

THE ROLE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN SUSTAINABLE SOCIO- ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND TRANSFORMATION OF COMMUNITIES

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Abstract

Entrepreneurship is crucial to the progress and well-being of any society. Against the Nigeria situation of declining jobs and oil price, this review paper proffers entrepreneurship as a solution based on the CENTRIM Model (Mc Adam et al, 2010).

Introduction

Policy makers and academics agree that entrepreneurship is crucial to the progress and well-being of any society. Entrepreneurs create jobs, drive and nurture innovation, which speeds up structural changes in the economy. The prosperity of Nigerian or any economy is highly dependent on a vibrant entrepreneurship sector. With declining work positions and fall in oil price, self-

employment is imperative in Nigerian economy (Barrett & Burgess, 2008).

Qualitative data provided as information in this paper can sway policy makers and the preference for social and economic reform. Such information, provide momentous solutions to managements, leaders or decision makers who develop strategic plans and are essentially the key drivers of change in the moral and political climate of any society (Cornelius, 2002). Consequently, the actions of policy makers have a profound effect on the way in which businesses operate (Campbell & Craig, 2005). This paper implies that the nation's economy's entrepreneurial capacity requires individuals who are willing to or who already have the ability and motivation for entrepreneurial activity; or that there are individuals who are ready to acquire the skills and motivation to start businesses, in addition to the government's role in providing the necessary enablers and positive perception about entrepreneurship.

Joseph Alois Schumpeter generally known as the 'father of entrepreneurship' saw entrepreneurship as a major factor of production. It is the catalyst of economic growth and revitalization. Entrepreneurship is a dynamic process of vision, change, and creation. It requires an application of energy and passion towards the creation and implementation of new ideas and creative solutions (Kurato & Hodgetts, 2004). Essential ingredients of entrepreneurship include the willingness to take calculated risks – in terms of time, equity, or career; the ability to formulate an effective venture team; the creative skill to marshal needed; and fundamental skill of building solid business plan; and finally, the vision to recognise opportunity where others see chaos, contradiction, and confusion (Kurato & Hodgetts, 2004). Schumpeter (1936) and Drucker (1985) affirm that innovation is a fundamental part of entrepreneurship and *“when employees (or business owners) perform creatively, they suggest novel and useful*

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products, ideas, or procedures that provide an organisation with raw material for subsequent development and implementation” (Oldham and Cummings, 1996).

However, creativity is not the only condition for innovation and the term ‘innovation’ classically refers to successful implementation of creative ideas. According to Caldwell and O’Reilly (1995), innovation can be defined as a combination of two processes: (1) creativity, or the generation of new ideas; and (2) implementation, or the actual introduction of the change (improvement). The long-term growth of businesses stems from their ability to continually develop and produce innovative products and/or services. The early work of Joseph Schumpeter on ‘the theory of economic development’ in 1934 gives the clearest link between innovation and entrepreneurship. With respect to the nature of innovation, Schumpeter identified five principal sources of ‘creative destruction’. Schumpeter’s forces of creative destruction suggest that:

1. The introduction of a new product/service (or a significant improvement in the quality of an existing product/service).
2. The introduction of a new method of production (i.e. an innovation in the process).
3. The opening of a new market (in particular an export market in a new territory).
4. The ‘conquest of a new source of supply of raw materials or half-manufactured goods’.
5. The creation of a new type of industrial organisation (i.e. an administrative innovation).

Cloud of unemployment over the entrepreneurial climate in Nigeria

Although the first oil-well discovery in West Africa and the first commercial production of crude oil began at Oloibiri oilfield in

Ogbia Local Government Area (LGA), yet the Niger Delta region is faced with the dilemma of its abundant human and natural resources bearing little or no significant impact on the lives of people and communities in the region. Available data indicates that majority of the rural people in the Niger Delta lacks information and technical abilities (United Nations Development Programme UNDP, 2006). In addition, underemployment and unemployment rate are astronomically high. Previous unemployment report in the Delta also shows that unemployment correlates with the highest incidences of youth restiveness. However, the Delta accounts for more than 80 per cent of Nigeria's foreign exchange earnings and about 70 per cent of Federal government revenues.

According to Dr. Ismail Radwan, a senior economist with the World Bank, 50 million youths were underemployed and three million new job seekers join the unemployment category annually. In addition, the Lagos Chamber of Commerce and Industry (LCCI) said, the rate of unemployment in the Nigerian economy is currently one of the highest in the world, where over 50 per cent of the youths in urban and rural areas are unemployed. Lessons learned from the revolt in other African countries such as Algeria, Tunisia, and Egypt suggests that the problem of unemployed youths could be catastrophic if not swiftly and adequately addressed. Likewise, the army of unemployed youths and its relationship with militants in the Niger Delta is an indication of the urgent need for more job creation and meaningful employment. Youth unemployment and underemployment impose a heavy cost upon individuals, employers, trade unions, governments and societies. Unemployment in early life may permanently impair employability and, as research has shown, patterns of behaviour and attitudes established at an early stages may persist later in life. Further situation analysis from previous research reports on the Niger Delta, shows that the Delta today is likened to a place of

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frustrated expectations and deep-rooted mistrust, and unprecedented restiveness at times erupts in violence. Long years of neglect and conflict have fostered a siege mentality, especially among youths who feel they are condemned to a future without hope, and see conflict as a strategy to escape deprivation.

Thus, the high rate of unemployment has been identified as one of the serious impediments to social and economic progress in sub-Saharan African and Nigeria in particular. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines the unemployed as *number of economically active population who are without work but available for and seeking work, including people who have lost their jobs and those who have voluntarily left work*. However, the increasing rate of unemployment in the Niger Delta and Nigeria in general, is a major concern to both Federal, state governments and communities. High rate of unemployment have been identified as one of the serious impediments to social and economic progress in Nigeria. Figure 1 has data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) which reveals that the unemployment rate in Nigeria increased from 5.8 percent in 2008 to 23.9 percent in 2012.

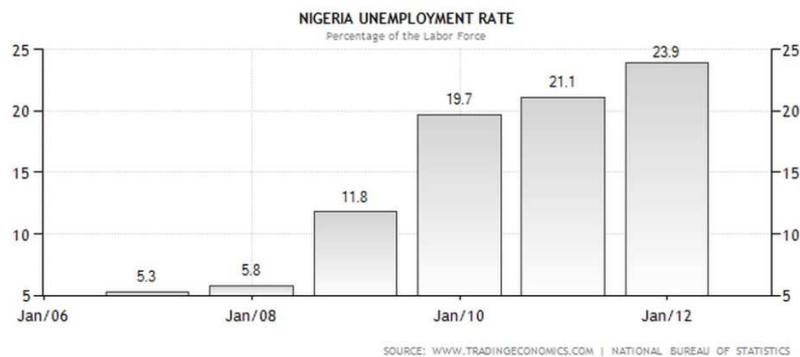


Fig. 1: Nigerian Unemployment rate from 2006 to 2012

With the Nigerian population estimated as a little over 170 million, the World Bank statistics in 2011 reported that several millions Nigerian youths were unemployed.

Almost half of those who are unemployed live in urban areas and they are within the age group 15-24 years old. NBS report shows that 49 percent of those without jobs live in urban areas and the remaining 39.7 percent live in rural areas. The mass unemployment in Nigeria is a 'Goliath' against the anticipated economic growth and prosperity of Nigeria. The 'mass unemployment' in Nigeria can be categorised as follows:

- (a) Unskilled labour force comprising of non-technical skilled and informal/vocational training
- (b) Low skilled labour force are those with partial formal education, partial informal/vocational education and technically skilled without formal education
- (c) High skilled labour force consists of graduate unemployment and high technically skilled manpower.

This acute problem is a result of the mismatch between the skills required in the Nigerian labour market (same as in most developing countries) and those available and acquired in the country's educational sector. The current educational system does not include the necessary '*employability and professional development*' proficiency (Evawoma-Enuku & Mgbor, 2005; Geo-Jaja, 2007). On the other hand, one may argue that Nigerian situation is truly not just the problem of 'capacity development' of our past or future graduates but scarcity of jobs. Moreover, when the graduates do have the required skills, there are usually no employment opportunities in Nigeria. More so, if Nigerian graduates have these desired skills; it will make them highly competitive in the international markets. Economies around the world are facing a surge of economic depression and austerity,

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especially in Europe and America. So unavailability of jobs/employment is part of the unemployment problems which Nigeria and most developing countries encounter. However, graduates from Nigerian institutions lack the 'entrepreneurial spirit and skills' needed for self-employment and job creation.

In addition, it is fair to say that the problem of unemployment in Nigeria can be further attributed to inadequate government policies in the past and misconstrued monetary and fiscal policies such as the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) of 1986, the lack of labour market intelligence and the failure of Nigeria's formal education system. This problem is further complicated by the inability of the formal education system to change, adapt and adjust to the transformation of the economy from a service focused economy to an industrial oriented one. As a result, it is obvious that an inadequate education system and inappropriate government policies does contribute to unemployment in Nigeria (Geo-Jaja, 2007). According to Mensah and Benedict (2010:139):

The hand-out strategies like social grants and free housing units help some of the poor in the short-term, they do not address the root causes of the problem and therefore cannot end poverty; empowering the poor through quality education and training, especially entrepreneurship training, to generate their own income may be a viable medium- to long-term strategy for reducing and eventually eradicating poverty.

Reduction in unemployment will consequently reduce poverty in Nigeria. The top priority of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as initiated by the United Nations (UN) is to actively pursue the reduction of global poverty by the year 2015. According to the Umoren (2009, p.1) MDGs number one target by year 2015

is to “*reduce the population of the people living in extreme poverty by half*”. Nigeria’s plan for poverty reduction in line with MDGs objectives started with the establishment of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) (Ado-Kurawa, 2008). The four major areas stipulated by NEEDS are: employment creation, poverty reduction, wealth creation and value reorientation. Unemployment and idle industrial capacity have raised poverty level in Nigeria from 42 per cent in 1992, 70 per cent in 1996 and currently put at above 70 per cent of the population (Umoren, A. 2009). According to Danesy (1998) a survey of Lagos state (former federal capital of Nigeria), revealed that poverty was about 90 per cent of the entire working population in the state. A report from the Federal Ministry of Education, Nigeria suggested that about 12 million children within the school age have dropped out of school. This set-back can be linked to poverty which is a contributing factor to the ever-increasing rate of unemployment in Nigeria (Umoren, A. (2009).

In addition, Nigeria’s over-dependence on ‘oil’ is unhealthy for Nigerian’s economy and has not been the solution to the ever increasing rate of poverty and income inequalities in different part of the country. In countries like Nigeria and Gabon, revenue from natural mineral resources such as ‘oil’ account for over 60 per cent of the nation’s GDP. Entrepreneurship will lower unemployment since it creates more jobs. The increase in employment rate will consequently foster the long expected ‘*national economic growth*’ through higher economic activities, high national and individual GDP, wealth creation and improved standard of living. More so entrepreneurship is a prerequisite for handling the challenges of industrialisation and Globalisation. Entrepreneurs attract foreign investors which lead to Foreign Direct Investments (FDIs) and international trading opportunities. On these bases, this paper proffer solutions to the challenges highlighted.

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Pragmatic approach and proposed solutions

A practical and results-oriented approach to addressing the plague of unemployment across the country is required and possible solutions to the *unemployment epidemic* in our communities through entrepreneurship are:

1. The development of *entrepreneurial opportunities and capacity* which lead to national economic growth in terms of job creation and increased Gross Domestic Product (GDP). There is a widespread recognition that entrepreneurship is the engine driving the economy and the society of most nations. It brings benefits at both the macro level of economic development and also at the micro level of employment generation, personal satisfaction and achievement. Active promotion of an *enterprise culture* which leads to job creation and subsequently facilitates economic growth and social welfare in communities.

Development of entrepreneurial opportunities and capacity can be achieved through entrepreneurship education. Emphatically, “*It has been acknowledged that entrepreneurship education helps ignites the artistic, creative, and perceptual aspects of entrepreneurship*” (Shepherd & Douglas, 1997). Broadly, it can be categorised as: (a) diversity and equality of access through formal and informal education which can be the underlining principles in skills acquisition and entrepreneurship education. It includes functional skills and creative aspects of learning. (b) Capacity building for all – training, re-training and mentoring. More so, training of existing business owners is important because the pressures of day-to-day management and the constraints of scarce resources force Small and Medium-sized Enterprise (SMEs) to adopt a tactical rather than a strategic approach to challenges. Gray (2002), states that SME managers and entrepreneurs are more likely to show resistance to change. Such managers or business

owners tend to operate on a 'reasonable person' basis, rather than on an informed and strict observance of regulations. Thus, the objectives of the entrepreneurial opportunities and capacity building are: (1) preparation for career success; (2) acquire entrepreneurial skills (3) job creation and self-reliance; (4) contribute positively to society.

The rise of Micro, Small and Medium-sized Enterprise (MSMEs) sector in any economy creates a conducive environment for business, secures employment for generations of people, and stimulates economic growth. Nurturing and sustaining MSMEs is the backbone of strengthening the economy of less developed and developing countries. As a result, the World Bank, United Nations, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and other international and regional institutions spend an enormous amount of effort and money in supporting initiatives for fostering global MSMEs partnership through infrastructure development, financial aid, legal and regulatory support, support with business incubation facilities and other related entrepreneurship education training/assistance for developing countries.

A cue from the Chinese and Arab economies suggests that it is beneficial to encourage a national tradition that has positive attitude towards entrepreneurship from home-based business ideas, emergence of family business and conglomerate firms. Such positive attitudes could maximize business potentials and build stronger businesses. Similarly, research on SMEs in Croatia conducted in 2002 and 2003 found that SMEs play an important role in modern economies based on knowledge and new technologies. As a result, the role of SMEs in improving economic performance, reducing unemployment and promoting flexibility and innovation is highly significant. The United Nations Social Summit in Copenhagen and the United Nations Millennium

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Summit Declaration of 2001 called for a commitment to develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth, recognising that it is a globally significant problem, with implications for persistent poverty, job instability, and social exclusion.

Accordingly, Carney (1998); Scoones (1998) approach to sustainable livelihood which affirms that economic growth should be grounded in several capital assets fundamental to the developments of communities. These include: natural, human, physical, social and financial capital. On this premise, Niger Delta communities can adopt a people-oriented approach which has these five capital assets development as its “sustainable livelihood framework”. For instance, the natural capital stems from natural resource stocks such as; land, water, wildlife, biodiversity, environmental resources of which useful outputs for livelihoods are derived. Some traditional occupations such as *agriculture*, need to be improved in the communities to attract youths. Agricultural ventures in our communities can absorb many labourers, create jobs, provided need food, create wealth and consequently transform our societies. MSMEs start-ups are expected to focus on naturally available local raw materials/products with the LGA and Niger Delta region. Enormous possibilities for small and large scale industrial development abound in terms of the abundance of raw materials in the region, which remain unrealized. Beyond the vast oil and gas deposits, Niger Delta is blessed with good agricultural land, extensive forests, excellent fisheries, and a large vibrant labour force. In addition, social capital consists of social resources such as: networks, membership groups, relationships of trust, access to wider institutions of society, upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods. Existing Community Development Committees (CDCs) networks in various communities will be

encouraged to strengthen small cooperatives societies, Self Help Groups (SHG) and businesses.

2. Adoption of social entrepreneurship approach to community development and transformation. Haugh (2005), describes social entrepreneurship as “*those activities associated with the perception of opportunities to create social value and the creation of social purpose organisations to pursue them*”. Haugh affirms that social enterprises adopt financially sustainable strategies to pursue and achieve social aims, and address a wide range of social problems, such as unemployment, low quality housing, youth restiveness, deprivation, poverty and social exclusion. This approach agrees with the notion of participatory development which bridges the interrelated goals of development and the empowerment of people within the communities. This paper supports the opinion that development has to be designed to capture what the people themselves perceive to be their interests and needs. Participatory development, sometimes interchangeably called popular participation, is a process by which people take an active and influential part in shaping decisions that affect their lives (OECD, 1995). The importance of social entrepreneurship cannot be overemphasized, it is used to promote local development, define new goods and services, foster integration, create jobs, improve attractiveness of an industry and locality, empowerment and consolidation of local/community assets (ECOTEC, 2001).

Dees and Anderson (2003) found that the benefits of combining social purpose with enterprise have been found to include greater market responsiveness, efficiency, innovation and leveraging of resources. According to the OCED (2003), social entrepreneurship has been recognised as a potentially beneficial strategy for revitalizing disadvantage communities by improving the skills of the unemployed and facilitating their return to work, business start-

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ups and self-reliance. As a result, social enterprises have become more entrepreneurial than other non-profit organisations (EMES, 1999). In Pearce (2003), enterprises might exploit identified market opportunities such in disadvantage communities such as: local development and regeneration through innovative workspace, business incubation, enterprise training programmes, business advice and support, local development and infrastructure regeneration. Then business opportunities such as providing leisure, recreation, housing, childcare, care for the elderly. These could also be services to the community in response to market demand, and creation of market-driven businesses that provide goods and services in direct competition with the public and private sectors. Notably, Hines and Thomas (2004) research revealed that social enterprises use different types of external support. Government support agencies were the most popular source, followed by informal networks and consultants.

Proposed model for Communities

This paper proposes the **Know About Business (KAB)** initiative for all Communities. The KAB is a comprehensive entrepreneurship education programme designed by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in the 1990s. Its first pilot started in Kenya and it's now a successful global outreach being used in 50 countries, of which 17 have made KAB their national curriculum for entrepreneurship. According to the ILO, KAB

“Stimulates young people to think about entrepreneurship and the role of the business community in economic and social development. Students also get opportunity to analyse the changes taking place in their countries and are encouraged to consider self employment and enterprise creation as a career choice.”

KAB can be introduced to all primary and secondary schools in Niger Delta Communities, its vocational skills element also provides opportunity for informal learning with necessary modifications to suit the skills gap needs and youth employment projects of local communities. Objectives of KAB are to:

1. Developing positive attitudes towards sustainable enterprise, self-employment and social entrepreneurship.
2. Creating awareness of enterprise and self-employment as a career option for young people.
3. Providing knowledge and practice about the desirable attributes for starting and operating a successful enterprise.
4. Preparing students to become better employees through improved understanding of business. The programme purports that entrepreneurship education and training are important means of addressing youth employability and skills development for; (a) youth-at-risks, (b) economically vulnerable and (c) socially excluded (marginalised youth).

The KAB programme strongly supports the inclusion of women, who are the most socially excluded group in most communities of developing countries. Interestingly, the International Funding for Agricultural Development (IFAD) found that women are responsible for 60 to 80 percent of food production in developing countries. However, the concept of unemployment in Nigeria is smeared by under researched and published unemployment rates whose results are an underestimation of unemployment in the country due to the prevalence of house wives who are available for and seeking paid work. It is now widely accepted that more women are interested in various forms of employment, but the longer a woman stay unemployed, the more difficult it is to find work. As a matter of urgency, government at federal, state and local levels and communities should seriously

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consider creating opportunities for women to establish and actively own their business or manage existing businesses with prospects of expansion and subsequent job creation. Thus, entrepreneurship will help reduce gender inequality which aligns with the World Bank Group Gender Action Plan for fiscal year 2007 to 2010. It affirms that gender equality through women's economic empowerment and increased investment in women is 'Smart Economics'. Economic empowerment for women is about making markets for women policy level and supporting and enabling women to compete in markets at the agency level. Some of the key markets are land, labour, product and financial. For instance, a survey of business women in Samoa found that organisations such as Women in Business Development Inc. (WIBDI) and the Small Business Enterprise Center (SBEC) which exist to support rural businesses and business start-ups through microfinance, with loan guarantees and one-on-one training and mentoring were successful.

In addition, a similar initiative which combines entrepreneurship education with the ethos of vocational skills training is currently being adopted by the Entrepreneurship and Skills Development Unit (ESDU) of the Federal University Otuoke (FUO), Bayelsa State. As a case in point, ESDU's experiential-based learning philosophy focuses on combining theory, practice and ethics to assist prospective and existing entrepreneurs create and transform businesses. They provide seamless system of services for every stage of the entrepreneurial cycle and vocation education which exposes the trainees to modern skill acquisition technology. Their recent skills acquisition training programme for Artisans in the construction industry commenced late 2014 with 93 youths from the 8 LGAs in Bayelsa State. ESDU's 'apprenticeship' approach to 'skills acquisition' is related classroom instruction under supervision of a professional and the combination of on-the-job training (OJT) in which workers learn the theoretical and practical aspects of a skilled occupation. Thus theory is decoded to practice

and trainees can ‘*earn while they learn*’. This capacity building initiative of youths in the Niger Delta is embedded with entrepreneurial skills component (entrepreneurship education) across 8 different skills sets, namely: Masonry, Scaffolding, Carpentry, Painting, Welding, Electrical works, Plumbing and Tiling. A bespoke training programme of this nature can be further developed and delivered specifically for youths in rural Communities. Non-formal/quasi education of this nature is oriented towards job creation, job training and retraining, skill improvement and the inculcation of attitudes and saleable skills required for employment. Some of the advantages of these vocational training are: (1) it creates awareness among the rural populace towards active participation in development programmes. (2) It can be used to reform and integrate both individuals and society, and also to teach workers and graduates what it is necessary to know about self-employment, business organisation, possible future careers, labour and job-market politics. (3) Finally, it upgrades those employed, increasing their efficiency and productivity on the job.

Conclusion

Implementation strategy for all proffered solutions and proposed programmes can be achieved using the CENTRIM Model (Mc Adam et al, 2010). The CENTRIM model includes; (1) directing creative businesses through strategic collaboration/partnership and networking, (2) developing creative capacity, (3) building creative/innovative (entrepreneurship) culture – organising for creativity, (4) managing learning for new ideas and (5) taking wise decisions. Indeed, the Nigerian economy has made tremendous progress in recent years, with a strong reserve, stable exchange rate, reduced inflation, a stronger financial (banking sector), on-going infrastructural development, vibrant and promising agropreneurship stride and the second fastest growing

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telecommunication sector in the world. The economic development is thus changing for the better with more opportunities for international partnership and for Nigerians to take charge of their future and destiny. Nigeria is also part of the N-11, and has reflected improved economic fundamentals with her equity markets which have generally performed well. However, more still needs to be done in terms of job creation and development of Nigeria's MSMEs sector. Members of our communities should start exploring on what they can do for their communities as agents and organs of transformation in the building of our great nation, Nigeria.

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NURSING PHILOSOPHY AND ITS HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CHALLENGES

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Abstract

Cost effective care in nursing implies the need for effective resource management. Injurious workload requires management intervention for sustainable productivity and job satisfaction. Thus the traditional philosophy of nursing and its meta paradigms can longer be divorced from best human resource management (HRM) practices for optimum output and actualization of set goals. On this premise, this article reviews the core concepts, which are common contemporary nursing theories.

Keywords: *Nursing concepts. HRM. Change and professional development*

Introduction

Nursing and allied health professionals have jobs that contain numerous opportunities for personal growth and enrichment. Increasing workload as a method of achieving more cost-effective care has the potential to do just the opposite. The core concept in nursing and how they are managed is developed by theorist who has a passion for nursing and is also committed to improve patient's health condition. This paper reviews the core

concepts, which are common contemporary nursing theories by comparing and contrasting the models. In addition, included in this paper will be concept statement, metaparadigms, philosophies, and conceptual model.

Nursing management and philosophy consist of four main metaparadigms, namely, person and client, environment, health and nursing.

Person and Client

To enable nurses systematically organise huge amount of information so as to make sense to a particular client, the concept of person was defined by most of the early models. A person was understood by the theorists as human needs competing system, a system of interrelated parts, or an entity possessing not only social, psychological, and biological aspects, but also spiritual dimensions (Fawcett, 1996). Every framework drew the nurses' attention to specific multiple human experience aspects to enable the nurses to understand every instance of illness as well as wellness in relation to the person's body, situations, and feelings. Every model portrayed a concept about the whole individual with the aim of assisting nurses in understanding about how the implications of some actions or interventions may systematically be individualized for the purpose of benefitting the aspects of the concerned individual.

Environment

Every conceptual structure was aimed at reflecting an understanding that the concerned person is not only a part of the environmental system but also interacts with it. The person's social and family ties, the health care

system, the community, and the geopolitical issues that adversely affect health can be considered a part of this environment. The nurses' increasing appreciation of working in a larger context of all experiences of illness and wellness was shaped by the early conceptual structures or frameworks. These frameworks provided a future in which nurses could spearhead advances in the health and social care policy, community development, and health promotion (Fullbrook, 2007).

Health

Nursing practice is socially bound to improving the health of individuals as well as society, the articulation of proper nursing goal was a huge struggle for early theorists. The early theorist defined health as far more than the absence of injuries or diseases, rather, the state of total well-being toward which individuals may strive. Defining health in this manner reflects a proper vision of nursing care, which applies to individuals as well as the society, including all sick or well clients. Apart from that, it recognized that people suffering from chronic diseases may be disregarded and compromised by spiritual or psychological challenges among the physically well persons. Even though optimal health is not considered to be achievable, the concept provided guidance to nurses in helping the clients to reach productive and satisfying outcomes (Draper, 1995).

Nursing

Every early conceptual structure or framework comprised of a unique definition of nursing, which links the client's view with the understanding of the person's environment, health goals, and life. Although each conceptual framework was aimed at different terms and different alignment of ideas, it is built on a discrete subset of knowledge presenting a complete and coherent system of belief about nursing practice. Because most nursing scholars of the time had the assumptions that a model will soon become dominant, strict competition occurred among the frameworks. Over the passage of time, framework application in practice turned out to be more codified and rigid. The prime focus, which originally was on guiding the nurses to think systematically, shifted to the use of language in specific ways, thus, filling assessments in a correct manner.

CONCEPTS

Trans-cultural Nursing

The United States has become racially and ethnically diverse in the last decades. The Mexican American population is growing rapidly labeling them as the largest ethnic minority group in the United States. Mexican Americans are a diverse cultural group that shares a number of different health practices and beliefs. It is important that health care professionals understand their beliefs, cultural practices, and incorporate those beliefs into the care they receive. Family is the main focus in relation to socialization. They often have extended family and other relatives living in the same house together (Doiron, 2006). This sometimes goes beyond the initial family to include grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins. The

entire family contributes to the financial responsibilities, and the children are also taught to help at a very young age. The father is usually the head of the household and goes out to work, while the mother usually takes care of the home (Cutter, 2008).

Hispanics are known to embrace one another. They are often seen holding hands or hugging. It is not uncommon to see Hispanics of the same gender holding hands in public places. They are known to greet with a firm handshake, hugs and may be even kisses on the cheek. Communication can be complicated as most Hispanics only speak Spanish. If English is spoken, it is normally used in the workplace or at school, yet preserving the Spanish language for family is common practice for them. Religion plays a significant role in the daily activities for Hispanics. More than 90 percent of Hispanics are Roman Catholic. Their faith has a large influence over family life and community affairs. There are several traditional beliefs and cultural practices that relate to pregnancy and childbirth in Hispanic culture, which includes avoiding strong emotions such as anger and fear, avoid cool air because it is dangerous, bathe often and stay active to prevent having a large baby, and get massages to help place the baby in the right position for birth. In addition, Mexican American also believes in not raising arms above head or sit with crossed legs, chamomile tea relieves nausea and vomiting, treat heartburn with baking soda, and use laxatives to clean the intestinal tract (Cutter, 2008).

Ebie and Banjo – Nursing philosophy and its HRM challenges

The Hispanic culture does not believe in using birth control unless it is prescribed by a physician to regulate the menstrual cycle. Hispanic population value motherhood and they are encouraged to prepare for becoming mothers at a very young age. Hispanics believe it occurs when a possessed person injures a child by looking or admiring but there is no touch involved. They believe the spell is broken when the possessed person touches the child. They also have a belief in hot and cold imbalance (Coombs, 2004). This occurs when there is a long exposure to either hot or cold. To cure this illness the opposite of the causative agent is applied to assimilate one or the other.

Role Theory

The exploration of roles has been a continuing preoccupation of sociological theory and human resource management discus. Many theories developed toward an understanding of roles in contemporary societies explore social roles at both the collective and the individual levels. Versions of role theory that emphasize the collective level have a more social structural orientation, while those that focus on the individual level are oriented toward the situational processes of social interaction. At the macro-level structural role theory has been developed by functional theories of social structure, building primarily on the works of American sociologists Talcott Parsons and Robert Merton. In these theories the social world is conceptualized as a series of vast networks of interrelated statuses and roles. These networks form the essential basis of social structure and provide the scaffolding on which both formal organizations and social systems are constructed. At the micro-level, on the other hand,

structural role theory has been advanced by the dramaturgical theories of Erving Goffman. While role theory emphasizes the structure within which roles are embedded and enacted, an interactionist version of role theory is more actors-oriented. It attempts to answer the criticisms levied against the more structural versions of role theory. These criticisms challenge structural role theory on the grounds that it tends to conceptualize actors as the overly conformist dupes of social structure. Whereas the focus of structural role theory is on the conformity of actors to imposed and structured expectations, interactional role theory emphasizes the dynamic process of social interaction in the creation and manipulation of roles. The most recognized proponent of interactional role theory is American sociologist Ralph Turner; whose role theory emphasizing process is based upon the premise that individuals do not merely conform to predetermined social roles, but instead they creatively enact them and often use him or her as a resources in social interaction.

Change Model

The literature on managing change in organizations refers to strategies and theories, which are generally not context specific, nor linked to any particular historical time and are applied indiscriminately to health care organizations. Another classic model of change is Lewin's model of force field analysis that was devised in 1951 in the United States following research on housewives. This model was cited extensively in the literature as relating to the management of change in nursing and health care. This

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strategy identifies a series of approaches to managing change and gives an indication regarding when they are applicable. A large proportion of the literature on managing innovations in professional practice focuses on the challenges of implementing evidence-based practice care. The most effective strategies for promoting behavioral change are: The use of educational outreach visits to reinforce the use of evidence; Manual or computerized reminders; Multiple interventions, such as audit and feedback in conjunction with local consensus agreement; Educational meetings that involve discussion and practice. The systematic review found that passive interventions had little or no effect, and these included distribution of educational materials, such as clinical practice guidelines, audio-visual aids and electronic publications. Likewise, the use of educational meetings, such as lectures, which do not involve participants, was seen as ineffective.

Power-coercive

This is known as a top-down approach, where people in authority exercise political, economic, and sometimes moral power to instruct individuals to change. It is dependent on people who are basically compliant, and who will do generally as instructed. Many national changes are implemented by adopting this strategy, for example, closing hospitals, and changing service delivery as management directives.

Rational-empirical

This is also a top-down strategy based on the assumption that people are rational and will be guided by reason. There is also the assumption that

rational decisions will be made on a sound knowledge base. Changing professional practice following the results of audit, as evidence, is an example of when this strategy will be employed.

Normative-re-educative

This strategy is a bottom-up approach and is based on the belief that people are social beings, and need to be involved in all aspects of the changes to be made. Furthermore, it is expected that individuals prefer to adhere to their cultural norms and values. Therefore, change is based on trying to redefine and reinterpret existing norms and values, thus, developing commitments to new ones.

Conclusion

According to the in-depth analysis of the data accumulated through different sources, it can be concluded that the knowledge acquired through the academic career of nursing profession can be effectively applied into practice through different tactics and approaches. During my career, I acquired several techniques and knowledge that assisted me while providing evidence-based care to the patients. Nonetheless, I believe that it is crucial for a nurse to take his or her responsibility seriously as the scope of nursing profession, and patients' satisfaction depends purely upon the healthcare services provided by the nurse. Despite the sweeping changes in the health care system in the 1990s, it is still possible to maintain a reasonably satisfied workforce and reduce turnover and burnout. Health

professionals enter his or her profession with a sense of mission, a desire to help others, and contribute to the society. Increasing workload by staff reductions, and increases in productivity expectations results in a situation that can prevent individuals from attaining this sense of worthwhile accomplishment and achievement.

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ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION: KNOWLEDGE-BASED PRACTICES OF AGULU WOMEN, ANAMBRA STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

Environmental protection is a growing global concern because of the growing awareness of the dependence of present and future generations on the environment for livelihood. As natural resource managers, women interact more with the environment and are worst hit by environmental degradation. Their level of knowledge of the environmental problems influences their environmental protection practices. The study assessed women's level of knowledge of environmental problems and the attendant environmental protection practices in Agulu, Anambra State, Nigeria, which has been designated by the Federal Government of Nigeria as an ecological disaster zone because of the menace of gully erosion. From the seven towns in Agulu selected for the study, 392 women were randomly selected and reached with a pre-tested interviewer-administered questionnaire eliciting information on knowledge level of environmental problems and environmental protection practices on a 4-point likert scale. Results showed that a majority of Agulu women have knowledge of environmental problems and environmental protection practices. There is a direct relationship between the knowledge level of environmental problems and environmental protection practices among Agulu women. The study recommended increase of activities for environmental awareness, mass education on environmental problems

and mitigation. Women should be made part of any environmental management decision-making and process.

***Keywords:** Women, Agulu, Environmental knowledge, Environmental protection practices*

Introduction

Environmental protection remain topical across the globe (Uitto, 2014). There is the realization of the need to protect and conserve the environment which people depend on for livelihood. Efforts towards environmental sustainability in Nigeria are based on the alarming rate of degradation of the environment and depletion of natural resources which is attributed to natural and anthropogenic factors, such as population pressures, bush burning, over grazing, over cultivating, deforestation, and unsustainable irrigation management practices (Ajayi and Ikporukpo, 2005; Sofu, Ali & Pyke, 2003).

Environmental degradation, which is experienced globally in the form of erosion, global warming, deforestation and climate change has raised a lot of concern (Abiolu and Okere, 2012). It constitutes a threat to environmental sustainability and is central to sustainable development. However, countries are responding to the menace at international and local levels because there is the realization among nation states that there is a relationship between the state of a country's environment and its socio-economic status (Davidson, 2005).

Nigeria depends solely on oil for economic development. This places a premium on the management of the environment, including arable land, because mismanagement of the environment negatively impacts economic development (Davidson, 2005). Nigeria is, therefore, working assiduously to diversify its economy.

According to a recent report of the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development, land degradation remains the greatest problem in Nigeria. The UN report further noted that over 90% of the total land area of Nigeria is under severe sheet, rill and gully erosions with the severest, gully erosion, affecting 80% of Nigeria's total land area. Although forests make up about 10% of Nigeria's entire territory,

deforestation remains a major environmental challenge and human activities are the main driving force for deforestation (FAO, 2001). Erosion is a major environmental problem in Nigeria. Although it occurs nationwide, it is more prominent in southeastern part, which has over 1000 erosion sites, including Agulu community (Abegunde, Adeyinka, Olawuni & Oluodo, 2006).

Nigeria was Africa's largest producer of wood and a major exporter of timber resources in the 1980s. Depletion of forest resources and competition with local timber needs led to the ban on timber export in 1988 (FAO, 2001). Human activities are the main driving force for deforestation in Nigeria. These activities include but are not limited to the clearing of forest for agricultural purposes, logging, extraction of wood for energy, and oil exploration activities. In the southeastern part of the country, where mangrove forests are abundant, deforestation occurs primarily due to the use of wood as a source of fuel. More than 70% of the nation's population depends on fuel wood. Agulu women depend on fuel wood primarily for cooking, hence the incidence of deforestation, which in turn, leads to soil erosion. At the present rate of deforestation, it is estimated that Nigeria will have no forest by 2020 (Federal Government of Nigeria, FGN, 2004).

Statement of the problem

Erosion, deforestation, bush burning, and flooding are environmental problems confronting Agulu community in Anambra State of Nigeria. Alarming erosion rate has led to loss of farmlands and houses and continues to pose a threat to the habit. Soil erosion is exacerbated by very poor agricultural practices which make land unavailable for farming. Any arable land left becomes inadequate, thereby leading to low level of agricultural productivity.

Gullying started around 1850 and is expanding at 20-50m per year and covers an area of about 100km². The development of gullies has caused extensive damage to the environment and has driven many people away from their homes and led to loss of farmlands, human lives and property, especially buildings which collapse into gullies.

The menace of gully erosion in Agulu-Nanka area of Anambra State has led to the declaration of that area as an ecological disaster zone by the Federal Government of Nigeria (Ajaero and Mozie, 2010). Anambra State Government made conscious efforts in checking and containing the menace by planting 2 million economic and erosion control trees and also building drainages. The Federal Government also disbursed funds to tackle ecological problems in Agulu (Emeka, 2010). In spite of these efforts, ecological problems in Agulu seem not to be abating.

Deforestation occurs primarily due to the use of wood as a source of fuel. Rural women are often the gatherers of fuel wood and dependence on this fuel wood seems to be high among Agulu women. This raises some doubts as to whether these women are knowledgeable about the negative effect of deforestation on the environment. Women interact more with the environment and are worst hit by environmental degradation due to their role as natural resource managers. By this role, they remain key in the bid to ensure environmental sustainability. An investigation of their knowledge of environmental problems and the attendant environmental protection practices is essential.

Study objectives

This study was aimed at assessing the knowledge of environmental problems and the attendant environmental protection practices by Agulu women. Specific objectives were to:

1. Assess the knowledge of environmental problems by Agulu women.
2. Assess the environmental protection practices by Agulu women.
3. Relate Agulu women's environmental protection practices to knowledge level of environmental problems.

The hypotheses that guided the study were:

H_{o1}: Agulu women have no knowledge of environmental problems.

H_{o2}: Agulu women have no environmental protection practices.

H₀₃: There is no relationship between Agulu women's knowledge of environmental problems and their environmental protection practices.

Review of related literature

Denning (2005) defines knowledge as the capacity to obtain information, to sustain it, and to use it. It is a mixture of understanding, experience, discernment and skills. The importance of knowledge and the impact of lack of it in the decision-making process have been demonstrated in numerous studies. Laroche, Bergeron & Barbaro-Forleo (2001) reported that environmental awareness and behaviours were found to be influenced by values, attitudes, and knowledge. Attitudes and motives of recyclers and non-recyclers were not that different except in their operational knowledge. Moisander (2000) showed that knowledge generally influences pro-environmental attitudes, which in turn, motivate ecologically or environmentally responsible consumer behaviour. According to Bogeholz (2006), experience with the environment is the basis of environmental knowledge creation. The experiences will influence one's attitude and environmental practice.

Environment is commonly defined as the system of biological and physical resources and their processes of interaction that affect lives and livelihoods. However, these biophysical systems are also in constant interaction with human and social systems that live in them (Alam, 1999). Women are known to interact more with the environment obviously because of their role in the family as providers of food, water and firewood, hence, women play visible roles in the exploitation of natural resources. Mazrui (2005) espoused on the bond between environment and women, stating that women in sub-saharan Africa have a triple custodial role - custodians of fire, water and earth. Corroborating Mazrui's assertion, a non-governmental organisation (NGO), Conserve Africa, states African women are primary resource users, their responsibilities and activities are directly on land-based resources and they produce 80% of the basic food commodities in

Africa (www.conserveafrica.org.uk.html). Aliyu (2005) opined that women naturally take care of environmental resources and human settlements, as most qualified home managers. Women play significant roles in the sustainability of natural resources and human habitat. Indeed, sustainable development is not possible without the empowerment of women.

In their examination of the link between beliefs, attitudes and behavior, Coutts and Hardy (1995) propounded the Knowledge Attitude and Practice (KAP) model, based on the assumption that knowledge precedes attitudes and that both knowledge and attitude protect and precede behavior and practice.

Knowledge → Attitude → Practice.

In other words, increase in knowledge about a problem will positively influence the behaviour or practice. The KAP model suggests that the right information will influence attitude positively and thus change behaviour. The model has been used in research to understand what people know, believe and do with regard to environmental protection. The central focus is quite clearly the attitude change strategy which is designed to galvanize the individual action through environmental knowledge.

Environmental knowledge level of Agulu women certainly determines their responses to environmental problems. Performing acts detrimental to environmental sustainability is often based on ignorance. Increase in knowledge will improve environmental protection practices.

Using a cross-sectional survey design and a quota sampling procedure, Jamilah & Imran (2012) carried out an investigation of environmental knowledge and environmental practices among Malaysians. The objectives of that investigation were to assess the level of environmental knowledge among Malaysian residents in Sabah and Sarawak, to examine the sources of their environmental knowledge, and to analyse the relationship between knowledge, attitude and environmental practice. Findings showed that respondents had basic environmental knowledge, but not specific environmental

terms or locations. This indicates that respondents possessed only a low level of complex environmental knowledge, which may not encourage them to be more actively involved in environmental activities. This, in turn, could slow down government efforts to encourage environmentally friendly practice among Malaysians.

Akwa (2009) investigated women's involvement in environmental management in Nasarawa State, Nigeria. Study objective was to assess the level of women's participation in environmental management. There was a high proportion of married women in the study area, suggesting that they were more likely to be more responsible in protecting the environment because of their role as home keepers.

Due to differences in demography, socio-economic status and educational levels, Aliyu (2005) used the stratified sampling method in investigating the level of perception and attitude towards the environment and skills available to women in Kano State of Nigeria. Findings revealed that women were scarcely informed and enlightened about the problems plaguing their environment. The research also discovered that the women were constrained by poverty, inadequate awareness and poor access to vital resources. City women do not know that they can contribute significantly towards achieving environmental sustainability. The study, therefore, recommended that the government, civil societies and educational managers and planners and curriculum experts should recast approaches to both formal and informal education to reflect fundamentals of environmental sustainability through integration and promotion of skills, awareness and change of attitudes.

Methodology

Study Area

Agulu is a community in Anaocha Local Government Area of Anambra State, Nigeria. It is the home of the famous Agulu Lake which is a potential tourist site and is home to an estimated three hundred crocodiles and water turtles which are declared sacred.

Agulu lies in the humid tropical rainforest belt of Nigeria. Its geographical co-ordinates are 6° 6' 0" North and 7° 3' 0" East. Agulu is located at altitude 6.11 and longitude 7.0724 at an elevation/altitude of 146 meters. Twenty (20) villages make up Agulu town with a population of 79,021 (National Population Commission, NPC, 2006). Agulu indigenes are predominantly farmers. Those into commercial activities still engage in one type of farming activity or the other. Agulu-Nanka region of Anambra State is faced with several environmental challenges, including erosion. As such, it has been listed as one of the ecological disaster zones in Nigeria. This lends relevance to this study.

Study Design and Sampling

The cross sectional survey study targetted randomly selected 392 women between 18 to 60 years of age in seven (out of twenty) purposively selected villages in Agulu, Anaocha Local Government Area, Anambra State, Nigeria. Women of this age bracket were mostly mothers and were mentally alert to accurately respond to the study questions. Purposive sampling was based on villages listed in the sample frame as the worst hit by gully erosion.

Data Collection Tool and Procedure

Pre-tested interviewer administered questionnaire was used to elicit information from 392 randomly selected women. Answer options to the questions were scaled on four-point. The set of questionnaire eliciting information on knowledge of environmental problems designated the scales as "Very Great Extent" (VGE, 4), "Great Extent" (GE, 3) "Low Extent" (LE, 2), "Very Low Extent" (VLE, 1). The second set of questionnaire elicited information on the practice of environmental protection by Agulu women and had answer options designated as "Strongly Agree" (SA, 4), "Agree" (A, 3), "Disagree" (D, 2), "Strongly Disagree" (SD, 1). A section of the questionnaire sought respondent's demographics as well.

Tool for data analysis and test of hypotheses

Average Mean Score technique (Eneh, 2014) was used to analyse the data and test the hypotheses. The decision value (DV) was obtained from the mean of the value of the scale-points:

$$\frac{4 + 3 + 2 + 1}{4} = \frac{10}{4} = 2.5$$

The calculated value (CV) was obtained from the formula:

$$\text{Calculated value (CV)} = \frac{\sum fx}{\sum f}$$

Where f is frequency
 x is scale-point

The CV was compared with the decision value (DV). If CV was greater than DV, then the answer was regarded as being in the affirmative, otherwise it was regarded as being in the negative.

Decision rule

Null hypothesis is rejected if $CV > DV$, and accepted if $CV < DV$.

Hypothesis 3 was tested by use of chi-square on cross-tabulation statistics of the knowledge of environmental problems and environmental protection practices.

Results and discussion

Table 1.1 shows data on knowledge level of environmental problems by Agulu women. From the Table, 192 (63.6%) respondents strongly agreed, 75 (24.8%) respondents agreed, 23 (7.6%) respondents disagreed, and 12 (4%) respondents strongly disagreed that erosion, deforestation and depletion of natural resources are some environmental problems in Agulu community. The CV was 3.48, which was greater than the DV of 2.5. Therefore, the null hypothesis (Aglu women have no knowledge of environmental problems) was rejected for the alternative hypothesis (Aglu women have knowledge of environmental problems).

Table 1.1: Knowledge level of environmental problems by Agulu women

Questions	SA(%)	A(%)	D(%)	SD(%)	CV
Scale	4	3	2	1	
Erosion, deforestation and depletion of natural resources are some environmental problems in Agulu community	192(63.6)	75 (24.8)	23 (7.6)	12(4.0)	3.48
Gully erosion is a major environmental problem in Agulu	201(66.6)	83(27.5)	11 (3.6)	7 (2.3)	3.58
Gully erosion is increasing	161(53.3)	100(33.1)	35(11.6)	6 (2.0)	3.38
Environmental problems result from harmful aspects of human activity on the environment	128(42.4)	130(43.0)	25 (8.3)	19(6.3)	3.22
Erosion occurs due to poor agricultural practices	120(39.7)	99 (32.8)	58(19.2)	25(8.3)	3.04
Deforestation degrades the environment	131(43.4)	105(34.8)	48(15.9)	18(6.0)	3.16

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Also, 201 (66.6%) respondents strongly agreed, 83 (27.5%) respondents agreed, 11 (3.6%) respondents disagreed and 7 (2.3%) respondents strongly disagreed that gully erosion is a major environmental problem in Agulu. The CV was 3.58, which is greater than DV of 2.5. Therefore, the null hypothesis (Aglu women have no knowledge of environmental problems) was rejected for the alternative hypothesis (Aglu women have knowledge of environmental problems).

Again, 161 (53.3%) respondents strongly agreed, 100 (33.1%) respondents agreed, 35 (11.6%) respondents disagreed, 6 (2%) respondents strongly disagreed that gully erosion was increasing in Agulu. The CV was 3.38, which is greater than DV of 2.5. Therefore, the null hypothesis (Aglu women have no knowledge of environmental problems) was rejected for the alternative hypothesis (Aglu women have knowledge of environmental problems).

Table 1.1 also shows that 128 (42.4%) respondents strongly agreed, 130 (43%) respondents agreed, 25 (8.3%) respondents disagreed, 19 (6.3%) respondents strongly disagreed that environmental problems result from harmful aspects of human activity on the environment. The CV was 3.22, which is greater than DV of 2.5. Therefore, the null hypothesis (Aglu women have no knowledge of environmental problems) was rejected for the alternative hypothesis (Aglu women have knowledge of environmental problems).

Besides, 120 (39.7%) respondents strongly agreed, 99 (32.8%) respondents agreed, 58 (19.2%) respondents disagreed, 25 (8.3%) respondents strongly disagreed that erosion occurs due to poor agricultural practices. The CV was 3.04, which is greater than DV of 2.5. Therefore, the null hypothesis (Aglu women have no knowledge of environmental problems) was rejected for the alternative hypothesis (Aglu women have knowledge of environmental problems).

Table 1.1 also shows that 131 (43.4%) respondents strongly agreed, 105 (34.8%) respondents agreed, 48 (15.9%) respondents disagreed, 18 (6.0%) respondents strongly disagreed that deforestation degrades the environment. The CV was 3.16, which is greater than DV of 2.5. Therefore, the null hypothesis (Aglu women have no knowledge of environmental problems) was rejected for the alternative hypothesis (Aglu women have knowledge of environmental problems).

Table 1.2 shows environmental protection practices of Agulu women.

Table 1.2: Environmental protection practices

Questions	VGE (%)	GE (%)	LE (%)	VLE (%)	CV
Scale	4	3	2	1	
Aglu women plant trees to help control gully erosion	210(69.5)	77(25.5)	10(3.3)	5 (1.7)	3.63
Aglu women discourage deforestation	93(30.8)	140(46.4)	43(14.2)	26 (8.6)	2.99
Aglu women practice bush fallowing to protect the environment	146(48.3)	106(35.1)	27(8.9)	23 (7.6)	3.24
Aglu women practice pit digging for water collection	173(57.3)	98(32.5)	25(8.3)	6 (2.0)	3.45
Aglu women engage in shifting cultivation	171(56.6)	109(36.1)	16(5.3)	6 (2.0)	3.47
Aglu women discourage bush burning	111(36.8)	110(36.4)	44(14.6)	37 (12.3)	2.98

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 1.2 shows that 210 (69.5%) respondents agreed to a very great extent that Agulu women plant trees to help control gully erosion, 77 (25.5%) respondents agreed to a great extent, 10 respondents (3.3%) agreed to a low extent and 5 (1.7%) respondents agreed to a very low extent. The CV was 3.63, which is greater than the DV. Therefore, Agulu women practised tree planting to help control erosion.

Again, 93 (30.8%) respondents agreed to a very great extent that Agulu women discourage deforestation, 140 respondents (46.4%) agreed to a great extent, 43 respondents (14.2%) agreed to a low extent and 26 respondents (8.6%) agreed to a very low extent. The CV was 2.99, which was greater than the DV of 2.5. This means that Agulu women discourage deforestation.

Also, 146 (48.3%) respondents agreed to a very great extent that Agulu women practice bush fallowing to protect the environment, 106 (35.1%) respondents agreed to a great extent, 27 (8.9%) respondents agreed to a low extent, and 23 (7.6%) respondents agreed to a very low extent. The CV was 3.24, which was greater than DV of 2.5. Therefore, Agulu women practice bush fallowing to protect the environment.

Besides, 173 (57.3%) respondents agreed to a very great extent that Agulu women practised pit digging for water collection, 98 respondents (32.5%) agreed to a great extent, 25 respondents (8.3%) agreed to a low extent and 6 respondents (2%) respondents agreed to a very low extent. The CV was 3.45, which was greater than the DV of 2.5. Therefore, Agulu women practised pit digging for water collection.

Table 1.2 also shows that 171 (56.6%) respondents agreed to a very great extent that Agulu women engage in shifting cultivation, 109 (36.1%) respondents agreed to a great extent, 16 (5.3%) respondents agreed to a low extent and 6 (2%) respondents agreed to a very low extent. The CV was 3.47, which was greater than the DV of 2.5. Therefore, Agulu women engage in shifting cultivation to help protect the environment.

Also, 111 (36.8%) respondents agreed to a very great extent that Agulu women discourage bush burning, 110 (36.4%) respondents agreed to a great extent, 44 (14.6%) respondents agreed to a low extent and 37 (12.3%) respondents agreed to a very low extent. The CV was 2.98, which was greater than the DV of 2.5. Therefore, Agulu women discourage bush burning to check environmental degradation.

Hypothesis 3 was tested by use of chi-square on cross-tabulation statistics of the knowledge of environmental problems and practice of environmental protection among Agulu women (Table 1.3) in order to establish the relationship.

Table 1.3: Cross-tabulation of knowledge and practice of environmental protection

		Practice			Total
		Low Extent	Great Extent	Very Great Extent	
Knowledge	Low Extent	1 (5.9)	13 (76.5)	3 (17.6)	17 (100.0)
	Great Extent	7 (5.0)	86 (61.4)	47 (33.6)	140 (100.0)
	Very Great Extent	1 (0.7)	63 (43.4)	81 (55.9)	145 (100.0)
Total		9 (3.0)	162 (53.6)	131 (43.4)	302 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey, 2014

The results are $X^2_{\text{calculated}} = 21.901$, $X^2_{\text{critical}} = 9.488$, and p-value = 0.000. Based on the set decision rule, since $X^2_{\text{calculated}} (21.901) > X^2_{\text{critical}} (9.488)$, the null hypothesis (There is no relationship between Agulu women's knowledge of environmental problems and their environmental protection practices) is rejected. This result is significant as p-value = 0.000 < 0.05. The alternative hypothesis (There is a relationship between Agulu women's knowledge of environmental problems and their environmental protection practices) is accepted.

Finding on the knowledge of environmental problems by Agulu women is in contrast with the report of Aliyu (2005) that women of Kano city were scarcely informed and enlightened about the problems plaguing their environment, nor aware that they could contribute significantly towards achieving environmental sustainability. Although, the study by Jamilah and Imran (2012) is not gender biased, it showed that respondents possessed only a low level of complex environmental knowledge which may not encourage them to be actively involved in environmental activities. Agulu women knew that erosion was a continuous challenge and increased in their community

due to harmful aspects of human activities such as deforestation and poor agricultural practices.

The finding that Agulu women practised environmental protection prove that women are actively involved in environmental protection and have proven themselves to be a great ally and asset in the campaign on environmental protection. This agreed with the report of Akwa (2009) that women are main actors in environmental sustainability through sanitizing of homes and communities on daily (70% of the women), weekly (19%) and occasionally (1.6%).

To fight and prevent erosion, particularly gully erosion, women in Agulu practise tree planting and discourage deforestation and bush burning. They also dig pits to collect rain water. Therefore, there is an association between their knowledge of environmental problems and practices of environmental protection. This clearly shows that knowledge precedes attitude and that both knowledge and attitude would protect and precede behaviour and practice, in accordance with KAP model. Therefore, if environmental knowledge is improved, environmental practice will increase.

Conclusion

The study found out that Agulu women have knowledge of environmental problems, as well as engage in environmental protection practices. There is a direct relationship between Agulu women's knowledge of environmental problems and their environmental protection practices. As knowledge level of environmental problems increased, environmental protection practices improved. To help control erosion, Agulu women practised tree planting, discourage deforestation, practice bush fallowing, practice pit digging for water collection, engage in shifting cultivation, and discourage bush burning.

Recommendations

1. Since environmental degradation is continuous and on the increase, environmental awareness creation, environmental campaigns and mass education on environmental problems and

the mitigation mechanisms should also be stepped up in frequency and magnitude to inform and remind women on environmental sustainability.

2. Women should be involved in decision-making and any process that is related to environmental management, since they, as resource managers, play significant roles in the sustainability of natural resources and human habitat.

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CORRUPTION IN NIGERIA: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND PHILOSOPHICAL RESCUE

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Abstract

It is widespread knowledge that corruption has eaten deep into the marrows of Nigerian state. It does not just allow development strides to achieve objectives, but twists and swallows development policies, plans, projects and programmes. Thus, abandoned projects and development policy summersault abound in the country. This paper attempts to analyze the causes and consequences of corruption in Nigeria, evaluating the effort of government in the management of corruption from the pre-colonial to post-colonial era. It also examines possible philosophical solution to the hydra-headed national challenge. The paper made useful recommendations to reduce the menace of corruption among public officials and politicians. The Nigerian state needs dedicated and transparent leaders to move Nigeria forward in the committee of nations in the bi-polar world.

Key words: *Corruption, Nigeria, National development.*

Introduction

Corruption is as old as the society. It is a serious vice that negatively affects good governance of any modern nation state. It has been identified as a chronic cancer of the Nigerian economy. According to Abu (2008),

corruption is Nigeria's number one enemy, responsible for nearly all pains that the nation and its citizens experience. It has rendered the vast majority of the people poor. Eneh (2006) noted that countries behind Nigeria in development in the 1970s have overtaken the country by several folds because of its endemic corruption. Onah (2006) noted corruption rubbishes all development visions and programmes through corrupt handling by politicians/bureaucrats. Agbase (2008 a and b) observed that Nigeria mints more billionaires in a year than all other African countries put together can come close to in a decade. A vast majority of Nigerians wallow in poverty and misery in the midst of plenty, squirming under the weight of government of few contractors for the few. Eneh (2011) observed that failed development visions, abandoned development programmes and policy summersault, which are products of corruption and political leadership ineptitude that characterize Nigeria, are common problems that militate against development in the country.

Corruption in Nigeria started gaining prominence in 1976 during the time of Gen. Olusegun Obasanjo as Head of State. A decree No. 11 was promulgated on protecting the public servants on false accusation. This Law prohibited the discourse of corruption against all oath. That also blew corruption among the public officials to a level where it has become a fashion in Nigeria. Today, government does not care to ask of the sources of wealth. Though successive governments had made several attempts to dislocate the perpetrators in the act, there have been flaring cases of corruption by the bureaucrats, politicians as well contractors.

A report by Ekhaton (2010) revealed that bureaucratic corruption is a dominant feature in Nigeria public service. At local level, there were cases of bureaucratic corruption involving all categories of public servants spread over twelve (12) years in four states of Nigeria, namely Kaduna, Kano, Ogun and Oyo. Most State Governors were also accused of looting the treasury of their state. Most of the cases of corruption revolve around

elites who championed the act of corruption to satisfy the individualistic ego for self actualization by the abuse of offices. Corrupt practices can be economic, political and social in nature, and majority of the over 70% of the population of Nigerian people resident in different local government areas are the victims.

The concept of corruption

According to Ekhaton (2010), corruption is an anti-social behaviour conferring improper benefit, contrary to legal or moral norms; and which undermines the authority to improve the living conditions of people. It is an illegitimate way of acquiring wealth. It is a deliberate, conscious and intentional exploitation of one's position, status or natural resources directly or indirectly for personal gains. This kind of misuse of powers by public servants is referred to as administrative corruption.

Basically, the most pervasive problem affecting the Nigerian nation and its institutions is corrupt practices. As Lipset and Leus (2000: 112) noted, "Corruption involves behavior which deviates from normal duties; or violates rules against the exercise of certain types of private regarding influence." Bayley (1966) sees corruption as particularly tied to the act of bribery. The Asian Development Bank understood corruption as involving the behavior on the part of the official in the public or private sector, in which the officials improperly or unlawfully enrich themselves or those closely related to them, or induce other to do so by misusing their positions in the society.

The Corrupt Practices Decree of 1975 describes corruption by restricting the concept to bribery, which is offer, promise or receipt of any gratification and inducement or reward. The Independent Corrupt Practiced (and other related offences) Commission (ICPC) Act 2000 and the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) Act 2004 broadened the definition of corruption. The EFCC Act empowered the

commission to investigate, prevent and prosecute offenders who engage in:

Money Laundering, embazzelment, bribery, looting and any form of corrupt practices; illegal arms deal, smuggling, human trafficking and child labour; illegal oil bunkering; illegal mining, tax evasion; foreign exchange malpractices; inducement, counterfeiting of currency, theft of intellectual property and piracy; open market abuse, duping of toxic waste and prohibited goods (Act, 2004).

From the foregoing intellectual discourse, corruption is the abuse of public office for private gain when an official accepts, solicits or extorts a bribe. It is also abuse when a private agent actively offers bribe to circumvent public policies and processes for competitive advantages and profit.

The starting point of corruption in Nigeria

Corruption in Nigeria has its roots before her political independence in 1960. In 1950, the first panel of enquiry headed by Justice Starndfford was set up to look into the Africa Continental Bank (ACB) owned by the Eastern Region against Nnamdi Azikiwe affairs. He was charged with abuse of office by allowing public funds to be interested in a bank in which he had interest. On January 6th, 1956, Foster Juttai Commission of Enquiry indicted Nnamdi Azikiwe, leading to his transferring his rights to ACB.

In 1962, Chief Obafemi Awolowo was dragged to court for his relationship with the National Investment and Property Company, a private company that was indebted to the Western Regional Government to the sum of ₦7,200.00. On June 20th, 1962, Justice G.B. Coker Commission indicted Chief Awolowo. Consequently, the Western Regional Government acquired all the property owned by the company.

In 1967, a commission of enquiry indicted fifteen officers for corruptly enriching themselves. The panel recommended that they should all forget such ill-gotten facins to the government of the Mid-Western Region. In 1974, there was cement scandal involving Gowon's administration's claim of \$115 as the cost of importing a ton of cement, as against \$40 actual cost.

In 1976, the review of contract sum from ₦45,216.00 to ₦95,800.00 by the Head of State, Gen. Olusegun Obasanjo, marked a water shed of corruption in Nigeria. Both civilian and military regimes have hands in one form of corruption or another.

The military regimes and legalization of corruption in Nigeria

Corruption was legalized by military era. The Public Office Protection against False Accusation Decree No. 11 of 1976 was promulgated by the military juntas to prohibit the discourse of corruption against any public officer, thereby legalizing corruption in Nigeria. Gen. Murtala Ramat Mohammed vehemently disagreed with his running mate, Gen. Olusegun Obasanjo, over his shoddy role in a ₦45,216.00 contract for designing, construction, equipping and furnishing of the international trade fair complex in Lagos. It was also evident that after the demise of Gen. Murtala Mohammed, the successor, Gen. Olusegun Obasanjo, reviewed the contract upwards to ₦95,820.00 in 1976. Obasanjo regime was also accused of the missing ₦2.8 billion from the (offers of the Nigeria National Petroleum Company (NNPC) (*Daily Trust*, 2012).

The relay race from Babangida to Abubakar transformed into a nightmare of plunders and privileges, wanton stealing and gross abuse of office. This is further confirmed by World Bank (1999).

Causes of corrupt practice in Nigeria

Corrupt practices constitute a vicious circle and it is cumbersome to exactly say who is corrupt; the giver or the taker of bribes. There are so many causes of corruption. They include:

Africa extended family problems

Onalaga (2002) sees Africa extended family as placing undue significant pressure on the civil servant or politician, forcing them to engage in corrupt and nepotistic practices. Hence bureaucrats and political office holders are forced to exploit their public positions to generate benefits for themselves, their families, ethnic or social cleavages.

Poverty and inequality

Pervasive and chronic poverty and material deprivation and severe inequalities in the distribution of resources can also serve as a dominant factor of corruption in Nigeria (*Daily Trust*, 2009).

Procedural sources rules

Administrative procedure in many African countries, particularly in Nigeria, is a root cause of corruption. Administrative discretion granted to civil servants provides them opportunities to indulge in corruption. Red tape, chronic delays, and frequent change of orders compel the parties concerned to make use of money for speedification of action (Ekhaton, 2010). Contractors' payment vouchers are held up by the accounts departments, goods are detained at the various Customs check points, and screwed business is done to grab money. According to Lotterman (2002), bad rules and ineffective taxing system, which makes it difficult to track down people's financial activities, breeds corruption.

Deviation from norms

Corruption could be adduced to cultural and institutional factors. There is a link between corruption and culture: “Means ends schema” implies that corruption is at times a motivated behaviour responding to solid pressures to violate the norms, so as to meet the set goals and objectives of the social system. African societies have a particularistic attachment in solving and protecting their cultural values, that spur public or any servants to engage in corrupt activities (Ribadu, 2006).

Late payment of salaries

Late payment of civil or public servants’ salaries encourages cutting corners to meet up. Bribery and corruption thrive on the culture of payment delays or refusal for services already done traced to bad leadership (*Daily Trust*, 2012).

Recruitment partiality

Recruitment agencies demand for bribe to offer a pensionable or probation appointment to a citizen. Naturally, corrupt recruitment process will likely lead to corrupt practices by the employee (*Daily Trust*, 2012).

Greed

According to Aristotle, greed is an insatiable animal. Some causes of corrupt actions may be due to greed (Ribadu, 2009).

Effects of corruption

Corruption affect all facets of human endeavour, including investments, economic growth and government expenditure choices. It reduces the rate of private investment in the society. It affects the political economy of the state. It generates unemployment and lay-offs in the public and private sector. Beusal poverty can lead to people continuing to spend what they

have earned, while income doesn't come until a time when there will be nothing to meet the necessities of the citizen in a state. Corruption affects the natural spirit, as it depletes citizen's trust. Both the public servant and politician aim at their interests, and the result of all these is corruption (Transparency International, 2003; *Financial Times*, 1999; Bayley, 1966).

Government efforts

Government makes efforts to curb the devastating menace of corruption. Anti-graft agencies have been established to fight corruption (e.g. Act 2000 - the Independent Corrupt Practices and other related offences Commission, ICPC; the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission, EFCC). They have been able to convict public servants and contractors who engage in corrupt practices. Several high profile corruption cases, perpetrators of advance fee fraud, money launderers, tax evasions and contract scams have been investigated and arrests made. Illegal oil bunkering, bribery, looting of public treasury and foreign exchange malpractice have been investigated and culprits prosecuted.

Some statements against corruption by some Nigerian heads of state and presidents include:

“Corruption, inept and insensitive leadership has been a source of immorality and inappropriateness in our society ... This administration will not tolerate kickback, inflation or contracts ... forgery, fraud and abuse of office...” - Buhari in 1993.

“We can no longer ignore the issue of corruption which is now widely believed to be endemic in our country. It is a matter of concern to the government ... government is specifically concerned with increasing cases of white collar corruption including advance fee fraud code-named “419”, bank thefts insider dealings, product counterfeiting and other

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infringements on trade, etc. Government is now resolved to do everything possible to stem this ugly development” - Ernest Shonekan.

“White collar crimes, hitherto alien to our culture have become pervasive and invidious... those institutions which we should hold in the highest esteem desecrated and brought into ridicule” – Abacha in 1996.

President Obasanjo took a bolder step by putting in place anti–corruption initiative, including the Due Process Office, the Nigeria Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (NEITI), the Public Procurement Act, The Fiscal Policy Act, the ICPC Act 2004, the EFCC Act 2004. The administration of President Musa Yar’adua and Goodluck Jonathan at its inaugural speech on May 29th, 2009 spoke on corruption, thus: “Its corrosive effect is all too visible in all aspects of our national life. This is an area where we have made significant progress in vacant years and are willing to maintain them. We are determined to intensify the war against corruption, more so because corruption is itself centered to the spread of poverty momentum” – Goodluck Jonathan in 2009.

Also, President Goodluck Jonathan’s inaugural speech on 29th May 2011 confirmed his effort to continue the fight against corruption from the agenda of his predecessor (late President Umar Musa Yar’Adua). He has demonstrated his bit to curb corruption by instituting better mechanism and setting up committees to investigate public officials in government parastatals who engaged in corrupt practices. Such committees include those on investigation on pension board scam, SEC, and the oil industries. Basically other institutions such as religious organization, non-governmental organization, youth vanguards have so far joined government in the fight against corruption in Nigeria. The table below

attest to those investigated in the act of corruption in Nigeria – Goodluck Jonathan in 2011.

Table 2.1 shows classified looting of Nigerian funds, as reported in *Financial Times* of London (1999).

Table 2.1: Classified looting of Nigerian funds

S/No	Name	Amount in London	Amount in Swiss	Deposits USA	Deposits Germany	Total Amt in Naira
1.	Babangida	£6.256 bn	\$7.4i6 bn	\$2.00bn	Dm9.00bn	₦2.4635tr
2	Abubakar	£1.131 bn	\$2.33 bn	\$800m	Dm16bn	₦0.4938tr
3	Mike Akhigbe	£1.24 bn	\$2.426bn	\$671m	Dm900m	₦0.8059tr
4	Jerry Useni	£3.04 bn	\$2.01bn	\$1.03bn	Dm900m	₦0.8059tr
5	Ismaila Gowon	£1.03 bn	\$2.00bn	\$1.03bn	Dm700m	₦0.50176tr
6	Umaru Dikko	£4.4 bn	\$1.46bn	\$700m	Dm345m	₦0.89465tr
7	Paul Oguma	£300m	\$1.42bn	\$200m	Dm500m	₦35bn
8	Sani Abacha	£5.01bn	\$4.09bn	\$8.00m	Dm3.01 m	₦1.2107tr
9	Mohammed Abacha	£3.00m	\$1.2bn	\$150m	Dm535m	₦0.2107tr
10	Abdu Abacha	£700m	\$1.21bn	\$900m	Dm417m	₦0.2107tr
11	Wada Nas	£300m	\$1.32bn	-	Dm300m	₦0.2374tr
12	Tom Ikimi	£400m	\$1.39bn	\$153m	Dm371m	₦0.25253tr
13	Dan Etete	£2.5 bn	\$1.03bn	\$400m	Dm1.72b	₦0.32747tr
14	Don Etiebet	£2.5 bn	\$1.06bn	\$700m	Dm361m	₦0.56747tr
15	Majjal Mustapha	£600m	\$1.001bn	-	Dm210m	₦0.199793tr
16	Bashiru Dalhatu	£2.9 bn	\$1.09bn	\$360m	Dm1.66bn	₦0.68895tr
17	Wushishi	£2.3 bn	\$1.001bn	\$161m	Dm1.43bn	₦0.55649tr
18	Hasan Adamu	£300m	\$200m	\$700m	-	₦0.1305tr
19	T.Y. Danjuma	£1.36 bn	\$1.02bn	\$300m	Dm190m	₦0.3427tr
20	Ishaya Bamaïyi	£120m	\$800m	-	-	₦94.0bn

Sources: *Financial Times* of London, 23rd July, 1999.

Table 2.2 contains a recent report on corrupt practices in Nigeria as published in the *Nigerian Commentator online*, in its Volume 2 No. 41999. Table 2.3 shows reported corruption cases against Nigerian legislators. Table 2.4 shows reported corrupt scams involving public officials in Nigeria.

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Table 2.2: Recent reported corrupt practices in Nigeria

S/No	Name	USD \$	Pounds (250/1)	Total ₦ (150/\$)
1	Gen. Sani Abacha	\$56bn	10m	8.4trillion
2	Joshua Dariye	\$34m	-	7.6billion
3	DSP Alamaseigha	\$240m	10m	3.85 trillion
4	Custom Account	-	-	1.66billion
5	Independent Power plant	\$16.6m	-	2.5 trillion
6	Rural electrification project	-	5.2bn	130 trillion
7	Custom Rev. lost waivers	-	-	33billion
8	Custom rev. not remitted	-	-	13billion
9	Police equipment fund	\$97.25m	-	14.6 billion
10	Aviation fund	Euro bribe 100,000	-	19.5billion
11	Kalu charged for stealing	-	-	5billion
12	Foreign min diversion	-	-	22billion
13	Haliburton bribery	\$180m	-	27 trillion
14	El-Rufai diversion	-	-	3billion
15	UBE scam	-	-	13.3 billion
16	NNPC fund not remitted	\$8.0bn	-	4.5 trillion
17	NNPC gas cash missing	\$4.6bn	-	6.9 trillion
18	Federal ministry of health	-	-	300million
19	Tafa Balogun	-	-	19.2billion
20	Bode George	-	-	83billion

Source: Nigerian Commentator online, Vol. 2 No. 41999

Table 2.3: Recent reported corruption cases against some Nigerians

<i>Honourable members</i>	<i>cases</i>
Patricia Etteh (Speaker Reps)	- ₦ 6.28 million
Buhari Buhari (Speaker)	- forged certificate
Dr. Chuba Okadigbo	- ₦54 million furniture allowance scam
Evans Enwerem	- certificate
Hon. Haruna Abubakar	- inflation of contract
Adolphous Wabara	- ₦54 million
El-Rufai	- ₦ 100 million
Senator Mantu Ibrahim	- ₦ 60 million
Nicholas Ogbare & Ndudi Elumelu	- ₦ 5.2 billion
Hon. Bankole Dimeji	- ₦ 2.4 billion
Farouk Lawan	- \$620,000
Hembe Herman	- ₦ 50 million
Celesai Ibmu	- ₦ 160.2billion
James Ibori Gov. Delta state	- ₦ 15million
Miss Anuka Anyeniba	- \$242 Brazillian bank
Dr. Hassan Lawal	- 12.5 million and 15 million
Gov. Aliyu Akwe Doma	- ₦ 48 billion

Source: *Daily Trust*, June 22nd 2012

Table 2.4: Reported corrupt scams involving Nigerian public officials

NAME	POSITION	AMOUNT INVOLVED
Saminu Turaki	Formergoverno of Jigawa state	₦ 63billion
James Onanefe Ibori	Former governor of delta State	₦ 9.2billion
Orji Uzor Kalu	Former Governor of Abia State	₦ 5billion
Chimaroke Nnamani	Fomer governor of Enugu state	₦ 5.3billion
Lucky Igbenedion	Former governor of enugu state	₦ 4.3billion
Nyeso Wike	Chief of staff to governor River state	₦ 4.67billion
Rowland Iyayi	Former M.D of FAAN	₦ 5.6billion
Prof. Babalola Borishade	Former Aviation minister	₦ 5.6billion
Bode George	Former Chairman NPA/PDP chieftain	₦ 100 billion
Rasheed Ladoja	Former gov. Oyo State	₦ 6billion
Abdullahi Adamu	Former Gov. Nasarawa State	₦15 billion
Hamman Bello Hammed	Former Comptroller General Customs	₦ 2.5billion
Mrs. Cecilia Ibru	Former CEO Oceanic bank	₦160 billion
Raymond Obieri	Former Chairman Intercontinental Bank	₦131.8billion
Sabastine Adigwe	Former CEO Fin Bank	₦277.3billion
Francis Atuche	Former CEO Bank PHB	₦80billion
Tom Iseghohi	General Manager Transcorp Group	₦15billion
Chief Osa Osunde	Former Chairman AfriBank	₦55billion
Oladele Shittu	CEO Credence Investment	₦139billion
Sunday Akinyemi	Former CEO Texas connection ferries	₦90 billion
Gen. Sani Abacha	Former Millitary Head of State	Over ₦2billion
Gen. Ibrahim Babangida	Former Millitary Head of State	Over ₦2billion
Farouk Lawal	Chairman on fuel subsidy	\$620,000
Bello Tambuwal		11.6 million
Oke Nwosu		16.2 billion
Abdulrasheed Maina		Pension scam N273.9bn
Prince Njoku	Administrator of family health	\$5.2million U.S

Source: *Daily Trust*, June 22nd 2012

The list is endless, and should be nothing to be proud of because the above-mentioned persons are whom trust was bestowed upon on behalf of the masses of this country but they choose to betray the trust because of their insatiable quest for primitive accumulation of wealth.

Only a hand-pick of these accused persons were tried, convicted and sentenced to very few years of prison terms. Others are walking on

our streets as free men because of inadequacies of the prosecution and judicial system and/or plea-bargain. James Ibori that was discharged and acquitted of all count charges by the Nigerian Judiciary was convicted and jailed in London for same charges he was acquitted of here in Nigeria. This reflects the weaknesses in the Nigerian judicial system and/or process (James, 2007).

Table 2.5 shows a comparison of corruption perspective indices of selected developing countries. Nigeria (1.9) tops Hunduras (1.7), Paraguay (1.5) and Cameroun (1.4).

Table 2.5: Corruption perspective indices of selected developing countries

S.No	Country	Corruption perception index
1	Cameroun	1.4
2	Paraguay	1.5
3	Hunduras	1.7
4	Tanzania	1.9
5	Nigeria	1.9
6	Indonesia	2.0
7	Colombia	2.2
8	Venezuela	2.3
9	Equador	2.3
10	Russia	2.4

Source: Transparency International (1998); *The Guardian on Sunday*, October, 1998, p.25.

Recommendations

Corruption has now become a well organized fame in Nigeria. The fight against it might need to heed the following recommendations:

1. The society should institute appropriate and effective taxing system where everyone is made to explain his or her sources of income; through end-of –year income tax filing.

2. To tame corruption, the society should try to get rid of regulations that are kangaroo in nature, that serve negative relevance to the society.
3. Government must strengthen the institution established to fight corruption. They should have total authority from any authority or any form of interference.
4. Government should take necessary steps in prosecuting offenders as to serve as deterrent for the intenders.
5. Government should accelerate judiciary process for prosecuting corrupt officials.
6. Government should encourage its citizens to expose officials involved in corrupt practices, possibly a reward system should be given to those that have exposed offenders.

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RETHINKING THE CURRICULUM OF NIGERIAN UNIVERSITY EDUCATION: FUNCTIONALITY CHALLENGES

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Abstract

The founders of Nigerian university education aimed at providing the requirements of industry, commerce and society and at the relevance of university graduates to the social and economic needs and day-to-day life of the people of Nigeria. These aspirations were met in the early years of the universities, but not today. The quality of university graduates and research outputs of today, in relation to the expectations of local employers of labour and the organisations that should commercialise research findings, are far from fulfilling the noble visions of the founding fathers of Nigerian university education system. This paper examines the imperative need for an urgent rethink on the curriculum of Nigerian university education system in order to keep pace with the visions of the founding fathers of the system. The first indigenous university in Nigeria, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, is the focus.

Keywords: *University education system. Vision of founding fathers of African universities. Functionality of Nigerian university graduates in the 21st century.*

Introduction

From all indications and available history, the intents and purposes of the Nigerian university education are to securely lay the foundation for Nigerian leadership, to the end that this country shall cease to imitate the excrescences of a civilisation which is not rooted in African life. The Nigerian university education should not only be cultural, according to the concepts of universities, but it should also be vocational in its objective and Nigerian in its content.

In discussing higher education in Nigeria, the Report of the International Bank Mission on the Economic Development of Nigeria, which was released in 1954, stated that the establishment of the University College, Ibadan, was an important step forward but that Nigeria needed many times more college graduates than even the most optimistic plans can provide, adding that there should be variety of courses than existed at the time.

The philosophy of the first indigenous university in Nigeria, the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, included providing the requirements of industry, commerce and society; providing cultural and vocational courses for community service; and updating knowledge and adapting to the changing circumstances of contemporary Nigerian society.

These objectives were set in the second half of the 1950s. Time has changed greatly, necessitating a rethinking the curriculum of Nigerian university education system, which obviously were predicated on the vision of the founding fathers of the system, proved functional for a time, and may have fallen out of tune in the present dispensation.

This paper, therefore, examines the visions of the founding fathers of Nigerian university education, the functionality of the curriculum of the system, and the need to rethink it for re-alignment with the founders' vision. After this brief introduction, the rest of the paper is structured thus: the vision for Nigerian university education, functionality Challenges of the Nigerian University Education System, and conclusion.

The Vision for Nigerian University Education

The vision of the founding fathers of Nigerian university education can most truthfully be sought from the founding father of the first indigenous university, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. According to the great Zik of Africa, Rt. Hon. Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe (1963: 6-9),

A major stimulus to the founding of the University of Nigeria was the Report of the International Bank Mission on the Economic Development of Nigeria, which was released in 1954. This Report, in discussing higher education in Nigeria, stated that the establishment of the University College, Ibadan, was an important step forward but that Nigeria needed many times more college graduates than even the most optimistic plans could provide. It also suggested that there should be greater variety of courses than existed at the time.

In *Renascent Africa*, Nnamdi Azikiwe (1937) had regretted that:

Throughout the continent of Africa there is not an indigenous university sustained through African initiatives ... have had their curricula filled with important divisions of knowledge which could have hastened their intellectual emancipation.

As the Premier of the then Eastern Region of Nigeria, Nnamdi Azikiwe headed an Economic Mission to Europe and America. According to Azikiwe and Ojukwu (1955), among the objectives of the Mission were:

To seek the cooperation of Europe and America in the training and recruitment of technicians, and to make arrangements for the training of Nigerians in vocational higher education.

The Mission wanted to attract investors to accelerate the economic development of the Eastern Region of Nigeria. Efforts to accelerate economic development would be thwarted if the Region could not produce regularly the needed qualified indigenous manpower. In his nationalist struggles, Nnamdi Azikiwe had felt strongly that what he had dubbed the “colonial mentality” was only possible because the colonial education imprisoned the African intellectual potentialities and denied them avenues for meaningful expression. In order to free the African intellect, a university had to emerge to answer to the calls of the Africans.

During the debate in the Eastern House of Assembly, on 8th May 1955, on the second reading of a bill entitled “A Law to establish a university in the Eastern Region and to provide for the governance thereof and for matters incidental thereto,” the then Premier of the Eastern Nigeria, Rt. Hon. Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe, quoted verbatim from section 146 of the Report on the Economic Rehabilitation, as follows:

In order that the foundation of Nigerian leadership shall be securely laid, to the end that this country shall cease to imitate the excrescences of a civilisation which is not rooted in Africa, a full fledged university should be established in this Region without further delay. Such a higher institution of learning should not only be cultural, according to the classical concept of universities, but it should also be vocational in its objective and cultural in its content.

Azikiwe (1937) had asserted,

Universities have been responsible for shaping the destinies of races and nations and individuals ...The Universities of Europe and America have been responsible for the great movements in the national history of these continents.

Why should African youth depend upon Oxford, Cambridge, Harvard, Yale, Sorbonne, or Heidelberg for intellectual growth? These universities are mirrors which reflect their particular sociological idiosyncrasies. An African graduate of these universities, unless he has developed his individuality, is nothing short of a megaphone, yea a carboncopy of these societies. Hence I say he is miseducated.

Nnamdi Azikiwe recalled that,

The Report on the Economic Rehabilitation of Eastern Nigeria (1955) brought additional impulse into the origin of the University. This impulse drew from the important idea that the aim of education in Africa is to develop the youth of the Continent and prepare them for service to the people. The University should produce a generation that would be 'reliable, useful, and intelligent in the rapidly changing life and circumstances of (the African) people.'

With these and similar ideals, the Eastern House of Assembly, exercising great courage and faith, enacted the University of Nigeria Law, even at a time of low funds and uncertain promise. Similarly, four other

autonomous universities were established in quick succession in Lagos, Ile-Ife, Ibadan, and Zaria in the 1960s in Nigeria. Eight other universities came on board in the 1970s in Benin, Jos, Maiduguri, Ilorin, Sokoto, Port Harcourt, Calabar and Kano. More universities (of Agriculture and of Science/Technology) were established in the 1980s by the federal and state governments (ACU, 2004). Today, the federal government owns 28 universities in Nigeria, the state governments own 19 of them, while the private operators own more than 22 (Mbanefoh, 2003; FRCN, 2005).

The University of Nigeria, Nsukka was set up as a full-fledged university, which should reflect the cultural values of the nation. The philosophy of the University, as embodied in the Alma Mater Pledge, is

*To Seek the Truth
To Teach the Truth
To Preserve the Truth, and thereby
To Restore the Dignity of Man*

An aspect of the philosophy of the University of Nigeria is captured by Babs Fafunwa (1971) in his reply to the critics of the University:

The immediate problem that confronts Nigeria today is that of relating her educational system to her own environment. No university outside Nigeria can help accomplish this; it must be done by a university located within Nigeria and not tied to the apron strings of a foreign institution.

Fafunwa went on to recommend that greater emphasis should be placed on native culture. In his own rebuttal of the critics of the University of Nigeria, Onyerisara Ukeje (cited in Ijoma, 1985: 8) advised:

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Any educational institution, no matter its level, to be functional and of high quality must be an integral part of the society.

Ijoma (1985: 9) further submitted that such a university must reflect the aspirations of the people and the changing circumstances of the time. The sins of Oxford and Cambridge were that they were blind to the signs of new times. An indigenous African university would provide opportunities for Africans to study in an African environment and preserve in the students a sense of African nationality and dignity. The University of Nigeria would be a centre where thought and healthy ideas of Nigeria would be collected and disseminated to other parts of the world. It would be a centre where foreigners would learn about Nigerian customs, religious ideas, secret cults and use of Nigerian herbs. It would serve the needs of Nigerians. In order to do this, it must create a kind of nationalism that has Nigeria as its centre piece.

According to Ijoma, self-realisation is a powerful symbol of assessing the adequacy of educational objectives. Therefore, the education envisaged at the University of Nigeria must be such as would espouse the truth of self-realisation. Self-realisation was impossible in a colonial country where the African had lost his identity and aped the whiteman in order to be accepted. This was a need of the hour when Nigerians, even with Nigeria's imminent independence (in 1960), lacked national consciousness, national culture and identifiable African or Nigerian personality. No amount of Western education in Europe or America can vividly present to the African the truth of his existence. The University of Nigeria was established to seek the truth about our cultural identity, to explore our environment and, by studying our own past, expose to the outside world the truth of our existence.

Addressing the Alma Mater Night of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, the Vice-Chancellor, Dr. George M. Johnson (1963) agreed that:

... distinctively, African universities could help Africa become overnight a continent of light.

That was what the University of Nigeria was founded to achieve.

Addressing the meeting on March 3, 1960 of the Provisional Council of the University of Nigeria, the Chairman outlined the philosophy of the University as follows:

- ◆ The University should have nationalist content so that it could preserve the dignity of the African as expressed by the National Congress of British West Africa when the struggle for national self-determination was at its earliest beginning.
- ◆ The University should provide the requirements of industry, commerce and society.
- ◆ It should provide cultural and vocational courses for community service.
- ◆ It should blend the “land-grant college” idea with the classical concept of universities and adapt both to the changing circumstances of contemporary Nigerian society.

The University of Nigeria also articulated in prints its guiding spirit and philosophy. Of particular relevance is the part that projects the University as a mirror that reflects its environment, and therefore its courses must be related to the daily life of Nigeria, and must focus on the socio-economic needs of the country (Ijoma, 1985:10).

Functionality Challenges of the Nigerian University Education System

Be the vision of the founding fathers of Nigerian university education as sound and optimistic as it may, there were forces that deliberately or

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inadvertently pulled the strings from behind, challenging the dreams and undermining the idea. Firstly, the prejudice of those who had colonial education was strong and, for a long time, frustrated the emergence of a coherent Nigerian indigenous educational policy. As Abdu Moumouni (1968:42) observed, opposition to the new philosophy stemmed from:

a kink of panic because of the difficulties a profound change in the educational system would entail, and from conviction that the current system inherited from colonialism 'isn't that bad', it 'proved itself', 'it educated us', and so on.

Secondly, neo-colonial forces of Europe and America were actively at work, especially as the pioneer key administrators and staff were mainly Europeans, Americans or those they had trained in their countries.

Thus, while a university is anchored on and grows on the social, economic, political, ethical, and legal environment of its society, Nigerian universities have swallowed in its entirety the external standards of Europe and America (Umeh, 1985:120). The Nigerian university graduate, like the Nigerian graduate of the British university, is incapable of giving meaningful and productive leadership in his fields in Nigeria, whereas British university produces British leaders, who play major roles in shaping passions, ideologies and societal visions, in all fields of human endeavour in Britain. The difference is that education is in proper context in developed countries, but out of context in Nigeria.

African universities are alien institutions in their own land. Their curriculum is designed for white-collar jobs. The erstwhile Ghanaian President, Kwame Nkrumah, (cited in Hagan, 1993) had this to say,

We want the university college to cease being an alien institution and to take on the character of a Ghanaian University.

Nkrumah's statement echoed the question of African universities inheriting models from the metropolitan countries, in spite of vaunted autonomy. The then President of the Democratic Republic of Congo, Mobutu Seseko, (cited in Yeikelo ya Ato and Ntumba, 1993:165) frayed up:

We need to emancipate the educational system in the Congo from the Western mode by going back to the Authenticity while paying due attention to scientific knowledge: I have always thought it inappropriate for us to train our youth as if they were Westerners. It would be more desirable to have an educational system which shapes the youth according to our requirements. That would make them authentically Congolese. Their ideas, reasoning and actions would be Congolese, and they would see the future in Congolese terms.

But, how could this dream be actualised when, according to Ali Mazrui (1993:119),

The African university was conceived primarily as a transmission belt for Western high culture, rather than a workshop for the transfer of Western high skills. African universities became nurseries for a Westernised black intellectual aristocracy. Graduates of Ibadan, Dakar, Makerere acquired Western social tastes more readily than Western organization skills. Those graduates became steeped in Western consumption patterns rather than

Western productive techniques. We became wordsmiths – and often despised blacksmiths!

Mahmood Mamdani (1993:1,795) has articulated this concern thus:

In our single minded pursuit to create centres of learning and research of international standing, we had nurtured researchers and educators who had little capacity to work in surrounding communities but who could move to any institution in any industrialised country and serve any privileged community around the globe with comparative ease. In our failure to contextualise standards and excellence to the needs of our own people, to ground the very process and agenda of learning and research in our conditions, we ended up creating an intelligentsia with little stamina for the very process of development whose vanguard we claimed to be. Like birds who cross oceans when the weather turns adverse, we had little depth and grounding, but maximum reach and mobility. So that, when the going got rough, we got going across borders.

Mamdani (2005:23) observed that many African academics were willing to submit themselves to the exigencies of nationalism and the new state, which they viewed as ‘the custodian of the development process and the university as an institution that must train human resources for development. It then seemed natural to them that the state play a key role in managing the university.’ Noting the general consensus among policy-makers and intellectuals on the basic tasks of the new nations, Abdalla Bujra (1994:125) observed,

Unfortunately however it is not clear whether the knowledge produced by these institutions at the time had any direct or indirect contribution to the modest economic growth of most African countries during the 1960s ... These institutions were largely transmitters of metropolitan social science.

The colonialists claimed universalism to justify imposing their history on the universities of their erstwhile colonies to the disadvantage of indigenous history, culture, language and values. Thandika Mkandawire (2005:6) writes,

One-sidedness and racist historiography served the colonial ideological apparatus. Colonial historiography denied African agency and was essentially an account of the itineraries of explorers, trade merchants, missionaries and colonisers.

He further submits that the African that imbibed this history is ahistorical because it is all about a glorious past, and asocial because it fails to deal with the social contradictions that drive all social history.

Besides the issues of history lies the issue of language, culture and values which should give Africa its own modernity and development. Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1986) argues that in order for Africa to advance it must rescue African memories from the clutches of the colonial past, whose vestiges still crowd out Africa's own memories and obstruct the vision of the future. African graduates need to reconnect to their societies. How does an African graduate, trained in languages of the erstwhile colonial masters, cease becoming one of the informed natives taking to the outside world, bearers of the memory of the colonisers, and become instrumental in turning African cultures into pillars of a self-confident Africa?

Cultural embeddedness is important for the vitality and originality of the African graduates' creativity. The inclination of African graduate is encumbered in content and dissemination by the weight of colonial languages in which he is groomed. Indigenous language is a vehicle for regaining Africa's memory, a crucial medium for harnessing human resources and grounding scientific knowledge in African realities. It is the only way science and technology can become part of the common sense and world-view of the wider African public and underpin the scientific and technological knowledge required for the development of the continent (Mkandawire, 2005:7).

Human resources are the linchpin of any development. In order for human resources to act as 'agents of change,' however, they must be transferred, through education, into knowledgeable and skilled actors. Education takes place as a result of effective communication through the medium of language. Hence the importance of the question of language to development.

Uprooting these adverse and inimical factors and placing Africans in the centre-stage in the history, culture, language and values of their continent is an urgent task in the construction of an intellectual arsenal for the liberation of the continent and the decolonisation of the mind.

The impact of Western curriculum, history, language, culture and values inherited from the West for the Nigerian university education system are far-reaching. If African intellectuals are to rise to the challenges, then they will have to address the historical language legacy, which has made African intellectuals outsiders in their own society.

African Diaspora continue to grow from strength to strength because they were miseducated in foreign languages, history, culture and values, and are, therefore, dysfunctional in their homelands, but at ease and at home in foreign lands based on their in training and orientation. Migration and globalisation have deepened the problem of brain-drain from Africa to the advantage of Europe and America. Zeleza (1998) cites

studies which indicate that in the 1980s an average of 23,000 qualified academic staff were emigrating from Africa each year. An estimate in 1995 gave the figure of 50,000. He observed that the contemporary academic Diaspora in the United States and elsewhere in the North is becoming a force to reckon with (Zezeza, 2003). So are other categories of emigrant graduates, school-leavers and artisans.

In Nigeria's public sector-led economy of the 1960s to mid-1980s, the graduates from Nigerian universities proved their worth in the public service of white-collar jobs. In today-Nigeria's private sector-led economy, Nigerian university graduates cannot meet employers needs. They cannot prove their mettle. The graduates are loafers, job seekers, as against graduate workers and job creators (Makinde, 2005:62). Many of them cannot make a correct sentence and cannot defend their certificates by competently handling the jobs imposed on them by their much-vaunted qualifications. Out of 130,000 graduates that pass out every year from Nigerian universities and higher institutions, only 13,000 (10%) of them are able to secure employment (Gyamfi, 2006:41). They cannot even engage selves and create jobs, but may remain jobless job seekers for many years to come. They are neither employable, nor enterprise-ready. It is as serious as this.

If Nigerian universities' products are mostly unemployable, it follows that the universities' research projects are mostly irrelevant to the private sector with which Nigerian universities could partner for revenue generation, commercialisation of universities' research findings and mutual growth of both sectors for national economic development. On account of current dysfunctionality of most Nigerian universities' graduates and research outputs, the Nigerian university education system fulfils only a little of the vision for their establishment. It does appear there is a death of the idea of the founding fathers (Nwakanma, 2006).

In the present dispensation, there is a yawning gap between the curriculum of Nigerian university education system and the roles its graduates are expected to play in the society in accordance with the vision

of the founding fathers of the system. It has, therefore, become imperative to rethink the curriculum of Nigerian university education system in the context of the visions of its founding fathers so as to improve the functionality of the system. The new curriculum should aim at making the Nigerian university graduates enterprise-ready for employment and self-reliance. The indigenous culture, history, language and values must take the centre stage of the new curriculum and must dominate the research projects in the system.

Conclusion

The founders of Nigerian university education aimed to relate the activities of the universities mainly to the social and economic needs and day-to-day life of the people of Nigeria, thereby providing the requirements of industry, commerce and society. If these aspirations were met in the early years of the universities, they are no longer met toady. Time has changed tremendously.

The quality of the universities' graduates and research outputs of toady, in relation to the expectations of local employers of labour and the organisations that should commercialise research findings, are far from fulfilling the noble visions of the founding fathers of Nigerian university education system. Therefore, an urgent rethink on the curriculum of Nigerian university education system in line with the visions of the founding fathers of the system and changing times, has become imperative.

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GLOBAL POSITIONING, SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT AND MANAGEMENT OF ROAD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

This paper examines the global positioning, socio-economic impact and management of road traffic accidents in Nigeria. Nigeria has a serious road accident problem and more road safety measures need to be introduced for its effective management. In order to identify priorities for actions it is important that there is a clear understanding of the road accident problem and the likely effectiveness of road safety improvements. It is therefore, a priority for Nigeria to have an appropriate accident information system and that they carry out research and evaluation studies of remedial measures. Another basic requirement is a well trained road safety teams which are capable of co-ordinating and integrating a wide range of programmes for road safety at lowest cost.

Keywords: *Road crashes quantum and management; Socio-economic impact; Nigeria*

Introduction

Nigeria, like other developing countries is experiencing a rapid increase in motorization without having adequate road traffic safety mechanisms in place to control the growing number of road traffic crashes and injuries. As reported for other low-and-middle income countries, the main victims are pedestrians, cyclists and public transport passengers (Nantulya et al, 2003, Downing, 1991).

In Nigeria road traffic accident situation over the last three decades has been particularly disturbing. In 1976, there were 53,897 road traffic accidents resulting in 7,717 deaths. Although in 1981, the magnitude reduced to 5,114 accidents, but the fatality increased to 10,236 which means that there was an average of 96 accidents and situation in subsequent years has not been any better. The number of people killed in road accidents between 1990 and 2005 rose from 28,253 and the fatality rate remains consistently high (Atubi, 2009c).

Statistics on road accidents in Nigeria reveal a serious and growing problem with absolute fatality rate and causality figure rising rapidly. In majority of developing countries accident occurrence and related deaths are relative to either population or number of vehicles. Ironically, in Nigeria, studies have indicated that better facilities in terms of good quality and standardized roads have been accompanied by increasing number of accidents (Onakomarya, 1988; Gbodamosi, 2002; Atubi and Onokala, 2009). This is totally contrary to the trends in countries where even the level of sophisticated road network and volume of vehicular traffic are which higher (Atubi, 2010a, 2015a).

Road traffic accidents have physical, social, emotional and economic implications. The global economic cost of road traffic accident was estimated at \$518 billion per year in 2003 and \$100 billion of that occurring in poor developing countries (WHO, 2009). Nigeria loses about 80 billion naira annually to road accidents of all subjects that are involved in road traffic accidents in Nigeria, 29.1% suffer disability and 13.5% are unable to return to work (Labinjo et al, 2010; Atubi, 2012a).

In almost all countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America road traffic crashes have become one of the leading causes of death in older children and economically active adults between the ages 30 and 49 years (Murray et al, 1996; Jacobs et al, 2000 and Atubi, 2012g). Despite this burgeoning problem, little attention has been paid to road traffic injury prevention and treatment in most developing countries. Efforts to combat the problem of injuries have in most cases been hampered by paucity of funds and lack of relevant data. It is however, a fact that organised road safety research, adoption of cost effective accident reduction and prevention techniques and trauma care are associated with a decreased road traffic mortality and morbidity (Murray et al, 1996).

Global Positioning and Spatial Analysis of RTA and Fatality in Nigeria

Road traffic accident has emerged as the single greatest source of human and material losses (Downing, (1991).He further commented that, throughout the world at least half a million people are killed and about 15 million injured as a result of road traffic accidents each year. The causality and fatality intensity vary significantly among different locations and it depends on specific factors in relation to different environment which include: population, traffic intensity, compliance to traffic regulation and the extent of preventive and remedial measures put in place in different countries.

RTA is single largest course of deaths in Nigeria and has constituted a growing public health problem in the country. Nigeria has been facing a worsening situation with regards to loss of lives and property. Pedestrian in recent times with the advent of motorcycle transport service (*okada*) on Nigerian roads which has aggravated their exposure to danger considering the uncoordinated and dangerous operation of motor cycle riders, they appear most frequently amongst those injured and killed in road accidents.

Growth in urbanization and in numbers of vehicles in most Nigerian cities is clearly responsible for traffic accidents and

congestions considering the fact Nigeria has one of the worst scenarios of accident occurrence as it ranked high as one of the countries in Africa with high incidence of road traffic accidents. The level of fatality of road traffic accident in Nigeria is quite worrisome considering the extent of human and material losses suffered as a result of traffic accident fatalities. The situation with road traffic accidents in Nigeria is uniquely high as a result of the overdependence of spatial mobility demand of commuters on the road mode. The road transport sub sector has continued to grow much more than other transport sub sectors in terms of motor vehicles in operation size of road network. Not less than 90% of Nigerian mobility needs in terms of movement of goods and services are satisfied through the mode at the expense of the potential contribution other modes. The over reliance on the road system constitute the creation of unnecessary pressure on the highway in the country which more often than not resulted in regular occurrence of accidents, a situation that has been made worse by their deteriorating condition (Gbadamosi, 2005).

The World Health Organization (WHO 1984) estimated that 1.3 million deaths occur each year worldwide due to road traffic accidents and well over 90% of road traffic crashes are caused by human error resulting in over 50 million people seriously injured every year and 3,500 deaths per day or 150deaths per hour. It is on record that about 70% of these deaths occur in developing countries of which Nigeria constitute a part.

The increasing magnitude of fatal road traffic accident globally has been attributed to population explosion and increased level of motorization. Motor vehicle crashes are the leading cause of death in adolescent and people in the prime age (Moham et al, 1991; Smith et al, 1991 and Atubi et al, 2009). There has been an upsurge in the proportion and absolute number of traffic fatalities witnessed in a number of developing countries while the industrial nations are witnessing downward trend in the occurrence of accident by more than 20%. Road traffic accidents have impacted negatively on the economy of developing countries at an estimated cost of 1-2% of country's GNP

per annum as a result of morbidity, mortality and property related cost (Fourace et al, 1976; Jacobs et al, 1983; WHO, 1989; Jadaan, 1989; Dowing, 1991). The advent of automobile comes along with the negative consequence of accident arising from its misuse. United States of America had its first death from automobile accident in 1899 (Johnson 1966). WHO has consistently provide extensive information on road traffic injuries as the leading risk factors of the consequences of transport operation. Nigeria has an unenviable record of road traffic accidents as a developing country and recorded her first traffic accident in Lagos in 1906.

The World Health Organization report over the years has consistently revealed that road traffic injuries are the eight leading cause of death for people in their prime age. According to the 2013 WHO on Global status report on road safety (2013), more than a million people die each year on the world's roads, while the cost of dealing with the consequences of these crashes runs to billions of dollars with varying degrees of impact on the economy of different countries. Road traffic accident situation in Nigeria has been alarming and particularly disturbing ever since the first auto crash was recorded. Nigeria traffic accidents vary by states. Nigeria has been consistently ranked with the highest incidence of road traffic accidents in the world for obvious reasons, in addition to known causes of accidents across the globe, which include very bad road arising from poor maintenance culture and poor road management.

Arising from the increasing growth of automobile in the country is the occurrence of road traffic accidents which is a major impediment in the operation of intercity movement of passengers across major cities. Closely associated with this is the highway robbery especially targeted at passenger vehicles of which the most vulnerable are the coaches (luxury buses) on intercity transport services.

An attempt has been made at this point to reflect on the spatial pattern of road traffic accident and vehicular growth in Nigeria over a period of time. The data considered were available only from 1970-

2013. The period was crucial because of the availability of data on vehicle in stock in the country as at that material time. The data in the table reflected an apparently high accident figure given each level of vehicle stock. As can be seen from the table vehicle stock maintains a steady increase, so also is the level of accident occurrence. The number of deaths in relation to vehicle is also on a steady increase and the levels of accident reflect the same pattern of deaths. A closer evaluation of the figures in the table revealed that the period with high accident is marked with high death but the pattern is declining.

Table 1: Vehicular traffic and accident occurrence in Nigeria 1970-2013

Year	Estimate of vehicle in use ('000) 1	No of accident 2	No of deaths 3	Accident Per i000 vehicle in use 4	Death per 1000 vehicle in use 5
1970	145	16,666	2895	115	20
1971	166	17,745	3146	107	19
1972	195	23,317	3921	120	20
1973	238	20,474	4537	86	19
1974	292	28924	13850	99	47
1975	320	32651	5552	102	17
1976	345	53947	7217	156	21
1977	394	35861	8001	91	20
1978	464	35916	9254	77	20
1979	340	29435	8022	87	24
1980	650	32119	8740	49	13
1981	429	34338	10332	80	24
1982	305	37253	11202	122	37
1983	600	31453	10369	52	17
1984	605	28103	9295	46	15
1985	608	32985	9379	54	15
1986	602	26046	9204	43	15
1987	348	24247	8111	70	23
1988	467	25929	8575	56	18
1989	386	23227	9386	60	24
1990	303	21934	8154	72	27
1991	331	22546	9525	68	29
1992	298	22864	9620	77	32
1993	268	21459	9454	80	35
1994	241	18204	7440	76	31
1995	217	17030	6647	78	31
1996	244	18242	6364	75	26
1997	293	17488	6500	60	22
1998	269	16138	6538	60	24

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1999	356	15865	6795	45	19
2000	1100	16606	8473	15	8
2001	1153	20530	9946	18	9
2002	1196	14544	7407	12	6
2003	1324	14364	6452	11	5
2004	1356	14275	5351	11	4
2005	1403	9062	4519	6	3
2006	1340	9114	4944	7	4
2007	1367	8477	4673	6	3
2008	1394	11341	6661	8	5
2009	1420	10854	5693	8	4
2010	1447	5330	4065	4	3
2011	1454	4765	4372	3	3
2012	1476	6269	4260	4	3
2013	1498	12722	4062	8	3
Total	29647	940659	318903	2484.95	769.515
Ave.	673.80	21378.61	7247.80	56.48	17.49

- Sources:*
1. Federal Office of Statistics, Lagos . (2000)
 2. Nigerian Police and Federal Road Safety Corps (2000 & 2013)
 3. 4 & 5 are Authors Estimates
 4. Gbadamosi , K.T. (2005 & 2015)
 5. Atubi, A.O. (2013)

Strategies for investigating accidents

Road traffic accident rates and fatality rates in the industrialized countries have tended to exhibit pronounced decreasing time trends. Oppe (1991) interprets the downward trend as evidence of experimental learning, while Peltzman (1975), Harvey and Durbin (1986) and Broughton (1999) treat it as a nuisance parameter that happens to be essential for model fitting.

Motor vehicle traffic injuries (MVTI) is an important public problem in both developed (Baker et al, 1992; Graham, 1993) and developing countries (Smith and Barss, 1991; Berger and Mohan, 1996). When designing a relevant MVTI control program, the first two questions that should be asked are ‘who’ are at the highest risk, and ‘where’ are MVTI’s most likely to occur. Regional MVTI mortality data are the statistics commonly used by health authorities to answer these questions (National committee for injury prevention and control, 1989; Bjaras, 1993).

Regional MVTI mortality rates calculated according to the place – or – occurrence might have different meaning from those calculated according to the place – to – residence: the former reflects area – specific environmental risk factors for MVTI, while the latter reflects characteristics of the residents that render them at increased risk for MVTI (Cummings et al, 1995). The two calculation have different implications for prevention programmes. While many scholars have pointed out that the problem of using place – of – residence in calculating regional MVTI mortality rates (Bangdiwala et al, 1985, Robertson, 1992; Cummings et al, 1995; Gooder and Charny, 2006), only two studies provided empirical data to illustrate the implication (Baker et al 1987; Gooder and Charny, 2006).

However, experience from other countries show that small roundabout were an effective speed reducing measure (Simon, 1991). He also concluded that small round about increased safety. Minnen (1992) reported that new round about reduce the total number of accidents by 50% and the number of casualties by 80%. He also showed that small round about normally have the lowest accident rate of all types of, one – level junctions, but he found a tendency towards problems for two – wheeled vehicles.

While traffic related injuries take a very large toll in almost every country around the world particularly in developing countries or less industrialized countries, significant progress towards prevention and control has been limited to high income and/or highly industrialized countries (Soderland and Zwi, 2001; Zaza et al, 2003). Much of the progress in developed countries is attributable to the combination of interventions, strategies and policies that have been developed mainly in these developed countries settings over the past few decades. Such factors as high health budgets, adequate number of researchers, high levels of health and safety awareness, and near universal literacy, have also catalyzed this progress (Rivara et al, 2000; Barss et al, 2001; Forjuoh, 2003). Reducing road traffic accident is truly a global challenge and succeeding will require the involvement of

multiple stakeholders at the global, national and community levels (Atubi, 2014).

In the early 1970's, a survey of road traffic accident information systems in use in developing countries (Jacobs et al, 1975) indicated that only 15 percent of the countries had adequate accident report forms and none had computer analyses facilities. Therefore, to help countries improve their accident investigation and research capability, the overseas unit developed its Micro Computer Accident Analysis Package (MAAP), initially in collaboration with the traffic police in Egypt, (Hills and Elliott, 1986). However, in 2004, it is now in use in over twelve countries. It is the nationally adopted system for Botswana and Papua New Guinea, and regionally adopted in most of the other countries; major cities in which MAAP is established including Bandung, Beijing, Karachi and Islamabad. The languages that MAAP operates in include Arabic, Chinese, French, English and Spanish (Jacobs et al, 2000).

Studies of the relationship between geometric design and road accidents in Kenya and Jamaica (Jacobs, 1976) and research in Chile and India indicated, not unexpectedly, that junctions per kilometer was the most significant factor related to accidents, followed by horizontal and vertical curvature.

Socio-economic impact of road traffic accidents

It is apparent that road accident is a complex phenomenon not only in terms of its diverse causes but also in the nature of its effects on lives and property. Apart from the humanitarian aspects of road safety, the injuries and fatalities, which occur as a result of road accidents, have serious social and economic consequence, which has made prospective travelers to develop phobia for spatial interaction. This under normal circumstances would have prevented and nicked in the bud all business initiatives that would have taken place at location different from the locations of business tycoons given the fear of the unknown in relation to likelihood of being involved in road traffic accidents.

Road traffic accidents have physical, social, emotional and economic implications. The global economic cost of road traffic accident was estimated at \$518 billion per year in 2003 with \$100 billion of that occurring in poor developing countries (WHO, 2009) Nigeria loses about 80 billion naira annually to road accidents. Of all subjects that are involved in road traffic accidents in Nigeria, 29.1 percent suffer disability and 13.5 percent are unable to return to work (Labinjo et al, 2010; Atubi 2012a).

Road traffic injuries are increasing worldwide with developing countries bearing the brunt of this scourge. It has been projected that road traffic injuries will be the second most common cause of disability – adjusted life year loss in developing countries by the year 2020 (Murray and Lopez, 1996; WHO, 1996). Road traffic accident resulted in the year 2002 alone in injury of more than 35 million people worldwide, out of them 5 million became permanently disabled and 1.2 million died (Nasar, 2003).

The economic cost of road crashes and injuries is also immense. Road traffic injuries is estimated to be 1% of Gross National Product (GNP) in low-income countries, 1.5% in middle – income countries and 2% in high – income countries. Low – income and middle – income countries account for US \$65 billion, more than they receive in developing assistance (Safety – Net, 2006).

Indeed, a World Bank study has shown that the economic development of regions and nations is associated with an increase in the number of injuries and deaths from road traffic crashes (Kopits, et al, 2005). Road traffic injuries place a heavy burden not only on global and international economies but also on household finances. Many families are driven deeply into poverty by the loss of bread winners and the added burden of caring for members disabled by road traffic injuries. Also, among males of the economically active age-group, motor vehicle injuries are the third most important cause of death in developing countries. However, the health and economic burden of road traffic injuries have not been fully recognized (Zwi, 1993). Accurate epidemiological data from many of the developing countries

are difficult to find in the literature (Van et al, 2006). Hospital logs or police records from which data on accident injuries could be sourced under estimate the total burden of the injuries (Balogun et al 1992; Asogwa, 1992; Atubi; 2012t). Besides, despite the importance of injury as a public health problem, few studies have been concerned with the economic and social impacts. This is due to many factors most of which are related to availability of reliable data (Afukaar et al, 2003).

In Nigeria, road traffic crashes have become one of the leading causes of death in older children and economically active adults between the ages of 30 and 49 years (Murray et al, 1997; Jacobs et al, 2000). Despite this burgeoning problem, little attention has been paid to road traffic injury prevention and treatment in Nigeria and most developing countries. Pratte (1998) and Aderemo (2012) reported that gross underestimation of road traffic accidents injuries and fatalities in Nigeria could be due to a lack of sufficient data collection by government agencies. The socio-economic cost of road traffic accidents and injuries in Nigeria are immense. The direct cost of traffic casualties can perhaps best be understood in terms of the labour lost to the nation's economy which consequently results in low productivity. Road traffic accidents and injuries have significantly retorted Nigeria's socio-economic aspirations and development due to the premature loss of qualified and potential contributing professionals and able – bodied men and women in the labour force (Preatte, 1998; Aderemo, 2012).

Road Safety Policies and Interventions for Nigeria

Oyo State was the first to establish a Road safety commission in Nigeria through edit 18 of 1977. It was referred to as “Oyo State Road Safety Corps” and nicknamed “MAJAMAJA”. The commission's mandate included preventing and minimising road accidents, taking prompt care of victims of road accidents, educating drivers and prospective drivers in the proper use of highways, conducting research into causes of motor accidents and methods of prevention. The corps along Federal , State and Local Government roads in Oyo State with emphasis on the first two. An Evaluation of the effectiveness of the

Corps revealed that it slightly reduced the rate of injuries resulting from road traffic accidents between 1978 and 1981. It , however, did not make a meaningful impact on reduction of accident fatality rates. The Oyo State Corps died a natural death when the then Federal Government banned it from operating on Federal Roads in that State resulting from inter-party feuds between NPN controlled Federal Government and the UPN government of Oyo State.

After the demise of Oyo State Road Safety Corps, the Federal Road Safety Commission (FRSC) was formed with bases at the Federal Ministry of Works and Housing and States' Ministries of Transport. The Commission worked with two important committees, namely, the Research Committee and Implementation Committee. The Commission was successful in getting many people in the entire country and more importantly at the federal level to become more aware of the road safety problem.

The Federal Road Safety Commission was established under Decree 45 of 13th December 1988 with jurisdiction limiting its operations to only Federal Highways. The Jurisdiction was enlarged and further extended by an amendment Decree 35 of August , 1992 to cover all roads in Nigeria. The most strategic and enduring road safety policy is the establishment of the Federal Road Safety Commission (FRSC). The Commission was empowered by law to carry out the following:

1. Prevent or minimizing accidents on the highways.
2. Clearing obstructions on any part of the highway
3. Education drivers, motorist and other members of the public generally on the proper use of the highways
4. Giving prompt attention and care to victims of accidents.
5. Conducting researches into cause of motor accidents and methods of preventing them
6. Determining and enforcing speed limits for all categories of road s and vehicles.

All these and many others are what the law permits the Federal Road Safety Commission to execute with measures of force when the need arises. The Commission had been able to live up to expectation as the country has witnessed a gradual reduction in the magnitude of accident occurrence since their introduction.

Experience in developed countries shows that multiple programme and policy initiative can produce a rapid decline in deaths associated with road traffic injuries. Interventions such as the use of seat belts, child car seats, motorcycle helmets, enhanced enforcement programmes, alcohol control policies and traffic calming have all proved effective in reducing traffic injuries and preventing crashes in high – income countries. Policies of the developed countries however, cannot simply be transferred to low and middle – income countries because vulnerable groups at risk and the cultural, social economic and political contexts in developing countries are different (Nantulya et al, 2002; Nantulya et al, 2003).

Furthermore, approaches shown to be effective in developed countries may not give similar results in the developing world. For example the mere presence of a seat belt in an automobile may not suffice for effective intervention unless complemented with public education and enforcement by law enforcement officers. Additionally, many specific interventions and strategies requires some administrative infrastructure for implementation, epidemiology for planning and prioritising and some fundamental pragmatic requirements (Trinca et al, 1988; Atubi and Ekrudjalgar, 2008).

Interventions programme on accident prevention policies in Nigeria

With a daily average of 76 fatalities, 104 casualties and 14.2 deaths per 100,000 population for the year 2004 from road traffic accident (Atubi, 2013), Nigeria seems to have increased its fatality rate per accident even though the absolute number of the accident seems to have decreased. The establishment of the Federal Road Safety Commission to evolve a scientific and cultural relevant programme to

meet the objective of its role as enunciated in degree No. 45, 1988 is another in the efforts of government to increase safety measures in Nigeria.

One factor that has worsened this accident rate is the use of poorly maintained vehicle occasioned by the structural adjustment policy of 1989. This is further worsened by lack of genuine spare parts, and the flooding of the market by fake spare parts. These further put the life of the drivers and passengers at greater risk. Similarly, the cost of tyres which has been put beyond the reach of the average car owners has led a lot of people to their untimely death. Inability to change these bad tyres lead to blowouts. This situation therefore have turned many a vehicle to “mobile coffins”. However some of the interventions for Nigeria include:

i. Seatbelts

No matter how you will drive there is always a chance that you will be involved in an accident. You cannot predict when it may happen. From statistical analysis of road traffic accidents in Nigeria since independence the chance that one will be injured in an accident in his life time is 1:3; that he may be killed in an accident is 1:9. The best protection inside the vehicle is the use of seat belts (Federal Road Safety Commission Highway Code, 1997).

Similarly, the use of seat belts in Nigeria was optional, hence many vehicle are not fitted with seat belts. In those that have them, they are not being utilized by drivers and passengers alike. But currently, the Federal Road Safety Commission has made the use of seat belts compulsory to all motorists with effect from July 1st 2005 (The Guardian Newspaper, July 2nd, 2005, p. 14). In most developed nations especially Britain, a lot of money has been sunk into the implementation of the use of seat belts. The seat belt is an example of an active intervention for occupants because it requires some action on the part of the users. Its effectiveness in preventing injury and death in motor vehicle collisions has been well established by many earlier

research studies (Final rule, 1984; Mueller et al, 1988; Rivera et al, 2000).

ii. Motorcycle helmets

Safety helmet worn in the correct way and properly fastened is the most effective way could increase your chances of surviving an accident (Federal Road Safety Commission Highway Code, 1997). In the time past, various laws were enacted by Federal, State and Local governments to curb the excesses of the riders. These include the National Road Traffic Regulation of 2004 and FRSC Establishment Act 2007 to mention a few. The acquisition of motorcycle helmets is well within the budgets of the people who afford motorcycles in this country. In addition, promulgating helmet laws has been associated with significant decrease in mortality and injuries sustained from motorcycle crashes (Fasakin, 2000; Fasakin, 2002). When a motorcycle is acquired, purchase of an approved helmet should be encouraged or even mandated in low-income countries (LICs) given the feasibility and potential sustainability of this intervention.

Just like seat belts have proven effective in motor vehicle crash related injury reduction, motorcycle helmets have proved effective in motorcycle crash related injury reduction making motorcycle helmet laws a strategy with proven effectiveness. In fact, recent research findings in settings other than the United States corroborate the evidence for the effectiveness of mandatory motorcycle helmet laws (Tsai et al, 2000; Conrad et al, 2001; Atubi, 2006).

iii. Speed limits

Drivers often think that the faster they drive, the more they impress themselves and others. They fail to remember that anybody's tyre can burst that accidents at high speed are more disastrous than accidents at low speed; that the vehicle is a machine and can fail at any time. At 100kmph, your vehicle moves at 28 metres per second, just imagine where you could be in only one second if you veer off the road which

is usually less than 12 metres wide (Federal Road Safety Commission Highway Code, 1997; Atubi and Ekruwdjiakpor, 2008).

The Federal Road Safety Commission also imposed speed limit for all categories of vehicles i.e. 100kmph maximum speed for all private cars, 90kmph for commercial vehicles and 60kmph for trucks. But common sense often dictates lower speed limits. Speeding on highways is a major cause of traffic crashes. The effect of speed on causing traffic related crashes, injuries and deaths has been documented in many settings (Farmer et al, 1999; Posada et al, 2000). For example, the 1995 repeal of the United States national maximum speed limit, allowing states to raise interstate speed limits, resulted in a 15% increase in fatalities in 24 states that raised speed limits. In Adelaide, Australia the risk of severe crash involvement was found to increase as vehicles speed increased (Moore et al, 1995). Infact, the over 20% reduction in traffic crashes and deaths in Brazil has been partly attributed to speed limits which have been posted on many roads since 1998 (Polidefigueiredo 2001).

iv. Public education targeting motorists

Your safety depends on what you see and how you react. If you need spectacles to meet the official eye sight standard, wear them. It is an offence to drive with uncorrected defective vision. For example, a Nigerian study found a third of taxi drivers to have poor vision (Alakija, 2003). Although the findings from a 1999 study revealed the ineffectiveness of driver education for young drivers (Vernick et al, 2001), there is some evidence that general public education along with some behavioural modification that targets motorists may have some impact on road safety. One area is education of motorists on posted traffic signs. A recent study in three countries i.e. United States, Sweden and United Kingdom, showed that comprehension of 28 posted traffic signs for drivers were related to years of driving experience (Al-madani, 2000).

v. Traffic Control by Signs

A thorough knowledge of traffic signs, signals, road and markings together with signals by authorized traffic officers are to ensure a smooth and safe traffic flows. You must know them and be able to recognize them immediately. In the case of regulatory signs such as stop at intersection, stop police, stop highway survey, no left turn, no right turn, No “U” turn, No entry for lorries, no waiting, etc, you must obey them without hesitation.

Conclusion

Road safety is a shared responsibility. Reducing risk in the world’s road traffic systems requires commitment and informed decision-making by government, industry, non-governmental organizations and international agencies. It also requires the participation of people from many different disciplines, including road engineers, motor vehicle designers, law enforcement officers, health professionals, educators, and community groups.

Road traffic crashes are predictable and can be prevented. Many countries have shown sharp reductions in the number of crashes and casualties by taking actions including:

- Raising awareness of, legislating and enforcing laws governing speed limits, alcohol impairment, seat-belt use, child restraints and safety helmets.
- Formulating and implementing transport and land-use policies that promote safer and more efficient trips; encouraging the use of safer modes of travel, such as public transport; and incorporating injury prevention measures into traffic management and road design.
- Making vehicles more protective and visible for occupants, pedestrians and cyclists; using daytime running lights, high-mounted brake lights and reflective materials on cycles, carts, rickshaws and other non-motorized forms of transport.

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A STUDY ON THE IMPORTANCE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF NIGERIA

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Abstract

This analytical study investigated the importance of entrepreneurship in the economic development of Nigeria. A mixed approach of quantitative, qualitative and participatory methodologies were used for data collection, analysis and output. Primary data gathering strategy was purposefully aimed at connecting with community leaders at the grass-roots. Raw data were collected using survey method since they have the capacity to generate large amount of data which can be statistically analysed. A Sample frame of selected communities within the six geopolitical zones was randomly surveyed and initial pilot study of one community from each zone was used to test-run and inform decisions on the final strategy for the entire research project.

Introduction

The Nigerian economy has made tremendous progress in recent years, with a strong reserve, stable exchange rate, reduced inflation, a stronger financial (banking) sector, the second fastest growing telecommunication sector in the world, and impressive on-going GDP growth. The economic development is thus changing for the better with more opportunities for international partnerships and for Nigerians to take charge of their future and destiny. Nigeria, as part of the N-11, has

reflected improved economic fundamentals and her equity markets have generally performed well. However, more still needs to be done in terms of job creation and the development of Nigeria's Micro, Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (MSMEs) sector.

Around the globe, policy makers and academics agree that entrepreneurship is crucial to the progress and well-being of any society. Entrepreneurs create jobs: they drive and nurture innovation which speeds up structural changes in the economy. The Nigerian economy's prosperity is highly dependent on a vibrant entrepreneurship sector. With fewer work positions, job losses and fall in the oil price, the economy will benefit immensely from self-employment. Qualitative data provided as information in this paper can sway policy makers and the preference for social and economic reform (Barrett & Burgess, 2008). Such information, provide momentous solutions to managements, leaders or decision makers who develop strategic plans and are essentially the key drivers of change in the moral and political climate of any society (Cornelius, 2002). Consequently, the actions of policy makers have a profound effect on the way in which businesses operate (Campbell & Craig, 2005). This paper implies that the nation's economy's entrepreneurial capacity requires individuals who are willing to or who already have the ability and motivation for entrepreneurial activity; or that there are individuals who are ready to acquire the skills and motivation to start businesses, in addition to the government's role in providing the necessary enablers and positive perception about entrepreneurship.

Joseph Alois Schumpeter generally known as the 'father of entrepreneurship' saw entrepreneurship as a major factor of production. It is the catalyst of economic growth and revitalization. Entrepreneurship is a dynamic process of vision, change, and creation. It requires an application of energy and

passion towards the creation and implementation of new ideas and creative solutions (Kurato & Hodgetts, 2004). Essential ingredients of entrepreneurship include the willingness to take calculated risks – in terms of time, equity, or career; the ability to formulate an effective venture team; the creative skill to marshal needed; and fundamental skill of building solid business plan; and finally, the vision to recognise opportunity where others see chaos, contradiction, and confusion (Kurato & Hodgetts, 2004). Schumpeter (1936) and Drucker (1985) affirm that innovation is a fundamental part of entrepreneurship and when employees (or business owners) perform creatively, they suggest novel and useful products, ideas, or procedures that provide an organisation with raw material for subsequent development and implementation (Oldham and Cummings, 1996).

Problem Statement

Our population consists of a vibrant youth populace in semi-urban communities. Traditionally, the main occupations in the communities are farming, palm cutting for palm oil and fishing. Following some few developments within the last two decades, most members of some of rural communities are now mainly civil servants, quarry operators and artisans in other trades. However, the increasing rate of unemployment in Nigeria in general, is a major concern to the Federal and state Governments. High rate of unemployment has been identified as one of the serious impediments to social and economic development in the Nigeria. With the Nigerian population estimated at a little over 170 million, the World Bank statistics in 2009 reported that about 40 million Nigerian youths were unemployed. According to Dr. Ismail Radwan, a senior economist with the World Bank, 50 million youths were underemployed and three million new job seekers join the unemployment category annually. In addition, the Lagos

Chamber of Commerce and Industry (LCCI) said the rate of unemployment in the Nigerian economy is currently one of the highest in the world, where over 50 per cent of the youths in urban and rural areas are unemployed. Lessons learned from the revolt in other African countries such as Algeria, Tunisia, and Egypt suggests that the problem of unemployed youths could be catastrophic if not swiftly and adequately addressed. Likewise, the army of unemployed youths and its relationship with militancy in the Niger Delta is an indication of the urgent need for more job creation and meaningful employment.

Further situation analysis from previous research reports such as the one on the Niger Delta shows that it is likened to a place of frustrated expectations and deep-rooted mistrust. Unprecedented restiveness which at times erupts to violence and long years of neglect and conflict has fostered a siege mentality. Especially among youths who feel they are condemned to a future without hope, and see conflict as a strategy to escape deprivation. Thus there is a disconnection between the acclaimed *wealth* of the oil rich region and level of poverty incidence. Empirical evidence from the National Bureau of Statistics is illustrated in Table 7.1.

The thirty-six states in Nigeria have been classified into six geopolitical zones, namely, the North Eastern Zone (NE), the North-Central Zone (NC), the Middle-Belt Zone (MB), the South-East Zone (SE), the South-West Zone (SW), and South-South Zone (SS) as shown in Figure 7.1. On this premise, a possible solution to the unemployment epidemic in these regions is first to have a good knowledge of the youth unemployment through empirical research such as this, and the development of entrepreneurial/employment opportunities and capacity which will lead to economic growth and sustainable development which are measurable in terms of numbers of job created, self-employment opportunities, Micro, Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SMEs) creation/growth,

community co-operative groups, self-help-groups (SHGs), created and other self-reliant ventures.

Table 7.1 Incidence of Poverty in the Niger Delta Region from 1980 to 2004

S/N	Country/State	1980	1985	1992	1996	2004
1.	Nigeria	28.1	46.3	42.7	65.6	54.4
2.	Edo/Delta	19.8	52.4	33.9	56.1	Delta 45.35; Edo 33.09
3.	Cross River	10.2	41.9	45.5	66.9	41.61
4.	Imo/Abia	14.4	33.1	49.9	56.2	Imo 27.39; Abia 22.37
5.	Ondo	24.9	47.3	46.6	71.6	42.15
6.	Rivers/Bayelsa	7.2	44.4	43.4	44.3	Rivers 29.09; Bayelsa 19.98

Source: National Bureau of Statistics

Figure 7.2 Map of Nigeria showing the six geopolitical zones



Aim and Objectives of the study

The aim of the study is to investigate the importance of entrepreneurship in the economic development of Nigeria. Specific objectives of the research are:

1. To review the problem of youth unemployment in Nigeria through the lenses of entrepreneurship
2. To identify existing level of entrepreneurial knowledge amongst youths in Nigeria
3. To develop a conceptual framework from literature review for understanding the relationship between entrepreneurship and economic development
4. To identify skills gap relevant to the growth and development of viable SMEs in Nigeria
5. To conduct a skills audit of youths in the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria
6. To conduct a skills gap analysis of youths in six geopolitical zones of Nigeria

Thus, the aim of the research links directly with the objectives of the investigation and forms the basis for the qualitative and quantitative methodological approach.

Review of related literature

Thus, the high rate of unemployment has been identified as one of the serious impediments to social and economic progress in sub-Saharan African and Nigeria in particular. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines the unemployed as *number of economically active population who are without work but available for and seeking work, including people who have lost their jobs and those who have voluntarily left work*. However, the increasing rate of unemployment in the Niger Delta and Nigeria in general, is a major concern to both Federal, state governments and communities. High rate of unemployment have been identified as one of the serious impediments to social and economic progress in Nigeria. Chart 1 below has data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) which reveals that the unemployment rate in Nigeria increased

from 5.8 percent in 2008 to 23.9 percent in 2012. With the Nigerian population estimated as a little over 170 million, the World Bank statistics in 2011 reported that several millions Nigerian youths were unemployed. Almost half of those who are unemployed live in urban areas and they are within the age group 15-24 years old. NBS report shows that 49 percent of those without jobs live in urban areas and the remaining 39.7 percent live in rural areas. The mass unemployment in Nigeria is a 'Goliath' against the anticipated economic growth and prosperity of Nigeria.

The 'mass unemployment' in Nigeria can be categorised as follows:

- (a) Unskilled labour force comprising of non-technical skilled and informal/vocational training
- (b) Low skilled labour force are those with partial formal education, partial informal/vocational education and technically skilled without formal education
- (c) High skilled labour force consists of graduate unemployment and high technically skilled manpower.

This acute problem is a result of the mismatch between the skills required in the Nigerian labour market (same as in most developing countries) and those available and acquired in the country's educational sector. The current educational system does not include the necessary '*employability and professional development*' proficiency (Evawoma-Enuku and Mgbor, 2005; Geo-Jaja, 2007). On the other hand, one may argue that Nigerian situation is truly not just the problem of 'capacity development' of our past or future graduates but scarcity of jobs. Moreover, when the graduates do have the required skills, there are usually no employment opportunities in Nigeria. More so, if Nigerian graduates have these desired skills; it will make

them highly competitive in the international markets. Economies around the world are facing a surge of economic depression and austerity, especially in Europe and America. So unavailability of jobs/employment is part of the unemployment problems which Nigeria and most developing countries encounter. However, graduates from Nigerian institutions lack the ‘entrepreneurial spirit and skills’ needed for self-employment and job creation.

In addition, it is fair to say that the problem of unemployment in Nigeria can be further attributed to inadequate government policies in the past and misconstrued monetary and fiscal policies such as the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) of 1986, the lack of labour market intelligence and the failure of Nigeria’s formal education system. This problem is further complicated by the inability of the formal education system to change, adapt and adjust to the transformation of the economy from a service focused economy to an industrial oriented one. As a result, it is obvious that an inadequate education system and inappropriate government policies does contribute to unemployment in Nigeria (Geo-Jaja, 2007). According to Mensah and Benedict (2010: 139) the:

Hand-out strategies like social grants and free housing units help some of the poor in the short-term, they do not address the root causes of the problem and therefore cannot end poverty; empowering the poor through quality education and training, especially entrepreneurship training, to generate their own income may be a viable medium- to long-term strategy for reducing and eventually eradicating poverty.

Reduction in unemployment will consequently reduce poverty in Nigeria. Table 2.2 below shows the real mean housed income in the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria. The summary of these zones were data collected and analysed over three years from 1997 to 1999.

Table 7.2: Real Mean Household Income by Zones

Zones	₦	1996/97 Mean (SE)	₦	1997/98 Mean (SE)	₦	1998/99 Mean (SE)	POOLED Mean (SE)
North East	5011	244.6 (20.7)	5639	92.95 (7.00)	4379	72.65 (1.78)	139.63 (7.74)
North Central	6003	139.07 (8.3)	6705	79.03 (2.21)	5220	83.04 (3.13)	99.82 (3.22)
Middle Belt	6974	384.15 (19.4)	7291	92.23 (2.2)	5624	102.38 (2.49)	209.28 (7.72)
South East	4884	97.75 (2.14)	5514	94.86 (1.76)	4030	101.44 (2.11)	96.94 (1.11)
South West	6018	117.06 (8.36)	7123	94.20 (1.14)	5712	99.26 (1.28)	100.43 (2.36)
South South	5881	100.97 (1.65)	6300	102.37 (5.49)	5277	100.11 (1.98)	101.49 (2.37)

Source: National Integrated Survey of Households (NISH) for 2007

The data on Figure 7.2 suggests that North East Nigeria is the poorest of all the six geopolitical zones in the country; in 1999 the real mean household income was 1.78. Could there be a likely correlation between the events in that region and their socio-economic conditions? Next to North East is the South South, which was 1.98 in the same year. In light of this, the top priority of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as initiated by the United Nations (UN) is to actively pursue the reduction of global poverty by the year 2015. According to the Umoren (2009, p.1) MDGs number one target by year 2015 is to “*reduce the population of the people living in extreme*

poverty by half’. Nigeria’s plan for poverty reduction in line with MDGs objectives started with the establishment of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) (Ado-Kurawa, 2008). The four major areas stipulated by NEEDS are: employment creation, poverty reduction, wealth creation and value reorientation. Unemployment and idle industrial capacity have raised poverty level in Nigeria from 42 per cent in 1992, 70 per cent in 1996 and currently put at above 70 per cent of the population (Umoren, A. 2009). According to Danesy (1998) a survey of Lagos state (former federal capital of Nigeria), revealed that poverty was about 90 per cent of the entire working population in the state. A report from the Federal Ministry of Education, Nigeria suggested that about 12 million children within the school age have dropped out of school. This set-back can be linked to poverty which is a contributing factor to the ever-increasing rate of unemployment in Nigeria (Umoren, 2009).

In addition, Nigeria’s over-dependence on ‘oil’ is unhealthy for Nigerian’s economy and has not been the solution to the ever increasing rate of poverty and income inequalities in different part of the country. In countries like Nigeria and Gabon, revenue from natural mineral resources such as ‘oil’ account for over 60 per cent of the nation’s GDP. Entrepreneurship will lower unemployment since it creates more jobs. The increase in employment rate will consequently foster the long expected ‘*national economic growth*’ through higher economic activities, high national and individual GDP, wealth creation and improved standard of living. More so entrepreneurship is a prerequisite for handling the challenges of industrialisation and Globalisation. Entrepreneurs attract foreign investors which lead to Foreign Direct Investments (FDIs) and international trading opportunities

Unemployment has been identified as the main cause of socio-economic tensions and violence rocking the country (Amaechi, 2011). When large number of youths are unemployed, their quest to survive may make them to become willing tools in the hands of maverick and disgruntled politicians who may want to use them for anti-social and clandestine activities (Okafor, 2011). They have also been used as local militants to attack, vandalize and destroy oil pipelines, lives and property in the Niger Delta region, armed robbery, youth bandits, and armed sects/groups in the north. Anti-social activities such as political thuggery, militancy, restiveness and other social vices are evident among the unemployed and jobless youths are real dangers to the stability of democracy in Nigeria (Okafor, 2011). As part of the seven point agenda of former President Musa YarAdua, the provision of employment to young graduates and other skilled workers has been identified as an agenda to be given urgent attention.

Infrastructure in the Niger Delta as a case in point

Otite (2010) states that with millions of barrels of oil harvested per day and yielding over 90 per cent income to Nigeria, the Niger Delta provides enough foreign exchange to sustain the country, yet the people in the region feel infuriated as their environment remains undeveloped with few or no infrastructure in health, schools, transportation, industries as well as Federal and State Government presence. According to Davis (2009), pervasive corruption within the government, oil companies and even some non-governmental organisations (NGOs) prevents the delivery of funds intended for infrastructure and community development in the rural areas. It has been identified that efforts by the Federal Government and Oil Companies to improve the quality of human lives and to provide infrastructural development have been insufficient to ameliorate the problems (Ugoh & Ukpere, 2010). There is no

doubt therefore that provision of basic amenities should be paramount in the Niger Delta and for better standard of living. Funds realised from oil exports should take care of providing for the people the necessary basic facilities required for human beings to thrive comfortably (Eboh, 2009).

Youths in the Niger Delta have become restive in their bid for greater control of their natural resources (Ugho & Ukpere, 2010). According to Otite (2010), the otherwise rightful agitation for an equitable deal from the Federal Government has been criminalized. These criminal activities include illegal oil bunkering, fire arms business, kidnapping and hostage taking, piracy and armed robbery. Also identified is that the militants are the unemployed youths disengaged by political elites who had used them as political thugs and general supporters during elections (Otite, 2010). Violence in the Niger Delta is estimated to have killed about 1000 persons a year between 1999 and 2004 on a par with conflicts in Columbia and Chechnya (Oyefusi, 2007). The violence in the region has led to disruptions of oil operations rising over the last 5-10 years. In the last few years, militant groups have kidnapped over 250 foreign oil workers and cut oil production by as much as one million barrel per day (Davis, 2009).

The rise in militancy among the youths in the Niger Delta has been fuelled by extreme poverty and underdevelopment, discontent with the international oil companies, oil spillage, environmental damage and corruption by Government officials which ensures that little development funding reaches host communities. Between 100,000 and 300,000 barrels of crude oil were stolen in Nigeria daily between 2003 and 2008, not including the incidence of excess lifting or cargo theft by licensed transporters and oil servicing companies (Davis, 2003). Sophisticated weapons are widely

available throughout the Niger Delta to militia groups, cults and gangs. Political godfathers and aspiring politicians have promoted and used gangs, cult groups, vigilantes and the militia group to exert power and influence (Davis, 2009).

Implications of the Existing Crisis

These impacts can have economic and security implications and the crisis have brought about serious security implication for the country as a result of increased criminal activities in Nigeria. This is manifested in the following ways:

- (i) **Confrontations with the Military:** The Nigerian Military, under the aegis of the Joint Task Force (JTF), have been fighting with the militants since 2006 when the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) started its violent activities. MEND and other militia groups have been able to withstand the military in several clashes they have had. They have been able to do this because of their access to sophisticated weapons which they use in attacking oil platforms and facilities.
- (ii) **Kidnapping and hostage taking:** Kidnapping and hostage taking has become the other of the day with oil workers and individuals becoming the targets, thus worsening the security situation. According to the International Herald Tribune “oil companies find themselves in an uneasy position, stuck in a crisis that they, in a sense, helped to create. For years, human rights groups accused them of turning a blind eye to the corruption of Nigeria’s successive military regimes while damaging the environment in the delta”. Besides expatriates, individuals and even toddlers have been kidnapped by militants for ransoms. As a result of the prevailing insecurity in the Niger Delta, expatriates have been abandoning their work and relocating from the region.

- (iii) The Boko Haram crisis in the north east of Nigeria also has some of its link to poverty and youth unemployment amongst other issues.
- (iv) Illegal bunkering activities: The crisis has made illegal bunkering of oil to thrive, which is also the source of funds for the militants operating in the creeks of Niger Delta. According to a report of the Brussels based International Crisis Group, Nigeria loses about 70,000 to 300,000 barrels per day to illegal bunkering, which is the equivalent output of a small oil producing country (ICG, Africa Report No 118, 2006). Illegal bunkering has been a key source of funds for militant groups. Several militant warlords have either publicly or privately admitted to involvement as others said they consider the practice a defensible means of providing income for aggrieved and impoverished residents of oil producing communities. However, it must be noted that the activities of these bunkerers have become a serious threat to the security and well being of the Nigerian nation (EPU Research Papers, 2007).

Methodology

A mixed approach of quantitative, qualitative and participatory methodologies was used for data collection, analysis and output. Primary data gathering strategy was purposefully aimed at connecting with community leaders at the grass-roots. Raw data were collected using survey method since they have the capacity to generate large amount of data which can be statistically analysed. A Sample frame of selected communities within the six geopolitical zones was randomly surveyed and initial pilot study of one community from each zone will be use to test-run and inform decisions on the final strategy for the entire research project. However, a mixed method approach with its qualitative component can provide detailed

perspectives of individuals or descriptions of processes, thereby ensuring a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of interest. An overview of the proposed mixed method research strategy is presented in Table 7.1. This approach will help to investigate complex phenomena that are difficult to measure quantitatively, it will generate data necessary for a comprehensive understanding of a problem, and investigators can gain insights into potential causal mechanisms. Thus it will aid the development of sound quantitative measurement instruments and processes. Incontrovertibly, mixed methods provide unique contributions to outcomes of research

The research consultation process is based on the notion of participatory development which bridges the interrelated goals of development and the empowerment of people within the communities. We are of the opinion that development has to be designed to capture what the people themselves perceive to be their interests and needs. Participatory development, sometimes interchangeably called popular participation, is a process by which people take an active and influential part in shaping decisions that affect their lives (OECD, 1995: 8).

The problem of youth unemployment and proposed skills gap analysis in rural communities of the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria, calls for applied research strategy. The identification of rural community clusters will employ a field-based ethnographic mapping of each of the local government areas in the subject states. Collection of primary data on youth unemployment in the communities will employ a field survey of samples of youth arms of Community Development Councils (CDC). Finally, identification of skills gap in relevant industries within communities requires analysis of the structures of local economies and survey of employers in the key industries. Table 7.1 below provides suggested

methodological lenses for the key constructs in the study. Each construct will eventually be operationally defined.

Table 7.1: Proposed Methodological Construct and Lens

Construct	Methodological Lens
Rural Communities	Ethnography, Anthropology Existing Community Development Committees (CDCs) <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Youth arm of the CDCs (Youth Presidents and Executives)
Youth Unemployment (Socio-economic conditions)	Social Entrepreneurship, Economics, Sociology
Skills Gap <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Local Industrial Structure- Youths in the rural Communities	Organisational behaviour, Industrial Organisational characteristics, Strategic Management

Procedures

Town and Country Structure: subdivision of the geopolitical zones in Nigeria into urban, town and rural settlements.

Social Economy of the six geopolitical zones

- Industrial Base
- Employment
- Income
- Demographics of specific rural and urban areas with the six geopolitical zones
 - Age

- Gender
- Education
- Socio-cultural Characteristics

Table 7.2 Mixed Method overview

S/N	Features	Quantitative Approach	Qualitative Approach
1.	Instrument	Questionnaires Part A – Unemployment Part B – Skills Gap	Interview Questions Part A – Top Management Part B – Community Interest
2.	Target Population	Youth	Existing MSMEs and Industries

Proposed Conceptual framework for the study

The **Global Entrepreneurship Model (GEM)** research is to date the most reliable and valid report on global entrepreneurship. GEM has completed more than 12 annual surveys around the world which included over 80 economies in 13 years. In the most recent research in 2010, over 175,000 people and more than 3,000 experts were surveyed in 59 economies, a population sample which represented the most geographically and economically diverse group. This group (59 economies) is estimated at over 52 percent of the world’s population and 84 percent of the world’s GDP as at the time of the GEM research. The research was accomplished through an international network of national academic research teams with sponsorship by Babson College, USA and Universidad del Desarrollo, Chile. In the nations around the world, entrepreneurship is at the top of the social, political and economic agenda. The fundamental aim of GEM was to

understand how the entrepreneurial process operates and how it contributes to national economic growth. A major outcome of the GEM research is that there is a strong relationship between entrepreneurial activity and national economic growth. The GEM model provides a framework for a more comprehensive understanding of the entrepreneurial process in relation to job creation and increase in GDP.

Part 1

The GEM conceptual model consists of three logical parts; ‘part 1’, ‘part 2’ and ‘the total process’. Part 1 is depicted in Figure 1. It focuses on the General National Framework Conditions which enables major established firms and micro, small and medium size enterprises to thrive and make major contributions to national economic growth and prosperity.

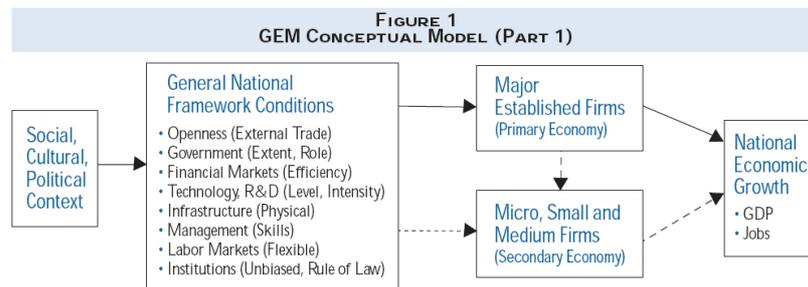


Figure 1: GEM Conceptual Model (Part 1)

The major players in the General National Framework Conditions in Nigeria embrace the different aspects of the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN). FGN and associated institutions are mainly responsible for ensuring that government policies in relation to domestic and international trade are fair, transparent (openness) and inclusive. The government’s role in the regulation of Nigerian financial markets for optimum efficiency: in the encouragement of

research and development in technology, renewable energy and high-tech ventures: in the provision of physical infrastructure: and in ensuring flexibility in the labour markets, amongst other conditions, cannot be underestimated within the Nigerian context.

In addition, major established firms in Nigeria have a crucial role to play irrespective of their public or private ownership. The GEM research systematically assessed the level of start-up activity in relation to *nascent firms* and the prevalence of *new or young firms*. New or young firms are not necessarily business start-ups but those who have survived the start-up phase which is usually 1-3 years. A nascent firm or nascent entrepreneur is defined as a firm or person who runs an existing business but is trying to start a new enterprise, and expects to be the owner or part owner of the new firm, or who has been active in trying to start the new firm within a given financial year. Findings from GEM research shows that countries (such as Australia, Norway, USA, Brazil, Canada and Korea) that were more entrepreneurial than others had higher number of nascent firms and higher numbers of new firms. Such correlation suggests that new or young firms survived partly due to their relationship with nascent firms.

The rise of the Micro, Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (MSMEs) sector in any economy creates a conducive environment for business, secures employment for generations of people, and stimulates economic growth. Nurturing and sustaining MSMEs is the backbone of strengthening an economy of less developed and developing countries. As a result, the World Bank, the United Nations, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and other international and regional institutions spend an enormous amount of effort and money in supporting initiatives for fostering global MSMEs partnerships worldwide

through infrastructure development, financial aid, legal and regulatory support, business incubation, and educational assistance for developing countries.

Part 2

The part 2 of the GEM conceptual model is depicted in Figure 2. The prime focus of part 2 is the ‘*Entrepreneurial Framework Conditions*’. The entrepreneurial process also accounts for economic prosperity of countries and the process is modelled as shown and divided into two parallel sets of interrelated aspects namely entrepreneurial opportunities and entrepreneurial capacity. The level of entrepreneurial activity in most economies is driven by the **combination of entrepreneurial opportunities and skills** and the motivation to exploit those opportunities and skills. Such combination leads to the creation of new firms and the displacement of inefficient or outmoded existing firms. Dynamism occurs through the creation of new businesses and the exit of non-viable ones. Such in and out replacement of firms is referred to as ‘*business churning*’.

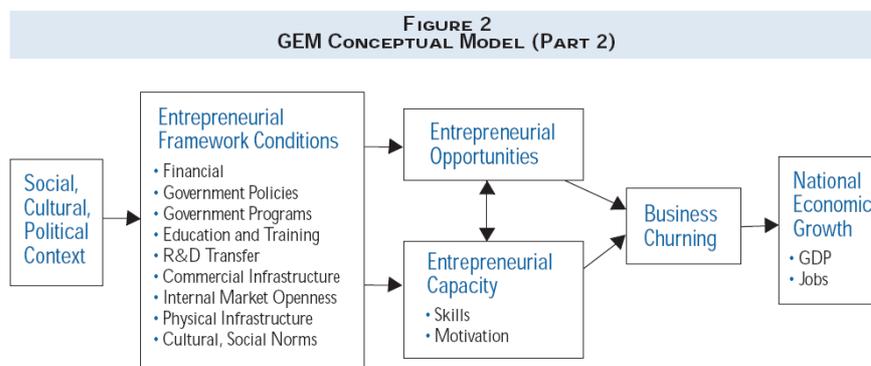


Fig. 2: GEM Conceptual Model (Part 2). Source: GEM, 2012

‘Financial’ as shown on the Entrepreneurial Framework Conditions (EFC), and indicates entrepreneurial financing,

while government policies refers to anticipated public policies on entrepreneurial opportunities and capacity, especially through the development of the MSMEs sector in Nigeria. Generally, enterprise development comes in a variety of sizes, range of services, line of products and amount of contributions to an economy where a number of entrepreneurs are growing in significant relation to job creation and economic growth.

The Total Process

Figure 3 is the GEM conceptual model called the total process. It is a combination of part 1 and part 2 as shown in figure 3. The Nigerian business environment does require both the General National Framework Conditions (GNFC) and Entrepreneurial Framework Conditions (EFC).

It is worth noting that the development of the MSMEs sector in Nigeria through entrepreneurial opportunities, entrepreneurial capacity and role of major established businesses/organisations as nascent firms is passionately and urgently prescribed as the antidote for the epidemic of unemployment.

GNFC and EFC will boost business start-ups, create jobs, and foster business growth, expansion and competitiveness. The total process also implies that adopting the GEM conceptual model is not simply about the quantity of entrepreneurs (in terms of more entrepreneurs) but also the quality of entrepreneurs and their businesses. The Nigerian economy needs to increase the number of individuals involved in starting and growing innovative businesses which have potential for high growth and the potential to operate in international markets.

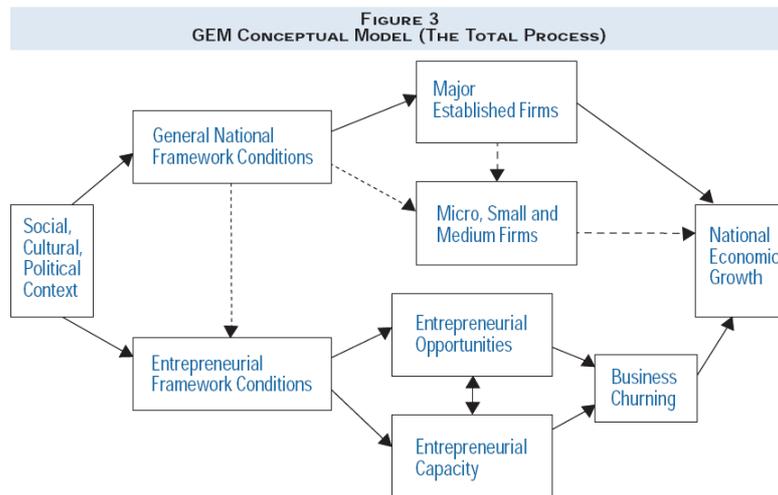


Figure 3: GEM Conceptual Model (The Total Process)

Source: GEM 2012

To sum up, the effective adoption of the GEM model in this research will enhance necessity motivation, build skills and encourage opportunity motivation for all Nigerians. It will ensure both entrepreneurial dynamism and stability. Key players in the Nigerian economy will also be able to learn from other economic peers in various parts of the globe and promote entrepreneurship in many forms. Together as a nation, it will be possible to promote an entrepreneurial mindset and kick start a national entrepreneurial culture/re-orientation across the entire population in Nigeria.

As proposed by GEM:

“Entrepreneurs will need to rely on a wide variety of personal and professional support, creditors and investors, suppliers and customers

and so forth. These stakeholders need to be willing to support entrepreneurs, perhaps taking some risk along with them”

The uniqueness of the demographic mix of the Nigerian population and the social and cultural of the GEM conceptual model is relevant to Nigeria will be adequately applied in this study.

Anticipated results

The study will lead to the development of *entrepreneurial opportunities and capacity* which results in national economic growth in terms of job creation and increased Gross Domestic Product (GDP). There is a widespread recognition that entrepreneurship is the engine driving the economy and the society of most nations. It brings benefits at both the macro level of economic development and also at the micro level of employment generation, personal satisfaction and achievement. Active promotion of an *enterprise culture* which leads to job creation and subsequently facilitates economic growth and social welfare in communities.

Development of entrepreneurial opportunities and capacity can be achieved through entrepreneurship education. Emphatically, *“It has been acknowledged that entrepreneurship education helps ignites the artistic, creative, and perceptual aspects of entrepreneurship”* (Shepherd & Douglas, 1997). Broadly, it can be categorised as: (a) diversity and equality of access through formal and informal education which can be the underlining principles in skills acquisition and entrepreneurship education. It includes functional skills and creative aspects of learning. (b) Capacity building for all – training, re-training and mentoring. More so, training of existing business owners is important because the pressures of day-to-day management and the constraints of scarce resources force Small and Medium-sized Enterprise (SMEs) to adopt a

tactical rather than a strategic approach to challenges. Gray (2002), states that SME managers and entrepreneurs are more likely to show resistance to change. Such managers or business owners tend to operate on a 'reasonable person' basis, rather than on an informed and strict observance of regulations. Thus, the objectives of the entrepreneurial opportunities and capacity building are: (1) preparation for career success; (2) acquire entrepreneurial skills (3) job creation and self-reliance; (4) contribute positively to society.

The rise of micro, small and medium-sized enterprise (MSMEs) sector in any economy creates a conducive environment for business, secures employment for generations of people, and stimulates economic growth. Nurturing and sustaining MSMEs is the backbone of strengthening the economy of less developed and developing countries. As a result, the World Bank, United Nations, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and other international and regional institutions spend an enormous amount of effort and money in supporting initiatives for fostering global MSMEs partnership through infrastructure development, financial aid, legal and regulatory support, support with business incubation facilities and other related entrepreneurship education training/assistance for developing countries.

A cue from the Chinese and Arab economies suggests that it is beneficial to encourage a national tradition that has positive attitude towards entrepreneurship from home-based business ideas, emergence of family business and conglomerate firms. Such positive attitudes could maximize business potentials and build stronger businesses. Similarly, research on SMEs in Croatia conducted in 2002 and 2003 found that SMEs play an important role in modern economies based on knowledge and new technologies. As a result, the role of SMEs

in improving economic performance, reducing unemployment and promoting flexibility and innovation is highly significant. The United Nations Social Summit in Copenhagen and the United Nations Millennium Summit Declaration of 2001 called for a commitment to develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth, recognising that it is a globally significant problem, with implications for persistent poverty, job instability, and social exclusion.

Accordingly, Carney (1998); Scoones (1998) approach to sustainable livelihood which affirms that economic growth should be grounded in several capital assets fundamental to the developments of communities. These include: natural, human, physical, social and financial capital. On this premise, Niger Delta communities can adopt a people-oriented approach which has these five capital assets development as its “sustainable livelihood framework”. For instance, the natural capital stems from natural resource stocks such as; land, water, wildlife, biodiversity, environmental resources of which useful outputs for livelihoods are derived. Some traditional occupations such as *agriculture*, need to be improved in the communities to attract youths. Agricultural ventures in our communities can absorb many labourers, create jobs, provided need food, create wealth and consequently transform our societies. MSMEs start-ups are expected to focus on naturally available local raw materials/products with their LGAs. There will be enormous possibilities for small and large scale industrial development abounds in terms of the abundance of raw materials in the region, which remain unrealized. In addition, social capital consists of social resources such as: networks, membership groups, relationships of trust, access to wider institutions of society, upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods. Existing Community Development Committees (CDCs) networks in various communities will be encouraged to

strengthen small cooperatives societies, Self Help Groups (SHG) and businesses.

In the adoption of social entrepreneurship approach to community development and transformation, Haugh (2005) describes social entrepreneurship as “*those activities associated with the perception of opportunities to create social value and the creation of social purpose organisations to pursue them*”. Haugh affirms that social enterprises adopt financially sustainable strategies to pursue and achieve social aims, and address a wide range of social problems, such as unemployment, low quality housing, youth restiveness, deprivation, poverty and social exclusion. This approach agrees with the notion of participatory development which bridges the interrelated goals of development and the empowerment of people within the communities. This paper supports the opinion that development has to be designed to capture what the people themselves perceive to be their interests and needs. Participatory development, sometimes interchangeably called popular participation, is a process by which people take an active and influential part in shaping decisions that affect their lives. (OECD, ‘1995). The importance of social entrepreneurship cannot be overemphasized, it is used to promote local development, define new goods and services, foster integration, create jobs, improve attractiveness of an industry and locality, empowerment and consolidation of local/community assets (ECOTEC, 2001).

Dees and Anderson (2003) found that the benefits of combining social purpose with enterprise have been found to include greater market responsiveness, efficiency, innovation and leveraging of resources. According to the OCED (2003), social entrepreneurship has been recognised as a potentially beneficial strategy for revitalizing disadvantage communities by improving the skills of the unemployed and facilitating their

return to work, business start-ups and self-reliance. As a result, social enterprises have become more entrepreneurial than other non-profit organisations (EMES, 1999). In Pearce (2003), enterprises might exploit identified market opportunities such in disadvantage communities such as: local development and regeneration through innovative workspace, business incubation, enterprise training programmes, business advice and support, local development and infrastructure regeneration. Then business opportunities such as providing leisure, recreation, housing, childcare, care for the elderly. These could also be services to the community in response to market demand, and creation of market-driven businesses that provide goods and services in direct competition with the public and private sectors. Notably, Hines and Thomas (2004) research revealed that social enterprises use different types of external support. Government support agencies were the most popular source, followed by informal networks and consultants.

The research objectives previously are directly linked with expected outcomes. Thus the following results are expected at progressive stages of the research.

Objective 1: To review the problem of youth unemployment in Nigeria through the lenses of entrepreneurship

Expected Output 1: Empirical secondary data gathered from the initial desktop research will produce a unique database in addition to a rigorous and in-depth literature review output

Objective 2: To identify existing level of entrepreneurial knowledge amongst youths in Nigeria

Expected Output 2: At the pilot phase of the study an initial questionnaire design and interview questions will be produced based output 1

Objective 3: To develop a conceptual framework for understanding the relationship between youth unemployment and identified skills gaps.

Expected Output 2: An appropriate conceptual framework will be adopted and an extended model developed at the final stages of the research. For instance, 'the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) Model' will be applied to this research. (see notes on GEM in the Methodology section)

Objective 4: To identify skills gap relevant to the growth and development of viable SMEs in Nigeria

Expected Output 4: Qualitative data from interviews of selected management/staff of identified communities which have direct or indirect link with communities will be produced. For instance, oil producing firms have exploration activities in communities within some LGAs in the regions. Similarly, agro-allied industries that have their major raw materials from specific communities or who deal with specific raw materials acquired from related communities or those with physical presence in these communities will be approached. In addition, quantitative data from questionnaires completed by youths in the communities will provide statistical evidence of skills gap in relevant industries within the communities researched. The proposed 'focus group' exercise through meetings with youth leaders and executives of CDCs in various communities will generate reliable qualitative data which will compliment the statistical evidence.

Objective 5: To conduct a youth skills audit in the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria

Expected Output 5: Analysis of quantitative and qualitative data gathered from objectives 1, 2 and 3 will produced information on skills gaps of youths.

Objective 6: To conduct a youth skills gap analysis of the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria

Expected Output 6: The output realised from objectives 6 will be further analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The result will inform a people learning and development plan for the six geopolitical regions in Nigeria.

Other Expected Outputs are:

7. Evidence from findings can stimulate public and private partnership for creation of youth employment in rural communities.
8. Promote bespoke skill acquisition programmes for economic empowerment in rural communities
9. Evidence from the research will inform policies and strategies aimed at poverty alleviation through increased employment, self dependence and lower unemployment rate.
10. Opportunities for Technical Vocational Education & Training (TVET)
11. Entrepreneurship Programmes with emphasis on job creation and skill acquisition for youths and women in rural communities.
12. General Micro, Small to Medium Sized Enterprises (MSMEs) development in the Niger Delta
13. Evidence from the research can lead to special entrepreneurship schemes for agricultural-based microenterprises in rural communities.
14. Opportunities for further collaboration with organisations and industries in fulfilling their Corporate Social Responsibilities (CSR).
15. Evidence can lead to creation of sustainable Social Entrepreneurship Ventures.

16. Opportunities for general capacity building programmes and consultancy services.

Work plan for Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E)

The research team for this project offers process and outcome strategies for evaluation. These strategies would be used to assess the quality, reliability of the survey techniques and instruments. The general effectiveness of the entire process will be considered and compliance with TETFund guidelines will be strictly ensured. This research will apply a Quality Assurance (QA) strategy following McAdam et al (1998), Research in Innovation Model as an integral part of the research's group M&E plan. This model includes;

1. Directing innovative businesses through strategic collaboration/partnership & networking
2. Developing creative capacity
3. Building innovative culture – organising for creativity
4. Managing learning for new ideas
5. Taking wise decisions

This innovation model serves as the *modus operandi* for the entire research project; it will be used to maintain a high quality service in the planning, process, implementation and evaluation of the group's operations.

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