supporting and encouraging attitude of family members is believed to be of highest importance in pupils' development of positive attitude to schooling. When parents are encouraging as regards their children and assist them to get educated, then children are inspired to learn. Encouraging mind-set of the parents principally shows as a basis of motivation and creativeness (Kapur, 2018). In the same vein, parents' educational background, parents' socio-economic status, the kind of environment: rural/urban, gender and age, learning, motivation and age has also been found to be related to pupils' attitude towards schooling (Linnehan, 2001). Parent's socio-economic status consist of parents' educational background and licensed qualification, income and professional affiliation. It is apparent and factual that the yardstick for classifying socio-economic criterion in various nations are not the same, they

are subject to the customs and ethics of distinct nations. Escarce (2003) averred that the decisive factor for low socio-economic rank for industrialised nation will be poles apart from the bench mark of evolving countries and the situation of emerging and under developing nations will be similar. The aggregate revenue of family units, month-long or yearly and their expenses likewise has a huge influence on the learning and educational opportunities available to children and their prospects of academic attainment. Moreover, Escarce (2003) stated that due to housing social stratification and segregation, the pupils from low-take-home pay social class generally attend schools with poorer funding levels and these circumstances lowered pupils' enthusiasm for accomplishment and great possibility of learning deficiency in future life endeavours. In the submission of Considine and Zappala (2002), they said that pupils belonging to low-income families show signs of low reading ability level, low retention rate, more struggle in their studies and difficulties in school behaviour and above all exhibit negative attitude towards learning and school. The assertion of Considine and Zappala is corroborated by Eamon (2005) who stated that pupils that generally belong to low socio-economic background or region demonstrate low accomplishment in studies and attained low results when weighed against the other pupils or their contemporaries. In addition, it is believed that youngsters' academic accomplishment and learning outcome are greatly influenced by the model and type of educational institution in which pupils acquire their education. The learning environment of the school an individual attends establishes limits of pupils' learning outcomes.

Sparkles (1999) revealed that teachers' expectations from their learners and the school environment have great impact on learners' accomplishment. Most of the teachers working in poor schools or schools having run low of essential resources frequently have low performance expectancies from their pupils and when pupils realize that their teachers have low performance expectancies from them, hence pupils exhibit negative attitude towards school and learning and this results to poor performance by the pupils. Kwesiga (2002) affirmed that the school in which pupils studied affects the attitude of pupils towards schooling and he also stated that the number of amenities and resources a school offers more often than not influence the quality of the school, which in turn determines the attitude and achievement of the learners. Ojoawo (1990) reported that the location of a school has a strong influence in the allocation of learning resources. Owoeye and Yara (2011), also reported that geographical location of schools is a determining factor in the scholastic

attainment of pupils. From the foregoing, it could be seen that literature affirmed the fact the location of schools has a great impact on attitude of pupils towards school and educational achievement of learners. Learners from high-quality schools are likely to have outstanding result because they attend high-quality schools and this is due to the fact that these schools are generally rich in facilities and resources. Some scholars are of the opinion that school proprietorship and the finances available in schools do have an effect on the learning outcome of the pupils (Crosne, et al., 2004; Ali, et al., 2013).

However, this study investigated attitudes of pupils towards schooling in rural and urban primary schools. Primary schools in Nigeria are situated in both rural and urban locations. Unfortunately, pupils attending schools in rural environment do not have access to some basic social facilities and services that are easily accessible in urban setting. Pupils in rural settings are plagued with these attendant problems which ranges from lack of electrical power supply, inaccessible to good drinking water, inaccessible to hospitals, lack of libraries and functional laboratories, problem of refusal of qualified teachers to work in rural area, lack of resource centres, inaccessible to banks and other social services that are necessary for attainment of educational goals (Adelabu, 2008; Ibudeh 1990; Ntibi & Edoho, 2017). Adelabu (2008) asserted that lack of basic social facilities affects schooling and thus, affect attitude towards schooling. This is unlike their counterparts, that is, those that attend primary schools in the urban setting.

Interestingly, findings of previous studies on influence of school location on attitudes of learners toward schooling have been inconsistent. For instance, Ahiaba and Igweonmu (2003) and Obe (2004) reported that learners that attended schools in the urban community performed better than their counterparts in the rural community. Owoye and Yara (2011), in their study also have similar result which revealed that learners in rural areas had low academic achievement compared to their counterparts in urban areas. However, the study of Rasheed and Fasasi (2017) and that of Axtell and Bowers (2002) revealed that the learners in rural setting excelled in their performance compared to their counterparts in the urban setting. While certain studies revealed that the location did not influence the attitude of learners because there was no difference in academic performance of the learners in both rural and urban areas (Adebule & Aborisade, 2013; Bosede, 2010; Ezeh, 1998; Gana & Levi, 2007; Ntibi & Edoho, 2017; Okafor, 2021). Contrastingly, the study conducted by Ahiaba and Igweonwu (2003) revealed that school location had significant influence on the student's attitude towards schooling in urban and rural

schools in Dekina Local Governemnt Area of Kogi State. In the same vein, the studies of Nwogu (2015) and Arop and Owan (2018) revealed that school location influences learners' attitudes to schooling. Due to the inconsistency in the research findings, there is need to ascertain if location influences attitudes of pupils to schooling. Moreover, the respondents used in the past studies were secondary school students or young adults none of the studies used primary school pupils. It is against this backdrop that this study investigated primary one pupils' attitude towards schooling in rural and urban primary schools in Oyo state.

Another area of interest is the attitude of pupils towards schooling in private owned primary schools and public primary schools. The involvement of private proprietorship in the education industry started during the early missionary era in 1843 by Methodist Church. The Methodist Church founded the first primary school in Badagry-Lagos. Subsequently, other missionaries, communities, individuals, and government across the country established some primary and secondary schools until 1970 when government took possession of all schools from private proprietary and free universal primary education (UPE) was declared for the whole country by the government (Fasuba, 2019). The UPE programme resulted in a rapid rise in school enrolment and this brought about the fall in the standard of education in both primary and secondary schools. The fall in standard of public primary school is as a result of poor funding, inadequate instructional materials and resources, these therefore, necessitated the demand for private involvement in the provision of education (Kalama et al., 2011; Ogbiji & Ogbiji, 2014; Fasuba 2019). The intention of the government to involve the private sector in the education industry was documented in the National Policy on Education (NPE 2014), where the minimum standards and conditions are laid down for private proprietorship of primary schools.

Consequently, many private primary schools were established and licensed to function in the country (Kalama et al., 2011). Enrolment in these school is not restricted to the well-to-do or people in the urban areas. It is interesting to observe that in spite of the great expenses poor parents incur to send a child to a private school, they still prefer to send their child/wards to private school. In a private school, parents pay money virtually for all the services rendered which ranges from payment of different fees, textbooks and uniforms, all of which are almost free in a public or government school. Besides, private primary schools in Nigeria enjoy a good clientele by parents because of the poor quality of education in public schools (Fasuba, 2019; Kalama et al., 2011). This probably could be

as a result of the fact that teachers are answerable to the school administrator, who can terminate their appointment. The teachers are also accountable to the parents because they can withdraw their children/wards once they are not pleased with the services rendered. Hence, a lot of parents have a preference for private schools for the education of their children. Meanwhile, in public schools the reverse is the case, the degree to which teachers are accountable in public primary schools is feeble compared to private primary school. This is due to the fact that teachers in public primary schools have a permanent job with remunerations and promotions unconnected to performance. Moreover, lots of studies in Nigeria revealed that academic performance of learners in public schools surpass the academic performance of learners in private schools (Ajayi, 2006; Badau, 2015; Fasuba, 2019; Figlio & Stone, 2006; Lubienski, Lubienski, & Crane, 2008; Olasehinde & Olatoye, 2014; Okon & Archibong, 2015; Uyi, 2012). However, public schools employ teachers with more qualification and experience than their counterparts in the private sector. And this avails the learners to study core subjects which may not be possible in private schools because of insufficient teaching staff (Yusuf & Adigun, 2010). From the foregoing, it could be observed that there is a contention between public schools and private schools and this may influence the attitude of pupils towards school. However, this study in order to ascertain and verify this, examined the influence of school type on attitude of learners towards schooling. Thus, this study investigated the school location and school type differentials in attitude towards schooling among primary one pupils in Oyo State, Nigeria.

This research hypothesis was formulated to guide the study:

H₀₁: There is no significant difference in attitude towards schooling among pupils in rural and urban primary schools in Oyo State.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference in attitude towards schooling among pupils in public and private primary schools in Oyo State.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Participants

A sample size of 302 Primary one pupils was used in this study. Meanwhile, four (4) local governments out of thirty-three were selected using simple random sampling technique. Pupils were selected from public and private schools of the selected rural and urban areas of Oyo State in form of rural-public, rural-private, urban-public and

3. Results

In analyzing the result, T-test was used. The hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of significance.

urban-private. Four schools were randomly selected in each local government area making the total number of sixteen schools. The selection cut across both male and female pupils.

2.2 Instrument

This questionnaire was created to measure students' attitudes toward school and was derived from Şeker's (2011) School Attitude Questionnaire. The 22-item six-factor instrument was deemed to have dimensions that were appropriate for this study. Nevertheless, eight additional items were added to bring the total to thirty. The factors and sample items are teaching (4 items e.g., "Students are provided help in learning activities"), school image (6 items e.g. "I adequately make use of the services given at school"), loneliness at school (5 items e.g. "I am not able to have a healthy communication with my teachers"), testing and feedback (4 items e.g., "Opportunities for questioning and criticizing are provided"), reluctance (7 items e.g., "Negative attitudes of the people in my close circle towards school negatively affect my eagerness"), and belongingness (4 items e.g. "I do not feel that I belong to this school").

Responses on the original measure were scored using a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 denoting that I strongly agree and 5 denoting that I strongly disagree. Although it was administered to primary one school pupils, who cannot be compared to elementary class five, the original items were altered to 1= Yes and 0= No format for the sake of this study and clarity. Forty (40) primary one pupils who were not part of the study sample were used to test the instrument's dependability using the Cronbach Alpha formula, the generated data were examined for validity and internal consistency. The derived Standardized Alpha value was 0.85.

2.3 Procedure

Permission was sought for and obtained by the researchers from the authorities of the selected primary schools used; while the consent of the selected pupils' parents were also sought through their class teachers. This was done to investigate pupils' attitude towards schooling in rural and urban areas of both the selected public and private schools.

Meanwhile, a day was fixed for four schools in each local government area by the head teachers and with the cooperation of the teachers handling the pupils' classes throughout the sixteen schools selected.

Table 1: Differences in attitudes towards schooling between pupils in rural and urban primary schools

School Location	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Rural	139	14.5036	5.80277	.48519	300	.750	.454
Urban	163	14.0184	5.43250				

Results in Table 1 indicated that there is no significant difference in the attitude towards schooling between pupils in rural and those in urban schools ($t=.750$; $df =300$; $p > .05$). In effect, pupils from rural and those from urban schools have similar attitude to schooling. The hypothesis of no significant difference in attitude towards schooling among pupils in rural and urban primary schools in Oyo state was therefore accepted by the findings of this study.

Table 2: Differences in attitudes towards schooling between pupils in public and private primary schools

School Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	Df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Public	160	13.3750	5.56918	1.84331	300	2.889	.004
Private	142	15.2183	5.49547				

Results in Table 2 revealed that a significant difference existed in the attitude towards schooling between pupils in public and those in private schools ($t= 2.889$; $df =300$; $p < .05$). Pupils from private schools had more positive attitude towards schooling than those pupils from public primary schools. The hypothesis of no significant difference in attitude towards schooling among pupils in public and private primary schools in Oyo state was therefore rejected by the findings of this study.

4. Discussion on Findings

The result of the first hypothesis revealed that there is no significant difference in attitude towards schooling among pupils in rural and urban primary schools in Oyo State. This implies that the environment in which the school is situated notwithstanding, rural or urban does not influence the attitude of pupils towards schooling in Oyo State. This result agreed with Adebule and Aborisade (2013) that indicated no significant difference amongst the attitude of secondary school students from rural and urban setting towards mathematics. This result is also in consonant with the study of Omirin (1999) who showed no significant difference in the assessments of students in the science-oriented scale with reference to urban and rural community. Similarly, the studies of Bosede (2010) and Ezeh (1998) revealed no difference in academic achievement of students because of the school location. Related opinion was articulated by Gana and Levi (2007) in their study on the effect of using designed visual teaching models on the learning of mathematics and basic science at Junior Secondary level of Niger State, they established that there was no significant difference in mathematics and basic science achievement grades of students in rural and urban settings.

In contrast, the study of Nwogu (2010) revealed that location was significant in learning features of mathematics and basic science that involve angles; the students from the rural community displayed more problems in learning than their equivalents in the urban community. In the same vein, Ahiaba and Igweonu (2003) examined the impact of school location on the performance of mathematics and basic science students in urban and rural schools at the Senior Secondary School Examination and established that mathematics and basic science students in urban schools achieved better with higher scores than their rural peers that had greater percentage of failure in the rural schools. Also, in the scholastic aptitude test study conducted by Obe (2004), he found a significant difference in rural-urban performance of 480 primary six school pupils on the aptitude sub-tests of the (Nigeria) National Common Entrance Examination (NCEE) into secondary schools. He established that children from urban schools were better than their rural counterparts.

From the different review of literature on locational influence on attitudes towards schooling their submissions are not the same. Although some uphold that urban learner achieve better in examinations than their rural peers, others have established that rural pupils despite all the inadequacies in their location still have better result than their urban contemporary. For instance, Rasheed and Fasasi (2017) examined the effect of ethnoscience instruction and intervening effects of school location and parental educational status on students' attitude to science; the study revealed that the students in rural schools had better achievement than students in urban schools. Similarly, Axtel and Bowers (2002) established that learners from the rural areas had superior results than their urban peers in English Language, verbal aptitude and the entire result of the National Common Entrance. In the same vein, researchers at University of Aston

documented numerous studies that established that learners from rural schools did not only have better achievement in school than their urban counterparts but they usually have enhanced disposition to work.

The result of the second hypothesis revealed that pupils from private schools had more positive attitude towards schooling than those pupils from public primary schools. This is in consonance with the result of Salem (2017), who investigated the attitudes of pupils towards the learning of English as a foreign Language (EFL) in both public and private schools. He reported that the aggregate mean of attitudes of pupils towards learning in EFL was positive in both public and private schools; moreover, the results showed that pupils of private schools have more positive attitude towards learning EFL than pupils of public schools. In the same vein, the study of Okafor (2021), revealed that the attitude of pupils in upper basic schools in Ilorin South Local Government Area, Kwara State, Nigeria was positive. Similar results were found by Verešová and Malá (2016), their study revealed that the secondary school students' attitude towards schooling in Nitra, Slovakia was positive

Furthermore, the findings of this study revealed that there is significant difference in attitude towards schooling among pupils in public and private primary schools in Oyo State. This finding negates the results of Indrastuti and Prasetyo (2020); and the findings of Okafor (2021) whose study showed that school type had no significant influence on the attitude of students towards schooling in upper basic schools in Kwara State, Nigeria. From the foregoing, it could be seen that the results are conflicting, and there may be need for further studies in this area.

6. Conclusion

The conclusion originating from these findings is that the environment in which a school is situated notwithstanding, urban or rural, this does not affect the attitude of pupils towards schooling. Moreover, it is concluded that pupils from both government owned schools and privately owned schools have a positive attitude towards schooling and there will be no difference in the attitudes of pupils if the basic infrastructure, facilities and learning resources are adequately provided in both public and private primary schools.

7. Recommendations

- Government should ensure that efficient supervisors are employed to monitor the teachers in rural and urban areas in order

to detect and sanction teachers that are not complying.

- Basic amenities should be provided in the rural areas so as to make the place conducive and make life comfortable to both the teachers and pupils.
- The public schools should be equipped with stimulating and attractive learning materials so as to cover up for the differences between public and private schools.

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