

ABU JOURNAL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

**A Journal of the Department of Public Administration,
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria**

Volume 9 No.2

July, 2021

© Department of Public Administration, ABU, 2021

All rights reserved.

No part or whole of this Journal is allowed to be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, without prior permission of the Copyright owner.

ISSN: 2360-9664

Printed by

Ahmadu Bello University Press Limited, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
Tel: 08065949711
E-mail: abupress2013@gmail.com,
abupress2020@yahoo.com
Website: www.abupress.com.ng

ABU Journal of Public Administration

Editorial Board

Chairman/Head of Department

Dr. Musa Idris, Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. midris@abu.edu.ng

Editor-in-Chief

Prof. S. B. Abdulkarim, Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, P.M.B 1013, Zaria, Nigeria. E-mail: sbabdulkarim@abu.edu.ng, sbarau58@gmail.com

Technical Editor/Secretary

Dr. Silas Felix Anyio, Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. E-mail: anyiosilas@gmail.com

Business Editor

Bashir Yusuf, Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. E-mail:

Consulting Editors

Prof. A. A. Anyebe, Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria.

Prof. Madulika Khaushik, Commonwealth of Learning, 1055 West Hastings Street, Suit 1200 Vancouver, BC VGE2E9, Canada. E-mail: mkaushik@col.org

Prof. Adejo Odoh, Department of Local Government and Development Studies, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. E-mail: adejooo@yahoo.com

Prof. Sani Abdullahi, Department of Business Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. E-mail: sabdullahi2001@yahoo.com

Prof. H. A. Saliu, Department of Political Science, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria. E-mail: hassansaliu2003@yahoo.com

Prof. I. N. Kayongo, Department of Leadership and Governance, Makerere University Business School, P. O. Box 1337, Kampala, Uganda. E-mail: issackayongo@yahoo.com

Prof. Folashade Okeshola, Department of Sociology, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State, Nigeria. E-mail: shadeozy@yahoo.com

Prof. Henrietta Abane, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. E-mail: hetabane@yahoo.com

Prof. Aisha Fofana Ibrahim, Institute of Gender and Documentation, University of Sierra Leone, Tower Hill, Sierra Leone. E-mail: mamaisha@gmail.com

Notes on Contributors

Bala Umar	Department of Public Administration, School of Business Studies, Federal Polytechnic, Bauchi, Bauchi State meetbumar@yahoo.com
S. B. Abdulkarim	Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State
Dalhatu Muhammed Jumare	Department of Local Government and Development Studies, Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State
Joel Tisan Mallam	Department of Public Administration Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria Jtmallam21@gmail.com 0803580433
Adejo A. Odoh	Department of Local Government and Development Studies Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria Adejo00@yahoo.com 08034050169
Andrew B. Suku	Department of Public Administration Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria sukuandrew@yahoo.com 08037181589
Najahatu Abdullahi Rais	Department of Public Administration Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria najahatuabdullahi@gmail.com 09032633665
Hamza A. Yusuf	Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Administration

Abdulrazak Y. Madu	Ahmadu Bello University Zaria Department of Public Administration Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria abdurrazakmadu@yahoo.com 08063215100
Sani Yusuf	Registry Department, Federal University of Technology, Minna. ysani55@gmail.com / yusufsani55@futminna.edu.ng 08034681062 08056381974
Jimoh, Ihiovi Ojo	Department of Local Government and Development Studies, Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria Ihiovi2032@yahoo.com & ladijibrin@gamil.com
Awen, Benjamin Iorsue ² and	Department of Business Education Federal College of Education, Zaria Awenbenjamin909@gmail.com
Ladi Jibrin ³	Department of Local Government and Development Studies, Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria Ihiovi2032@yahoo.com & ladijibrin@gamil.com
Shehu, Adamu	Department of Public Administration, Niger State Polytechnic, Zungeru shehuadamu91@gmail.com 07034948194
Bashir Yusuf	Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. bashiryusif86@gmail.com 08032613492
Ibrahim Yahaya	Department of Public Administration, School of Business Management, Federal Polytechnic,

	Bidda, Niger State. ibrahim61@yahoo.com 08034792260
Margaret E. Ehigie,	Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Benin, Benin-City, Nigeria Correspondence: maggie.e.a.clark@gmail.com, Tel: +234 8162035432
Peter O. Eriki,	Department of Banking and Finance, Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Benin, Benin-City, Nigeria
Muhammed Lawal	Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Administration Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria 08035880102 muhammedlawal500@gmail.com
Musa Idris	Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, 08034772717
Shehu Salisu Jafaru	Department of Public Administration Faculty of Administration Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria 08037867746
Aisha Salihu	Department of Public Administration Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria salihuaisha57@gmail.com 07069499590
Zaratou Hudu	Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Administration

	Ahmadu Bello University Zaria
Kabir M. Isa	Department of Local Government and Development Studies, Faculty of Administration Ahmadu Bello University Zaria
Lawal Saleh	Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and phone No. 0803644025

Editorial Comment

This edition of the ABU Journal of Public Administration is containing articles on deferent areas of discipline. The issues discussed in the edition as varied as they are, are important elements for discussion by scholars and policy makers in developing economies.

The ABU Journal of Public Administration can be accessed on abu.ng/journals while hard copies are available at the Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria Nigeria and the University Bookshop.

Prof. S. B. Abdulkarim

Editor-in-Chief

Call for Articles and Guide to Contributors

The ABU Journal of Public Administration is seeking submissions for forthcoming issues. Contributors of papers for consideration in the journal should abide by the following instructions:

- Articles must be original. Neither the manuscript nor a version of it must have been published or considered for publication:
- The length of the manuscript should be between 10 – 15 A4 typed pages 1.5 spaced and Times New Roman 12 font size:
- Contributors should submit three hard copies of their paper and a soft copy. Also send electronically through our e-mail: abujpadm@gmail.com hamzapad66@gmail.com or musaidrisaa@gmail.com:
- All citations and references should follow the APA format:
- Cover page should be stapled to the manuscript indicating the title of the article, the author's full name, academic degree, professional titles, affiliations, GSM No., mailing and e-mail addresses:
- Enclosed title page should consist of;
 - title of the article; and
 - an abstract of about 100 – 150 words and provide 3 – 6 key words for index purposes;
- Articles submitted by contributors are to be screened in order to ensure their relevance; only articles adjudged to be relevant shall be subjected to thorough peer-review assessment by our team of local and international editors and other specialists;
- The editorial board accepts articles for publication upon the advice of a minimum of two assessors subject to effecting the corrections required by the author(s); and
- Paper submitted for assessment should be accompanied with a non-refundable processing fee of ₦5,000 or \$50.00 and thereafter a publication fee of ₦20,000 or \$100.00 (US Dollar) This is payable to Journal of Public Administration Account No.: 1029136682 (Naira Account) United Bank for Africa (UBA) Plc and SORT CODE: 033112910 (Domiciliary Account) ACCOUNT No. 2021589566 First Bank of Nigeria Plc. SORT CODE: 0111150000 Zaria.

Disclaimer: Neither the Editor-in-Chief, Editors nor the publisher can accept any responsibility for opinion expressed in the ABU Journal of Public Administration.

Subscription: The annual subscription rates are charged including postage as indicated below:

Country	Amount Per Individual	Amount Per Institution
Nigeria	₦3,000.00	₦4,000.00
Africa	\$50.00	\$75.00
Other countries	\$100.00	\$200.00

All manuscripts for publication, inquiries, subscriptions and other correspondence should be addressed to:

The Editor – in – Chief,
 ABU Journal of Public Administration,
 Department of Public Administration,
 Ahmadu Bello University,
 Zaria, Nigeria

Contents	
<i>Editorial Board</i>	<i>iii</i>
<i>Notes on Contributors</i>	<i>v</i>
<i>Editorial Comments</i>	<i>ix</i>
<i>Call for Articles and Guide to Contributors</i>	<i>x</i>
Effect of the Implementation of Millennium Development Goal 5 (Mdg 5) on Primary Healthcare Facilities in Bauchi State ¹Bala Umar, ²S. B. Abdulkarim & ³Dalhatu Muhammed Jumare	1
Assessment of the Contribution of Millennium Villages Project Intervention on Primary Health Care in Pampaida, Ikara Local Government Area Kaduna State Joel Tisan Mallam, Adejo A. Odoh and Andrew B. Suku	15
Effects of School Feeding Programme on Pupils Enrolment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State (2015-2021) Najahatu Abdullahi Rais, Hamza A. Yusuf and Abdulrazak Y. Madu	40
Effect of The Training Needs on Labour Turnover In Federal University of Technology, Minna and Ibrahm Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai, Niger State, Nigeria. Sani Yusuf¹, S. B. Abdulkareem ² & H. A. Yusuf³	66
Effects of Covid-19 on Demography of Nigerian Population: Week 10, 2020 – Week 26, 2021 Jimoh, Ihiovi Ojo¹, Awen, Benjamin Iorsue² and Ladi Jibrin³	86
Impact of Cultural Practices on Entrepreneurship Development in Niger State (2015 – 2019) Shehu, Adamu, Bashir Yusuf and Ibrahim Yahaya	102
The Effect of Technology and Innovation on Entrepreneurship: Empirical Evidence from Women in Small and Medium Scale Enterprises in Edo State, Nigeria Margaret E. Ehigie, Ph.D¹ and Peter O. Eriki, Ph.D²	135

Exploratory Survey of Training Needs Analysis in Katsina and Funtua Local Government Areas of Katsina State Muhammed Lawal, Musa Idris Ph.D and Shehu Salisu Jafaru Ph.D	152
Assessment of Compliance to Federal Character Principle in Staff Recruitment in Ahmadu Bello University (Abu), Zaria-Nigeria Aisha Salihu, Idris Musa and Siraj Barau Abdulkarim	169
Security Challenges and the Implementation of Ecowas Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and Goods between Nigeria and Niger Republic ¹Zaratou HUDU, ²Hamza A. Yusuf , ³Musa Idris and ⁴Kabir M. Isa	192
Political Will and National Interest in the Implementation of Ecowas Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and Goods between Nigeria and Niger Republic Zaratou Hudu	206
Effect of National Homegrown School Feeding Programme on Enrolment and Abscondment of Pupils In Primary Schools in Shira Local Government Area of Bauchi State ¹Bala Umar, ²Lawal Saleh & ³Musa Idris	225

Effect of the Implementation of Millennium Development Goal 5 (Mdg 5) on Primary Healthcare Facilities in Bauchi State

¹Bala Umar, ²S. B. Abdulkarim & ³Dalhatu Muhammed Jumare

¹Department of Public Administration, School of Business Studies, Federal Polytechnic, Bauchi, Bauchi State

²Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State

³Department of Local Government and Development Studies, Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State

¹ Corresponding Author: meetbumar@yahoo.com

Abstract

Bauchi State Government has implemented various policies and programme including MDGs programme with a view to improve primary healthcare services. However, despite the aforementioned commitments by the Government of Bauchi State, record shows that the State has one of the lowest antenatal attendance and hospital deliveries compared to national and global indices. The Bauchi State Government Strategic Health Development Plan, (BSGSHDP) 2019 estimated that only 25% of pregnant women that registered for Ante Natal Care actually deliver in the healthcare facilities. Similarly, the United Nation Population Fund (UNPF) (2019) revealed that only 43.8% of women of Bauchi state received antenatal care during pregnancy across the state. Therefore, this study assessed the effect of the implementation of MDG 5 on primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi state. The study adopted content analysis, where the data were gathered from various secondary sources. The study revealed that implementation of MDG 5 has significantly increased the number of primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi state, through the establishment and equipping Maternity Clinics, Primary Health Care Centres and Health Posts. Therefore, the study recommended that despite the improvement recorded on primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi state as a result of the implementation of MDG 5, more commitments are needed by the Government of Bauchi state towards provision of primary healthcare facilities such as establishment and renovation of Primary Health Care Centres, Maternity Clinics and Health Posts as well as equipping them with adequate facilities for proper diagnosis and other clinical services so as to sustain the improvement recorded in the area of wide coverage of healthcare delivery.

Keywords: Implementation, Millennium Development Goals & Primary Healthcare Facilities

Introduction

It is widely acknowledged that primary healthcare is an important component of human life, it is in relation to this that, so many conventions, declarations and initiatives have been adopted by nations across the World, at different times in

different places at various levels with a view to foster cooperation toward improving healthcare services and resolve emerging health challenges at National, Regional or Global level at large. Similarly, the United Nations made various efforts aimed at improving healthcare globally through the establishment of World Health Organization (WHO) in 1948. Alma-Ata declaration of 1978 for achieving health for all by the year 2000, Bamako initiative of 1987 for revitalization of primary health care.

In the same vein, WHO organized over Nine Global Conferences on health promotion, to include; the 1986 1st Global Conference on Health Promotion held in Ottawa, Canada; the 2nd Conference held in Adelaide in 1988; the 3rd in Sundsvall in 1991 and the 4th Global Conference on health promotion held in Jakarta in 1997 among others.

Furthermore, a Millennium Declaration popularly known as Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) was made by 189 member states of the United Nations in September 2000 in New York. MDGs are series of eight time-bound development goals, and 21 targets that seek to address primary healthcare related issues including reduction of child and maternal mortality, combating HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases, environmental sustainability, among others, agreed by the international community to be achieved by the year 2015. The MDGs give governments a common framework for structuring policies and programmes with a view to facilitate the achievement of the MDGs through effective planning, budgeting and monitoring at the implementation level.

In Nigeria, various policies and programmes on primary healthcare services have been put in place to include the establishment of National Primary Healthcare Development Agency (1992), National Agency for Control of Aids (NACA) in the year 2000, National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) (2004), implementation of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (2000-2015), implementation of the National Strategic Health Development Plan (NSHDP) 2010-2015, National Human Resources for Health Strategic Plan (2008-2012), National Monitoring and Evaluation Framework and the National Strategic Plan of Action for Health Sector Component of National Food and Nutrition Policy.

In addition, the Midwives Service Scheme (MSS) was implemented between 2009 to 2012; the Scheme recognizes that improving the skills of birth attendants in areas with the greatest needs is achievable within a short period. To build on

the successes achieved, the Midwives Service Scheme was scaled up under the SURE-P maternal and child health programme to include training of community health extension workers on basic and essential maternal, new-born and child healthcare as well as the supply of essential maternal health commodities nationwide. The strategic distribution of health workers serve as a model of an effective, realistic and efficient response and this was adapted to suit the local situation to ensure successful implementation.

The MDGs were implemented in Nigeria through specific Federal, State and Local Governments institutionalized structures. The Federal Government provides overall policy guidelines and financial as well as technical support to both the States and the Local Governments. The National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) provides support to states and Local Governments in matters relating to implementation of Primary Health Care (PHC). In this regard, the NPHCDA has designed minimum standard requirements of PHC structure, system, staffing and equipment for PHC service delivery at state and local government (NPHCDA, 2013). The minimum standard manual maintained that each political ward within the Local Government Area should have a well-equipped PHC center running 24 hours with a capacity to handle both in and out patients cases. In addition, PHC clinics should also be established within the political wards at least 1 per group of villages or community of about 2000 – 5000 persons. Also required is the establishment of Health Post at least 1 per village or neighborhood of about 500 persons as many as the number of villages within the Local Government Area (NPHCDA: Minimum Standard Manual, 2013).

More so, the minimum standard manual has spelt out the kind of health workers to manage these three categories of health facilities at the local level. These comprise of Community Health Officers (CHO), Nurses and Midwives, Community Health Extension Workers (CHEWs), Junior Community Health Extension Workers (JCHEWs) and Community Resources Persons (CORPs) trained as community volunteers, like the Traditional Birth Attendants (TBAs), Village Health Workers (VHWs) and other community based service providers that are duly trained and recognized.

In a similar vein, the United Nations MDGs Acceleration Framework was implemented with a view to fast-track progress on MDGs implementation through the Conditional Grants Scheme (CGS) of the Office of the Senior Special

Assistant to the President on MDGs. The Millennium Accelerated Framework prioritized interventions to accelerate progress on MDGs at the sub-national level. States and local governments have also prioritized interventions in their proposals on poverty reduction, basic education and maternal health in order to access funding from the Debt Relief Gains (DRGs) in a 50-50 counterpart funding arrangement (Jumare, 2015).

In an attempt to complement the effort of the Federal Government towards accomplishment of MDG 5, Bauchi state government took a giant stride by adopting a number of far reaching measures for greater efficiency and effectiveness in the implementation process of MDGs. Bauchi state established MDGs projects support unit in 2007, and Primary Health Care Development Agency to facilitate effective implementation of MDGs programmes in the State. More so, the Ministry of Health was de-centralized in which five agencies were carved out of the State Ministry of Health. These include Hospitals Management Board (HMB), State Primary Health Care Development Agency (SPHCDA), Bauchi state Agency for the Control of HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (BACATMA), Bauchi State Environmental Protection Agency (BASEPA) and Implementation of Strategic Health Development Plan (2010-2015), provision of Free Maternal and Child Healthcare Services as well as Free Pre-natal and Post-natal Healthcare Services. Other commitments made include provision of Primary Healthcare infrastructural facilities like Primary Healthcare Centres, Primary Healthcare Clinics, Health Posts and Ambulances, as well as other tools needed for effective healthcare service delivery in the State.

However, despite the aforesaid commitments by the Government of Bauchi State, record shows that Bauchi State has one of the lowest antenatal attendance and hospital deliveries compared to national and global indices. It was estimated that only 25% of pregnant women that registered for Ante Natal Care actually deliver in the healthcare facilities (BSGSHDP, 2015). Similarly, according to United Nation Population Fund (UNPF) (2019) only 43.8% of women of Bauchi State received antenatal care during pregnancy, while 14.6% give birth in health facility with trained personnel, such as Midwives, Community Health Extension Workers and Junior Community Health Extension Workers attending to only about one third of the deliveries. In the same vein, a population based, state wide study conducted by Central Institute of Educational Technology (CIET) (2018) for the Bauchi State Ministry of Health and the State Primary Health Care Development Agency indicated a worsening situation of maternal health. The study revealed

that 70% of men and 50% of women did not know a single danger sign during pregnancy. Among women reported to have a pregnancy during the last three years prior to the survey, 68% continued their routine heavy work during their last pregnancy. Although two third (67%) of these women registered themselves at a health facility, only 40% had at least four antenatal visits, however, it was only 20% gave birth under the care of a skilled health provider. 21% of women developed some complication during their last pregnancy or child birth.

Therefore, the objective of this study is to assess the effect of the implementation of MDG 5 on primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi State. Two research questions were raised to be answered by this study; how has the implementation of MDG 5 improved primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi State? And to what extent has the implementation of MDG 5 improved primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi State?

Literature Review

The concept of Primary health care facility

Primary healthcare facility is an organizational setting that usually provides communities with certain services including creating awareness on balance diet, maintaining cleanliness and sanitation with the aim of controlling of local endemic diseases. Immunization against major infectious diseases, maternal and child health care and home-care programmes for disabled people and people with chronic or terminal illness. Some PHC services may also have a delivery room, a few short stay beds and basic laboratory equipment. Primary Healthcare facility has been described as the basic support for the delivery of public healthcare services; it is an important indicator for understanding the health care policy and welfare mechanism in a country. It signifies the investment priority with regards to the provision of health care services (Erinosho, 2016; Ademiluyi and Aluko 2014). Similarly, Turnock (2012) described public health facilities as “the nerve centre of public health.” He viewed health facilities in a broader perspective by dividing it in to three components, which include; Workforce capacity and competency, Organizational capacity: the consortium of local and State health organizations and laboratories, and Information and data systems: up-to-date guidelines, recommendations, health alerts, modern standards-based information and communication systems that monitor disease and enable efficient communication among public organizations through media publicity. These

components are interrelated; deficiencies in one area or in one jurisdiction have a ripple effect throughout the entire public health system.

According to Kumar and Gupta (2012) health facilities can be broadly classified into five components, which include; skilled workforce, integrated electronic information systems, healthcare organizations, resources and research. From this point of view, healthcare facility implies material capacity building in the arena of public health delivery mechanisms. Looking at the various cognitive submissions of the scholars above, it implies that primary healthcare facilities are critical in the primary health services delivery.

Researches were conducted on various aspects of the Human Development and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria but a gap still exists upon which this study sought to fill as it assessed the effect of the implementation of MDG 5 on healthcare facilities in Bauchi State. Nevertheless, Ajiye (2014), conducted a research on Achievements of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria where his study covered all the eight goals of MDGs. Durokifa, & Abdul-Wasi (2014) have Evaluated Nigeria's Achievement of The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) with specific focus on the Determinants, Deliverables and Shortfalls. Olabode, Kayode, Hilary & Owonibi (2014) assessed Issues and Problems of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria. Abur, Eche & Japheth (2013) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Poverty Reduction in Nigeria. Ejike & Edwin (2012) examined the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Problem of Policy Implementation in Nigeria. Okon & Ukwayi (2012) assessed the Challenges and Prospects of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria.

This study is unique as it assessed the effect of the implementation of MDG5 on healthcare facilities in Bauchi State. In terms of focus, our study was on the success recorded on healthcare facilities as a result of the implementation of MDG 5 in Bauchi State, while none of these studies focused on healthcare facilities component of MDG 5 implementation, more so, in terms of location this study focused on Bauchi State whereas these studies were conducted on various locations in Nigeria other than Bauchi State.

Other researches that have been carried out on MDGs with different focus with this study include Jumare (2015) and Umar (2016), however, none of these studies focused on the effect of the implementation of MDG 5 on healthcare facilities in Bauchi State to the best of our knowledge. A research conducted by

Jumare (2015) focused on Local Governments capacity in managing Health and Education related MDGs, his study covered the period from 2005 -2013 while this study covered the period from 2008-2017. In terms of location, Jumare focused on Kaduna and Zamfara States in the North-West of Nigeria, while this study focuses on Bauchi State. Furthermore, Umar (2016) examined the Effort of Bauchi State Government in the implementation of the Millennium Development Goal 4; with specific focus on primary healthcare practitioners, healthcare infrastructural facilities, funding and public enlightenment on MDG 4. On the other hand, this research assesses the effect of the implementation of MDG 5 on healthcare facilities in Bauchi State.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework adopted by this study is evaluation theory as propounded by Suchman (1967). The theory was first used as a framework by Edward Suchman in Columbia when evaluating public health programmes in 1967. Suchman argues that evaluation must be approached with the logic of the scientific method. His works and write-ups during the 1960s, however, accentuated the need to assess programmes in relation to their practical setting. He suggested specific criteria for assessing programme success in relation to design, efforts, implementation, performance efficiency, and impacts. The early recognizable modern form of evaluation theorists include Greenbarg (1968), Scriven, (1991) and Shadish, Cook and Laviton (1991). Hatry (2002) asserts that “it certainly desirable that institutions/organizations at any level of government periodically undertake a comprehensive review of what they are doing and how they are doing it”.

Evaluation Criteria

According to Suchman, Evaluation research is conducted in terms of varying levels of objectives and different categories of effects. In the later, the categories represent various criteria for success or failure according to which the programme may be evaluated. They may be applied to any level of objective. Suchman proposed four categories of criteria according to which the success or failure of a programme may be evaluated. They include: effort, design, performance efficiency, and implementation process. These criteria were further discussed below:

Design: the theory provides a good analytical basis for this study. Implementation of MDG 5 begins by the design as the first element of this theory where policies and strategies for improving maternal health were designed, formulated and implemented by the Government of Bauchi state.

Effort: Evaluation in this category as a criteria for success, the quality and quantity of activities that take place. This represents an assessment of inputs or energy regardless of outputs. It intended to answer the questions such as "what did you do?" and "how did you do it." Yardstick for measurement in this category is based on the capacity of the efforts itself.

Performance: this refers to the degree of accomplishment of the tasks that make up individual's or organization's job. It is a reflection of how an individual or organization is fulfilling the requirement of the tasks. Performance criterion measures the result of an effort rather than the effort itself. This requires a clear statement of objectives to be achieved. It is aimed at answering questions, such as "how much is accomplished? Did any change occur? Was the change an intended one?" To Suchman, the ultimate justification of a programme must rest on the proof of its effectiveness in alleviating the problem being addressed. This, as well, depends on its validity and reliability. He further recognized some key validity assumptions involved in most evaluation of performances.

Efficiency: A positive answer to the question, "does it work? Is there any better way to attain the same results? Often gives rise to a follow-up question, "is there any better way to attain the same results?" Efficiency is concerned with the evaluation of alternatives paths or methods in terms of costs in money, time, personnel and public convenience. In essence, it represents a ratio between effort and performance output divided by inputs. As defined in the glossary of administration terms in public health, efficiency is the capacity of an individual, organization, facility, operation, or activity to produce results in proportion to the efforts expended.

Implementation Process: refers to the translation of policy programme or design into concrete reality. According to Suchman (1967), in the course of evaluating the success or failure of a programme, a great deal can be learned about why a programme works or does not work. An analysis of process can have both administrative and scientific significance, particularly, where the evaluation indicates that a programme is not working as expected. Locating the cause of the

failure may result in modifying the programme so that it will work, instead of its being discarded as a complete failure.

Relevance of evaluation theory to this study

The evaluation theory is relevant to this research as the theoretical framework for the fact that it provides a good analytical framework for assessing the impact of the implementation of MDG 5 on primary healthcare facilities, which requires measurement of the effort put in place by the Governments of Bauchi State. Performance efficiency and implementation process which are critical elements of the theory served as a guide to this study.

Implementation of MDG 5 starts by the design as the first element of this theory where policies and strategies on improving maternal health were formulated and programmes/projects for attaining these objectives were designed and spelt out through the provision of infrastructural facilities for primary healthcare services such as Health Centres, Maternities, Clinics, Dispensaries, Ambulances at the Maternities and Health Centres for referral system in case of obstructed deliveries, equipment and other instruments for diagnosis, drugs, beds, and public enlightenment on the need for women to be attending prenatal, antenatal and postnatal services were also provided. This indicates that efforts are being made by the Bauchi State Governments in an attempt to primary healthcare delivery.

Performance being one of the elements of this theory is very paramount. Thus commitment of individuals, in this case, PHC personnel and organisations under Bauchi State Government that implemented MDG 5, were assessed in relation to the improvement in primary healthcare facilities. The result of the efforts put in place by the Bauchi state determine whether the primary healthcare facilities have improved or otherwise.

As regards to the efficiency as part of the elements of this theory, formulating policies alone cannot guarantee the accomplishment of the MDG 5, thus effective and efficient performance of organizations and persons as one of the elements of the theory is very necessary. The organizations, in this case, the MDGs Project Support units, PHCDAs, Ministries of Health as well as individuals such as PHC workers, must be effective and efficient in order to execute MDG 5 projects. Therefore, the efficiency of the Government of Bauchi State would be determined

through their efforts such as money, personnel, materials required and the satisfaction of the targeted beneficiaries.

Implementation process is one of the elements of this theory which implies the translation of the strategies set for the achievement of MDG 5 into concrete action. In this study, adequate infrastructural facilities for maternal healthcare services provided by the Governments of Bauchi State were assessed and by so doing the impact of the MDG 5 implementation in the study areas was determined.

Methodology

This study adopted content analysis. Data were gathered from secondary sources and subsequently analyzed. The secondary data were sourced from Government publications from the National Bureau of Statistics, publications from MDGs Projects Support offices, records from State Ministry of Health, Primary Health Care Development Agencies in Bauchi State, National Demographic and Health Survey, National Primary Health Care Development Agency Bauchi Zonal Office, unpublished theses and Dissertations, Journals, Conference and Seminar Papers.

Data Analysis

The following table contained the total number of healthcare facilities that were established/renovated under the MDGs Programme in Bauchi State.

Table 1: Achievements of MDGs Projects Support Office of Bauchi State on Maternal Health

PROJECTS EXECUTED	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
Construction of Health Facilities	20	20	–	27	34	23	–	12	136
Construction of Cottage Hospitals	–	–	–	–	3	–	–	–	3
Renovation & Upgrading of PHCs	9	7	–	10	–	5	–	–	31
Renovation of Health Facilities	10	7	–	9	–	17	–	–	43
Construction of Staff Quarters	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	6	7
Supply of Medical Equipment in PHCs	–	–	–	32 (PHCs)	16 (PHCs)	46 (PHCs)	–	7 (PHCs)	94
Supply of Medical Equipment & Drugs	20 (PHCs)	27 (PHCs)	–	42 (PHCs)	20 (PHCs)	–	–	–	109
Supply of Medical Drugs	–	–	–	89 (PHCs)	36 (PHCs)	42 (PHCs)	–	–	167
Mobilization/Advocacy	–	–	–	–	24 (TIMES)	–	–	–	24
Provision of Ambulances	20	27	–	23	42	14	6	–	132
Provision of Solar Inverters	29 (PHCs)	27 (PHCs)	–	21 (PHCs)	–	11 (PHCs)	–	–	88
Drilling of Solar Powered/Hand Pump Boreholes in PHCs	60	100	–	200	40	115	–	–	515
Construction of	–	–	–	19	15	–	10	–	44

V.I.P. Toilets in PHCs				(PH Cs)	(PHCs)		(PH Cs)		
Purchase of Tricycles	–	27	–	23	–	2	–	–	52
Supply of Motor Cycles	40	20	–	–	20	4	–	–	84

(Giant Strides on MDGs in Bauchi State; Vol. 1- 4 & the 2015 Projects record)

The table above showed the number of primary healthcare infrastructural facilities provided under MDGs programme in Bauchi State. On the issue of establishment of PHC facilities, a total of one hundred and thirty six (136) Primary Health Care facilities were constructed and equipped across the state. More so, three (3) Cottage Hospitals were constructed and equipped in two local government areas of the state. Similarly thirty one (31) maternity clinics were upgraded to Primary Health Care Centres and equipped. In terms of renovation; a total of forty three (43) existing primary healthcare centres were renovated and equipped. A total of seven staff quarters were constructed in six local government areas and two cold stores were constructed in two local government areas of the state. Furthermore, medical equipment were supplied to ninety four (94) PHC facilities, medical equipment & drugs were provided to one hundred and nine (109) PHC facilities. Moreover, one hundred sixty seven (167) PHC facilities were supplied with medical drugs. Eighty eight (88) solar inverters were installed in eighty eight (88) primary healthcare facilities.

Other facilities provided include drilling of Solar Powered Boreholes/Hand Pumps in PHC facilities, a total of five hundred and fifteen (515) were constructed across the state. Similarly, a total of forty four (44) V.I.P. Toilets were constructed in some PHCs facilities in the state to enhance women comfortability while accessing healthcare services.

In an attempt to fast-track the referral system for women with obstructed labour; one hundred and thirty six (136) Ambulances were supplied to PHC facilities across the state. In addition to that: Fifty two (52) Tricycles were supplied to primary healthcare centres across the state and two hundred and eighty four (84) Motor cycles were provided to health facilities across the state to enhance mobilization of women. This shows that a significant number of PHC facilities were provided under MDGs programme. However, in 2010 and 2015 there were no allocation of counterpart funds from the Federal Government.

The data presented above shows that significant number of PHCs facilities were constructed, some were renovated while others were upgraded and equipment and medical drugs were supplied to newly constructed/renovated as well those that were not renovated. This has significantly improved the number and quality of healthcare facilities and by extension; it would increase the coverage of healthcare delivery in the state. More so, provision of Ambulances and Tricycles has facilitated the referral system for complicated labours, since the caesarean section (CS) is beyond the primary healthcare system to handle.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the data analyzed, this study concluded that implementation of MDG 5 has significantly increased the number of primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi state, through the establishment and equipping Maternity Clinics, Primary Health Care Centres and Health Posts. This is contained in the record given by the MDGs office now known as SDGs office of Bauchi State which showed that the total number of PHC facilities constructed under MDGs programme in Bauchi State were 139 and 74 PHC facilities were renovated/upgraded. Therefore, this study has concluded that implementation of MDG 5 has significantly improved primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi State.

In view of the findings and conclusions made, this study has recommended that despite the improvement recorded on primary healthcare facilities in Bauchi State as a result of the implementation of MDG 5, more commitments are needed by the Government of Bauchi State toward provision of primary healthcare facilities such as establishment and renovation of Primary Health Care Centres, Maternity Clinics and Health Posts as well as equipping them with adequate facilities for proper diagnosis and other clinical services so as to sustain improvement recorded in the area of wide coverage of healthcare delivery.

References

- Ademiluyi, T. & Aluko, J. A. (2014), Rural–urban differences in health seeking for the treatment of childhood malaria in south-east Nigeria. *Health Policy*
- Bauchi State Government Strategic Health Development Plan, (2015).
- CIET Canada. (2018). *Service Delivery Survey: second cycle 2000 Preliminary Findings, completed for health and Population Sector Programme*. Ohaka.

- Erinosho, S. (2016), *Improving healthcare with better building design*. Chicago, IL: Health Administration Press
- Giant Strides on MDGs in Bauchi State; Vol. 1- 4 & the 2015 Projects record
- Jumare, M. D. (2015), Assessment of the Capacity of Local Government in Managing the Education and Health Related Millennium Development Goals Programmes in Some Selected Local Governments in Kaduna and Zamfara States, unpublished PhD thesis, ABU Zaria.
- Kumar, P., & Gupta, F. (2012), Primary Healthcare Facilities in Ethiopia: A Statistical Analysis Approach, *Ethiopian Journal of Education and Science*, 5(2):51-7
- Turnock, B. (2012), Core Function-Related Local Public Health Practice Effectiveness. *J Public Health Management Practice*.
- Umar, B. (2016) Assessment of the Effort of Bauchi State Government in the Implementation of The Millennium Development Goal 4; unpublished M.Sc. Thesis, ABU Zaria.
- UNICEF (2010), “Maternal and Child Health: The Social Protection Dividend; West and Central Africa” Regional Thematic Report 4 Study.
- UNICEF (2010). Levels and trends in child mortality: estimates developed by the UN Inter-agency group for child mortality estimation. New York: UNICEF.
- United Nations Population Fund (UNIFP) (2019) retrieved 11 March, 2021 from <https://www.unfpa.org/maternal-health>

**ASSESSMENT OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF MILLENNIUM VILLAGES
PROJECT INTERVENTION ON PRIMARY HEALTH CARE IN
PAMPAIDA, IKARA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA KADUNA STATE**

Joel Tisan Mallam

Department of Public Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
Jtmallam21@gmail.com 0803580433

Adejo A. Odoh

Department of Local Government and Development Studies
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
Adejo00@yahoo.com 08034050169

And

Andrew B. Suku

Department of Public Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
sukuandrew@yahoo.com
08037181589

Abstract

Primary Health Care is an integral and fundamental part of the health system in Nigeria. It is basically concerned with improving the health system of local communities. PHC addresses the majority of a person's health needs throughout their lifetime. This includes physical, mental and social well-being and it is people-centred rather than disease-centred. The study Assessed the Contribution of Millennium Villages Project (MVP) on Primary Health Care in Pampaida, Ikara LGA of Kaduna State. The aim of the MVP is to demonstrate that progress towards the achievement of the MDGs in low-income rural sub-Saharan Africa villages can be made over a ten year time frame by promoting a comprehensive package of low cost, science-based interventions in health and practices within the budget structure recommended by the UN Millennium Project. One proposition was postulated to guide the study. The study being a qualitative research employed interview, focus group discussion and observation to obtain primary data necessary for the study. Secondary data was derived from the MVP Information Pack, 2009. The Citizen Participation theory was used to lend credence on how different the project is compared to other developmental project. As a result of the study, we found out that MVP intervention recorded success in Pampaida by constructing health centres, provision of health facilities, and reduction in maternal mortality as well as child mortality. PHC in Pampaida is currently beset by inadequate drugs, inadequate medical personnel as well as lack of

maintenance of the project structures and facilities. In the light of these myriads of challenges, we recommend among other things that; there must be collaboration between the state government, local government and the local community to ensure sustainability of these projects. This will be by incorporating and apportioning financial resources of these projects into the annual budget of the state. This will include maintenance of structures and facilities of PHC, provision of drugs in the clinic, as well as deployment of qualified medical personnel in Pampaida. We also recommend that regular supervision and monitoring of medical personnel should be conducted to check the excesses of workers as well necessary sanctions for erring workers.

Keywords: Millennium Villages Project, Intervention, Primary Healthcare, Development

Introduction

Health is considered to be one of man's most important values today. In modern time, health has been regarded as one of the most precious and priceless values to life and obviously one of the indicators of human development. Hence, the saying "health is wealth". The issue of health in developing country like Nigeria has attracted international organisations to intervene in the sector. It is one of the fundamental rights of an individual. According to the World Health Organisation (2003), health is now higher on the international agenda than ever before, and concern for the health of poor is becoming a central issue in development. This further explains why three of the Millennium Development Goals are targeted towards health improvement that is; reducing child mortality, maternal mortality and the spread of HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis (WHO, 2003). Primary Health Care (PHC) on the other hand is an integral and fundamental part of the health system in Nigeria. It is basically concerned with improving the health system of local communities. PHC addresses the majority of a person's health needs throughout their lifetime, which includes the physical, mental and social well-being and it is people-centred rather than disease-centred (WHO (2018). PHC is a whole-of-society approach that includes health promotion, disease prevention, treatment, rehabilitation and palliative care. A PHC approach includes three components: meeting people's health needs throughout their lives, addressing the broader determinants of health through multi-sectoral policy and action and empowering individuals, families and communities to take charge of their own health (WHO, 2018).

Health indicators in Nigeria have remained below country target and international benchmarks including the MDGs. Only 25 percent of children are fully immunised at age 1, 36 percent delivered in health facilities, maternal death contribute 32 percent among women aged 15 to 49 years (Gyuse, Ayuk & Okeke 2018). These statistics connote the rate of poor health care in the rural areas of

Nigeria. It is worthy of mentioning, however, that good health contributes to development in a number of ways: it increases labour productivity, educational attainment and investment and it facilitates the demographic transition (historical shift from high birth and death rate in societies with minimal socio-economic development, to low birth rates and death rates in societies with maximum socio-economic development).

In a bid to improve the health status of rural dwellers and meet the health related targets of the MDGs, the Millennium Villages Project (MVP) was initiated in 2005 by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). The MVP demonstrated that it was possible to achieve the MDGs at rural villages in Africa that results from extreme shortage of productive capital in the rural areas, where majority of the population resides (MVP Information Pack, 2013). The MVP achieved this by targeting investment in agriculture, education, health and infrastructure in hunger hotspots villages of Africa. In Nigeria, the MVP was implemented in Pampaida (Kaduna state) and Ikaram/Ibaram (Ondo State). This paper is an attempt to examine the contribution of the MVP to Primary Health Care (PHC) in Pampaida, Ikara LGA of Kaduna State and specifically to discover how health intervention has achieved the health related target of MDGs in Pampaida.

Statement of the Research Problem

Nigeria is Africa's most populous country with an estimate of over 200 million people in 2020, with an annual population growth rate of 3.2 percent (National Population Commission, 2021). The country is also Africa's biggest economy with 53 percent of the population living in rural areas. However, amid abundant of human and natural resources, the country still suffers from poor healthcare especially at the rural area where majority of the populace resides. In fact, it is a problem that has affected socio-economic development in urban and rural areas across the country. WHO (2018) stated that 50% of all people still lack some or all essential health service. This report connote that a significant number of the world's population either lack access to health service or lack in some aspect of essential health service. Consequently, PHC which is supposed to be the bedrock of the country's healthcare policy is currently catering for less than 20% of the potential patients (Gupta as cited in Abdulraheem, Olapipo and Amodu, 2012).

It is worth mentioning, however, that successful government has over the years made frantic efforts to ameliorate the poor health condition of people living in rural areas, the international community has also shown commitment to supporting Nigeria health system through programmes and projects, in spite of all these efforts, the health system of the rural areas remains a mirage. Welcome (2011) opines that inspite of huge development in the health care in relation to the last decade, much is still needed to be done in the health care system. He further argued that inspite of various reforms by government to increase the provision of health to the Nigerian people access to health is only 43%.

Before the intervention of MVP in Pampaida, Pampaida lacked basic infrastructures that are critical to health development. The available clinic was 10km away from the village which was accessible only by a bad road and the village was plagued with four main diseases which were; malaria, cholera, diarrhea and measles (MVP Mid-term Assessment, 2012). The MVP intervened to ameliorate the poor health conditions of the Pamapida village as well as address other issues that the MDGs set to achieve. It is against this backdrop that the research raised the question; how has health planned intervention been able to contribute to PHC in Pampaida? To achieve this, our preposition is that;

health intervention has been able to realise the health related targets of the MDGs in Pampaida.

Scope of the Study

This study covered both time and geographical scope. The geographical scope was limited to the MVP health intervention in Pampaida, Ikara LGA of Kaduna State. The rationale for the choice of Pampaida is that the MVP was implemented in only two states of Nigeria- Kaduna State and Ondo State. In Kaduna State, Pampaida village was selected because it met the project criteria and also because the MVP was emphatic about primary health in Pampaida being that the prospective village should be located in a 'hunger hotspot' which is characterized by 'a high prevalence of hunger, indicating deep poverty and usually accompanied by poor health, water, sanitation and a degrading natural environment'. The period of coverage of the study is from the year 2006-2015. The rationale for the time frame is that the year 2006 was the year of inception of MVP in Nigeria and 2015 the year the project ended.

Methodology

This paper used qualitative case study research design which allows for the presentation of findings using interview, focus group discussion and observation. The research used both primary and secondary data sources. Primary, data was collected using interview, FGD and observation in the study area while secondary, data was drawn from the MVP Information Pack. The result drawn from interview and FGD were synthesized and analysed using thematic analysis which involves coding groups and issues.

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Concept of Health and Healthcare

The place of health in any nation cannot be overemphasized as the concept is imperative not only to the growth of an individual but also to the nation's growth. Health is an amorphous word that lacks a single definition as the concept has sparked up debates and disagreement on what really constitute the concept health. However, health has been defined by WHO (1948) as "a state of complete, physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity". Many scholars however conceived the WHO definition as controversial. This is owing to the fact that there is no concord on who enjoys a "complete state of health". Oleribe et al (2018) gave a more comprehensive and all-encompassing definition of health to mean "satisfactory and acceptable state of physical (biological), mental (intellectual), emotional (psychological), economic (financial), and social (societal) well-being".

They further argued that it is a state of adding value not just to one's self, but to society, resulting in the development of a better and sustainable world where things work, people live in harmony and community existence is enhanced. Kaila (2017) posited that true health is the intersection of one's physical, mental, emotional, social, economic and spiritual state of being at any one time. In a similar way, Vatsayayann (2013) defines health as "an ever-evolving state of mind, body and relationships perceived by an individual, a family, a group or community for self in a particular time, space and context". It can be seen therefore, as one's ability to live his dream or a person's mental or physical condition. A healthy person is the person in balance meaning that different parts and functions of the human body and mind interlock harmoniously and keep each other in check (Nonderfelt, 2007).

The concept of PHC has seen repeated reinterpretation and redefinition over the years since it was formulated in 1978 Alma Ata Conference in Russia. PHC is an integral part of the health care system. According to National Primary Healthcare Development Agency (2007) PHC is the first point of contact with the health system. It is the level at which short-term, uncomplicated health issues should be resolved. It is the foundation of healthcare system (NPHCDA, 2007). According to Osahon (2017), primary health care is an “essential healthcare” which creates smooth and readily available ways for the easy accessibility of the general public to healthcare anywhere around the world. PHC includes all areas that play a role in health such as; access to health services, environment and life style (Sani, 2017). WHO and UNICEF (2021), elaborately defined PHC as;

A whole-of-society approach to health that aims at ensuring the highest possible level of health and well-being and their equitable distribution by focusing on focusing on people’s needs and as early as possible along the continuum from health promotion and disease prevention to treatment, rehabilitation and palliative care, and as close as feasible to people’s everyday environment.

In addition, primary health has been defined by the Alma Ata declaration of 1978 as thus:

As an essential healthcare based on practical, scientifically sound and socially acceptable methods and technology made universally accessible to individuals and families in the communities through their full participation and at a cost that the community and country can afford to maintain at every stage of their development in the spirit of self-resilience and self-determination.

One of the underlying targets of the SDGs is to ensure health and wellbeing for all at all ages by improving reproductive, maternal and child health, ending the epidemics of major communicable diseases; reducing non-communicable disease and environmental disease, achieving universal health coverage and ensuring access to safe, affordable and effective medicines and vaccines for all (SDGs Nigeria Baseline Report, 2016).

Components of Primary Health Care

There are basically 8 components of PHCs as outlined by the Alma-Ata declaration of 1978 which include;

- i. Health education on prevailing health problems and the methods of preventing and controlling them.
- ii. Nutritional promotion including food supply.
- iii. Supply of adequate safe water and sanitation.
- iv. Maternal and child health care.
- v. Immunization against major infectious diseases.
- vi. Prevention and control of locally endemic diseases.
- vii. Appropriate treatment of common diseases and injuries.
- viii. Provision of essential drugs (Du, Cao and Zhou, 2019). All these are basic requirements are incorporated in the SDGs for 2030 from goal 2 to goal 4.

Objectives of Millennium Village Project

The overarching MDG based objectives of this initiative are listed below.

Objective one: Cut hunger and malnutrition by half, through increased production, access, and utilization of nutritious foods, with a special focus on improving nutritional status of pregnant women, nursing mothers, and infants under two (MDG 1).

Objective two: Cut extreme poverty by half, through improved livelihoods of women and men, augmented by building their productive assets and increasing their incomes for both on and off farm activities (MDG 1).

Objective three: Ensure full primary school attendance for both boys and girls and eliminate gender disparity (MDGs 2 and 3).

Objective four: Achieve a two-thirds reduction in child mortality and a three-quarters reduction in maternal mortality, bolstered by improved access to medical services, especially focused on improving women's health and drastically reducing child and maternal mortality (MDGs 4 and 5).

Objective five: Decrease the prevalence of infection of HIV/AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis and other major diseases, including elimination of mother to child transmission of HIV, and increase access to essential medicine such as anti retroviral medication (MDG 6).

Objective six: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into village programs to reverse the loss of environmental resources, enhance ecosystem services, and increase adaptation to climate change (MDG 7).

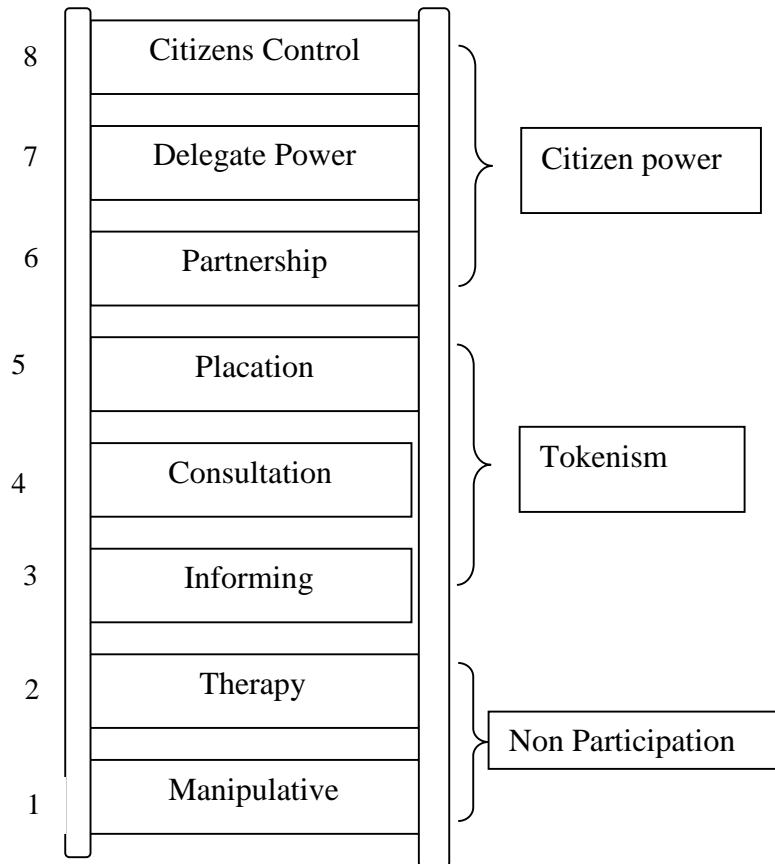
Objective seven: Cut the proportion of households without access to clean water and sanitation by half, while increasing access to basic infrastructure for energy and clean air (MDG 7).

Objective eight: Eliminate the digital divide by making available the benefits of communication technologies, especially access to Internet and mobile phone services (MDG 8).

Objective nine: Record with scientific rigor and accuracy the inputs, costs, and results of the investments and interventions implemented in the MV.

Theoretical Framework

The theory adopted for this study is citizen participation theory. The theory was first developed by Sherry Arnstein (1969) in her work "A Ladder of Citizen Participation". According to Arnstein, citizen participation is the redistribution of power that enables the have-not (poor) citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future. She developed a typology of citizen participation arranged as rungs on a ladder, with each rung corresponding to the amount of "citizen control" within the process of determining a program or policy (Gershman as cited in Babu, 2015). The particular importance of Arnstein work is that there are different levels of people participation. These levels are in eight rungs of the ladder each corresponding to a different level of participation, that is, manipulation, therapy, informing, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated power and citizen control.



Source: Sherry, R. Arnstein (1969). Ladder of citizen participation

The Millennium Villages Project in Pampaida was implemented by the UNDP, Earth Institute at Columbia and the Millennium Promise. However, to ensure citizen participation in rural health projects, the MVP worked together with local communities and local government to strengthen basic public delivery systems capable of effectively providing services and deploying new technologies in a coordinated effort towards achieving the MDGs.

It is crystal clear from the theory that effective project implementation can be achieved when people are involved in the projects meant to improve their health conditions. Through participating in health projects, primary health care will be achieved, hence a sustainable improvement on the health condition of the rural people. To emphasize the need for participation in community development

projects, expert often cite this anonymous Chinese poem to summarise their works and goals for change.

Serving the People

Go to the people

Live among them

Learn from them

Love them

Start with what they know

Build on what they have:

But of the best leaders

When their task is accomplished

Their work is done

The people all remark

“We have done it ourselves”

(Anonymous as cited in Gordon, 1995)

Analysis of Interview Responses using Thematic Analysis

Data was collected through interview and observation. The interview was conducted with beneficiaries that were made up of information rich respondents who worked actively in the health sector of the project from start to finish in Pampaida. The interview was conducted with the help of a research assistant. Though the interviews schedule was written in English Language, but had to be translated into Hausa Language for better understanding of the respondents. The responses from the interview were synthesized, coded and analysed using thematic analysis. Observation was carried out in the health centre and was represented by pictures.

Secondary Data MVP Health Interventions in Pampaida

Before Intervention	Interventions	Key Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There was no clinic or maternity center within the 28 settlements in MV1. • The closest clinic located in Saulawa (about 10km away from the village), was accessible only by a seasonal road. • The clinic had no drugs, bed, or skilled staff. Statistics were nonexistent. • No Doctor had visited the clinic in 5 years. It had only a nurse and 3 attendants and was poorly utilized because of the poor quality of services. • Bicycles and motorbikes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Construction of a clinic and provision of package of integrated PHC services for all, free at point of delivery • Renovation of 3 other health care centers, also providing free health care at the point of delivery. • Furnishing and stocking of all the health care centers with essential drugs. • Staffing of health care centers with appropriate medical personnel • Ambulance service for emergencies and referrals • Well-equipped laboratories in two of the health centers for basic laboratory investigations • Provision of HC services at 3 levels: (1) At the door step of community members through VHWs, (2) At the clinic level, and (3) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased access to and utilization of health care services • Increase utilization of ITNs – from less than 5% of bed nets coverage of sleeping sites in the cluster we achieved about 95% by 2009. • Decrease in malaria prevalence rate – from 27.5% (2006), to 13% at midterm survey (2009). Year 5 result (2011) is being awaited. • Increase in vaccination coverage among children <1year e.g., increase in Measles vaccination by 59.5% (2011) from baseline 2006. • Improvement in home-base treatment of diarrhea diseases –

<p>were the only means of evacuating patients.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The community was carrying a heavy burden of communicable diseases such as malaria and intestinal worms • Most of the women of the village deliver their babies at home with the help of Traditional Birth Attendants (TBAs) • In case of emergencies, patients were taken to Ikara, Makarfi or ABUTH Zaria, with distances ranging from 30km to 100km 	<p>At a referral hospital</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implementation of high impact health technologies for home-based care of common health problems such RDTs & LLINs for malaria, ORS/Zinc for diarrhea, etc. • Community Management of Acute Malnutrition (CMAM). • A Comprehensive prevention of mother to child transmission of HIV/AIDS (PMTCT) program. • Provision of a wide range of modern contraceptive methods including long acting implants and IUCDs. • A robust TBA partnership program. • Weekly health outreach program by the health team to the various settlements delivering integrated health 	<p>achieved 22% improvement for utilization of ORS among children under five.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in administration of micronutrients (Vitamin A) 52% increase from baseline value. • Achieved 25% (2011) improvement of women attending at least 4 ANC visits from baseline value. • Achieved 42% (2011) improvement in the number of pregnant women tested for HIV from baseline. • Commenced institutional-based deliveries, achieved 21% (2011) institutional-based deliveries up from 0% at baseline. • Improvement in the uptake of modern Family Planning services,
---	--	---

	<p>services at the community level.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implementation of Child count and e-health programs generating real time data and providing strong platforms for effective monitoring, evaluation and program designs. • Provision of basic EMoC. 	<p>17% (2011) increase from the baseline value.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pregnant women living with HIV/AIDS now have access to ARVs. • Reduced stunting and wasting levels in children under the age of five.
--	--	--

Source: MVP Information Pack, 2013

Table 1: Theme on Research Question (Contribution of MVP to Primary Health Care in Pampaida). From the table below, it can be seen that health is a theme with sub-theme represented by codes.

S/N	NAMES	CODE	POSITION
1.	Roseline Nuhu	Informant (R1)	Village Health Worker
2.	Ruth Ashafa	Informant (R2)	Nurse
3.	Safiya Dalhatu	Informant (R3)	Traditional Birth Attendant
4.	Saratu Luka	Informant (R4)	Village Health Worker
5.	Saadatu Usman	Informant (R5)	Village Health Worker

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Sub-theme: Reduce Maternal Mortality.

There was a unanimous agreement by the respondents that the MVP was committed to reducing maternal mortality in the village by constructing a functional health care centre in the village as well as provided treated net for pregnant mothers. It was also gathered that the project taught them on vital nutrition. Respondents were quoted:

The project encouraged and taught us how to eat healthy during pregnancy. They did this by training us on how to own a mini garden at the back of our houses were we planted vegetables such

as; tomato, spinach, pumpkin leaf amongst others (R1, R2, and R4).

However, it was revealed by R4 that, she is quoted below:

Healthy nutritious eating is very important but it is very expensive to maintain, this is because fruits and vegetables are not always available and where they are, they are expensive.

Sub-theme: Reduce in Child Mortality (MDG 4 & 5).

The village suffered child mortality before the intervention of MVP. There was a consensus between respondents that the intervention of the project has drastically reduced child mortality in the village. The respondents have this to say:

The MVP tackled child mortality by administering free immunization to infants at 9 months to 2 years. Ante-natal and post-natal care was administered to mothers at and after birth” (R3 and R4).

In addition to, a respondent stated that:

Nursing mothers didn't have proper knowledge on exclusive breastfeeding for six months. We would breastfeed as well as give water to our infant babies (R1).

Another respondent stated:

Any case of child mortality now means two things; either the mother was careless or it is the will of God.

Sub-theme: Access to Essential Drugs.

The responses show that there is a difference in availability of essential drugs during the project and after the project. Most of the respondents concurred that they had access to essential drugs and other health consumables. The response was quoted:

During the project, we had free essential drugs available as well as other health consumables like; injections, bandages, syringes, catheter and sutures (R1, R3 and R4).

A respondent was specific about the current situation of essential drugs and health consumables.

Unlike before, there are no adequate health consumables here. I finance the available drugs you see here, except for the family planning kits that are provided by the state government (R2).

Sub-theme 4: Sufficient Medical Personnel

The responses show that during the project implementation, there were adequate medical personnel in the health centre. However, the case is not the same as quoted below:

During the inception, we had adequate health personnel like nurses, doctors and laboratory technician. The case is different now as only one nurse works in the health clinic now with little support from Village Health Workers and Traditional Birth Attendants (R1, R3 and R4).

A respondent seems to share a different opinion and the respondent was quoted:

There are no sufficient medical personnel. I am the only one who attends here, only on rare cases when TBAs render assistance to receive delivery of new born babies. The VHWs that are supposed to assist are not motivated to work because they are not paid their usual stipend (R2).

Sub-theme: Availability of Ambulance

An ambulance was provided by the MVP. Some responses are quoted below:

During the inception of the project, an ambulance was made available for referral or emergency purpose, but the ambulance is no longer in use now because it is expensive to maintain (R3 and R4).

Other respondents were quoted:

The ambulance is no longer in use; we now use motorbikes and smaller cars during emergency and referrals (R1 and R2).

Sub-theme: Current Challenges

The responses showed that there are challenges that defy the PHC in the village. A respondent was quoted below:

Maintenance of the health facilities is a challenge faced by the PHC in this village. This is because some of the facilities are either under-utilized or need maintenance as a result of shortage of health personnel like lab technician (R1, R2, R3 and R4).

In addition, a respondent was emphatic about the challenges of the health facilities and thus lamented:

With all these problems, if there is no solution, I fear that we might go back to Pampaida of before (R1).

Result from Observation

From our observation on health, we observed that the health clinic is not as functional as it should (see appendix I, photo **J**). Samples such as urine samples and blood samples cannot be collected from the laboratory even though there exist a blood bank (see appendix I, photo **E**). It was also observed that the admission ward has beds without treated net and some of these beds are either damaged or at the verge of damaging (see appendix I, photo **F**). The labour room has only one bed that cannot be used in a case where there is more than one pregnant woman (appendix I photo **D**). Also, it was observed at the time of this research that there was no patient undergoing treatment of any kind in the health clinic in Pampaida. It was observed that only one nurse worked as the medical personnel at the health clinic, no medical doctor, no pharmacist just one nurse who administered health service to nearly everyone in the community (appendix I, photo **I**). Lastly, the researcher observed that there were no essential drugs in the clinic for patients and were available, it was usually provided by the nurse (see appendix I, photo **C**). What the state government provided through the local government was family planning kits for villages all depending on the duration of the family planning (see appendix I, photo **K**).

Major Findings

Findings from this study revealed that the following:

1. The study revealed that the MVP intervention constructed which has components such as; pharmacy, admission ward, labour room and laboratory.
2. The study found out also that there is a shortage of medical personnel in the health centre is currently beset with inadequate or shortage of medical personnel, there is no medical doctor as rightly reported in the interview

and observation. Only one nurse is available in the health centre with assistance from few community health workers that were rarely available when they are needed.

3. The discussion also revealed that the laboratory does not have the capacity to function as it should. This is not far from the fact that there is no expert laboratory technician to utilize the lab facilities.

From the secondary data reported, it was revealed that the intervention of the MVP in health achieved key results in the village. For instance, it was reported that one of the key result of the project was to increase access to and utilization of health care services in the village. This has made it possible for the villagers to access health care services every time compared to when the project had not intervened in the village. One other key result from our secondary data is the fact that the project achieved 25% improvement of women who attended at least 4 ante-natal visits from the baseline. This is in tandem with the report gotten from the interview that pregnant women now visit the clinic for ante-natal now unlike before where they didn't see the need neither did they know the importance of the ante-natal care. In addition to, the result gotten from the secondary data reported that the intervention of MVP in health has achieved a general decline in child and maternal mortality trends. This supports the result from the interviews that there has been a decline in maternal and child mortality as mothers are more aware of the need to practice exclusive breastfeeding, use treated nets as well as have nutritious meal during pregnancy. The interview report showed that any case of child mortality now in the village will be as a result of negligence or the will of God.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Even though the health status of the people has relatively improved due to availability of the health facility that didn't exist before, more need to be done in delivering services to the community. Hence, when all identified problems are tackled through sustainability, primary health care will improve better and by extension more development to the community.

Based on the major findings, the following recommendations are proffered: The MVP model has proven to be worthy of improving the health conditions of people living in Pampaida. It is important to note that sustainability of developmental projects is imperative to the survival of such projects.

- i. To ensure sustainability, the State Government through the Ministry of Health must ensure that adequate medical personnel must be recruited and deployed to Pampaida community so as to ease work and make it more effective.
- ii. Stringent measures must be put in place to supervise and monitor the activities of would-be medical personnel as well as employ necessary actions to sanction erring workers.
- iii. The ministry of health must also make available drugs for the health centre for free if they are benevolent enough otherwise cost of drugs should be subsidized.
- iv. The health facilities need funding in other to maintain them. There must be collaboration between the state, local government and local community to ensure adequate maintenance of the project. It is important to note at this juncture that sustainable development cannot be achieved without adequate funding of developmental project which means the sustenance of MVP project in Pampaida must be added to the annual budget of the state and reasonable amount earmarked to achieve sustainable development in the village.

References

- Abdulraheem, I. Olapipo, A. R and Amodu, M. (2012). Primary Health Care Services in Nigeria: Critical Issues and Strategies for Enhancing the Use by the Rural Communities. *Journal of Public Health and Epidemiology*. DOI: 10.5897/JPHE11.133
- Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A Ladder of Citizen Participation. *Journal of the American Planning Association*. Vol 35 (4), 216-224, DOI: 10.1080/01944366908977225
- Babu, M. T (2015). Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation: A Critical Discussion. *Asian Academic Research Journal of Multidisciplinary*. Vol 2 (7).
- Du, S., Cao, Y., and Zhou, T. (2019). The Knowledge, Ability and Skills of Primary Health Care Providers in SEANERN Countries: A Multi-National Cross Sectional Study. *BMC Health Serv Res* (19) 602 doi.org/10.1186/s12913-019-4402.
- Gyuse, Ayuk & Okeke (2018). Facilitators and Barriers to Effective Primary Health Care in Nigeria. *African Journal of Primary Health Care and Family Medicine*, 2 doi:10.4/02/phcfm.v/01/.1641
- Kaila, P (2017). What is Health? Accessed 19th November 2017. Huffpost.com

- Millennium Villages Project Information Pack (2009).
- Millennium Villages Project Mid-Term Assessment Report, 2012.
- National Population Commission (2021). Demographic Statistics Bulletin.
- Norderfelt, L. (2007). Understanding the Concept of Health. *Strategies for Health. An Anthology*, 4-15.
- Oleribe, O. O et al (2018). Health: Redefined. *Pan African Medical Journal*. Pp 30:292. [doi:10.11604/pamj.2018.30.292.15436].
- Osahon, I. S. (2017). The Influence of Primary Health Care Training on Health Workers and the Community. A Case Study of Esan West Local Government Area, Kaduna State. *Journal of Health Care Communications*. 2(3). DOI:10.4172/2472-1654.100073
- Vatsayayann, S. (2013). Definition of Health-What should be and not be? [Faq. tips/post/definition of health.](https://www.facebook.com/healthtips/posts/1015384444444444)
- Welcome, M.O (2011). The Nigerian Health Care System: Need for Integrating Adequate Medical Intelligence and Surveillance Systems. *Journal of Pharmacy and Bioallied Sciences*. 3(4) pp 470-478. Doi:10.4103/0975-7406.90100
- WHO (2012). Declaration of Alma Ata Report on the International Conference on Primary Health Care, World Health Organisation, September, 1978. Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/>.
- WHO (2018). Global Conference on Primary Health Care. Astana, Kazakhstan.

APPENDIX I
Pictorial Evidence from Observation in Pampaida Health Clinic



A **Blood Pressure Apparatus donated by the MVP**



B **Dilapidated lavatory built by MVP**



C Available drugs in the health centre



D Delivery bed donated by MVP



E **Non- functional blood bank**



F **Female ward**



G Examination Couch donated by MVP



H Scale donated by MVP weighting for babies



I The only Nurse at the Health Centre



J Health centre built by MVP



K **Family Planning Kit**

Effects of School Feeding Programme on Pupils Enrolment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State (2015-2021)

Najahatu Abdullahi Rais
Department of Public Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
najahatuabdullahi@gmail.com
09032633665

Hamza A. Yusuf
Department of Public Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
Hamzapad66@gmail.com
08034500027

And

Abdulrazak Y. Madu
Department of Public Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
abdurrazakmadu@yahoo.com
08063215100

Abstract

This study is an assessment of the effect of School Feeding Programme on Pupils Enrolment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State. The study adapted systems approach propounded by Easton (1965) as the framework for analysis. Despite the effort of the Kaduna State Government through introduction of School Feeding Programme with the aim to increase the level of enrolment of primary school pupils', but yet a lot of children go to school very hungry every day and Malnutrition of pupils' is on the increase. The Methodology for the study adopted Quantitative method techniques and the population of the study comprise of the following; Soba LGA 244 Head Teachers, SBMC 244, PTA 244, Teaching Staff are 1371 in number, FDO 1, Vendors 361 and the Pupils' 66,463, amounting to a total population of 68928. Also the populations of Teaching Staff in Zaria LGA is 2363, Head teachers are 116, the SBMC 116, PTAs 116, FDO 1, Pupils' 148602 and Vendors 486 amounting to a total population of 151,800, making a total population of 215,065 for both Zaria and Soba Local Government Areas of Kaduna State. The sample size for the study is 384 determined by using Krejcie & Morgan's (1970) table; The Primary sources of data used for this study has been through the administration of questionnaire, Both Descriptive and Inferential statistics were used in presenting and analyzing our data. The Hypothesis stated is; that "There is no significant relationship between School

Feeding Programme and pupil's enrollment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State. Findings from the test of Hypothesis revealed that Beta Value of 0.660 and P-Value of 0.000 showing that School Feeding Programme has significant effect on pupils' enrollment in Soba and Zaria LGAs with a P. value of 0.00 and beta value. The study recommended that government should put concerted effort to extend the school feeding programme to all public primary schools cutting across the 23 Local Government Areas in the State.

Keywords: Assessment, Effect, School Feeding Programme, Pupils Enrolment

1. Introduction and Problem in Context

Education is a catalyst for the development of every nation as it plays a vital role in the life of an individual through modeling and shaping of thinking, moral, perceptions and skills from Primary to tertiary levels. Education globally plays a crucial role in nation building, Government in each country decided to create an educational system that would give every citizen a chance of developing his or her intellect and functional capabilities. Education is also an instrument for human development, national development and social change and integration, societies and its many structures are subject to constant change, and the Educational system which serve as an agent of change is therefore expected to be dynamic, innovative and sensitive to societal expectations, aspirations and goals. Any nation that does not support an environment that attract, sustains and retain creativity will eventually lag behind in the scheme of events in the affairs of the world.

Although, another initiative during this Period as the Obasanjo's Government re-launched of the Universal Basic Education in 1999. The UBE is aimed at providing basic Education for all, to enable all citizens to acquire appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, communicative, manipulative and life skills. The intention is to provide nine years of compulsory Education that would span through Primary and secondary levels. All these initiatives are geared towards development and recognizing Education as an instrument par excellence for National development (FRN, 2004; Universal Basic Education Commission, UBEC, 2004).

Furthermore, the majority of the estimated 7.3 million children out of School in Nigeria are girls (Olumuyiwa, 2012). School Feeding Programme in Kaduna State was launched on 18 January, 2016 to cater for 1.8 million Primary Schools pupils in the State (Daily-Post, 4th April, 2016). The Programme was aimed to increase school enrollments reduce hunger among public primary school pupils and assist

children to learn better as a meal cost only N50 per Pupil. The programme is aimed at reducing hunger in the Pupil of Public Primary Schools. It has been observed that quite a number of Primary School age children are roaming on the streets begging or hawking for survival at the expense of their primary education.

However, the overall goal of the School Feeding Programme is to reduce hunger, Malnutrition and learning outcomes among School children and enhance the achievement of Universal Basic Education. The School Feeding Programme was launched in January 2016 in Kaduna State as a direct intervention in the health and nutrition of primary school pupils', save parent's money, expand the demand for farm products and create jobs for the catering vendors. Since 18th January, 2016. Kaduna State has been providing one meal for at least 1.8 million pupils' every day. Pupils' enrollment in Primary 1-3 before School Feeding Programme was 1,007,096 but rose to 1,590,859 at the commencement of the Programme. (Daily post 4th April, 2016). According to premium times report on 14th June 2018, the cooks do not show up at the school when their payments are delayed. In fact, even the eggs were not distributed regularly in Soba and Zaria LGAS. In a week, some fractions of the vendors were given eggs to cook and distribute while the other fraction of vendors were given in the subsequent weeks.

More so, the Federal Government has spent 4.5 billion naira in 2016/17 and 6 billion naira in 2017/18 on School Feeding in 14 states (Cable News Network, 2018). From the programme over 6 million primary school pupils' were fed and about 33,000 cooks were employed and paid. From this amount, Kaduna State received a total sum of N499, 985,500 with which 835,508 pupils' have been fed. A total of 9,851 cooks were employed under the programme in the state. Again, the Kaduna State Annual School Census report (2019) showed a continued increase in pupils' enrollment and attendance in the beneficiary schools and revealed that 1,111,110 children from public primary schools across the State are benefiting from the SFP in all the 23 LGAs in the State.

In spite of the implementation of the SFP in Kaduna State, statistics has shown that out of the 1.7million children enrolled in all the public primary schools in the State from 2015-2019, over 378,000 (22%) dropped out before completing Primary 3 while, 573,000 (34%) dropped out without completing the 9 years basic education circle (National Bureau of Statistics, 2019). The transition rate from junior primary to senior primary and from senior primary to junior secondary school has dropped by 35% and 45% respectively (NBS, 2019) cited in Jumare

(2020). To worsen the situation an estimated 1.2 million children within School age in the State are considered out of School (Kaduna State Annual School Census, 2017).

Despite the effort of the Kaduna State Government mentioned above, through introduction of School Feeding Programme with the aim to increase the level of enrolment, retention and completion of primary school pupils', but yet there are a lot of children going to school very hungry every day. Malnutrition of pupils' is at increase and there are a lot of School going age children that are not enrolled into the Basic Education Programme. Inadequate monitoring and evaluation, infrastructural facilities are in short supply to commensurate with increase in enrolment of pupils' in public primary school in Soba and Zaria Local Government Area of Kaduna State which has effect on the success of the Programme (KSMOE, Annual School Census Report 2017).

Enrollment in Soba Local Government Area before the introduction of SFP was very poor, and tremendously improved from 25,291 pupils' in 2015 before SFP to 87,224 pupils' in 2016 after the commencement of the SFP while in Zaria Local Government Area, enrollment rose from 10,398 in 2015 to 125,720 in 2016 after the introduction of School Feeding Programme (KSMOE, Annual School Census Report 2016). It is against this background, that this paper Assess the Effects of School Feeding Programme on pupil's enrollment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State.

In the light of the above, one fundamental question this study seek answers to is; "how School Feeding Programme has affect pupil's enrollment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State.?" The objective of the study is to assess the Effects of School Feeding Programme on pupil's enrollment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State. The study hypothesized that; "there is no significant relationship between School Feeding Programme and pupil's enrollment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State".

Literature Review

Concept of School Feeding Programme

School Feeding is simply the provision of Food to children in primary Schools. According to Oyefade (2015), different countries have one or a combination of the two feeding modalities in place for various objectives. SFP being a

programme that provides food or snacks and sometimes even drinks to pupils' in school has been described by world food programme as an effective strategy for increasing enrollment (WFP, 2019). SFP increases enrollment in a number of ways: It alleviates the cost of feeding children by parents in the afternoon; it motivates and increases the pupils' enrollment. Government and other local and international donor organizations have committed huge amount of resources in feeding school children across many countries around the world (Kamau, 2015). In the United States for instance, it is called National School Lunch Programme and has covered 99% of all public primary school in the country (Kihia, 2017). In Ghana it is called Ghana School Feeding Programme (Dayour, 2015) while in Nigeria it is called School Feeding Programme.

However, they can be grouped into two broad categories: in-School meals and take-home rations where families are given food if their children attend School. Historically, in-school meals have been the most popular modality of school feeding interventions. The school feeding can be grouped into two common categories: Programme that provides meals and programme that provides high-energy biscuits or snacks to generate greater impacts on school enrollment, retention rates, and reduce gender or social gaps (Akanbi and Alayande 2011).

Tomlinson (2007) traced the emergence of school feeding programme to the 1930s in the United Kingdom and the United States of America with a focus on improving the growth of children. In 1900 Netherlands became the first country to move the programme to a new level of incorporating school meals into a national legislation. By the 1930s, the United Kingdom and the United States had also instituted the school feeding programme as part of their national programme. A further account indicates that school feeding initiatives have been in existence since the late 1700's and originated as projects of donors in Europe. The United States of America began the practice of initiating school feeding programme in Austria as an act of international aid focused on combating the severe malnutrition of children in the 1940s after the Second World War. Since then, school feeding programme have become a key part of Food assistance, relief emergency and development programme. School feeding programme is a social safety net for children and as part of the national development goals. It provides an important new opportunity to assist poor families and feed hungry children. It provides incentive for poor families to send their children to school and keep them there.

In order to improve the nutritional status of school children, the Federal Government of Nigeria launched the Home-Grown School Feeding and Health Programme in September, 2005 under the coordination of the Federal Ministry of Education. The programme aimed to provide pupils' with adequate meal during the school day (FME, 2016). The scheme, officially known as Home Grown School Feeding Programme insisted on buying the Foodstuffs from the local farmers. It therefore reduced the rate of malnutrition while it also provided the local farmers the opportunity to sell their product to participating schools. According to the Federal Government's directive, Federal, State and Local Governments were to fund the programme with the state and local Governments providing the bulk of funds. Similarly, The Jomtien Conference on Education for All (EFA) in 1990 brought together world leaders in the United Nations General Assembly in New York in the year 2000 to resolve some of the problems of underdevelopment in the world. Over 189 member countries committed themselves to achieve eight goals by 2015, which have become known as the Millennium Development Goal (MDGS).

These eight goals are: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, Achieve Universal Primary Education, Promote gender equality and empower women, Reduce Child Mortality, Improve Maternal Health, Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases, Ensure environmental sustainability, Develop Global Partnership for development. In the realization of the central goal of Nutrition to Education, the Federal Government of Nigeria in collaboration with new partnership for African Development (NEPAD), World Food Programme (WFP), United Nation Children's Funds (UNICEF), and other International Development Partners (IDPs), developed the Home Grown School Feeding and Health Programme (HGSFHP). The Programme was launched on Monday 26 September, 2005. The Objective of the Programme is to: Reduce hunger among Nigerian school children, improve the nutritional health status of school children, increase school enrollment, attendance, retention and completion particularly of children in rural communities and poor urban neighborhoods, enhance comprehension and learning achievement of pupils'.

School Feeding Programme (SFP) is typically targeted towards population that are food insecure and vulnerable with high concentration of low socio-economic status or that face poor enrollment and retention in schools. In developing countries, SFP is usually not set up to target specific children at a school, but rather all pupils' attending a school are beneficiaries of the programme unless

these belong to families whose food were in secured or low socio-economic status (Adelman, 2009).

Concept of Universal Basic Education

The UBE involves 6 years of primary school and 3 years of junior secondary school culminating in 9 years of uninterrupted schooling. Transition from one class to another is automatic, though assessed through continuous assessment. The Universal Basic Education Act (2004) defines Universal Basic Education as early childhood care and education, the nine years of formal schooling, adult literacy and non-formal education, skills acquisition programme and the education of special groups such as nomads and migrants, girl-child and women, almajiri, street children and disabled groups. UBE is therefore more comprehensive than UPE or other programmes of the Federal Government on education. According to the Implementation Guidelines of the UBE in 1999, the scheme stresses the inclusion of girls and women and a number of underserved groups; the poor, street and roaming children, rural and remote population, nomads, migrants, workers, indigenous people, minorities, refugees and the disabled.

The universality of the programme has two dimensions. First, the concept implies that everything should be done to ensure that there is a school or equivalent teaching/learning outfit available to all those duly qualified and entitled to receive such education without limitations of infrastructure, distance to be covered and also, to receive such instruction, as well as social, religious, ethic, gender and economic impediments to having access to such as education. We can agree that the UBE programme has laudable objectives aimed at sustaining national development (Nwana, 2000).

The origin of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) Programme can be traced to two major sources, that is, international collaboration and national aspirations. On the international scene, UBE dates back to 1961 as part of the recommendations of Addis Ababa conference, which states that African countries should aim at providing Universal Primary Education (UPE) and that attention should be given to on-the-job-training. In a similar vein was the World Conference on Education for all held in Jomtien, 1990 and the World Summit for children held in New York, 1990. Consequently, the Universal Basic Education Programme was launched in September 30th, 1999 as a rebirth of Universal Primary Education (UPE) and for the realization of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Universal Basic Education is a 9-year compulsory basic Education for Primary and junior secondary School levels. The system will have basic 1-9. In basic 1-3, the language of the immediate environment is the medium of instruction while in basic 4-9, English language should be the medium of instruction, (UBE Act 2004).

Objectives of Universal Basic Education

The goal of the UBE is to universalize access to basic education, engender a conducive learning environment and to eradicate illiteracy in Nigeria within the shortest possible time. Therefore, the objectives of the UBE programme as specified in the implementation guideline by government in 1999 are as follows:

- i. developing in the entire citizenry, a strong conscientiousness for education and commitment to its vigorous promotion;
- ii. provision of free universal basic education for every Nigerian child of school going age;
- iii. reducing drastically the incidence of dropout from the formal school system;
- iv. catering for young person's their schooling as well as other out of school children or adolescents through appropriate form of complementary approaches to the provision of UBE;
- v. ensuring the acquisition of appropriate levels of literacy in numeracy, manipulative, communicative and life skills as well as the ethical, moral and civic value needed for laying a solid foundation for the lifelong living;

Concept of Enrollment

Enrollment refers to the number of pupils' that register in school as substantive candidates. The concept of enrollment may be referred to as the act of enrolling the state of being enrolled or the number of persons enrolled as for a course or in school. Collins English Dictionary (2021) also defines enrollment as the act of enrolling in an institution or a class. The above definition by two different dictionaries did not define the term enrollment in a manner that a layman can understand the concept. However, enrollment can be defined as a process or an act of registering or enlisting someone in a school for the purpose of an academic study. The process of enrollment is completed with the student is eventually formally accepted in to school. In other words, enrollment occurs when attendance is formally initiated. Primary school enrollment is usually determined by so many social and economic factors.

School Feeding Programme and Pupil's Enrollment

Enrolment is defined as the number of pupils', regardless of age, enrolled in all types of tertiary educational institutions in the region, including public, private and all other institutions providing organized tertiary level (OECD 2009) educational programmes. As observed by Oyefade, (2015), the decision to enroll a child in school and, thereafter, for the child to attend regularly is influenced by many factors. These include the perceived value of education, the availability of employment opportunities, the direct and indirect cost of schooling and the availability and quality of school facilities. Food incentives offered to pupils' such as school meals compensate parents for direct educational costs. He observed further that implementation of SFP is associated with increase in enrollment, particularly for girls. Also, several studies have found a strong relationship between education and poverty, particularly inequality. The poor are heavily deprived and so are their children. Oyefade (2015), observed that several factors with significant impact on many dimensions of poverty on school attendance and education quality, particularly early childhood malnutrition, deprivation based on gender and income inequality tend to be responsible. In many countries, such as Brazil, Philippines, Cambodia, Mali, El Salvador, Indonesia, Ghana, Bangladesh, Ecuador etc. where School Feeding Programmes are implemented, data reveals that the programme has increased enrollment and attendance rates over the years (Alabi, 2015).

Review of Related Empirical Studies

Several researches were carried out by academics and researchers from different contexts and reports prepared by international organizations. This study reviewed works carried out in similar areas such as those captured below;

Samuel, (2016) carried out a study on the assessment of the School Feeding Programme in Ghana: A study of primary schools in the central region of Ghana. A descriptive survey design was used for the study and data were obtained from primary source through the use of a three-point likert scale questionnaire. Convenient sampling technique was used. This study was criticized because his findings were only primary data based while the present study would be both Primary and secondary data. Also in terms of scope the former is only an assessment of the programme which has no specific direction while the current study assessed the effect of SFP on pupils' enrollment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State which the other study did not cover.

However, Aliyu, (2015) conducted a study on the impact assessment of the universal basic Education policy on School Enrollment in selected Local Government Areas of Kwara State. The main aim of the study was to ascertain the extent to which UBE Programme has created more access to basic Education for children of school-age. Secondary data were mainly used, data collected were analyzed using tables, percentages and content analysis. The challenge of the study is in terms of methodology, since the study was on impact assessment of UBE on school enrollment, T-Test or Anova was supposed to have been employed in testing of hypotheses. The gap the present study filled is in terms of methodology and context because the study was carried in Kwara State while the present study is in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State.

Hildrette, (2015) carried out a study on the effectiveness of School Feeding Programme to learners' nutritional status and academic performance. The research utilize experimental research design to obtain data, in response to study problem, weighted mean, standard deviation, and standard T-test were used. The challenge of this study is in terms of methodology, since the topic is to test the effectiveness of school feeding programme to learners nutritional status, regression analysis is supposed to have been used, the present study will fill the gap by adopting regression analysis.

Therefore, none of the above researches were specifically conducted to assess the Effects of School Feeding Programme on pupil's enrolment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State. That is what makes our research unique; this work therefore, is targeted at assessing the effect of School Feeding Programme on pupil's enrolment.

Theoretical Framework

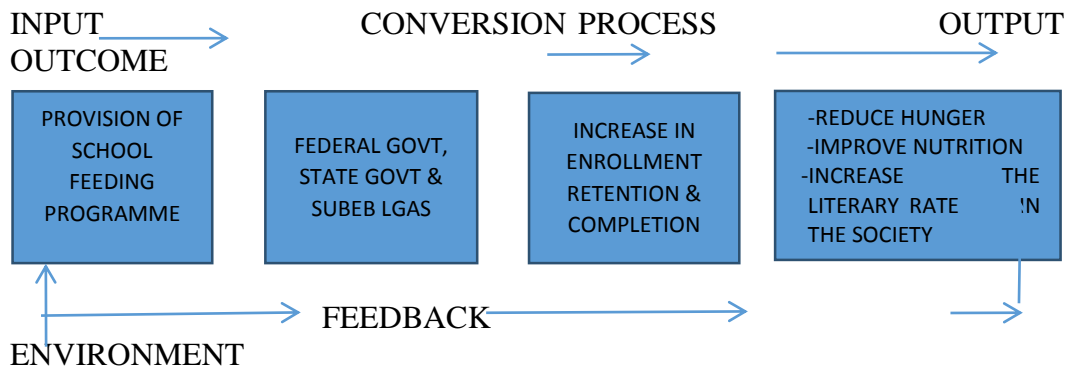
The study adapts systems theory propounded by Easton (1965) as an approach to the analysis of political system. A system is defined as a set of interrelated and interdependent parts arranged in a manner that produces a unified whole (Sapru, 2013). Easton (1965) sees political system as having many different parts but working harmoniously to achieve a specific or some objectives. The policy making process has been regarded as a black box which converts the demands of the society into policies. A Government organization does not operate in a vacuum, rather it is a part of a larger system such as the economic system, and the society. Thus the organization receives inputs, transform them, and export the outputs to the environment.

The theory explains the existence of different parts which perform different functions in such a way that each part interact and is interdependence on the other parts. In a similar manner, the Educational system has characteristics related to systems. A typical system is characterized by an input that is a component which enters from the outside, conversion process and an output component which leaves the system for the outside environment. The central and guidance of the system theory is the concept of system and general relationships not individual relationship between individuals, organizations as well as institutions. A *system* can be defined as an interrelated set of elements functioning as an operating unit (Senge, 2006). As depicted in Figure 2.3 below, an open system consists of five basic elements (Scott, 2008): inputs, a transformation process, outputs, feedback, and the environment.

Relevance of Systems Theory to the Study

The study adapts systems theory propounded by Easton (1965) as an approach to the analysis of political system. This is the political system whereby the SFP serves as the input, through Institutional framework of state and LGAs as the conversion process, transform them into increase in enrollment, as the output and export the output to reduce hunger, improve nutritional status and increase the literary rate in the society as the outcome. This can be shown below:

Figure 1. Diagram for System Theory



Source: Author’s Computation (2021)

Inputs are seen as what is for the system to operate; which is the provision of food and funding. They are into the system in form of demand and support. Demand can be categorized into two types:

- i Demand for Food, funding, monitoring and evaluation
- ii Demand for participation in the system in terms of provision of School Feeding Programme such as the need for Front Desk Officer, School Base Management Committee and Parent Teachers Association. At the heart of the political system are the institutions and personnel carrying out the School Feeding Programme activities.

Conversion process: The management of the LGA, SUBEB, State Government, and Federal Government as well as SBMC, PTAs, Vendors, CBOs and NGOs are responsible for the implementation of the School Feeding Programme in Kaduna State. They translate input into output. Their decisions make or mark the entire system of the school feeding programme.

Output: The output is the expected consequences or results as a result of the policy which include increase in pupils' enrollment, pupils' retention and pupils' completion in Soba and Zaria Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Outcome: The outcome here is to reduce hunger, improve nutritional status of the pupils' and increase in learning in Soba and Zaria Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Feedback: Feedback mechanism here means the increase in pupil's enrollment, literacy, numeracy and manipulative as well as increase in communicative skills.

3. Methodology

The study adopted mixed methods i.e. quantitative and qualitative method techniques to allow the researcher cover a large population through the instrument of questionnaire and interview which was used to collect data once at a time from respondents and to achieve research objectives. The population of the study comprises of the following; Soba LGA has 244 Head Teachers, SBMC 244, PTA 244, Teaching Staff 1371, FDO 1, Vendors 361 and Pupils' 66,463, amounting to a total population of 68928. Teaching Staff in Zaria LGA are 2363; Head teachers 116, SBMC 116, PTA 116, FDO 1, Pupils' 148602 and Vendors 486 amounting to a total population of 151,800, this brings the total population to 215,065 for both Zaria and Soba Local Government Areas of Kaduna State. The sample size for the study was determined using Krejcie & Morgan's (1970) table giving us a total sample size of 384. In determining the sample size for the study, 40 percent

of the sample of 384 was adopted bringing our sample size to 538. Purposive and cluster sampling techniques were used in the study. The Primary data was sourced through questionnaire administration to elicit respondent's opinion on the effect of School Feeding Programme on Pupils Enrolment in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State. Descriptive statistical tools were used in describing and summarizing the data derived from the research questionnaires using tabulation, frequency distribution and percentages for easy analysis to describe the characteristics of the data in the tables to determine the relationship and address the research questions and hypotheses. The second method was through the use of inferential statistical tools. This enabled the study to draw inferences on the sampled population of the study. However, Simple Linear Regression analysis was used in measuring the degree or level of the effects of Independent Variable (IV) on the Dependent Variable (DV) in testing the hypotheses.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Table 1. Summary of Response rate

S/ N	Local Governmen t Areas	Total Questionnaire Administered per LGA	Percentage of Questionnaire Administered	Total Questionnaire Returned per LGA	Percentage of Returned Questionnaire
1	Soba	204	38%	127	62%
2	Zaria	334	62%	252	75%
	Total	538	100%	379	70.45%

Source: Researcher's Computation, 2021.

In Table 1, 538 questionnaires were administered in the two Local Governments under study, out of which 379 representing 70.45% of the total questionnaire administered were filled and returned. Therefore 379 formed the basis of our analysis. This were considered sufficient for valid conclusions.

The data collected from the field were presented and analysed as follows:

Table 2; Sufficiency of Food supplied

	Frequency	Percent
SD	72	19.0
D	104	27.4
U	37	9.8
A	128	33.8
SA	38	10.0
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 2 shows the respondents views on whether the Food is sufficiently supplied to pupils' in primary school in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State. The result reveals that 38 (10.0%) of the respondents strongly agreed to the assertion, 128 (33.8%) agreed, 37 (9.8%) were undecided. Furthermore, 104 (27.4%) of the respondents disagreed, 72 (19.0%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that food provided in the selected was sufficient. Based on the responses from both questionnaires administered and interview conducted it can be concluded that majority of the respondents 128 (33.8%) as indicated in the table unanimously agreed that there is sufficiency of food provided for under the school feeding programme.

Table 3; Regular supply of food

	Frequency	Percent
SD	54	14.2
D	128	33.8
U	28	7.4
A	114	30.1
SA	55	14.5
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 3 indicates that respondent's opinion on whether the food is regularly provided to the pupils' in primary schools in Soba and Zaria LGAs. From the result, 55 (14.5%) of the respondents strongly agreed that there is regular food supply, 114 (30.1%) agreed to the claim, 28 (7.4%) were undecided, 128 (33.8%) of the respondents disagreed while 54 (14.2%) of the respondents strongly

disagreed. From the table, majority of the respondents disagreed with the assertion that food is regularly provided in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State. Responses from interview conducted to the staff and other stakeholders of both LGAs also point to the fact that the food is not regularly provided in the schools. We can therefore conclude from the responses that, food is not regularly provided in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State.

Table 4: SFP has improved nutritional status of pupils'

	Frequency	Percent
SD	64	16.9
D	73	19.3
U	35	9.2
A	140	36.9
SA	67	17.7
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 4 shows respondent's perception on whether SFP has improved the nutritional status of pupils' in primary school in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State. From the results, 67 (17.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed, 140 (36.9%) agreed, 35 (9.2%) were undecided while 73/ (19.3%) and 64 (16.9%) of the respondents both disagreed and strongly disagreed that SFP has improved the nutritional status of the pupils' in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State. Going by the majority of respondents as indicated in the table therefore, the SFP no doubt has improved the nutritional status of pupils' in primary schools in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State. Responses from interview also corroborated this. We can also conclude from the result that SFP has improved the nutritional status of pupils' in the two LGAs under study.

Table 5: Food supplied has improved pupils' condition of learning

	Frequency	Percent
SD	64	16.9
D	59	15.6
U	40	10.6
A	121	31.9
SA	95	25.1
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

From Table 5, 95 (25.1%) and 121 (31.9%) of the respondents both agreed and strongly agreed to the assertion that food supply has improved pupils' condition of learning in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State. 40 (10.6%) were undecided, while 59 (15.6%) and 64 (16.9%) of the respondents disagreed/strongly disagreed to the claim. Responses from interview are also in line with the questionnaire. From the majority responses, it is obvious that the food supply greatly improved pupils' condition of learning in primary schools in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State.

Table 6: Enrollment increased since the introduction of SFP

	Frequency	Percent
SD	35	9.2
D	32	8.4
U	18	4.7
A	172	45.4
SA	122	32.2
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 6 also revealed respondents' perception on whether the introduction of SFP has increased the pupils' enrollment. From the result, 122 representing (32.2%) of the respondents strongly agreed as well as 172 (45.4%) to the statement. 18 (4.7%) were undecided. 32 (8.4%) of the respondents disagreed while 35 (9.2%) strongly disagreed. Based on the majority of the responses 45.4% of the respondents agreed that, enrollment has increased significantly since the introduction of SFP in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State. In the same vein majority of the interviews responses from the schools were of the opinion that enrollment has increased significantly since the introduction of SFP in the study area.

Table 7: SFP motivate the pupils' to attend school regularly

	Frequency	Percent
SD	29	7.7
D	32	8.4
U	15	4.0
A	168	44.3
SA	135	35.6
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 7 shows respondents perception on whether SFP motivate pupils' to attend school regularly in primary schools in Soba and Zaria LGAs. The result reveals that 135 respondents constituting (35.6%) strongly agreed. 168 (44.3%) equally agreed to the assertion. 15 (4.0%) respondents were undecided, while 32 (8.4%) and 29 (7.7%) disagreed. Going by the majority respondents i.e. 44.3%, the School Feeding Programme motivates pupils' to attend school regularly. Responses from the interview conducted are also in agreement that, School Feeding Programme motivates the pupils' to attend school regularly.

Table 8: SFP encouraged pupils' to be punctual in class

	Frequency	Percent
SD	19	5.0
D	64	16.9
U	24	6.3
A	173	45.6
SA	99	26.1
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 8 revealed that 99 (26.1%) and 173 (45.6%) of the respondents agreed that SFP has encourage pupils' to be punctual in class. 24 (6.3%) were undecided while 64 (16.9%) and 19 (5.0%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that SFP encouraged pupils' punctuality. Responses from interview conducted revealed that School Feeding Programme has increased pupils' punctuality to class attendance. Based on majority responses therefore, we can conclude that School Feeding Programme has encouraged pupils' punctuality in class attendance in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State.

Table 9: SFP encouraged parents to send their children to school

	Frequency	Percent
SD	27	7.1
D	52	13.7
U	23	6.1
A	162	42.7
SA	115	30.3
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 9 indicates respondents' views on how School Feeding Programme has encouraged parents to send their children to school. The result revealed that 115 (30.3%)/162 (42.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed to the assertion. 23 (6.1%) were undecided. Whereas, 52 (13.7%)/27 (7.1%) of the respondents disagreed. Responses from the interview conducted to staff of both LGAs were optimistic on how School Feeding Programme encouraged parents to send their children to school. From the the majority responses based on questionnaires and interview, School Feeding Programme has actually encouraged parents to send their children to School in Soba and Zaria LGAs of Kaduna State.

Results of Interview

Respondents Opinion about the School Feeding Programme

In this section, the study analysed the respondents view on SFP in Soba and Zaria LGAs.

Other head teachers interviewed provides contrary views about SFP as follows:

T1, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, FDO 1-2, FGD 1-4 were of the view that SFP is good and helpful because it motivates the pupils' to attend school, vis a vis increase in population since the introduction of SFP compared to when there was no SFP. This beneficial to pupils' as a lot of them don't have access to food hence the economic situation and poverty since most of the parents cannot provide these days. This provides an opportunity for pupils' to eat and concentrate in class in order for teachers to get their maximum cooperation.

T2 & T3 were against the introduction of the programme since it takes away the attention of pupils' whenever they see the food vendors and immediately they are fed, they disappear hence the food is not adequate and sufficiently supplied. They also observed that under aged-children are brought to school because of food who after breakfast disappears and that the whole programme is being politicized.

Based on the views of T1, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, FDO 1 & FDO 2 therefore, the study concludes that SFP is encouraging because it has helped to increase pupils' enrollment, retention and completion in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State.

Enrollment rate is influenced by SFP

In this section, the study investigated whether SFP has influenced the pupils' enrollment in primary schools. The result shows that Enrollment rate has been influenced by SFP. In an interview with both staff of Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State as represented in:

T1-T8, FDO 1-2, FGD 1-4 who were of the view that SFP has greatly influenced pupils' enrollment as the feeding programme has helped increased enrollment rate because when food is provided, more pupils' rushed to school without missing classes compared to when there was no SFP when classes were very scanty.

Thus, based on the views of T1-T8, FDO 1 and 2, the study concludes that pupils' enrollment rate has been influenced by SFP in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State. To buttress on this further, secondary data obtained from Kaduna State School Census on the pupils' enrolment within the years under review was presented in table 10 below:

Table 10: Public Primary School Enrollment

LGA	2015/2016	2017	2018/2019
Soba	68778	54598	87224
Zaria	94617	73711	125720

Source: Kaduna State Annual School Census Report (2015-2019)

Table 10 above provide us with the statistics of public primary school enrolment of three academic sessions of the two LGA under study. According to the table, Soba LGA had 68,778 enrolled pupils in 2015/16 academics session the number decreased to 54,598 in 2017 session, in 2018/19 it rose to 87,224, while Zaria registered 94,617 pupils in 2015/16 decreased to 73,711 in 2017 session, and rose to 125,720/2018/19 session.

Evidence from the personal interview with school head teachers and the PTA revealed that there were recorded cases of dropout pupils coming back into the system as indicated by interviewee particularly are at higher primary school level where SFP does apply and not really at all levels. Thus, we can say that the SFP has not significantly been able to bring dropout pupils back into the school system but has enrol a significant number of out of school population into the public primary school system.

4.2 Test of Hypothesis

Ho i. School Feeding Programme has no significant effect on pupils' enrollment in Soba and Zaria Local Government Areas of Kaduna State.

Table 11: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.527 ^a	.278	.272	1.050	1.639

a. Predictors: (Constant), Food has improved nutritional status of pupils', Food is sufficiently supplied, Food is regularly supplied

b. Dependent Variable: Enrollment increased significantly since the introduction of School Feeding Programme

Source: Researchers Computation, 2021

The coefficient of determination (R^2) in table 5.26 shows that the independent variables accounted for about 27.8% of variations in the dependent variable while the remaining were captured by the residual. Also, in table 5.25, the result shows that the value of Durbin-Watson statistics is 1.639 which implies that the residuals of the model are independently distributed. Therefore, the model has no problem of autocorrelation.

Overall Model Fitness Test

Table 12: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	158.753	3	52.918	48.037	.000 ^b
	Residual	413.099	375	1.102		
	Total	571.852	378			

a. Dependent Variable: Enrollment increased significantly since the introduction of School Feeding Programme

b. Predictors: (Constant), Food has improved nutritional status of pupils', Food is sufficiently supplied, Food is regularly supplied

Source: Researchers Computation, 2021

To test for the overall model fitness, we run the analysis of variance (ANOVA). The result in table 5.27 shows that the p. value of F-statistics is significant at 1% level of significance. This implies that the model fits the data.

Table 13: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.017	.161		12.534	.000
	Food is sufficiently supplied	.244	.049	.264	4.963	.000
	Food is regularly supplied	.132	.051	.144	2.608	.009
	Food has improved nutritional status of pupils'	.224	.044	.252	5.040	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Enrollment increased significantly since the introduction of School Feeding Programme

Source: Researchers Computation, 2021

Table 13 shows the coefficients of the result. It shows that efficient food supply has positive and significant effect on pupils' enrolment at `1% level of significance in Soba and Zaria LGA of Kaduna State. A unit increase in sufficient

food supply causes pupils' enrolment to increase by about 0.244. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that sufficient food supply has significant effect on pupils' enrolment in Soba and Zaria LGA of Kaduna State.

The result also shows that regular food supply has positive and significant effect on pupils' enrolment at 1% level of significance in Soba and Zaria LGA of Kaduna State. A unit increase in regular food supply causes pupils' enrolment to increase by about 0.132. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that regular food supply has significant effect on pupils' enrolment in Soba and Zaria LGA of Kaduna State.

The result further shows that improved nutritional status of pupils' has positive and significant effect on pupils' enrolment at 1% level of significance in Soba and Zaria LGA of Kaduna State. A unit increase in improved nutritional status of pupils' causes pupils' enrolment to increase by about 0.224. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that improved nutritional status of pupils' has significant effect on pupils' enrolment in Soba and Zaria LGA of Kaduna State.

5. Summary of Findings

From the discussion of results, the study established the following:

- i. The Kaduna State Government is the only stake holder, and administrator who regulate the activities of the SFP without the interference of external stake holders.
- ii. The implementation of the programme is only done by the government alone, apart from external source of contribution.
- iii. The school feeding programme did not cut across all the public primary schools in the 23 Local Government Areas in the State.

The findings from the test of Hypothesis revealed that table 12 shows Beta Value of 0.660 and P- Value of 0.000. School Feeding Programme has significant effect on pupils' enrollment in Soba and Zaria LGAs with a P. value of 0.00 and beta value. This finding is consistent with the findings of Aliyu, (2015) where he found out that there is a progressive increase in the rate of enrollment which implies that more school age children were enrolled in the years under review. The findings of the study is related to the findings of Kidane, (2012) who found out that, SFP brought positive and significant effect with regards to pupils' enrollment and therefore concluded that effort to improve pupils' enrollment and

reduce drop out needs to be based on an in-depth understanding of the specific barriers to education that reduces access to education.

6. Recommendation

Based on the findings of the study, the followings are recommended:

- i. The School Feeding Programme should be sustained. The study therefore concluded that the SFP should not only be sustained by the Kaduna State Government in other to enhance the achievement of UBE Programme but also that other stakeholders should collaborate or actively contribute towards the effectiveness of the School Feeding Programme to ensure that,
- ii. The implementation of the programme should not be left with government alone, but communities and well-meaning individuals are involved so as to achieve the objective of education for all is the responsibility of all the UBE programme not only in Kaduna State but to other states of the federation. (Stakeholders i.e. Philanthropist, Business organizations, NGO's and so on). This is because the external source of contribution will further ensure effectiveness and sustainability of the programme.
- iii. The study recommended that in order to encourage pupils' enrollment and to achieve the objectives of Universal Basic Education Programme, government should put concerted effort to extend the school feeding programme to all public primary schools cutting across the 23 Local Government Areas in the State.

References

- Adelman, H. (2009). *School Feeding as a transfer Programme; New perspective*.
- Akanbi, G.O & Alayande, E. (2011). Home Grown School Feeding and Health Programme in Nigeria: An Innovative Approach to Boosting Enrollment in Public Primary Schools. A Study of Osun State 2002 - 2010. The African Symposium: *An online journal of African Education Research Network* Vol. 11 No. 2.
- Alabi, A.T. (2015). Evaluation of the Impact of Universal Basic Education Process on Primary School Enrollment in Kwara State. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Research and Education*, 4(1), 12-13.

- Aliyu, O. A. (2015). *Impact assessment of the universal Basic Education policy on School Enrollment in selected Local Government Areas of Kwara State*. Public Policy and Administration Research. 5(1). ISSN 2224-5731.
- Ayoola. R. A (2014). *Impact Evaluation of School Feeding Programme in Osun State Primary Schools*.
- Bishop, G. (1989). *Alternative strategies for Education*. London: Macmillan publishers Ltd.
- Cable News Network (2018). en.m.wikipedia.org
- Collins English Dictionary. (2021). Retrieved from www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary.
- Dayour, F. (2015). Effect of the National School Feeding on Pupils' Enrollment, Attendance and Retention. A Case Study of Nyoglo of the Savelugu-Nantong Municipality, Ghana. *British Journal of Education and Behavioral Sciences*, 5(3): 341-353.
- Easton, D. (1965). "An approach to the analysis of political systems," World Politics.
- Federal Republic of Nigeria, (2004). *National Policy on Education* (4th.ed).
- Federal Ministry of Education (2016). *National Guidelines for School Meals Planning and Implementation*. Abuja, Nigeria.
- Food and Agriculture organization (FAO). (2008). *The State of Food insecurity in the world*. Rome: FAO.
- Hildrette. J. S (2015). *The effectiveness of School Feeding Programme to learner's Nutritional Status and academic Performance*. Della Paz National High School.
- Jumare, D. M. (2020). Effect of SFP on Enrollment and Retention of Public Primary School Pupils' in Selected Local Governments in Kaduna State, Nigeria. *Gombe Journal of Administration and Management*.
- Kaduna State Annual School Census Report, 2017.
- Kaduna State Annual School Census Report, 2019.
- Kaduna State Ministry of Education (2017) Annual School Census Report 2016/17, Government printers, Kaduna.
- Kaduna State Ministry of Education (2016) Annual School Census Report 2015/16, Government printers, Kaduna.
- Kamau, A. M. (2015). *Effect of school feeding programme on the pre-school children's performance in number work activities*, in Kenya. (M.Ed. Thesis). University of Nairobi Kenya.

- Kihia, M.J (2017). *Determinants of Children's Enrollment in selected Pre-schools in Inia-Ini Zone, Nyer South Sub-Country, Kenya. (M.Ed. Thesis).* Kenyatta University.
- Krejcie, R. V & Morgan, D. W (1970). *Determining sample size for a finite population.* Retrieved from Kenpro.org/sample-size-determining on 30th July, 2015.
- National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) (2019), *Social Statistics in Nigeria, Federal Republic of Nigeria, Abuja, Nigeria.*
- NEPAD, (2005). *NEPAD School Feeding Programme: Annual operating plan.* Accra: NEPAD.
- NEPAD, (2009). *"New Partnership for Africa's Development. Home-Grown School Feeding Programme: A Concept.* <http://www.africaunion.org>.
- Nwana, O.C. (2000). *Introduction to Educational research.* Ibadan; Heinemann Educational book Ltd.
- OECD (2009), "Student Enrolment in Tertiary Education", in *OECD Regions at a Glance 2009*, OECD Publishing, Paris. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1787/reg_glance-2009-9-en
- Olumuyiwa. S, Falade, et-al (2012) *School Feeding Programme in Nigeria: The Nutritional Status of Pupils in a Public Primary School in Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. Food and Nutrition Sciences Journal*, 2012, Vol 3, pp596-605
- Oyefade S.A. (2015). *Administration of Home Grown School Feeding & Health Programme in Osun State.* Unpublished MPA Long Essay, Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Administration, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.
- Patrick. J. M (2013). *The impact of Chiles School Feeding Programme on Education outcomes. Economics of Education Review. Journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/econedurev. 32. 122-139*
- Samuel, H. N (2016). *Assessment of the School Feeding Programme in Ghana: A study of Primary Schools in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district in the central region of Ghana. International journal of research in social sciences.* 4(2):13-28.
- Sapru. R. K (2013). *Administrative theories and management thought.* PHI learning private limited Delhi-110092. 2013.
- Senge, P. (2006). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization* (re. ed.). New York, NY: Currency/Doubleday.
- Soba & Zaria LGA, (2020). *Local Government Areas, Kaduna State, Nigeria.*

- Tomlinson, A. (2007). *School Feeding In East and Southern Africa: Improving Food Sovereignty or Photo Opportunity?* EQUINET Discussion Paper No 46. Medical Research Council. [Http: //www.equinet africa.org](http://www.equinet africa.org). (Accessed on 30 June, 2018).
- UBEC, (2004). *The Compulsory, Free and Universal Basic Education Act, 2004 and other related matters*. Abuja: UBEC Retrieved 10 July, 2013. Available at: <http://www.nassnig.org/nass/acts.php>.
- UNICEF (2005): *Kenya: Regional disparities threaten progress towards education for all*. Retrieved January 3, 2013 from http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/kenya_newsline.html
- UNICEF (2006). *Information fact sheet*. p. 2. United Nation Development Programme (2003). Human Development Report. New York.
- UNESCO, (2004). *Guidelines to Develop and Implement School Feeding Programme that Improve Education*. <http://www.unesco.org/education/fresh>.(Accessed on 25th June, 2018).
- UNESCO, (2005). *Challenges of implementing free Primary Education in Kenya: Assessment Report UNESCO, Nairobi Office*.
- Vespoor, A. M (2008). *At the Crossroads: Choices for secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Food Programme, (2019). *The Impact of School Feeding Programmes*. Retrieved from www.wfp.org.
www.kenpro.org/sample-size-determining

Effect of the Training Needs on Labour Turnover in Federal University of Technology, Minna and Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai, Niger State, Nigeria.

Sani Yusuf¹, S. B. Abdulkareem 2 & H. A. Yusuf³

1. Registry Department, Federal University of Technology, Minna.
ysani55@gmail.com / yusufsani55@futminna.edu.ng

08034681062 08056381974

2. S. B. Abdulkareem & Hamza, A. Yusuf 3
Department of Public Administration, A. B. U, Zaria.

Abstract

The increasing incidence of employee turnover especially among recently trained staff in Federal University of Technology, Minna and Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University (IBBU), Lapai has become an issue of concern to the Management of the Universities. This paper sought to examine the effect of training needs assessment on employee turnover in these universities. The study adopted survey research method. The population of the study was 2010. The sample size was determined using Yamani formula and the sample size was 305. A stratified sampling technique was adopted. Questionnaire was administered, collected and analyzed using descriptive statistical analysis and Chi-square to test the null hypothesis. The findings established that training needs assessment has a significant positive effect on employee turnover. The study recommends that training needs assessment should be conducted by the relevant Departments to actually determine the gap that exist and required to be bridged by training in order to reduce the incidence of high turnover

Keywords: Human Capital, training needs, training need assessment, employee turnover.

Introduction

Human Capital is considered the most critical factor, and contribute to the success of any knowledge-driven, dynamic and versatile organization like the University. Organizations must develop and constantly improve the capacity of their employees in order to accelerate the attainment of their objectives. The world is gradually being a knowledge-based economy (Williams, 2016) and as a result employees should be managed appropriately to enhance their creativity, innovativeness, intuition, loyalty and quality which gives the organization the competitive edge over competitors (Tan & Nasurdin, 2011).

Human Capital Development has become an accepted phenomenon in organizations. In universities, staff development programmes are considered very critical. They are planned activities which focus on increasing and enlarging the

capabilities, improving the technical and conceptual skills of workers so that they can possess the necessary abilities to handle complex situations, better perform their jobs and minimize turnover. Through renewal activities, university workers avoid becoming rustic.

Human capital development in universities should be geared towards acquiring relevant or sharpening the capabilities of workers required in performing various obligations, tasks, and functions associated with or related to their present or future expected roles. The benefits of human capital development of university workforce have been identified to include increase in knowledge, skills and the development of positive attitude to work, increased personal and organizational productivity, and quality services delivery.

In Nigeria, employee turnover posed a lot of fundamental issues in many organizations. A recent estimate have shown that in the year 2012, more than 20,000 Professionals, including Medical Personnel, teaching staff from various universities and colleges leave the African continent annually to look for greener pastures in western countries such as United States, Canada, Germany and United Kingdom, among others (Agency Reporter, 2012).

Records obtained from the Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC) showed that Nigeria has 40 Federal Universities, 44 State Universities and 68 Private Universities (NUC, 2017). It is worthy of note that the statistics show an increase of thirty four universities from one hundred and eighteen in 2009 to one hundred and fifty two in 2017. This therefore, signify that the employee of university have more potential employment opportunities. However, some tertiary institutions continue to experience staffing shortages (Shu'ara, 2010; Clark & Ausukuya, 2013) losing qualified members who leave for higher ranked tertiary institutions (Satope & Akintunde, 2013). The labour turnover continues despite successive government administration attempts to resolve employee discontent.

One of the training objectives of FUT, Minna and IBBU, Lapai states that a training and manpower development should be relevant to the employee's job, future career and personal development (FUT & IBBUL, 2016 & 2017). The training should take into account the qualification and experience the employee required to perform his duties. However, there are significant number of staff in these universities that were released for training in various institutions without recourse to the relevance of the training to their schedules.

This research examines the effect of training needs assessment on labour turnover in Federal University of Technology, Minna and IBBU, Lapai for the period 2008 to 2017. The null hypotheses to be tested states that: H_{01} : Training needs assessment has no significant effect on labour turnover in FUT, Minna and IBBU, Lapai.

The study is of immense importance to all managers in charge of human resources, potential human resources managers, the University Governing Council, Board of Directors in formulating human resources policies and decisions affecting employees, corporate organizations and scholars. To managers and potential human resources managers, it equips them with the necessary information and requisite skills of managing people in both public and private organizations as well as the impact of labour turnover to the organization and the necessary means of keeping their trained manpower.

The study covers a period of ten years, from 2008 to 2017. This is because the period in question witnessed release of a number of staff on various trainings among whom many also completed their programmes within the scheduled time. Their resumption of duty was followed by a number of disputes with their various managements due to the inability of the Universities in question to honour their request for promotion, advancement or change of cadre as the case may be hence the trainings. The choice of FUT, Minna and IBBU, Lapai is justified on the outstanding academic performance and applicants' interest as specialized universities in the country both at federal as well as state levels.

Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

Training Needs

According to Okoh (1988), training need is the first major step in the whole process of organizing training programmes for employees. He stressed further that the training needs to the organization have to be assessed if an organization is to work out a training programme. It is done by analyzing jobs – (Job Description and Job Specification) and the setting of performance standard. This performance standard is usually measured through the process of performance appraisal, which usually will reveal every worker's deficiency and the need for training.

Training need basically is any shortfall in employee performance, or potential performance, which can be remedied by appropriate training (Cole, 2002). There are many ways of overcoming deficiencies in human performance at work, and training is only one of them. It is important to recognize this fact, since sometimes training staff are asked to meet needs which ought to be dealt with in some other way, such as improving pay, replacing machinery or simplifying procedures.

Cole (2004) defined training need as any shortfall in terms of employee's knowledge, understanding, skill and attitudes against what is required by the job. All jobs require specific skills, attitude and knowledge and the more complex the job, the higher the requirement in terms of skill, knowledge, attitude etc. Training need attempts to establish who needs training, what these training needs are and the possible ways, to ensure the achievement of these needs. Training need exists when there is an expressed deficiency in the performance of staff on the job, which presupposes that there is a set standard by which such worker's performance is measured (Anvaris, 2010). Each employee must have a job description with pre-determined standard of performance before training needs can be assessed. The reduction in performance is traceable to lack of a given knowledge or skill or the desired work attitude towards job performance.

The essence of evaluating training needs in an organization is to provide an objective analysis of the organization's training requirement for effective utilization of its human resources. In doing this, two basic questions are to be measured; (a) who, if any, needs training? (b) What training do they need? Training should not be seen merely as a means of satisfying workers only, but must take into cognizance the needs of the organization. Training and development need varies from one organization to another. It is not only directed at positions at different levels in the organizational hierarchy but also at individual since their requirements, aspirations, background and potential are peculiar to each of them (Armstrong, 2017). So therefore, training and development should be geared to these specific and individual needs as well as towards achieving organizational goals and objectives.

Okoh (1988) posited that conduct of training need should reveal data on; a. Organizational structure, markets, products or services and manpower needs etc. b. Job analysis (Job description and Job specification) leadership style and communication. c. Appraisal records, training records, test results, records of appraisal interviews and attitude surveys etc. With such data, the trainer will be

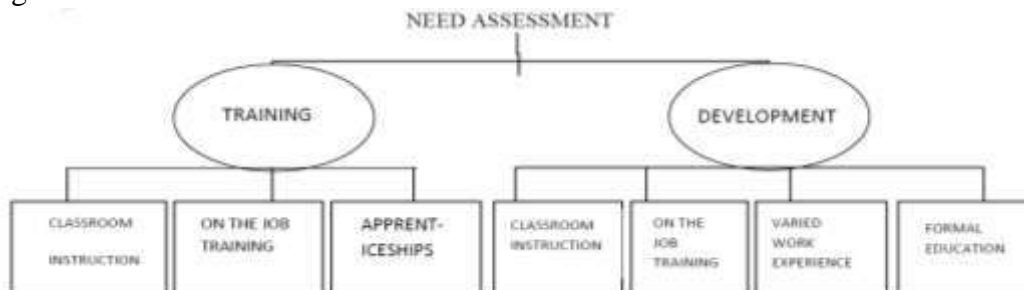
in a position to know the shortfall in current and potential needs of the organization and the employees. The collection of information on training needs can be done by several methods such as the analysis of recorded data, use of questionnaires, and attitude surveys, interviewing of employees, direct observation of job performance of employees group, discussion of current work problems and the analysis of work diaries kept by establishment division. Ubeku (1975), stressed that training needs of any organization is basically divided into two categories both of which are inter-dependent. They are; a. Organizational training needs; b. Task training needs; c. Individual training needs.

Training Needs Assessment

A training needs assessment is an analysis designed to determine the type of training needed by employees and the best way to implement that training. Assessments can be used to address training shortfalls, to develop new training programs, and to improve the quality of training to make it more effective and valuable for employees. Outside consultants can conduct assessments and personnel management departments can also perform their own.

However, before the creation of training and development programmes, human resources managers should perform a needs assessment in which they will determine who among the employees needed to be trained or developed and what type of skills or knowledge they need to acquire (Jones et al., 2000).

Fig 1



Source: Gareth R. Jones: Contemporary Management, Second edition, 2000, p.364

There are different types of training and development as identified by Jones et al., 2000 and these include classroom instruction, on-the-job training, and

apprenticeship while development covers class instruction, off-the-job training, on-the-job training, varied work experiences and formal education.

There are several stages involved in a training needs assessment (Jones et al., 2000). The goal is to identify the specific needs of an environment, workplace, or department and to find ways to meet these needs. Needs can include specific skills that employees need to succeed along with an identification of the function of employees. If an employee's function is not well defined or there is a dispute about an employee's job description and role with the organization, it can be challenging to determine training needs so that the employee can work effectively.

Employees themselves can be involved in a training needs assessment. They may respond to surveys and interviews to explain what they do and how they do it and to describe areas where they feel like they have not received enough training. Employees may express unfamiliarity with anything from organizational policies to how to safely operate equipment. Supervisors also play a role, providing input on what employees should be doing and how well they are completing assigned tasks.

As a list of needs is generated, a plan can be developed to provide people with training in these areas so that they can do their jobs. A training needs assessment can result in the development of a better employee manual, training modules that people can complete to acquire new skills, or the decision to send employees to training programs to develop skills that they will be able to apply to their work (Madubueze, 2015).

At the end of a training needs assessment, employers should have identified what kind of training is needed, who needs the training and who will provide it, and how it will be provided. Additional considerations can include the timing of training along with the location. The assessment can benefit current employees who require more training as well as new employees being trained from the ground up. It can also be used to develop a standardized training program that can be used in other departments, subsidiaries, and franchises to ensure consistent and efficient performance.

Labour Turnover

There are quite several views about the concept of turnover with variations occurring as a matter of semantics. For instance, the Bureau of Statistics (2008) which defines labour turnover as the “rate at which an employer gains and losses employees, also describes it as how long employees tend to stay or the rate of traffic through the revolving door”. Staff turnover as explained by Oredein and Alao (2010) is the voluntary or involuntary termination of an individual’s employment with a given organization” labour turnover as used by Abassi and Hollman (2000) is the rotation of workers around the labour market, between forms, jobs and occupations, and between the states of employment and unemployment. In (Wood, 2005) expression, “Each time a position is voluntary or involuntary created, a new employee might be replaced this replacement cycle is known as turnover.

The movement of employee from one job to another either in the same industry or outside the industry, it is always traced with a reason which can be one or combination of substantial or procedural matters (Oginni & Fasayiku, 2012) and it is contingent upon prevailing economic situation in the environment. Labour turnover is the flow of manpower into and out of an organization (Fapohunda, 1980). The inflow of manpower is referred to accession and the outflow as separation (Leaving) (Ologunde, Asaolu & Elumlade, 2005). Satope and Akintunde (2013) assert that Labour turnover must do with the ease of migration of labour between jobs or geographical locations.

Labour mobility as other people refer to has to do with the ability of workers to change jobs between different firms, different occupations, different locations or different countries (John, 2002). There are two main types of labour mobility which are geographical and occupational mobility. Geographical mobility concerns movement of people between regions while occupational mobility involves movement between jobs (Jorgen & Regina, 2003). These two types could be further broken down into four based on the definition given above, which are job change but no change in occupation or residence, occupational change but no change in residence, geographical move to a job but no change in the occupation, geographical migration accompanied by a change in occupation (McConnel, Brue & Macpherson, 2010).

A certain amount of labour turnover in an organization is inevitable. Illness, accidents, aging, death and a variety of personal reasons bring about separation (Oluguide, 2005). He argued that too much labour turnover can severely reduce productivity, as workers are perpetual learners, new to the organization all the time; demoralize incumbents and damage an organization's public image thereby adversely affecting her corporate existence. It implies therefore that management should be concerned about the level of labour turnover in their respective organization, determine the degree of it that is healthy or unhealthy for the organization.

High labour turnover is dangerous as it affects the growth and productivity of an establishment. Scholars believe that a core of experienced workers is necessary for the success of an organization. For experience on the job and in the organization, workers must be stable (Hackett, 1979). Organizations are highly concerned about employee's leaving because it is generally very costly to select and train new employees to replace those who left. There is a general situation of discontent pervading the entire labour scene in Nigeria.

Labour Turnover can be referred to as movement of employees from one organization to another as a result of lack of job satisfaction, low pay, lack of career progression or other fringe benefits. It is believe that training leads to better skilled and productive manpower that are more employable in other organizations most especially in universities. Many universities were established in recent years therefore, many employees moved freely from old to new universities where they can achieve their job satisfaction.

The Conceptual Model and Proposition Development

The conceptual model for this study is that developed by Peterson (2004) which corresponds to the variables of the current study. The model of Peterson (2004) highlights the part played by the human resource management and other internal factors (e.g .human capital practices) over which the organization has large control in influencing the intentions of employees to leave or stay in work. Peterson (2004) confirmed that intentions to leave ultimately lead to actual turnover, and that intention, goals, commitment, and satisfaction are factors over which the organization has substantial control and over which human capital can play a critical role in controlling it.

There are factors that are external to the organization, and which the organization has no control over (e.g. socialization). The focus of this model is on internal organizational behaviors that the organization has substantial control over. Many studies in the field of turnover intention have been focused on job satisfaction as a mediating variable (Poon, 2004; Liu *et al.*, 2010; Kuo *et al.*, 2014; Huang & Su, 2016). This meaning that the focus has not been on career satisfaction (Kong *et al.*, 2016). There is a marked difference between career satisfaction and job satisfaction; career satisfaction is broader and more comprehensive than job satisfaction; in career satisfaction case, the employee is satisfied with all aspects of the career such as promotion, administrative decisions, achievement and income (Chan & Mai, 2015), while job satisfaction is associated with the work environment (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015). In the current study, human capital practices were selected as an independent variable and career satisfaction as a mediating variable, because they're managed by human capital and it conforms to the model of Peterson. Fig. 1 shows the research model of the current study.

Based on the influence of independent variables on turnover intention as discussed above, the following conceptual frame work was proposed showing the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable.

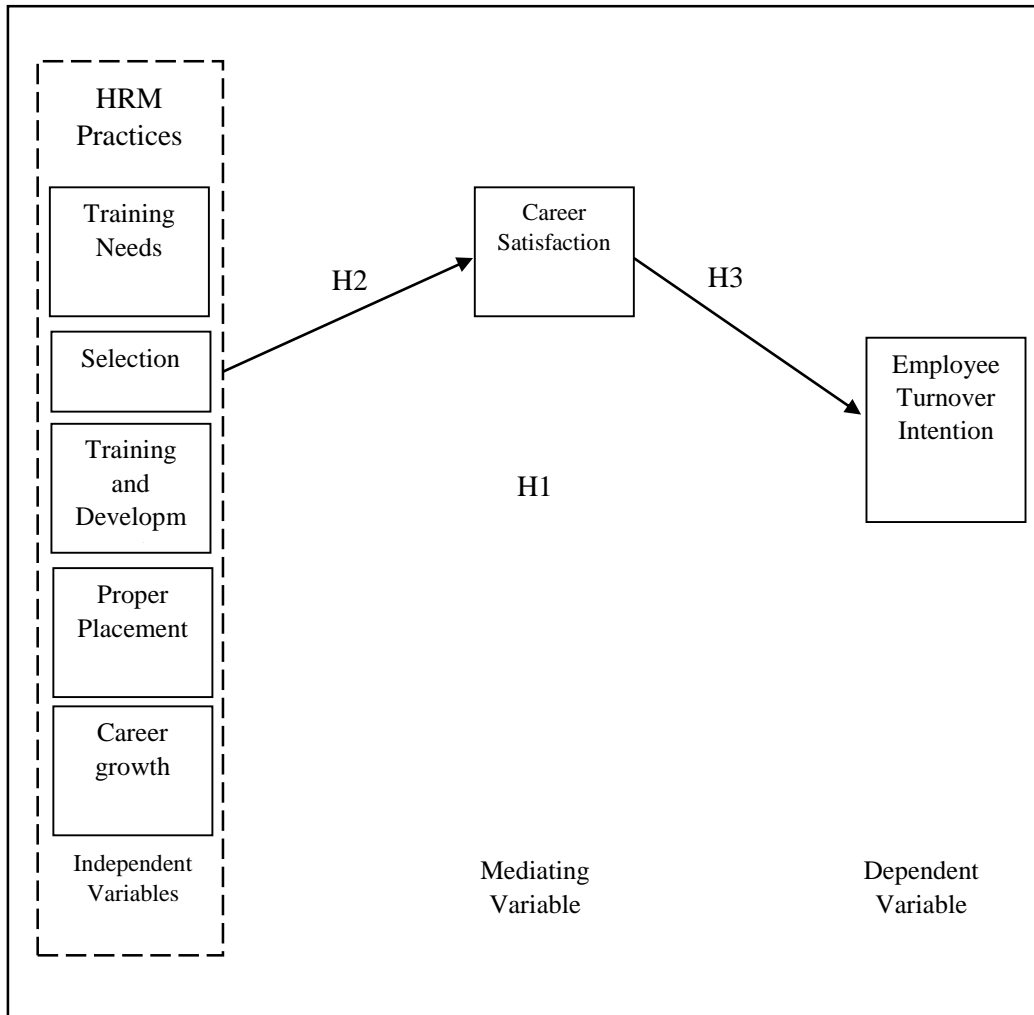


Figure 2.2: Source: Field data (2019)

Methodology

The study employed the descriptive cross-sectional survey research design. This survey aimed at eliciting information on the effects of training needs on employee turnover. The target population consisted of all academic and non-academic staff of Federal University of Technology, Minna and Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai totaling about two thousand and ten (2010) workers in both

universities. The sample size was determined using Yamane (1967) formula. The formula for the computation of the sample size took into consideration: chi-square for one (1) degree of freedom, the population size, and the population proportion set at 0.5 and degree of accuracy set at 0.05. In all, 305 employees were arrived at. The systematic random sampling technique was used in selecting sample respondents. The main instrument used for data collection were structured questionnaire. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as central tendencies: mean, mode and standard deviations, as well as frequencies and percentages. Additional Chi-square was conducted to establish the relationship between the studied variables.

Discussion and Findings

A total of three hundred and five questionnaires were administered to the Respondents of both Universities. Out of the three hundred and five questionnaires administered two hundred and ninety were returned giving 95.0 percent rate of returns. Similarly, from the two hundred and ninety questionnaire returned two hundred and fifty were duly completed giving 81.9 percent rate of response.

Training Needs and Labour Turnover in FUT, Minna and IBBU, Lapai

To measure the relationship between training needs and labour turnover in both universities, determinations such as performance appraisal, analysis of job requirement, organizational analysis and survey of human resources affect labour turnover.

Responses on performance appraisal of university workforce.

Respondents were asked to express their opinion on whether employee's work is measured against the performance standard or objectives established for his or her job in the universities. This is recorded on the table below:

Table 1: Respondent’s opinion on performance appraisal.

Option	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agree	20	8%
Agree	70	28%
Undecided	2	0.8%
Disagree	100	40%
Strongly Disagree	58	23.2%
Total	250	100%

Source: Survey Research, 2019.

From the above table twenty (20) respondents representing four (8) percent strongly agreed, seventy (70) respondents representing twenty-eight (28) percent also agree with the assertion. Two (2) representing 0.8 percent were undecided while one hundred (100) respondents representing forty (40) percent and fifty eight (58)/23.2 percent disagreed and strongly disagreed with the view point. This analyses clearly indicate that majority of the Respondents agree that there are no training needs before employees are released on training and development in their respective universities.

Responses on employee knowledge required for job description.

Respondents were asked to express their opinion on whether skills or knowledge specified in the appropriate job description are examined and employees without necessary skills or knowledge became candidates for training in the universities as indicated in the table 2 below!

Table 2: Respondent’s opinion on knowledge required for job description

Option	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agree	10	4%
Agree	25	10%
Undecided	5	2%
Disagree	96	38.4%
Strongly Disagree	114	45.6%
Total	250	100%

Source: Survey Research, 2019.

From table 2, ten (10) respondents representing four (4) percent, twenty-five (25) respondents representing ten (10) percent both strongly agreed with the view point. Five (5) respondents representing 2 percent of the respondents were undecided while ninety-six (96) representing 38.4 percent, one hundred and fourteen (114) representing forty-five point six (45.6) percent of the respondents disagreed with the assertion. This analyses clearly indicate that majority of the respondents are not satisfied with the nature of performance appraisal performed in their respective universities.

Responses on organizational analysis.

Respondents were asked to express their opinion on the effectiveness of the organizations and their successes in meeting goals to determine where differences exist to enable them identify those that require training in the universities. Their responses are represented on table 3 below!

Table 3: Respondent's opinion on organizational analysis

Option	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agree	15	6%
Agree	68	27.2%
Undecided	14	5.6%
Disagree	105	42%
Strongly Disagree	48	19.2%
Total	250	100%

Source: Survey Research, 2019.

From table 3, fifteen (15) respondents representing six (6) percent as well as sixty-eight (68) representing twenty seven point two (27.2) percent agreed on the need of organizational analysis. Fourteen (14) representing 5.6 percent were undecided. One hundred and five (105) representing 42 percent and forty-eight (48) representing nineteen point two (19.2) percent of the respondents disagreed. This analyses clearly indicates that majority of the respondents disagreed with the method of organizational analysis in our universities of study.

Responses on Survey of Human Resources.

Respondents perception on problems they are experiencing in their work schedule and actions, they believe need to be taken in order to solve them are expressed on table 4 below!

Table 4: Respondent's opinion on survey of human resources.

Option	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agree	13	5.2%
Agree	68	27.2%
Undecided	14	5.6%
Disagree	107	42.8%
Strongly Disagree	48	19.2%
Total	250	100%

Source: Survey Research, 2019.

From table 4 thirteen (13) respondents representing five point two (5.2) percent, sixty-eight (68) respondents representing twenty-seven point two (27.2) percent both agreed with the assertion. Fourteen (14) representing 5.6 percent were undecided; while one hundred and seven (107) representing 42.8 percent and forty-eight (48) representing 19.2 percent both disagreed and strongly disagreed with the assertion. This analyses clearly indicates that majority of the respondents were not contacted about their problems or deficiencies before selected for training and development in their respective universities.

H₀: Training needs assessment has no significant effect on employee turnover in FUT, Minna and IBBU, Lapai

From hypothesis one above the independent variable is training needs while the dependent variable is labour turnover. Table 1.5 and 1.6 below present the responses.

Table 5: Respondents Cumulative Responses On training Needs (Independent Variable)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Agree	10	4	4	4
Agree	20	8	8	12
Undecided	2	0.8	0.8	12.8
Disagree	108	43.2	43.2	56
Strongly disagree	110	44	44	100
Total	250	100.0	100.0	

Source: Survey Research, 2019

Table 6: Respondents Cumulative Responses On Labour turnover (Dependent Variable)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Agree	106	42.4	42.4	42.4
Agree	110	44	44	86.4
Undecided	4	16	16	88
Disagree	20	8	8	96
Strongly disagree	10	4	4	100
Total	20	100.0	100	

Source: Survey Research, 2019.

For the purpose of Chi-square operations on the computer for the hypothesis's, responses for independent variable (training needs) and responses for dependent

variable (labour turnover) were coded using SPSS package and cross tabulated the responses to produce the Chi-square output presented on Table 7 below:

Table 7: Chi – Square Test for Hypotheses One

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	564.570 ^a	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	463.974	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	210.616	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	250		

Source: Survey Research, 2019.

From the Chi-square output on Table 7 above, hypothesis testing procedures are as follows: Chi-square calculated value is the Pearson Chi-square value which is = 564.570. Degree of Freedom (df) = 16. Level of significance (α) = 0.05. Critical or table value at 16 df and α value of 0.05 = 26.296

Decision Rule

Accept null hypothesis (H_0) if X^2 calculated value is less than X^2 critical (tabulated) value. Reject null hypothesis (H_0). If X^2 calculated value is greater than X^2 critical (tabulated) value.

Comparison

Comparing the Chi-square calculated value of 564.570 with Chi-square critical (tabulated) value of 26.296 it could be deduced clearly that the X^2 calculated value is greater than the X^2 tabulated value as such the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected. Because the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected it could be concluded therefore that there is a significant relationship between training needs (independent variable) and labour turnover (dependent variable), meaning that lack of training needs can lead to labour turnover.

Table: 8: Analysis of Voluntary Labour Turnover in FUT, Minna from 2008 – 2017.

YEAR	ABSCONDMENT	RESIGNATION	CHANGE CADRE
2008	13	11	21
2009	14	9	22
2010	18	10	28
2011	9	6	13
2012	9	11	12
2013	10	8	8
2014	8	5	22
2015	12	9	10
2016	13	7	20
2017	16	11	25
TOTAL	122	87	181

Source: University Annual Report 2008 - 2018

Table 9. Analysis of Voluntary Labour Turnover in IBBU, Lapai from 2008 – 2017.

YEAR	ABSCONDMENT	RESIGNATION	CHANGE CADRE
2008	3	2	10
2009	2	3	9
2010	3	3	16
2011	1	2	11
2012	0	2	6
2013	1	4	8
2014	6	5	18
2015	2	4	10
2016	3	8	8
2017	7	5	7
TOTAL	28	38	97

Source: University Annual Report, 2008 - 2018

During the period under review 2008 – 2017, a total number of 209 staff left Federal University of Technology, Minna and 66 left Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai voluntarily. Also about 278 change their cadre in

both universities with FUT, Minna having 181 and IBBUL 97. Most of those that change cadre from Clerical, Executives and Technical Officers to Administrative, Accountant and Engineering cadre or even to Academic were well experience in those various fields.

Most of those awarded Study Fellowship by the Universities to pursued additional qualifications in various disciplines refused to return after completion of their studies. These are mostly pursuing either Msc or PhD degree programmes. This is to say that they got better offers in other universities or some International Agencies/ Federal Government Establishments. Impliedly, the Non-teaching staff with M.Sc. or PhD qualifications or even junior staffs that acquire First Class or Second Class Upper degrees like the case with IBBU converted to academic due to shortage of Academic staff.

Summary of Major Findings of the Study

From the data presented and analyzed, the findings of the study revealed that there were no training needs assessment in both universities before employees were release for such training. The study also revealed that training needs analysis were not conducted to determine if a gap actually exists required to be filled through training implies there is a significant relationship between training needs assessment and labour turnover in Federal University of Technology, Minna and Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai.

Conclusion

Conclusively, despite the efforts by the different Universities management on training and manpower development, yet there still exists significant number of trainees who do not actually require some particular training. More warrisome is that even though more staff is employed by the universities, the number of those quitting the system by way of labour turnover outweighs those employed by reason of these additional qualifications.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study and the conclusions reached the following suggestions were made. The study recommend that training needs analysis should be conducted by the relevant departments and for all the employees to determine who actually requires training.

References

- Anvari, R. (2010). Personal Needs Assessment Approach in Strategic Training and Affective Commitment. *International Journal of Business and Management* Vol. 5 (7), 144 – 157.
- Armstrong, M. A. (1996). *Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice*. London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Armstrong, M. (2017). *A Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice, 14th ed.* London: Kogan.
- Bukhari, T. A. S., Saeed, M. M., and Nasir, M. (2011). 'The effect of Psychological Contract Breach on Various Employee Level Outcomes: The Moderating Role of Islamic Work Ethics and Adversity Quotient,' *African Journal of Business Management* 5 (21)
- Clark, N., & Asukuya, C., (2013) education in Nigeria News Reviewed Retrieved June 30, 2016, from <http://wenr.wes.org/2013/07/> an overview of education in Nigeria.
- Cole G.A. (1991) *Management Theory and Practice*, DP Publication Ltd, London
- Cole, G.A (2002) *Personnel and Human Resources Management*, (5th Ed) London: Continuum.
- Jones, G.R., George, J.M. and Hill, C.W.L. (2000) 'Contemporary Management'. New York, Irwin and McGraw Hills.
- Juhdi, N., Pa'wan, F., & Hansaram, R. M. K. (2013). HR practices and turnover intention: the mediating roles of organizational commitment and organizational engagement in a selected region in Malaysia. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(15), 3002–3019
- Madubueze, M.C. Ananti; M.O Onyekwelu, R. U & Okpalibeve N.U (2015). Nigerian's local government system: A study of Ayamelum local government area, Anambra state. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences* issn (paper) 2224-5766 (online) Vol. 5, No.8, 2015
- National Universities Commission, (2017), Nigerian Universities. Retrieved January 7, 2017 from <http://nuc.edu.ng/> [Accessed on 7 January, 2017]
- Sanderson, A; Phua, V.A & Herda, D. (2000). *The American faculty pool*. Chicago: National opinion center.
- Satope D.F., Akintunde T.S., (2013); factors of labour mobility in Nigeria universities *IOSR Journal of humanities and social science* volume 11, issue 1 2013.

- Shu'ara, J (2010) Higher Education Statistics Nigeria Experience in data Collection. Being a paper presented at the UNESCO Institute of statistics workshop on education statistics in Aglophone countries, Windlock 17 – 21 October, 2010.
- Tan, C. L. & Nasuridin, A. M. (2011). Human Resource Management Practices and Organizational Innovation: Assessing the Mediating Role of Knowledge Management Effectiveness. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9(2), 155-167.
- Umar, S and Ringim, K. J., (2015). Management International Conference held at Patora Solovenia.
- Ubeku, A. K. (1985), *Personnel Management in Nigeria, Benin City*: Ehiop Publishing Corp.
- Williams, A. A & Eugene, O. A (2016). Human resources management practices and their effect on employee turnover in the hotel industry. *Global journal of human resource management Vol, 4 No. 6 Pp. 48 – 59*.
- Yeh, C. M. (2013). Tourism involvement, work engagement and job satisfaction among frontline hotel employees. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 42, 214-239.

Effects of Covid-19 on Demography of Nigerian Population: Week 10, 2020 – Week 26, 2021

Jimoh, Ihiovi Ojo¹, Awen, Benjamin Iorsue² and Ladi Jibrin³

^{1,3}Department of Local Government and Development Studies,
Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
Ihiovi2032@yahoo.com & ladijibrin@gamil.com

²Department of Business Education
Federal College of Education, Zaria
Awenbenjamin909@gmail.com

Abstract

This empirical study has been carried out to analyze the impact of covid-19 fatality on the demography of Nigeria. The study is empirical in nature and relied majorly on the report of Nigeria Center for Disease Control (NCDC) within the week 10, 2020 – week 26, 2021. The descriptive statistics shows that among the people that contracted the virus were 60.08% male and 39.92 female. Also, the fatality rate recorded as a result of covid-19 complication shows that men accounted for about 71% while, women are about 21%. This magnitude casualty recorded within the short period of our observation have negative consequence on the demography of Nigerian population. The study therefore advocates that there should be more awareness campaign on the danger pose by the covid-19 virus. More efforts should be put in place to improve our health facilities across the country in order to safe guard the demography of the Nigeria population.

Keywords: Covid-19, Complication, Population, Demography, Virus

Introduction

The outbreak of corona virus in Nigeria since March, 2020 has affected activities all over the country. People have contracted and are still contracting the virus while many have suffered sudden death. The deadly virus has change the way and manner in which people use go about their activities. The virus has invoked the concept of new normal which every sundry has to observe because of fear that they may lose their lives. Starting from China, it gradually and speedily spread to become a global issue.

Since the inception of the novel COVID-19 pandemic, economies globally have witnessed socioeconomic and financial downturn resulting to an unprecedented layoff of workers in most key sectors of the economy, especially in the Aviation, banking and transport sectors, although the real sector was affected by the high cost of raw materials, which triggered the

cost of production (Chidi & Juliet, 2021). Aside from the loss of jobs, Chidi and Juliet (2021), observe that the pandemic has also prompted a total lockdown on all social and interactive activities in Nigeria by way of shutting down the borders, suspending flights from highly infected countries, shutting down schools, worship centres, recreation and hospitality facilities like clubs and hotels, as well as restricting the inbound tourists and cancellation of festivities. Aside, the World Bank envisaged a tougher economic hardship after the pandemic, which could further deepen the economic hardship and also result in an economic recession to be faced by nations especially those in sub-Saharan African and other developing economies globally.

However, the report failed to take into consideration countries that may likely lose their active population to the coronavirus, and could as well be disastrous to economic growth and development. Other studies like Alon, Doepke, Rumsey and Terilt (2020), concentrated on the economic implication of coronavirus on gender equality, while Sumner, Hoy and Ortiz-Juarez (2020) focused on the COVID-19 on global poverty and Kurmann, Lale and Ta (2020) emphasis was on the effect of COVID-19 on United States employment and hours of work. Thus, none of these studies was able to access the demographic effect of coronavirus on population. Hence, this study therefore is out to assess the effects of covid-19 demography on the Nigerian population. To achieve the above stated objective, the question begging for answer is: what is the effect of covid-19 on the demography population of Nigeria. The study is significant to the Nigeria government and health practitioners to enable them braze efforts in finding lasting solutions to the covid-19 pandemic that has pose threat to the demography of the Nigeria population.

Literature Review

Quite some studies have been done on the socio-economic impact of coronavirus, while others have beamed a searchlight on COVID-19 pandemic and economic crisis. Ozili and Arun (2020) noted that the spread of the virus encouraged social distancing which led to the shutdown of financial markets, corporate offices, businesses, and events and that the rate of proliferation of the virus led to uncertainty and nervousness among consumers and investors.

Nkengasong and Mankoula (2020) affirmed that the spread of COVID-19 pandemic which has affected the health experts in Africa is largely linked to trade

volume and air traffic between Africa and China. However, the authors further suggest palliative to cushion the impending health challenges faced by most health workers in Africa and China. In the same vein, Gilbert et al (2020) in their study employed preparedness and vulnerability indicators to investigate the risk of importing and contracting the pandemic in highly vulnerable countries like Africa, where the health sector performance is porous. The study further identifies the highest risk countries and moderate-risk countries in Africa.

Population

A population is defined as a group of individuals of the same species living and interbreeding within a given area. Members of a population often rely on the same resources, are subject to similar environmental constraints, and depend on the availability of other members to persist over time.

Scientists study a population by examining how individuals in that population interact with each other and how the population as a whole interacts with its environment. As a tool for objectively studying populations, population ecologists rely on a series of statistical measures, known as demographic parameters, to describe that population (Lebreton et al. 1992). The field of science interested in collecting and analyzing these numbers is termed population demographics, also known as demography.

Demography

Broadly defined, demography is the study of the characteristics of populations. It provides a mathematical description of how those characteristics change over time. Demographics can include any statistical factors that influence population growth or decline, but several parameters are particularly important: population size, density, age structure, fecundity (birth rates), mortality (death rates), and sex ratio (Dodge 2006). We introduce each of these in turn. The most fundamental demographic parameter is the number of individuals within a population (Lebreton, *et al.* 1992). Population size is defined as the number of individuals present in a subjectively designated geographic range. Despite the simplicity in its concept, locating all individuals during a census (a full count of every individual) is nearly impossible, so ecologists usually estimate population size by counting individuals within a small sample area and extrapolating that sample to the larger population. Regardless of the challenges in measuring population size, it is an

important characteristic of a population with significant implications for the dynamics of the population as a whole (Lebreton, *et al.* 1992).

Empirical Review

Lee and Warner (2005) conducted a study on the effect of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) on the Hong Kong economy by focusing on the hotel sector. The study used both primary and secondary data analysis. The result of the study affirmed that SARS has a negative impact on the Hong Kong economy and other related Asian countries. In the same vein, Ozili (2020) conducted a study on the Covid-19 pandemic and economic crisis by focusing on the Nigerian experience and structural causes. The study affirmed that the spillover of the Covid-19 pandemic into Nigeria coupled with declining global oil prices could result in external shocks which could trigger economic crisis immediately after the pandemic. Further study.

Yusuf (2020) Exposing Empirical Links between COVID-19 Situation Report and Available Data: The Case of Nigeria Ever since the index case of COVID-19 was announced in Nigeria, the number of confirmed cases has gradually increased to 46,140 (about 4.5% of total confirmed cases in Africa) as the time of writing this article. This seemingly low number of confirmed cases has provoked heated debates among researchers. This cross-sectional study explores the Nigerian COVID-19 report to expose some links between the number of confirmed cases, testing, and some environmental conditions. The findings reveal that there is no state in Nigeria which has up to 12 confirmed cases per 10,000 population. That means, the number of confirmed COVID-19 cases is less than 0.15% of the population of people across each state in Nigeria.

Kelechi and David (2020) examines the demographic factors, attitude and knowledge of persons with special needs towards COVID-19 in Nigeria between 12th and 25th May, 2020. This cross-sectional online survey was conducted among 72 persons with special needs purposively selected from the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria. A questionnaire comprising questions on demographic information (three), knowledge (24) and attitude (28) towards COVID-19 was completed via Google forms by the participants ($r = 0.78$). There were more males (51, 70.8%) than females (21, 29.2%) and the most common age group was 34-44 years (37.5%).

Wenham et al (2020) examine the impact of the COVID-19 outbreak on the gender challenges, noting that the response to COVID-19 seems the same with previous disease outbreaks on gender. The study further affirmed that the most affected of the pandemic are the health workers who are mostly in contact with the affected persons.

Zubaida, Muhammad and Gulfaraz Khan (2020) assess population risk factors for COVID-19 deaths in Nigeria at sub-national level in order to the risk factors of covid-19 prevalence and deaths in all 6 geopolitical regions and 37 States in Nigeria using documented record from Nigeria CDC, Nigeria National Bureau of Statistics, Unicef-Nigeria multiple indicator cluster survey and the Institute of Health Metrics and Evaluation, University of Washington. They concluded that COVID-19 has disproportionately affected certain States in Nigeria. Population susceptibility factors include higher economic development but not literacy or unemployment. Death rates were mildly lower in States with higher HIV prevalence and BCG vaccination coverage.

Arinola, et al, (2021) studied the Demographic attributes of COVID-19 patients in an Infectious Disease Center of Nigeria in Olodo, Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria using descriptive cross-sectional study of COVID-19 patients whose data were collected during admission between April 27, 2020 and June 20, 2020 and analyzed their data using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Inc., USA) version 20.0 they found that among 131 patients, 58% were between age 18 and 35 years, 48.1% were employees of private establishments, and 64.1% were males. High proportion (84.3%) of the patients spent less than 14 days on admission. As at June 20, 2020, the overall COVID-19 mortality in the IDC was 0.0%.

Winifred and Genevieve (2021) examines the Demographic representation of COVID-19 social media and information engagement in Nigeria with the aimed to understand how selected demographic factors in Nigeria influenced engagement with COVID-19 pandemic information on social media. They utilized a cross-sectional survey was conducted in June 2020. Data on demography, information source and media consumption patterns, and information accuracy and responsibility were collected through snowballing technique and promotions through emails and social networking sites. They found that a total of 1127 respondents participated, 59% male, 85% aged 18–45 years, and 92.1% had an undergraduate degree or above. Most participants used social

media, especially Twitter (39.4%). About 93.1% received misinformation about COVID-19, 82.9% believed social media were the primary source of inaccurate information, while 59.7% took action to verify the accuracy of the information received on protection.

Chidi, Juliet, Mohammed and Ekundayo (2021) sought to know the demographic effects of Covid-19 among the working Populations focusing on a continental level, by looking at countries that were highly hit by the novel coronavirus pandemic, and the age range most affected by the pandemic. The findings of the study show that the ageing population is the worst hit in most of the regions, while in countries like Russia, Germany, Mexico, Iran, Ecuador, Pakistan, Brazil, Chile, and New Zealand, the active working population is mostly affected. Again, of the most COVID 19 deaths, larger percentages are males with lesser females. Hence, the government at all levels should endeavour to give adequate health care attention to the ageing population especially in the area of providing required drugs at an affordable price. Also, there is a silver lining in the post-COVID era in terms of employment generation since the active workforce in several countries is adversely affected by the COVID 19 pandemic.

Theoretical Review

In line with the reviewed literature, the study, however, followed the resilience theory propounded by Van Breda (2018). Masten (2018) defines resilience as “the potential of the manifested capacity of a dynamic system to adapt successfully to disturbances that threaten the function, survival, or development of the system”, (P. 187), whereas the American Psychological Association defines resilience as a process of bouncing back from difficult experiences and adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or significant sources of stress (APA.orgAPA.org, 2014).

The importance of the concept of resilience is derived from its direct link to the ability to effectively respond to sudden occurrences (Turenne et al., 2019). Three types of resilience are studied more often: individual, community, and national resilience. Individual resilience is defined as a stable trajectory of healthy functioning after a highly adverse event (Bonanno, 2004). Hjemdal et al. (2011) report that individual resilience (IR) contributes significantly and negatively to the prediction of depression, anxiety, stress, and obsessive-compulsive symptoms. Cacioppo et al. (2011) define it as “the capacity to foster, engage in, and sustain

positive relationships and to endure and recover from life stressors and social isolation”.

According to Bonanno et al. (2015), community resilience (CR) expresses the interaction between individuals and their community and refers to the success of the community to provide for the needs of its members and the extent to which individuals are helped by their community. A recent literature review claims that CR is associated with increased local capacity, social support, and resources, and with decreased risks, miscommunication, and traumas (Patel et al., 2017). National resilience (NR) is a broad concept addressing issues of social sustainability and strength in several diverse realms: trust in the integrity of the government, the parliament and other national institutions, belief in social solidarity, and patriotism (Ben-Dor et al., 2002). The COVID-19 thus presents a unique opportunity in terms of its scope and impact on diverse aspects of life, to study this phenomenon, resilience theory is appropriate.

Methodology

This study adopted descriptive research design to explain the prevailing circumstances (covid-19). This design is appropriate for the study because it is a prevailing phenomenon that needs to be described. The study generated data from documented record of covid-19 between week 10, 2020 through week 26, 2021. The precise data were scrutinized from the weekly briefing as provided by Presidential Task Force on Covid-19 in Nigeria. The study used descriptive statistics to analyze the data with the aids of percentages, graph and charts.

Result and Discussion

This section present and analyzed the data collected for the purpose of this study. The analysis was based on the demography of the population in Nigeria between week 10, 2020 to week 26, 2021. This approach enables the study to establish the effects of covid-19 pandemic on the demography of the Nigeria population. The table below presents the information according to demography of the population. It is pertinent to state that the demography of the population used as a unit of the study evaluation is age and sex.

Table 1: Demography of the Population of Covid-19 Victim in Nigeria (Wk10, 2020 – Wk 26, 2021)

Age	Male	Female	Total	Percentage
> 85	363	338	701	0.45
80 – 84	431	341	772	0.49
75 – 79	730	535	1083	0.70
70 – 74	1384	948	2332	1.50
65 – 69	1891	1377	3268	2.08
60 – 64	3578	2260	5838	3.77
55 – 59	3703	3098	6801	4.34
50 – 54	7582	4363	11945	7.62
45 – 49	8885	4590	13475	8.60
40 – 44	11521	5904	17425	11.11
35 – 39	13354	7301	20659	13.17
30 – 34	12596	8925	21521	13.72
25 – 29	10952	9210	20162	12.85
20 – 24	6246	6244	12490	7.96
15 – 19	3853	3856	7709	4.91
10 -14	2418	2214	4632	2.95
5 – 9	1454	1327	2781	1.77
0 – 4	1784	950	2734	1.74
Total	94245	62611	156856	100

Source: NCDC Weekly Report (WK 10, 2020 – WK 26, 2021)

From the table above, about 156856 contracted the covid-19 virus across the country within the period under review. Of this number, 94245 are male which represent 60.08% and 62622 are female which represent 39.92%. From this, it is obvious that male contracted covid-19 virus than female. The implication here is that, the demography of Nigerian population suffer male loses as compared to their female counterpart.

The table above further substantiates the effects of covid-19 pandemic on the demography of Nigeria population.

Fig. 1. Demography of population Pyramid of Covid-19 Victims (week 10, 2020 – week 26, 2021

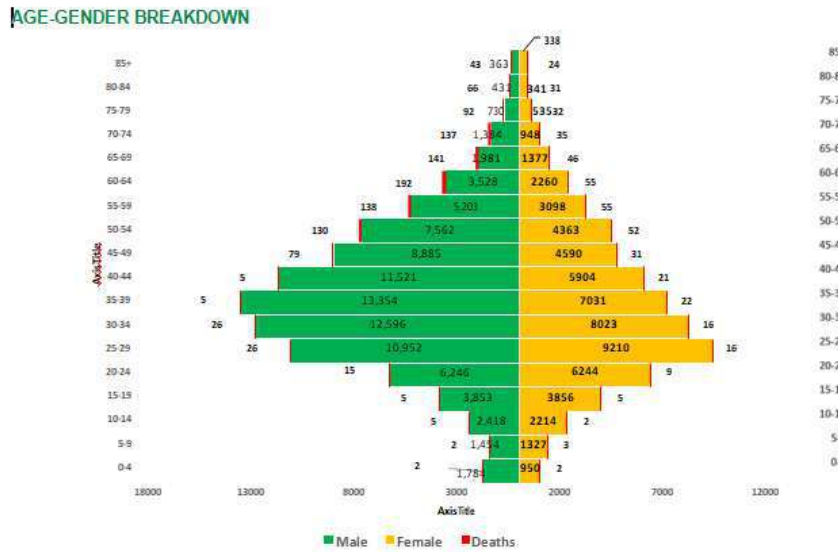
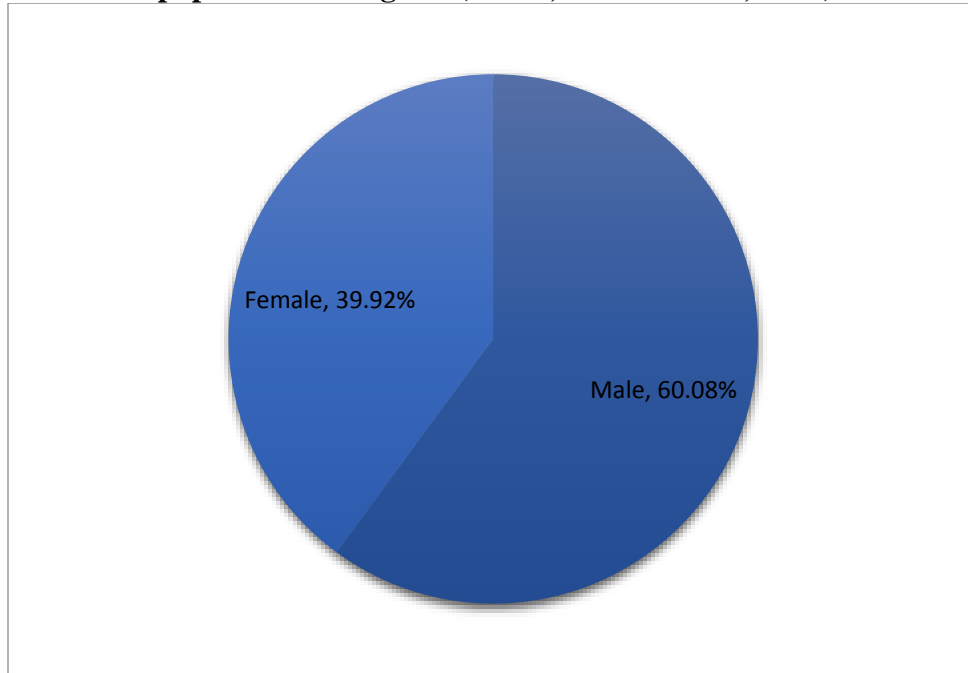


Fig. 1: Chart with age and gender breakdown of cases and death (wk 10, 2020 – w26, 2021

The figure 1 below shows the demography of population pyramid of covid-19 victims between week 10, 2020 – week 26, 2021. From the above demography of population pyramid of the covid-19 victims, people from the age of 25 – 29 through age of 85 and above both in the male and female category. It is instructive to states that the below chart shows demography of the population those that contracted the virus as well as those that died from the complication. Table 2 above presents demography of the population of those that suffered the fatality as a result of covid-19 complication between week 10, 2020 – week 26, 2021.

Chart 1: Pie Chart showing the distribution of Covid-19 Demography on the population in Nigeria (Wk10, 2020 – Wk26, 2021)



Source: Compiled by the Researcher, 2021

The pie chart above shows that about 60.08% of those that contracted covid-19 virus are male while 39.92% are female.

Table 2: Demography of Age and Sex Distribution of Covid-19 Fatality Rate in Nigeria (Wk10, 2020 – Wk26, 2021)

Age	Sex				Total	Percentage (%)
	Male	Percentage (%)	Female	Percentage (%)		
> 85	43	64.18	24	35.82	67	100
80 – 84	66	68.04	31	31.96	97	100
75 – 79	92	74.19	32	25.81	124	100
70 – 74	137	79.65	35	20.35	172	100
65 – 69	141	75.40	46	24.60	187	100
60 – 64	192	77.73	55	22.27	247	100
55 – 59	138	71.50	55	28.50	193	100
50 – 54	130	71.43	52	28.57	182	100
45 – 49	79	71.82	31	28.18	110	100
40 – 44	5	19.23	21	80.77	26	100
35 – 39	5	18.52	22	81.48	27	100
30 – 34	26	61.90	16	38.10	42	100
25 – 29	26	61.90	16	38.10	42	100
20 – 24	15	62.50	9	37.50	24	100
15 – 19	5	50.00	5	50.00	10	100
10 – 14	5	71.43	2	28.57	07	100
5 –	2	40.00	3	60.00	05	100

9						
0 – 4	2	50.00	2	50.00	04	100

Source: NCDC Weekly Report (WK 10, 2020 – WK 26, 2021)

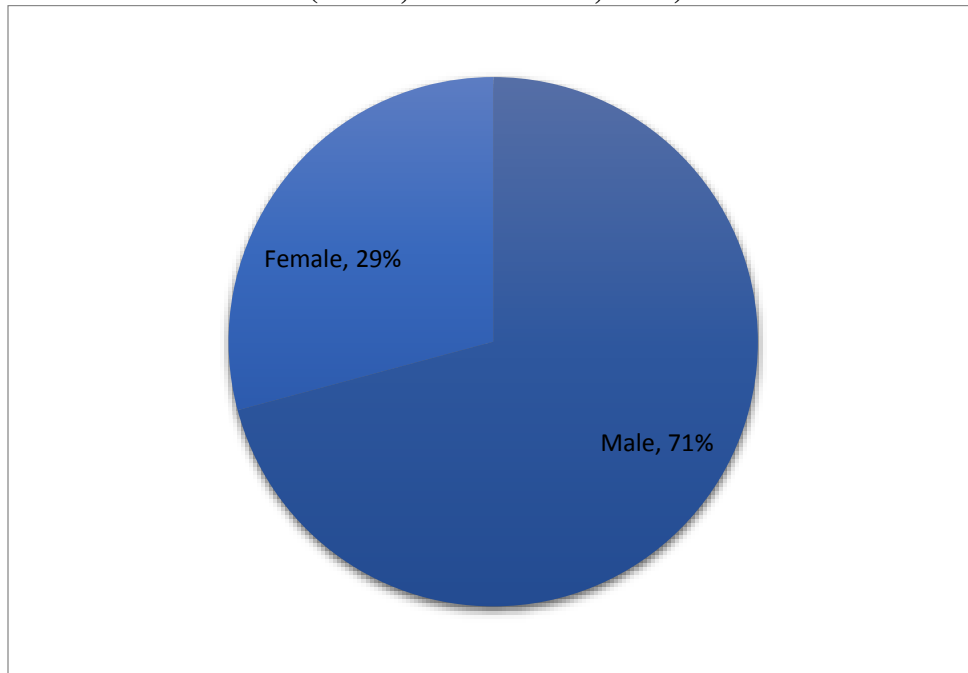
As the statistics in the above table has shown, those that are above the age of 85 years and above have 43 male representing 64.18% of those that suffered fatality while, 24 women representing 35.82% of the total 67 people that died from the covid-19 complication within that age bracket. Similarly, within the age range of 80 – 84, 66 male representing 68.04% and 31 female representing 31.96% died as a result of covid-19 pandemic in Nigeria. In addition, between the ages range of 75 – 79, 92 male (74.19%) and 32 female (25.81%) of the 124 fatality rate recorded within that range. Also, those that died from the virus in the range of 70 – 74 were 137 male (79.65%) and 35 female (20.35%). What this statistics suggest was that, most people that suffered from corona virus complication were those who might have probably retired from active government office but now engaged in either their private business or holding political office. These categories of people had acquired enormous wealth of experience that should have been a huge blessing to the nation. Unfortunately, the cold hand of covid-19 pandemic cut it short.

Again, from the age range of 65-69, the sex distribution shows that 141 (75.40%) male and 46 (24.60%) female lost their lives within the period WK10, 2020 – WK 26, 2021 respectively. Also, between the age of 60 – 64, about 194 male (77.73%) and 55 female (22.09%) succumbed to death as a result of covid-19 complication. in a related development, the age range of 50 – 54, 130 male (71.43%) and 52 female (28.57%) were reported dead from the virus infection. Also, between the age range 45 – 49, 79 were male (71.82%) and 31 were female (28.18%) accordingly.

It could be observed that the fatality rate recorded within the age range of 45 – 49 through 80 – 84 were relatively high. What this potent was that the people that made up this age range were considered elderly based on the classification of Nigeria Center for Disease and Control (2020) and they could easily contract the disease. Also, their sudden demise certainly put their families to untold mourning and hardship as their colossal loss has created sudden gap that might not be easily filled.

The age range of 0 – 4 through 40 – 44 was observed to have recorded low fatality rate arising from covid-19 complication. This shows that those that were within these age range were young and have relative strong immunity to ward off the virus if contracted.

Chart 2: Pie Chart showing the distribution Covid-19 Fatality Rate in Nigeria (Wk10, 2020 – Wk26, 2021)



Source: Compiled by the Researcher, 2021

From the pie chart, it is clear that about 71% of those that suffered death from covid-19 complication are male while 29% are female.

Discussion of Findings

The study found that people within the age group of 25 – 29 through 85 – above are mostly and easily contracted the covid-19 virus. The analysis shows that 60.08% of those that suffered covid-19 virus are men while 39.92% are female. Also, it was found that 1,566 fatality deaths were recorded in Nigeria between week10, 2020 through week 26, 2021. Of these figure, 1,109 were men

representing 68.97% while, 457 were women representing 29.81% that suffered fatality arising from covid-19 pandemic from week10, 2020 through week 26, 2021.

The implication here is that since the emergency of corona virus, it has depleted the demography of the Nigeria population as a result of fatality rate occasion by the pandemic. Secondly, the sudden death people suffered suggest that the virus has effects on increasing the rate of poverty. This could be true as those that suffered death as a result of the virus are mostly adult that responsible for the wellbeing of their family.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Since covid-19 pandemic, quite a number of casualties have been recorded and still counting. This development has significant negative impact on the demography of Nigeria. Importantly, there is strength in number, where a country continues losing her population via a novel virus that is yet to have certainty on the vaccine, poses danger and threat to her demography configuration.

It appears that the country is going to live with the virus longer than expected. Therefore, the study advocates that the country needs to brace up to the challenges pose by this pandemic in order to protect and guide against further destruction to the demography of Nigeria. There is a need for the country to vigorously campaign for adhering to the non-pharmaceutical protocol to ensure that people maintain personal hygiene across board. On a general note, the country needs to have more and well-functioning centers for the treatment of patient who may contract the virus.

There is the need to expedite action in carrying out more testing to identify and immediate treatment for those that may have contacted it in order to avoid the spread while safeguarding her population demography. There should be an urgent need to reactivate and equip all the isolation centers as well as establish new once to accommodate the victims. In addition, since it appears that the second and third wave of the virus is hovering, as a matter of necessity, there is the need to continue maintaining transparency by providing continuous up-to-date COVID-19 related information to create more awareness on the danger the virus pose to the demography of Nigerian population.

References

- Alon, T. M., Doepke, M., Olmstead-Rumsey, J. & Tertilt, M. (2020). *The impact of COVID-19 on gender equality* (No. w26947). National Bureau of Economic Research. Working Paper Series.
- APA.org. (2014). The road to resilience. <http://www.apa.org/helpcenter/road-resilience.aspx>.
- Arinola, G. O. et al, (2021). Demographic attributes of COVID-19 patients in an Infectious Disease Center of Nigeria. *African Journal of Clinical and Experimental Microbiology*, 22 (1): 21 – 27
- Ben-Dor, G., Pedahzur, A., Canetti-Nisim, D. & Zaidise, E., (2002). The role of public opinion in Israel's national security. *Am. Jewish Congress: Congr. Mon.* 69 (5), 13–15.
- Bonanno, G.A. (2004). Loss, trauma, and human resilience: have we underestimated the human capacity to thrive after extremely aversive events? *Am. Psychol.* 59 (1), 20.
- Bonanno, G.A., Romero, S.S. & Klein, S.I. (2015). *The temporal elements of psychological resilience: an integrative framework for the st*
- Cacioppo, J.T., Reis, H.T. & Zautra, A.J. (2011). Social resilience. *Am. Psychol.* 66, 43–51.
- Chidi N. O., Juliet I. A., Mohammed, B. S. & Ekundayo, P. M. (2021) The Demographic Effects of Covid-19: Any Hope for Working Populations? *BizEcons Quarterly*, 15 (1), 3-12
- Dodge, Y. (2006). *The Oxford Dictionary of Statistical Terms*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 2006.
- Hjemdal, O., Vogel, P.A., Solem, S., Hagen, K. & Stiles, T.C. (2011). The relationship between resilience and levels of anxiety, depression, and obsessive– compulsive symptoms in adolescents. *Clin. Psychol. Psychother.* 18, 314–321.
- Lee, G. O. & Warner, M. (2005). Epidemics, labour markets, and unemployment: the impact of SARS on human resource management in the Hong Kong service sector. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(5), 752-771.
- Kelechi, U. L. & David, A. O. (2020) Demographic factors, attitude and knowledge of persons with special needs towards COVID-19 in Nigeria: Implications for counselling and social policy. *Emerald Open Research* 2020, 2:55
- Lebreton, J-D. et al. (1992). Modeling survival and testing biological hypotheses using marked animals: A unified approach with case studies. *Ecological*

- Monographs 62, 67-118* NCDC COVID-19 (2021) Situation Report covid19.ncdc.gov.ng
- Masten, A.S. (2018). Resilience theory and research on children and families: past, present, and promise. *J. Family Theory Rev.* 10, 12–31.
- Nkengasong, J. N. & Mankoula, W. (2020). The looming threat of COVID-19 infection in Africa: act collectively, and fast. *The Lancet*, 395(10227), 841-842.
- Ozili, P. K. & Arun, T. (2020). Spillover of COVID-19: Impact on the Global Economy. Available at SSRN 3562570. Online at <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/99850/>
- Patel, S.S., Rogers, M.B., Amlot, R. & Rubin, G.J. (2017). What do we mean by 'community resilience'? A systematic literature review of how it is defined in the literature. *PLoS Curr.* 9, 1–48.
- Sumner, A., Hoy, C. & Ortiz-Juarez, E. (2020). Estimates of the impact of COVID-19 on global Poverty. *UNU-WIDER*, April, 800-9. Working Paper 2020/43
- Turenne, C.P., Gautier, L., Degroote, S., Guillard, E., Chabrol, F. & Ridde, V. (2019). Conceptual analysis of health systems resilience: a scoping review. *Soc. Sci. Med.* 232, 168–180.
- Van Breda, A. D. (2018). A critical review of resilience theory and its relevance to social work. *Social Work*, 54(1), 1-18.
- Winifred, E & Genevieve, B. (2021). Demographic representation of COVID-19 social media and information engagement in Nigeria. *Popul. Med.* 2021;3(June):18
- Yusuf F. Z. (2020). Exposing Empirical Links between COVID-19 Situation Report and Available Data: The Case of Nigeria. *Diseases 2020*, 8, 38 3 – 11
- Zubaida H., Muhammad, J. H. & Gulfaraz, K. (2020). Population risk factors for COVID-19 deaths in Nigeria at sub-national level (2020) *Pan African Medical Journal*

Impact of Cultural Practices on Entrepreneurship Development in Niger State (2015 – 2019)

Shehu, ADAMU

Department of Public Administration, Niger State Polytechnic, Zungeru
shehuadamu91@gmail.com 07034948194

Bashir YUSUF

Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.
bashiryusif86@gmail.com 08032613492

And

Ibrahim YAHAYA

Department of Public Administration, School of Business Management, Federal Polytechnic, Bidda, Niger State.
ibrahim61@yahoo.com 08034792260

Abstract

Cultural background of the individual personalities that manage and conduct SMEs operations significantly influences corporate behaviour and managerial quality and performance in SMEs. These cultural manifestations that overwhelmingly and unconsciously influences SMEs managerial behaviour include context social norms, perspective standards, attitudes, religious' belief and value systems. It is on this premise that this research investigated the impact of cultural practices on entrepreneurship growth and socio-economic development in Niger State between 2015 and 2019. Qualitative survey research design using focus group interview was adopted to conduct across-sectional study of indigenous and non-indigenous SMEs in the State. Descriptive method using tables and simple percentages were used to present the research findings relating to how cultural practices affect business success attributes. Barney, (2001) and Hofstede's, (1994) cultural dimensions were used as framework of analysis to assess the cultural practices in SMEs environment. It was found that cultural practices of the two groups of SMEs significantly influence and determined the performance of the SMEs in the Niger State. The study recommends among other things for business education to improve the perception and value system of indigenous SMEs owners, behaviour and competence of indigenous SMEs as well as government support to improve funding and modern technology application for corporate competence and performance.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, Small and Medium Enterprises, Cultural Practices, Religious Belief, Development, Socio-economic Development.

Introduction and Problem in Context

Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs) have become vital economic backbone of local and national economies of the developed and developing nations (Agwu & Emeti, 2015). In Nigeria, SMEs provides seventy percent of employment opportunity and ninety percent of business operations, producers of large quantum of goods for local consumption; source of income to many entrepreneurs and their employees (Elese, 2017). The poor performance of public enterprises and the inherent weak productive capacity of private large scale industries due to the effect of the late 1980s structural adjustment policy provided ample opportunity for massive growth and popularity of SMEs as vital instrument of economic production in local communities for the essential goods and services needs of Nigerians (Avid & Nyong, 1992). Thus, the failure or low performance of large public business and private companies led to the prominence of SMEs as formidable instrument of industrialization in developing economies like Nigeria (Odeh, 2005).

However, overtime, it has been observed that many indigenous SMEs within their operational milieu performs below expectations while few non-indigenous entrepreneurs seems to do well within the same operational environment with the *son of the soil entrepreneurs* (Fransis & Hezel, 2009; Emmanuel 2014).

This observation and the desire to provide explanation for performance variation between the two groups of SMEs triggers the proposition that cultural background of the entrepreneur's personalities could have a stronger impact on them than the pursuit of financial gain from business (Francis & Hezel, 2009). This viewpoint reinforces Adams Smith argument in his book *wealth of Nations* (1776) that each individual, motivated by the pursuit of his own interests, contributes to the public interest in a system that is self-regulating, implying that the pursuit of personal interest involve much more than just money making hence individuals behaviour could be influenced by what Smith called theory of moral sentiments (culture). The influence of culture on development stimulation activities otherwise known among scholars of development economics as "culture of poverty" thesis states that there are aspects of culturally related behaviour in countries or communities that prevent some groups of people from taking advantage of economic development activities.

In a related development, successful entrepreneurs within our research context are observed to possess “achievement-oriented” cultural characteristics factors or traits that are favourable for business success which Barney (2001) identified as entrepreneurial competence encompassing marketing capability, financial capacity, appropriate technology application and knowledge-sharing (coaching and mentoring).

Since creation in 1976, various administration in Niger state have made concerted effort to stimulate and promote entrepreneurship and industrialization as policy instrument for socio-economic development of the state (Muazu, 2008). Central to this effort was the establishment of Niger state development company (NSDC) in 1989 to serve as a holding corporation that promote establishment, operation and supervision of several subsidiary companies such as Niger Detergent at Bida, Niger Sack at Kontagora, Morris Fertilizers and Mona Juice at Minna etc. these ventures all collapsed unceremoniously within ten years of establishment.

In the like manners, the private sector SMEs established by Niger State indigenes collapsed within a short period of operations. Such enterprises include Primer Printing and Publishing Company Bida, Vespa factory, Bida Aluminum company Kontagora, Tobacco Company, and Prime pipe (Plastic) Kontagora, Ladi Kwali pottery, Suleja etc. All these indigenous enterprises collapsed unprecedentedly while the business established by some non-indigenes like Duyin the Best Groundnut oil, Franco furniture, Onyx Rice mill, classy Guest chalet etc, continued to experience exponential growth and diversification of activities. This is a development challenge that demands investigation to provide solution to the precarious industrialization condition in Niger State.

This research seeks to unearth the complex network of factors that could be responsible for differential performance between the indigenous and non-indigenous SMEs operating in Niger state. On that basis, this research seeks to answer the following questions: What are the pertinent factors that influences business management practice of the entrepreneurs in Niger state? To what extent does cultural elements affect the behaviour and conduct of SMEs managers in Niger State? What need to be done to create even level playing ground between organizations with achievement-oriented cultural characteristics and those SMEs entangled in low performance cultural traits in Niger State?

The main objective of this study is to determine the effect of cultural practices on SMEs productivity and socio-economic development in Niger State. Specifically, the research aims to; Find out elements or dimension of cultural practices that influences conduct of business management and behaviours of SMEs' managers in the State; Determine the extent of cultural practices effects on managerial behaviour of SMEs operators in the state; Suggest cultural modernization strategies to adopt in order to reduce the negative effects of culture on SMEs performance and socio-economic development in the State.

Conceptual Clarification and Theoretical Framework

Concept of Culture

Culture has been conceptualised by scholars in a different way. However, the following are the sum total of their understanding the concept. The way of life of a people, the summed total of their behaviour, attitudes and material things which controls their action in a deep and persisting ways which is beyond their control (Hall, 1976); the total pattern of thinking, emotions and acting that impact on the ordinary and material things in life such as greeting, eating, decisions in expressing or not expressing ones emotion interacting with people, making love, or general body cleanliness (Hofstede, 1991); Individuals distinctive way of identifying with the man-made aspect of the environment, the perception of norms, and values, which is affected by different levels of culture which include language, gender, race, religion, place of residence and occupation which has a way for impacting on interpersonal behaviour (Triandis, 1972). In sum, culture is the software of the mind, a collective mental programming of the people. It is the combination of material and spiritual wealth designed by man through process of social and historical growth (Hofstede, 1998).

Culture is a function of some element and a close description of these elements is relevant for this research which include value, attitude, Belief system (Religion) Norms/customs and rules; roles, perception of time and language.

Values: Values are cultural conception about what are desirable goals or ends and what are appropriate standards for judging action. They constitute standards by which people evaluate goals and actions (Rokeach, 1974). It is a conviction about what is right and wrong (Robbins and Coulter, 2007).

Attitude: Attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, systematized through knowledge. It has the ability to exert a directive and forceful influence upon individual's response to all objects and situations around which it relates (Allport, 1937). Attitudes are strong element of behaviour. Culture is one of the main medium of attitude formation. Other mediums of attitude formation are generation effect, social role, laws, mass media, total institutions, school, family parents, peers, reference group and direct experience (Doughlass & Pratkans, 1994).

Religion: Religion is a strong medium and determinant of moral principles. Religious teaches diversify principles that guide and control the behaviour of their adherent in the economic (business) social and political life. The two monotheist religions, Islam and Christianity teaches that the Omniscient God watches over human actions and hold people accountable for their action (Emerson, et al, 2010). Max Weber (1905), in his work "the protestant Ethic and the spirit of Captialism" identified the interconnection between religion and the market place. Weber proposed that a relationship exist between certain religious teachings and economic behaviour. It is on this premise that Hofstede and Bond (1988) attribute the long-term orientation in east Asians to "Confucian Dynamism", which embodies values from the teaching of Confucius such as perseverance, a need to order relationships by status, a sense of shame and a habit of thrift saving. Kahn (1979) also saw the rise of East Asian "tigers" economies as being due to the Confucian ethic, including factors such as sobriety, placing a high value on education, a need for accomplishment in various skills, seriousness about job, family obligation, and a sense of hierarchy. (Alan. 2004).

Perception of Time: Cultural complexity often affects the perception of time so that people of different cultural background have different altitudes about time. Time keeping is treated tolerantly in the underdeveloped countries and this has significant effect on business performance (Alan, 2004). However, as societies become industrial and technological, people must pay increasing attention on time. In industrial countries (High achievement oriented societies), there are many things to do and they must be coordinated with other people. Hence, time becomes more important. Time is regarded as something of prices and highly significant. The low achievement societies have less to do and have much interest in leisure and have no much respect for time-hence, African time mentality.

Culture and Development

According to Rao and Walton (2004) development economists are concerned with culture because of the thesis that in order to be effective and for development processes to reduce poverty it must take into account or at least understand the role of culture and this thesis needs exploration and empirical enquiry.

In response to this directive emerged the body of studies that emphasize the role of culture in economic development termed cultural determinism". The seminal work in this area is Max Weber's "the protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism" first published in 1904. Weber's work centered on demonstrating that the emergence of the modern economic development in Europe depended on a prior shift in cultural values generated by protestantism. Weber argued that the protestant work ethic, supported by reformation teachings that the pursuit of wealth was a duty, inculcated the virtues needed for maximum economic productivity. For this reasons, Protestants were said to be more productive than Catholics throughout Europe... compare the pace of development of Britain and Germany with Ireland, Spain, Portugal and Italy at that material time of Weber's writing (Francis & Hezel, 2009).

The 1950s and 60s witnessed the emergence of the second strand of culture-development theory tagged "modernization theory" which regarded contemporary western societies as models worthy of emulation while portraying the "traditional" cultures in most "Third World" countries in a negative light and as contributors to economic backwardness and poverty. Some economists at the time argued that many less developed countries (LDCs) lacked development-oriented cultural characteristics" – thus, the prevailing view then was that poor countries must duplicate the cultural institutions of the developed countries in order to move out of under development (backwardness).

The late 1980 also saw the emergence of another culture-development thesis called "new institutional economics" which recognized the importance of norms in economic life. According to one of its leading advocates, North (1990) "institutions (i.e. formal and informal rules) were critical in reducing transaction costs and thereby promoting economic efficiency. Generally, institutional economists are more aware of the role of history, culture and other "path dependent" factors in shaping economic behaviour and development. In fact, the Asian economic miracle of the 1980s and 1990s as well as the excellence of transitional economies of Eastern Europe made many economists to look at

culture and institutional factors (such as work ethic and deference to state authority) as key explanatory factors of successful transition strategies and economic performance.

The early 1990s witness the emergence of strong emphasis on the role of “social capital in development”. According to DFID (2001), social capital refers to “the social resources upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihood strategies”. These are developed through networks and connectedness membership of more formalized groups often entail adherence to mutually agreed or commonly accepted rules, norms and sanctions, and relationship of trust. Thus, social capital embodies aspects of the cultural traits of a society. Thus social capital theory focus more on the positive aspect of culture-for instance, family members contributing fund for an individual to start a business is a social resource supportive relationships.

In conclusion, although it is still difficult to make a general statement on the relationship between culture and development, empirical evidence above suggests that economic development is associated with shifts away from absolute norms and values toward the ones that are increasingly rational, tolerant, trusting and participatory. Business environment of developing economies is entangled with intricate socio-cultural factors that significantly compromises the ease of doing business and enterprises performance (Olooye, 2003, Testayohannes, 2012).

On this basis, the world bank’s “doing business” index (DB) ranked Nigeria 133 position out of 183 countries that were surveyed in 2011 and 2012 respectively. In addition, World Economic Forum (WEF) executive opinion survey 2016 view of the Business community on the Global Risks of Highest concern for doing business ranked Nigeria at the bottom – 132 out of 138 countries. The poor supply of infrastructure is also observed as the largest constraints on doing business in Nigeria (WEF, 2017). Doing business (DB) index measures the ease of doing business in the selected countries on the basis that countries with high score indicate difficulty in business environment while countries with low ranking indicate a favourable business environment.

Similarly, socio-cultural impediments are observed to influence business activities in other African countries. (OCED. 2009; Ekeledo & Bewayo, 2009). To demonstrate that culture influence on Business management is an international phenomenon, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) point out that

international managers have a particular difficult task. They have to operate in three different cultures at the same time. Their culture of origin; the culture within which they are currently working and the corporate culture of the organization. The concern of this research is with what Trompenaars and Hampden (1997) called “culture of origin” above, what then is the term “culture” and its composite compounds?

Culture and Business Behaviour Traits

Chung (1991) opined that there are no scientifically based management methods that are regarded as culturally neutral and universal and that the so-called standard scientific management methods and practices are mostly North American and are based on that particular culture of its origin – their application in other countries are rooted in 19th century imperialism – which created the misconception and the belief that important ideas are conveyed in one direction – from western civilization to less developed countries, and since English is the major business language it allows the spread of largely American business concepts via colonial/post-colonial routes and multinational corporation (Brewster and Tyson, 1991). The methodologies were accepted as “received wisdom” in large areas of the world, including Africa, the Middle-East and India (Price, 2004).

These “received wisdoms” must have universal applicability and effectiveness characteristics otherwise, why do some ethnic groups do so well in business that they leave others in the dust, even when these ethnic groups are minorities in other cultures? Amy Chua in her 2003 book titled *World on fire* observed that ethnic Chinese in the Philippines, accounting for less than two percent of the population control 60% of the nation’s private economy, including the country’s four major airlines and almost all the country’s banks, hotels and shopping malls. Chinese also dominate business in some parts of Southeast Asia such as Indonesia, Thailand, Burma and Malaysia as well as in Solomon’s Island, Tonga and in Majuro – triggering occasional reactions from the local populations – in the like manner of the recent xenophobia attacks on Nigerians of Ibo extraction in South Africa.

In Nigerian context, the ethnic Ibos and Yorubas have demonstrated abilities in entrepreneurship so that their business dominated the business of the local citizens of the societies where they operates demonstrating higher achievement cultural

orientation. Even in recent times Ibos boost of more investment in Lagos after ENDSAR protest.

These ethnic groups have constituted “dominant” minorities that have demonstrated remarkable ability to succeed in business wherever they may live. It is obvious that culture really matters in explaining the difference between high achievement oriented ethnic groups and low achievement orient cultural groups. Essentially, it was the values and attitude of the different people that make the difference. Differentiating traits include: Development of a sense of trust; believing in some one beyond one’s immediate extended family; building trust to partner with others in doing business; thrift, handwork, tenacity, honesty and tolerance (high masculine characteristics); Developing entrepreneurship mindset with accompanying values and habits; Formal education is additional advantage because it gives new view of the world outside home; Commitment values and its cultivation; Strong discipline and skill possession; Latest technical know-how and technology acquisition; Culture climate essential for business success and economic growth.(Francis 2009).

SMEs Characteristics and Socio-cultural Environment in Nigeria

Awe (2000) asserted that there is no universally accepted definition of small and medium scale enterprises because the classification is usually subjective and quantitative. However, SMEs in Nigeria as in other economies are defined on the basis of size or amount of investment assets excluding real estate; there total annual turnover and the number of employers. Also in Nigeria, different federal institutions offer different definitions of SMEs sometimes with sectoral variance. Thus, the federal ministry of industries defines a medium scale enterprise as any company with operating assets less than 200 million Naira and employing less than 300 persons.

Small-scale enterprise, on the other hand is one with total assets less than 50 million with less than 100 employees. Annual turnover is not considered in its definition of SMEs. The National Economic Reconstruction Fund (NERFU), The National Association of Small and Medium Enterprises (NASME) and Central Bank of Nigeria classification benchmarks are indicated in the table 1 below:

Table 1: Typology of SMEs in Nigeria

Institution	Asset Values (M)			Annual Turnover			No of Employees		
	MSE	SSE	ME	MSE	SSE	ME	MSE	SSE	ME
Federal Ministry of Industry	<200	<50	NA	NA	NA	NA	<300	<100	<10
Central Bank	<150	<1	NA	<150	<1	NA	<100	<50	NA
NERFUND	NA	<10	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
NASME	<150	<50	<1	<500	<100	<10	<100	<50	<10

Source: World Banks, SMEs Country Mapping 2001.

Characteristically, SMEs are either sole proprietorships or partnerships. Even when they registered as limited liability companies, this is most merely on paper, as their true ownership structure is one-man or partnership. Most SMEs use labor intensive production method, centralized management style and often have limited access to long term capital and even their access to short-term financing is limited (Oyedijo, 2014). Due to the often failed partnership among Nigeria SMEs due to mistrusts mortality rate among SMEs is high. (Okafor, et al, 2018).

The second important characteristics of Nigeria SMEs is that most founders or initial proprietors lack the appropriate management skills, have poor knowledge of requisite technology and they use obsolete and inefficient equipment which leads to low productivity and poor quality of products and business collapse. (Avid and Nyong, 1992, Okafor et ale, 2018).

Other factors that characterized the SMES identified by scholars in developing country like Nigeria are information asymmetries, lack of transparency accounting and reporting system, lack of succession planning, poor governance practice, unfriendly business ethics and culture (Allen and Udeli 2004, Basil, 2005). In addition, Bolton (1971) described SMEs as having personalized style of management devoid of formal structures, with ownership and control solely in the hands of the owner (Spencer, 1999).

Theoretical Framework:

Hofstede's Culture Dimension Theory

To demonstrate that organizations are microcosm of national (societal) cultures, reflecting crucial differences, Hofstede (1980, 1994) compares several thousands of IBM employees in over 50 countries using attitude questionnaire. He found

significant differences between employees in one country and another, despite their similar jobs and membership of one organization. Using factor analysis, Hofstede analyzed the employee's responses and attributed the variation in to four main dimensions (Hofstede 1980) and further studies increased the dimensions to six dimensions (Hofstede, 1994) on which countries or cultural groups can be ranked. Power distance, individualisms/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty/avoidance, long-term/short-term orientation, and restraints/indulgence.

Power distance: this dimension expresses the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. People in societies exhibiting a high degree of power distance accept a hierarchical order in which everyone has a place which need no further justification. Low power distance societies strive to equalize the distribution of power that is egalitarian society. Individualism/collectivism is about the importance of individual verses group interest. High individualist society depict preference for a loosely-knit society in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families. Its opposite, collectivism represent preference for a tightly knit framework, where individuals can expect their relatives or members of a particular in group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty the "I" or "we" image of society.

Masculinity/Feminity: Is about what vale are considered more important in a society. Masculine side of the dimension represents a preference in society for achievement, heroism assertiveness and material rewards for success. A competitive and materially aggressive society. On the other hands, feminity stands for preference for cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life, a sort of tough and tender cultures.

Uncertainty Avoidance: Dimension expresses the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity, high uncertainty avoidance leads to making rules to forestall the unexpected, deliberate planning to avoid unwanted situation in the future, intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas, low uncertainty avoidance index maintain a more relax attitude.

Time Orientation (Long-Term/Short-time): Long time oriented culture are low in respect for time and prefer to maintain time-honored traditions and norm while viewing societal change with suspicion (conservatism) while highly time

respected cultures are more pragmatic, future-oriented, progressive, encourage thrift and efforts of modern education as a way to prepare for the future.

Indulgence/Restraints: This dimension is relatively a new dimension to the model and is defined as the extent to which people try to control their desires and impulses based on the way they are raised. Weak self-control is called indulgence while high self-control is called restraint-society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulate it by means of strict social norms.

Attributes of Business Success through the Resource-based view theory

As prelude to resource based view theory, let us conceptualize business success. Essentially, business success concerns ability to achieve enterprise goals and objectives. Which is not often explicitly defined (Ngwan, gwarma, Ungerer & Morrison, 2013). Because there is no universally accepted definition of business success, majority of management scholars measure business success from the perspective of firm's performance (Van Auken and Werbel, 2006, Reijonen and Komppula, 2007, Wang and Wang, 2012). Firm performance is also complex and has multi-dimensional facet and according to Islam, Khan, Obaidulah and Alam (2011) there are at least two pertinent dimensions of business success: i. financial vs non-financial and ii. Short and Long-term success. On this background, various ways to measure business success may include survival, profits, returns on investment, sales growth, number of personnel employed, happiness created, corporate reputation and other factors (Schumpter & Weidinger, 2014).

Within the context of small scale enterprise, earlier attempts at understanding firms' performance placed emphasis on financial ratios and accounting measures (Shailer, 1989 but few scholars argued that there is lack of reliability in financial ratios and accounting data, as majority of SMEs have no formal reporting requirements on these financial data. (Riquilme & Watson, 2002). Moreso, some scholars are of the opinion that financial accounting are not able to tap the essence of firm's performance in other aspects of firms management such as customer service, quality of products produced, innovation and operational efficiency. More so, relying on financial measures would limit the ability to explain future performance as they are historically oriented and can be misleading (Konfteros, Vergbese & Lucianett, 2014).

On the above background, this study utilizes non-financial measures which can be captured through managerial perceptions and appreciations. And in determining the factors that affect business success, this study adopted the resources – based view (RBV) by Barney (2001). The theory contends that the key to improve a firms' performance is based on the firms' internal characteristics (Barney, 2001). The difference in performance are explained primarily by the existence of an organization's resources which are valuable, rare and not easily imitable and substitutable by rivalry (Barney, 2001).

Resources are defined as those tangible and intangible assets including financial resources, physical resources (plant, equipment, machines etc) human resources and technical know-how. The intangible assets include knowledge, skills, reputation and capabilities. Usually firms seek to acquire and exercise control over resources that can offer competitive advantage over firm's competitors. Organizational assets such as human resources, management policies and capabilities are used by firms to develop and implement new strategies in those firms. Hence, the main reason for firm growth and success is actually coming from inside the firms. In other words, SMEs with superior resources and capabilities will build up a base for gaining and sustaining competitive advantage.

Attributes that have been found to influence SMEs success or competence include skills, educational background, and know-how and personnel motivation. Other factors include limited financial access which restrict larger investment creating growth and development barriers in SMEs (Jasra, Injera, Retiman, Azam, & Khan, 2011). SMEs resources poverty can lead to information deficit as technology also plays an important role in this regard. Also lack of appropriate technology and equippe are impediments to SMEs success (Thunk, 2007). Thus, SMEs performance are influenced by the five factors which are financed, entrepreneur competence, market capability, technology usage and knowledge sharing.

Methodology

The study adopted cross sectional survey design using interview instrument in collecting data. The population of the study is the Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs) in Niger State. In carrying out the cross-sectional study, a qualitative research survey was applied for the purpose of surveying opinions of the respondents on the effects of socio-cultural factors on SMEs performance in

Niger State. This is because qualitative survey produces a detailed data on the phenomenon being investigated as they are derived directly from people involved or stakeholders (Patton, 2002). More so, qualitative research or survey is the method for examining intangible or non-quantifiable variables such as culture, norms, religions, status and roles which are not easily captured by other methods (Pope, 2000, Denzi, 2000, Nkwi, 2001, Maziku et al, 2014).

A purposive sampling technique was used to draw out twenty two (22) non-indigenous and indigenous SMEs spread across key industries ranging from food processing, hotel and restaurants; soap and pomades, printing and publishing, block industry, fish farming and financial services in the three geo-political zones of Niger State. Niger State has a total of about 492 numbers of SMEs (NBS & SMEDAN, 2010 P.118).

Table 1 Sampled indigenous and non-indigenous SMEs

Group A – Non Indigene SMEs					
S/No	Sector	Industry	Years of Operation	Location	Geo-Political Zone
1	Oil extraction	G/oil Factory	15	Bida	A
2	Food processing	Bread Bakery	10	N/Bussa	C
3.	Food Processing	Bread Bakery	15	N/Bussa	C
4.	Hotel/Restaurant	Hotel	25	Bida	A
5	Printing/Publication	Printing Press	25	Bida	A
6.	Printing/Publication	Printing Press	15	Bida	A
7.	Building Construction	Block Making	10	N/Bussa	C
8.	Hotel/Restaurant	Hotel	10	Suleja	B
9.	Food Processing	Bread Baking	40	Minna	B
10.	Housing Decoration	Furniture	35	Bida	A
11.	Fish Farming	Fish Pond	07	Agaie	A
Group B Indigenous SMEs					
1.	Oil Extraction	G/oil Factory	17	Bida	A
2.	Food Processing	Bread Bakery	08	N/Bussa	C
3.	Food Processing	Rice Mill	18	Bida	A
4.	Oil Extraction	Butter oil	20	Bida	A
5.	Printing/publication	Printing Press	08	Bida	A

6.	Building construction	Block Making	15	N/Bussa	C
7.	Building Construction	Block Making	10	N/Bussa	C
8.	Hotel/Restaurant	Hotel and Guest in	30	Kontagora	C
9.	Cosmetic/soap	Pomade	13	Minna	B
10.	Food Processing	Rice Mill	05	Kutigi	A
11.	Financial Services	Micro-finance Bank	09	Bida	A

Source: Field Survey 2021

Semi-structured interview schedule was designed to obtain demographic information about the respondent entrepreneurs and the context's socio-cultural factors. The findings from the descriptive data were presented in frequency tables and percentages. On the other hand, analysis of data obtained from case studies detailed interviews and observations is based on content analysis approach by which the study tries to understand respondent's views and interpret, present and put them in writing (Tundui, 2012) and then matched the explanation with the relevant literature and empirical findings from other studies. The table below shows the characteristics of sampled SMEs in Niger State captured by the research:

Data Presentation and Analysis

This section presents the descriptive information of the respondents and qualitative interpretations of the interview responses and observation as well. The descriptive demographic results enable the study to have clear picture of the socio-cultural characteristics of the SMEs which is matched with Hostedes (1985) six cultural dimensions of comparism as presented in table 2.

Table 2: Analysis of Hofstede Cultural Dimensions on the SMEs Management

S/No	Hofstede Cultural Dimensions	SMEs Cultural Characteristics	Effects on SME Management styles
1	Power Distance	High power distance	Benevolent autocratic leader
2.	Collectivism/individualism	Collectivism-in-group priority	Family members favored in hiring & promotion not merit
3.	Uncertainty avoidance (Risk avoidance)	Low uncertainty avoidance “low risk avoidance”	No deliberate business strategic plan
4.	Masculinity/feminism	Feminism, high favoritism not hard work	Low motivation to succeed.
5.	Indulgence/restrained	High free-will and indulgence, status quo maintenance	Conservative management style, firms stay long without growth
6.	Long/short time view	Longtime traditional approach to business, - normative approach	No innovation, reactive not proactive and dynamic

Source: Hofstede, G and Bond, M.H (1988). The Confucious Connection; From Cultural roots to Economic Growth. *Organizational Dynamics*, 16(4), 4-21

At the end of presentation of findings, effort was made to compare SMEs’ operational characteristics with Barney’s (2001) five attributes of business success through the Resource-Based View (RBV) theory. For ease of performance assessment, socio-cultural characteristics of the SMEs are presented in pairs (the non-indigene SMEs are-Group A SME and the SMEs owned by Niger State indigenes are Group B SMEs). This would enable clear comparative performance analysis and discussion to furnish relevant research result, conclusions and recommendation. These are presented below:

Table 3: Level of Education of SMEs Proprietors

S/N o	Education Level	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
b.	None	1	9.0	-	0	0	9
b.	Primary school	04	36.3	03	27.2	07	31.8
c.	Secondary school	05	45.4	02	18.1	07	31.8
d.	Diploma/ NCE	-	-	02	18.1	02	9.0
e.	HND/BSC	1	9.0	04	36.3	05	22.7
f.	MSC and above	-	-	-	-	-	
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Table 3 presents the education background of SMEs proprietors which reveals that majority of group A SME manager/proprietors have secondary education (45.4%) and primary education (36.3%) background, while majority of group B SMEs have HND/BSC (36.3%) and primary education (27.2%) background. The seeming higher education background by proprietors of Group B SMEs is due to a large number of Retirees that entered entrepreneurship business. On the other hands, the socio-cultural group that constitute group A SMEs proprietors are mostly Ibos and Yoruba who mostly joined entrepreneurship in early part of their life after minimum education background in either primary or secondary level.

Table 4: Whether the Proprietor Attended Business Related Training

S/N o	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
a.	Yes	09	81.8	08	72.7	17	77.2
b.	No	02	18.1	03	27.2	05	22.7
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings from table 4 show that group A SMEs places more priority on increasing proprietary competence through formal business related trainings (82%) than group B SMEs proprietors (73%). This policy thrust has possibility of making the Group A SMEs managers more efficient in performing their managerial role so as to make the enterprises perform better than the group B SMEs.

Table 5: Proprietor’s Years of Previous Business Experiences

S/No	Years of Experience	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	1-5 years	07	63.6	05	45.4	12	54.5
b.	6-10 years	03	27.2	03	27.2	06	27.2
c.	11-15 years	01	9.0	02	18.1	03	13.6
d.	16-20 years	-	-	01	-	01	-
e.	21-above	-	-	-	-	01	-
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings from table 5 reveals that group A SMEs proprietors (64%) have 1-5 years of previous experience in managing similar business before establishing the current enterprise. On the other hands, 45.4% of Group B SMEs also have (1-5) years of previous experience. Lack of adequate previous experience has been observed to be responsible for many business failures (Avid, B. E & Nyong, 1992 figure 1)

Table 6: Major Sources of SMEs Staff Recruitment

S/No	Recruitment Sources	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
A	Friends and Family Relations	07	63.6	10	90.9	17	77.2
b.	Informal advert	04	36.3	01	9.0	05	22.7
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings from table 6 indicate that group B SMEs obtains most of their staff among family members and friends (91%) while group A SMEs also obtains some staff from friends and family (64%) but also obtain some (37%) from informal advertisement that attract competitive recruitment of competent and tested personnel. Preference of family and friends as the basic source of recruitment by Group B SMEs is consistent with Hofstede (1991) as presented in

table 2 opines that, cultural dimension of classifying cultural groups as “collectivism vs individualism. Group B SMEs being from collectivism culture (in-group) prefers members of in-group as staff while the group A SMEs that are individualist (merit-based culture) opts for merit-based recruitment even when they also employ trained members of the family and friends.

Table 7: Major Sources of SMEs Initial Investment Capital

S/N o	Initial Investment Capital Sources	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
A	Personal Savings	10	90.9	09	81.8	19	86.3
b.	Family and Friends	-	-	02	18.1	02	9.0
c.	Previous Master	01	9.0	-	-	01	4.5
d.	Other sources	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Results on table 7 reveals the two groups of SMEs obtained their initial investment capital mainly from personal savings (91%) for group A SMEs and (82%) for group B SMEs. However, while group B SME obtained additional 13% of fund from family and friends revealing collectivism characteristics, group A SMEs on the other hand obtains additional funds from commercial banks and from the previous master (9%) where they were trained and apprenticed.

Table 8: Education level of Operation Staff

S/No	Education Level	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Primary	1	9.0	01	9.0	0.7	9
b.	Secondary	09	81.8	09	81.8	18	81.8
c.	ND/NCE	01	9.0	01	9.0	02	9.0
d.	BSC/HND		-		-		
e.	MSC and Above		-		-		
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings on table 8 indicate that most of the operations staff of the two groups of SMEs are secondary school leavers (82%) for the two groups. This level of education is adequate to carry out SMEs operations which are generally capital intensive and manually operated (Oyedijo, 2014).

Table 9: Productivity of Operation Staff

S/No	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Highly productive	09	81.1	03	27.2	11	50
b.	Fairly productive	02	18.1	08	72.8	10	45.4
c.	Not Productive	-	-	-	-	-	-
d.	Grossly Unproductive	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings on table 9 show that even though the education background of the two groups of SMEs are similar (secondary leavers) the productivity capacity of group A SMEs (81.1%) exceed that of group B SMEs (27.2%). The differential performance could be attributed to “*the drive to succeed characteristics*” exhibited by group A SMEs leadership as can be seen in table 8 below.

Table 10: Level of Proprietors Drive to Succeed

S/No	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Highly pushful	11	100	04	36.3	15	68.1
b.	Fairly Pushful	-	-	07	63.6	07	32
c.	Complacent	-	-	-	-	-	-
d.	Conservative (Maintain Status Quo)	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

The results on table 10 indicates that the group A SMEs exhibit higher motivation and commitment to succeed, assessed to have 100% drive to succeed while group B SMEs is assessed to have “fair drive” or motivation to succeed by 36.3% which is far below group A. This is consistent with Hofstede (1984), as presented in table 2 that, Masculinity and feminism cultural dimensions. Masculine social culture exhibits preference for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material rewards for success. This trait is common with Ibos, Yoruba and some non-indigenous groups while Hofstede as presented in table 15 avers that, “feminine” culture, shows a preference for cooperation modesty, on community members and the weak feminine culture of togetherness, non-challenging, non-merit based rewards system is associated with the indigenous Nupes, Gwaris, Kanuris etc. Aggressive employee engagement and commitment can bridge the performance gap between the two sets of SMEs cultural dimensions.

Table 11: Frequency of the Usage of Business Funds for non-Business Purpose

S/No	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Very frequently	02	18	03	27.2	05	23
b.	Fairly frequently	05	45.4	06	54.5	11	50
c.	Not frequently	4	36.3	02	18	06	27
d.	Never use	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings on table 11 reveals that proprietors of the two groups of the SMEs indulge in the attitude of using enterprise capital for non-business personal purposes. However, group B SMEs tend to indulge more frequently (27.2%) than the group A SMEs (18%). On the fairly frequently, group A SMEs with 45.4% are less in using the business funds for other purposes than the Group B SMEs with 54.5%. Although interview responses shows that, in both instances proprietors testified that it is difficult to separate business fund from other personal funds because the enterprise is the sole source of livelihood, except in some few cases where the entrepreneurs have the means of livelihood.

Table 12: Whether the Proprietor Acquires New Technology Periodically

S/No	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Yes	07	63.6	02	18	09	41
b.	No	04	36.3	09	82	13	59
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Results on table 12 shows that group A SMEs periodically acquires new technology and equipment necessary for enhancing productivity as 64% of the respondent affirms to that, while only 18% of the group B SMEs acquire new technology, whereas, 82% of the respondents in group B SMEs give negative response to technology acquisition policy. This may be due to shortage of funds and the cultural effects of lack of long term focus of the business by group B SMEs. The high degree of uncertainty avoidance by group A SMEs influence them to acquire technology regularly. This is consistent with Hofstede (1991) as presented in table 2 that, cultural dimensions which indicates that socio-cultural group that strives hard to achieve success tends to incline on high “uncertainty avoidance” by planning a head against future needs and often have “long time” view of the business. On the other hands, low uncertainty avoidance society or cultural group tends to be “indulgence” and short time” focus, reflecting the socio-cultural characteristics of group B SMEs. Acquisition of technology implies planning against future, being long time focused and “restrained” to avoid being indulgence which represent the cultural phenomenon of group A SMEs.

Table 13: Frequency of product stealing by Operational Staff

S/No	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Very Frequent	01	9.0	01	9.0	02	9.0
b.	Fairly Frequent	06	55	08	72.7	14	63.6
c.	Never	04	36.3	02	9.0	06	27.2
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings from table 13 reveal that, the two groups of SMEs experienced stealing of business products by the staff but group B SMEs experience higher frequency of the unethical attitude as observed by 73% of the respondents. While 55% of the respondents in group A SMEs observe the indulgence of the attitudes. Commenting on the diverse unethical practices that affect business survival among group B SMEs from an interview, one of the proprietors lamented that, *“apart from product stealing, there are other subversive forces that constrains business success here such as regular sight of strange objects on factory sites I mean metaphysical things in fact, I am the guinea pig of this place’s industrialization efforts”*.

Table 14: Frequency of Credit Sale

S/No	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Very frequent	01	9.0	-	-	01	4.5
b.	Fairly frequent	06	54.5	07	63.7	13	59.0
c.	Not frequent	03	27.2	03	27.2	06	27.2
d.	Never at all	01	9.0	01	9.0	02	9.0
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings from table 14 above revealed that the personnel in the two groups of SMEs indulges in credit sale but that group B SMEs experiences more frequently that attitude (64%) while group A SMEs measure the frequency of such unethical business behaviors at 55%. Although interview reports from both groups revealed that, in some product types like Bakeries and breads are often sold on the basis of credit sale in many SMEs in both groups, which of course it is an established fact

that, credit sale often hold up business capital because many customers have tendencies for delay payment.

Table 15: Extent of Community and Family Support

S/No	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Very much	-	-	07	63.6	07	32
b.	Fairly much	01	9.0	01	9.0	02	9.0
c.	None	10	90.9	03	27.2	13	59
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings on table 15 show that group B SMEs receive substantial financial support from community confirmed by 64% of the respondent while 91% of the proprietor respondents in group A SMEs says the enterprises does not receive financial support from the community. However, contrary to the opinions of group B SMEs proprietors, one of the proprietors in the same socio-cultural group said certain behaviour of communities' members are not supportive and are seriously discouraging. *“Imagine some people travelling as far as Kano, even when our products are better to buy the same type of machine we manufacture in this town in the interest of reducing the travelling stress of local consumers”*.

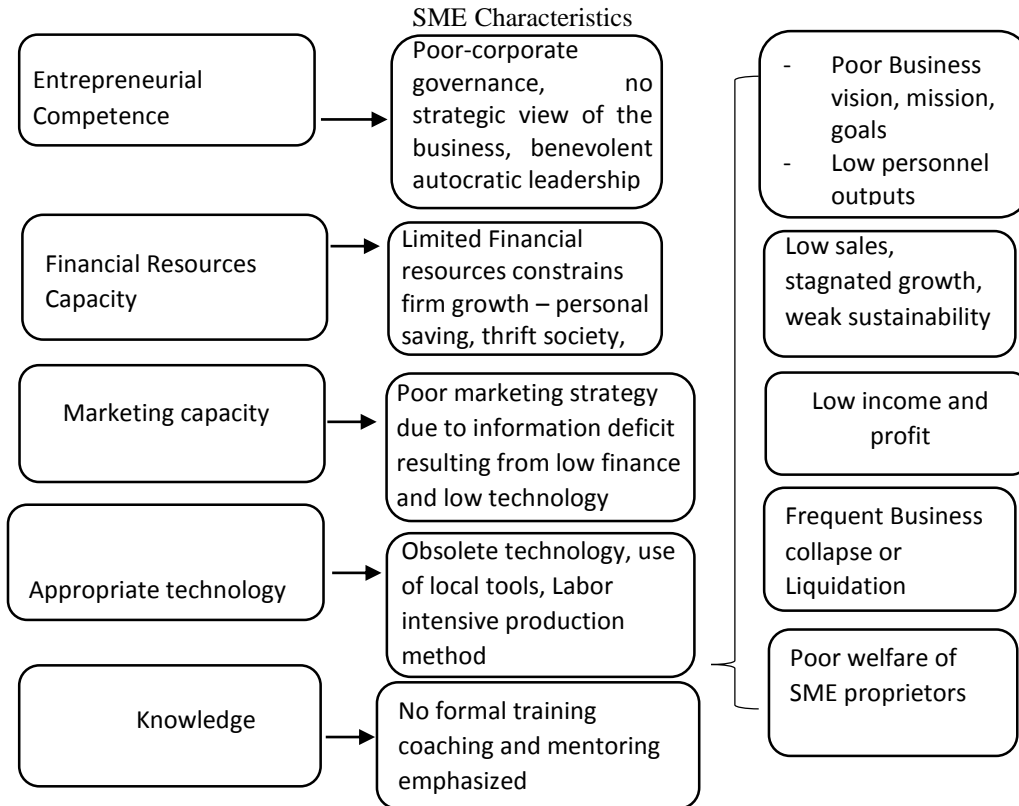
Table 16: Whether the SMEs received Financial Support from Government

S/No	Response Category	Group A SMEs		Group B SMEs		Total Frequency	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percent%
a.	Yes	-	-	-	-	-	-
b.	No	11	100	11	100	22	100
	Total	11	100%	11	100%	22	100%

Source: Field survey, 2021

Findings from table 16 below reveals that the two groups of SMEs did not receive financial support or any form of intervention from government. However, focus group discussion indicates that many of the SMEs in the groups actually receive one form of government assistance or the other, even if such supports were not substantial. Other factors that are responsible for many SMEs inability to access government intervention could be due to their inability to meet government conditionality and lack of awareness of the interventions as also reported by Avid and Nyong (1992).

Figure 1: Observed Relationship between SMEs Characteristics and Barney's



Discussions of Findings

The assumptions of the independent variables that constitute this research subjects are; that the achievement oriented enterprises owned by the non-indigenes of the State possess certain unique business management qualities that indigenous entrepreneurs (proprietors) and their business management teams lack and which is attributed as reasons for better performance of non-indigenous enterprises classified in this study as group A SMEs. The major assumptions that guided this research are: That low performing enterprises are managed by proprietors of low education background who lacks adequate knowledge and experience of business management; that entrepreneurs recruit operation staff from family and friends; that education background of these operations staff are inadequate; the operation

staff are assumed to have low productive capacity, the proprietors are assumed to lack motivation or drive to succeed; that the proprietors indulges in unethical business practices of frequently running family affairs with business capital; the business are said to suffer perennial shortage of finances; that the SMEs fails to acquire new appropriate technology to boost productivity capacity; staff indulge into frequent stealing of the business products, the SMEs experiences low growth and stagnation and conservative marketing strategy of “credit sale” Stunt business growth, the SMEs do not receive adequate financial support from family, community and government. These assumed characteristics of indigenous SME are attributed to the cultural background of the proprietors which are shaped by their behaviour, their perception of objectives of life and their attitude to work. Generally, religious believe in this culture milieu attribute success in life to destiny designed by Allah not how hard or aggressive one strive. Thrift and excessive strive is seen as ungodliness; individual wealth and success is for benefit of entire family members and that informed family based recruitment of the staff and unnecessary soft treatment of operation staff who also perceive business product as collective wealth where some part of which is often stolen to augment low compensation. Credit sale culture is the paternalistic outlook of the proprietor who decide to assist his customers to make wealth because they can't raise fund to buy through cash-and carry marketing strategy.

Unfortunately, this culture milieu's traits that demand so much from the individual success has little to offer an individual in time of needs. The low economic base of the society seems to perpetuate culture of poverty syndrome. (Bradshaw, 1994, 2020, 2005). Because high demand on the seeming successful members of the society would drain their resources and drag those to fall into poverty trap. As table 15 indicates, none of the groups of SMEs received financial support from family and community nor did they receive interventions from government (table 16). This fact was responsible for failure of many SMEs established by government and individual entrepreneurs in the State. Such promising businesses that died prematurely include: Ona Juice industries Minna, Morris fertilizer, Minna, Niger Sacks at Kontagora, Niger Detergent, Bida, Badeggi Rice Mill, Zungeru fertilizer company, Niger Mortels, Shiroro Hotels, Tobacco Company, Kontagora – and private SMEs that liquidated are primer publishing/printing press Bida, Vesper manufacturing factory Bida, Ramatu Dangana Mortel Bida, Dan Abu enterprises and Farm, Ladi Kwali pottery Suleja (downward strides), BCGA cotton Kontagora, Aluminum company Kontagora, Prime pipe plastic, Kontagora etc to mention just few.

However, contrary to the initial assumption of the research at proposal level, findings indicates that many indigenous enterprises (SMEs) are improving their business management capacity and the performance of Group B SMEs have not experienced deteriorating cultural effect in diverse areas envisaged. The indigenous SMEs are found to have competent and qualified proprietors (Table 3). In fact, they even have higher education qualification than the non-indigenes because of many retirees that have joined entrepreneurship. However, because many of the non-indigenous SME proprietors have been into business since childhood, may be after primary or secondary education, their management experience and competence are higher and are more with ability to sustain SMEs.

Another serious cultural effect on indigenous SMEs is in their culture of recruiting staff from family and friends which lead to poor recruitment exercise with consequence on SMEs' performance. However, according to the table 9 on productivity capacity of the staff, this too is not too devastating; None of the enterprises captured into this study when the study commenced from 2015 collapsed or failed, some only experienced reduced manpower due to reduced (productivity operations) caused by low economic down-turn (economic recessions). The two groups of SMEs recruit secondary school leavers for operations functions, even though group A SMEs emphasize more discipline and a highly formal relationship between management and staff (masculine culture) (Hofstede, 1980). This could have been responsible for higher productivity capacity of Group A SMEs staff than group B SMEs where staff/management relations is patanalistic and close family behaviour and productivity capacity is just fairly (63%); Group A SMEs exhibit high drive to succeed (uncertainty avoidance) while Group B SMEs is complacently fair (64%) which is a product cultural background (feminism) and perception about success in life. Ibos and Yoruba's entrepreneurs are more pushful than Nupes and other local ethnic groups, both groups of SMEs indulged into using business capital for personal purpose but Group B enterprise have higher frequency of the attitude and would likely have higher effect on the SMEs capital resources. Business performances and investment growth or diversification diffuse-role cultures do not accept compartmentalization of roles and as such see business capital as a resource for all functions (Triandis 1990), Group A SMEs show serious positive concern in acquisition of appropriate new technology to boosts productivity than the group B SMEs which show high negative behaviour (82%) toward acquisition of new technology. This could be, due to low finance. Access to capital is a strong reason that could influence differential performance between the two groups of SMEs.

Complacency and limited financial sources constraints made Group B SMEs to remain small with little growth prospects.

Attitude of stealing business products is found to be a common practice culture (behaviour) among personnel of the two business groups but the behaviour is more prevalent in group B SME (73%) while group A SMEs (55%). Product stealing has tendency to give wrong picture of productivity level. It is also found out that the two groups of SMEs formed attitude of credit marketing but group B enterprises indulge more (64%) than group A SMEs (55%). This is due to that fact that items like bread business proprietors establish chain of retailers that take commodities on credit to remit the money after selling, thus, credit sale though unconventional is a marketing strategy among SMEs, it is found out that group B SMEs depends a lot on family financial support (64%) while Group A SMEs relies on formal banking system and this explain the high capital base of group A SMEs, which significantly explain their upper hand in technology acquisition, business performance, growth and diversification. It was also found that Group A SMEs are more productive (81%) while group B SMEs are fairly product (72%). It is observed from the field survey that aging or death of the founding proprietors contributes to the fall or liquidation of many SMEs. E.g. BCC, Ladi Kwali pottery, Dan-Abu enterprises etc. while in some exceptional few cases, business survives the founding entrepreneurs to the extent of massive growth and diversifications e.g. Sauki group of companies, clinics, Pharmacy, schools (primary and secondary) water etc. Bakinka Breads, Jaiz Filling station.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The role of SMEs as engine of growth and development in developing economy cannot be fully realized if the effect of socio-cultural factors in the SMEs investment environment are not properly understood and put into considerations in SMEs management decisions. Socio-cultural factors are strong components of business environment as they manifest themselves in various forms including religious beliefs, tradition, language, norms, and attitudes. SMEs are characteristically informal high risk business with poor management orientation and unconventional business ethics. Being an informal, one-man business or at most three men, SMEs are tied to culture, tradition and religion as typified by owner's orientation, values and personality. On this basis, the submission of this study is that SMEs are better understood from the perspective of the socio-cultural

context and any convincing explanation about SME performance must consider the social and cultural sides of business behaviour.

Based on the findings about the independent variables, this study established that cultural practices, traditions, perceptions and attitudes of the proprietors affect SMEs management process and performance.

These cultural elements are explanatory factors for differential performance between achievement oriented SMEs, the non-indigenes enterprises and the low achievement SMEs (Indigenes Enterprises). To bridge this performance gap between the two groups of SMEs, the following strategies are recommended:

- i. Intensive coaching/mentoring of operating staff to make them more competent.
- ii. Value-reorientation of SMEs proprietors to adopt a long time view of business by teaching the group SMEs' managers business planning, strategic management. Where possible, avoid credit sale be minimized to save business capital-drift.
- iii. Group B SMEs should be re-educated on the value of accessing business capital from commercial banks and micro-finance banks which have ample resource instead of patronizing the informal financial sources that have limited financial facilities. These would boost SMEs capacity obtain new technology to modernize their operations for higher productivity.
- iv. SMEs leadership should be educated to patronize diverse available government intervention designed to assist SMEs growth and productivity.
- v. General Business Education is required to change the perceptions of the proprietors about business financial management, separating business capital from family management finances, ensuring strict monitoring of operating staff to check product stealing by the staff and observance of thrift principles to guard against unnecessary expenditure in running the business.
- vi. Staff discipline and adequate compensation is also recommended to check productivity and commitment of the staff.

References

- Amy, C (2003), *World on Fire; How Exporting free Market Democracy Breeds Ethnic Hatred and Global Instability*, New York Arrow Book
- Alan, P (2004), *Human Resources Management in a Business Context*, London Thomson Learning, High Holborn House

- Awe, W. (2002) *Entrepreneurship Development* (2nd Ed). Lagos: Gilgal publications.
- Agwu, M.O (2014) *Organizational Culture and Employees Performance in the National Agency for food and Drugs Administration and Control (NAFDAC) Nigeria*, *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, 14(2), 1-9.
- Allen, N.B and Udell. G.F (2004) A Complex Conceptual Framework for SME Finance, Prepared for Presentation at the Worldbank conference on: Small and Medium Enterprises Overcoming Growth Constraints, Worldbank MC 13-21.
- Allport, G.W (1935) Attitudes in C. Murchison (ed). *Handbook of Social Psychology*, Worcester, Mass; *Clerk University Press*.
- Basil, A.N (2005) *Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Nigeria; Problem and Prospects* PhD Thesis, St Clements University
- Bolton. J.E (1971), *Small Firms Report of the Committee of Inquiry on Small Firm* London; HMSO
- DFID (2001). Department for International Development, United Kingdom; *Sustainable Livelihood Guidance Sheet* February.
- Denzin, N.K and Lincoln Y.S (2000) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, London Sage Publications.
- Douglas, D.S and Pratkanis, A.R (1994). Attitude Formation. In V.S Ramachandran et al (eds). *Encyclopedia of Human Behaviour* (Academic Press, San Diego, C.A).
- Emmanuel, O.O (2005) *Culture and Economic Development in Urhoboland, Being a Paper Presented at the 6th Annual conference and Meeting of the Urhobo Historical Society PTI, Warri, October 20-23* Available at <http://www.wando.org/geography/development/ojameruayecultured>.
- Francis, X & Hezel, S.J (2009) *The Role of culture in Economic Development*, *Micronesian Counselor* 77 June, 2009
- Felicia, O.J, George, O, Owoyemi, O and M, Adegboye (2014). Effect of Socio-Cultural Realities on the Nigerian Small and Medium Sized Enterprises (SMEs): Case of Small and Medium Sized Enterprises in Lagos State. *International Journal of Business and Management* a(1), 2014.
- Hofstede, G (1994), *Cultures and Organization Software of the Mind*, Harper Collins
- Hofstede (1980). *Culture's Consequences; International differences in Work-related Values*, Beverly Hills. C.A; Sage Publications.

- Hofstede, G (1985), The Interactions between National and Organizational Value Systems, *Journal of Management Studies*, 22(4), 347-357. Gross Ref.
- Hofstede, G and Bond, M.H (1988). The Confucious Connection; From Cultural roots to Economic Growth. *Organizational Dynamics*, 16(4), 4-21 Cross ref.
- Hall, E.T (1976). *Beyond Culture*, New York Anchor Books/A Division of Random House. Inc.
- Inglehart, R and Baker, W (2000) Modernization, Cultural Change and Persistence of Traditional Values, *American Sociological Reviews*, 65(1), February, Pg 19-21.
- Islam, M.A Khan, M.A Obaidullah, A.Z & Alam, M.S (2011). Effect of Entrepreneur and Firm Characteristics on the Business Success of Small and Medium Enterpries (SMEs) in Bangladesh, *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(3), 289-299.
- Krosnick, JA & Abelson, R.P (1992) The Cable for Measuring Attitude Strength in Surveys. In Tanur (Ed) *questions About Questions: Inquires into the Cognitive Bases of Surveys*.
- Muazu, B.A (2008) Issues on De-Industrialization of Northern Nigeria; which way out? Being Address at a Conference Organized by Leadership Newspaper Group, in Abuja on Tuesday, 4th March.
- Maziku, P, Majenga A. and M.G Robert (2014); the Effects of Socio-Cultural Factors on the Performance of Women Small and Medium Enterprises in Tanzania. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, Vol 5 NO 21.
- Milton, K. (1997), Ecologies; Anthropology, Culture, and the Environment, *International Social Science Journal* 49(4), 477-495.
- Ngwangwarma, M.M, Ungerer. M & Morrison J. (2013); An Explanatory Study of Key Success Factors for Business Success of Companies iii. The Namibian Tertiary Industry, *International Journal of Innovation in Business*, 2(6): 604-629.
- Nkwi P, Nyamongo, I. S & Ryan. G (2001) *Field Research into Social Issues: Methodological Guidelines*, Washington D.C. UNESCO.
- Naz, O and A Mukherjee (2014). The Effect of National Culture and Human Development on Environmental Health.
- Oyedijo, I.S (2004); The Imperatives of Environmental Support for Business Performance: An unpublished paper presented at Manufacturer Association of Nigeria, Lagos Chapter.

- Okafor, L.I, Onifade, T.A and O.A Daniel (2018) Analytical Review of Small and Medium Scale Enterprises in Nigeria. *International Journal of Business and Entrepreneurship Research*, Vol 6, No 2 PP32-46, March 2018
- Olaoye, R. (2003). Man and Technology, In B. Salawu (ed). *Sociology and Themes* (PP 101-21), Ilorin, *Ahnour International*.
- Patton, M.Q (2002) *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*, London Sage.
- Pope, C, Mays N (2000). *Qualitative Research in Health care*. London; BMJ Books
- Ralph, L (1945), *The Cultural Background of Personality*, NewYork Appleton – century – Croft Inc.
- Rokeach, M (1973), *The Nature of Human Values*. London. *The Free Press Collier, Mc Millan Publishers*
- Rao, V (2004), *Culture and Development Policy*. The World Bank – www.worldbank.org.
- Schumpeter R.S & Weidinger, G (2014) *Linking business and Society; An Overview in C.Heidelberg*; Springer <https://doi.org/10.1007>
- Shaiter, G (1989); *The Predictability of Small Enterprises Failures; Evidence and Issues*, *International Small Business Journal* 7(4) 54-58. <https://doi.org/10.1177/02662426>.
- Trompenaars F. and Charles, H.T (1997), *Riding the Wave of Culture: Understanding Diversity in Global business*, 2nd Ed, McGraw-Hill, London.
- Triandis, H.C (1972) *The Analysis of Subjective Culture*, New York, *John Wiley and Sons*
- Triandis, H.C (1995). *Individualism and Collectivism*, Boulder, C.D: *Westview Press*.
- Thompson, H (2001) *Culture and Economic Development; Modernization to globalization, Theory and Science*.
- Tesfayohannes, M (2012) *African Entrepreneurs should Plan and Aspires Beyond the Fence at the Current Complex Global Business Environment*. Sigmund Weis School of Business. Susquechanna University, *Selinegrove, P.A USA*.
- The Organization for Economic Cooperation (DECD), (2009). *The Impact of the Global Crisis on SME and Entrepreneurship Financing and Policy Responses*, centre for entrepreneurship, SMEs and Local Development.
- The World Bank, (2012) *Doing business*, Washington DC

- Van A. H & Werber. J (2006); Family Dynamic and Family business Financial Performances; Spousal Commitment, *Family Business Review*, 19(1), 49-63.
- Weber, M (1905 – 2010), *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, Penguin Classics, *New York*
- WEF: *The Global Risks Report (2017)*, 12th Edition, Appendix C: The Executive Opinion Survey – 2016; Views of the Business Community on the Global Risks of highest concern for doing Business
- Wang, Z & Wany N (2012). Knowledge Sharing, Innovation and Firm Performance, *Expert Systems with Application*, 39(10), 8899-8908.
- Zucchella A & Siano. A (2014) Internationalization and Innovation as Resources for SME Growth in Foreign Markets; A Focus on Textile and Clothing Firms in Campania Region; *International Studies of Management and Organization* 44(1), 21-41, <https://doi.org/10.2753//Mour0020-88244>

The Effect of Technology and Innovation on Entrepreneurship: Empirical Evidence from Women in Small and Medium Scale Enterprises in Edo State, Nigeria

Margaret E. EHIGIE, PhD¹ and Peter O. ERIKI, PhD²

¹Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences,
University of Benin, Benin-City, Nigeria

Correspondence: maggie.e.a.clark@gmail.com, Tel: +234 8162035432

² Department of Banking and Finance, Faculty of Management Sciences,
University of Benin, Benin-City, Nigeria

Abstract

Investment in technology and innovation is considered as a major factor of economic development that places a nation at an advanced level. The effect of technology and innovation on entrepreneurship for women in small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) was examined in this study. A survey research design whereby primary data was collected by means of questionnaire in eliciting information from 384 sample respondents selected through a purposive sampling technique was adopted for the study. Data analysis was carried out using descriptive and inferential statistics through frequency distribution tables and regression analysis. The research findings show that technology and innovation played significant roles in supporting women in SMEs. In the analysis, high and low levels in the weighting scale indicate the importance and challenge respectively, in acquiring up-to-date technological and innovative capabilities by women operating in SMEs. The study recommends that government especially at the national level need to aid women entrepreneurs in SMEs by providing the needed technology and infrastructure. In addition, these women entrepreneurs need to make conscious efforts in acquiring technological skills, innovative ideas and up-to-date technology needed to improve on their business capabilities.

Keywords: technology, innovation, entrepreneurship, women, SMEs

Introduction

The state of economic development in any nation is usually assessed by its achievements in science and technology. Developed nations are so called due to the advancement in technology, science, research and innovation particularly through entrepreneurial ventures (Ndesaluwa & Kikula, 2016; Tende, 2016). Entrepreneurship specifically in the small and medium scale industries exist to boost the economic wellbeing of nations especially as they constitute over 80 percent of business enterprises that contribute to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of an economy (Bawa, Idris, Idris, & Leonard, 2017). Over time, the increase of women in entrepreneurship also enhances the chances of national economic development hence the need to encourage people and businesses to take

up entrepreneurship and investments in required technology and innovation (Hammawa & Hashim, 2016).

Entrepreneurship for women is often considered as a chance for economic empowerment, contributions to the community and nation, and eventually freedom from poverty (International Labour Organisation, 2015). However, the empowerment of women as an economic approach for a nation to alleviate poverty is a concern still being pursued in recent times particularly in developing nations (Padmavathi, 2011). Factors that cut across issues of finance, networking, business training, and technology and innovation (technovation) work for or against emerging women entrepreneurs and even generally established entrepreneurs. It has been shown that entrepreneurship in small and medium enterprises (SMEs) can rightly aid women and ultimately in great means, facilitate techno-innovative capabilities (Hussain, Afzal, Asif, Ahmad, & Bilal, 2011; Bawa et al, 2017).

The economic worth of women as an important entrepreneurial group has been highly recognized in most developed economies (Iyiola & Azuh, 2014). Women entrepreneurs require the necessary material, human, finance, technical support, and innovation to thrive and succeed in their chosen individual business enterprises. There are several means by which technology and innovation also referred to as technovation can be employed to assist in making businesses function optimally (Tende, 2016). Still, it is not known what major issues in managing business enterprises technology and innovation has on entrepreneurship for women in Edo State. Though there is substantial expanse of research works on the impact of technology and innovation for women in business (Hussain et al, 2011; Lawal and Oluwatoyin, 2011; Iyiola and Azuh, 2014; Bawa et al, 2017) there is a gap in research on knowing the effect technology and innovation has on entrepreneurship by women operating in SMEs in Edo State, Nigeria.

Studies that have investigated various reasons that affect entrepreneurship for women through the impact of technology and innovation lack empirical evidence to show the effect on women entrepreneurs in SMEs based in selected regions/districts (Padmavathi, 2011; Che-Ha & Mohd-Said, 2012; Ndesaulwa & Kikula, 2016; Ambepitiya, 2016; Hammawa & Hashim, 2016). Hence, the main objective of this study is to examine the effect of technology and innovation on entrepreneurship for women in small and medium scale enterprises in the three

senatorial districts in Edo State, Nigeria. Consequently, this study is guided by the following research question: Does access to technology and innovation (technovation) affect entrepreneurship of women in small and medium scale enterprises?

Literature Review

Concepts of Technology and Innovation

The concept of technology and innovation comprises technical innovation that is also referred to as technovation. It involves all aspects of technological innovation from conception of a new technology-based product through to the support of innovative ideas (Ndesaulwa & Kikula, 2016). Technology involves the required up-to-date equipment or infrastructure needed to improve business performance and minimize loss of time, effort and finance in running a business. It involves technological know-how on the part of entrepreneurs together with the needed skills to be innovative and create new ways of improving the status of the business. Technology is defined as the capability of people to create man-made things by hand or machine (Hussain et al, 2011). It is the use of information to the everyday purposes of daily life or to altering and influencing the social environment. The use of resources, tools, systems, and sources of power to make life and work much easier and productive constitutes the utilization of technology. Hence, the central emphasis of technology is to make things to materialize (Ndesaulwa & Kikula, 2016).

Innovation on the other hand refers to a skill which is the basic and foremost quality of an entrepreneur that requires creativity which comprises developing new ideas to make new products and ways of doing business and improving one's business opportunities (Sharma, 2013). New ideas often realize an operative equilibrium between novelty and features that are common, although attractive to customers (Bawa et al, 2017). Generating novel innovation necessitates a substantial amount of time, effort, and often, economic resources in addition. Innovation commonly adds to economic benefit and improvement. To be innovative, entrepreneurs need to be different and frequently change their attention from existing concepts to potential techniques and ways of doing business (Che-Ha & Mohd-Said, 2012).

Consequently, developing new ideas, products, services, and processes using technology is referred to as technical innovation. Annually, challenges arise

globally that require technology to generate a system that would address issues locally or nationally. In over a decade now, 28 countries and more have deferred to technology and innovation (technovation) and this has brought about worldwide changes both at local and international levels (Ndesaulwa & Kikula, 2016). Technological change, mainly in developing countries, involves not only cutting edge innovating but also about modifying current products and processes to attain advanced levels of productivity as appropriate to their indigenous settings. In this manner, the capability of indigenous companies and enterprises to access technological know-how is important to determining their capacity to offer products and services, equally of the type that are necessary to increase standards of living, and that can similarly encourage growth and effectiveness (Kymal, 2014; Chinonye, Iyiola, Akinbode, & Obigbemi, 2015).

However, the changes comprise technological developments and discoveries which will support innovation, accessibility of resources for innovative product development and introduction, adaptation or displacement of current products, and supervision of entrepreneurial ventures. In addition, management of innovation in medium-sized and large organisations, organizational structures projected to enable innovation, investment plans linked to innovative science – or technology-based enterprise, the innovator as an individual and as a personality type, and technology transfer to developing countries (Hussain et al, 2011).

Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is a skill that enables a drive towards self-reliance, a capability to set up a business as different from being employed, and also the practice of creating new businesses or fortifying established organisations in reaction to newly identified opportunities (Lee & Hsieh, 2010). It is the willingness and ability to acquire business skills to explore and exploit investment opportunities and establish and manage a successful business enterprise. The entrepreneurial organisation continuously engages in innovation, constantly tries to improve its products and services, foremost in its fields of operations and often engages in high and risky activities (Eriki & Asemota, 2017). This involves arranging business deals and taking calculated risks in order to make profit through acquired business skills. However, entrepreneurial activities are considerably different depending on the kind of venture that is being started. It varies in scale from solo projects; even including the entrepreneur's only part-time to major undertakings of creating many job opportunities (Alvaro, Domingo & Salvador, 2008). The

term “entrepreneurship” has historically been referred to as the efforts of an individual who takes risks in creating a successful business enterprise. However, more recently, entrepreneurship has been conceptualized as a process that can occur in organisations of all types and sizes (Krugar, 2004).

Entrepreneurship activity is a dynamic process of creating incremental wealth or wealth created by individuals who assume the major risks in terms of equity, time and/or career commitment or provide value for some product or service (Chinonye et al, 2015). The socio-economic rationales for the drive to pursue careers in entrepreneurship are: creation of wealth, creation of employment and dispersal of business activities. In addition, it entails inspired creativity in every sphere of socio-economic life and institution of socio-political development, particularly from public to private control (Bawa et al, 2017). Entrepreneurship is a worthwhile process that will truly help in minimizing unemployment challenges because it underscores self-employment through skills acquisition and capacity building. Therefore, entrepreneurship is imperative as an instrument for creation of jobs, social change and economic growth (Mosuro, 2017).

The Entrepreneurial Woman

Women who play an important role by continuously operating alongside with and seriously transforming themselves to socio-economic and financial levels in their operative business environment are referred to as women entrepreneurs (Afza, Osman, & Rashid, 2010). A woman entrepreneur is a general term that defines the entrepreneurial woman as a self-employed female business owner. This term which defines the entrepreneurial woman highlights the concept of a female who owns and manages her own business enterprise. A woman-owned enterprise is one that is totally or mostly female-owned and managed (Sharma, 2013). Worldwide, the influence of women entrepreneurs is fast attaining appreciation as they make positive contributions to the global economy (Bushell, 2008; Shah & Saurabh, 2015). The number of business enterprises run by women continues to grow as this group of entrepreneurs develop autonomy, creativity, innovation, and take conscious risks. Women are progressively rising as entrepreneurs and business owners, contributing their significance to the gross domestic product (GDP) of their nations (Hammawa & Hashim, 2016).

In different parts of every nation, women entrepreneurs are important sources to the economy as they influence the economic and social spheres. Women

entrepreneurs in sub-Saharan Africa contribute to the agricultural sector in food production between 80 – 85 percent in Asia, the Caribbean, and North Africa and the Middle East are 50 – 60 percent, 26 percent, and 34 percent respectively, while Latin America is over 30 percent (International Labour Organisation, 2015). Women entrepreneurs offer numerous ideas and sufficient energy outputs and investment earnings to their communities, generate employments, and in addition, create additional work for suppliers, business contacts, and associates (Ezeibe et al, 2013). Primarily, women entrepreneurs are basically women who contribute to innovative endeavors; and are resourceful in integrating resources in wealth and value creation. A majority of women entrepreneurs operate in micro, small and medium scale enterprises (MSMEs) that make up more than 97% of all businesses, 60% of state GDP, and 94% of the general employment ration (Iyiola & Azuh, 2014; Tende, 2016).

Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs)

Business enterprises all over the world comprise about 90 per cent small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) (Jannah, 2017). SMEs play a significant role for growth and competitiveness in the business sector as well as contributing greatly to national economy. SMEs are expected to be essential profitable means that provide opportunities for employment, employment creation, and enhanced return of investments (Uwameiye and Clark 2003). They create expertise and ingenuity that help build concerted economic relations among nations. Consequently, for SMEs, innovative capabilities are observed as essential to attaining a dynamic and efficient lead to survive in the existing fast unstable economic conditions in every business environment. Hence, through this ingenious competence, SMEs can identify, select, modify, expand on, and develop innovative abilities and products (Ali & Ali, 2013). Although, SMEs are small in terms of size, capital base, management and numbers of employees, they are a significant factor that contributes to the economy of nations. The growth of individual economic independence cooperatively increases to a whole economically independent state. Hence, the economic advancement of SMEs is a necessity for national independence (Hussain, Bhuiyan & Bakar, 2014).

SMEs enable entrepreneurs to engage in creative, innovative and decision making activities that would help sustain their enterprises, enhance living standards, increase awareness in the political and economic matters of its country of operation and minimize failure in business (Alvaro et al, 2008). Thus, women

entrepreneurs operating in SMEs gain economic empowerment as they can have resources, especially financial resources, to expand their entrepreneurial activities (Padmavathi, 2011). In addition, the operative enterprise engages new entrepreneurs of women and youths, hence, help solves the socio-economic challenges/problems of women, especially in rural communities. Effective enterprises are similarly capable of improving the management abilities of the entrepreneur (Afza, Osman, & Rashid, 2010).

Challenges of Technological know-how and Innovation for Enterprises

The entrepreneurial practice is affected by the human, social, physical, organizational and technological capital possessed by business owners which is available to them through their individual backgrounds and experiences, contacts, relationships and networks (Hussain et al, 2014). It is widely perceived that the capability of fast technological advancement helps the world overcome the significant challenges of our current circumstances. However, globally, governments and policy makers especially at the national level are faced with the great challenge in seeking to utilize technologies to address energy, poverty, food insecurity, environmental threats and job creation. While for individuals in the developing world, access are still a main challenge, impeding their capacity to acquire how to use technologies that would increase their living standards and encourage enterprise growth (Hussain et al, 2011; Kymal, 2014). New and modern technologies are regularly developed in public research institutes and it is at times not easy to shift ownership of these technologies to entrepreneurial businesses (Che-Ha & Mohd-Said, 2012). New enterprises have only inadequate capability to deal with the frequently complex technology transfer process due to their meagre resource endowment. In addition, many women lack access to these new and advanced technologies. Women entrepreneurs, especially in rural areas, lack adequate formal education and technical and development training that can increase their access to these basic technologies (Bawa et al, 2017). The tide of economic growth in developing nations, especially emerging economies, has been greatly probable due to their rising technological know-hows. In recent times, this is revealed in the upsurge in their capital goods imports. Women business owners may be disadvantaged in their access to various entrepreneurial capitals, given their individual backgrounds and business experiences and the socio-economic and cultural context in which their businesses operate. Hence, a revolution in technology and innovation can provide women particularly in Africa, new

opportunities for business growth and survival (Ndesaulwa & Kikula, 2016; Mosuro, 2017).

Women Entrepreneurship: Technology and Innovation and Demographics

In exploring technology and innovation as a central source, the demographic variables of age, education, ethnicity, marital status, and religion are considered in this study.

Age: the profile and various age groups provide a measure to examine the frequency of this study's sample of businesswomen. The chances of getting into entrepreneurial ventures are different for the various age groups (Padmavathi, 2011).

Education: education comprises quality education that helps strengthen the capabilities and business skills acquired by women entrepreneurs in managing their businesses (Ezeibe et al, 2013). Quality education decreases the high number of women with low levels in the use of technology (Iyiola and Azuh, 2014).

Ethnicity: ethnicity involves women in small and medium scale businesses from different ethnic backgrounds as observed nationally and internationally (Bushell, 2008; Chinonye et al, 2015; Hammawa & Hashim, 2016).

Marital status: the different groups of the marital status of women entrepreneurs consist of being single (unmarried), married, divorced, or widowed.

Religion: religion such as Christianity, Islam, and others as practiced in many parts of the world point out the degree to which women engage in economic activities that afford them an entrepreneurial advantage (Chinonye et al, 2015).

Theoretical framework: Joseph Alois Schumpeter's Innovation Theory

Joseph Alois Schumpeter's innovation theory of entrepreneurship (1934) states that an entrepreneur had three main characteristics: innovation, proactivity and creativity. Entrepreneurship occurs when the entrepreneur creates a new product, introduces a new way to make an old product and discovers a new market for a product. Also, it occurs when an entrepreneur discovers a new source of raw materials and finds new ways of creating things or organisations. The

Schumpeterian entrepreneur, in applying new ways of production and in opening up new markets, differs from imitators. This creative ability difference gives the entrepreneur a chance to accumulate a surplus and obtain profits through innovative abilities and ideas. Hence, an entrepreneur, from this perspective, plays the role of a revolutionary in innovative creation and use of new production techniques and technology (Schumpeter, 1991).

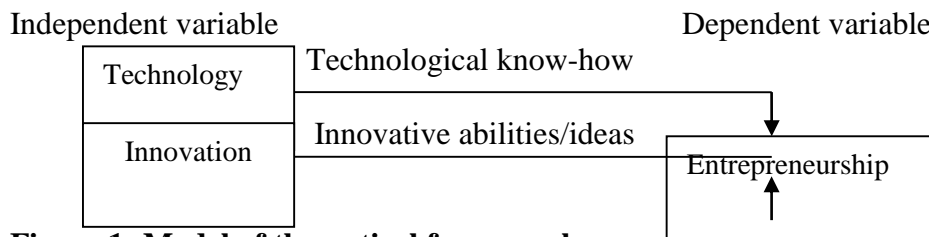


Figure 1: Model of theoretical framework

Schumpeter asserted that dynamic uncertainty was usually determined by innovating entrepreneurs who set the standard for a healthy economy. He viewed entrepreneurship as an innovation and entrepreneurs as necessary agents of their innovative abilities. However, they must to be assisted with the availability of technological know-how and financial resources in order to perfect innovative ideas (Scudder, 2011; Eriki & Asemota, 2017). The entrepreneurship ability is scarce and the business of entrepreneurs is too risky. This theory applies to large-scale businesses, but economic conditions force small entrepreneurs to imitate rather than innovate (Scudder, 2011; Tiryaki, 2011). Numerous opportunities for the entrepreneur follow from technology that follows from innovation (Kymal, 2014).

Hence, the hypothesis of the study:

H₁: Access to technology and innovation (technovation) does not significantly affect entrepreneurship of women in small and medium scale enterprises.

Methodology

An exploratory survey research design whereby questionnaire as a research instrument was used in obtaining information from the selection of women entrepreneurs was adopted for this study. The population of this study across the three Senatorial Districts (S.D.s) of Edo State, Nigeria comprised 3853 women who own and operate small and medium scale enterprises (Businesslist, 2021).

Simple random sampling technique was used in selecting from each of the three senatorial districts four local government areas. Stratified sampling technique was used in determining the 32 respondents who were selected from each of the 12 randomly selected local government areas as shown in Table 1. This form of sampling is stratification, where the over-all population is categorized as women in SMEs (Osaze & Izedonmi, 2008). Therefore, the population of women was an important module of the study.

Table 1: Purposively selected women entrepreneurs in Edo State

S/N	Senatorial districts (S.D.s) and Local Government Areas (L.G.A.s)	Simple randomly selected L.G.A.s	Number of L.G.A.s per S.D.s	Purposively selected women entrepreneurs/ L.G.A.s	Total no. per S.D.s
1.	Edo North: Akoko-Edo, Etsako East, Etsako Central, Etsako West, Owan East, Owan West	Etsako Central Akoko-Edo Owan East Etsako East	4	32 32 32 32	128
2.	Edo Central: Esan central, Esan North-East, Esan South-East, Esan West, Igueben	Igueben Esan South-East Esan Central Esan West	4	32 32 32 32	128
3.	Edo South: Oredo, Orhionmwon, Ovia North-East, Ovia South-West, Egor, Uhunmwode, Ikpoba Okha	Oredo Egor Orhionmwon Ikpoba-Okha	4	32 32 32 32	128
Total			12		384

Thereafter, in selecting a sample of 384 women entrepreneurs a purposive sampling technique was used. The consideration for this technique was to let the researcher to choose the respondents who can give the best information to realize

this study's objective. Thus, in calculating the sample size for the quantitative study, Cochran's (1977) formula for sample size determination was used.

$$N = Z^2 p (1 - p)/E^2$$

Where, N = sample population; Z² = statistical level of confidence (1.96²); p = expected prevalence (0.50); 1 = constant; E² = marginal error (0.05²)

$$\begin{aligned} N &= 1.96^2 \frac{(0.50)(1 - 0.50)}{0.05^2} \\ &= 3.8416 \frac{[(0.50)(1 - 0.50)]}{0.0025} \\ &= 384.16 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the number of research respondents and sample size for the study was 384. Analysis and interpretation of data were done using descriptive-analytical tools such as simple percentages and frequency distribution tables. The hypothesis was tested by means of multiple regression analysis to ascertain the perceived predictive role of technology and innovation on entrepreneurship for women operating in SMEs. The decision rule for the hypothesis is centered on a probability (p) value of 0.05, such that if the p-value is less than 0.05 the null hypothesis is rejected; or else, it is accepted. The instrument was a five-point Likert scale; for interpretation, it was interpreted to three levels of high, moderate, and low. High ranged from 2.68 – 5.00; moderate ranged from 2.34 – 2.67; and low ranged from 1 – 2.33. This study underlined technology and innovation as a factor which affects the development of women entrepreneurs in their businesses.

Presentation, analyses and discussion of results

To investigate if access to technology and innovation affects women entrepreneurs in small and medium scale enterprises and the resultant percentage, respondents were required to indicate their perceptions concerning cash flow, profits, and loans. The question was answered using the data on finance and was analysed using mean (\bar{x}), standard deviation, and a weighting scale of high, moderate, and low. The result is presented in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Access to Technology and Innovation of Women Entrepreneurs in Small and Medium Scale Enterprises

SN	Items on Challenges of Technology and Innovation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Decision
1	Ability to use machines such as computers, cash-registers, and POS for business efficiency	2.38	1.19	Moderate
2	High anxiety in buying or changing machines to assist business	2.57	1.07	Moderate
3	Ability to improve on business standards as technology improves or changes	2.35	1.04	Moderate
4	Ability to attend trainings, workshops and seminars for business efficiency	2.34	1.08	Moderate
5	Confident enough to know what innovations to make in improving business	1.96	0.95	Low
6	Ability to manage all business aspects requiring modern technology	2.30	1.03	Low
7	Promoting creativity and innovation among employees	2.05	1.00	Low

Table 2 showed that ‘ability to use machines such as computers, cash register, and POS for business efficiency’ indicated a moderate level of access of women entrepreneurs in the use of technology and innovation in small and medium scale enterprises. It had a mean rating above the benchmark of 2.34. In addition, ‘high anxiety in buying or changing machines to assist business’ (2.57); ‘ability to improve on business standards as technology improves or changes’ (2.35); and ‘ability to attend trainings, workshops and seminars for business efficiency’ (2.34) also indicated moderate levels. The other items of being ‘confident enough to know what innovations to make in improving business’ (1.96); ‘ability to manage

all business aspects requiring modern technology' (2.30); and 'promoting creativity and innovation among employees' (2.05) were rated below 2.33 benchmark. All those items indicated a low level of awareness in the use of technology and innovation in small and medium enterprises. Thus, "high anxiety in buying or changing machines to assist business" showed the highest effect on the level of awareness of women entrepreneurs in the use of technology and innovation in small and medium enterprises. On the other hand, "confident enough to know what innovations to make in improving business" showed the least level of access of women entrepreneurs in the use of technology and innovation in small and medium enterprises.

Testing of Hypothesis 1: Access to technology and innovation (technovation) does not significantly affect women entrepreneurs in small and medium scale enterprises

Table 3: Regression Analysis on the Access to Technology and Innovation by Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	T	p
Age	0.0680	0.294	0.231	0.818
Education	-3.618	0.443	-8.165	0.000
Ethnicity	0.127	0.129	0.982	0.327
Marital Status	0.266	0.333	0.798	0.425
Religion	-0.470	0.558	-0.842	0.401
Constant	24.911	1.696	14.688	0.000

Note: $R^2 = 0.178$; **Adjusted $R^2 = 0.166$; $F = 15.219$; and $p < 0.001$; Criterion variable**

Source: Researcher's Field Work 2018.

Table 3 presented the results on the access to technology and innovation by women in SMEs.

Discussion

The main objective of this study is to examine the effect of technology and innovation on entrepreneurship for women in SMEs in Edo State, Nigeria. Findings show that technology and innovation played significant roles in supporting women in SMEs ($F = 15.219$; $p < 0.001$). The adjusted R^2 of 0.166 showed that technology and innovation accounted for 16.6% variances in supporting these women entrepreneurs; that was relatively a moderate effect. Thus, acquiring the needed technology and innovation is of importance to the enterprise of women in SMEs.

Furthermore, indices on technology and innovation were mostly moderate on all extents with the least mean value of 1.96 concerning being confident enough to know what innovations to make in improving business. However, a mean rating above the benchmark of 2.34 regarding the ability to improve on business standards as technology improves or changes show a mean value of 2.35. These indicated moderate awareness, access and use of relevant technology and innovation in the way of running and improving on their business enterprises. Therefore, majority of the indicators show a moderate importance of the need for relevant technology and innovation for business. Although technology involves the required up-to-date equipment or infrastructure needed to improve business performance and minimize loss of time, effort and finance in running a business as stated by Hussain et al (2011), 'ability to manage all business aspects requiring modern technology' showed a low level of 2.30 which indicated the challenge faced by the women entrepreneurs. In addition, a low level of 2.05 as regards 'promoting creativity and innovation among employees' did not support the assertion by Sharma (2013) that innovation which is a basic and foremost quality of an entrepreneur, requires creativity which comprises developing new ideas to make new products and ways of doing business and improving one's business opportunities.

Conclusion

Women entrepreneurs need to acquire the necessary technological know-how and innovative abilities and ideas in order to easily access required technology and innovation for successful entrepreneurship in their operative SMEs. This study highlighted the importance of introducing current technology in an ever changing business environment and the importance of gaining innovative capabilities for

relevance and competitiveness. Through the necessary access to up-to-date technological capabilities and innovative ideas, technology and innovation played significant roles in entrepreneurship for women operating in SMEs. Hence, women in SMEs who have the needed general entrepreneurial requirements have better management of their businesses.

Recommendation

- Government particularly at the national level need to aid SMEs by providing the needed technology and infrastructure for women entrepreneurs in order to create the ability to manage all business aspects requiring modern technology which can increase financial returns and thus increase national economy.
- Women entrepreneurs need to make conscious efforts in acquiring technological skills, innovative ideas and up-to-date technology needed to improve on their business capabilities. There should be planned efforts in buying or changing technology to assist the running of their business enterprise.

References

- Afza, T., Osman, M. H. & Rashid, M.A. (2010). Enterprising behaviour of enterprise-less rural women entrepreneurs of Khyber PukhtanKhawa of Pakistan. *European Journal of Social Sciences* 18 (1), 109-119.
- Ali, A.H. & Ali, A.S. (2013). Challenges and constraints faced by Somali women entrepreneurs in Benadir region. *Interdisciplinary journal of contemporary research in business* 5 (2), 436-441
- Alvaro, C., Domingo, R. & Salvador, R. (2008). Entrepreneurship: concepts, theory and perspective. Introduction, Madrid: University of Valencia
- Ambepitiya, K.R. (2016). The role of women entrepreneurs in establishing sustainable development in developing nations. *World review of business research*. 6 (1), 161-178
- Bawa, I., Idris, A.M., Idris, A.J., & Leonard, A.U. (2017). Examining female entrepreneurship development in Nigeria: a pathway to sustainable development. *International journal of scientific research in social sciences and management studies* 2 (1), 24-34
- Bushell, B. (2008). Women entrepreneurs in Nepal: what prevents them from leading the sector? *Gender, development, and leadership*. 16 (3), 549-564.
- Businesslist (2017). Businesslist.com

- Che-Ha, N., & Mohd-Said, S. (2012). Innovation practices by Malaysian SMEs in N. Che-Ha & A. Mahmood (eds.), *Malaysian SMEs in the new economy* (pp. 39-58). *Petaling Jaya*: Cengage learning Asia pte ltd.
- Chinonye, L.M., Iyiola, O.O., Akinbode, M.O., & Obigbemi, I.A., (2015). Women entrepreneurship in Nigeria: Policy framework, challenges and remedies. *Kasmera*. 43 (2)
- Eriki, P.O. & Asemota, I. (2017). Pre-knowledge of entrepreneurship among first year university students in universities in Nigeria: evidence from Nigeria. *Asian academic research*.
- Ezeibe, A.B.C., Diogu, G.O., Eze, J.U., Chiaha, G.U., Nwokenna, E.N. (2013). Women entrepreneurship as a cutting edge for rural development in Nigeria. *International institute for science, technology and education (IISTE)* 3 (5), 1 -7
- Hammawa, Y.M., Hashim, N.B. (2016). Women-micro entrepreneurs and sustainable economic development in Nigeria. *IOSR journal of business and management (IOSR-JBM)* 18 (1), 27 -36
- Hussain, M.D., Bhuiyan, A.B., & Bakar, R. (2014). Entrepreneurship development and poverty alleviation: an empirical review. *Journal of Asian scientific research*. 4 (10), 558-573.
- Hussain, M.F., Afzal, A, Asif, M., Ahmad, N., & Bilal, R.M. (2011). Impact of innovation, technology, and economic growth on entrepreneurship. *American international journal of contemporary research*. 1 (1), 45 – 51
- International Labour Organisation (ILO). (2015). Women's entrepreneurship development: encouraging women entrepreneurs for jobs and development. *ILO's women's entrepreneurship development programme*.
- Iyiola, O. & Azuh, D. (2014). Women entrepreneurs as small-medium enterprise (SME) operators and their roles in socio-economic development in Ota, Nigeria. *International journal of economics, business and finance* 2 (1), 1 -10
- Jannah, C. (2017). Why we de-registered 46,000 companies in Nigeria-CAC. *Daily post*.
- Kruger, M.E. (2004). *Entrepreneurship theory and creativity*. University of Pretoria.
- Kymal, C. (2014). *Technology, innovation and entrepreneurship. OMNEX driving worldwide business excellence*

- Lawal, T. & Oluwatoyin, A. (2011). National development in Nigeria: Issues, challenges and prospects. *Journal of public administration and policy research* 3 (9) 237 -241
- Lee, J.S., & Hsieh, C.J. (2010). A research in relating entrepreneurship, marketing capability, innovative capability and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of business & economics research*, 8 (9), 109-120
- Mosuro, F. (2017). Ease of doing business in Nigeria: New initiatives from the corporate affairs commission. *ACAS Law*. mondaq.com
- Ndesaulwa, A.P. and Kikula, J., (2016). The impact of technology and innovation (technovation) in developing countries: a review of empirical evidence. *Journal of business and management sciences* 4 (1), 7 – 11
- Padmavathi, D. (2011). Sustainable development of rural women entrepreneurs. *International conference on business, economics and tourism management* 24 (2011), 67 - 72
- Schumpeter, J.A. (1934). *The theory of economic development: an inquiry into profits, capital, credit, interest, and the business cycle*. Harvard university press, Cambridge, MA.
- Schumpeter, J.A. (1991). *Assays on entrepreneurs, innovations, business cycles and the evaluation of capitalism*, New Brunswick and London, Transactions publications.
- Scudder, R. (2011) ed. *What is entrepreneurship? A look at theory*. Written by Nayab, N
- Shah, H. & Saurabh, P. (2015). Women entrepreneurs in developing nations: growth and replication strategies and their impact on poverty alleviation. *Innovation management review* 5 (8), 34-43.
- Sharma, P. (2013). Women entrepreneurship development in India. *Global journal of management and business studies*. Research India publications 3 (4), 371-376
- Tende, S.B.A. (2016). The impact of women entrepreneurs towards national development: selected study on Taraba State. *Information knowledge and management* 6 (6), 30-43
- Tiryaki, A. (2011). *Theories of entrepreneurship: a critical overview*. Yard. Doc. Dr. Anadolu University, IIBF, Iktisat Bolumu
- Uwameiye, R. & Clark, A. (2003). Vocational education and entrepreneurship in Nigeria. *Convergence* 36 (2), 131-141

Exploratory Survey of Training Needs Analysis in Katsina and Funtua Local Government Areas of Katsina State

Muhammed LAWAL

Department of Public Administration
Faculty of Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
08035880102
muhammedlawal500@gmail.com

Musa IDRIS Ph.D

Department of Public Administration
Faculty of Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
08034772717

And

Shehu Salisu JAFARU Ph.D

Department of Public Administration
Faculty of Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
08037867746

Abstract

This study is on the effect of training need analysis on staff performance in Katsina and Funtua local government areas of Katsina state. The research question raised in this regards is: How does training need analysis affect staff performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs of Katsina state? To achieve this, the study used cross-sectional survey research design. The sample of 421 was selected from the 2039 using Sample Size Calculator of Creative Research System. Primary and secondary data were collected using structured questionnaire and interview. A simple regression analysis was employed to test the hypothesis using SPSS Version 23.0: The result revealed that training need analysis significantly influenced staff performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs with a p value of 0.002. The p-value is less than 0.05, an indication that an increase in training need analysis leads to increase in staff performance. It was recommended that the management of the LGAs should conduct training need analysis to identify problems or inefficiencies in the LGAs and therefore enable it to resolve the issues of staff poor performance in the local government areas.

Key words: Training, development, employee performance,

Introduction

Human resource is the lynchpin of any organization; either profit or non-profit oriented. Without people, an organization cannot exist. Attention on the people and the meeting of their needs is important to achieve corporate objectives. Human resource is the backbone of every organization and it is also the main resource of the organization. Organizations invest huge amount of money on human resource capital because, their performance will ultimately increase the performance of the organization.

Training and development that is effective is based on knowing the needs of the individual, the organization and the department. Because of limited budgets and the requirement of having solutions that are cost effective, it is important for the organization to make sure that their investment in training target areas of need and that it guarantees positive performance. It is very important to have TNA that is effective especially in this environment that is constantly changing and revolutionizing in technology and world practices becoming common which leads to changes in skills as well as abilities required (Ivancevich,2016). For any training program to be effective, it is important to analyze what training needs are. Providing random training to individuals could fail the priority needs or prioritize on areas that are not important. TNA process is very important as a pre-requisite in any training event, Through TNA a LGAs will be able to channel their resources in areas that would lead to development of their employees, improve their morale and improve the general performance of the staff. Not only specialists can conduct analysis on the needs for training. Today, it is the responsibility of managers to undertake different forms of management that include training and development of teams, and this makes it important for them understand the needs for training and have the ability of successfully implementing it (Wasilu, 2015).

TNA is said to be effective if it is systematically planned, and coordinated in the entire organization to make sure that the priorities of the organization is put into consideration and avoid duplicating efforts and achieving economies of scale. Potential employees need to be involved in the process and not depend on subjective evaluation of managers. Managers should also receive training on TNA process in order to clarify to them what they are aiming at and the approach they should take (Asare, 2016).

Employee training and development is an old practice introduced many years ago and widely used in strategic human resource development worldwide (Noe & Kodwani 2018). However, the ineffective training and development of employees is becoming an alarming phenomena worldwide (Larson & Hewitt, 2005).

In sub-Saharan Africa, despite being an old concept of human resource management the application of employee training and development is still questionable and at a low pace (Coetzee, 2007; Nda & Fard, 2013). For instance, it is sporadic to see public organizations having effective training and development strategies (Salas et al., 2012). In the majority of African Countries, the training and development programs are unplanned, unsystematic and vague (Asfaw et al., 2015). Numerous factors like budget constraints, poor Management and employee relations, and lack of organization focus contributed to the ineffectiveness of employees' training and development in African continent (Beaver & Hutchings, 2005).

In Nigeria, the genesis of manpower training and development can be traced to the Ashby Commission set up in 1959 to conduct an investigation in to Nigerian's need in the field of post-secondary certificates and higher education for almost 20 years (Alao, 2010). Following the development, the federal government established a number of training institutions to include; the Industrial Training Fund (ITF) in 1971, the Nigerian Council of management Development (CMD) in 1972, the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) as well as the National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies (NIPSS) and Institute of Labour Studies (ILS).

Apart from the aforementioned, there are other state centers all over the country and private sector as well as the LocL Governments under study consigned in shor and long term programmes. In spite of this, training and development is conducted in the form of 'business as usual' where the employees participate to get off from tight schedule for few days/months and then returned to perform their activities using the similar traditional system without imparting any changes from the training they attended and while the performance are not promising (Kibibi, 2011).

Statement of the Research Problem

The role played by TNA is very important in skills and knowledge acquisition and modifying attitude of the staff. In order to enhance staff performance,

organizations have to obtain and utilize human resources effectively. Organizations therefore need to engage in training need analysis and design their human resources in such a ways that fits into the organization's structure and objectives to help organizations achieve their goals and objectives Bulla, (2016). Over the decades concerns have been raised about the poor quality of services rendered in public institution in Nigeria (Akacho, 2014). Key issues and challenges facing public institutions in Nigeria, include: poor governance leading to embezzlement of funds; large number of officially authorized and institutional frameworks that produce numerous reporting and answerability lines weak institutional and human resource ability to draw and maintain the skillfulness that is required to propel performance, and an insufficient structure on performance management (Kiiru, 2015). Sequel to this, it is revealed that majority clearly show laxity in attendance, and poor patient relations in the public organizations as well as slow pace of service delivery, arrogance and discrimination in local government service commission. Consequent to this, delay in offering services, frequent disputes between management and staff, delayed payment of dues, inadequate working equipment and poor work environment affects service delivery vis a vis performance (Omondi, 2016).

According to the annual report of Katsina state local government service commission (KTSLGSC, 2016) over 795 staff underwent long term training and development Programmes, while 9161 staff attended a short term Programmes. Similarly, according to the annual report of (2018) a total number of 810 and 967 staff went through either short or long term training or development programmes respectively. Notwithstanding, and or the huge investment, if government goals and objectives are not or slow to achieve, it may be a pointer that the method training need analysis, training designs analysis and personnel motivation are not carefully attended to as ineffectiveness and inefficiency in staff Performance is still noticeable in katsina and Funtua Local Government Areas due to inappropriate, haphazard or faulty diagnosis of organizational training needs analysis, training design analysis and personnel motivation (Mohammed, 2013).

It is in this light that, we ask the **research question**; How does training need analysis affect staff performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs of Katsina state? This pper is out to seek answers to the above question.

Our **Hypothesis** therefore is that;

Ho: Training needs analysis has no significant effect on staff performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs of Katsina State.

Review and Theoretical Framework

Employee Performance

Employee performance can be defined as result or outcome of employee to attain organizational goals. Employee performance can also be defined as the attainment of specific function measured against agreed standards of accuracy, Completeness, Cost and speed.

Training

Training; according to Obisi, (2001) is a process through which the skills, talent and knowledge of an employee is enhance and increase. Also is a set of specified activities design and implement for the purposive of assisting employees to maintain and achieve high job performance level in the organization. Training in this study is an activity of increasing employee capacity to perform or discharge his or her responsibility.

Training Needs Analysis

Training needs analysis; According to Manuel, (2014) refers to the organizational process of collecting and analyzing data that supports decision making about when training is the best option (or not) to improve individual's performance, who should be trained and exactly what content should be taught. To this study TNA is the process of establishing or identifying the gap in skill, knowledge, behaviour and ability of the personnel. That is identifying which kind of training is required and also provides the details related to the training implementation. It is also a process whereby the trainer identifies the specific job performance skills needed, assess the prospective trainee's skills and then develop specific, measurable knowledge and performance objectives based on any deficiencies identified.

Training Needs Analysis and Employee Performance

Training is the process of upgrading the information and knowledge that recipients have on specific topics, events, operations and activities. Training is

done to develop skills and pass over new operational knowledge, bringing about attitudinal and behavioral changes leading to improved capability of the trainees to handle their duties and work assigned effectively and efficiently (Kulkarni, 2013). Similarly, according to Obi-Anike and Ekwe (2014) while assessing the impact that training and development has on organizational effectiveness in the Nigerian public sector, training is seen as a process of equipping employees with knowledge and skills to enable the trainees achieve the said strategic objectives and goals. Achievement of goals is made possible through the development of appropriate knowledge, skills and attitude of the employees. The appropriate training can convert any employee into an effective manager through passing on information that can equip them with the competency to manage all organizational activities. In an effort to improve the performance of the entire organization as well as individual performance, organizations must assess the job requirements versus the skills and knowledge of employees.

A study conducted by Nyamwocha (2016), investigate importance of training and its effect on employee performance and organizational commitment, reveal that training at the National Bank of Commerce mismatched with training needs assessment or skills and knowledge needed by the bank. The reason behind this was the amount of money being provided by the bank and that most of trained employees and poor utilization of such trained staff resulted in criticisms from the employee as well as turnover and abscondement from the services of the bank. This led to the suggestion that the need exist to to carryout similar study in another sector particularly the public sector to enable us fill the gap. While this study used scientific management theory by Fredrick Winslow Taylor of 1859 - 1917, our study used the Model of Training Need Analysis Diagram as the theoretical framework in order to the gap. Rukumber and Oliver (2017) have revealed the poor implementation of employees' trainings in different organizations is hinged on the fact that there is no appropriate identification and assessment of training needs in the organizations. The researchers recommended for Organizations to make sure that training needs analysis is done continuously and staff participates effectively in the process to ensure that budgeted resources are allocated accordingly for training and if possible funds can be reallocated from other sources to finance training Programmes and to conduct training evaluation to set standard of achievements from training conducted. The study used organizational performance as its dependent variable while our study will use employee performance as its dependent variable.

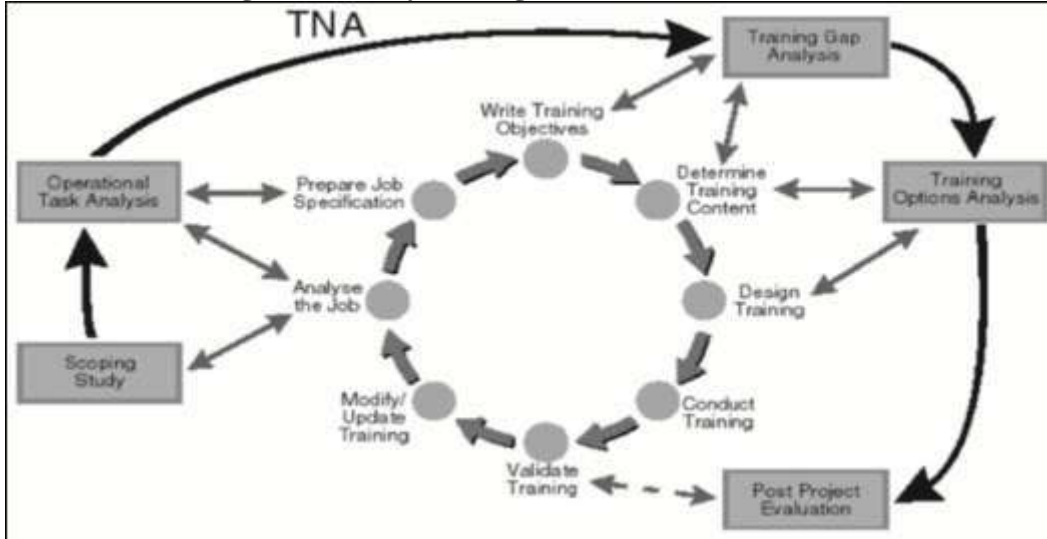
Training Needs Analysis Model

Leigh, Watkins, Plat and Kaufmann (2000) studied several NA models to distinguish the consequences, address public, individuals as well as minor group organizations, actions and resources and came up with the fact that, from a strategic viewpoint that training need analysis is to connect training creativities with the general objectives of the firm and assists to appraise whether training is a feasible alternative based on the company's strategy and resources. It decides the kind of training to be provided, and equally recognizes the results or metrics for consequent assessment.

Training need is recognized from the calculation of necessary performance with the real performance. (TNA) is used to evaluate an organization's training needs. It is an appraisal of the space among the knowledge, talents and approaches that those in the organization presently have plus the knowledge, abilities and character they need to meet up with the firm's goals. A positive training need analysis classifies workers that require training and the type of training required. Providing training to member of staff who did not deserve to be train or to provide training that is not required can resulted to waste of resources, energy and effort. Training Need Analysis also assist in putting the training resources in a normal order. It can be ascertained using the procedure below.

1. Performance appraisal
2. Analysis of job requirements
3. Organizational analysis
4. Employee survey
5. Individual himself requesting for training
6. Management services surveys

Model of Training Need Analysis Diagram



Source: www.hrdrmresh.blogspot.com (2020)

Methodology

This research is cross-sectional survey in nature where the instruments for data collection were questionnaires and interview. The choice of the cross-sectional survey enabled the researcher to have a variety of data from different sources where one set of data complemented/supported the other.

The target population for this study consists of all the staff of the two selected LGAs; Katsina and Funtua LGAs of Katsina State. The choice of Exploratory Survey of Training Needs Analysis on employee performance in these LGAs can be justified on the ground of the rate at which staff are migrating to other MDAs within and outside the state and by extension effecting their performance (Katsina focus, 2016) and by implication the most populated local government areas in terms of staff strength among the 34 local governments councils in the state (KSLGSC, 2018).

Table 1: Population of the Study

S/N	Local Government	Population Size
1	Katsina	990
2	Funtua	1049
	Total	2039

Source: *Katsina State Local Government Service Commission Hand Book (2018).*

From the above table, it is crystal clear that our total population for the study stood at 2039

In the determination of sample size of this study, we adopt the Sample Size Calculator of Creative Research System, a statistical consultancy. (Visit: <https://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>) visited on 20th June, 2021.

After the sampling technique (simple random sampling technique of probability for questionnaire and Purposive sampling technique of the non-probability sampling techniques for interview) has been adopted, three hundred and twenty two (323) is derived as the total sample size of the study. To apportion the sample size to the selected LGAs, we adopted the following ratio formula;

$$x = px \div pt \times ss$$

Where; x = case study LGAs

px = population size of case study LGAs

pt = total population sizes of case study LGAs

ss = sample size

Therefore, we apportion the sample size of three hundred and twenty three (323) to the selected LGAs using the above formula in the following manner;

*Katsina Local Government area;

$$\text{Katsina Local Government area} = 990 \div 2039 \times 323 = 157$$

*Funtua LGA;

$$\text{Funtua LGA} = 1049 \div 2039 \times 323 = 166$$

Table 2: Sample Size of the Study

S/N	LGAs	Staff of LGAs	Sample Size
1	Katsina LGA	990	157
2	Funtua LGA	1049	166
	Total	2039	323

Source; *Extracted from Katsina State Local Government Service Commission Hand Book (2018).and Sample Size Calculator of **Creative Research System**, a statistical consultancy. Visit (<https://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>)*

However, in order to take care of non-responses and incorrect filling or failure of some respondents to fill or return the questionnaire, 30% of the minimum sample provided in the formula was added as suggested by Israel (2013). Thus, 98 respondents were added to the computed sample size of 323 which gives the total of 421.

The study adopted both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. The target respondents are staffs of the selected LGAs were served with the questionnaires by the Researcher or Research Assistants during working hours in their various offices. Simple Regression Analysis as the analytical statistical tool was used to test the hypothesis at 5% Level of Significance. This tool would enable the research to examine the nature and extent of the effect of Training needs analysis on Staff performance under investigation. Also, Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS V23) was employed in running the data and testing the hypothesis. In other words, the use of Simple Regression Analysis helped the researcher to unravel the nature, strength and significance of dependence of staff performance on training need analysis in this research.

Results and Discussion

After the data were collected, sorted and cleaned, the variables were coded as thus;

1. Training need analysis = TNA
2. Staff Performance=SPERFM

Decision Rules

The above hypothesis formulated was tested using Simple linear Regression Analysis through the following decisions;

1. The hypotheses was tested at 5% level of significance
2. If the P-Value is less than 0.05 (5%), it implies significance. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis (Ho).

From our analysis, the following findings were revealed;

Interview Report

We interviewed some key members of the case study LGAs and questions asked and results from these interviewees were presented as follows:

- Q1. How will you describe the effect of training need analysis on staff performance in your local government area?
- Q2. Did training needs identification helped employee better understanding of his responsibility at your local government area?
- Q4. Has the local government benefited from training need analysis in terms of performance of staff?
- Q5. In your opinion, what are the challenges that impede training need analysis at your local government area?
- Q6. In your view, what can be done to ensure effective training need analysis at your local government area?

Q1. How will you describe the effect of training need analysis on staff performance at your local government area?

Well, training need analysis is a very very important element or part of the training towards the success of the any training programs, for the performance of the staff to be utilized. Training need analysis must take place Assistant director training and development Katsina local government area

Q2. Did training needs identification helped employee for better understanding of his responsibility at your local government area?

Of course when you identified the training gap, it helps you to know the type of training to give your staff and by extension it definitely helps the employees to understand much of his responsibility.....Schedule officer, Funtua local government area

Q4. Has the local government benefited from training need analysis in terms of performance of staff?

Yes to some extend we have benefited from the training need analysis in terms of performance as I said earlier..... Assistant director training and development Katsina local government area

Q5. In your opinion, what are the challenges that impede training need analysis at your local government area?

Well there are so many issues affecting training need analysis like lack of experts to take care of these issues of need analysis and financial challenges also.....Schedule officer, Funtua local government area

Q6. In your view, what can be done to ensure effective training need analysis at your local government area?

There is no doubt that in local government and state generally, money is a very important factor in human resource management, so let the government increase the training funds.

Simple linear Regression Analysis and Test of Hypotheses

To test for the hypotheses formulated in this research, simple linear regressions was used to determine the effects of Training Need Analysis, The preliminary analysis to the simple regressions are discussed as follows:

Table 3: Regression Output 1

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.707	3	1.236	7.870	.000 ^b
	Residual	50.867	324	.157		
	Total	54.573	327			

a. Dependent Variable: Staff Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Training Need Analysis

Source: SPSS Output, 2018

Table 3 shows, the results from the simple regression analysis which tests the effects of the independent variable on staff Performance. The F-statistic which measures the adequacy and fitness of the data to the model used in the study stood at 7.87 with a p-value of 0.000^b which is significant at 5%; this shows that the model is fit for the data.

\

Table 4 **Regression Output 2**
Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.561 ^a	.368	.359	.39623	1.501

a. Predictors: (Constant), Training Need Analysis

b. Dependent Variable: staff Performance

Source: SPSS Output, 2021

Table 4 shows the summary of the simple regression analysis. The empirical findings show that R, the linear correlation coefficient stood at 0.561 which indicates a moderate correlation. R², the multiple coefficient of determination of the variable stood at 0.368 indicating that about 36.8% of the total variation in staff performance is explained by variations in the ‘independent variable captured in the study. The adjusted R² being 0.359 also indicates that the independent variable will still explain 35.9% of the variations in staff Performance even if other variables were added to the study.

Table 5 **Regression Output 3**
Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.972	.214		9.225	.000
	Training Need Analysis	.157	.051	.167	3.068	.002

a. Dependent Variable: Staff Performance

Source: SPSS Output, 2018

Table 5 shows the outcome of the variable on staff performance. This was discussed under the section for Tests of Hypothesis. However, the study already presents the test for the assumptions of simple linear regression analysis in the preceding section, upon which simple regression analysis is considered suitable in

testing the research hypothesis. From Table 5 the model, the hypothesis is discussed as follows:

$$SP = \alpha + \beta_1 TNA$$

Where: SP = Staff performance

TNA = Training Need Analysis

Hypothesis

H₀: Training Needs Analysis has no significant effect on Employee Performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs

The coefficient of “Training Needs Analysis” stood at 0.157 which is positive. This implies that an increase in analysis of Training Needs would lead to an increase in Staff Performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs. However, the significance of this can be judged from the t statistics and its significance.

The t statistics of “Training Needs Analysis” stood at 3.068 with a p-value of 0.002. The p-value is less than 0.05, indicating that the relationship depicted in the model is significant at 95% confidence level. This implies that the study does not have enough statistical evidence to conclude that training needs analysis does not have significant effect on employee performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs.

Based on the above analyses, the study rejects the null hypothesis, H₀, Training Needs Analysis has no significant effect on Employee Performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs and accepts its alternate hypothesis (H₁) which states that Training Needs Analysis has significant effect on the Staff Performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs

Summary of Findings

Training Needs Analysis has a positive effect on Staff Performance in Katsina and Funtua LGAs which is significant. The p value of training need analysis was 0.002. The p-value is less than 0.05, an indication that training need analysis significantly influenced staff performance. The study established that majority of the respondents agreed that there was regular skills set evaluation. Majority of the respondents agreed that regular evaluation of skills set bring out areas of deficiency that employees were to be trained on. Respondents also agreed that trainings for staff were geared to tasks performed by each. This agrees with Hafeez and Akbar (2015) who established that training of employees according to

the knowledge gap exhibited in organization results in increasing their productivity through better job performance. Similarly, Sultana (2013) stated that it is evident that the more employees get relevant training, the efficient they become in their productivity and performance.

Conclusion and Recommendation.

The study concludes that training need analysis significantly influenced employee performance;

The study therefore recommends that the management of the LGAs should conduct training need analysis since it will enable the LGAs to identify problems or inefficiencies in the LGAs to enable them reduce the problems in the Local Government Areas.

The study also recommends that, for effective training need analysis :The basis upon which each category of training is to be evaluated should be continued and adopt to change while considering how the information required evaluating learning events would be obtained and analyzed. The study also recommends that there ought to be regular skills evaluation in the Local Government Areas as this will bring out areas of deficiency that employees will be trained in.

References

- Asare, K. (2016). *Professional Skills in Human Resource Management*, (2nd ed.). Asare-
- Asfaw, A. M., Argaw, M. D., and Bayissa, L. (2015), "The impact of training and development on employee performance and effectiveness: A case study of District Five Administration Office, Bole Sub-City, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia", *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*, Vol. 3 No.04, pp. 188.
- Beaver, G., and Hutchings, K. (2005), "Training and developing an age diverse workforce in SMEs: The need for a strategic approach", *Beaver, Graham*, Vol. 47 No.8-9, pp. 592- 604. Bediako 7 Associate Limited: 277 Windy Hills.
- Ivancevich, J. (2016). *Human Resource Management* (8th ed.). Boston: Irwin McGraw – Hill.
- Hassan, A. (2007), "Human resource development and organizational values", *Journal of European industrial training*, Vol.

- Hafeez, U., & Akbar, W. (2015). "Impact of Training on Employees Performance"(Evidence from Pharmaceutical Companies in Karachi, Pakistan). *Business Management and Strategy*, 6(1), 49-64
- Katsina state local government service commission Handbook 2016, 2018 Barrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Kibibi, M. H. (2011). *The Impact Of Training And Development On The Performance Of Administrative Staff In The Public Sector Organizations: The Case of The Second Vice President's Office-Zanzibar*. Open University Of Tanzania.
- Kulkarni, P. P. (2013). A literature review on training & development and quality of work life. *Researchers World*, 4(2), 136.
- Larson, S., and Hewitt, A (2015). *Staff Recruitment, Retention, & training strategies for community human services organizations*, Baltimore, MD: Paul H: Brookes publishing co.
- Manuel, F. D. (2014b). *The effect of training & development and employee engagement on perceived business performance*. (1594852 M.B.A.), University of Pretoria (South Africa),
- Muhammed, R.A., and Sabo, S.B., (2018), "The impact of training and development on employee performance": Abubakar Tatari Aliyu Polytechnic: Bauchi.
- Noe, R. A., and Kodwani, A.D (2018), "Employee Training and Development, 7e", McGraw- Hill Education.
- Nyamwocha, A. P. (2016). Effect of motivation on employee performance of commercial banks in Kenya: A case study of Kenya Commercial Bank in Migori County. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 87-103.
- Obi-Anike, H. O., & Ekwe, M. C. (2014). Impact of Training and Development on Organizational Effectiveness: Evidence from Selected Public Sector Organizations in Nigeria. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 6(29), 66-75.
- Ramanujam V. (1986). Measurement of business performance in strategy research: A comparison of approaches. *Academy of Management Review*, 11(4), 801-814.
- Rukumber, and Oliver (2017). *Impact of staff training and development .practices on organizational performance of public institutions*
- Salas, E., Tannenbaum, S. I., Kraiger, K., and Smith-Jentsch, K. A. (2012), "The science of training and development in organizations: What matters in practice", Salas, Eduardo, Vol. 13 No.2, pp. 74-101

- Sultana, M. (2013). Impact of Training in Pharmaceutical Industry: An Assessment on Square Pharmaceuticals Limited, Bangladesh'. *International Journal of Science and Research*,2(2), 576-587.
- Wasilu, S. (2015). A study of causes of poor Attitude to work among workers of both public and private sector organization in Bauchi state –Nigeria. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*,3(7), 143-152.

**Assessment of Compliance to Federal Character Principle in Staff
Recruitment in Ahmadu Bello University (Abu), Zaria-Nigeria**

Aisha Salihu

Department of Public Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
salihuaisha57@gmail.com
07069499590

Idris Musa

Department of Public Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
musaidrisaa@gmail.com
08034772717

And

Siraj Barau Abdulkarim

Department of Public Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
Sbarau58@gmail.com
08033140357

Abstract

This research work assessed the level of compliance to federal character principle on staff recruitment in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria between 2014 and 2019 introduced to redress the perceived injustices, imbalances and grievances and ensure that public institutions reflect appropriate linguistic, ethnic, religious and geographical diversity of the country. The Federal Character also aimed at fostering unity, peace, equal ability and access to state's resources and promote integration of the less advantage states. Theory of representative bureaucracy was adopted as the theoretical framework to underpin the study. To achieve the objective, the study adopted and used secondary data for analysis obtained from Ahmadu Bello University manpower statistics unit of the Federal Character Commission (FCC), Abuja-Nigeria. The data was analyzed using 2.50-3.00 percent benchmark as stipulated in the FCC guideline. The result of the analyses revealed among others that; Ahmadu Bello University recorded spread in terms of staff distribution across the 36 states and Federal Capital Territory in staff recruitment but not as stipulated in the FCC guideline, meaning that the level of compliance is low in spite of the fact that all the 36 states and the FCT were represented from 2014 to 2019 as covered by the study. Based on the findings, the study recommended that apart from mere representation of all states in the

staff distribution, there should be more equitable and fairer representation of all states across the country in Ahmadu Bello University staff distribution by adhering strictly to the FCC guidelines in all employments.

Keywords: Federal character, recruitment, representation, federalism, manpower

Introduction

The human resource activities of an organization will not be effective if suitable staff are not recruited to man the organization. Human resource is vital vital to organizations as they offer values, attributes and perspectives to organizational life; and when managed effectively, these human traits can be of considerable benefits to the organization. Recruitment is seen as one of the key factors to organizations' growth and success (Ibeto, Justine & Florence, 2015). If people are organisation's most valuable asset, then effective recruitment should be seen as the one of the most essential aspects in an organization that should not be taken with levity. It is important that organisations make judicious use of their recruitment process, as this facilitates selecting the best candidate for the organization (Aswathappa, 2013). For recruitment to become strategic, human resource practitioners must determine and find whom to recruit, where to recruit, what resources to use in recruitment, when to recruit and what to communicate (Ngu, 2010).

The Nigeria federal character principle emphasizes equitable representation on employment of people from different sections of the country based on merit and government discretion due to the heterogeneous configuration of the Nigerian state that have since inception generated series of issues like; massacres, genocide, call for ethnic self-determination, sovereign National conference, political restructuring. These issues have divided the country along ethnic, religious, majority-minority, advantaged-disadvantaged lines (Aondoka & Orluchukwu, 2015). Nigeria is a deeply divided and plural society and it is known to have many ethnic groups, it is one of the most ethnically diverse countries in the world with 36 states including the federal capital territory, 774 local governments and a total of 374 ethnic groups (Mustapha, 2007).

Since the attainment of independence in 1960 there has been new set of conflicts bordering on governance, resource control, ethnic group domination to mention a few while the government brought up a various actions, ideas, panels and commissions to manage. It is particularly problematic when an ethnic group feels

superior over the other. This has contributed significantly to most of the problems in the country (Kukah, 2003). Efforts to redress this situation have often led to the use of force because the advantaged one(s) will not willingly give up (Ugoh & Ukpere, 2012).

It is in view of the numerous problems associated with diversity that the constitutional drafting committee of 1999 inaugurated by Murtala Muhammad came up with the idea of federal character principle to redress perceived injustices and imbalances in the society and correct prevailing grievances. The phrase “Federal Character” was first used by the late General Murtala Muhammed in his address to the opening session of the Constitution Drafting Committee (CDCs) on Saturday the 18th of October 1975. Federal Character according to the Constitutional Drafting Committee report of 1999 refers to the distinctive desire of the peoples of Nigeria to promote national unity, foster national loyalty and give every citizen of Nigeria a sense of belonging to the nation notwithstanding the diversities of ethnic origin, language or religion which may exist and which it is their desire to nourish, harness to the enrichment of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (Okolo, 2014). It was coined based on the quest to promote national loyalty in a multi-ethnic society like Nigeria with the intent to enhance the opportunities of all groups within the country to offer them equal comparable opportunity. Where the sharing arrangements are working well, there are less agitations and citizens have a feeling of belonging and equity (Suberu, 2001). On the other hand where the distributive arrangement is not working well the citizens agitate and makes all sorts of demands such as call for national conference, succession and the likes (Igwe, 2003). In essence federal character principle is to allow the composition and conduct of public institutions and affairs reflect the country’s diversity. It is premised on the ground that when national institutions and affairs are reflective, in composition and conduct, of the pluralism of the country then, a sense of belonging is likely to be brought to the mind of the citizenry (Obiyan & Akindele, 2002).

Ahmadu Bello University (ABU), Zaria being a federal public institution is saddled with the responsibility of ensuring the implementation of federal character in staff recruitment as enshrined in section 14(3) of the 1999 of The Federal Republic of Nigeria constitution as amended, this mandate is to ensure that national integration, unity and loyalty is being achieved. From the ongoing, it suffices to say that compliance with the Federal Character Principle by ABU when attracting, sourcing and selecting suitable candidates to be recruited

becomes obligatory. And also monitoring and enforcement of the federal character principle by the Federal Character Commission (FCC) when there is breach of this principle in staff recruited is no longer a matter of necessity but mandatory such that there will be no predominance of a single or few states or ethnic groups in the composition of ABU staff.

In spite of these efforts made by government in ensuring that people from the different part of the country are fairly represented there are still some lingering issues concerning the implementation of Federal Character Principle in Nigerian public universities. Previous researches like; Aondoakaa & Orluchukwu (2015), Ezeibe (2010), Okeke (2019), Okolo (2014) and Oluwadamilola (2015) have shown that the principle of federal character suffers some inadequacies in public establishments especially as it relates to implementation. It was also observed that the provisions of Federal Character principle is being abused in the areas of recruitment, distribution of federal government appointments and infrastructural facilities across the country (Adekunle, 2018). It was gathered particularly in ABU, Zaria in 2014 that there was no compliance with the provision of the principle of federal character in ABU recruitment as few states are over represented and others are underrepresented (ABU manpower statistics, 2014). It was also observed that the Federal Character Commission partially failed to live up to its responsibility for monitoring and enforcing compliance with the federal character principle (Okeke, 2019). It is against this background that the study intends to find out the extent to which A.B.U Zaria has implemented the principle of federal character in the staff recruited from 2014 to 2019.

In view of the foregoing, one bugging question seeking answers in this work is; To what extent has Ahmadu Bello University ensured compliance with the principle in staff recruitment?

Our **Research Assumption** posits that; Ahmadu Bello University does not comply with Federal Character principle in staff recruitment.

Scope, Limitation and Significance of the Study

This research work is delineated to assess the extent to which ABU, Zaria has implemented the principle of Federal Character in recruitment. The university is made up of the academic and non-academic staff, the study focused on senior academic and non-academic tenure staff of the university. Tenure staffs were

considered because they are permanent staff of the university and the federal character principle is majorly concerned with this category of staff. The area of study was chosen because of the size institution with outsized staff strength and as such capable of accommodating significant number of staff from the different part of the country. The time frame for this study covers the period of six years (2014-2019). The justification for this time scope was as a result of the information gotten by the researcher from the university's manpower statistics which made it clear that in 2014 precisely, there was imbalance in the staff distribution in ABU as well as data inconsistency as some records of ABU manpower statistics were not available. For example, the manpower statistics for 2015 and 2016 was not available, though, looking at the trend of data and the fact that four years were made available, this could not affect the result of the findings.

The relevance of any study can be scored on value addition to existing knowledge and also fills in the gap identified in the works of Nwogwugwu and Sosanya (2015) who studied the Effect of Federal Character on Appointment into the Civil Service System. Aondoakaa and Orluchukwu (2015) who conducted study on Federal Character Principles in Nigerian Constitution, its Applicability and Issues and Challenges. Aliyu (2015) who carried out research on Federal Character Principle and Quota System in Nigeria: A Critical Assessment of The Recruitment Exercise in the Public Service: A Case Study of Federal Inland Revenue, Sokoto State. Mafos (2015) also conducted study on federal character principle and recruitment in Nigerian civil service. Tiemo and Arubayi (2012) studied recruitment practices in Nigeria: issues of equality and diversity among others. To the best of the researchers' knowledge none of these studies assessed the implementation of federal character principle in staff recruitment using the quota system. The study will be a handful tool to Nigerian legislators to identify and address the causes of non-implementation of the Federal Character Principle by public institutions in order to solve the problems of multi-ethnicity, fear of domination by one or few ethnic groups, by ensuring fair, equitable and balance distribution in the recruitment of public servants in the Nigerian Public Service among the various ethnic groups that made up the polity in order to promote national unity and command national loyalty in the country and as such this study has both empirical and practical significance.

Federal Character Principle

Federal character is one of the most controversial issues in contemporary Nigeria. As a result it has attracted the attention of many reputable scholars in Nigeria.

There are different literatures on the federal character principle and its implementation in the Nigerian public service covering various perspectives. Many scholars regard it as a tool for nation building and development through elimination of dominance of any particular group and marginalization of other groups, while others see its implementation as defeating the purpose for which it was adopted. Apparently, there seems to be a general agreement amongst scholars in respect to the origin of the Federal Character Principle. Scholars are of the opinion that the principle was the creation of the Constitution Drafting Committee (CDC) that was set up by the General Murtala Muhammed/Olusegun Obasanjo's military government in 1975. However, they also share the view that the federal character officially became a constitutional matter after its inclusion in the section 14 (3) of the 1999 constitution. While there is agreement with regards to the origin of the Federal Character Principle, a consensus however on the definition of the concept itself remains arguable. The expression "Federal Character" is defined in section 14(3) of the 1999 constitution as:

the distinctive desire of the people of Nigeria to promote national unity, foster national loyalty and give every citizen of Nigeria a sense of belonging to the nation, notwithstanding the diversities of ethnic origin, culture, language or religion which may exist and which it is their desire to nourish and harness to the enrichment of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Some scholars, however, seem not to agree with this definition. For instance, (Afigbo, 1989 as cited in Ezeibe, 2010) stated that the federal character cannot be a desire. He however went ahead to assert that federal character of Nigeria must be taken to mean the character of the Nigerian federation. In the same vein, Gberevbie and Ibietan (2012) criticized the definition of federal character by the Constitution Drafting Committee (CDC) as being inadequate and suffers on many count and further stressed that the "desire to nourish" in the definition appears very ambiguous. To Obiyan and Akindele (2002) the federal character principle essentially refers to the recognition of the plural nature of the country in recruitment, distribution of administrative and political offices and power as well as the resources of the country. To them, the federal character principle was structured so as to address the challenges of imbalance and discrimination. In other words, the Federal Character Principle is the attempt to avoid group imbalance in public institutions and affair.

Contrarily to the views of the above scholars is that of Ojo (2009) who affirms that the Federal character principle is an integrative mechanism, he defines it as

fair and effective representation of the various components of the Federation in the country's position of power, status and influence. The introduction of federal character policies in Nigerian state is to foster unity, peace, equal access to state resources and promote the integration of the less advantage states for better improvement and good conditions of living in the country. Bello (2012) shares this integrative view and stipulated that the federal character principle was a constitutionally guaranteed recipe for national integration. It is also designed to mitigate, if not avoid, the aggressive political struggle that characterized previous Nigeria's democratic systems.

Nwogwugwu and Sosanya (2015) affirms that federal character negatively affects appointment into civil service in Nigeria, to them merit is sacrificed on the altar of quota or equal representativeness and would ultimately result in low level of administrative efficiency. In addition, Aliyu (2015) construed that the implementation of the federal character principle and quota system leads to the violation of the merit principle and lowering of standards in the recruitment of personnel into the public service hence recruiting and promoting less competent staff into the service resulting inevitably to poor performance. But these scholars failed to consider the fact that the principle of federal character is not just considering recruiting staff from the different part of the country but also puts into consideration that the best, most competent and qualified staff should be recruited across the country such that every part has a sense of belonging in the running of the public affairs.

In contrast to the submission of the scholars above is that of Heirmexxy (2011) who claims that the interpretation of the federal character on the basis of state and ethnicity as inadequate as other social division in Nigeria includes class, religion and ideological division. To him operations of federal character tend to give more powers to the politically dominant groups, creating wider power disparity between the stronger and weaker groups. Also, Asaju and Egberi (2015) stated that the principle while stressing the imperative of ethnic balancing, invariably enthrones ethnicity and deemphasizes the nation. It strengthens the parochial, particularistic orientations and individual ethnic attachments of Nigerians and as such focusing on regional and ethnic representation, federal character exacerbates differentiation instead of enhancing mutual trust, accommodation and national development. Be that as it may, it should be noted that the very essence of the Federal Character Principle recognizes the plural nature of the country and seeks to ensure that people from the different part of the country are fairly represented

in all government owned institutions as well the conduct of their affairs as well as even distribution of natural resources such that it cut across every part of the country due to plural nature of the polity. To support this statement Oluwadamilola (2015) stated that the federal character principle can be applausive and can also bring about, national integration, unity and harmony if implemented to the core without any malicious intent on them by the implementers. Since the policy recognizes the divergent elements that constitutes the federation particularly on the sharing of all son of fruit so that all and sundry will feel part and parcel of the system of which in the long-run can build-national unity and national loyalty in the citizenry. But the implementation of this principle hardly fares better and even appears to be attacking the major concern (national unity and national loyalty). People seem to bond their sense of unity and loyalty with their parochial and primordial identity rather than national unity and national loyalty. The researcher agrees with Ojo (2009), Bello (2012) and Oluwadamilola (2015) and affirms that federal character principle recognizes the heterogeneous nature of Nigeria and seeks to give fair opportunity to everyone such that no segment of the country will feel marginalized or deprived.

Compliance

Compliance is one of the essential determinants of implementation success. Compliance is either a state of being in accordance with the established guidelines or specifications or the process of becoming so. It encompasses all the efforts to ensure that organizations are abiding by both industry regulations and government legislation. As regulations and other guidelines have increasingly become a concern of corporate management, companies are turning more frequently to compliance consultations. Compliance is a prevalent business concern partly because of an ever-increasing number of regulations that require companies to be vigilant about maintaining a full understanding of their regulatory compliance requirements.

According to Anderson (2010), compliance is the adherence of the implementing agencies, departments and officials to prescribed policy standards, rules, methods, objects and target. This determines whether implementation activity conforms to policy prescriptions and standards or not. The policy is derailed or becomes ineffective when desired actions and standards are not adhered to by those implementing them. He further argued that, compliance determines whether those whose behavior, activities and actions, the policy is meant to regulate, control or

influence, actually comply with the policy or not. The problems of non-compliance abound in many organizations and may be detected but may be difficult to deal with.

Bank (2018) stated that compliance is the adherence to laws, including the spirit of laws, regulations, generally accepted practices, standard and financial industry, code of conduct. Compliance refers to obedience to regulations (OECD, 2000). Going by the definitions above the former is more detailed than the latter but two essential things are very clear in the two definitions term compliance could be extended to include underlying goals, such as transparency and protecting an organization's reputation. In simple terms therefore, compliance connotes the adherence, obedience or observance of set rules and regulations, guidelines, procedures and legislations in an organisation by actors. Although the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (2000) stated that achieving full compliance is not always possible, at least at reasonable cost, and governments will almost always have to be satisfied with "a reasonable extent" of none compliance and there is no general answer to the question of what is a "reasonable extent" of none compliance because each policy field has its own specifications, differences, and sensitivities. To define an acceptable level of none compliance is context-dependent, and depends in part on the nature of the risks arising from none compliance. Above these are; conformity and rules this means that compliance could be said to be present if actors conform to organizational norms which include rules and regulations, standards, guidelines, and procedures. Another definition was offered by Foorthuis (2012) when he stated that compliance refers to the extent to which there exist a state of accordance between the behavior of actors or products on the one side and rules, procedures, standards, guidelines, legislations or other prescription.

Anderson (1975) identified some factors that affect compliance. Compliance is enhanced where implementers see policy directives and standards as legitimate, reasonable and benefiting. It is also enhanced where there are clear-cut penalties or sanctions for non-compliance. Non-compliance among implementers results from three factors. First, is the contrast between the values, beliefs and norms of implementers or other critical groups to which they are sympathetic and those expounded by the policy. Second is ambiguity of policy objectives, standards, rules and targets. Ambiguities cause confusion and uncertainties and preclude action. Third, difficulty in applying policy rules, standards and objectives. Therefore compliance is required to ensure that the objectives of the federal

character principle is not undermined. When compliance is low or not effectively carried out, it has grave repercussions as there will be no fair representation of all the state across the country in public institutions and the benefits that is supposed to go round all states will elude the states that are not represented and they will feel marginalized.

Formulae for Distribution of Post

- Each state shall have not less than 2.5% and not more than 3% and the Federal Capital Territory shall be given 1%. In the case of branches or local offices, not less than 75% of the junior staff shall be indigene of the catchment area.
- Where vacancies cannot go round all the states the vacancies shall be shared among zones, such that indigene of a particular zone shall constitute not less than 15% and not more than 18%.

Review of Empirical Studies

Nwogwugwu and Sosanya (2015) studied effect of federal character on appointment into the Nigerian civil service and finds out that there is a strong positive correlation between federal character and the appointment into civil service in Nigeria. The study adopted survey research design and made use of questionnaire as research instrument and data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics was carried out using T-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). However, the study fails to use the benchmark of 2.50-3.00% to know if the federal character principle is complied with, therefore, this gap was filled in this study as the research is delineated to assess the extent to which Ahmadu Bello University Zaria has implemented the federal character principle in recruiting the staff of the university.

Asaju and Egberi (2015) assessed federal character and national integration in Nigeria. The paper is a documentary research and data were collated from secondary sources i.e. journals, books, official publications of government and other NGOs, internet materials among others. The data was analyzed using the content analysis. Their findings revealed that the federal character principle stressed the imperative of ethnic balancing, invariably enthrones ethnicity and deemphasizes national loyalty. The study concludes that federal character principle strengthens the ethnocentric orientations and individual ethnic attachments of Nigerians. Thus by focusing on regional and ethnic representation,

federal character exacerbates differentiation instead of enhancing mutual trust, accommodation and national development. Whilst their research hinges on the inability of federal character in ensuring national integration this research is concerned with assessing the level of compliance of federal character principle in staff recruitment in Ahmadu Bello University.

Aondoakaa and Orluchukwu (2015) in their study assessed federal character principles in Nigerian constitution and its applicability. The major aim was to examine whether federal character principle is applicable in Nigeria as enshrined in the constitution. Their study is a documentary research and data were retrieved from books, government publication, journals, articles among others. Data collated were analyzed using content analysis. Their study concludes that federal character principle had its issues and challenges even as it is a constitutional matter. This research differs from theirs as it research design is documentary. While these researchers studied the achievement of national integration through the application of federal character, this research assessed the level of compliance in Ahmadu Bello University in ensuring that the disposition of its staff reflects the heterogeneous composition of the country.

Oluwadamilola (2015) made an attempt to assess the level of implementation of federal character principle in Nigeria. The major objective of the study is to find out if there is implementation of federal character principle in the federal civil service. The study was a documentary research and data were collected from secondary source i.e. government publications. His study found out that there is lack of fair representation of states in federal establishments and concludes that unless and until positive effort is made in curbing marginalization the sustenance of the federal order in Nigeria is at stake. However, the study made use of secondary data but fails to show states that are underrepresented, therefore, in this current study, the manpower statistics was used to show states that are underrepresented and states that are overrepresented.

In the same vein, Mafos (2015) carried out research on federal character principle and recruitment in Nigerian civil service and finds out that, the Federal Character Commission has deviated from its function of ensuring effective implementation and enforcement of the Federal Character Principle and concludes that the ineffectiveness, inefficiency, lack of professionalism and low productivity of the Nigerian Civil Service can be traced to the application of the federal character principle in the recruitment of staffs in Nigerian Civil Service, this

research in contrast to that of Mafos concerned itself with Ahmadu Bello University as the area of study. To distinguish this research work from that of Mafos. Data for his research work were collected from secondary source; already existing literatures, articles, journals, write ups, and internet materials, but this research will consider only secondary source of data collection because Ahmadu Bello University's Manpower statistical references are the only reliable sources that can show the level of compliance to the benchmark stipulated by Federal Character guidelines. Therefore the research does not require the use of primary data but strictly relied on secondary data.

Similarly, Okeke (2019) conducted a study on the level of implementation and enforcement of the federal character principle in Nigeria. The research methodology adopted by Okeke was purely documentary whereas the approaches employed therein are chiefly analytical and descriptive. In contrast to the work of Okeke this study used secondary data (manpower statistics of ABU) for analysis. It should be noted that Okekes' concern was majorly the enforcement aspect of this principle but this research concentrated on level of compliance to this principle in ABU, Zaria.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is representative bureaucracy by Donald Kingsley (1944), other proponent of the theory are; David Levitan (1946), Norton Long (1952), Paul Van Riper (1958), William Niskanen (1971) and Krislov and Rosenblom (1981). It was used by Chinwe (2011) in her study "Implication of the Application of Federal Character Principle for Efficiency in the Nigeria Federal Civil Service". The theory is concerned with public service recruitment particularly in third world countries. Its thrust is how to solve recruitment crises by ensuring that public bureaucracy is organized in such a manner that staff are drawn from all groups that make up the society (Sowa & Selden, 2003). The theory suggest that when the public sector workforce reflects the demographic diversity it will lead to policy outcomes that reflects the interest of all groups represented, including historically disadvantaged communities.

The theory of representative bureaucracy is relevant to this study as it emphasizes on the importance of passive representation - ensuring that public workforce reflect among other things the ethnicity of the population it serves which is in line with the principle of federal character that is concerned with public sector

recruitment and ensuring that forming of the government or any of its agencies should be done in such a manner that it reflects the ethnic diversity of the Nigerian population. Also the theory assert that passive representation would in turn lead to active representation - a case where bureaucrats will respond to the needs of their social counterparts in the general population and would invariably lead to enhanced trust and cooperation on the part of the citizens. Therefore, when ABU adhere to the principle of Federal character in terms of staff recruitment the diverse parts of the country will be adequately represented in the workforce (staff distribution) and by so doing cooperation, mutual trust, national loyalty and integration will be enhanced.

However the theory has been labeled to have some shortcomings one of which he observed that public servants may exploit their position to favour particular group of citizen in the provision of public service. Also Ruccucci, Ryzin and Li (2015) also criticized the theory as they observe that it failed to adequately address the benefits that could arise through a representative workforce. Going by the views of the antagonists of the bureaucratic representative theory they only criticized the theory and did not offer a better option as to how better the heterogeneity of societies can be handled. It is not enough to say that the theory is inadequate, one would have expected that their dissatisfaction with representative bureaucratic theory will prompt them to offer an alternate solution to solve the problems of heterogeneity in the society but they failed thereby making their observations inadequate to undermine the usefulness of the theory and as such the study the adopts it as the framework to underpin the study.

Methodology

The study used only secondary source of data. Data for the study were obtained from ABU Manpower Statistics which was obtained from Federal Character Commission (FCC) Abuja. The secondary data has to do with existing documents from the area of study consulted in order to enrich the research on analysis and findings.

The data from federal character commission was analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency table and percentages to find out the level of compliance with federal character principle but the scope is lilmited to senior Admin and academic staff recruitment. The analysis of data was done using 2.50-3.00 bench mark, this means that any state that the percentage of the staff strenght

is less than the range, such state is considered to be underrepresented and where the bench mark is above the range of 2.50-3.00, such state is consider to be over represented.

Table 1 Workforce Distribution in all the 36 States of the Federation and their Percentage

S/ N	STATE	201 4	201 7	201 8	201 9	TOTA L	PERCEN T	COMMEN T
1.	ABIA	80	87	88	88	343	1.25	No compliance
2	ADA	118	143	148	155	564	2.05	No compliance
3	AKW	40	34	34	34	142	0.52	No compliance
4	ANA	57	48	48	50	203	0.74	No compliance
5	BAU	82	106	113	119	420	1.53	No compliance
6	BAY	0	1	1	1	3	0.01	No compliance
7	BEN	264	275	276	277	1092	3.97	Above the range
8	BOR	123	145	148	151	567	2.06	No compliance
9	CRO	18	16	16	17	67	0.24	No compliance
10	DEL	53	63	63	65	244	0.89	No compliance
11	EBO	7	8	8	8	31	0.11	No compliance
12	EDO	113	115	121	123	472	1.71	No compliance
13	EKI	22	22	23	24	91	0.33	No compliance
14	ENU	27	30	30	31	118	0.43	No compliance

15	GOM	68	74	79	85	306	1.11	No compliance
16	IMO	80	85	85	85	335	1.27	No compliance
17	JIG	61	73	76	81	291	1.06	No compliance
18	KAD	240 0	288 1	299 2	312 8	11401	41.41	Above the range
19	KAN	257	354	383	409	1403	5.10	Above the range
20	KAT	351	430	447	461	1689	6.13	Above the range
21	KEB	52	58	58	61	229	0.83	No compliance
22	KOG	667	759	776	786	2988	10.85	Above the range
23	KWA	274	283	293	300	1150	4.18	Above the range
24	LAG	13	13	14	14	54	0.20	No compliance
25	NAS	65	61	62	68	256	0.93	No compliance
26	NIG	180	201	213	223	817	2.97	Complied
27	OGU	42	39	40	41	162	0.59	No compliance
28	OND	40	34	38	38	150	0.54	No compliance
29	OSU	68	49	51	57	225	0.82	No compliance
30	OYO	56	86	88	94	324	1.18	No compliance
31	PLA	85	59	61	63	268	0.97	No compliance
32	RIV	1	104	104	104	313	1.14	No compliance
33	SOK	31	4	6	10	51	0.19	No compliance

34	TAR	36	33	34	36	139	0.50	No compliance
35	YOB	31	39	42	45	157	0.57	No compliance
36	ZAM	49	36	39	58	182	0.66	No compliance
37	FCT	10	10	10	12	42	0.15	No compliance
38	NON	32	69	72	69	242	0.88	No compliance
	TOTAL	595	692	718	747	27531		
	L	3	7	0	1		100	

Source: Federal Character Commission, FCT Abuja (2020)

Decision Rule: The decision rule adopted in this study is rooted from Federal Character Commission (FCC) handbook that states that “each state shall produce 2.5-3.0 percent of the total workforce in any federal establishment while the FCT produce 1 percent. Following this declaration, the decision rule for the study is stated thus:

Where the percentage in a particular state is less than 2.5 percent, the decision of no compliance will be taken. Where the percentage is greater than 3.00, the decision of violation of federal character principle will be taken and lastly, where the percentage falls within 2.5-3.00, such state(s) is said to comply with federal character principle except FCT that 1percent means compliance.

Table 1 above shows the distribution of staff in all the 36 states of the federation and Federal Capital Territory (FCT) Abuja for the period under study. As stated earlier from the decision rule, it can be seen from table 1 that out of the 36 states of the federation, only Niger state complied with the FCC guidelines because the workforce is 2.97 percent of the total employment for the 2014, 2017, 2018 and 2019. The percentage of 2.97 for Niger state falls within the 2.5-3.00 range established by the FCC guidelines. Therefore, Niger state represents just 2.70 percent of all the states used for this analysis.

However, some states violate the guidelines by having staff strength above the 2.5-3.00 range. This is considered as violation of the federal character principles and the state in the category include Benue state with 3.97 percent; Kaduna state with 41.41 percent; Kano state with 5.10 percent; Katsina state with 6.13 percent; Kogi state with 10.85 percent; and Kwara state with 4.18 percent. All the 6 states mentioned represent 16.22 percent of the 36 states and FCT targeted for this study.

Lastly, many of the states find no place in the FCC in line with the guidelines. This is not to say that those states are not represented in the appointment for the 4years covered but what it means is that there is inadequate representation following the federal character commission guidelines in Nigeria. The guideline that expect at least 2.5 percent representation also prohibit above 3.00 percent which is considered as violation of the federal character principle. This is provided to ensure that no domination of some group or ethnic group in federal establishment. The following states are considered to be underrepresented Abia state with 1.25 percent; Adamawa state with 2.05 percent; Akwa Ibom state with 0.52 percent; Anambra state with 0.74 percent; Bauchi state with 1.53 percent; Bayelsa with 0.01 percent; Borno state with 2.06 percent; Cross rivers state with 0.24 percent; Delta state with 0.89; Ebonyi state with 0.11 percent; Edo state with 1.71 percent; Ekiti state with 0.33 percent; Enugu state with 0.43 percent; Gombe state with 1.11 percent; Imo state with 1.27 percent; Jigawa state with 1.06 percent; Kebbi state with 0.83 percent; Lagos state with 0.20 percent; Nassarawa state with 0.93 percent; Ogun state with 0.59 percent; Ondo state with 0.54 percent; Osun state with 0.82 percent; Oyo state with 1.18 percent; Plateau state with 0.97 percent; Rivers state with 1.14 percent; Sokoto state with 0.19 percent; Taraba state with 0.50 percent; Yobe state with 0.57 percent; Zamfara state with 0.66 percent; FCT with 0.15 percent and Non Nigerians constitute 0.88 percent of the total staff recruited between 2014, 2017, 2018 and 2019.

The result shows that 30 states of the federation do not have the required representation of 2.5-3.00 of the staff strength in ABU Zaria. The 30 states represent 81.08 percent of the total states in Nigeria including FCT Abuja. One can conclude that in as much as ABU Zaria has her staff spread all over the federation and beyond, there is issue of under representation of 30 states representing 81.08 percent of the total states in Nigeria, only one state which is Niger state falls within the acceptable range while the remaining staff strength are highly concentrated in six (6) states such as Benue, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Kogi

and Kwara state. Kaduna state, the host state has 41.41 percent of the staff strength while Bayelsa state has the least representation with 0.01 percent for the period covered by this study.

The aim of the study is to find out the level of compliance to federal character principle in ABU Zaria. Considering the analysis of the secondary data in table 1 above, the study hereby accepts that ABU Zaria does not have full compliance to the federal character principle in staff recruitment. It is instructive to note that mere representation of a particular state does not mean compliance as compliance is established only if the staff strength in a particular state constitutes at least 2.5 percent and at most 3.00 percent of the total workforce for the period under study.

Summary of Findings

The result from the study shows that going by the commission's guideline of 2.5-3.00 per cent and 1% for FCT of the total staff recruited for the period covered by the study, ABU Zaria does not comply with the federal character principles in totality. Though, this should not be mistaken for lack of spread in all the 36 states of the federation and FCT. This result attests to the fact that the level of implementation of federal character principles is not achieved going by the benchmark. However, the central role of FCC is to ensure that recruitment is done in such a way that the composition of staff in ABU Zaria and conduct of its affairs shall be carried out in such a manner as to reflect the federal character of Nigeria thereby ensuring that there is no predominance of persons from a few state or from a few ethnic or other sectional groups. The result reveals the reality on ground as only one state of the federation fall within the benchmark of 2.5-3.00 per cent while six states of the federation have staff distribution above the benchmark. 29 states and FCT fall below the benchmark. Therefore, considering the level of compliance to federal character principles in ABU Zaria, compliance cannot be said to have been achieved. Though, the statistics also show staff spread in all the 36 states of the federation, FCT and even foreign staff but this does not meet up with the minimum benchmark.

The enforcement strategy is expected to strengthen the principles and make the implementation possible with zero or no violation as rules without enforcement is as good as no rules. This is because enforcement is ensuring that people conform to accepted rules, laws, norms and values of the society by compelling them to what is expected of them. Though, there are still challenges facing the reality on

ground in terms of enforcing compliance. Prominent among the challenges is the delay in the submission of the university manpower statistics, inadequate number of applicants from some states during recruitment and this undermines enforcement as the university cannot be forced to recruit from a particular state if no candidate has shown interest or if the number of candidates that show interest is not up to the number of their quota and as a result of that the quota of the affected state will be given to other states with more applicants. Though, the enforcement is to ensure that there is no lopsidedness in the recruitment exercise and any violation of the principle is expected to be corrected in the subsequent recruitment exercise. Therefore, it is expected that with strict enforcement, there will be improvement in the recruitment exercise vis a vis ensuring equitable distribution of the appointment to all the states of the federation as expected in the guideline.

Though, the findings of the study, is in line with those of Oluwadamilola (2015); Mafos (2015); Okeke (2019) as they also found out that federal character principles deviate from its function of ensuring effective implementation and enforcement of the principles but contradict Tiemo and Arubayi (2012) and Nwogwugwu and Sosanya (2015). The reason for the contradiction between the present study and the ones mentioned earlier (Tiemo and Arubayi, 2012; Nwogwugwu and Sosanya, 2015) is not unconnected to their perception of compliance as they see compliance as mere spread across the states without taking certain percentage in mind as recommended by federal character commission guidelines of 2.5-3.00 percent for the 36 states and 1% for FCT.

The findings conform with the theory of representative bureaucracy because it shows how ABU conform with spread in terms of workforce so much that there is no state or religion that is not represented. Though, the level of representation is not up to what is expected but it has been established that there is spread among the 36 states of the federation including the Federal Capital Territory.

Implications of Finding

The study has numerous theoretical, practical and regulatory implications. These implications represent the contributions to knowledge in the study which are expected to benefit the legislative arm of government in terms of policy making to strengthen Nigeria heterogeneous composition and keep the unity of the country together without any section, region or tribe feel marginalized or dominated as

bona fide member of the country and it will also add to the existing body of knowledge within the literature of federalism and unity in diversity.

The findings have important policy implication since it suggest and will also assist the legislators or law makers regulates areas where there is need to improve and strengthen the existing federal character principle so as to ensure the unity of Nigeria and its existence as an indivisible and indissoluble entity so as to put the nation on the right direction, which will eventually reduce the issue of marginalization in the country and bring about togetherness.

Lastly, for legislators and researchers, the study has no doubt re-opened a new debate as previous studies associated compliance with federal character with mere spread without taking cognizance of the of 2.5-3.00 percent benchmark for the 36 states of the federation and 1% for FCT and this open a new direction as this would add to the existing literatures on this subject matter and also ensure that implementation of federal character principle is based on this percentage measurement stated earlier and not mere fair representation or spread across the state level.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the tests conducted on the data and analyses of the results, this study found out that Ahmadu Bello University implements federal character principle but the level of compliance is low. The study therefore concludes that there is low compliance with the federal character principle in Ahmadu Bello University recruitment. This means that the level of compliance is insignificant as there was mere representation of all the 36 states including the FCT without taking cognizance of the benchmark stipulated by the Federal Character Commission. In line with findings and conclusions this study recommends that:

- i. Firstly, subsequent recruitment exercise in Ahmadu Bello University should be done in such a way that it will help reduce the present imbalance of staff distribution. This can be addressed by ensuring a reasonable balanced distribution across the federation such that most if not all states represents 2.5-3.0 % of the workforce. This can achieved by favoring those states that are underrepresented in subsequent recruitments. This can be made possible by the Federal Character Commission through proper monitoring of subsequent recruitment exercise in the institution.

- ii. Lastly, the Federal Character Commission should as a matter of urgency enforce compliance with the federal character principle in Ahmadu Bello University recruitment. The Commission should try as much as possible to take necessary steps to penalize the institution whenever there is violation so that the purpose for which the Commission was created will not be undermined.

References

- Adekunle, (2018, April 15). Federal Character: Obaseki Calls for Principles of Fairness, Equity and Justice. Vanguard news. Retrieved from <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2018/04/federal-character-obaseki-tasks-commission-compliance-urges-scrutiny-appointments-infrastructural-distribution/?amp>
- Aliyu, T. (2015). Federal Character Principle and Quota System in Nigeria: A Critical Assessment of the Recruitment Exercise in Federal Inland Revenue (FIRS) Sokoto State. A Dissertation submitted to the Department of Public Administration, Usman Danfodiyo University, Sokoto.
- Anderson, J. E. (2010). *Public policy making-An introduction* (7th ed). Boston: Wadsworth.
- Anderson, J.E. (1975). *Public Policy Making*. New York:Preager publishers.
- Aondoakaa, P. T. & Orluchukwu G. (2015). Federal Character Principles in Nigerian Constitution and Its Applicability: Issues and Challenges. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 20(12), 51-57.
- Asaju, K. & Egberi, T. (2015). Federal Character and National Integration in Nigeria: The Need for Discretion and Interface. *Journal of Review of History and Political Science*, 3(1), 126-134. <http://dx.doi.org/10.15640/rhps.v3n1a12>
- Aswathappa, A. (2013). *Human Resource Management Extension and Case*. India: McGraw Hill.
- Bello, M.L. (2012). Federal Character as a Recipe for National Integration: The Nigerian Paradox. *International Journal of Politics and Good Governance*, 3(3), 1-17.
- Chinwe, U. (2011). Implication of the Application of Federal Character Principle for Efficiency in the Nigeria Federal Civil Service. A Research Thesis Submitted to the department of Public Admin and Local Government, University of Nigeria

- Ezeibe, C.C. (2010). Federal Character Principle and Nationality Question In Nigeria. *International Journal of Research in Arts and social sciences*, 2(5), 78-88.
- Foorthuis, R.M. (2012). *Tactics for Internal Compliance: A Literature Review. Chapter of "Project Compliance with Enterprise Architecture"*. Doctoral Dissertation (PHD Thesis). Utrecht University
- Gberevbie, D.E. (2010) Strategies for Employee Recruitment, Retention and Performance: Dimension of the Federal Civil Service of Nigeria. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(8), 1447-1456.
- Heirmexxy (2011). "Federal Character Policy and Technology Development in Nigeria; Problems and Prospects" www.Pristinethrills.blogspot.com/2011/03/federal-character-policy-and-technology/html
- Ibeto, I, Justine, C & Florence, A. (2015). Recruitment Policies in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and their Implication on Employees' Performance. *Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 3(2), 34-48.
- Igwe, O. (2003). *Politics around the Globe*. Aba: Eagle Publishers.
- Kukah, M.H. (2003). *Democracy and Civil Society in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum books.
- Mafos, S. (2015). Federal Character Principle and Recruitment in Nigerian Civil Service. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences*, 2(6).
- Mustapha, A. (2007). Institutionalizing Ethnic Representation: How Effective is the Federal Character Commission in Nigeria? *Centre for Research on Human Security and Ethnicity*. Working Paper. Retrieved from <http://www.crise.ox.ac>.
- Ngu, S.M. (2010). *Personnel Management in Nigeria: Principles and Practice*. Zaria: Ahmadu Bello University press.
- Nwogwugwu, N. & Sosanya O.A. (2015). Effect of Federal Character on Appointment into the Civil Service System: A Study of Federal Ministry of Education. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (Nigerian Chapter)*, 3(11), 75-87.
- Obiyan, A.S. & Akindede S.T. (2002). The Federal Character Principle and Gender Representation in Nigeria. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(4), 241-246.

- Obiyan, A.S. & Akindele S.T. (2002). The Federal Character Principle and Gender Representation in Nigeria. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(4), 241-246.
- Ojo, E. O. (2009). Mechanism of National Integration in a Multi-Ethnic Federal State: The Nigerian Experience. Ibadan: John Archers Publishers.
- Okeke, C.E. (2019). Implementation and Enforcement of the Federal Character in Nigeria. *Journal of humanities and social science*, 10(2), 174-185
- Okolo, P.O. (2014). Influence of the Federal Character Principle on National Integration in Nigeria. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 4(6), 121-138.
- Oluwadamilola, A. (2015). Assessment of the Implementation of Federal Character in Nigeria. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 20 (2), 77-81. Retrieved from www.iosrjournals.org.
- Organisation for Economic and Co-operation and Development. (2000). Reducing the Risk of Policy Failure: Challenges for Regulatory Compliance.
- Ruccucci, N.M, Rynzin, G.V & Li, H. (2015). Representative Bureaucracy and Willingness to Coproduce: An Experimental Study. *Public Admin Review*, 12(4), 1-10. DOI:10.1111/puar.12401.
- Sowa, J.E & Selden, S.C. (2003). Administrative Discretion and Active Representation: An Expansion of the Theory of Representative Bureaucracy. *Public Administration Review*, 63(6), 700-710.
- Suberu, R. (2001). *Federalism and Ethnic conflict in Nigeria*. Washington: Peace Press.
- Tiemo, J. A & Arubayi, D. O (2012). Recruitment Practices in Nigeria: Issues of Equality and Diversity. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences*, 3(3), 210-213.
- Ugoh, S.C. & Ukpere W.I. (2012). Policy of the Federal Character Principle and Conflict Management in Nigerian Federalism. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(23), 6771-6780.

Security Challenges and the Implementation of Ecowas Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and Goods between Nigeria and Niger Republic

¹Zaratou HUDU
²Hamza A. Yusuf
³Musa Idris

And

⁴Kabir M. Isa
^{1,2,3}Department of Public Administration
⁴Department of Local Government & Development Studies
^{1,2,3,4}Faculty of Administration
Ahmadu Bello University Zaria

Abstract

After many years of signing the Treaty I, establishing the ECOWAS as a regional body, the overall objective of promoting cooperation and integration remains consistently elusive. Article 27 of the ECOWAS Treaty affirms a long-term objective of establishing a Community citizenship that could be acquired automatically by all nationals of the member states. This reinforces the preamble to the treaty that outlined the key objective of removing obstacles to the free movement of goods, capital and people in the sub-region. This paper specifically identified the nature or manifestations of the security challenges in the implementation of ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods; it also examined the implications of the security challenges on the free movement of persons and goods along Nigeria and Niger Republic borders. Data for the paper were gathered from both primary and secondary sources. Interview was conducted with some border personnel and crossers along Illella-Konni and Katsina-Jibiya borders. The article on ECOWAS protocol for free movement of persons and goods and documents from Niger-Nigeria Joint Commission of Cooperation as well as related articles were used as secondary source. The data were analysed thematically using content analysis. The paper revealed that banditry, insurgency (Boko Haram/ISWAP), trafficking, armed robbery and other related crimes affected the implementation of the protocol on free movement of goods along Nigeria and Niger Republic borders of Katsina-Jibiya and Illella-Konni. These security challenges cause delay and harassment of crossers amidst rigorous screening exercise and in some instance, there were extortions of travellers/crossers by some border personnel. The study recommends among others the need for bilateral and multilateral security efforts, at the sub-regional and regional level to confront the security challenges affecting the regional integration.

Keywords: Security challenge, Implementation, Ecowas, Free movement, Persons and Goods

Introduction

In Africa, the leaders of West Africa recognised in the early 1970s that intra-regional integration could be an important step towards the sub-region's collective integration into the global economy. The possibility, and indeed the necessity, of creating sub-regional economic cooperation and integration organisations in West Africa and in fact in all of Africa was reinforced by the experiences both in developed countries, and in other developing countries (Adepoju, 2009). Hence, a treaty was signed in Lagos on 28 May 1975 to herald the creation of the Economic Community of West African States.

The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) as a regional organization was therefore rightly established to encourage economic, social and cultural development of the West African sub-region, and it derived its legitimacy from the Treaty of Lagos signed by its 16-member pioneer member-states. The ECOWAS union according to the document sought for; the establishment of a Common Market through the liberalization of trade by the abolition of customs duties levied on imports/exports and the abolition of non-tariff barrier in order to establish a free trade area at the community level; the removal of obstacles to the free movement of persons, goods, service and capital and to the rights of residence etc.

Phase 1 of the Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and the Right of Residence and Establishment of May 1979, which guaranteed free entry of Community citizens without visa for 90 days, was ratified by Member States in 1980 and put into effect forthwith. The objectives of the community are to promote cooperation and integration, leading to the establishment of an economic coalition in West Africa, in order to raise the living standards of its peoples, to maintain and enhance economic stability, foster relations among member states and contribute to the progress and development of the African continent (ECOWAS Treaty I, 1975).

Specifically, various bi-lateral agreements were signed between Nigeria and Niger Republic to strengthen the protocol for the free movement of persons and goods. These include agreements on commercial trade signed on the 25th of January, 2002, agreements for the creation of Consulate Chamber signed in 2012, the creation of Nigeria and Niger joint commission.

In spite of the visionary efforts of leaders to pursue the objectives of ECOWAS, there has been little to show in terms of genuine integration. Political instability and inter-state border disputes and wars, insurgency and other criminal activities have rendered the economic grouping a toothless bulldog. The smaller and economically less prosperous countries such as Niger are often suspicious of the demographic and economic giants like Nigeria. Also, free movements are still hampered by the challenges of logistics such as inadequate surveillance gadgets, ineffective information sharing etc (Umar, 2011). The porous borders of West Africa however continue to encourage border crimes and instability in the sub-region owing to the lack of appropriate mechanism to monitor movements and illegal activities. Therefore, there has been absence of peace and stability in several parts of the sub-region especially with the lingering Boko Haram insurgency and other internal conflicts that discourage investment and free movement of persons and goods in the Nigeria-Niger borders, the very foundation of integration and development has been constrained.

Also, due to security challenges, the Nigerian government explained that the nation's land borders were shut in the nation's overall best interest. According to President Buhari, the main reason for the closure was to curtail the smuggling of goods such as rice and textiles to boost domestic production. Therefore, the basic questions are; what are the security challenges affecting the implementation of the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods between Nigeria and Niger Republic? What are the implications of the challenges on the free movement of persons and goods? Thus, the objectives of the paper are in line with the research questions. The study covers the period between 2011 and 2018. This was a period where the two countries were trying to strengthen their relationship (trade and security) through partnership in many areas such as agriculture, exchange of goods and services etc.

The paper relies on both primary and secondary data. Interview is used to get first-hand information from the field. The interview was in form of semi-structured format because responses from the structured questions would elicit other questions that may escape the mind of the researcher but relevant to the study. Stratified purposive and quota sampling techniques were used. Stratified purposive sampling was used since the target population is in multiples or categories, those interviewed include two officials of ECOWAS, former Director of the ECOWAS from the Nigerian side at the Abuja headquarters, one staff of

the Niger-Nigeria Joint Commission, some officials of Customs and Immigration from the two borders of Illella-Konni and Katsina-Jibiya, crossers etc. The quota sampling was used to make sure that out of the 12 crossers selected, six each are from Nigeria and Niger Republic, likewise, two police personnel each represented Nigeria and Niger Republic were also selected.

Concept of Security

Attempt will be made to define the concept of security. Security embodies the mechanism put in place to avoid, prevent, reduce, or resolve violent conflicts, and threats that originate from other states, non-state actors, or structural socio-political and economic conditions (Stan, 2004). According to Nwanegbo and Odigbo (2013) the divergent approaches to the conceptualization of human security in the theoretical literature can be categorized into two major strands. One is a neo-realist theoretical strand that conceptualizes security as primary responsibilities of the state. The second strand, a postmodernist or plural view, conceptualizes security as the responsibilities of non-state actors and displaces the state as a major provider of security. Proponents of this approach argue that the concept of security goes beyond a military determination of threats. They are of the view that government should be more concern with the economic security of individual than the security of the state because the root causes of insecurity are economic in nature. Some scholars in conceptualizing security placed emphasis on the absence of threats to peace, stability, national cohesion, political and socio-economic objectives of a country (Igbuzor, 2011; Oche, 2001; Nwanegbo and Odigbo, 2013).

Specifically, in this paper, security challenge comprises insurgency (boko haram and ISWAP), human trafficking, money laundering, drug trafficking, arms smuggling or trafficking of weapons, cross-border terrorism, illegal oil bunkering, illicit trafficking in diamonds, to mention but these notable few. In this study, implies a state or a condition where there is no threat to peace and tranquility that can deter smooth interaction amongst citizens, institutions of Nigeria and Niger in relation to the ECOWAS protocol on the free movement of persons and goods. This specifically means being protected against insurgency, banditry, kidnapping and smuggling. The opposite is insecurity which in the context of this study implies a situation of threat to the peace that can deter smooth movement of citizens along Nigeria and Niger borders, but also the process of ECOWAS integration in general.

Theoretical Framework

Structural-functionalism theory is adopted for this study as tool of analysis. Structural-Functionalism developed slowly over time with the help of many sociologists in different parts of the world. Perhaps the most significant contributors to the initial development of this theory are Durkheim and Radcliffe-Brown. However, we begin with Herbert Spencer. Spencer, an English sociologist, was a forerunner of formalized Structural Functionalism. He is best known for coining the phrase "survival of the fittest" in his book *Principles of Sociology* (1896).

Berker (1967) in a study that is the manifestation of one of the most incisive delineation of the structuralist-functionalist model, demonstrates that societies are self-contained lots, consisting of integrated and independent components - portrayed further in the form of disparate cultures; political and legal institutions; political and technological organizations. In Social Science circles, functionalism views society as a system made up of interrelated parts, all interacting based on a common value system or consensus about basic values and common goals. Every social custom and institution are seen as having a function in ensuring that society works efficiently.

In applying the structural-functionalism, the role of state actors in the enforcement/implementation of the ECOWAS protocol is imperative, when there is failure of state actors in the process of integration, especially in the security architecture, there is bound to be general failure. Thus, structuralism in this case is related to the Nigeria and Niger Republic as ECOWAS members (general structure) and the various agencies (regulatory and security) of the two countries that engaged in the management of the protocol for the free movement of persons and goods to ensure the desired integration is achieved through free movement of persons and goods.

Further, it must also be emphasised that for the coalition of the two countries to succeed security is pre-requisite, effective management of the borders is fundamental within the varied structures and institutions that are intrinsic and central to the organization. Therefore, it is assumed that the protocol can only be properly implemented when there is no security threat triggers by the activities of insurgency and other transborder crimes, especially at the borders that link the two countries. Therefore, security is a component on the structure-functional

arrangement that will affect the effectiveness of the implementation of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods. Because, with the present threat due to transborder crimes as a result of drug trafficking, human trafficking, smuggling, Boko Haram/ISWAP insurgency, stringent measures have to be taken by the stakeholders of the two countries, especially border personnel, which are likely to affect the free movement of persons and goods. It was due to the security threat that Nigeria took the decision to close its border in 2019, which also goes against the provision of the protocol.

However, effective management of the borders that link the two countries is fundamental, as the protocol can only be properly implemented when there is no security threat. Furthermore, there is need to have a proper link between the strategies put in place and the tactics employed to implement the policies at the level of operation or implementation by the various border personnel.

From the foregoing, it is clear that the structural functionalism theory emphasises on the actualisation of regional integration in the ECOWAS with specific reference to Nigeria and Niger Republic through cooperative approach.

Discussion

The ECOWAS, in order to pursue its objectives in eliminating obstacles restricting the free movement of persons, services and capital between member states came out with guidelines. **Article 2** provides that the community citizens have the right to enter, reside and establish in the territory of Member States. In case of Nigeria and Niger, the two countries have signed several bi-lateral agreements to strengthened the enforcement of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods. There was cross-border Initiatives Programme (CIP) launching workshop, held from 19 to 21 September 2007 in Katsina (Nigeria), where three platforms were put forward on which to establish cross-border cooperation between Niger and Nigeria along the Kano-Katsina-Maradi (abbreviated “K²M”) corridor. These platforms are: 1^o Information on the markets; 2^o Cross-border movement of goods; 3^o Cross-border movement of capital. Nigerian-Niger joint commission of cooperation (NNJCC) was created to facilitate the various agreements between Nigeria and Niger.

Other specific agreements included strengthening efforts in implementing the agreements on commercial trade that was signed on the 25th of January, 2002,

agreements for the creation of Consulate Chamber signed in 2012; the most recent development towards this agenda is the December 2014 agreement of ECOWAS members to replace the antiquated ECOWAS Travel Certificate, approved in 1985 for intra-ECOWAS travel in lieu of a passport, with an upgraded biometric travel card called the National Biometric Identity Card (NBIC), effective 2015.

However, after years of signing of the TREATY I, establishing the ECOWAS as a regional body, the overall objective of promoting cooperation and integration, in order to create an economic and monetary union for the purpose of stimulating economic growth and development remains consistently a myth or mere rhetoric. According to Umar (2011), the absence of genuine commitment on the part of the leadership, as key actors within the system, especially with regards to addressing core economic issues such as tariffs and customs related matters, cross-border crimes; constrained movement of goods and persons, etc. are constitutive of a huge set of inhibitive factors colossally debarring effective integration in West Africa.

Evidently, in the borders of the two countries (Nigeria and Niger Republic) crimes such as drug trafficking, human trafficking, arm smuggling, advanced fee fraud (419), etc, are great visible as big threats for peace and security along the border. Other major threat has to do with the activities of boko haram and the ISWAP faction that has been terrorising more especially Nigeria. So, if Nigeria and its immediate neighbour Niger must gain international acceptability and have an environment conducive enough for foreign investment, then, more efforts and energies must be directed toward securing a crime-free environment. The manifestations of security challenge are briefly described as follows:

Insurgency is one of the major security challenges affecting the implementation of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods between Nigeria and Niger Republic. For instance, Boko haram insurgency has claimed thousands of lives with great loss of properties especially in Nigerian North East. The activities of the insurgents have now become a regional issue or threat. The insurgents are against western education and anything related to it.

Also, the smuggling of diamonds has become something of a specialty in parts of West Africa, due largely to the occurrence of high-quality alluvial diamonds in Sierra Leone especially, that can be mined with no more equipment than a spade

and a sieve, and deficiencies in government that permit smuggling and other evasion of official regulations on a massive scale.

Furthermore, the global abuse of drugs and the drug trafficking situation is becoming more complex, in part, due to political and economic changes around the world which have led to increasingly open borders between many countries.” It furthered by saying that the emergence of a more affluent class of drug abuser with higher disposable income to spend on so-called ‘recreational’ drugs

Human trafficking is another worst trans-border crime in the world. West Africa again cannot be left out when discussing the dimensions and effects of human trafficking especially in women and children. It is a major challenge facing most of the countries of the world with the developing countries having the highest share. Globally cross-border trafficking has increase in recent years as a result of increased economic differentials between neighbouring countries and the growth in people movements that has resulted.

Advance Fraud and money laundering are other transborder crimes. According to Peel (2006:4) advance fraud is attempted daily on office workers and other e-mail users throughout the world, is the so-called advanced fee fraud.” In the case of Nigeria, it is derogatorily referred to as 419 representing the section of the Nigerian criminal code that deals with such crime. Typically, the sender will seek to involve the recipient in a scheme to earn millions of dollars through illegal acts. On the other hand, money laundering is the practice of engaging in financial transactions to conceal the identity, source, or destination of illegally gained money. It could also be defined as the process of taking any action with property of any form which is either wholly or in part the proceeds of a crime that will disguise the fact that that property is the proceeds of a crime or obscure the beneficial ownership of said property.

In addition, other transborder crimes include banditry, kidnapping and armed robbery. There is also the negative trend of prostitution that is going on in the region. Some of the prostitutes migrate in order to perpetrate the trade in order to make a living. Therefore, from the data gathered through the interview conducted, on the security challenges affecting the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods, The president of Niger’s chamber of commerce who was in charge of commerce, customs and free movement at the ECOWAS from 2016 to 2018 was of the view that; Yes, the activities of Boko Haram, bandits, kidnappers constitute a threat to the free movement of persons and goods between Nigeria

and Niger. That Boko Haram was for instance the cause of the delay in the operations at the Diffa-Yobe-Borno corridor. To corroborate this statement, the task force President stated that yes, the activities of Boko Haram, bandits, kidnappers constitute a threat to the free movement of persons and goods between Nigeria and Niger.

Indeed, due to the security threats, we recorded drop in the export of livestock from Niger to Nigeria-many weekly cross border markets do not regularly operate. Climate change constitutes a security threat in the sense that it brings poverty that leads some people to pose act of threat to the security of persons and goods.

Furthermore, the customs officials stated that the activities of Boko Haram, armed robbery and kidnapping have affected the free movement of persons and goods. Other security threats are cattle rustling; bandits used to attack Fulanis and take their cows and cattle.

On their part, the crossers generally believed that banditry is one of the security threats at the borders. However, there are problems of drug trafficking and arms circulation in some instances; the people carrying arms don't follow the routes with security operatives, and they follow the bushes used by smugglers. One of them stated and I quote: "I think the two governments should try to put security operatives around those places".

Moreover, the respondents emphasised that the two countries signed bilateral agreements in the following areas under the auspices of the Nigeria-Niger joint cooperation commission: agreement on road transport signed on 18/07/1990, agreement on the establishment of local bilateral committees signed on the 18/07/1990, commercial agreement signed on 25/01/2002, as well as agreements on information between the two countries signed on 25/01/2002 etc.

On the other side, the crossers interviewed along the two borders (Illella-Konni and Katsina-Jibiya) unanimously stated that they know that there is protocol on free movement of persons and goods among members of ECOWAS but sometimes the staff at the border don't value it and some of them are not even after the travel documents but after money. They further asserted that the travelers carrying goods for sale are more likely to be harassed if they fail to make unofficial payment, the goods can even be seized.

Unfortunately, the implication of security challenge on free movement of persons and goods is that the protocol for free movement of goods was not fully enforced by Nigeria and Niger Republic which recently forced the Buhari administration to violate the ECOWAS protocol with the closure of border in favour of national interest.

It was generally believed that the activities of Boko Haram, bandits, kidnappers constitute a threat to the free movement of persons and goods between Nigeria and Niger. Most of the respondents interviewed believed that the activities of Boko Haram have caused delay in the operations at the Diffa-Yobe-Borno corridor. Also, due to the security threats, there was recorded drop in the export of livestock from Niger to Nigeria; many weekly cross border markets do not regularly operate. Climate change constitutes another security threat in the sense that it brings poverty that leads some people to pose acts of threats to the security of persons and goods.

There is need not to be over-emphasised that the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods is to facilitate free movement across the borders of member states. But criminals have been using this protocol to perpetrate their notorious activities. According to Peter and Asogwa (2017), in spite of the Protocol of The Economic Community of West African State (ECOWAS) on Free Movement of Peoples and Goods across the borders of members of the community, the countries involved have to go beyond this provision to institute some legal provisions aimed at averting transnational organized crime. This has become particularly important because of the fact that each of these countries has individual responsibilities of restoring the confidence of the international community on them so as to attract foreign direct investment (FDI). He effects of transborder crimes are numerous.

Accordingly, Peter and Asogwa (2017) identified the following (first four) impacts of trans-border crimes on regional integration especially in West Africa. These include erosion of confidence by ECOWAS member state even in the event of legitimate trade. This probably might have been the reason for the poor profile of intra-regional trade in West Africa. Secondly, it leads to mutual suspicion among the member state of ECOWAS. This accounts for the rigorous check at the various border-crossing of West African states to the extent that some crossers or travellers are harassed. Thirdly, Intra-regional investment is of poor profile owing to the ferocity of trans-border crimes, fear of the unknown and the possibility of

being defrauded. Fourthly, there has been acceleration of investment between West African countries and other advanced countries of the world due to transborder crimes, hence frustrating any tendency for regional integration in West Africa.

Other effects of insecurity in forms of insurgency and related transborder crimes include threat to lives and property. Transborder crimes affect the lives and property of members, both crossers and neighbouring communities. This is in relation to banditry, trafficking (drug and human), smuggling etc. Also, security threat led to the suspension of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods by country like Nigeria. The Buhari administration has in August 2019 closed its borders by suspending the protocol on free movement of persons and goods in order to address issue pertaining smuggling etc. This decision has both social and economic effects and by extension affects the regional integration.

From the foregone discussions and analysis, the study revealed that both Nigeria and Niger Republic have signed various bilateral agreements for the implementation of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods. In spite of the protocol and the bilateral agreements, insecurity within and along the borders of Nigeria and Niger Republic affected the enforcement of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods.

It was found out that the major security challenges affecting Nigeria and Niger Republic are in relations to insurgency (Boko haram/ISWAP), human trafficking, smuggling, armed robbery and other transborder crimes. The Boko haram/ISWAP insurgency is one of the major security threats that mainly affected Nigeria. This security threat is one of the factors that triggered the decision of the Nigerian government to restrict the free movement of goods along Nigeria and Niger Republic border.

Finally, it was discovered that the security challenges have affected the free movement of persons and goods between Nigeria and Niger Republic. This leads to harassment of crossers or travellers by the officials at the borders to the extent that some official extorted the crossers or travellers irrespective of whether they have the required valid documents or not. They sometimes seized the traveller's goods.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

It is concluded from the data analysed that the level of commitment or political-will between Nigeria and Niger has been commendable. Security challenges due to banditry, insurgency, kidnapping, money laundering, smuggling due to porosity of borders etc. have great obstacles that continue to militate against the implementation of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods as enshrined in the various articles (ECOWAS) and by extension regional integration. If insecurity in forms of insurgency, armed robbery, smuggling and other despicable and reprehensive cross-border activities continues unchecked, this could also spell doom in the proper implementation of the protocol.

Recommendations

Therefore, effort should be intensified in ensuring that the requisite political will is maintained and strengthened (by the state actors as emphasised by the rationalists) to facilitate smooth movement of persons and goods along the borders. Therefore, there is need for the state actors (government of Nigeria and Niger Republic) to raise up in providing adequate security personnel at the borders considering the porosity of most of our borders. But this will not be enough without the supply of sophisticated gadgets for the security personnel and other officials at the border in the midst of pervasive activities of insurgents (Boko haram/ISWAP), armed robbers and kidnappers. Therefore, the provision of adequate security personnel should be commensurate with adequate and sophisticated weapons, surveillance vehicles and other related gadgets to enable them to carry out their activities with ease.

There is need for adequate security personnel at the borders considering the porosity of most of our borders. Therefore, the provision of adequate security personnel should be commensurate with adequate and sophisticated weapons, surveillance vehicles and other related gadgets to enable them to carry out their activities with ease.

Also, in relation to the structural-functional theory, there is need for synergy among the various official at the borders in working as a team with one common goal of ensuring that there is free movement of persons and goods along the borders. Therefore, the structural-functional model for integration is relevant as it

emphasises on the need to work together harmoniously to achieve a common goal. West African countries under the ECOWAS should commit all necessary resources and work as a team to realize the integration goal.

Finally, efforts should be intensified by the government of West African countries to ensure that poverty is reduced to the barest minimum. First, basic infrastructural facilities should be provided to improve the living standard and for businesses to thrive, education and health care services are to be made affordable. Secondly, more empowerment programmes should be formulated and vigorously implemented to improve the level of income of the citizens.

Reference

- Adepoju, A. (2009). Migration management in West Africa within the context of ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and the Common Approach on Migration: Challenges and prospects. In M. Tremolieres (ed.) *Regional challenges of West African migration: African and European Perspectives*. Paris: EOCED (in English and French).
- Balaam, D. N. & Dillman, B. (2011). *Introduction to international political economy*. USA: Pearson Education Inc.
- Durkheim, E. (1997). *Division of labour in society*. Free press.
- ECOWAS, (1975). ECOWAS Treaty I, ECOWAS Secretariat, Abuja.
- ECOWAS (1999). An ECOWAS compendium on movement, right of residence and establishment. Abuja: ECOWAS Secretariat.
- ECOWAS (2006). Status of ratification of the ECOWAS revised treaty, protocols and conventions as at 28 March, 2007. Abuja: ECOWAS Commission.
- Ering, S.O. (2011). Trans-border crime and its socio-economic impact on developing economies. *J Sociology Soc Anth*, 2(2): 73-80.
- Hudu, Z. (2021). Assessment of ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods along Nigeria-Niger borders. An unpublished PhD thesis in the Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.
- Peel, M. (2006). Nigeria-related financial crime and its link with Britain, an African Programme Report, Chatman House: The Royal Institute of International Affairs.
- Peter, A.M. & Asogwa, N.O.M. (2017). Exploring the implications of transborder crimes for regional integration in West Africa.
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/320166514>

¹Zaratou HUDU, ²Hamza A. Yusuf, ³Musa Idris and ⁴Kabir M. Isa

Söderbaum, F. & Shawn, N. (eds) (2003). *Theories of new regionalism*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Umar, M.B. (2011). The ECOWAS and the management of integration in the West African Sub-Region - 1985 - 2005. Being a Dissertation submitted to the Post Graduate School, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Public Administration.

www.actuniger.com

Political will and National Interest in the Implementation of Ecowas Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and Goods between Nigeria and Niger Republic

Zaratou HUDU

08038894968, **Email: huduzaratoup11@gmail.com**

Department of Public Administration

Faculty of Administration

Ahmadu Bello University Zaria

Abstract

Article 27 of the ECOWAS Treaty affirms a long-term objective of establishing a Community citizenship that could be acquired automatically by all nationals of the member states. This reinforces the preamble to the treaty that outlined the key objective of removing obstacles to the free movement of goods, capital and people in the sub-region. After many years of signing the Treaty I, establishing the ECOWAS as a regional body, the overall objective of promoting cooperation and integration remains consistently elusive. This paper specifically identified the factors that necessitated the measures taken by the Nigerian government against the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods; it also examined the socio-economic implications of the measures on the relationship between Nigeria and Niger Republic. Data for the paper were gathered from both primary and secondary sources. Interview was conducted with former president of Niger who was also a member of ECOWAS task force and some border personnel along Illela-Konni and Katsina-Jibiya borders. The article on ECOWAS protocol for free movement of persons and goods, documents from Niger-Nigeria Joint Commission of Cooperation and other related documents were used as secondary source. The data were analysed thematically using content analysis. The paper revealed that the decision of the Nigerian government to restrict the free movement of goods along Nigeria and Niger Republic border was due to the intention of Buhari regime to avoid illegal entry of re-exported goods on transit, that cross African countries, especially Niger Republic and other socio-economic motives. However, the decision has multiplier effects on the relationship between Nigeria and Niger Republic. The study recommends among others the need for multilateral dialogue, at the sub-regional and regional level for all affected parties to present and iron issues or measures rather than resort to unilateral decision that could breach international protocol that eventually affects regional integration.

Keywords: Political-will, Ecowas, free movement, persons, goods

Introduction

Globally, regional organizations are viewed as major feature of contemporary social and economic systems. One of the basic purposes of such regional bodies is to make use of deliberate efforts to strengthen trade and economic links.

Integration is sacrosanct in making efforts within the context of the forces of globalization, liberalization, economic growth, global security and stability, and more so in the light of the emergence of these forces as critical and fundamental issues that have helped in not only shaping but propelling contemporary global events.

In Africa, the leaders of West Africa recognised in the early 1970s that intra-regional integration could be an important step towards the sub-region's collective integration into the global economy. The possibility, and indeed the necessity, of creating sub-regional economic cooperation and integration organisations in West Africa and in fact in all of Africa was reinforced by the experiences both in developed countries, and in other developing countries (Adepoju, 2002). Hence, a treaty was signed in Lagos on 28 May 1975 to herald the creation of the Economic Community of West African States.

The ECOWAS as a regional organization was therefore rightly established to encourage economic, social and cultural development of the West African sub-region, and it derived its legitimacy from the treaty of Lagos signed by its 16-member pioneer member-states. The ECOWAS Union according to the document sought for; the establishment of a Common Market through the liberalization of trade by the abolition of customs duties levied on imports/exports and the abolition of non-tariff barrier in order to establish a free trade area at the community level; the removal of obstacles to the free movement of persons, goods, service and capital and to the rights of residence etc.

Phase 1 of the Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and the Right of Residence and Establishment of May 1979, which guaranteed free entry of Community citizens without visa for 90 days, was ratified by Member States in 1980 and put into effect forthwith. Prior to the enactment of the ECOWAS Protocol on free movement, people moved from one location to another with no regards for the artificial borders created by the colonial powers. The objectives of the community are to promote cooperation and integration, leading to the establishment of an economic coalition in West Africa, in order to raise the living standards of its peoples, to maintain and enhance economic stability, foster relations among member states and contribute to the progress and development of the African continent (ECOWAS Treaty I, 1975).

Specifically, in the expression of political will, efforts were made through various bi-lateral agreements between Nigeria and Niger to strengthen the protocol for the

free movement of persons and goods signed under ECOWAS. These include agreements on commercial trade signed on the 25th of January, 2002, agreements for the creation of Consulate Chamber signed in 2012, the creation of Nigeria and Niger joint commission.

Generally, national interest of a country is a multidimensional hierarchy of objectives, one that is probably changing all the time and cannot be separated from the political will of the leaders in relation to the overall policy objectives of the states. At the base of the hierarchy are those purposes and objectives that are central to the security, autonomy, and independence of the political unit, to its political, social, religious, and cultural institutions, and to the basic welfare of its citizens (Holsti, 1995).

In spite of the visionary efforts of leaders to pursue the objectives of ECOWAS, there has been little to show in terms of genuine integration. Weak political will, political instability and inter-state border disputes and wars, and the reluctance of countries to surrender national sovereignty to a sub-regional organ, render the economic grouping a toothless bulldog. The smaller and economically less prosperous countries such as Niger are often suspicious of the demographic and economic giants like Nigeria. Also, free movements are still hampered by the challenges of logistics such as inadequate surveillance gadgets, ineffective information sharing etc (Umar, 2011).

Also, in spite of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods and the various agreements to foster economic relations, the Buhari administration, especially in 2019-2020 went against the agreement with the closure of border, which has been subjected to strong criticism at home, within and outside the sub-region by scholars, political analysts, the business community and individuals' alike. Nigeria's neighbouring countries such as Benin, Cameroun, Chad and Niger, together with its foreign trade partners, are also not left out among the critics of the protectionist policy of the administration to close the land border in August 2019. Also, the implications of this border closure are far-reaching not only for West African sub-region but also for wider regional integration in the continent. Justifying his government's action, President Muhammad Buhari was recently quoted as saying: "We have saved millions of dollars; we have realised that we don't have to import rice. We have achieved food security-we have

curtailed the importation of drugs and proliferation of small arms which threaten our country” (African Review, 15 February 2020).

The Nigerian government explained that the nation’s land borders were shut in the nation’s overall best interest. According to President Buhari, the main reason for the closure was to curtail the smuggling of goods such as rice and textiles to boost domestic production. The Nigerian government also aims to curb the illegal supply of weapons into the country. Still, there have been questions whether the Nigerian government action, which negatively impacts the economy of her West African neighbours, contradicts the country’s previous popular political mantra that Africa is the centrepiece of Nigeria’s foreign policy and the present “good neighbourliness and friendship” mantra. There have also been suggestions that the border closure signified a radical departure from Nigeria’s traditional care for all African nations.

Therefore, the basic questions are; how has expression of political-will and national interest affected the enforcement of the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods along the Nigeria-Niger border? What informed the decision of the Nigerian government in the closure of border to restrict the free movement of persons and goods? What are the socio-economic implications of the measures on the relationship between Nigeria and Niger? Thus, the objective of the paper is in line with the research questions. The study focuses on the measures taken by the Nigerian government under the Buhari regime (2015-to date).

Conceptual Clarifications

Political-will

Political will may be defined as the extent of committed support among key decision makers for a particular policy solution to a particular problem (Post et al, 2010). Political will is commonly defined as the demonstrated credible intent of political actors (Malena, 2009). A more in-depth and operationally-inclined definition of this concept is the commitment of political leaders and bureaucrats to undertake actions to achieve a set of objectives and to sustain the costs of those actions over time (Brinkerhoff, 2000). While this definition seems straightforward, many authors stress the complexity of the concept of political will, which entails many dimensions and reflects a large and multifaceted set of underlying factors. They conclude that thinking about political will as a single,

simple factor underestimates the sheer complexity of what is involved. More specifically, Brinkerhoff (2000) stated that it is assumed that if political will is present, a number of actions will become visible.

Specifically, in this paper, political will is a sense of loyalty, belonging and connection by the government to the achievement of the ECOWAS integration goal. It implies commitment by the government of Nigeria and Niger and their respective agencies through effective funding, provision of gadgets, ensuring that there is no harassment and extortion among the personnel in the enforcement of ECOWAS protocol with particular reference to free movement of persons and goods along the borders of members countries.

National Interest

Just like the concept of political will, the concept of national interest is vague and so it is difficult to give a precise definition of the term. In spite of that, national interest is defined as the general long term and continuing purpose which the states, nation and the government see themselves as serving. The national interest of a state is rooted in the social consciousness and in the cultural identity of a people. In other words, the national interest of a state is a product of social values which the people have. In practice, the national interest of a country is synthesized and checked by political leaders or policy makers. That is why national interest is defined as “what policy makers say it is”.

Henderson (2005) cited in Ebegbulem (2019) sees national interest as the collective aspiration of a state on worldwide scale. Generally, national interest is conceived as the goals and aspirations of nation-states in the international system. National interest embraces all the various strategies employed in the international interaction of states in order to ensure the achievement and preservation of the goals and aspirations of such states. Broadly conceived, national interest is a guide to the formulation of foreign policy. What propels a state’s foreign policy is its national interest.

Specifically, Babangida (1986) maintained that he would like to think of national interest as national security interest. This is because to him the concept of national interest has become so vague and elastic. It can take subtle forms such as subversion of core values through economic sabotage, counterfeiting, drug

trafficking, espionage, and cultural subversion. These elements can cause havoc on a nation's psyche and survival.

ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and Goods

This has to do with the provision of Article 27 of the ECOWAS Treaty that affirms a long-term objective of establishing a Community Citizenship that could be acquired automatically by all nationals of the member states. It includes Phase 1 of the Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and the Right of Residence and Establishment of May 1979. It also entails the protocol on the provisions for the Re-exportation within ECOWAS of goods imported from third party countries. Also, it is the movement along the border of Nigeria and Niger without unnecessary restriction of any person with required documents. Persons here refer to the citizens of both Nigeria and Niger republic as two of the member countries of ECOWAS. Thus, in a more specific sense, persons in this study are otherwise known as 'citizens' that are legitimate national of a member-state of the ECOWAS, specifically from Nigeria and Niger Republic. Goods on the other hand can be defined as finished products, as intermediate goods used in producing other goods, or as agricultural products and foodstuffs. International trade enables a nation to specialize in those goods it can produce most cheaply and efficiently. These include items such as dates, oil, bed furniture etc.

Theoretical Framework

Realist theory is adopted for this study as a guide. The theory was originally credited to Morgenthau (1904-1980). Realism identifies five propositions that will be useful in analysing the role of national interest in regional integration. First, states are the major actors in world affairs. Second, the international environment severely penalizes states if they fail to protect their vital interests or if they pursue objectives beyond their means; hence, states are 'sensitive to costs' and behave as unitary-rational agents. Third, international anarchy is the principle force shaping the motives and actions of states. Fourth, states in anarchy are preoccupied with power and security, are predisposed toward conflict and competition, and often fail to cooperate even in the face of common interests. Finally, international institutions affect the prospects for cooperation marginally'

Also, Krasner (1992) contends that sovereignty is a political order based on territorial control. The international system is anarchical. It is a self-help system.

There is no higher authority that can constrain or channel the behaviour of states. He argues that sovereign states are rational self-seeking actors resolutely if not exclusively concerned with relative gains because they must function in an anarchical environment in which their security and well-being ultimately rest on their ability to mobilise their own resources against external threats. Senghor notes that empirical studies on African integration have also emphasised the relevance and importance of domestic political developments on the changing positions of local political actors, on the determination of national approaches to integration, and on the scope for government actions in the establishment of strategy. Consequently, policies and actions on cooperation and integration are basically reflective of their perceived implications for domestic political fortunes and of the quest for a monopoly of power in society. Even when the latter is achieved, the domestic consensus based on which government can proceed to negotiate any form of surrender of national sovereignty often is, to a great extent, lacking. Integration means a greater burden than existing political climates can tolerate.

According to Carr (1939), in the international system (ECOWAS in particular) there is no equivalent regulatory system which can enforce compliance on states. There is no binding international law or legal system which can bring states to account for their behaviour. States can 'get way' with whatever their power allows them to achieve. There is no corresponding force which can be invoked to 'reconcile the seemingly irreconcilable clash of interest between nations. Moreover, appeals to the common interests of states were 'illusion', due to the voice of preponderant power, and often at the expense of the weak and disadvantaged.

It has been argued that sovereignty often has tended to provide protective shield for leaders acting ostensibly in the interests of the state, for instance, the decision of Nigeria to close its border in 2019. Realists identify greater uncertainties for states considering cooperation, which among them could achieve the greatest gains, and would un-balanced achievements of gains affect relative capabilities. In addition, realists argue that a state that knows it will not be cheated still confronts another risk that is at least as formidable. For realists, state efforts to cooperate entail dangers plus a much greater risk, for some states, that cooperation might someday result in lost independence and security.

From the foregoing, it is clear that the realist theory unlike other theories such as functionalism and neofunctionalism, does not assume that states interest can be subordinated by functional cooperation in welfare areas. It argues that national interest determines a state willingness to cede sovereignty to regional institutions. This study therefore uses the realist lens to analyse how the expression of the dual factors of political will and national interests have impacted on regional integration in the ECOWAS with specific reference to Nigeria and Niger Republic in protecting the former's (Nigeria) national interest and sovereignty.

Methodology

The paper relies on both primary and secondary data. Interview is used to get first-hand information from the field. The advantage of using interview is due to its flexibility and also it is more in-depth as it facilitates exploration on the issues under discussions. The interview was in form of semi-structured format because responses from the structured questions would elicit other questions that may escape the mind of the researcher but relevant to the study. The questions were on whether Niger and Nigeria have the political will to enforce the agreement; protocol on free movement of persons and goods i.e. the various bilateral agreements between Nigeria and Niger; the creation of the corridors for smooth movement of persons and goods; trade agreement between the two countries and also free trade agreement with the other ECOWAS countries; various personnel at the border to facilitate the movement of persons and goods (immigration and custom officers).

Thus, interview was conducted with the former president of Niger who was also a member of ECOWAS task force and former Director of the ECOWAS from the Nigerian side at the Abuja headquarters. Two management staff of ECOWAS at the Head Office in Abuja, one staff of the Niger-Nigeria Joint Commission, and some official of Customs and Immigration from the two borders of Illella-Konni and Katsina-Jibiya, and four police officers from Niger were also interviewed, giving the total number of 23 respondents that were interviewed. The researcher while conducting the interview was able to record the interaction and later extract the relevant information to the research by putting it in written form. Also, published and unpublished documents are used in gathering secondary data, these include ECOWAS article on the protocol for free movements of persons and goods, documents from Niger-Nigeria joint commission of cooperation etc. The data are analysed thematically and using content analysis.

Discussion of Findings

Articles on Free Movement of Persons and Goods and Nigeria-Niger Bilateral Agreements

The ECOWAS, in order to pursue its objectives in eliminating obstacles restricting the free movement of persons, services and capital between member states came out with guidelines. **Article 2** provides that the community citizens have the right to enter, reside and establish in the territory of Member States; the right of entry, residence and establishment referred to in paragraph 1 above shall be progressively established in the course of a maximum transitional period of fifteen (15) years from the definitive entry into force of this Protocol by abolishing all other obstacles to free movement of persons and to the right of residence and establishment; the right of entry, residence and establishment which shall be established in the course of a transitional period shall be accomplished in three phases, namely: Phase I – Right of Entry and Abolition of Visa; Phase II – Right of Residence and Phase III – Right of Establishment.

However, **Article 3** of the protocol stated that any citizen of the Community who wishes to enter the territory of any other Member State shall be required to possess valid travel document and international health certificate; a citizen of the Community visiting any Member State for a period not exceeding ninety (90) days shall enter the territory of that Member State through the official entry point free of visa requirements. Such citizen shall, however, be required to obtain permission for an extension of stay from the appropriate authority if after such entry that citizen has cause to stay for more than ninety (90) days.

Article 13 provides that this Protocol shall enter into force provisionally upon signature by Heads of State and Government of Member States and definitively upon ratification by at least seven signatory States in accordance with the constitutional procedures applicable for each signatory State; this Protocol and all the instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Executive Secretariat which shall transmit certified true copies of this Protocol to all Member States and notify them of the dates of deposits of the instruments of ratification and shall register this Protocol with the Organisation of African Unity, the United Nations and such other organisations as the Council shall determine; this Protocol shall be annexed to and shall form an integral part of the Treaty.

Therefore, in order to achieve the above purposes, **Article 2 (2)** of the Treaty requires Member States to remove all obstacles to free movement in order to provide the foundation upon which a borderless region was to be achieved. The ECOWAS Community envisioned the transformation of the Union into one “massive borderless region, an ECOWAS of peoples, not countries”. When the Protocol on free movement was enacted, therefore, it held great promise for the earlier vision of the founding fathers for a borderless West African region. Hence forth, adjustments were made to the protocols. For instance, 1985 Supplementary Protocol A/SP.1/7/85 on the Code of Conduct for the implementation of the Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, the Right of Residence and Establishment obliges member states to provide valid travel documents to their citizens (Article 2(1)), establishes additional (to Article 11 of Protocol) requirements for treatment of persons being expelled (Article 4) and enumerates protections for illegal immigrants (Articles 5 and 7).

In addition, the 1986 Supplementary Protocol A/SP.1/7/86 on the Second Phase (Right of Residence) requires states to grant to Community citizens who are nationals of other member states “the right of residence in its territory for the purpose of seeking and carrying out income earning employment” (Article 2); conditions entitlement to residence (and thus seeking and carrying out of income earning employment) on possession of an ECOWAS; residence Card or Permit (Article 5) and harmonisation by member states of rules appertaining to the issuance of such cards/permits (Article 9) and prohibits expulsion in masse (Article 13) and limits grounds for individual expulsion to national security, public order or morality, public health, non-fulfilment of essential condition of residence (Article 14).

Moreover, 1989 Supplementary Protocol A/SP.1/6/89 amending and complementing the provisions of Article 7 of the Protocol on Free Movement, Right of Residence and Establishment amends provisions of Article 7 of Protocol to confirm obligation on signatories to resolve amicably disputes regarding the interpretation and application of the Protocol (Article 2).

In case of Nigeria and Niger, the two countries have signed several bi-lateral agreements to strengthened the enforcement of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods. There was cross-border Initiatives Programme (CIP) launching workshop, held from 19 to 21 September 2007 in Katsina (Nigeria), where three platforms were put forward on which to establish cross-border

cooperation between Niger and Nigeria along the Kano-Katsina-Maradi (abbreviated “K²M”) corridor. These platforms are: 1° Information on the markets; 2° Cross-border movement of goods; 3° Cross-border movement of capital. Nigerian-Niger joint commission of cooperation (NNJCC) was created to facilitate the various agreements between Nigeria and Niger.

Other specific agreements included strengthening efforts in implementing the agreements on commercial trade that was signed on the 25th of January, 2002, agreements for the creation of Consulate Chamber signed in 2012; the most recent development towards this agenda is the December 2014 agreement of ECOWAS members to replace the antiquated ECOWAS Travel Certificate, approved in 1985 for intra-ECOWAS travel in lieu of a passport, with an upgraded biometric travel card called the National Biometric Identity Card (NBIC), effective 2015.

Expression of Political-Will

Leaderships of nations are also vital to international relations and more especially the topmost leader who usually is most profoundly vested with power and authority for decision-making. The role of the Nigerian state and its leadership at various points and times as exemplified by Gowon, Shehu Shagari, Late Abacha, Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida, Olusegun Obasanjo and Late Umaru Musa Yar’adua are clearly illustrative (and now Buhari) (Umar, 2011). Again, years after the signing of the TREATY I, establishing the ECOWAS as a regional body, the overall objective of promoting cooperation and integration, in order to create an economic and monetary union for the purpose of stimulating economic growth and development remains consistently elusive. Rightly, the ECOWAS coalition was expected to lead into the formation of a body that would raise the living standards of its people; enhance economic stability and contribute to the progress and development of the African continent (ECOWAS Secretariat Abuja, 1990).

According to Umar (2011), the absence of genuine commitment on the part of the leadership, as key actors within the system, especially with regards to addressing core economic issues such as tariffs and customs related matters, cross-border crimes; constrained movement of goods and persons, etc. are constitutive of a huge set of inhibitive factors colossally debarring effective integration in West Africa.

Political-will in this context is related to the commitment of the leaders of the two countries and their respective border personnel in enforcing the protocol on free movement of persons and goods, enforcing various bilateral agreements signed by the two countries in socio-economic aspects, adequate funding, adequate support in the provision of necessary security gadgets, vehicles, ensuring corrupt free border personnel that respect human dignity (without harassment) etc.

From the data gathered through the interview conducted, on whether the governments of Nigeria and Niger has the political will in enforcing the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods, the representative of Niger at the chamber of commerce (ECOWAS) who was in charge of commerce, customs and free movement at the ECOWAS from 2016 to 2018 has this to say: “Yes the government of Niger has the political will in enforcing the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods. This is visible in the various initiatives by the two countries to establish appropriate offices to enforce the implementation of the protocol- e.g. ECOWAS unit of the ministry of foreign affairs, customs offices etc.” He further stated that the two countries signed also commercial agreement like the one of January 2002 and also the various corridors put in place for the effective implementation of the protocol -corridor Zinder-Daura-Jigawa-Kano, Tahoua-Dosso-Sokoto-Kebbi-Zamfara, and Diffa-Yobe-Borno, the first two are operational and the last one is on the process.

However, Gen Djibo Salou, former ECOWAS task force President has this to say, “yes, the government of Nigeria and Niger expressed the political will to enforce the protocol on free movement of persons and goods. “Indeed, each country has established appropriate offices for the implementation of the protocol. For instance, the ECOWAS unit at the ministry of foreign affairs, customs offices, and the community space transport coordination office at the ministry of transport”.

Moreover, the respondents emphasised that the two countries signed bilateral agreements in the following areas under the auspices of the Nigeria-Niger joint cooperation commission: agreement on road transport signed on 18/07/1990, agreement on the establishment of local bilateral committees signed on the 18/07/1990, commercial agreement signed on 25/01/2002, as well as agreements on information between the two countries signed on 25/01/2002 etc.

More so, it was stated that as part of the implementation of these programmes in the ECOWAS member countries, the government of Nigeria and Niger instituted the Nigeria-Niger joint commission to develop the cross border cooperation initiatives on the corridor Kano-Katsina-Maradi K²M dedicated to the free movement of persons and goods emphasizing on the promotion of trade and food security-following the successful registrations, the ministerial council decided to replicate the example to cover the entire border areas of Niger and Nigeria, by creating 3 other corridors as follows: Zinder-Daura-Jigawa-Kano (ZDYK); Tahowa-Dosso-Sokoto-Kebbi-Zamfara (TDSKZ) and Diffa-Yobe-Borno (DYB), not yet operational.

On the part of the first three corridors, an institutional framework is put in place through inner caucuses (task teams) that ensure that the principles of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods are complied with. These technical units each have a framework and do a permanent work of information and raising public awareness for the respect of the rules and regulations of the protocol.

On interview conducted with Director of Economic Affairs in Niamey, Niger (Commission Mixte Nihero-Nigeriane Direction Des Affaires Economiques De Cooperation), he believed that efforts were put in place to implement the agreement through the Niger-Nigeria joint commission which took a new dimension with the food crisis that occurred in Niger and Northern part of Nigeria in 2005. The famine according to him created price rise and a drop in livestock prices. It was in that context that the cross-border cooperation between Katsina-Kano-Maradi has been retained. A deep study was conducted by a team that led to installation of the watch programme on food security and cross border trade issues corridors were set up to operate along the borders (Kano-Katsina-Mardi (K²M), Zinder-Daura-Jigawa-Kano, Tahoua-Sokoto-Kebbi-Zamfara.

In contrast, the custom officials interviewed in the two borders believed that they don't think the governments of Nigeria and Niger have the political will in enforcing the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods. One of the interviewees at the Illella-Konni border stated that the two governments did not put enough efforts to stop the harassment of travellers by the security personnel at the borders. And the "carnet de voyage" ECOWAS travel documents are expensive for Niger citizens that are in Nigeria, and they only have two representatives where they can go and get it in Kano or Abuja. Also, the two

governments are part of the agreements made (multilateral) on the free movement of persons and goods but no monitoring and no consideration for citizens.

On the other side, the crossers interviewed along the two borders (Ilele-Konni and Katsina-Jibiya) unanimously stated that they know that there is protocol on free movement of persons and goods among members of ECOWAS but sometimes the staff at the border don't value it and some of them are not even after the travel documents but after money.

National Interest: Implications on Nigeria-Niger Relationships

As stated earlier, every state in the international system, irrespective of size, economic status, ideological orientation or culture, has some form of interests or goals defined as national interest (based on the assumptions of realist theory). Scholars and political analysts have different perceptions of the concept of national interest in line with their understanding of the subject matter.

There is a consensus that there are five core values or ingredients that constitute what can be seen as Nigeria's vital interests. These are "self-preservation or survival, security, economic well-being or prosperity, prestige or honour and peace" (Eminue, 2013:76). Self-preservation or survival is the most fundamental ingredient of any nation's national interest. Self-preservation or survival includes the need for internal unity and political stability. Security is another ingredient because the survival of any nation is at stake whenever its territory is threatened with an imminent attack or is actually attacked. What constitutes national security include the securing of a nation's borders and the maintenance of the nation's independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity.

Economic well-being or prosperity is another ingredient that constitutes the vital interests of any nation. In contemporary democratic systems, citizens constantly demand that their economic well-being be incorporated into the national interest of their state by way of providing food, shelter, improved health conditions and other basic needs which guarantee citizens' comfort and happiness. Maintenance of domestic and international peace is another vital national interest which nation-states cherish. According to Eminue (2013:80) "domestic peace and tranquillity presume the prevalence of political stability, economic prosperity, social harmony, and distributive equity/ justice.

Unfortunately, due to national interest, the protocol for free movement of goods was not respected by Nigeria in some years back which would not allow its cereals to be exported while meanwhile importing cereals from Niger. Recently, the Buhari administration violates the ECOWAS protocol with the closure of border in favour of national interest.

Socio-Economic Effects of Border Closure

The measure taken by the Buhari administration in the closure of Nigeria's border with other African countries, Niger republic in particular has both positive and negative effects. The decision violates the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods to prioritise on Nigeria's national interest. However, the intention of Buhari is not to block goods fabricated in Niger, Benin Republic and others, the objective is to avoid illegal entry of re-exported goods, that cross Niger and Benin Republic on transit.

According to Oluka (2020) the protectionist policy of the Muhammadu Buhari's administration, particularly the policy that pertains to the closure of Nigeria's land borders, has been subjected to ridicule by scholars, political analysts and individuals from the business community. Critics all over the country have argued that the closure of the country's land boundaries is an anti-human policy and Nigeria's neighbouring countries, together with its foreign trade partners, are also not left out among the critics of the protectionist policy of the administration. Furthermore, the recent decision for border closure by the Nigerian government is unique as it affects all of its neighbours and comes at a crucial time when African countries are trying to remove border restrictions. The implications are far-reaching for wider regional integration on the continent.

On the positive impact, the intention of the government is to promote domestic industries and encourage consumption of local agricultural products such as rice, vegetables, poultry etc. It has also been argued that the policy objective of the government is in tandem with international standards which, in the long run, will be appreciated. But a closer look at this policy agenda shows that the policy has significant prospect that could be achieved in the short-run, particularly in its campaign for investment in the manufacturing sector, and in the production, cultivation and consumption of local grown agricultural produce instead of over reliance or dependence on foreign imports.

According to critics of the measures taken by the Buhari administration, the policy was executed with no palliative measures put in place to cushion its effects on the citizens before its official take off. Others have also discredited the good intentions of the government by tagging it the 'Buharism policy' which, among the locals, signifies total hardship. A host of other Nigerians accused the administration of pursuing unfriendly policies, as well as engaging itself in constitutional summersaults and abuse of the rule of law. Others alleged that the policy was a replicate of Buhari's policy during his short reign as military Head of State and the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the Federation from 1983 to 1985. Chidozie, Ibietan and Ujara (2014), asserted that the Buhari/Idiagbon military regime had proposed to restore the country's battered image overseas, and that administration promised to retrieve looted finances by politicians, in spite of their promise, the administration only succeeded in promulgating anti-drug and anti-corruption military decrees. In its attempts to avoid a repeat of the Shagari led civil rule over dependence on the international financial institutions through borrowing, the Buhari/Idiagbon regime violated human rights with lots of impunity and disregards for constituted authorities. The administration put forth the argument that "a good image constitutes a country.

However, the claim of the first concern of border closure in August 2019 that has to do with smuggling is weak because Nigeria's land borders are porous with many illegal routes that transcend contiguous communities with a history of trade and social relations that predate the colonial period. Therefore, smuggling occurs through hundreds of illegal routes often in collaboration with corrupt customs officials and other border personnel.

Nevertheless, the Nigerian government being an ECOWAS member has the right to protect its national interest as supported by the realists due to many reasons-security, self-preservation, economic etc. But the closure of border is against the Nigerian foreign policy mantra of good neighbourliness and friendship.

Summary of Findings

The study revealed that both Nigeria and Niger have established appropriate offices and signed various bilateral agreements for the implementation of the protocol on free movement of persons and goods. In spite of the protocol and the bilateral agreements, Nigeria in the pursuit of its national interest closed its border with Niger and other countries in 2019.

It was found out that the decision of the Nigerian government to restrict the free movement of goods along Nigeria and Niger Republic border was informed by the intention of Buhari regime to avoid illegal entry of re-exported goods, that cross especially Niger Republic on transit and other socio-economic motives.

Finally, it was discovered that the socio-economic implications of the measures on the relationship between Nigeria and Niger are in two folds. First, in the case of Nigeria, the socio-economic implication is that, if smuggling and other despicable and reprehensive cross-border activities continues unchecked, it could spell doom for home-based business particularly the SMEs and it will be a big threat to national security. But a unilateral closure of international border for as long as one year against well-known and documented international protocols could trigger diplomatic row between Nigeria and Niger due to the negative implications of the closure on the economy of Niger Republic.

Conclusion

It is concluded from the data analysed that the level of commitment or political-will between Nigeria and Niger has been commendable. But the border closure, irrespective of the rationale and the potential as well as actual advantages and disadvantages was an intricate and complex decision. For instance, a unilateral closure of international border for as long as one year against well-known and documented international protocols such as ECOWAS, GATT (General Agreement for Trade and Tariff) among others, could trigger diplomatic row which if not well managed could further dent or tarnish the image of the nation both within and outside the sub-region (Oluka, 2020). Therefore, the recent border closure is said to be a policy mistake that will produce dismal outcomes for Nigeria that goes against borderless Africa.

However, a nation may be doing herself a great disservice if it watches apparently helplessly while individuals, groups and even nations take undue advantage of international protocols to sabotage her economy and security through smuggling and other nefarious cross border activities. If smuggling and other despicable and reprehensive cross-border activities continues unchecked, this could also spell doom for home-based business particularly the SMEs and a big threat to national security.

Therefore, effort should be intensified in ensuring that the requisite political will is maintained and strengthened (by the state actors as emphasised by the rationalists) to facilitate smooth movement of persons and goods along the borders. And, the governments of the two countries and other ECOWAS nations must fulfil their financial obligations in committing adequate financial resources in order to champion the cause of the regional body. There is dire need in ensuring that the two governments and ECOWAS members 'countries in general facilitate free movement through concrete actions such as setting up joint border posts, border markets, shared health clinics, shared schools, etc. Also, as part of political will, the border personnel of the two countries should show sign of respect for the crossers from both sides, irrespective of language, religion and any other primordial factor.

Finally, the borderless African policy which envisions a single African passport and an unrestricted movement for African citizens that gained widespread support across the continent is a welcome development to strengthening the enforcement of the agreement on free movement of persons and goods. The African continental free Trade Area (AFCFTA), signed by all African countries except Eritrea was to become fully operational on 1st July 2020, removing trade barriers and facilitating the free movement of Africans in the region and this is a necessity for the development in this world of globalisation.

Reference

- Adepoju, A. (2009). Migration management in West Africa within the context of ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and the Common Approach on Migration: Challenges and prospects. In M. Tremolieres (ed.) *Regional challenges of West African migration: African and European Perspectives*. Paris: EOCED (in English and French).
- Adepoju, A., Boulton, A. and Levin, M. (ND). Promoting integration through mobility: Free movement under ECOWAS.
- Carr, E.H. (1939). The twenty years crisis. London, p. 297
- Ebegbulem, J.C. (2019). Nigeria's national interest and foreign policy: A critical evaluation, *International Journal of Research in Humanities and Social Studies Volume 6*, Issue 10, 2019, PP 49-60 ISSN 2394-6288 (Print) & ISSN 2394-6296 (Online).
- ECOWAS, (1975). ECOWAS Treaty I, ECOWAS Secretariat, Abuja.

- ECOWAS (1999). An ECOWAS compendium on movement, right of residence and establishment. Abuja: ECOWAS Secretariat.
- ECOWAS (2006). Status of ratification of the ECOWAS revised treaty, protocols and conventions as at 28 March, 2007. Abuja: ECOWAS Commission.
- Eminike, J.O. & Enwere, C. (2020). National border closure as paradigm shift in sustainable foreign policy development in Nigeria. *IJMSSSR 2020 Volume 2 Issue 3*, ISSN: 2582 - 0265
- Emma, O.C. (1991). *President Ibrahim Babangida's foreign policy triumphs*, Lagos: Bissau Investment Ventures WA Ltd.
- Grieco, J.M. (ND). 'Anarchy and the limits of cooperation: A realist critique of the newest liberal institutions' in David A. Baldwin (ed), *Neorealism and Neoliberalism: The contemporary debate* P. 118
- Krasner, S. (1992). 'Realism, imperialism and democracy', *Political Theory*, 20, p. 39
- Oluka, N. L. (2020). Nigerian foreign policy implications on national development: A critical assessment of Buhari's beggar-thy-neighbour policy. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science (IJRISS) |Volume IV, Issue VI, June 2020|ISSN 2454-6186*.
- Senghor, C. (1939). 'Theoretical foundations for regional integration in Africa: An overview' in Nyong'o, Anyang (ed), *Regional integration in Africa: Unfinished Agenda* p. 24-25
- Umar, M.B. (2011). The ECOWAS and the management of integration in the West African Sub-Region - 1985 - 2005. Being a Dissertation submitted to the Post Graduate School, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Public Administration.

Effect of National Homegrown School Feeding Programme on Enrolment and Abscondment of Pupils in Primary Schools in Shira Local Government Area of Bauchi State

¹Bala Umar, ²Lawal Saleh & ³Musa Idris

¹Department of Public Administration, School of Business Studies, Federal Polytechnic, Bauchi

² & ³ Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria

¹ Corresponding Author: meetbumar@yahoo.com

Abstract

Various programmes were implemented in Nigeria vis-a-vis Bauchi State with a view to improve enrolment into primary schools. However, the record shows that in 2019, the number of children who were outside the school system in Nigeria, rose from 10.5 million in 2015 to 13.2 million, with Bauchi State having the highest number of out-of-school children of 1.1 million. Therefore, this study assessed the effect of the national homegrown feeding programme on enrolment and abscondment of pupils in primary in Shira LGA of Bauchi State; with a specific focus on enrolment and retention of pupils of primary schools. The study adopted a survey method, data were gathered from both the primary and secondary sources include the reports of the United Nation International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF), National Demographic and Education Survey, Journals, Bauchi State Universal Basic Education Board among others. The instrument used in gathering primary data includes questionnaire and interview. The study revealed that the implementation of a national homegrown school feeding programme has significantly increased enrolment into primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State. Similarly, there was reduction in abscondment of pupils from primary schools in Shira LGA as a result of the implementation of a national homegrown school feeding programme in the study area. Therefore, the study recommended that the Federal Government should continue with the implementation of the national home programme to sustain the level of improvement recorded on enrolment of pupils in primary schools and reduction in abscondment of pupils from primary schools as a result of the implementation of the national home-grown feeding programme.

Keywords: National Homegrown, School Feeding Programme, Enrolment Abscondment

Introduction

School feeding programme is generally considered to be an intervention that facilitate access to education and increase attendance and retention rates as well as improving the nutritional status of school children (Home Grown School Feeding Resource Framework Synopsis, 2018). School feeding programme contribute to children's learning and health, increasing their productive potential later in life. Especially when school feeding is part of a larger package of investment in

education, it helps to maximize the return on this investment and contributes to reducing poverty in the long term (FAO & WFP, 2018).

The home-grown school feeding programme has been introduced in many developed and developing countries of the world to provide food during school hours for the school children to address poverty, stimulate school enrolment and enhance the academic performance of learners in primary school (Ayotunde, Sani and Gladys, 2020). School feeding programme has been adopted in many countries throughout the world to fight short-term hunger by ensuring at least one daily nutritious meal to support access to education. Historically, Netherlands was the first country to move the programme to a new level by incorporating school meals into national legislation in 1900. By the 1930s, the United Kingdom and the United States had also instituted the school feeding programme as part of their national programmes. More so, the United States of America began the practice of initiating school feeding programmes in Austria as an act of international aid focused on combating the severe malnutrition of children in the 1940s after the Second World War. Since then, school feeding programmes have become a key part of food assistance, relief emergency, and development programme. Furthermore, the United Nations World Summit of 2005, recommended the expansion of local school meal programmes, using home-grown foods where possible as one of the “quick-impact initiatives” for achieving goals 1 & 2 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In the same year, the Millennium Project’s report on the practical plan for achieving the MDGs recommended the expansion of school meals programmes to cover all children in hunger spots areas using locally produced food by 2006”. More so, in 2015, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)’s State of Food and Agriculture report identified home grown school feeding (HGSF) as a “win-win” solution that supports family farming through social protection.

In 2003 African heads of state declared that “HGSF is a strategy to improve education, boost local economies and agriculture which will fast-track the attainment of Sustainable Development Goals”. More so, African nations decided to include school feeding programmes that source food locally from farmers in the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) in 2003. Moreover, in the same year, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) launched home-grown school feeding pilots in some African countries comprising, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Nigeria, the United Republic of

Tanzania, Ethiopia, Malawi, Mozambique, Senegal, Uganda, and Zambia. However, Home Grown School Feed is recognized by CAADP and NEPAD as an initiative to promote food security and rural development.

To improve the nutritional status of school children, enrolment, attendance, and completion, the Federal Government of Nigeria launched the Home-Grown School Feeding and Health Programme in September 2005 under the coordination of the Federal Ministry of Education. The programme is aimed at providing pupils with an adequate meal during the school day (FME, 2007). The scheme, officially known as Home Grown School Feeding Programme insisted on buying the foodstuffs from the local farmers. It, therefore, reduced the rate of malnutrition while it also provided the local farmers with the opportunity to sell their products to participating schools. According to the Federal Government's directive, Federal, State, and Local Governments were to fund the programme.

In 2005, the Federal Government of Nigeria piloted the implementation of Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF) through the Federal Ministry of Education for a phased-pilot rollout, beginning with 12 States and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) selected from the six geopolitical zones. Thus in 2014, the Federal Government convened a high level National Advocacy Meeting with support from Imperial College London's Partnership for Child Development (PCD), the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (BMGF), the World Bank Group, and the Vitof Foundation to develop a roadmap for implementing the HGSF programme across Nigeria. The recommendations of the meeting have reinforced the need for urgent action to implement the programme across the country (Nigeria Home Grown School Feeding Strategic Plan, 2016-2020). This led to the implementation of the programme across all 36 States including Bauchi State through the provision of one meal per school day to all primary school pupils in Nigeria with the objectives of increasing primary school enrolment and completion rate, improving child nutrition and health, improve local agricultural production and job creation. However, despite the implementation of the programme in Bauchi State, data released by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) between 2016 and 2017, revealed shocking figures of out of school children across the states of the federation with Bauchi State having 60.7% out of school children. Whereas, Lagos was the least among them with only 4.3% followed by Anambra and Abia with 6.6% out of school children.

Similarly, the report of a survey jointly carried out by the UNICEF and the Federal Government of Nigeria (2018) shows that the number of children who are outside the school system, rose from 10.5 million in 2015 to 13.2 million, with Bauchi State having the highest number of out-of-school children at 1.1 million, followed by Katsina with 781,500 children (The Sun 23rd October 2018). Consequently, Shira LGA is among the local governments with a low level of enrolment in the Bauchi State. Data shows that in 2018 Shira Local Government was having 29544 which is very low as compared to other local governments that have almost the same population with Shira LGA like Alkaleri LGA had 44959, Dass LGA had 46286 while Warji and Kirfi LGAs had 43949 and 50343 respectively. *Therefore, this research is set to examine the effect of the National Home Grown Schools Feeding Programme on pupils' enrolment into public primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State from 2016 to 2020 and to determine the extent to which the implementation has or has not reduced abscondment of pupils from primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State. Two hypotheses were tested which stated that: H₀₁: implementation of homegrown school feeding programme has not significantly increased pupils' enrolment into primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State and H₀₂: implementation of homegrown school feeding programme has not significantly reduced abscondment of pupils from primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State.*

Literature Review

The school feeding is a universal programme designed to promote education and good health in vulnerable children (Eigbobo and Onyejaka 2020). The programme usually attracts children to school by providing nutritious meals in exchange for school participation. School feeding programme may also boost learning and cognitive development by improving attention spans and nutrition, especially to malnourished children. The attraction of this programme is its potential to improve school participation, learning, and cognitive outcomes (Azubuike & Mbah, 2019).

Home Grown School Feeding Programme (HGSFP) can be seen as a vehicle to stimulate local economies by providing a market and source of income for local farmers (Gelli, Masset, Folso, Kusi, Arhinful, Asante, et al., 2016; Bundy, de Silva, Horton, Jamison & Patton, 2018). Also, school feeding programme can be

used as a strategy which is intended to alleviate short-term hunger, improve nutrition and cognition of children and transfer income to families (Cole, 2013).

School feeding refers to the provision of food to children through schools (Taylor & Ogbogu, 2016). According to World Bank (2015) school feeding programme is a targeted social safety nets that provide both educational and health benefits to the most vulnerable children, thereby increasing enrolment and attendance rates, reducing absenteeism, increasing cognitive development and improving food security at the household level. From this definition, we can deduce that the objectives of the school feeding programme are mainly three; School feeding as a social safety net; as a requirement to advance learning and educational outcomes; and to boost nutrition and or health status of the school children. However, they can be grouped into two broad categories: in-school meals and take-home rations where families are given food if their children attend school. School feeding programme is act of providing at least one meal to primary school children with view to motivate the parents to enroll their wards and to also encourage the pupils to willingly attend school.

This study sought to fill other gaps left by the following empirical researches that were conducted on the issues relating to school feeding programme. Adekunle, & Ogbogu (2016), assessed the Effects of the School Feeding Programme on Enrolment and Performance of Public Elementary School Pupils in Osun State, Nigeria. The results showed that pupils are fed daily through the school feeding programme (87%), which is funded through cost sharing between the State and local governments (78%). It was also found that the school feeding programme in Osun State has resulted in an increase in pupils' enrolment (78.4%), retention (44.8%), as well as regularity (58.6%) and punctuality (69%) in school attendance. It has also enhanced the pupils' performance in curricular and extracurricular activities (55.2%). The major challenges were found to be insufficient funding (62.2%), insufficient classrooms and furniture to cope with increase in enrolment (60.86%), heavy workload for teachers (60.86%) and lack of effective monitoring and evaluation system (60.86%).The study concluded that the School Feeding Programme in Osun State has increased the enrolment and improved the performance of elementary school pupils in the state.

In a similar vein, a study conducted by Falade, Otemuyiwa¹, Oluwasola, Oladipo, and Adewusi (2012) on School Feeding Programme in Nigeria: the Nutritional Status of Pupils in a Public Primary School in Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. Data

were generated from both primary and secondary sources. The study revealed that the feeding programme has greatly improved the nutrition status of these children. They recommended that continuation of the programme would go a long way to preventing malnutrition among the public school children. More so, Ayotunde, Sani and Gladys, (2020). Assessed the Implementation of Homegrown School Feeding Programme in UBE Schools in South-West Nigeria. The findings of the study indicated that there was a significant relationship between provision of funds and implementation of home-grown school feeding programme in South-Western Nigeria UBE schools and there was a significant relationship between recruitment of food vendors and implementation of home grown school feeding programme in South-Western Nigeria UBE schools. Furthermore, Chaula, (2015) Assessed the Influence of School Feeding Program on Pupils' Enrolment, Attendance and Academic Performance in Primary Schools in Njombe District, Tanzania. The study findings showed that school feeding program has increased pupils' enrolment, attendance and academic performance. Few schools have been not stable in terms of pupils' enrolment, attendance and academic performance due to parents' negative attitudes towards education, lack of teaching and learning materials, long distance to and from schools, poverty of parents, shortage of teachers, overcrowded classes, political issues and pupils who were orphans. The study recommends that the government through Ministry of Prime Minister's Office Regional Administration and Local Government should improve the infrastructure of the schools by cooperating with other educational stakeholders and encouraging parents to support SFPs by contributing contributions like money and food.

In addition, Elijah (2015) examined the Effect of the National School Feeding Programme on Pupils' Enrolment, Attendance and Retention: A Case Study of Nyoglo of the Savelugu-Nantong Municipality, Ghana. Kadenge and John (2014), Assessed Home Grown School Feeding Programme (HGSFP) in Kinango Sub-County, and Kwale County of Kenya. Olumuyiwa, Israel, Oluwemimo, Wale, & Steve (2012), examined School Feeding Programme in Nigeria: The Nutritional Status of Pupils in a Public Primary School in Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. Shabani (2018), assessed the impact of the School Feeding Programme on Learners' Academic Performance in Mlunduzi Ward, Tanzania. This study is unique as compared to the researches identified above because none of them focused on the enrolment and abscondment of pupils in primary school. In terms of method of data collection, some of them used only questionnaires, while this

study used both questionnaires and interview. As regards location, none of them has written on Shira LGA of Bauchi State.

The Concept of Schools Enrolment and Abscondment

It is generally believed that pupils' enrolment irrespective of sex differences are critical to human development. According to Seth (2016) school enrolment refers to the fact that a child's name is entered or remains on the rolls or register of a school as a pupil. **In a similar vein, enrolment** is the process of arranging to attend an institution and specific classes. This term may also describe the number of students that currently attend a school or a course (Frank, 2017). The term is also used to mean the total number of pupils on the school rolls at a given time, or sometimes the average number of pupils enrolled during a given period such as a school year (Haruna, 2018). In a view of Musa (2012) **enrolment is** the act of signing up for school and/or specific classes or co-curricular activities at that particular school. The enrolment process is completed after a student is granted admission to a particular school.

Therefore, school enrolment denotes the process of initiating attendance to a school or the total number of students properly registered and/or attending classes at a school. Enrolment could also be seen as taking admission or initiating for attendance in school. If a student wants to take admission in any school or institution for any course, there is an enrolment process. The student has to fill-up a form and then submit it to the school. However, in the case of pupils' enrolment into basic education, the parents/guidance would take a pupil to school and fill a form for the pupil to formalize the process of enrolment.

Abscondment on the other hand is a broad term which has many definitions. McCray (2006) defines abscondment as the unexcused absence from school. Kinder (1996) defined abscondment as a situation whereby learners who remain in school but loiter around and attend lessons that interest them and avoid those that are not appealing to them. Abscondment may refer to absenteeism, thus referring to the frequent non-attendance at school. There are alternate words for absconding. Words such as 'bunking off', 'wagging' and 'bobbing' are a few synonyms for absconding (Gleeson, 1994). Abscondment takes a number of forms from learners arriving late at school to learners not even coming to school at all. Some learners stay in school but do not attend certain lessons (Claes, Hooghe and Reeskens (2009). It can be categorized into excusable and non-excusable absence

(Kearney, 2008). In other words abscondment and absenteeism could be used interchangeably and vary from country to country or context to context. For the intention of this study abscondment is used, referring to absent from school, non-attendance of certain lessons and refusing to return back to school after going home for breakfast.

De Witte & Csillag, (2012) argued that in some countries abscondment is referred to as truancy, which is defined as a learner leaving school for three days or more without a valid reason while in other countries that is referred to as absenteeism. Claes et al. (2009) define truancy in Europe as illegal absence. Each country has its own definition of truancy depending on its culture (Strand, 2012). There are two main types of truancy, blanket and post-registration truancy. Stoll (1990) asserts that “blanket” truancy refers to learners who intend to come to school but do not end up at school while post-registration truancy is when a learner is marked present on the school register but does not attend lessons. In India, truancy refers to children who attend school but do not regularly attend classes (Dhruv et al., 2012). This is more aligned with abscondment.

According to Reid (2000) truancy is known in parts of Great Britain as ‘skipping off’, ‘mitching’, ‘dodging’, ‘skiving’, ‘bunking-off’ and ‘going missing’. This is concurred by Wilson, Malcom and Davidson (2008) who believes that truancy is known as “Bunking-off”. From a South African perspective, Moseki (2004) maintains that most learners use the term “bunking”, which is mentioned before as another term for absconding, when they refer to truancy. Therefore, abscondment will be referred to as a situation whether by learner skips school, a particular class or comes late to school. Jugmohan (2015) conducted a research on Factors Contributing to Learners Absconding in a High School in Phoenix. The study used both primary and secondary sources; the primary data was obtained through open-ended questionnaire. The overall findings of the research show that the factors that contribute to learners absconding are situated at the peer and school level. The findings also show that absconding has educational and social effects. In addition, the findings revealed that educators and other learners who attend school regularly are also affected by absconding.

Many researches were carried out on various aspects of enrolment into basic education in Nigeria. However, Alabi (2014), carried out a research on the impact of the Universal Basic Education Programme on primary school enrolment in

Kwara State. His study reveals that Universal Basic Education Programme has played a critical role in enlightening, sensitizing and mobilizing the public which made them to be more committed to basic education programme in Kwara State. The research further established that commitment and awareness are evident in the substantial increase in pupils' enrolment into basic education programme. Moreover, Adeyemi (2012) conducted a research on Enrolment Analysis and Teachers Requirement for the Basic Education Programme in Kwara State. He concluded that Kwara State is not fully prepared for the implementation of the Universal Basic Education Programme as the number of teachers in the study area does not match with the required number. He further stated that not much has been achieved in Universal Basic Education Programme. In a similar vein, a research conducted by Adeyemi and Adu (2010) entitled, "Analysis of Enrolment and Availability of Physical Facilities for Universal Basic Education Programme in Ekiti State"; discovered that, the physical facilities provided by Ekiti State Government in the study area was very low as compared to the rate of enrolment of pupils into Primary and Junior Secondary Schools in the State. This shows that, the demand for basic education by children in the study area was high while the extent of provision of physical facilities was low.

On a different focus, Onyeike and Angela (2011) carried out a research with a focus on girl-child enrolment into Primary Schools as it is indispensable for attaining Universal Basic Education Programme which is one among the eight Millennium Development Goals in Ebonyi State. The study reveals that the enrolment of girl-child to primary education in Ebonyi State is low and calls for concern. However, places, where yearly primary school enrolment of girl-child increases only by a little above a thousand for the period of over 7 years, indicated a very sluggish increase in the enrolment rate. This shows a crawling improvement in the basic education sub-sector.

Methodology

This research adopted the survey method. Data were gathered from both primary and secondary sources. The instruments used in generating primary data include questionnaire and interviews. While secondary sources comprise reports from United Nations International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF), National Demographic and Education Survey, Journals, Unpublished Theses among others. The population of the study comprised of the primary school teachers totaling 413 and the members of School-Based Management Committees (SBMCs) is 311.

Therefore, the total population is 724. Krejcie and Morgan sampling model (1970) was used in determining the sample size of the study. Therefore, the sample size is 254. A stratified sampling technique was used in which the local government was divided into 11 based on the political wards existing in the local government. The justification for the selection of stratified sampling technique was to ensure that every element under study is given an equal chance of being selected in the sample size. Furthermore, interview was conducted with the desk officer of the school feeding programme in Shira LGA of Bauchi State.

However, the total questionnaire that was retrieved and found to be duly filled were 236, while out of 18 copies 9 were wrongly filled and 7 were unreturned. Therefore, 236 questionnaires were used for analysis. Simple Linear Regression was adopted in testing the hypotheses with aid of SPSS.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Data generated from the questionnaire are presented in the tables below:

Table 1: Perception of the Respondents on Enrolment of Pupils into Primary Schools and abscondment of pupils from primary schools

	Strongly Agree (SA)		Agree (A)		Undecided (UD)		Disagree (D)		Strongly Disagree (SD)		Total	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
Pupils' enrolment into primary schools was low before school feeding programme in your community.	24	10.2	112	47.4	-	-	89	37.7	11	4.7	236	100
The school feeding programme has increased enrolment of pupils into primary schools in your community.	72	30.5	112	47.5	-	-	39	16.5	13	5.5	236	100
Before the school feeding programme was introduced most pupils hardly return from breakfast to attend classes.	41	17.5	79	33.4	7	2.9	73	31.1	36	15.1	236	100
During the implementation of school feeding programme, pupils stay in school up to the closing time.	89	37.7	70	29.7	4	1.7	52	22.0	21	8.9	236	100
School feeding programme motivates parents/guidance to send their wards to primary schools.	76	32.2	117	49.6	-	-	26	11.0	17	7.2	236	100
School feeding programme motivates pupils to willingly attend primary schools.	89	37.7	109	46.2	-	-	29	12.3	9	3.8	236	100

(Field Survey, 2021)

The table above shows the responses of Primary School teachers, officials and members of School Based Management Committees (SBMCs) who were asked to indicate their levels of agreement on the assertion that, pupils' enrolment into primary schools was low before school feeding programme in their communities. A detailed analysis of table 4.1 indicates the majority of respondents were of the view that pupils' enrolment into primary schools was low before school feeding programme in their communities. 47.4% which constitutes the majority agreed and 10.2% of respondents also strongly agreed with this claim. While, 37.7% of respondents disagree with the assertion and 4.7% strongly disagree with the postulation made.

More so, the respondents were asked on whether there has been an increase in enrolment of pupils into primary schools in their communities as a result of the implementation of National Home Grown School Feeding Programme in the study area. 47.5% of the respondents, which constitutes the majority, agreed that there has been an increased in pupils enrolment in the study area. Similarly, those that strongly agreed with the expression constituted about 30.5% of the entire responses. However, only 16.5% and 5.5% have a contending view to the assertion.

As regard to the postulation that most pupils absconded from the school after breakfast before the school lunch programme was introduced, 33.4% of the respondents, agreed with this assertion. In addition to that, 17.5% of the respondents strongly agreed. Conversely, it was 31.1% and 15.1% of the respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively with this assertion, however, the remaining 2.9% of the respondents were indecisive.

Similarly, the respondents were further asked to indicate their views on the assertion that due to the implementation of the school feeding programme, pupils stay in school till the closing time. 29.7% and 37.7% of the respondents, representing the majority, agreed and strongly agreed respectively with the assertion. While those with a contending view stood at only 22.0% of the respondents. More so, 8.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed with this claim. However, the remaining 1.7% of the respondents were indecisive with regards to the assertion.

Meanwhile, the opinion of respondents was sought on whether school feeding programme motivates parents/guidance to send their wards to primary schools in the study area. Their responses indicated that, majority of the respondents which represent 49.6% disagreed with the assertion and 32.2% the total respondents were of the view that school feeding programme motivates parents/guidance to send their wards to primary schools. However, on the contrary, it only 11.0% of the total respondents disagreed with this assertion. While 7.2% of respondents strongly disagreed.

In terms of whether school feeding programme motivates pupils to willingly attend primary schools. 46.2% and 37.7% of the total respondents which constitutes the majority agreed and strongly agreed respectively with the postulation that school feeding programme motivates pupils to willingly attend primary schools. Conversely, it was only 12.3% of respondents disagreed with this claim. While 3.8% of respondents strongly disagreed to the claim.

From the data presented above; we can deduce that majority of the responses revealed that enrolment into public primary schools have increased as a result of the implementation of National Home Grown Feeding Programme in the study area. In a similar vein, the interviewees affirmed the claim made by the respondents of the questionnaire, that the implementation of the National Home Grown Feeding Programme has increased the enrolment rate into primary schools. The informants argued that implementation of the programme has led to the influx of pupils' enrolment into the public primary schools to the extent that some of the parents have been disturbing the headmasters to enroll their underage children. More so, some of the interviewees asserted that most of the pupils especially in the remote areas used to stay at home during breakfast without coming back. However, the introduction of the school feeding programme has aided immensely by making them remain in schools throughout. This implies that the programme has improved the retention of pupils in schools up to the closing hours.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis one

H₀₁: Implementation of national home grown school feeding programme has not significantly increase pupils' enrolment into public primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State.

Table 1: Model Summary of Regression Analysis on Enrolments into Primary Schools

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.774	.599	.594	.17101

Source: Computed from the data collected using SPSS

The coefficient of correlation as shown in table 1 above indicates a strong and positive relationship between the implementation of national homegrown school feeding programme and enrolment into primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State, with (R = 0.774). R – Square. The coefficient of determination is 0.599 indicating that 59.9% of the total variation is explained by the changes in the independent variable. This implies that the implementation of the national homegrown school feeding programme has significantly increased the level of enrolment into public primary schools in Shira LGA by 59.9%. The positive relationship indicates a parallel relationship. That is an increase in the school feeding programme will lead to an increase in the other variable (enrolment into public primary school). The adjusted R-square value of 0.594 implies that the implementation of national homegrown school feeding programme has significantly increased the level of enrolment into public primary schools by 59.4% with an estimated standard error of 0.171.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on Enrolment into Primary Schools

Table 2: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on Responses on Enrolment into Primary Schools

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	201.876	1	201.876	6971.162	.000
	Residual	5.644	191	.029		
	Total	207.521	193			

Source: Computed from the data collected using SPSS

The measure of reliability of the regression in the table 2, shows that implementation of national home grown school feeding programme has led to the increase in the level of enrolment into primary schools. This is justified by the

value in ANOVA as the P – value is less than the level of significance (P value = 0.000 < 0.05), hence, there is significant effect.

Coefficients

Table 3: Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	-.360	.051		-7.102	.000
Pupils' enrolment into primary schools	1.755	.013	.981	83.493	.000

Source: Computed from the data collected using SPSS

Table 3 above shows that the effect of the implementation of national home-grown school feeding programme on enrolment into public primary schools yielded a significant beta weight of $\beta_1 = 1.755$ with its corresponding t-value which is statistically significant as the P-value is less than the level of significance (P = 0.000 < 0.05). This forms the basis of rejecting the null hypothesis and concluded that the implementation of a national home grown school feeding programme has a significant effect on enrolment into primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State.

Hypothesis Two

H₀₂: Implementation of national homegrown school feeding programme has not significantly reduced abscondment of pupils in primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State.

Table 4: Model Summary of Regression Analysis on abscondment of pupils from primary schools

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.518	.416	.412	.13261

Source: Computed from the data collected using SPSS

The coefficient of correlation as indicated in the table 4 above signifies a strong and positive relationship between the implementation of national home grown school feeding programme, with ($R = 0.518$). R – Square. The coefficient of determination is 0.416 indicating that 41.6% of the total variation is explained by the changes in the independent variable. This shows that implementation of home grown school feeding programme has improved retention of pupils in schools by 41.6%. The positive relationship indicates a parallel relationship, that is, an increase in one variable will lead to an increase in the other variable. The adjusted R-square value of 0.412 signifies that implementation of national home grown school feeding programme has significantly improved retention of pupils by 41.2% with an estimated standard error of 0.1326.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on abscondment of pupils from Primary Schools

Table 5: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on Responses on abscondment of pupils from Primary Schools

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	205.026	1	205.026	8802.721	.031
	Residual	4.495	193	.023		
	Total	209.521	194			

Source: Computed from the data collected using SPSS

Table 5 above shows the measure of the reliability of the regression analysis which indicates that implementation of national homegrown school feeding programme has improved retention of pupils in schools in Shira LGA. This is indicated by the value in ANOVA as the P-value is less than the level of significance ($P\text{-value} = 0.031 < 0.05$), hence, it has a positive effect.

Coefficients

Table 6: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.355	.038		7.410	.031
	Retention of pupils in schools	.544	.010	.889	91.823	.031

Source: Computed from the data collected using SPSS

From table 6 above, the result shows the effect of the implementation of national home-grown school feeding programme on retention of pupils in schools yielded a significant beta weight of $\beta_1 = 0.544$ with its corresponding t-value which is statistically significant as the P-value is less than the level of significance ($P = 0.031 < 0.05$) which forms the basis of rejecting the null hypothesis and concluded that the implementation of national home-grown school feeding programme has significantly improved retention of pupils in schools in Shira LGA, Bauchi State.

Discussion of Findings

The data presented and analyzed revealed that implementation of national home grown feeding programme has increased pupils enrolment into public primary schools in the study area as the P-value of the simple linear regression analysis is less than the level of significance ($P = 0.000 < 0.05$). This is as a result of the provision one meal daily for the pupils in public primary schools, which has motivated the parents/guidance particularly poor ones to enroll their words. Similarly, the pupil themselves felt motivated to go to school because of the nature of the food given to them as stated by the interview respondents. Moreover, the programme drastically reduced abscondment of pupils from the schools as the P-value of the simple linear regression analysis is less than the level of significance ($P = 0.031 < 0.05$). This is as a result the provision a lunch to the pupils, because the food is been distributed to pupils during breakfast period. Hence there is no need of them to home. Immediately after the food is been shared, the pupils return for lessen to continue.

The secondary data revealed that there has been an increase on enrolment of pupils into primary schools in the study area as the data indicates that as of 2019/2020 academic session, the total enrolment into primary school in Shira Local Government was 40,623. More so, in 2020/2021 academic session the total primary school enrolment was 46,775. This signified that there has been remarkable improvement on enrolment into primary schools in the study area as a result of the implementation of National Home Grown School Feeding Programme in the study.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the data presented, analyzed and the hypotheses tested, this study concluded that the Implementation of national homegrown school feeding

programme has significantly increased enrolment into public primary schools in Shira LGA, Bauchi State. Similarly, there was reduction in the abscondment of pupils from primary schools in Shira LGA as a result of the implementation of national homegrown school feeding programme in the study area. Therefore, this study recommended that the federal should continue with the implementation of the national home programme to sustain improvement recorded on enrolment and reduction in abscondment of pupils in public primary schools in Shira LGA of Bauchi State. More so, Shira Local Government should strive towards enrolment drive campaigns with a view to sustain the improvement recorded in the area of primary schools enrolment and reduction of abscondment. Since the national school feeding programme is an intervention by the Federal Government which might be stopped when there is change in the leadership of the Federal Government.

Reference

- Adekunle, D. Taylor¹ & Christiana, O. Ogbogu¹ (2016), Effects of School Feeding Programme on Enrolment and Performance of Public Elementary School Pupils in Osun State, Nigeria. *World Journal of Education* Vol. 6, No. 3; 2016
- Aliyar, R., Gelli, A., & Hamdani, S. H. (2015). A Review of Nutritional Guidelines and Menu Compositions for School Feeding Programs in 12 Countries. *Frontiers in public health*, 3, 148. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2015.00148>
- Ayotunde, A. K., Sani Y. and Chinelo G. U., (2020). Assessment of the Implementation of Homegrown School Feeding Programme in UBE Schools in South-West Nigeria; *Sub-Sahara African Academic Research Publication*.
- Azubuike, O. C., & Mbah, P. E. (2019). Challenges of Child Nutrition: An Analysis of School Feeding Programmes (SFP) in South Eastern Nigeria. *Savanna Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 1(1), 104-110. Retrieved from <http://www.sjbas.com.ng>
- Chaula, M. E. (2015) An Assessment of Influence of School Feeding Program on Pupils' Enrollment, Attendance and Academic Performance in Primary Schools in Njombe District, Tanzania. Unpublished M. Sc. Dissertation retrieved on 15th October, 2021.

- Claes, E., Hooge, M., & Reeskens, T. (2009). Truancy as a contextual and school-related problem: A comparative multilevel analysis of country and school characteristics on civic knowledge among 14 year olds. *Educational studies*, 35(2), 123-142.
- De Witte, K., & Csillag, M. (2012). Does anybody notice? On the impact of improved truancy reporting on school dropout. *Education economics*, 1(1), 1-20.
- Dhruv, S., Vedmitra, K., & Kumar, R. (2012). Combatting truancy delinquency need of an action plan. *International journal of science and research*, 1(3), 174-180.
- Eigbobo O. J. and Onyejaka K. N. (2020) Descriptive Study of School Feeding Practices in Nigerian Children and the Risk of Dental Caries, *A Journal of Advances in Medicine and Medical Research*; 32(3): 58-68; Article no.JAMMR.55212
- Elijah, Y. (2015) Effect of the National School Feeding Programme on Pupils' Enrolment, Attendance, and Retention: A Case Study of Nyoglo of the Savelugu-Nanton Municipality, Ghana. *British Journal of Education, Society & Behavioural Science Vol. 5(3): 341-353, 2015, Article no. BJESBS.2015.028 ISSN: 2278-0998*
- Gelli, A. (2015). School Feeding and Girls' Enrollment: The Effects of Alternative Implementation Modalities in Low-Income Settings in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Frontiers in public health*, 3, 76. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2015.00076>
- Gleeson, D. (1994). Wagging, bobbing and bunking off: An alternate view. *Education Review*, 46(1), 15-19.
- Jugmohan, A. (2015). Factors Contributing to Learners Absconding in A High School in Phoenix; unpublished M. Sc. dissertation submitted to the School of Education, University of KwaZulu-Natal, accessed on 13th October, 2021
- Kadenge, S. K. and John A. O. (2014), Assessment of Home Grown School Feeding Programme (HGSFP) Theory in Kinango Sub-County, Kwale County, Kenya. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS) Volume 19, Issue 9, Ver. II (Sep. 2014), PP 45-52 e-ISSN: 2279-0837, p-ISSN: 2279-0845.*
- Kearney, C. A. (2003). Bridging the gap among professionals who address youth with school absenteeism: Overview and suggestions for consensus. *Professional psychology, research and practice*, 34(1), 57-65.

- Kinder, K., Walkefield, A., & Wilkin, A. (1996). *Talking back: Pupils views on disaffection* (Eds.). Berkshire: National foundation for educational research.
- Lawal, M. U. (2011) Assessment of Universal Basic Education School Lunch Programme: Its Nutritional Value and Retention of Pupils in Federal Capital Territory, Nigeria. Unpublished M.Sc. Dissertation
- McCray, E. (2006). It's 10am.: Do you know where your children are? The persisting issue of school truancy. *Intervention in school and clinic*, 42(1), 30-33.
- Moseki, M. M. (2004). *The nature of truancy and the life world of truants in secondary schools*. (Masters in Education), UNISA, South Africa.
- Olumuyiwa, S. F., Israel O., Oluwemimo O., Wale O., Steve A. A. (2012), School Feeding Programme in Nigeria: The Nutritional Status of Pupils in a Public Primary School in Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. *Journal of Food and Nutrition Sciences*, 2012, Vol. 3, 596-605 doi:10.4236/fns.2012.35082 Published Online May 2012 (<http://www.SciRP.org/journal/fns>) accessed on 5th October, 2021.
- Osei-Fosu, A. K. (2011) evaluating the impact of the capitation grant and the school feeding programme on enrollment, attendance, and retention in schools: The case of West Circuit. *Journal of Science and Technology*. Vol. 31 (1)
- Reid, K. (2000). *Tackling truancy in schools: A Practical manual for primary and secondary school*. (Eds.). London: Routledge.
- Shabani, N. M. (2018), Impact of School Feeding Programme on Learners' Academic Performance in Mlunduzi Ward, Tanzania; *International Journal of Educational Studies*; Vol. 05 (02) 2018. 111-114 DOI: 10.33687/educ.005.03.2667
- Stoll, P. (1990). Absent Pupils who are "officially present". *Education Today*, 40(3), 22-25.
- Wilson, V., Malcom, H., Edward, S., & Davidson, J. (2008). 'Bunking off': the impact of truancy on pupils and teachers. *British Educational Research Journal*, 34(1), 1-17.
- World Food Programme. (2015). School meals. Available at <http://www.wfp.org/schools.meals>. Accessed on 15th October, 2021.