

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGS) AS INSTRUMENTS FOR DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

Editors

Josephine Ganu, PhD

Michael Abiodun Oni

A joint publication of Babcock & Valley View Universities

ISBN No: 978-981-07-5538-6

Published by

National Library Singapore

Co-Sponsored by

ArabianGroup of Journals



National Library
Singapore



MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGS) AS INSTRUMENTS FOR DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

Editors

Josephine Ganu, PhD

Michael Abiodun Oni

Associate Editor

Francis K. Agyekum

Editorial Board Members

Nigeria:

Solomon A. Adebola

Patrick E. Enyi

Oluseyi O. Oduyoye

Ghana:

Josephine Ganu

I. Akuamoah-Boateng

I. Owusu-Dankwa

ISBN No: **978-981-07-5538-6**

A joint publication of Babcock & Valley View Universities

Published by:

National Library Singapore

Co-sponsored by:

Arabian Group of Journals

For Copies contact:

E-mail: editor@arabianjbm.com

Acknowledgements

The contributions of certain individuals and personalities need to be acknowledged. Special appreciation is accorded to the Vice Chancellors of Valley View University, Ghana and Babcock University, Nigeria for making our dream a reality. We also acknowledge the efforts of the Former Nigerian High Commissioner to Ghana, Ambassador MUSILIU OBANIKORO and his Staff Members, Pastor Joe Hagan and VVU Transport team who took the Nigerain delegation round the town and places they visited. Mention must be made of Prof. S.A ADEBOLA (the dean of School of Business, Babcock University) and Dr. Josephine GANU (former dean of School of Business, Valley View University) whose tireless efforts have made the joint publication between the two institutions a reality.

We sincerely appreciate the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the Millennium Development Authority (MiDA), in the person of Mr. Martin Eson-Benjamin and his team who graciously delivered a keynote address at the opening ceremony.

Finally, our heartfelt thanks also go to the Committee members from both universities, especially Ms. Hannah Fosuah Amo, Snell Nanpki, Dr. Emmanuel Sei (VVU School of Business Research Coordinator) and Mr. Samuel Olajide Dada for their selfless efforts and sacrifice that ensured the successful organization of the conference and also to Mr Benjamin Anyim of Advent Press for the typesetting and copy-editing. The efforts of all the assessors of the papers published in this volume (both from Nigeria and Ghana) are appreciated.

Foreword

DANIEL BUOR, PhD (Ghana), PhD (Maastricht), Professor of Medical Geography, Vice-Chancellor, Valley View University, Accra, Ghana

The year 2000 marked a significant epoch in the history of humanity's search for a sustainable development model to address the insurmountable social, economic, environmental, political etc. burdens that were emerging on the landscape of planet earth. The oncoming crises were such that if efforts were not put in place to chart mechanisms to address them on a long-term basis, greater part of humanity, especially developing nations would face the cacophony of socio-economic and environmental atrophy. The turn of a new millennium thus pointed not to a future of hope, rather of doom for developing nations. Recognising the magnitude of the upcoming problems, in September 2000, the largest gathering of world leaders in human history gathered for the Millennium Summit at the United Nations headquarters in New York. In that pivotal year, representatives from 189 member states of the United Nations met to reflect on their common destiny. Nations were dichotomized into development-oriented perspectives.

As some states looked ahead to prosperity and global cooperation, many barely had a future, being mired in miserable, unending conditions of poverty, conflict and degraded environment. To begin addressing these crises back in 2000, the convened leaders set down the *Millennium Declaration*, series of collective priorities for peace and security, poverty reduction, the environment and human rights which were the essential steps for the advancement of humankind. It was observed that human development was the key to sustaining social and economic progress in all countries, as well as contributing to social security. By 2015, the leaders pledged, the world would achieve measurable improvements in the most critical areas of human development.

The goals, if pursued to their logical conclusion, would create an environment and conditions that would enhance welfare and better standard of living for underprivileged regions in the world, including Africa, specifically, sub-Saharan Africa that is traumatised by poverty, ignorance, multiple disease burden, environmental degradation and political conflicts. High infant and maternal mortality rates, predominance of some preventable infections, rudimentary methods of production of tangibles to support life, and poor access to health care are additional factors that undermine the development efforts of African countries.

It thus appears that all the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) from eradication of extreme poverty and hunger to development of a global partnership for development have relevance for the development of Africa, a continent that is the repository of almost every natural resource but looks to the industrialized countries for financial aid to support their annual budgets; that has large tracts of arable land that could be cultivated throughout the year but begs for food from industrialized countries that could cultivate their land for less than one-half of the year due to climatic hazards. There thus emerges an unfortunate paradox of development with regards to the African experience.

A Conference to unearth the potentials the MDGs have for Africa's development was thus crucial. It behoves scholars to write on various aspects of the MDGs, analyzing critically in the context of Africa's development. It is pertinent to state that the application of the MDGs depends upon the various geographical and socio-economic and cultural contexts. It was in this context that the School of Business of Valley View University and Babcock University that share common religious persuasions, in August 2011, created a platform to assemble ideas.

Contents

1. Language as Vehicle of Socio-Economic Development: Advocating The Use of Legal Language for the Attainment of Millennium Development Goals: - ADAM, Ezinwanyi E. & ADAM, Eteete M.	1
2. Natural is National?- Causes and Consequences of Resource Curse in Africa- A Theoretical Perspective (<i>Lesson for Oil Find in Ghana</i>) AGYEKUM, Francis K. & MAWUTOR, Godfred	11
3. Political Leadership as a Tool for Women Empowerment in Ghana: Challenges: - AKUAMOA-BOATENG, Irene; FORIWAA KARIKARI, Ama & AGYEKUM BOATENG, Peter	28
4. Industrialization and Business Survival Strategies In Economic Meltdown: - NWAOBIA, Appolos N., ENAHOR, John A.	37
5. Commercialization of Important Research Outcomes: A Case Study Of Chemical Extraction Of Humic Substances Using Crude Resins. APEA, Ohene B., EPHRAIM, J. H. & OKYERE, Isaac	51
6. Consolidation and Sustainability of Democracy in Nigeria: The Millennium Development Goals (MDG's) as a veritable instrument OJO, Olawole; IREWUNMI, Banwo & OGUNDIWIN, Aaron Ola	60
7. Subtle and Covert Sex Discrimination That Hinders Women Empowerment in Nigeria: Barriers To Achieving Millenium Development Goals: - ADELEKE, Justina Olufunke	68
8. Descriptive Analysis of the Role of ICTs in Development of Education in Nigeria:- ABAMIRO, Ade Adegenga & ANATSUI, Tina	78
9. Comparative Assessment of Health Status and Millennium Development Goals in Sub-Saharan Africa: - ADESOYE, A. Bolaji; MAKU, Olukayode E. & ATANDA, Akinwande, A.	89
10. Re-Inforcement of the Regime of Human Rights Law as Channels for Achieving Millennium Development Goals (MDGS): - Eteete M. Adam	107
11. Meeting Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Target in African Nations: Good Governance as the Option: - ABIODUN-ONI, Michael. & BIDE MI, Isola	117

12. An Analysis of Nigeria's Fiscal Policy and Output Growth: Towards Achieving the Millenium Development Goal of Global Partnership **OYEDELE, O., ONONGHA, J.O. & LAWAL, E.**.....131
13. Trend Analysis of the NHIS Inflows in Ghana (2004 - 2007): Increasing Marginal Inflows or Diminishing Marginal Inflows? An implication for the Attainment of MDGs in Health **AGYEKUM, FRANCIS K. & MENDS, A. Ato.**.....137
14. Millennium Development Goals and Eradication of Poverty and Hunger in Nigeria: - **DADA, S. Olajide.**.....150
15. Millennium Development Goals and Health in Nigeria: An assessment **ODUSANYA, I. Abidemi.**.....158
16. Free Trade and Industrialization of Sub-Saharan Africa: An Assessment of Millennium Development Goals Achievement in Nigeria's Manufacturing Sector: - **ADEFULU, Adesoga & EGWUONWU, Thomas K.**.....167
17. The Millenium Development Goals (MDGS) and the Challenges of Development at the Local Government Level in Nigeria. **IREWUMI, Banwo & AYOMOLA, Oluranti**176
18. The Utilization of ICTs in Human Resources Units for Efficient Service Delivery in Nigeria: Implication for Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) **NWOSU, J. Chinaka & MAKINDE, Olubisi Grace.**.....184
19. MDGS and Security in the Niger Delta: Interrogating the Amnesty Programme as a Panacea for Developmen: - **NWAODIKE, Chibuzor A., EBIENFA, Kimiebi I. & ANABIRI, Emmanuel C.**.....192
20. Empirical Assessment of the Influence of Millennium Development Goals on Nigerians' Standard Of Living: - **ONUOHA, Luke & NWOSU, J. Chinaka.**.....202
21. The Millenium Development Goals and the Challenges of Anti-Poverty Policies in Nigeria: - **OJO, Olawole, OLADIMEJI, D. Alao & POPOOLA, Michael A.**.....211
22. MDGs in Nigeria: An Examination of the Contributions of the Redeemed Christian Church of God and The Seventh - Day Adventist Church (2000 – 2010). **Aluko, J. O. & Nwogwugwu, Ngozi.**.....222

23. Women Empowerment and Good Governance in Ikenne Local Government, Ogun State, Nigeria: - **ARABA, Teniayo T., NWOGWUGWU, Ngozi, OKATA, Ngozi G. & OYELESE, Olawole C.....**237
24. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Security Contradictions in the Niger Delta Region: What Hopes? **OSAH, Goodnews, CHIOMA, Patience& AYIM, Oluchi.....**253
25. Nigerian Agro-Allied Industrial Concerns of the Millennium Development Goals: - **AFOLABI, Gabriel K., GANIYU Bakare & MAKINDE, Olubisi G.....**264
26. Petrodollar, the State and Challenges of Millennium Development Goals (MDGS) In Africa: -**NNABUGWU, J. Nwachukwu, & NWACHUKWU, Chituru Udo.....**273
27. Achieving Millennium Development Goals Through Partner Institutions: Ethical Concerns on Handling Of Funds: -**AMPONSAH, E. B.....**286
28. Stock Market Development and Economic Growth in Nigeria **ENAHORO, John A. & NWAOBIA, Appolos N.....**295
29. Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and the Millenium Development Goals (MDGS): Performance and Strategic Options **MAKU, Olukayode E., OGWUMIKE, Fidelis O. & SANGOSANYA, Awoyemi O.....**305
30. Gender (In) Equality in Nigeria: Political Statistics and Biblical Imperatives **UMAHI, Gaius A. & OKEZIE, Goodluck N.....**321
31. Unending Conflicts in Nigeria: A Constraint to Attainment of Millennium Development Goals. **OLADIMEJI, Alao D.....**334
32. Socio-Cultural Impediments to Millennium Development Goals (MDGS) In Benue State- Nigeria: A Study of Women Entrepreneurship in Tiv, Idoma, And Igede Ethnic Groups: - **OCHUGUDU, Achoda Ipuele & SEV, Joseph T.....**344
33. Millennium Development Goals and Disadvantaged Groups – A Study of the Female Student’s Access to Secondary/Tertiary Education In Nigeria: - **ADEBOLA, Solomon A. , ADEKUNLE, Binuyo O.,& ODUYOYE, Oluseyi O.....**357

34. National Health Insurance Scheme and the Attainment of Maternal Mortality Target of the MDG in Ghana, (Selected Hospitals in Greater Accra Region) **AGYEKUM, Francis K., MAWUTOR, Godfred & FOSUA, Amo Hannah**367
35. Indigenous Technology and Scientific Research as Ingredients for Economic Development: A Case of Shea Butter Industry: **APEA, Ohene B. & LARBI, Eugenia**.....379
36. Are the mdgs Priority Approach for Africa’s Economic Development? **NYEMAH, Robert G. M**.....391
37. Educational Strategies Needed In Africa to Meet the Millennium Development Goals: - **JAW, Gibril**.....396
38. Ubiquitous ict impacting MDGs: The bedrock for achieving Ghana’s development goals:- **QUARSHIE, Henry & DAMOAH, Dominic**.....401
39. How Green Are Hotels In Accra? Environmental Management Practices and Initiatives in Tourist Accommodation: -**MENSAH, Ishmael**.....413
40. MDGS and the SSA: The Entrepreneurial Challenge of Consumption Complex Syndrome – Empirical Evidence from Nigeria Informal Sector Business Proliferation: Harnessing Potentials for **OKPARA, Gazie S. & ONAH, Julius O**.....424
41. Informal Sector Business Proliferation: Harnessing Potentials for Development in Ghana. **AGYEKUM, Boateng P., AKUAMOA-BOATENG, Irene & FORIWAA, Karikari Ama**.....437
42. Health-Seeking Behaviour of Parents for Under-Five Children: A Case Study of Gomoa West District in the Central Region of Ghana: -**GANU, Daniel**.....454
43. Women-Owned Small Scale Businesses and Household Poverty Reduction In Vandeikya Local Government Area Of Benue State **NOMOR, Dennis Terpase**.....465
44. Nigeria’s Manufacturing Sector in Crisis – Potential Threat to Millennium Development Goal Achievement **Binuyo, A.O. & Oduyoye, O.O**.....476
45. Millennium Development Goals and the Challenges of Public Administration In Nigeria **ALUKO, Jones O., OJUOLA, Segun & NTIWUNKA, Gift**.....485
46. Millennium Development Goals: Veritable tools for economic Development: - **BINUYO, Adekunle Oluwale & ODUYOYE, Oluseyi**.....496

47. Millenium Development Goals and The Poverty Question In Nigeria **FATILE, Jacob Olufemi & ADEJUWON, Kehinde Davidi**.....504
48. Poverty Reduction Strategies and the Achievements of the Millenium Development Goals Programmes in Nigeria **AKUANDNA, I. Felix & BULUS, I. Kwopnan**.....517
49. Mdgs and Security in the Niger Delta: Interrogating the Amnesty Programme as A Panacea for Development: **-NWAODIKE, Chibuzor A., EBIENFA, Kimiebi I. & ANABIRI, Emmanuel C.**525
50. Security, Conflict and the Millennium Development Goals in Africa: The Issues: - **TUNDE, Agara & OKOKHERE, Felix Omoh**535
51. Youth Unemployment and Poverty: Challenges for the Achievement Of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria: - **ATERE, Clement, OSAH, Goodnews, AYIM Oluchi, & CHIOMA Patience**.....550
52. Ensuring Rural Development through the Effective Implementation of the Nigerian Communication Policy: **-ADEKOYA, Helen Odunola**..... 561
53. The Role of the Media in the Achievement of the Millennium Development Goals - **ASEKUN-OLARINMOYE, Olusesan, S. & ODUNOLA, Adekoya H**.....575
54. Measles Immunization Coverage to Identify the Impact Of Millennium Development Goals in Ikenne Local Government Areas, Ogun State, Nigeria, West Africa. A Seven – Year Review **SOTUNSA, J.O., & BABALOLA, R. A**.....585
55. Biblical Mandates for Sustainable Sanitation **AFOLARIN, Olutunde Ojewole**.....598
56. MDGs and the Challenges of Development in the Local Government in Nigeria: - **OLUWOLE, J. Aluko; ABIODUN Oni M., CHIBUZOR, A. Nwaodike and ABIDEMI, A. Ishola**.....614
57. Millenium Development Goals and the Challenges of Epileptic Power Supply to Development in Nigeria: - **ADEWUMI, Eyitayo F**.....624
58. Linking the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Democratic Consolidation in Nigeria: Vistas and Limits **OLAJUMOKE, Yacob-Haliso and OGU, Michael**.....638

59. Proposing Social Entrepreneurship Initiatives as Key Ingredient in Promoting Socio-Economic Development in Ghana: - **GANU, Josephine; OPOKU ABABIO, Kwaku & AGYEKUM BOATENG, Peter**.....653
60. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education: Challenges to Private Higher Educational Institutions –The Role of Valley View University **OWUSU-DANKWAH, Isaac**.....668
61. Leadership as an Instrument to Leverage the Millennium Development Goals**AJIKE, Emmanuel &AKPA,Victoria O**.....680
62. Developing a Regional Partnership for Economic Development in the ECOWAS Sub Region through Freight Forwarding Activities **AMANHYIA, William**.....692

LANGUAGE AS VEHICLE OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: ADVOCATING THE USE OF LEGAL LANGUAGE FOR THE ATTAINMENT OF MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

By

ADAM, Ezinwanyi E. & ADAM, Eteete M.

Lecturers of Departments of International Law & Diplomacy and Languages & Literary Studies, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract

The setting up of bench marks for attainment of advanced socio-economic development of our world by year 2015 is a welcome drive. This work concentrates on the challenges of relying on the use of language as a tool for socio-economic development, with particular emphasis on the use of legal language and the instrumentality of jurisprudence to advance the frontiers of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It undertakes conceptual clarifications of the framework of the topic itself and particularly traces the historical evolution of MDGs. In wider term, this paper traces past reliance on language for socio-economic changes, especially in terms of social upheavals. Apart from taking a worldview of the use of language, it narrows down to select nations of the West African Sub-region, Nigeria and Ghana, anchoring on a comparative socio-economic development of these two ECOWAS member States. The paper winds up by taking a critical look at the reliance on legal language as a specific tool in the hands of lawmakers and legal draftsmen for advancing and in fact, exceeding MDGs and recommends that novel application of legal language, particularly directed at the attainment of specific developmental goals is a sine quanon for developmental success.

Keywords: *Language, Development, MDGs, Social and Economic development*

Introduction

The idea of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) has been around in global activities for years, so much that it is fast becoming central to the lexicon of many international meetings, conferences, programmes at the regional and global levels. Several scholars have made contributions to the concept of MDGs with particular reliance on the study of their peculiar fields of endeavour as a tool for the attainment or advancement of Millennium Development Goals. It is usual in such works for efforts to be made in focusing on particular functions or usages of such specific fields of knowledge and how to tap into such fields with a view to relying on their ingredients of those bodies of knowledge, to bring about functional development to our societies.

The structural field of engineering, the vast field of medicine, the exegesis of theology, the normative standard of legal jurisprudence, the sociological content of the field of social works, the monetary values of economics, the transcendental themes of philosophy, the contributing calculus of mathematics and

statistics, the contributory indemnity of insurance, the past and futuristic predictions of the field of history and several other bodies of knowledge have been reviewed by several scholars and applied as media for the attainment of MDGs. It is therefore the intent of this work to take a cursory look at the field of language, explore the several potentials of language as a field of knowledge, its functions and uses, especially as tools of social action and developmental engineering, and finally, attempt a prognosis of the several challenges bedeviling MDGs and particularly seek to apply the resourcefulness of the field of legal language and jurisprudence as prescriptive standards for functionally positing solutions for the attainment of MDGs.

The concept of development

It is expedient to discuss related concepts, which form the subject matter of this paper. One of such concepts is the idea of “Development”. What does development constitute? To the ordinary eyes, development can be viewed as a change. Development can also be seen as an altered circumstance or the creation of something novel. It can also be referred to as creation of new ideas, or the building of infrastructure. Growth has been used in several instances as an accepted synonym of development. The sum total of this seemingly simple idea is to understand that development is about positive change, creation, growth in all spheres of functional human endeavours.

The New Webster’s Dictionary of the English Language is more didactic as it defines development as the ability “to cause to grow or expand” and “the act of developing a new factor or situation”. Adedokun, Agboola and Ojeleye (2010) explain that development, when mentioned, brings to mind some elements of development. The first is man who often will make use of his initiatives, resources, within and outside his environment, to cause positive change or growth in his living conditions. This change or growth can be physical, psychological, social, moral and emotional. Referring to Adedokun (2009), they opine that development can be said to be a determined effort to change the society so as to find solution to the problems and challenges associated with poverty and underdevelopment. And to Akinpelu (2002), it is a process of empowering man with the needed skills and knowledge to positively change not just himself but his rural place of living. Thus, development is “fundamental to transformations” and “change of consciousness”. The concept of change therefore serves as a light bearer to the more seemingly elitist concept of MDGs which we seek herein after to throw some light upon.

The Idea of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

The world right from primitive times has always been confronted by several developmental challenges. Man has developed himself and his environment from the Stone Age through to the industrial revolution, through to the Jet Age and now to the internet generation with all the accomplishments of all the E-transactions. Despite all such advances by man, his society and the environment in which man operates are still being bedeviled by several debilitating factors that pose as set backs to man’s development. These debilitating circumstances include poor health, absence of universal primary education, unceasing and excruciating poverty and hunger, gender inequality and inequity, high child morbidity and mortality rates, low maternal health ratings, invading HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, and the continuous depletion of the ozone layer through indiscriminate discharge of green house gases.

The concept of MDGs was evolved as a solution to all of the above problems and more. The idea was the setting up of targets or goals of advancements in all the aforementioned areas of human endeavour, with a view to improving on life expectancy and the quality of life as the world negotiated from the Twentieth Century into the Twenty-first Century. Interestingly, the commencement of the MDGs followed several United Nations' conferences in 1996, where world leaders, social workers and philanthropists that were appalled at the state of social degeneration of living conditions, especially in the Southern hemisphere of the world. They were shocked particularly at the levels of poverty, malnutrition, hunger and starvation, and the high levels of illiteracy coupled with paucity of health facilities available to large populations, especially for African and Asian countries. Several donors acting on their own decided on a course of action on how to get the world out of such malaise. In a document titled **Shaping the 21st Century**, the foundation was laid for seven of the MDGs. Developing countries had no hand in setting the targets of shaping the 21st Century and even in assessing progress. This document was highly controverted by the civil society between 1996 and to the beginning of a new millennium in year 2000. The basis of their criticism was the view that it was an attempt by the developed nations of the world to avoid the more demanding structural issues of improved equitable economic relationships between the North and South, and the need for reform of global governance. The year 2015 was therefore set as the target date for the attainment of the expected development and advancements in the quality of life, in respect of all the aforementioned MGDs.

The celebrated document, **Shaping the 21st Century**, made this millennium declaration **“Spare no effort to free our fellow men, women and children from the object and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty; we are committed to make the right to development a reality for everyone and to freeing the entire human race from want.”** This declaration became the rallying point for the integration of MDGs into the consensus statements of two later United Nations' conferences in 2002, that is “Financing for Development” held in Monterrey, Mexico, and the “World Summit on Sustainable Development” held in Johannesburg. Through series of conferences and negotiations, MDGs have now been integrated into a part of the Washington Consensus, the IMF and the World Bank, and the United Nations. According to Ekpo (2011):

The MDGs are so basic that they ought to be the responsibility of any credible government. While the whole idea of the MDGs was generated externally –and there is nothing really wrong with that – do we, however, need the Washington Consensus to tell us to achieve universal primary education, eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, etc? There was a time the nation [Nigeria] was treated, among others, to programmes like “Housing for all by the year 2000”, “Health for all by the year 2000.” The year 2000 came and went and today, most Nigerians remain poorer, houseless and unhealthy. The MDGs may present a different (perhaps, better) picture by the year 2015. (27)

In summary, MDGs represent the standards or bench marks set for the governments of the nations of the world to attain in the economic, educational, social, health, infrastructure, environmental advancements and gender equity with a view to making the right to development a reality for the entire human race by year 2015. The focus of this work is how language may be used as a tool for social engineering for the attainment of these MDGs. It is therefore apposite at this stage to delve into the subject matter of language before we consider how it can be used as a tool for social engineering for the attainment of the MDGs.

Language as a concept

Language is a medium of communication acceptable within specified communities, ethnic and geographical groupings. In fact, language is a vehicle of transmutation of social values from age to age and from generation to generation in a given social setting. According to Wardhaugh (2006:1) “a language is what the members of a particular society speak.” He explains that “when two or more people communicate with each other in speech, we can call the system of communication that they employ a code. In most cases that code will be something we may also want to call a language.” Therefore, a code or a language is a system of communication adopted when two or more people communicate with each other or one another in speech. Language represents the primary way in which people communicate with one another; it is “a system of symbol that can be put together in an infinite number of ways for the purpose of communicating abstract word. Each word is actually a symbol, a sound to which we have attached a particular meaning so that we can then use it to communicate with one another.” (Henslin, 1995:40)

Language can also be described as a means of not only communication but of storing historical information of bygone days. For instance, the great achievements of the Egyptian empire through their Pharaohs were preserved through the language medium of **hieroglyphics** – the hieroglyphics is one of the world’s earliest forms of written language. There is also the **cuneiform** which was predominantly used in the ancient written language of Babylon, Assyria, and Persia. It was composed of wedge-shaped strokes which were impressed with *stylos* in soft clay. These forms of written language bring to the fore the issues of the forms of language. Language may be oral/spoken (verbal) or written/sign or non spoken language (non-verbal). The oral form is the most obvious and the commonest of the forms of language.

Language is also a means of identification. As a means of identification, children hear and recognize the language form of their parents, older siblings, the extended families and their immediate social settings. This tends to drive together in a bond of closeness a people along language lines. For example, if a Yoruba native speaker meets on the streets of Brazil other Yoruba native speakers, the language will form an immediate “identity card” and an immediate bridge of acceptance and bonding for the strangers.

Language, beyond all the conceptualization of academia, transcends the boundaries or narrow confines of structure and correctness or appropriateness of grammar. It represents an idea, philosophy, policy thrust or ideology. Language, in this respect, encapsulates more than the roles of syntax. It is rather seen as a vision, a mission and the channels through such visions are realizable. In this light, various fields of endeavour have specific and varied language register. What may represent appropriate language for the Engineer may seem to be at odds with a Solicitor or Advocate. For the lawyer, for instance, there are such uses of legalese that their practicum permits. In fact, jurisprudence represents an effort to the study and breaking down the several legal conundrums that legal scholarship often entails. This study is an effort to go beyond the narrow usages of language and, rather represents a quest for the application of the more liberal definitions of legal language to the attainment of MDGs.

The concept of social and economic development

The word, social, brings to mind society or groupings, or units or communities of people or beings interacting together. *The New Webster’s Dictionary of English Language* views it as “relating to human society, living in communities, e.g. social insects, enjoyed or taking in company, relating to or designed

for social activities, for instance, a social club, relating to rank in the community, for instance, social equals.” What can easily be deduced from these descriptions of the word, social, is the essence of community. That is, existing together, a sense of togetherness, living together, interacting together, and growing together with all their attendants’ social interactions. It is in this light that we accept language as a tool for social development.

The concept of social development carries in its essence, the idea of societal economic development. What is economic development? Economic development envisages the idea of productive enterprise in activities of human endeavours. The farmer that produces his crops gets profits from the sale of such crops. The fisherman returns from the seas with his catch and converts same to monetary value in the market. The artist or craftsman creates works of art and earns a living from it. The mason earns a living from taking part in building projects. The horticulturalist sells his flowers and makes a living out of his enterprise.

The doctor, lawyer, accountant, teacher, engineer, pilot, sailor, banker, painter are all engaged in one form of economic endeavour or the other, all in their efforts of attaining personal and societal economic advancements. Money, they say, makes the world go round. It is therefore an imperative that the central focus of socio-economic activity should be how best man can take advantage of his environment, improve his earnings and advance himself and his society, economically and socially. Social development is incomplete without economic development. The latter reinforces the former. A society is said to be sophisticated when there is a balanced social, economic, physical, intellectual, mental and moral development. This is where the MDGs seek to advance the course of socio-economic development. The most elementary means of advancing man’s economic development is through the vehicle of language.

The use of language as vehicle of socio-economic development

Language is easily most important and the most basic instrument of societal change. A society that finds itself in economic and social, political and structural decay is in urgent need of a change in the language of its political elites and its citizenry. In 1929, there was deep economic recession in Europe. In countries like Germany, the Deutschmark was as useless as the paper with which it was printed. The level of unemployment was intolerable. There was lack of faith in the German Federation. Change was urgently needed. Adolph Hitler understood the language of change. The change started with the language, as he successfully charged the disenchanted Germans to change their mindsets, the way they thought, the way they spoke and the way they wrote. He called upon all to use the language of self-belief and pride in the Arian race. They believed their leader and the language changed to self-belief. There was almost magical, turn around in the socio-economic fortunes of the German State. The level of belief by the Germans in this change of language, which engendered in itself a cycle of positive changes, was so deep that they saw nothing wrong in trusting Hitler even when his “*Mein Kampf*” (My Command) took the Germans beyond the lowest levels of human bestiality in the succeeding years of the pogroms of Second World War (1939-1945)¹.

Suffice it to say that the use of language has been, is and will continue to have tremendous impact for change be it socio-economic, political or otherwise. Earlier, immediately post First World War (1914-1918), the world was shocked at the levels of human carnage and unquantifiable economic losses. There

¹Modern European History Website, www.angelfire.com, retrieved 21/05/11.

was a need for change of language and change of direction. World leaders centered their language on the need for peace, global security and balance of powers. This brought about the birth of the League of Nations with the main goal being the preaching of peace among the nations of the world and the avoidance of global conflict. For about twenty years, the language of peace worked until the outbreak of the Second World War.

Crisis in the political, economic and social life of the former Gold Coast, now Ghana, had for decades scuttled the expected benefits of liberation from imperialism in the hands of Britain since 1957. The Pan-Africanism leadership of Kwame Nkrumah appeared to have had short-lived impact on the socio-economic life of Ghanaians. This led to several military interventions in the life of the nascent nation state in the hope of a change in the socio-economic life of Ghana. From Archeampong through several changes to Jerry Rawlings, the people of Ghana suffered untold economic hardship, social deprivations, massive unemployment and a general decay and corruption of the leadership of the State, hence the birth of *The Beautiful Ones Are Not Yet Born* by Ayi Kwei Armah, which is quite instructive in this respect. It took the second coming of Jerry Rawlings to the reigns of power in Accra to achieve a change of language of Ghanaian politics which successfully brought about economic and social rebirth. Ghanaians that were scattered abroad were invited back home. The language was rebuilding Ghana to a self reliant economy. The language brought back self belief in Ghanaians about their homeland. Today, the Ghanaians and the politics of State administration have witnessed one of the most stable of economic growth indices in the West African sub-region.

In Nigeria, the situation in Ghana was also being played out. From the euphoria of post-independent political activities and the expectations of an indigenous economic el-dorado of the 60s, there was instead disappointment in the political and social economic spheres. From the political crisis in Western Nigeria to ethnic distrust and discontent in Northern Nigeria, the outbreak of the Nigerian Civil War (1967-1970) became inevitable as the Eastern part seceded and declared the independent State of Biafra. With the Civil War, which lasted for about three years, Nigeria suffered incalculable loses in terms of human resources, retardation of value of human life, hunger and starvation, stagnation of human and social growth, and the foundations of socio-economic life of the Eastern region of Nigeria was completely devastated. With this state of socio-economic decay and abject hopelessness, there was urgent need for the redirecting of the national consciousness of Nigeria, out from the ruins and decay of the war. The government of Gen. Gowon, therefore, evolved the language of “No victor no vanquish”, pardoned the ‘rebellious’ Eastern Region and sought to reintegrate the Eastern Region back into the country through the language of ‘Reconstruction, Rehabilitation, and Re-integration’. Within a decade and particularly, in 1979, the military junta was able to hand over power to an elective civilian administration, after it had achieved some measures of reconstruction and reintegration in the country. Of very recent has been the language of peace through the Amnesty Project of the Yar’ Adua/Jonathan’s administration (2007-2011). The militant nationalism of the Niger-Deltans that advocated for control of their natural resources instead of federal exploitation appears to have had some measure of success as the militants have since turned in their arms and national economic cohesion appears to be hopefully on the verge of a rebirth under President Goodluck Jonathan. The Amnesty Project spoke the language of peace so much that hardened militants could lay down their arms and opt for a structured offer of systematic economic development of the Niger-Delta region. It is yet to be seen how much the Federal Government of Nigeria can take advantage of this ‘armistice’.

How legal language can be used for the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals

Law imports the idea of legal language, that is, the language of the law. Whether described as the language of the law or legal language, this field of study seeks to capture the essence of legal prescriptions through a distilling and the examination of the wordings or language used for the drafting of statutes or re-enactment. Law, at its simplest level, constitutes of a body of prescriptions that regulates conducts in a given organized setting be it a club, society, community, limited liability company, state, country or even international organizations. The concept of law requires obedience of certain agreed norms, the violation of which attracts sanctions. According to the Austinian school of thought, law represents the enforcements of the will and authority of the uncommanded sovereign. The legal language and jurisprudential prescriptions revolve around force and the use of force for the attainment of the aims and goals of the law giver. It therefore stands to reason that he that represents the sovereignty of a State and enjoys the obedience or submission of the citizenry is placed in a position to activate the instrumentality of the law as a means of advancing societal economic development.

Legal language or the language of the law practically refers to the words used by draft man of legal instruments to convey the intentions of the law maker or law giver. In real terms, this language appears to be within the exclusive usage of not only the law maker but that of the specific drafters of Statutes. The language used by legal draftsmen is of course, related to the scope of the powers delegated to draftsmen by the legislative arm of government. It involves reliance on specially trained personnel employed on an *ad hoc* basis to do the work of the legislators. A classical example of such training programmes can be got from the Institute of Advanced Legal Studies in Lagos, Nigeria where courses like postgraduate studies in legislative drafting are mounted. It is part of their training to acquire the use of legal language for the specific attainment of the identified or identifiable goals of the legislative arm of government through the pieces of legislative drafting of bills before it is forwarded for adoption by the law makers and accented to by the executive arm of government. Some of the legislators that may be privileged to have such legal training are usually expected to work with such *ad hoc* draftsmen, as they are usually members of the standing committees of such legislative houses, for instance, the Senate and House of Representatives at the national level in Nigeria.

The terms of reference assigned to these legal draftsmen are usually a reflection of the policy objectives and directing principles of the State. It is often a reflection of the plans, dreams, aspirations and ideologies of the initiators of such bills. For the purpose of clarification, a 'bill' refers to a statute in the process of its making. It is not yet a statute as long as the law making process of that particular statute is on-going. The transmutation to the status of a statute is only after the bill has gone through all the law making processes in the Assembly and has in fact, been assented to by the Executive, be it the President, Prime Minister or the Monarch as the case may be in nations like England.

The language employed by each set of draftsmen is usually carefully worded section by section, paragraph by paragraph, to reflect the wishes of the government, especially where the government has specific objectives to attain. For instance, the Nigerian government even before the evolution of the MDGs had acknowledged the burgeoning increase in the number of applicants seeking for admission for undergraduate studies which far outstripped the available spaces in Nigeria's federal and state

universities. Statistics had shown that barely less than 10% of applicants for university and polytechnic admission got admitted for undergraduate studies each year. Some applicants had, in fact, attempted university placement exams for upward of 5 to 7 times without success. There was, therefore, a need for policy change by the government which was compelled by the stark realities in the country to loosen its historical grasp on the provision of tertiary education in Nigeria. Several processes were put in place by the government and ultimately a policy change for the liberalization of education was arrived at. The draftsmen were therefore, given the terms of reference to translate into language form the new policy direction of the government. Once the government had given its terms of reference, it was left purely to the discretionary ambit of the legislative draftsmen to translate this intention of the government to a language form capable of meeting the wishes of the government policy and capable of approval by the State. That is how the government arrived at the Education (National Minimum Standards and Establishment of Institutions) Amendment Decree No 9 of 1993. Today, as a result of that use of language by draftsmen, there has been the creation of several educational opportunities by the private sector of the Nigerian state. The celebrated Babcock University and others like Redeemers' University and Madonna University are true reflections of the work of legal draftsmen in attaining educational development in a given society.

Part of the objectives of MDGs is the attainment of Education-For-All, therefore, it is instructive that even the language and the wordings of the Education Liberalization Decree No 9 of 1993 has, to a large extent, made functional contributions to the attainment of education-for-all as thousands of Nigerians now have opportunities for tertiary education through the private universities. The very essence of creation of opportunities have left open for those that can afford the high fees incidental to their operations has directly increased the number of intake and consequently left more vacancies in the public tertiary institutions for the less privileged.

In the area of attainment of economic opportunities for self development and the reduction of poverty, there has been a specific direct result from the work of legal draftsmen that successfully gave birth to the Economic Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC) Acts of 2001. These twin Statutes came as a result of unmitigated upswing in the levels of economic corruption in both private and public sectors of the Nigerian economy. Many companies have collapsed and several government parastatals have become moribund as a result of unbridled abuse and outright stealing of revenue. Consequently, many citizens lost their jobs on an account of the collapse of such establishments due to corruption. There was also the need for a frontier attack on this cankerworm of corruption in the Nigerian economy.

The Obasanjo's government (1999–2007), in spite of its shortcomings, achieved transformation in the corruption practices in Nigeria through the EFCC and the ICPC Acts enacted as anti-corruption instruments. These Acts, using legal language as an instrument, have successfully struck a sense of responsibility into the conscience of leaders in both public and private sectors of the Nigerian State. The draftsmen language of the EFCC, the ICPC and recently, the Public Procurement Act (PPA), have all in their combined import condemned corrupt practices especially in public life in Nigeria. They have also laid the foundation for the creation of awareness against financial malpractices and engendered probity and accountability in the life of the average Nigerian. It is strongly hoped that in spite of the huge challenges besetting their enforcement that the many advantages of the creation of such legal instruments

will ultimately impact positively on the Nigerian economy. This will clearly be in consonance with Section 16 of the Nigerian Constitution 1999 which clearly states its economic objectives inter-alia as follows:

1. The State shall
 - a. Harness the resources of the Nation and promote national prosperity and efficient, a dynamic and self-reliant economy;
 - b. Control the national economy in such a manner as to secure the maximum welfare, freedom and happiness of every citizen on the basis of social justice and equality of status and opportunities:
2. The State shall direct its policy towards ensuring
 - d. That suitable and adequate shelter, suitable and adequate food, reasonable national minimum living wage, old age care and pension and unemployment, sick benefits and welfare of the disabled are provided for all citizens.

The responsibility on the part of the State to work towards the attainment of the MDGs can certainly be highly achievable if due recourse and reliance is placed on adequate use of legal language by the government and their legal draftsmen in pursuit of these laudable goals by 2015. Even, the entire Chapter 2 of the Constitution has made recondite provisions in its language or wording that will contribute to the push for the attainment of MDGs. For instance, Section 16 provides for the eradication of poverty, Section 17 provides for social objectives like eradication of discriminatory treatments on the grounds of place of origin, sex, religion, status, ethnic or linguistic association or ties. Section 18 has been carefully drafted by the legal draftsmen for directing the government to turn its educational policy towards ensuring that there are equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels.... For example, it provides, “The government shall strive to eradicate illiteracy and to this end, the government shall... a. provide free compulsory and universal primary education b. free secondary education c. free university education and d. free adult literacy programme.”

As noble and egalitarian as the above constitutional provisions may sound, these objectives have been rendered nugatory, as self same Section 18(3) has added a questionable rider “as at when practicable.” Sadly enough, this is not the only constitutional opportunity for the government to avoid the enforcement of such glamorous legal provisions. But the legal language itself, has completely become an anathema as Section 6(6) (C) of the same 1999 Constitution of Nigeria provides to the extent that the judicial powers of the court to enforce the noble provisions of the entire Chapter 2 of the Constitution has been rendered ‘non-justiciable’ as the judicial powers of the court “(c.) shall not, except as otherwise provided by this Constitution, extend to any issue of question as to whether any act or omission by any authority or person, or as to whether any law or any judicial decision is in conformity with the fundamental objectives and directive principles of State policy set out in Chapter 2 of this Constitution.”

The entire consequence of this provision clearly shows that all the wonderful legal language contained in Sections 13 to 24, are not enforceable. This clearly sends a message about the significance of the use of legal language for the attainment of MDGs, for it requires more than just an intent to employ legal language for the attainment of MDGs, for intent without the requisite sincerity of purpose even by the best trained legal minds accomplishes nothing. It is therefore, part of the recommendations of this paper that why applying legal language, there is the need for there to be an accompanying political will to give an enabling environment for the attainment of the noble ideals of not only the constitutional provisions in Chapter II aforesaid but more importantly, the more universal ideals of MDGs will be better served. It is the considered opinion of this work that such phrases like “as at when practicable” in Chapter II of the Nigerian Constitution of 1999 should therefore be removed for the Act to materialize.

Summary and conclusion

This work has attempted to delve into the wide field of language as a tool for the attainment of socio-economic development. It, however, has attempted to streamline and narrow the work to advocating the use of legal language for the specific attainment of Millennium Development Goals. It considered the concept of economic development and particularly, attempted a summary of the ideals of MDGs. It further went ahead to examine its historical evolution and reviewed its set target of 2015. The work investigated how the use of language can advance the attainment of socio-economic development. Particular decision of how legal language can be used for the attainment of MDGs was attempted. The paper concludes that there is greater need for sincerity of purpose and requisite practical will if the potential of legal language is to be relied on for the attainment of MDGs.

To this end, the employment of legal language must be in a continuum as a classical study of most instruments of State policy reveals yawning gaps between the ideals of MDGs and actual attainment. For this reason, this paper strongly advocates legal reforms to the use of language, especially on issues that touch or are connected or will encourage the attainment of MDGs in 2015. One of such examples is the recommendation for the amendment, to wit: the complete deleting of the entire Section 6 (6) (C) and every other provision that mentions “as at when practicable”. For if these provisions are left in the current state then the use of legal language can only hamper and not enhance the attainment of MDGs.

References

- Adedokun, M. O., B. G. Agboola & J. A. Ojeleye.(2010). Practical Steps for Rural Community Development.” In *Contemporary Humanities*, Volume 4, Nos. 1&2, pp. 241-247
- Adedokun, M. O. (2009). *A Handbook of Community Development*. Ibadan: Bolmor Publishers.
- Akinpelu, J. A. (2002). *Philosophy and Adult Education*. Ibadan: Stirling Horden Publishers. (2009)
- Ekpo, A. H. (2011). MDGs and Economic Development. In *Tell Magazine*. Broad Street Journal. No. 19, May 16, 2011.
- Henslin, J. M. (1995). *Sociology: A-Down-to-Earth Approach*. Massachusetts: A. Simon & Schuster Company.
- Modern European History Website.www.angelfire.com. Retrieved on 21/05/2011
- The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999*.(1999). Lagos: The Federal Government Press. FGP 195/599/1,500 (OL 32).
- The New Webster’s Dictionary of the English Language*. (2000). New York: Lexicon International – Publishers Guild Group
- Wardhaugh, R. (2006). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*.5th Edition. United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing.

Natural is National?-Causes and Consequences of Resource Curse in Africa- A Theoretical Perspective: Lesson for Oil Find in Ghana.

By

¹ AGYEKUM, Francis K. and ² MAWUTOR, Godfred

^{1, 2 and 3}Valley View University, Department of Banking and Finance,
School of Business

Abstract

Discovery of natural economic resource like oil and gas comes with all kinds of challenges ranging from conflict to mismanagement that often result from corrupt leadership. The notion that natural resource is a national resource could have the tendency for the discovering nation ignore the specific needs of the indigenous communities on whose soil the resource has been discovered. Mean while the social, cultural, economic as well as the environmental impacts that result from the extraction of such resources could pose a real 'curse to the indigenous communities within which such resources are located. Pollution from the Oil and Gas sector could have negative impact on the community in several ways and these could be summarized into three interrelated impacts, adverse impacts on biodiversity, socio-economic impacts and physico-health impacts. However this study emphasizes that the externalities that are generated from the operations of the emerging Oil and Gas sector is not always negative. There could be positive externality (blessings) if medium to long term measures and policies are deliberately pursued to integrate the local indigenous communities (in the case of Western Region of Ghana) where the Oil and Gas is found. The study builds a simple theoretical model to emphasize the channels through which the oil find in Africa generally and Ghana in particular, could be a blessings (positive externality) and or otherwise. Using a parallelogram (Rhomboid) to represent the long-run peaceful coexistence that could exist between the communities of the 'newly migrated oil and gas workers' on one hand and the 'indigenes' on the other, should the oil and gas find turn a blessing. The study emphasizes that the peaceful coexistence would not come on a silver platter. It would rather come only through deliberate policy measures directed at working towards the full-integration of local indigenes (in the long-run); at least in the medium term known in the model as a transitory point. The study also predicts that if the medium term measures are not well managed then the blessings would be a curse and in that case the coexistence would instead turn into conflict.

Key Words:*Dutch Disease, externality, Resource curse, coexistence, transitory point*

Background of the Study

The fact that Africa is one of the richest (if not the richest of all) continents in terms of natural resource endowments is beyond doubt. The ironic cliché that Africa is the 'richest continent' but 'the poorest among all' is also beyond dispute. The poverty situation on the continent is so complex to investigate into, to be able to attribute one direct cause or the other to them. The continent has for so long been characterized by high illiteracy and ignorance, both intra and inter border conflicts, low productivity, diseases that are either curable or preventable, high infant and maternal mortality rate, low life

expectancy, poor standard of living resulting from poor nutritional diet and hygienic drinking water, environmental challenges; and the list is endless (MDG Report, 2008).

In spite of the obvious fact that the continent is endowed with enormous natural resource, this has not translated positively into the lives and has not reflected in the living standard of the people on the continent, as indicated in the UN MDG Report, (2008). Indeed some have argued that these natural resources, especially the most precious ones which ought to have been a 'blessing' to her over 800 million inhabitants, has often turn out to be rather a 'curse'. The war in Liberia has often been linked with what became known as the 'black diamond' if not blood diamond. The protracted conflicts on some other part of the continent such as that of Somalia, Sudan, Nigeria Delta region, among others, have all been linked to a discovery of one natural resource or the other (Rosser, 2006 in Amin, 2009).

An investigation into these complex issues of 'resource curse' in Africa requires a multi-dollar financing. The causes of such conflicts have been attributed to various sources; some remote and others immediate. Whereas some blame it on their alleged corrupt governments and leadership who fail to deal with the problems for their own corrupt gains, others have blamed it on the Western manipulation through the multinational companies (*Essential Action and Global Exchange, January 25, 2000*), and sometimes consider it as what has been described as neo-colonialism and Western imperialist control.

Ghana like few other African countries has recently struck oil in commercial quantities (Asafu-Adjaye, 2010). News about Ghana's discovery of oil in commercial quantities was received by many Ghanaians but not without mix-reactions. Whereas some welcomed the news with optimism that the economic woes of the country would be a thing of the past, others taking cue from the happenings in other part of the continent, especially the neighbouring Nigeria's Niger Delta State could not but discount the oil discovery as potential source of curse for already politically polarized country like Ghana. As was underscored by Asafu-Adjaye, (2010) "the unfortunate oil-related problems in Nigeria, one of the leading oil producing countries in Africa has been an ever present reminder of what can go wrong when a potentially beneficial national asset is dissipated through mismanagement and corruption." It is therefore not surprising that one of the respected traditional leaders from the Western region of Ghana, (the Omanhene of the Essikado Traditional Area on whose land the oil has been discovered) is reported to have expressed a sense of trepidation on the discovery of oil in his locality; when interviewed by one of the renowned TV hosts in Ghana, (David Ampofo, who devoted a sizeable portion of his program to the oil find in Ghana). Indeed it is further argued by Asafu-Adjaye that if the country concerned wastes the proceeds flowing of the extraction of these natural resources like oil which is non-renewable resource, then a great disservice has been committed not only against the present but also the future generations as well (Asafu-Adjaye, 2010).

The government of Ghana has since the information of oil discovery made various attempts and consultations, all in a bid to ensure that Ghanaian's emerging oil industry would be a blessing rather than a curse to the nation. However, the question still remains: 'have the policy-makers in Ghana come to the full appreciation of the complex and ever dynamic issues surrounding what is known as 'resources curse' in Africa, especially the causes; and to what extend has this phenomenon been modeled and contextualized into policy framework to guide a prescription as antidotes to the menace on the continent; a gap that this research seeks to fill.

Additionally, most of the national strategies to ensure that the nation reaps the full benefit from the emerging oil and gas industry seems to be macro and global and little attention has often been paid to the complex 'cost implication' of the immediate communities within which the industry would operate; another gap this paper seek to fill.

Problem Statement

Mineral and oil discovery and development in most African countries are affected by protracted conflict that results from myriad of causes, prominent among which are the corruption and mismanagement of the proceeds from such national resources.

In most cases development of such natural resources is regarded as an "enclave" activity in which case the direct impact of the miners and the drillers (in the case of oil) primarily fall on and are restricted to the immediate locality of operations, while the benefit accruing from such a venture in the form of taxes and royalties are considered national (ODI, 2006). Because such *naturalresources* are considered *nationalresources*, the local communities may not have a right to properly negotiate with the mining or drilling companies, in spite of the fact that they bear the brunt of the negative externalities arising from the operations of mining, Oil and Gas companies. Some of pollutants includes the leakage of flammable toxic or pollutant liquids, pool (hydrocarbon) fire, flammable vapour cloud explosion, (VCE); pressure vessel explosion (PVE), boiling liquid expanding vapour explosion (BLEVE), boil-over of crude oil tanks while on fire, torch fire (flammable gas), run-away reaction (typical of oxidation reactions); toxic gas release and dust explosion (Asafu Adjaye, 2010).

Environmental degradation, poor health facilities, inadequate and in some cases lack of transportation facilities, land and poor housing, infertile soil as a result of crude oil exploitation, insecurity, poor educational facilities, lack of potable drinking water, lack of access to credit facilities, unemployment, corrupt practices are some of the common fate and features of the local indigenous communities within and around which the oil and gas development take place, as has been observed by Omofonmwan & Odia, (2009).

The socio-cultural values of the local indigenes are often adulterated and the sources of livelihood of the indigenous fishermen and farmers are often endangered by the activities of the oil and gas companies with little attention paid. Environmental pollution in the form of oil spillages, gas flares and effluent and waste discharges have also characterised the operations of the Oil & Gas extraction and in most cases in Africa, has added to the plight of the rural indigenes living within the ambience of the oil and gas activity (Pyagbara, 2007).

Failure of local communities that play host to the discovered natural resource (oil in Ghana's case) to accrue tangible benefit from the emerging industry have high predisposition to spark off conflict. As has been acknowledged by the ODI, (2006) in a study conducted by the World Bank which revealed a consensus among all stakeholder groups who recognised the issue of "*the distribution of benefits and costs as the crucial issue in Extractive Industries*"...and consequently, intimated that there is the need to have a "*calculated shares accruing to different levels of government or accruing directly to local communities*" [(OED/OEG, 2001) in ODI, 2006]. This makes the recent demand by the Western Regional

Chiefs of 10% on the oil revenue on Ghana's oil find not totally illegitimate, (GNA,/Aryeetey² 23rd November, 2010).

Most often than not, the dissatisfaction among the various factions on the distribution of the proceeds and other benefits has resulted in prolonged conflict either between the indigenous natives and their leaders or between the people with backings of their leaders and the companies most of which are foreign owned.

It is in the light of this that the study seeks to explore various dimensions and the unique features of 'Africa's resource curse' (as in contrast with the original view on what constitutes the resource curse, thus; the 'traditional Dutch Disease'). This the researcher does by conceptually modeling the potential channels through which resource discovery could be either a curse or a blessing for the country concerned; and though from theoretical perspective at this stage notwithstanding, the policy significance of this could partly serve as an antidote to the age-long Africa's resource curse in general and for Ghana in particular.

Objective of the Study

The main objective of this research is to conceptually model a framework to offer explanations, (in part and from theoretical perspective) to the 'micro-fundamental causes' of the resource curse in Africa and based upon the model offer policy prescriptions which could possibly avert the 'curse' to 'blessings'.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Concept of Resource Curse ('Dutch disease')

In economics, the 'Dutch disease' is a concept which attempts to explain the apparent relationship that exists between the increase in exploitation of natural resources and a decline in the manufacturing and other sectors of the economy. According to Stevens (2003 in ODI, 2006) the term refers to "... the economic phenomenon in which the discovery and exploitation of natural resources deindustrialises a nation's economy". According to Wikipedia "the term was coined in 1977 by *The Economist* to describe the decline of the manufacturing sector in the Netherlands after the discovery of a large natural gas field in 1959". ('The Economist', November 26, 1977 ed., retrieved on 5/11/10 Wikipedia online free dictionary). The traditional model on resource curse postulates that high revenues from natural resource tend to strengthen that country's currency (thus, a much stronger exchange rate). Consequently, this results in the nation's exports of other sectors like manufacturing and agric becoming more expensive for trading partner countries to import. Since this concept appeared in the late 1970s, discovery of natural resources have been viewed with two suspecting eyes: either as a 'curse' or a 'blessings' for economic growth (Samreen, 2010). Some other authors have attempted to apply the same concept to what seems to be resource curse in some specific countries and continents. For instance (Rosser, 2006 in Amin, 2009) has argued that there is what is known as the 'Nigerian Disease' (just as we have the Dutch disease), and "that is, an abundance of natural resources led to poorer governance and conflicts in Nigeria. It gives rise to governments that are less accountable to the people, have little incentive for institution-building, and

²Vice Chancellor of University of Ghana is reported to have said this when he opened the Chartered Institutes of Banking annual forum.

fail to implement growth enhancing reforms. Higher corruption, more rent-seeking activity, greater civil conflict, and erosion of social capital are some of the outcomes” according to Amin, (2009).

Samreen, (2010) has indicated that an oil-rich country like Gabon has two extreme cases: either one is poor or rich in which case there is no middle group (Perry, Time 2007). He further argued that countries rich in natural resources lag behind in development compared to countries lacking them and such countries are mostly characterized by violence, civil unrest, political and economic instability and high income, among others (Samreen, 2010). This indeed suggests that whereas the traditional resource curse in the form of proverbial ‘Dutch Disease’ focused on different dimension, the African Disease goes even beyond what Dutch Disease originally meant. African Disease or African resource curse is not just about discovery of a natural resource which would affect negatively other sector (as the Dutch Disease argues), rather, the political, social as well as poor and corrupt management of such resource discovery is more of a concern in the case of ‘Africa Disease’.

Several studies have also attributed the resource curse problem partly to the rent-seeking behaviour (a covert form of corruption) in which a few capitalist (political and economic) have access to resource and use their influence to divert those resources from fruitful economic use that would benefit many (Samreen, 2010; Brunnschewier, 2006; Torvik, 2001 & Gylfason, 2001).

The role institutions play in the minimization of the problem of resource curse has also received some attention in the literature. Karabegovic, (no date, in Samreen, 2010) has indicated that institution such as, rule of law, which leads to transparent and accountable governance, play a significant role in determining whether a natural resource becomes a curse or a blessings.

A study conducted by Jacobs et al (2010) revealed that resource abundance tends to have rather large positive growth effects by increasing investment rates, negative effects by lowering the diversification of a country’s export portfolio. The study however focused on only one dimension of the impact of the natural resource; and thus, on growth, and indicated however that natural resources would affect growth through four (4) channels as identified; ‘Investment Rate’, ‘Institutions’, ‘Inequality’ and ‘Volatility and Export Concentration’ (Jacobs et al, 2010)³. The study however failed to realise that the concern over resource curse goes far beyond just an economic growth, failing to acknowledge that, growth and development are two related but different concepts. The study was also challenged by direction of the impact as far as the ‘inequality’ channel is concerned.

Most of the literature on resource curse have focus so much on the impact of the ‘curse’ rather than the fundamental (micro) cause of the curse; a literature gap that this theoretical study expects to fill.

Some Recent Oil and Gas Development on the Continents

Until recently, Africa in general and West Africa in particular would not be typically associated with oil and gas development. Apart from Nigeria who has been a member of OPEC⁴ for some decades now, not so much had been heard of as far as oil and gas development and operations in Africa is concerned,

³ Jacobs et al cited the following authors: [Gylfason and Zoega (2001); Sachs and Warner (1995); Kaufmann et al. (1999); Acemoglu et al. (2000, 2002); Rodrik et al. (2003)]

⁴ OPEC: is an acronym for Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries.

compared with the Middle-East and elsewhere. However the trend seems to be changing as Africa and West Africa in particular is becoming the centre of attraction due to recent discovery of oil (mostly in commercial quantities) in some countries.

According to Global business intelligence database report, (EICDataStream), “under current and future upstream projects in Africa, 338 separate projects are found and prominent among these are the Jubilee Project offshore Ghana, with a value of US\$ 3.1 billion; the CLOV project, Block 17, offshore Angola, which is being developed via a standalone FPSO and has a value of US\$ 9 billion; the Raven and Taurt gas fields offshore Egypt with a value of US\$ 4 billion, and many, many more” (Main, 2009).

Developments of Oil and Gas on the continents have disperse and include: Nigria oil fields; the Bonga field managed by Shell has been producing 225,000 bpd since it went into production in 2005, followed by Total's Akpo field with probable reserves estimated at 620 million bbls of condensate and more than 1 trillion ft³ of gas, the Agbami field, the largest deepwater discovery in Nigeria, as was announced by Chevron in July 2008; Namibia's offshore activity down south is also attracting attention, and in the **North Africa and Libya and Egypt's** oil and gas exploration project in the Eastern Desert, the Nile Delta, the Gulf of Suez and northern Sinai could not be ignored. It is indicated that “Libya has set a goal of increasing oil production of 1.6 million bpd to 2 million bpd by 2010, with longer term ambitions to raise it to 3 million bpd by 2015” (Main, 2009).

Main (2009) further indicated that some **less developed regions of East Africa** are seeing more and more oil and gas exploration activity. Uganda has recently found oil and in Tanzania a number of gas fields are also being appraised. Mozambique, Sudan and The Democratic Republic of Congo are also seeing activity in this direction, while Zambia is reportedly “looking into providing licenses for oil and gas exploration with the opportunity for E&P companies to bid to explore 23 blocks in its North-Western, Western and Eastern provinces of which the preliminary geological surveys have all confirmed the presence of oil” according to Main, (2009).

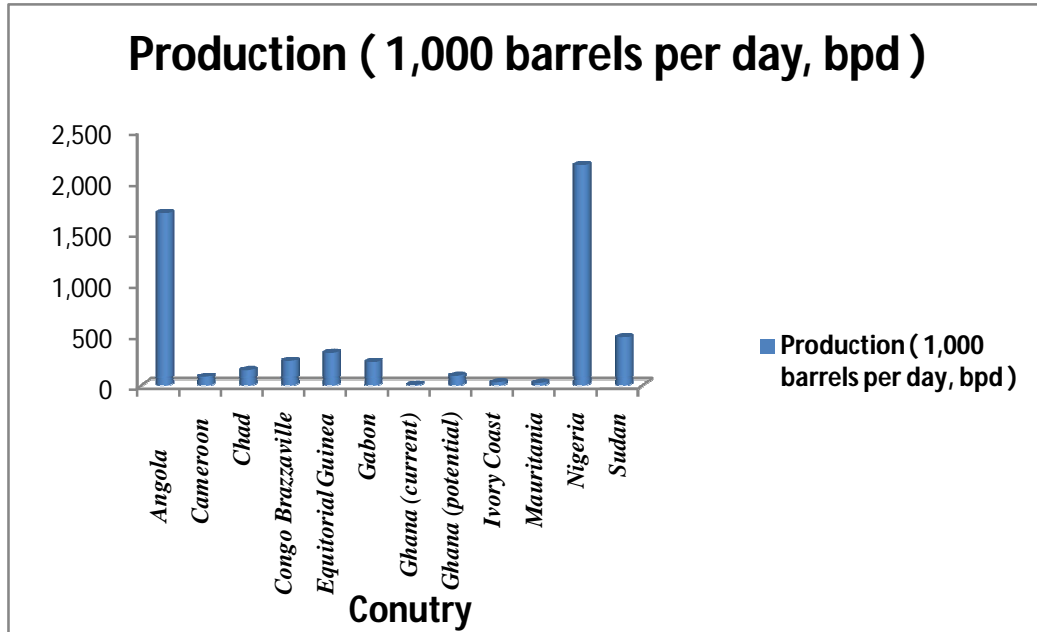
Below is a table (and the figure) that indicates some existing and potential Oil producing regions on the African continent.

Country	Estimated Reserves (1,000 barrels)	Production (barrels per day, bpd)
Angola	8,000,000	1,695,000
Cameroon	400,000	84,0000
Chad	1,500,000	150,000
Congo Brazzaville	1,600,000	240,000
Equitorial Guinea	1,100,000	320,000
Gabon	2,000,000	230,000
Ghana (current)	15,000	6,000
Ghana (potential)	600,000 – 1,300,000	40,000 – 150,000
Ivory Coast	100,000	30,000

Mauritania	100,000	26,000
Nigeria	36,220,000	2,167,000
Sudan	5,000,000	472,000

Table 1.1: Oil Producers in Sub-Saharan Africa

Source: Oxfam America/ISODEC Report (in Asafu-Adjaye, 2010)



Data Source: Oxfam America/ISODEC Report (in Asafu-Adjaye, 2010)

Causes of Oil Related Conflict on the Continent

In spite of all these stunning development in recent past, the discovery of oil and gas on the continent to some has been of more curse than blessings. In Nigeria for instance it has been argued that the “oil and environment-related conflicts in the Niger Delta are reflections of the failure of various Nigerian governments to implement effectively pertinent environmental policies meant to ensure sustainable development” Fidelis, (2010). He further indicated that due to the government and oil company activities which are not well committed toward towards the attainment of sustainable development as the government’s policy on the environment, the surrounding communities are badly affected. It is generally believed that because the government and the oil companies do not do enough to promote sustainable development, Fidelis (2010) argues that that has the resultant net consequence reflected in the frustrations and emergence of insurgences of what has become known as ‘local justice and environmental movement groups in that locality’.

Others have also attributed part of the cause of the problem in the oil rich regions on what they perceive as the involvement of the western government’s manipulation. As has been alleged by ‘anonymous author’ contained in *Essential Action and Global Exchange*, January 25, 2000 (retrieved 19/10/2010).

The corrupt government in Nigeria have been supported and maintained by Western governments and their oil corporations and this is what is causing a clash between the people and transnational oil corporations over this “dark nectar” in the delta region. Some of the oil companies which are mostly owned by the West (like Shell) have been accused of fuelling the conflict in such areas for their selfish gains. A recent “investigation and report by ‘*Essential Action and Global Exchange*’ (2000) found that:

Oil corporations in the Niger Delta seriously threaten the livelihood of neighbouring local communities. The presence of multinational oil companies has had additional adverse effects on the local economy and society, including loss of property, price inflation, prostitution, and irresponsible fathering by expatriate oil workers. (*Essential Action and Global Exchange, January 25, 2000 (retrieved 19/10/2010)*).

Corruption has also been cited by some authors as one of the main causes of the resource related conflict on the continent. Auty, (1997 est.) has indicated that “*resource-rich countries such as the mineral economies tend to be associated with factional or predatory [rather than developmental] states, which may repress a potentially dynamic peasant society and deflect a country from pursuing a development strategy in line with its underlying comparative advantage*” ODI, (2006) report indicated that Angola a classical case of one of the cases of resource-linked corruption, in where \$1 billion (US) is reported to have disappeared from the Angolan government’s accounts in 2001 due to corruption, Ross (2003a in ODI, 2006).

Historical Overview of Oil Exploration and Development in Ghana

Petroleum exploration in Ghana started as far back as in 1896. The exploration in the country between 1896 and 1967 was indeed intermittent. However, between 1968 and 1983 the exploration activities increased with the drilling of many wells offshore discovering the Saltpond Field, Tano Fields and Cape Three Points Gas. (www.ghanaoilinfo.com1/12/2010 retrieved) The formation of Ghana National Petroleum Corporation (GNPC) in 1985 served as an impetus to a major and sustained exploration activity and their tireless effort of GNPC led to a discovery of oil and gas in commercial quantity in June 2007.

Phases of Oil and Gas Exploration in Ghana

The exploration activities of petroleum in Ghana have been categorized into four major landmarks (phases). The first phases span the period between 1896 -1967, the second phase between 1968 -1980, the third phase between 1981 -1995 and the current phase from 1996 to date.

i. Initial Phase

As indicated earlier this phase spanned between 1896 -1967 during which the ‘Wildcat’ and ‘Stratigraphic’ wells drilled, though wells were generally shallow. During this period gravity data acquisition provided useful information, however, no offshore petroleum exploration. (www.ghanaoilinfo.com1/12/2010 retrieved)

ii. Second Phase

At this phase intense exploration activity in the offshore area by many companies took place. However, no drilling activity in the Onshore Tano Basin had begun yet, though large amount of seismic data

acquired in the continental shelf were being gathered. In all, about thirty-one (31) wells were drilled resulting in three (3) discoveries namely: the 'Cape Three Points', The 'Saltpond' and the North and South Tano fields. (www.ghanaoilinfo.com 1/12/2010 retrieved)

iii. Third Phase

This phase was predominantly characterized by data retrieval and gathering. Blocking system was reviewed and the phase also saw enactment of new 'Petroleum Laws'. It was at this phase that 'Model Petroleum Agreement' was formulated. (www.ghanaoilinfo.com 1/12/2010 retrieved)

iv. Current Phase

Spanning from 1996-date, intense exploration activities continued at this phase which eventually culminated in the entry into Partnership Agreement's (PA's) with such organizations as: Dana Petroleum, Nuevo Energy, Hunt Oil, Devon Energy, West Oil, among others. This phase indeed also witnessed the entry into PA's with currently operating companies on the following fields: West & Central Tano, Cape Three Points (CTP-1X), ⁵North & South Tano Fields, West Cape Three Points (WCTP-2X), Saltpond, Jubilee and Odum. (www.ghanaoilinfo.com 1/12/2010 retrieved)

Indicators of Resource Curse in Ghana?

Though it may be too early for any meaningful conclusion to be drawn on whether Ghana is trekking on the path leading to resource curse with her oil find, some scholars have made very significance observations to that effect. To some observers and analyst, Ghana is not entirely insulated from the curse that originates from a resource find, even though the political stability and institutional structures could work positive for the nation. As Yeboah, (2010) indicated "it should be known that Ghana is in no way insulated from the nagging challenges of oil exploitation especially when the resource curse continues to reign supreme in oil-rich countries in the African region". (www.ghanaweb.com, 2 Dec; 2010 Retrieved 10/12/2010).

Lukas (2010) considers the recent tension that ensued between a state agency (the state-owned Ghana National Petroleum Company (GNPC)) and the foreign oil company (Kosmos Energy) over Kosmos's 23.5 percent stake in the Jubilee oilfield, as potential source of oil curse in Ghana.

The recent demand by the chiefs of the Western region where the major oil fields are currently being developed have raise mixed reactions from both policy-makers and intellectuals (Daily Graphic, 9th November edition). According to GNA report (Nov; 23 2010), a renounced economist and educationist Professor Aryeetey has indicated that the claim of 10% of the oil revenue by the Western Region is not illegitimate, citing the ground that the region would be the most affected when it comes to the negative externalities that would be generated by the oil and gas development; and as a result they ought to be compensated. Parliamentary Select Committee however did not uphold the request of the chiefs (GNA, 19th November 2010, Adu-Gyamerah/ Daily Graphic, 20/11/2010).

Some people have also expressed fear of the Dutch Disease catching on with the cocoa sector which happens to be predominantly in the same region where the oil is to be drilled. Thus, the fear that the youth

⁵ *Jacobs et al sourced the authors below [Gylfason and Zoega (2001); Sachs and Warner (1995); Kaufmann et al. (1999); Acemoglu et al. (2000, 2002); Rodrik et al. (2003)*

in the cocoa growing business would abandon it to seek pasture in the oil drilling areas has been noted by Opoku (2010), which would in this case be consistent with the original meaning of the Dutch Disease.

ISODEC (2010) in their preliminary study reported that cost of living within the oil drilling area is likely to be high as there would be pressure on local infrastructure to push accommodation cost up. This seems to be occurring as the local residents of the twin city –Takoradi and Secondi- have bemoaned over sky-rocketing of the rent increase by the land lords/ladies in the metropolis. According the Daily Graphic report (30th Nov, 2010 *in Ghana business News*) indicate that “the rent of a three or two bedroom house which used to be about GH¢50 and GH¢60 respectively, is now about GH¢ 100 with landlords demanding rent advance of three to four years, while other landlords charge in dollars”

The fact that the “oil find naturally may resulted in forced out-migration and in-migration with its attendant population pressures and environmental pollution or degradation” has been intimated by Yeboah, (2010); and this could in no doubt contribute to the high cost of living. The Graphic report (November 30, 2010) further confirmed this when it reported that one Kojo K. Nsiah, a resident of Takoradi cried “I was forced to separate from my family because I cannot compete, I have to perch with a friend to go to work” since his monthly earning of GH¢90 renders him uncompetitive. The same report indicated that general goods and services have gone up due to in-migration, and that is compelling some of the indigenes to out-migrate.

Conceptualized Model, Hypothesis and Policy Application

Prediction I: In the short-run the living conditions of the indigene are not going to be any better; and in fact there is the high likelihood that their condition may worsen.

Justification:

This may be so in that, given that the indigenous people are mostly ‘illiterate (or semi-illiterates) and poverty endemic’ such that they would not be in any position to take full advantage and participate more meaningfully (at least in the short-run) in the emerging oil-gas industry within their immediate neighbourhood; there would be a massive *Urban-Rural migration* by those who have what it takes (the requisite skills) to work in there. It is an open secret that the oil industry right from the upstream through to downstream requires a specialized and technical skills which may not be supplied by the rural indigenes:- a gap that must urgently be filled by urban skilled unemployed, thereby leading to *Urban-rural drift*. Additionally, the oil and gas industry is capital and technology intensive and not labour intensive as has been acknowledged by Omofonmwan & Odia (2009).

The scenario described is a clear case of mismatch of jobs and needed skills-a case of structural unemployment for the rural folks (McConnell & Bruce, 1990 pp 160).

What could contribute to the worsening of their plight in the short-run would include inter alia, the ‘high standard of living due to the Urban-Rural drift’-economic cost (Daily Graphic, 30 Nov; 2010), the environmental cost in the form of pollution, socio-cultural cost: adulteration of the native cultures and way of life (night clubs, potential eruption of social vices like prostitution, armed robbery etc), among others.

Prediction II: The medium term/run serves as a *transition period* for the long-run full integration of the indigenous rural folks into the new oil and gas industry.

Justification

In the medium terms, as the urban skill workers move to the rural community in search of jobs, infrastructure and other social amenities would spring up that could be a transitory point for their full integration.

As the community is transformed, naturally there would be *technology transfer* from the urban skilled worker to the rural unskilled worker.

Secondly, if the indigenous people take advantage of the new development around them and upgrade their skills through training for at least the youth or education for the younger ones, then this medium term (run) could serve as a *transition point* for full integration into new development. It is envisaged that this would propel them to have a full integration and long-run benefit of the emerging oil industry.

However if the scenario described above fails to happen, then the people could be ‘priced out’ of the new labour, socio-economic as well as environmental transformation happening around them. In this secondary (bad) but possible scenario, the indigenous communities could become ‘slums’ (old town as we called it in Ghana) to the newly developing communities (new site- also a common jargon in Ghana) for the working class who had moved from the urban centres.

Indeed it is the coexistence of this newly created urban working class and the indigenous neglected rural folks, that has the potential of degenerating into what some authors have describes as the ‘oil-curse’. In figure 1.2 below, a simple model has been conceptualized using the assumptions and the hypothesis above.

Policy Prescription and Expected Output

There is the need for deliberate strategic measures on the part of not only the policy makers but rather the entire stake-holders.

If the inhabitants are carried along on the shoulders of the emerging oil and gas industry then they would own, participate and protect it at all cost.

However, should they be left behind socio-economically, and given the fact that there would be cultural fragmentation, coupled with the fact that their environment on which they depend so much for a livelihood would be polluted, the *insurgence* would erupt. This clash between helpless rural poor indigenes and the cartel-barons of rich oil and gas companies backed by the State apparatus, would eventually lead to a *protracted* conflict between the masses and the elites.

These two potential scenarios have been illustrated into a model below. If the medium-term transition point (i.e, green shaded rectangle at the right end) is managed efficiently by all the stake-holders, then the next stage which is the long-run full integration would be the outcome, i.e. the ‘*Divided Rhomboid*’ at the top on the diagram. At that stage, there would be *peaceful co-existence* between the transformed indigenous folk and the elite urban immigrants. Conversely, if the medium term transition period is

mismanaged, (or carelessly handled) the outcome would be conflict between the disgruntled rural indigenes and the oil-rich community (settlers); a scenarios that leads to protracted conflict which in itself has the high propensity to result in complex conflict situation which can assume tribal or religious dimensions as seems to be the case of the Delta region of Nigeria. This unfortunate but potential outcome is illustrated by the lower portion of the model, where there is a gap between those in the emerged oil and gas sector and the neglected, disgruntled rural natives; a gap that would be filled by conflicts and combatants.

Policy Relevance of the Model

The above model reveals some fundamental policy concerns that could not be overemphasized.

All stake-holders in the emerging oil and gas industry in general and policy makers in particular should direct all attention and efforts towards the '*Upper -divided Rhomboid*'. This may require pragmatic measures and calculated actions to have it achieved.

The movement to the *Upper-divided Rhomboid* depends greatly on what transpires at the medium-term transition point, and so attention must be paid at that point.

All attempts must be made to avoid the lower end where non-coexistence due mainly to inaction or misdirected action would have a propensity to results in protracted conflict.

The local inhabitants may not have to bother so much about what happens in the short-run i.e., the inevitable Urban-Rural drift. If the point (ii) is carefully and strictly implemented and monitored, then what happens in the short-run may not have any long-run dire consequences on their socio-economic well-being.

MODEL SPECIFICATION AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

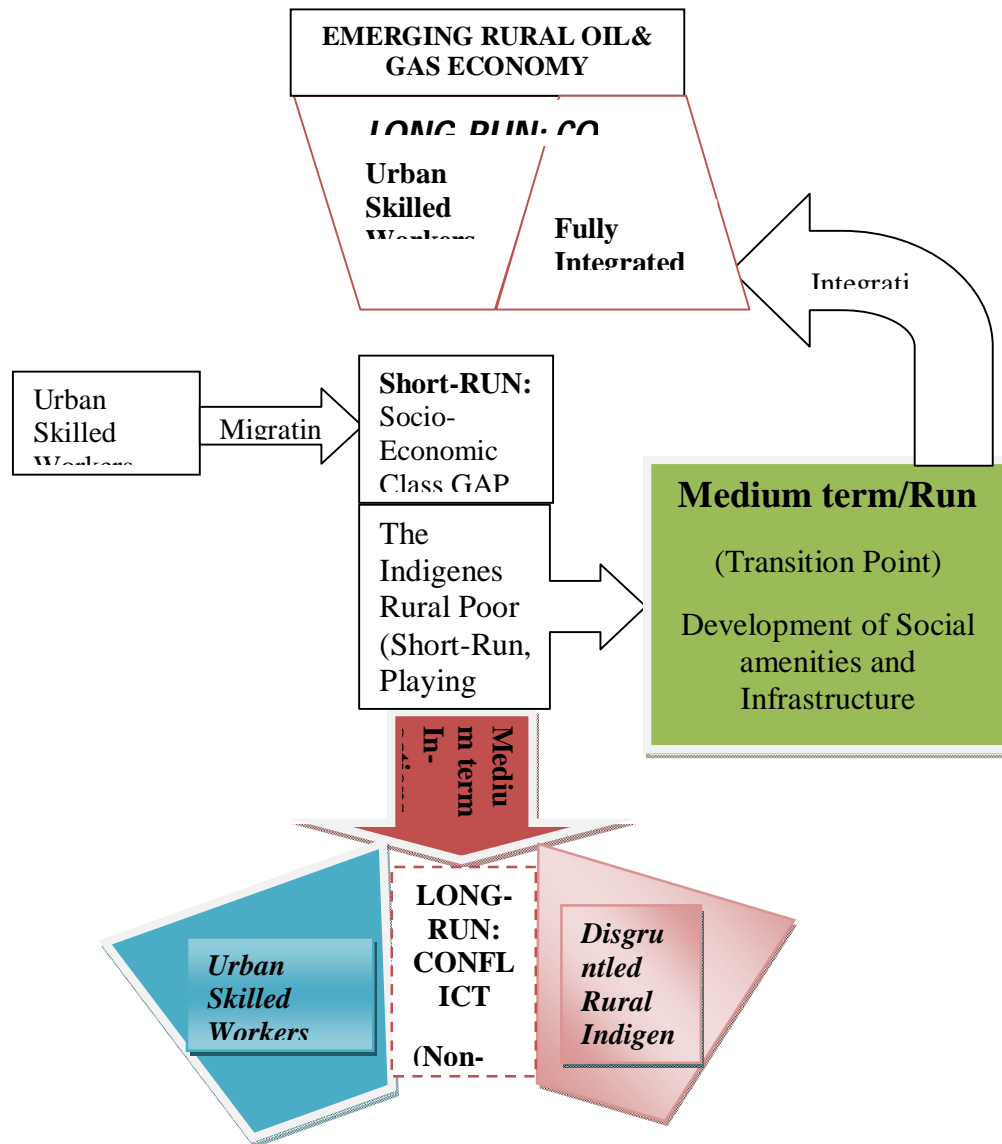


Figure 2: The Divided-Rhomboid Model on 'Oil Curse'

a) Assumptions

- deliberate skewed distribution of the resource found in favour of the local community is key
- the original Dutch disease theory cannot best explain why resource – rich African countries suffer poverty, conflict, etc. The resource curse in Africa is a resultant outcome of the neglect of the rural indigenes, whose plight of poverty are worsened by the presence of the new resource discovery.
- two classes of communities will exist from the beginning, the original indigenous people and urban immigrants. The indigenes would feel threatened by the influx of the urban immigrants

- iv. their fears may be allayed if the medium term transitions period is carefully managed to propel and integrate them into the new economy (emerging sector). In such case they would not feel threatened and thereupon co-exist peacefully. Only one integrated community would emerge (no factionalism)
- v. assumption of non-foreign manipulation. All what have been outlined above would hold on the assumption that the multinational companies backed by their influential governments would not manipulate the local system.

Conclusion

Many natural resource-rich African nations tend to face challenges prominent among which is the eruption of conflict, mostly over the resource discovered. Nigeria Delta State conflict, Liberia, Angola, Congo (DRC), Sudan to name but a few. The traditional 'Dutch Disease' which attempted to explain the resource curse argued that when a country discovers new natural resource the manufacturing and other sectors like agriculture suffers from the labour and other factor that would move away from such sectors to the emerging industry. However, within the context African countries, resource curse could mean a different thing altogether. Discovery of natural resource on the continent has rather brought about myriad of problems including corruption, conflict, environmental degradation as well as pollution, in some cases diseases, squalor and poverty especially among the inhabitant community within that neighborhood. These challenges among others, therefore constitutes 'resource curse in African and could be described as 'African Diseases'.

Using what the author called 'Divided Rhomboid Model', the resource curse in African context could be averted if policy makers as well as all stakeholders direct all efforts and work towards the upper divided rhomboid in which there would be long-run integration of the local inhabitants into the emerging sector. This model predicts that would depend what transpire in the medium term. In the short-run the local indigenes would not benefit so much as expected but due to certain structural constrain imposed by the nature of skills and human capital needed to operate the new sector. If the medium term measures are not well implemented then the net effect of this resource discovery would be negative and hence, a curse. This indeed is explained by the lower non-coexistence portion of the model (thus, the divided rhomboid bottom of the model).

References

- Amin, M. (2009) "Dutch Disease vs. Nigeria Disease" (*Retrieved from <http://blogs.worldbank.org/psd/dutch-disease-vs-nigerian-disease> on 10 Oct, 2011*)
- Asafu-Adjaye, B. (2010) "Oil and Gas Discovery in West Africa In Relation To National Development: The Insurance Industry Response to Risk Management Concerns
- Brunnschweiler, C. (2006) 'Cursing the Blessings? Natural Resource Abundance, Institutions and Economic Growth' University of Zurich, (*Accessed on 02 June 2010*)
- Carolyn (2010) 'The Curse of Natural Resources' Accessed on 03 June 2010
- Perry, C. (2007). Mining Boom Could Bust Us. The Age (<http://www.theage.com.au/news/business> retrieved 11/11/2010)
- Daily Graphic/ Adu-Gyamrah, E. (2010) "Oil Money and Western Demand; Committee opts for Status Quo" Daily Graphic General News/ Sat, 20 Nov 2010

De Feranti, D., D. Lederman, W.F. Maloney, and G.E. Perry (2002),),[in Jakob et al 2010] 'From Natural Resources to the Knowledge Economy: Trade and Job Quality', The World Bank

Dehn, J. (2000),),[in Jakob et al 2010] 'The Effects on Growth of Commodity Price Uncertainty and Shocks', World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 2455

Easterly, W. (2001), [in Jakob et al 2010] 'The middle class consensus and economic development', Journal of Economic Growth 6(4): 317-35

Easterly, W. (2006),), [in Jakob et al 2010] 'Inequality Does Cause Underdevelopment: Insights From a New Instrument', mimeo

Ebrahim-zadeh, C. (2003). "Back to Basics –Dutch Disease: Too Much Wealth Managed Unwisely. *Finance and Development, A quarterly magazine of the IMF*.IMF. March 2003, Volume 40, Number 1 (Archived from the original on 2010-11-10)

Evoh, J. C. (2009) 'Green Crimes, Petro-Violence and The Tragedy of Oil:The Case of Niger-Delta in Nigeria,' In-spire Journal of Law, Politics and Societies, Vol 4, No. 1 Accessed on 02 June 2010

Fidelis, A. (2010) Implementation of oil-related environmental policy in Nigeria: government inertia and conflict in the Niger Delta. Thesis (Ph.D.)- University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, 2010 Sept.15th](retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10413/1190>on(19th Oct. 2010).

Gylfason, T. (2004) 'Natural Resources and Economic Growth: From Dependence to Diversification.'Accessed on 02 June 2010

Gylfason, T., and G. Zoega. (2001),[in Jakob et al 2010]'Natural Resources and Economic Growth: The Role of Investment', CEPR Discussion Paper No. 2743

Jakob, M. et al (2010) Dutch Disease or Botswana's Blessing? Natural Resources and Economic Growth – A Channel Approach.

ISODEC (2010) "Concerns of Western Region on The Oil Find" – March 2009.(Retrieved from www.isodec.org.gh/press on 10/12/2010)

Karabegovic, A. (n.d.) 'Economic Growth and the 'Curse' of Natural Resources'Accessed on 01 June 2010

Kaufmann, D, A. Kraay, and M. Mastruzzi (2006),),[in Jakob et al 2010] 'Governance Matters V: Governance Indicators for 1996-2005', *The World Bank*.

Lukas, E. (2010) Africa's Resource Curse Ghana's Edition. (Retrieved from www.oilandglory.foreignpolicy.com on 23/11/2010)

Main, P. (2009) Oilfield Technology magazine. EIC, UK. *Published on 21/10/2009*

Mkandawire, T. and Soludo, C. (n.d.) “Our Continent, Our Future”. (http://www.idrc.ca/en/ev-9389-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html, *retrieved on 11/11/2010*)

McConnell, C. R. & Bruce, S. L. (1990) ‘Types of Unemployment’ in *Macroeconomics (pp 160) McGraw-Hill Publishing*

OED/OEG (2001) ‘Extractive Industries Review’ Internal World Bank Group Assessment, Annex D, IFC Experience, p81

Omofonmwan, S. I. & Odia, O.L. (2009): Oil Exploitation and Conflict in the Niger-Delta Region of Nigeria. *Journal Human Ecology*, 26(1): 25-30 (2009)

Opoku, J. (2010): “Oil Cannot Simply Become the New Cocoa” (*Retrieved from on 10th Dec. 2010* [//www.facebook.com/topic](http://www.facebook.com/topic).)

Perry, A. (2007) 'Africa's Oil Dreams' *Time Magazine*, June 2007

Pyagbara, L. S. (2007) “The Adverse Impacts of Oil Pollution on the Environment and Wellbeing of a Local Indigenous Community: The Experience of the Ogoni People of Nigeria.” (*International Expert Group Meeting On Indigenous Peoples And Protection Of The Environment KHABAROVSK, RUSSIAN FEDERATION*); *United Nations Department Of Economic And Social Affairs Division For And Social Policy Development* AUGUST 27.-29, 2007

Robinson, A.J., Torvik, R., and Verdier, T. (2005, Political Foundations of the Resource Curse; May 9 2005.

Rodrik, D. (1999),),[in Jakob et al 2010] ‘Where did all the growth go? External shocks, social conflict and growth collapses’, Centre for Economic Policy Research Discussion Paper 1789.

Ross, M. (2003) ‘Natural Resources and Civil War: An Overview’ *Journal of Peace Research*, May 2004

Sachs, J. and A. Warner (1995),),[in Jakob et al 2010] ‘Natural Resource Abundance and Economic Growth’, *National Bureau of Economic Research. Working Paper Series No. 5398*

Samreen, K. (2010) Natural Resources - A Blessing Turned into a Curse.

[Retrieved on 10/11/2010 from: <http://www.suite101.com/content/natural-resources---a-blessing-turned-in-to-a-curse-a246751#ixzz14iTf7X6k>]

Stevens, P. (2003a) 'Resource Impact - Curse or Blessing, A Literature Survey' London: IPIECA)The Dutch Disease" (November 26, 1977). *The Economist*, pp.82-83.

[unanimous author] "Oil for Nothing: Multinational Corporations, Environmental Destruction, Death and Impunity in the Niger Delta, published in "Essential Action and Global Exchange" January 25, 2009.

Van Wijnbergen, S. (1984). "The 'Dutch Disease': A Disease After All?" *The Economic Journal* 94 373:41 (retrieved 2010-11-11)

Yeboah, S. (2010) "Wild expectations for Ghana's Oil Wealth: Demystifying the facts! (Feature Article Wed, 27 Jan 2010 retrieved www.modernghana.com: 10/12/2010)

3

POLITICAL LEADERSHIP AS A TOOL FOR WOMEN EMPOWERMENT IN GHANA: CHALLENGES

By

¹Dr. I. Akuamoah-Boateng ²Ama Foriwaa Karikari and ³Peter Agyekum Boateng

Abstract

Historically, women position in the public service has been questioned, probably due to cultural practices of their respective countries. This has prompted many not-for-profit organizations (Asia Foundation, USAID, etc.) to debate on the issue. To them, “women make a significant contribution to the global economy” and empowering them can lift a nation out of poverty (USAID June 2009). This paper aims at defining and identifying politics as a tool for women empowerment and its related challenges. The study revealed that, empowerment of women is perceived as creating conducive environment whereby they can fully utilize their capabilities to take charge of their lives, especially their political careers. Investing in women would strengthen families as well as societies in general, especially when they are considered political ‘candidature’. This will lead toward the achievement of the Beijing Conference’s goals (like to take measures to ensure women's access to and full participation in power structures and decision making and increase women’s capacity to participate in decision-making and leadership) and especially Millennium Development Goal 3. To this end, all development organizations supporting women empowerment must recognize the true challenges women face in gaining political power, and develop programme strategies to overcome them.

Key words: *Empowerment, Politics, Women, MDGs*

Introduction

Empowerment has become popular in the development field, especially with reference to women. The concept of women’s empowerment is being championed by the women’s movement around the globe, especially the Beijing Conference (1995) as well as the MDG on gender. These groups seem to indicate that women’s empowerment requires the “challenging of patriarchal power relations that result in women having less control over material assets and intellectual resources” (Batliwala, 1994).

More often, women contribute towards their own oppression, so they must first recognize the ideology that makes legal male domination. One thing is sure that empowerment process starts from within. Women need to psyche themselves in order to get access to new ideas and information to work alongside with their male counterparts.

Politics

Politics is a process whereby individuals or groups of people make collective decisions. Often, it is applied to the art or science of running governmental or state affairs. Gradually, women’s representation in politics is necessary to achieve gender parity in every country. To buttress this point, the third Millennium Development Goal calls for gender equality and women’s empowerment. Women have not achieved equal representation with men in any country. Rather, they face numerous obstacles in achieving representation in a country’s governance. This limitation is due to the assumption that women’s proper sphere is the private sphere. Whereas the public arena is one of political authority and contestation; the

private ground is linked with the family and home matters. By relegating women to the family affairs, their ability to enter into politics is curtailed.

Explanations provided by researchers have accounted for the continuing shortage of women in political leadership (Pippa Norris & Ronald Inglehart, July 2001; Bari, 2005). Leadership in political system is front by three types of leaders namely bureaucrats, charismatic leaders and traditional leaders. They seem to operate under either a transactional or transformational political leadership model. Relating to the leadership classification, women are emancipated to enter into the representative governance race, but still they have less power than men.

Empowerment

Empowerment of women should be a key aspect of all social development programs (World Bank, 2001). **CARE** defines an 'empowered woman' as women who enjoy bodily integrity (is free from coercion over her physical being), has positive images of her own worth and dignity, has equitable control and influence over strategic household and public resources, and lives in an enabling environment in which women can and do engage in collective effort. Kabeer (2001) averred that empowerment is a "process by which those who have been denied power gain power, in particular the ability to make strategic life choices. These could be the capacity to choose a marriage partner, a livelihood, or whether or not to have children. For this power to come about, three inter-related dimensions are needed: access to and control of resources; agency (the ability to use these resources to bring about new opportunities) and achievements (the attainment of new social outcomes). Empowerment, therefore, is both a process and an end result. This definition suggests that empowerment include great influence over personal, family, economic and political. One Loan Officer at Sinapi Aba Trust in Ghana defined empowerment as "enabling each person to reach his or her God-given potential" (UNIFEM 2000). According to UNIFEM empowerment is, "gaining the ability to generate choices and exercise bargaining power." It is also seen as "developing a sense of self-worth, a belief in one's ability to secure desired changes, and the right to control one's life" are important elements of women's empowerment (UNIFEM, 2000).

A number of studies have shown that women may be empowered in one area of life while not in others (Malhotra & Mather, 1997; Kishor, 1995 & 2000b; Hashemi et al., 1996; Beegle et al., 1998). Handy and Kassam (2004) realized that women's empowerment can be measured by factors contributing to each of the following: their personal, economic, familial, and political empowerment. By including the political, they posit that women's empowerment measures should include women's participation in systemic transformation by engaging in political action (Batliwala, 1994; Bisnath & Elson, 1999; Kabeer, 2001; Narasimhan, 1999; and Sen and Grown, 1987).

Politics and Women

The basic problem facing the worldwide process of democratization is the continued lack of gender equality in political leadership. Today, women represent only one in seven parliamentarians, one in ten cabinet ministers, and at the apex of power, one in 20 heads of state or government (Pippa Norris & Ronald Inglehart, July 2001; Bari, 2005). Factors militating these circumstances include structural and institutional barriers. For instance, hostile attitude towards political participation by women is one of the most important barriers to running for parliamentary positions.

In developing societies, women may find it difficult to break male dominance in politics because they are generally crippled by poor childcare, low literacy, inadequate health care, and poverty. In support of the deficiencies above, a “country’s level of socio-economic development is significantly related to its proportion of women parliamentarians” (Pippa Norris & Ronald Inglehart, July 2001). This may be due to cultures with traditional attitudes toward the role of women in the home and family; hence, many women may be reluctant to run and if they seek office, may fail to attract sufficient support to win (ibid, July 2001).

Women in active politics and MDGs achievement

To be empowered, women must have equal capabilities such as education and health, and equal access to resources and opportunities like land and employment. However, they must also have the agency to use these capabilities and resources to make strategic choices. UN Millennium Project Task Force on Education and Gender Equality identify strategic priorities and practical actions for achieving women’s empowerment by 2015. These include strengthening opportunities for post-primary education for girls; investing in infrastructure to reduce women’s and girls’ time burdens; guaranteeing women’s and girls’ property and inheritance rights; increasing women’s share of seats in national parliaments and local governmental bodies; and combating violence against women and girls (Grown, Rao & Kes, 2005).

The Ghanaian scenario

Progressively, Ghana is politically motivating her women. By implication, women holding public offices are on the ascendancy, with reference to the statistics received from the Research and Monitoring department of Electoral Commission (October 2006). By examining the information received, the percentage of elected women to the Volta Region District Assembly increased from 3.65 to 13.1% (1994 – 2006). However, overall observations fail to project women empowerment in active politics in Ghana. Ghanaian women appear to alienate themselves from political leadership. If records at the District Assemblies are depicted as such, then, what might be the fate of women representations into members of Parliament, government ministries and other political positions? Additionally, a study by International IDEA and Stockholm University (2008) for appoints in ministerial positions all over the world, shows Ghana as ranking 46, Nigeria 34 and Togo 70, all out of 93. Whiles in parliament ranking of the world out of 135 Ghana ranked 100, Nigeria 117 and Togo 99. This is an indication that there is still a lot of work and policy formulation in order to achieve the MDG 3 in Sub-Saharan Africa by 2015.

Methodology

The researchers used questionnaires to gather data. Questionnaires were hand delivered by the researchers to 30 present and past women in public office within five years. As a result of the nature of the work and the busy schedule of the respondents, it was convenient to leave the questionnaires and follow up. The core questions in the questionnaire centered on the following factors from the outcome of preliminary investigation namely Money, Education, Time, Unemployment, Constitution of political parties, Confidence level, and Women’s perception of politics.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Demographic information of respondents

Respondents were asked to supply some demographic data like, position held, marital status, length and place of service. All the respondents were happily married with children. Most of them had served for 3-4 years in the various positions held. This is an indication that with the exception of those still serving most of the respondents had held their positions for tenure of government rule for which they were appointed. A few had served between 1-2 years. The respondents were made up of 13 MPs, 6 ministers, 7 district assemblies and 4 others, representing 43%, 20%, 23% and 13% respectively. The respondents places of service due to confidentiality are withheld by the researchers but it must be stressed that they were all within Ghana.

Finance and unemployment

Money is a vital ingredient in the affairs of man. Access to financial resource is an issue both to men and women. But worldwide the effect is more on women than men. This is due to their low income earnings. Employment can be a source of empowerment for both women and men. When respondents were asked to rate the employment and financial status of women to men, 63% of them said that most women were unemployed. Whiles 75% of them said that men were more financially buoyant than women. Some of the reasons they suggested as to the disadvantage in both areas were that most women were unemployed compared to men, finances in organisations are controlled by men because it has always been a “mans’ world. These findings are in line with the Ghana Health Survey (2008) which shows that 91% of currently married women age 15-49 were employed at the time of the survey or within the 12 months preceding the survey, compared with 99% of men. Also 74% of currently married, employed women in Ghana earn less than their husband, 10% earn about the same amount, and 10% either that they earn more than their husband or that their husband has no earnings. Thus, one in five currently married, employed women earns at least as much as their husband (GHS, 2008). Employment and financial earnings are more likely to empower women especially if they control their own earnings. It would provide them with a level of decision making within the household which would affect all other aspects of their lives positively. According to United Nations statistics, 1.3 billion persons in the world live in poverty and 70% of them are women. The facts presented above are an indication that most women cannot afford to run a campaign.

Time

The respondents were asked if time was a limitation to entering politics in between catering for their household and public life. Interestingly, the difference between respondents who choose ‘strongly agreed’ and ‘sometimes’ was marginal.

Out of the respondents, 37% were of the view that time was a limiting factor to women entering politics whiles 33% thought it was only occasionally. Whiles 14% agreed and 12% disagreed to the statement. One would have thought that time would be a major problem to women, but responses indicated otherwise. That is, even though it is a hindrance it is not as strong as unemployment and financial status.

Education

The gateway towards women empowerment and achievement of MDG 3 is education. “Educate a woman, you educate a nation,” said Deputy President (Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka) at the 4th annual Women’s Parliament Conference in Cape Town August 2007. Education helps men and women claim

their rights and realize their potential in the economic, political and social arenas. It is also the single most powerful way to lift people out of poverty. Education plays an important role as foundation for girls' development towards adult life ([www. right-to-education.org](http://www.right-to-education.org)). According to the Ghana Health survey report (2008), 21% of women have never been to school, 15% have some primary education, 6% completed primary education, 45% have some secondary education, 10% completed secondary school, and 4% have attained more than secondary education. The results show that men have more education than women at all levels. For example, about twice as many men as women have completed secondary education or higher (24%, compared with 14%). This statistics goes to imply that the National Framework for Girls Education in Ghana developed by the Ministry of Education has not yielded much fruits. In addition, 81% of the respondents agreed that education and training is an essential ingredient for all women who want to be in politics. The current Vice President of Ghana (John Dramani Mahama) was quoted as saying that no nation can move on without emphasizing on the education and emancipation of women (www.Ghanaweb.com, 4th March 2011). Therefore, the educational gap needs to be closed at all levels to empower women towards the achievement of MDG 3.

Constitution of Political Parties

Political parties all over the world have more male than female membership. This is because it has been considered a male domain now and for so many years. The rules are made for men with no women in mind. The existence of this male-dominated model results in either few entering politics or women rejecting politics altogether. Due to this, women rarely occupy decision-making positions in these structures. In fact, less than 11% of party leaders worldwide are women (IDEA, 2002).

The few women in these parties make their presence remarkable by been an asset during campaigns and mobilization. But parties hardly support women financially for top political positions because it is an "old boys" club. Respondents were asked how they were able to make an impact in the male dominated environment (political parties) and also if they were deterred in any way. 75% of the respondents indicated that political parties are male dominated. 63% of the respondents ticked that they made impact through, determination, perseverance, meaningful contribution, support from family (spouses), finance, family background, achievement, spouse curriculum vitae, and long term membership. Fifty-one percent of the respondents said that they were not deterred in because they were determined and had worked very hard in the party with a goal in mind. 20% of the respondents said that they each time they backed out of the party there was encouragement from fellow male members. Respondents stated that it was not easy for women to be nominated and elected for within the political parties except were quotas were provided. To achieve gender balance in political parties, it is necessary to ensure that commitment to equality is reflected in laws and national policies not only in Ghana but all over the world.

Confidence level

The differences between men and women brains show that women are more likely to worry than men (Roger Elliott 2011). Lack of self confidence is built upon worry and procrastination. Respondents (64%) were of the view that one of the reasons for the low representation of women in public life or politics is as a result of confidence. To succeed in leadership position, women must have confidence in their abilities and skills. Empowerment cannot be achieved if the confidence levels of women are low because it is very difficult to make people believe in their own judgment, power or ability thereby, hindering the achievement of the MDG 3. Therefore, seeking and facing new challenges with optimism becomes a

problem. Lack of confidence in them is one of the main reasons for women's under-representation in formal political institutions, including parliaments, governments and political parties. Women are very good campaigners, organizers and support mobilizers, but fear sometimes prevents them from contesting elections and from participating in political life (International IDEA, 2002). In Ghana the traditional way the girl child is brought up, culture, norms and values of the society diminishes their self confidence.

Ghanaian women need to wake up and carve pathways for themselves. Self confidence, contrary to popular belief, isn't always bestowed at birth; it can be learned. Women should have confidence in themselves and their abilities in order to achieve greater heights in leadership and public lives. With self confidence would come assurance, self-possession, self-respect, poise, conceit and self-esteem which are must have qualities of every successful person be it male or female.

Women perception of politics

The researchers sort to identify the perception of respondents on politics as a career, game or profession. It was an open ended question and the popular responses were;

1. Male dominated career so interested women must set the agenda or it will be set for them.
2. Power tool which can make or destroy an individual.
3. An influential tool that opens a lot of life windows and door for all sorts of networking.
4. It is a profession that tests the religious aspect of humans in choosing between what is right and wrong in the face of materialism

The low participation of women in politics depends largely on their perception and lack of mentoring from those who have been there. In the just ended District Assembly elections in Ghana, few women contested and even lesser were elected as depicted in the figures 1a and 1b below.

It was observed that female contestants are less than 11% in all the regions in the country. Also, the proportion of females selected into office is less than 10.2% in all the regions in Ghana. Interestingly the data showed that as the number of female contestants increase the proportion of male contestants decrease linearly. The same relationship was noted for the proportion of female and male contestants elected into office.

Fig 1a

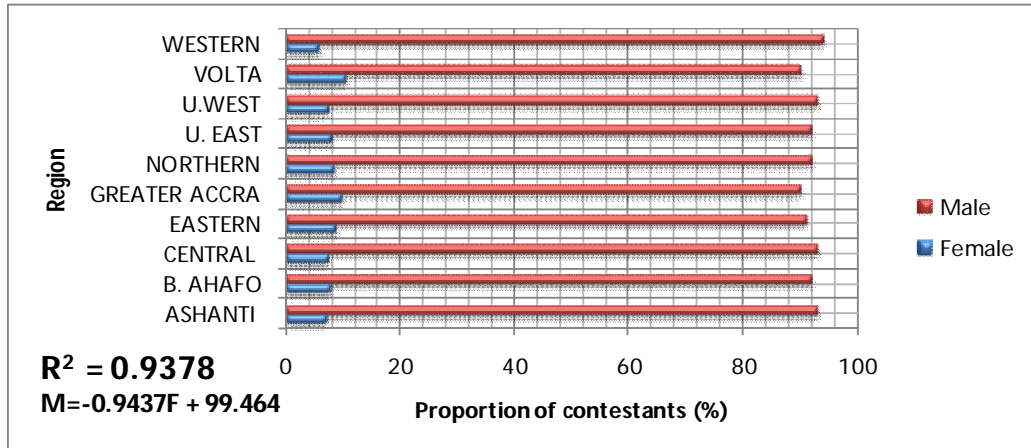
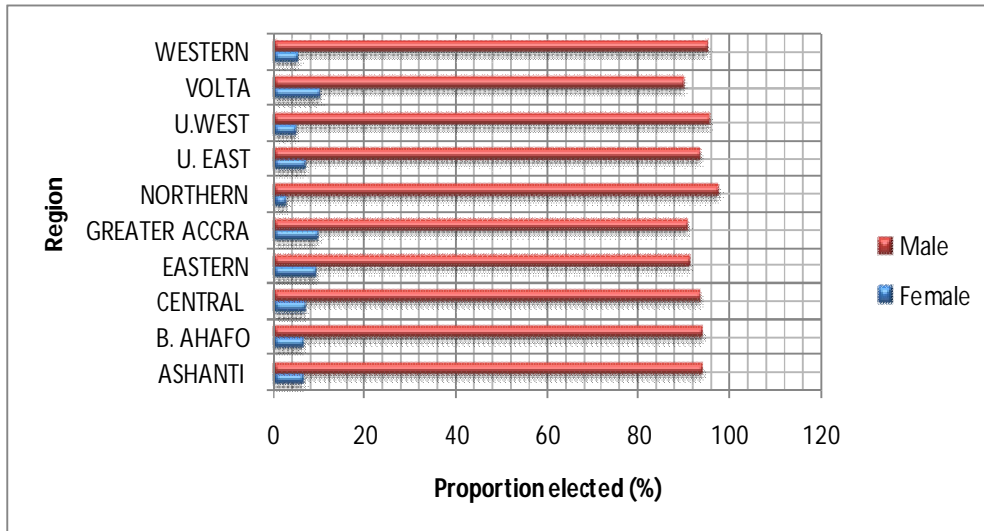


Fig. 1b



Source: Research,

Monitoring & Evaluation, Electoral Commission 2010.

Conclusions

To achieve the MDG 3 in Ghana, the challenges facing women empowerment identified by the research such as finance, education, unemployment, women's perception women, time, must be addressed. Each of these challenges has the potential to bring about immediate changes in women's lives, along with long-term transformations in power structures. Structures must be put in place to ensure that policy changes are implemented in ways that allow women themselves to participate, monitor, and hold policy makers and corporations accountable for their actions. According to Grown, Gupta, and Kes (2005), the problem is not a lack of practical ways to empower women but rather a lack of change on a large and deep enough scale to bring about transformation in the way societies conceive of and organize men and women's roles, responsibilities and control over resources. Essential for this kind of transformation are the mobilization of a large group people committed to the vision of a gender equitable society.

Recommendations

Campaign on the girl child education should be intensified and more practical framework should be developed and implemented by government.

1. Employment opportunities should be provided for women at all regions. Laws should be established to provide equal and fair treatment at the workplace for both men and women.
2. Political parties should incorporate quota system (as stated in Ghana Constitution) for women and seek to achieve it. Specific decision making positions should also be allocated to women.
3. Training should be provided to women on empowerment, confidence, and policy making region by region. This will alter their current perception on politics.
4. Leaving in a dynamic world call for enlightenment in technology. Introduction of technology training in various centers by local assemblies for women should be institutionalized. Women must be able to use technology so that they will be able to do research and prepare for discourse.

References

Femida Handy and Meenaz Kassam (2004), "Women's empowerment in rural India" Paper presented as the ISTR conference, Toronto Canada.

Batliwala, Srilatha. 1994. "The meaning of Women's Empowerment: New Concepts

Action." Pp. 127-138 in *Population Policies Reconsidered: Health, Empowerment and Rights*. G. Sen, A. Germain, and L.C. Chen, eds. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bisnath, Savitri and Diane Elson. 1999. *Women's Empowerment Revisited*. Background Paper, Progress of the World's Women.UNIFEM.

World Bank, *Engendering Development: Through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice*, New York: Oxford University Press, 2001.

Sen, Gita and Caren Grown. *Development, Crises, and Alternative Visions: Third World Women's Perspectives*. New York: Monthly Review Press. 1987.

Hashemi Syed, Sydney Ruth Schuler and Ann Riley, "Rural Credit Programs and Women's Empowerment in Bangladesh," *World Development* 1996, Volume 24, No. 4: 635-653.

Kabeer, Naila. "Reflections on the Measurement of Women's Empowerment." In *Discussing Women's Empowerment-Theory and Practice*, 2001, Ida Studies No. 3. Novum Grafiska AB: Stockholm.

Narasimhan, Sakuntala, *Empowering Women: An Alternative Strategy from Rural India*, Sage Publications, 1999.

UNIFEM, *Progress of the World's Women* (New York: UNIFEM, 2000).

Sen, A. (1990) "Gender and Cooperative Conflicts." In *Persistent Inequalities: Women and World Development*, ed. I. Tinker. New York: Oxford University Press.

Sen, Gita. (1999). *Engendering Poverty Alleviation: Challenges and Opportunities*. Development and Change 30 685–92.

World Bank. Engendering Development: Through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice—Summary. Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2001. Available at www.worldbank.org/gender/pr/engendersummary.pdf.

World Development Report 2000–2001. Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2001.

Kabeer, N. (2001) Resources, Agency, Achievements: Reflections on the Measurement of Women's Empowerment, in B. Sevefjord, et al. *Discussing Women's Empowerment – Theory and Practice*, SIDA Study No.3, 2001.

Kofi Dei 2009 -<http://panafricannews.blogspot.com/2009/03/pages-from-history-women-and-politics.html>

Kabeer, N. (2005) Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment: A Critical Analysis of the Third Millennium Development Goal, *Gender and Development*, 13.1, Gender and Development journal, Banbury Road UK.

Grown, C., Rao Gupta, G. and Kes, A. (2005) *Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women*, UN Millennium Project Task Force on Education and Gender Equality, Earthscan, London. <http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/features/artikel.php?ID=204349>
<http://www.right-to-education.org/node/>

INDUSTRIALIZATION AND BUSINESS SURVIVAL STRATEGIES IN ECONOMIC MELTDOWN

By

NWAOBIA, APPOLOS N.

*Senior Lecturer in Accounting, Babcock University, Ilisan-Remo,
Ogun State.*

And

ENAHORO, JOHN A. Ph.D

*Senior Lecturer in Accounting, Babcock University, Ilisan-Remo,
Ogun State.*

Abstract

Recessions impact unevenly on industries, countries, regions and firms. These in turn contribute to structural economic change as resources are transferred within existing industries, and from existing to new industries. Given the importance of productivity in the industrial sector in boosting economic growth and standard of living of the people, the growth, expansion and continued survival of industrial establishments have always generated great policy concerns to governments. Of greater concern is the response of governments and industries to economic shocks and downturns as experienced in recent economic meltdown, in ensuring the survival of industries and continued employment of the workers. This study surveys literature on business survival strategies during recession periods. The study aims to identify the pressures, threats and opportunities facing industries operating in difficult economic conditions. While recommending strategy adaptations for industries in line with their size and capabilities, appropriate government policy measures that will create the enabling environment for enhancing business survival and possible growth during difficult economic conditions are proffered.

KEY WORDS: *Business Cycles, Survival Strategies, Recession, Policy Measures.*

Introduction

An important goal of the Millennium Development Goals is the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger. To achieve this, targets set are firstly to halve between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day and secondly to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger (Nelson and Prescott 2003). Businesses have a role to play in assisting to lift millions people who live at the bottom of the 'economic trough' out of poverty. In the view of Nelson and Prescott (2003) businesses can achieve this through giving the people access to affordable products, especially those that meet basic needs such as water, health care, nutrition, housing and education as well as creating access to economic opportunity through employment, business linkages, other income generating opportunities, new technologies and training.

Industrialization focuses on capacity development. Ofuan (2010) opines that industrial growth is hinged on the interdependency of all sectors of the economy. A growth in the industrial sector almost will have

ripple-effect on other sectors of the economy. Industrialization increases the growth of economic activities, productivity, national income and the capacity of the economic system to impact positively on the living standard of the people. The European Commission (2006) in affirming this fact posits that industrialization has the potential to assist achieve a variety of social objectives such as employment, poverty eradication, gender equality, labour standards and greater access to education and health care. There is therefore the need to sustain industrial growth and expansion at all times considering its role in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). To achieve this to a large extent depends on governments enabling framework and policy environment in which businesses can operate and thrive despite difficult economic conditions. Magarinos (2003) believes this requires integrated policies aimed at building up capacity to prevent recurrent emergencies through sustainable economic growth. The recent global economic melt-down has added a new dimension to what Ricupero (2003) refers to as “a premature process of de-industrialization which was threatening the very livelihood of millions as jobs were becoming scarce.”

Nation's economies and businesses have been known to go through trends and cycles. The economic and business cycle is the observed pattern of growth and expansion and then recession and downturn in economic activities around the path of trend growth. Economic observers have come to conclude that output or GDP does not grow at its trend rate, rather it fluctuates irregularly around trend, showing patterns from trough through peak, and then through recession and back to trough (Olubukunola 2005). The trough period is a crisis and defining moment for an economy and businesses operating within the economy. This period has been described by Kitching, Blackburn, Smallbone and Dixon (2009) as “difficult economic conditions”. To them difficult economic conditions are defined primarily in terms of macroeconomic recession (falling national GDP) and, in terms of environmental jolts, shocks or hostility, including secular decline in the fortunes of particular industries.

The trough (recession) is a period of decline in the economy. When the economy declines, real GDP per capita declines and there will be unused capacity as factors of production are under-utilized. Also, there will be reduced investment arising mainly from credit restrictions and low demand. In recessions, unemployment increases as cases of bankruptcies, divestments, downsizing and liquidations increase.

Technically, when the real GDP of any country is negative for two consecutive quarters, that economy is said to be in recession (Adebiyi 2009). There is a recession when there is a continuous, sizeable and absolute fall in real output. Because the continued survival and existence of business are threatened during recessionary periods, this work is intended to explore the survival strategies that ought to be adopted by businesses during such periods.

Problem Statement

Recessions impact unevenly on industries, countries, regions and firms and contribute to structural economic change as resources are transferred between existing industries, and from existing to new industries. Recessions while presenting opportunities for some businesses also present particular threats to other firms with implications for strategy and performance. Bryson, in Kitching, Blackburn, smallbone and Dixon (2009) observed that recessions are periods of ‘creative destruction’, of economic restructuring, during which industries decline, often terminally, while new ideas, technologies, products and industries emerge and become the driving forces of subsequent economic growth.

The issue for investigation in this study is what lessons the experience of previous recessions avail to businesses and policy makers in terms of survival strategies in economic meltdown.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to identify strategies that have been adopted by business during periods of economic downturn. This study also aims to establish what strategies prove to be problematic and those that have allowed business to respond dynamically, survive and emerge strong as economic conditions improved.

Study Questions

To achieve the above objectives, this study will seek answers to the following questions:

- (i) How do businesses respond and adapt to the competitive environment during difficult economic conditions?
- (ii) Why do they choose to respond and adapt in the ways they do?
- (iii) What conditions encourage or constrain, particular types of strategic response and adaptation?
- (iv) How do such responses and adaptations contribute to short- and long-term business performance and survival?
- (v) Why do some enterprises succeed, while some others fail during periods of recession and downturn?

Methodology

Our methodology in this study is principally to review literature on economic recessions, businesses' responses to such recessions and other environmental shocks/jolts. We survey strategies adopted by businesses to go through the recessions, and for subsequent turnaround/growth, post-recession. The review is extended to highlight government macro-economic policies to address such recessions.

Sources of data/information are identified using searches of library materials, electronic databases, and other Internet sources. A reasonable amount of literature providing commentary and analysis of the current economic meltdown, and business responses to it, has appeared, including newspaper articles and presentations by scholars, management consultants and others. These sources vary in their approach and quality. This work places greatest weight on sources that present convincing explanations as to why businesses respond and adapt in the ways they do. Equally important to the study is literature linking business responses to the conditions that enable or constrain them to adapt in particular ways, and demonstrating how adaptation influences performance.

Review of Related Literature

The framework (fig.1) adopted in this study is considered to be relevant to the economic environment of LDCs and SMEs that constitute the greater percentage of businesses in these countries. Nelson and Prescott (2003) submit that how businesses respond to recessions vary according to industry sector, the company's business model, size and ownership structure. The location of the business, not only in terms of different cultures and circumstances but whether it is operating at global level or is a local operating unit also affects its strategic response downturns. It is also important to state that other major influences on how firms adapt to recession conditions, and their subsequent performance include the capital, labour

and product markets within which firms operate, their sensitivity to economic downturn, and the wider institutional context, including the quantity and quality of government support to business.

During difficult economic conditions, businesses may do two things namely, they may exploit their resources and capabilities to increase operational efficiency, or they may develop dynamic capabilities to explore new opportunities for revenue generation. As depicted in the model below, to leverage their capabilities, firms implement a variety of strategies, such as:

- (a) Portfolio strategy – This involves divestments, acquisitions, alliances/joint ventures, and new product developments,
- (b) Growth strategy – This involves consolidations, withdrawal from non-core lines, launching new products, and entering new markets,
- (c) Business strategy- Entails great focus on cost, product differentiation or a combination of these, and

Financing strategy – May involve loan/debt rescheduling, raising additional equity capital or exploring other forms of financing such as leasing.

These strategies are implemented through a range of revenue generation and efficiency-enhancing actions. Performance outcomes include improvements in turnover, profit and market share.

Recession affects businesses in two ways: it may constrain firms from achieving their objectives. At the same time its impact may generate an enabling environment for resource acquisition and possible growth of a business. Falling GDP, for instance, exerts downward pressure on consumer expenditure and confidence, which affects business performance while at the same time influencing asset prices downwards, which is enabling for resource acquisition. On the other hand, declining aggregate demand is also likely to lead to business exits, particularly among new firms (Geroski, Mata and Portugal 2007), thereby enabling higher market shares for surviving firms. The implication of this is that there is no ‘best strategic response’ to recession applicable to all businesses. Successful strategies to cope with recession are likely to be environment and context-specific depending largely on industrial and geographical settings.

Markets also influence firms’ response and adaptation during periods of recession. Firms operating in markets demanding frequent product innovation such as many consumer electronics and Computer markets are likely to face pressures to innovate even during recessions. Since innovation often requires continued investment in R&D and training, firms with limited resources and are unable to secure additional finance might find it difficult to undertake strategies involving costly investment.

In price-sensitive markets, recession conditions may stimulate sales for particular kinds of goods. Consumers may switch to lower-priced products in order to reduce expenditure. Firms in Insolvency and Receivership business are likely to increase sales as the number of business exits rises and demand for their services expands. Recessions, thus, generate a diversity of threats, opportunities and business responses. Firms’ strategic response during period of recession may have serious longer-term consequences and as such demands careful consideration. Cutting investment expenditure in order to conserve resources, for instance, might ensure short-term survival but may also adversely affect firms’ ability to compete when the upswing comes (Smallbone, North and kalandtaris 1999). Alternatively,

maintaining resources at pre-recession levels might lead to slack capacity, excessive overheads and declining profitability and possible exit for such firms.

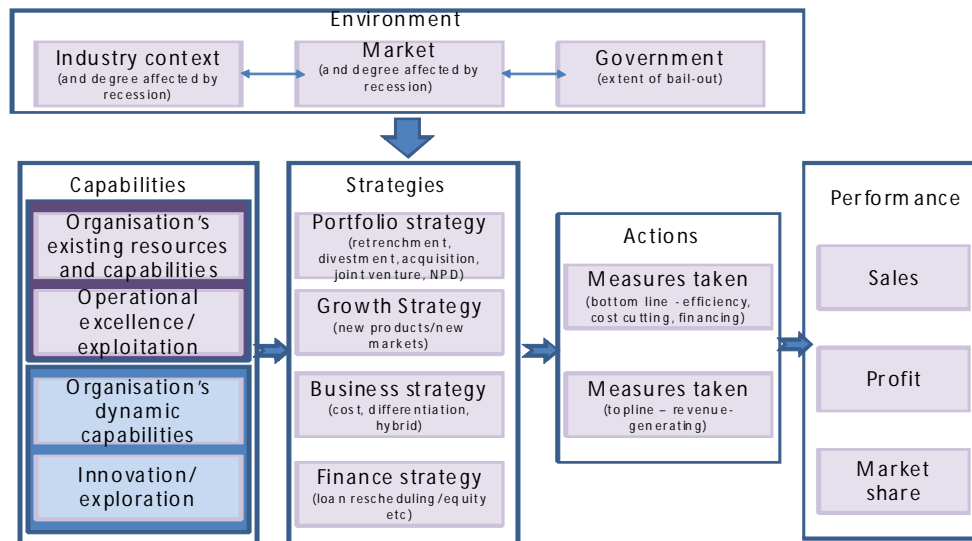
Strategic Adaptation to Recession

Short-term considerations may dominate during difficult economic conditions. Business restructuring in the form of replacement of managerial elites, functional reorganisations, and other changes to internal arrangements are often a precursor to, or a consequence of, strategic adaptation to recession (Whittington 1991).

Deans, Kansal and Mehlretter (2009) believe that recessions present businesses with a dilemma. On the one hand, firms experience pressures to cut costs in order to maintain survival in the short-run at the risk of reducing capacity to such a degree that the firm is unable to adapt adequately when recovery comes. On the other, businesses might also face pressures to maintain greater capacity, and thereby incur higher costs in the short-run, in order to retain the capability to adapt when the upswing comes and realise opportunities for long-term value creation. Some businesses may be 'statically efficient' when they make the most efficient use of resources in given circumstances, while others may be 'dynamically efficient', that is, capable of surviving changing circumstances. Clearly, businesses must be able to be both statically and dynamically efficient if they are to endure

Figure 1: Framework for Adaptation during period of recession.

Source: Kitching, J, Blackburn, R., Smallbone, D. and Dixon, S (2009)



Basically three types of business strategic adaptation are distinguished by management literature. These are -

Retrenchment Strategies

Retrenchment strategies involve cutting operating costs and divestment of non-core assets. During times of recession, owners/managers shorten their business horizons and focus on immediate survival rather than on long-term aims. In this strategic response, many businesses choose to retrench because they believe it is easier to reduce costs than generate additional revenue. Divestments of businesses, establishment closure, reductions in working hours and employment, expenditure cuts on a wide range of activities including R&D, marketing and employee training is the norm and practice (Michael and Robbins 1998).

In a study of 600 mainly large UK manufacturing and service companies during the early-1990s recession, Geroski and Gregg's (1997) found that most firms adapted to the recession by refocusing the business, understood largely in terms of controlling costs, particularly by laying off labour and closing establishments. Expanding or reducing product lines was much less common. Investment in plant and equipment declined but investment in intangibles like training, R&D and advertising was affected less by recession. Only a small number of businesses brought forward investment plans because they had the resources and time to do so. Innovation activity is often cut during recession.

Retrenchment strategies appear to be the most common approach adopted by businesses to deal with recession conditions, especially in the short-term. The current recession provides a stimulus for firms to re-examine their portfolios and focus on the core, as well as giving them a good reason for increasing efficiency - cutting operating costs and divestment of non-core assets. We believe this is not a proactive strategy for dealing with recessions as it weakens the capacity of the business to respond when conditions improve.

Investment Strategies

Some studies conclude that firms adapt to recession conditions by implementing business strategies centred on investment, innovation and market diversification, and that such strategies lead to higher levels of business performance. Under this strategy, firms develop new products, target new markets and increase marketing spending. Some even adopt 'predatory pricing' policies, to maintain low prices in price-sensitive markets (Chou and Chen 2004). Firms adopting Investment strategies perceive recessions as opportunities

Recent studies by Williamson and Zeng 2009 stress the need to perceive the recession as an opportunity, and not a threat. It should be a time to invest, innovate and expand into new markets in order to achieve or extend a competitive advantage during the recession and beyond. Edison established General Electric during the 1870s recession. The motor, electrical and chemical industries that were crucial to post-war British industry became prominent during the 1930s – a period of great recession. The Microsoft and Apple corporations were both founded in the mid-1970s, following the oil-crisis.

But investment strategies require resources – finance, managerial skills, and technical expertise – and firms with limited resources are less able to implement them. Moreover, such strategies are risky and many businesses are likely to be too preoccupied with short-term survival to think about innovation and

growth. A period of recession is a lean period as a result of credit contraction and restriction. It is a period when many customers trade down to cheaper products, and thus market conditions may not support a wide range of new innovations or a large number of firms seeking to diversify. We thus are of the view that only large and resource-rich firms are likely to adopt such survival strategies without much difficulty.

Ambidextrous' Strategies

Ambidextrous' strategies combine retrenchment and investment strategies. Under recession conditions firms may adapt through judicious cost/asset-cutting behaviour *and* through selective investment in product innovation and market development. Firms need to combine increased efficiency with increased innovation in order to position themselves for an upturn. Cost-cutting alone may not enable businesses to take advantage of an improvement in trading conditions. Choosing the appropriate investments to make and costs to cut takes on additional importance during recession when market selection pressures are at their most severe.

As recession deepens, many businesses decide to implement major cost- and asset-cutting responses with the aim of refocusing on core business. In a 'Report on research into the tactics and strategies used by firms to survive and prosper during recessionary periods', Fletcher, Clarke, Watkins, Cameron and Olsson (2009) highlighted that the companies studied used different strategies to focus on their core business and in some cases multiple approaches were needed. These included acquiring assets related to building the core competencies of the business, strategic divestments of non-core divisions because managing diverse businesses split the attention and resources of the company, as well as investing in advertising of their core brands to build value from their primary operations. This helped most companies in the study gain market share during the downturn. When their competitors were reducing advertising investments, they were boosting research and development to support core products as well as creating new products to support key business divisions. Successful new product introductions during recessions were crucial to their recovery.

We need to state that the companies studied are large companies that are established members of the Global Fortune 500 index. Studies are yet to confirm whether small and medium enterprises with low capital base and limited managerial skills and competencies will be able to adopt ambidextrous strategies in going through difficult economic conditions.

Business Size and Adaptation to Recessionary Conditions

A firm's size can affect the nature of external environmental impacts and the mechanisms through which they are transmitted, as well as the firm's ability to respond. The more limited resource base of SMEs compared with larger firms, particularly in terms of finance and management, can affect their ability to scan, analyse and respond to major environmental change (Smallbone, North and Kalandaritis 1999). Business size shapes perceptions of external pressures, threats and opportunities, the business strategies adopted, and the levels of performance achieved. Interestingly, some studies suggest that small businesses are *less* likely to perceive negative impacts on performance during recession periods (Latham 2009).

Large companies possess superior resources to scan the environment for potential market opportunities, and thus have greater scope for strategic choice to develop a wider range of capabilities. Their greater resource base (material and human resources) also gives them greater latitude to withstand difficult times and recession. It is certain that the response of multinational firms, with operations spread across countries, to recessions and difficult economic conditions cannot be compared with that of small

businesses that lack resources and usually operate with narrower product portfolios. This resource limitation makes the small firms more vulnerable to market shifts and puts them at greater risk from industry-related downturns as well as global melt downs as being currently experienced. Conversely, small firms often have the advantage of flexibility to adjust resource inputs, processes, prices and products quickly in response to environmental shocks and this capability is crucial in facilitating business survival. Latham (2009), in a study of US software firms during the 2001-3 downturn, found that start-up firms were much more likely than larger businesses to pursue revenue-generating strategies as means of coping than strategies entailing cost reductions.

Within the small business population, there are however, variations in how they adapt to recessions and difficult economic conditions. Some will adapt proactively through investment, innovation and market diversification; others will adapt through retrenchment; yet others will combine both approaches. Some others may adopt cost and/or price reduction responses. In summary, it is pertinent to highlight that SMEs, especially the start-ups, need sufficient time to accumulate resources to be resilient, and thus will in most cases depend on banks for financing. Since bank financing dries up during such periods, this dependence greatly affects the flexibility with which they respond to recessions and their eventual survival.

The Recent Crisis (Meltdown)

The current economic crisis, like its 1929 counterpart, started from the financial markets of the advanced economies, notably United States of America by the third quarter of 2007. By August 2007, the global financial markets have been engulfed by systemic crisis and extraordinary collapse of financial Institutions was imminent. In September 2008 Lehman Brothers in U.S failed (Adebisi 2009), as the financial system and indeed the economy continued to witness loss in asset values/share prices particularly of mortgage related securities (in the U.S), Stock market declines, speculative bubbles and currency crisis. All these, according to Adebisi (2009) led to overwhelming credit risk in the financial markets in the developed economies.

In Nigeria, the market capitalization of the Nigeria Stock Exchange as at May 3, 2008 was N12.64 trillion (Oyemakinde 2009) and by September 30, 2009, the market capitalization was down to about 5.13 trillion Naira, translating to a loss of about 7.51 trillion naira to the Nigerian economy. In the words of Oyemakinde (2009), "in 2008, the market lost 45% of its value and has lost close to that again since 2009 began; making a cumulative loss of about 80%."

Sanda (2009) gives the major manifestations of the current recession in the Nigeria economy as including "severe credit contraction, decline in lending, the decline of industrial production, the collapse of banks, private companies and public enterprises, decline in external reserves; exchange rate challenges; decline in foreign exchange earnings caused by the continuous fall in the oil price.... It also includes loss of jobs/employment and consequent impoverization of many citizens." In summary, the impact of the global financial crises on Nigeria's economy includes foreign portfolio investments withdrawals, prospects of declining foreign direct investments, weak demand for Nigeria's exports, divestment by foreign investors in the Nigerian capital market with the attendant tightness and Stock Market Crashes (Adebisi 2009).

Its impact in the global economy is far reaching and includes, loss of confidence in the financial markets which has led to inability of financial institutions to carry out their intermediation roles in the economy, weakened financial system characterized by takeovers, bankruptcies and job losses, first in the financial system. It is reported that in the USA, 2.9 million jobs were lost in 2008 and over 598,000 jobs were shed in the month of January 2009, alone. Similarly, in Canada, 129,000 jobs were lost in the same month (Adebiyi 2009). Other negative effects include rapid expansion and concentration of credit to the services sectors which consequently crowded out resources to the real sector and falling real output growth and slowed economic growth.

Government Policy Measures

Recessions usually require government intervention for the economy and businesses to go through them. It is generally believed that government expenditure and intervention is an effective cure to every recession. Consequently governments all over the world have stepped up aggressive interventions by way of fiscal and monetary policy operations.

Adebiyi (2009) cites the following interventions:

- The UK government guaranteed new short and medium term debt issues by the banks, backing as much as £250.0 billion of borrowing and made available £100.0 billion to banks to enable them swap illiquid assets for Treasury Bills.
- The UK government guaranteed new short and medium term debt issues by the banks, backing as much as £250.0 billion of borrowing and made available £100.0 billion to banks to enable them swap illiquid assets for Treasury Bills.
- The Norwegian government offered four commercial banks up to US\$55.4 billion in government bonds in exchange for mortgage debts.
- The Russian government guaranteed \$100.0 billion extra liquidity to its banking sector, followed by US\$37.0 billion long-term loans to help the country's debt-laden companies.
- In Nigeria Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) and all capital market operators reduced fees by 50%; NSE reviewed trading rules and regulations allowed 1.0 per cent maximum downward limit on daily price movement and 5.0 per cent on upward movement (currently harmonized to 5% up and Down); SEC released guidelines/rules on market makers: they are to ensure availability of liquidity in the market at all time; NSE released Rules on share buy-back, with a limit of 15.0%; Central Bank of Nigeria cut the Monetary Policy rate (MPR) from 10.25 per cent to 9.75 per cent; Reduced Cash Reserve Requirement (CRR) from 4.0 per cent to 2.0 per cent; reduced Liquidity Ratio from 40.0 per cent to 30.0 per cent; revealed that 'the difference between the CBN buying and selling rates shall not be more than one percent; while that of banks and the BDCs will not be more than one percent and two percent respectively around the CBN rate'; gave directive to banks that they have the option to restructure margin loans up to 2009; expanded lending facilities to banks up to 360 days; introduced expanded discount window facility; stopped Liquidity Mopping-up since September 2008; bailed out eight ailing banks to the tune of ₦620 billion; the Asset Management Company (AMCOM) of Nigeria took off to acquire the toxic assets of banks to enhance their liquidity.

The importance of these interventions to industrial growth and achievement of the MDGs can only be appreciated when one considers the linkage between the industrial sector and the financial sector in terms of funding. In addition, these interventions by the different governments are intended to stimulate the

economy and would usually form the fulcrum on which any business survival strategic response can stand.

Key successf embedded in strategies for survival

Firms' strategic response to recession depends largely on the firms' capabilities and resource base (financial and human) before the on-set of the recession as well as the impact of the recession on the particular economy where the firm is operating. Recessions impart on different economies on different ways.

Generally, identified success factors embedded in the three broad downturn survival strategies include:

Focus on core business

This involves applying resources on the core business, where they are most needed. This creates opportunities to gain market share from competitors who diversify and split focus. On a study of the recession survival strategies of thirteen companies, Fletcher, Clarke, Watkins, Cameron and Olsson (2009) observed that Companies that did diversify and split focus away from their core competencies often struggled to manage their unrelated businesses whereas companies that remained focused, or re-focused on their core, created opportunities to gain market share more easily from their competitors. Investments and acquisitions (if any) during a period of downturn should be closely related to their core business.

Improved Process and Efficiency

Speed and flexibility are very important in executing recession strategies, the faster the better. A period of recession is a time when the competences of management are called to task. Davies(2008) refers to it as a time for innovation, possibly at even greater rates than when an economy is growing.

During recession, process efficiencies will be sought to trim costs from budgets while over centralization does not result in economies. Flexibility and fast action are the key to surviving and prospering during recession. Speed and flexibility allow businesses to correct wrong turns promptly by abandoning ideas that are not working and fn tuning those that are paying dividends. More flexible management structures allow quick adaptation to local challenges during recession times. This calls for empowering lower tier managers throughout the business as a means improving efficiency of operations and decision making.

Strategic Divestment

This involves shedding non-core operations to improve liquidity and/or focus on the core strategy. Operating non-core business splits much needed focus and resources.

Most companies divest parts of their business during recessionary periods. At face value these divestments are part of a strategy of cutting costs and/or generating short term liquidity, particularly where less profitable divisions were divested. Companies divest primarily to raise cash to service debt and fund further investment. It is important to note that, for large firms especially the MNCs, most divestitures are of divisions that are not in-line with the company's long term strategic view, or differ from the company's core-business.

Companies also prune areas of their business that are not so profitable to enable them to execute their strategy. Many of the job losses attributed to downsizing during periods of recession occur when companies are getting rid of activities that add little business value, divesting from non-strategic divisions and shedding less productive assets that are difficult to dispose of in good times. By shedding non-core operations, many companies energise their core businesses and better position them to pursue growth and profitability. In the words of Philipo (2008), recession is not a period to use profitable branches/units to service non-productive ones.

Contingency Planning

This is not easy to prepare for a downturn but beneficial if accomplished. Planning can be formal scenario planning or careful structuring of the business to maximise resiliency.

From reviewed literature, very few companies actively plan alternative strategies for adverse times well in advance of them occurring. But many companies survive turbulent times despite having no specific plan for the recession. However, in all cases when the downturn hits, companies quickly assemble a plan and put in place a strategy for dealing with adverse conditions.

Acquisitions and Strategic Alliances

Many companies that have survived recessions adopt the strategy of acquisitions and strategic alliances to strengthen, re-focus, and position the company for increased growth and profitability. During periods of recession, acquisition 'entry price' is likely to be lower, and there may be less competition for acquisition targets. Sometimes businesses that have previously been unattainable become available for acquisition as they struggle to deal with a downturn. Companies also make acquisitions to access new markets, products, technologies, customers and talent at an accelerated pace.

Some companies use strategic alliances to execute their strategy during a recession. This enables them to pool resources together, innovate, enter new markets, get access to new ideas and technology much quicker than would have been possible individually. Strategic alliance helps companies to increase profitability and growth during recovery period while still retaining their independent operations.

Davies (2008) believes that in addition to business/asset acquisitions, a period of recession is a germane time for talent acquisition. When competitors retrench, people or talent becomes available. For SMEs, this is a rare opportunity to acquire the skills to push into product areas where demand is growing, not contracting, expand geographically and strengthen their position to move quickly, faster than the competition, when the economy recovers.

Increased Advertising and Marketing

Increased advertising and marketing help to increase market share and take advantage of greater advertising reach, possibly at more competitive rates.

Advertising is an area where many companies seek to cut back on their costs during a downturn. Cutting costs is a reasonable reaction to times of economic stress and often spending on advertising logically reduces as it may be viewed as a cost not an investment. However, research indicates that maintaining or increasing targeted advertising expenditure during a recessionary period is a good way for companies to

gain market share in a highly competitive environment (Philipo 2008; Davies 2008; Almeida 2001; Fletcher, Clarke, Watkins, Cameron and Olsson 2009).

Research and development

Research and development during recession helps to create new value in core product/services that can sway recessionary consumers as trading is more competitive. New product releases can have a greater impact during a downturn as competitors are slower to counter with their reciprocal offerings. Companies that reduce R&D spending may have the desirable effect of improving short-term cash flow but they increase the likelihood of permanent damage to competitive advantage and market share.

Conclusion and policy recommendation

Recession is known for liquidating companies. Recession imposes threats on businesses but also opens up new opportunities. In other words, recession generates counter-tendencies that constrain but also enable business to act in particular ways that can facilitate survival and even higher levels of performance. It presents business with the dilemma of whether to cut costs in order to conserve resources or to invest in new products and processes to exploit competitor weaknesses. Only companies with dynamic capabilities and adopting the right strategic response survive recessions and even grow during the upturn.

In economic meltdown, companies downsize, right size, merge or are acquired. The work environment is unstable and workers feel vulnerable. At such periods, business works in partnership with government to ensure survival and safety of employment. Strategies do not work in a vacuum but ride on industrial and other policies of government for effective turn around. The UN supports this view and asserts that at a time when more than 1 billion people are denied minimum requirements for human dignity, business cannot afford to be the problem. Rather, it should work with governments and all other actors in society to mobilize science, technology and knowledge to tackle the interlocking crises of hunger, disease, environmental degradation and conflict that are holding back the developing world (Nelson and Prescott 2003). Governments work with business to alleviate poverty and unemployment because as the UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon (2011) puts it “the people of the world are watching. Too many of them are anxious, angry and hurting. They fear for their jobs, their families, their futures.”

From our study, it is evident that business strategic response to downturns has policy implications for governments. The following recommendations are therefore made:

1. Government's power reform agenda needs to be faithfully pursued. No strategic adaptation and response will be effective in reviving companies in a recession when there is energy crisis. Constant power supply contributes substantially in the growth and stability of industrial concerns.
2. Investments take place in secure environments. A company adopting a finance strategy will not be able to raise the needed bail out funds from investors in an environment where life and property are insecure. Insecurity greatly inhibits foreign capital inflows to business and the economy.
3. Policies that will restore confidence in the Nigerian Capital Market are needed. The growth and stability of the capital market is strongly associated with industrial survival and growth. An active capital market provides the equity and debt capital necessary for survival during a period of recession.
4. As part of Nigerian Government's industrial policy the Bank of Industries should be sufficiently empowered, in terms of its capital base to be able to provide facilities to industries at a reasonable cost. On-lending facilities may not be cheaper than its original source. The Bank of Industries (BOI) currently

sources funds from the Central Bank Nigeria and International Finance Corporation to empower the national base.

References

Adebiyi, A.M (2009), *Global Economic Meltdown: Implications for Nigeria's Survival*, A key Note Address Presented at Babcock University on February 12, 2009.

Almeida,C(2001),7 *Surefire Strategies To Recession-Proof Your Business*, www.powerhomebiz.com/vol69 , Retrieved 11/03/11.

Chou, T-J.andChen, F-T. (2004)*Retail Pricing Strategies in Recession Economies: The Case of Taiwan*, Journal of International Marketing, vol.12(1),), www.academicjournals.com Retrieved 11/03/11.

Davies, R. (2008), *Key Questions For Business Survival and Growth*, www.drrobertdavies.com , Retrieved 20/03/11.

Deans, G., Kansal, C. and Mehlretter, S. (2009) *Making a Key Decision in a Downturn: Go on the Offensive or be Defensive?*, Ivey Business Journal Online, Jan/Feb.

Eisenhardt, K. M. and Martin, J. A. (2000) *Dynamic Capabilities: What Are They?* Strategic Management Journal, Vol.21(10), www.academicjournals.com Retrieved 11/03/11.

European Commission (2006), *Environmental Fact Sheet industrial Development*, <http://ec.europa.eu.pdf> Retrieved June 28, 2011

Fletcher, J. , Clarke, J., Watkins, N., Cameron, R. and Olsson, F (2009), *Recession Survival Strategies*, Report on research into tactics and strategies used by firms to survive and prosper during recessionary periods (For New Zealand trade & Enterprise), www.ebochamber.co.nz/docs. Retrieved 11/03/11.

Geroski, P. Mata, J. and Portugal, P. (2007) *Founding Conditions and the Survival of New Firms*, Druid Working Paper No. 07-11, online at: http://www.druid.dk/wp/pdf_files/07-11.pdf

<http://abcbusinesssuccessblog.businessconsultingabc.com>, A Proven Business TurnAround Strategy and Process, Retrieved 20/03/11.

Ki-Moon, B.(2011) The Millennium Goals Report 2011, www.un.org.pdf, Retrieved 16/7/ 2011

Kitching, S, Blackburn, R., Smallbone, D. and Dixon, S.(2009), *Business Strategies and Performance During Difficult Economic Conditions*, London: Small Business Research Centre, Kingston University (For the Department of Business Innovation and skills(BIS), www.berr.gov.uk, Retrieved 11/03/11.

Latham, S. (2009) *Contrasting Strategic Response to Economic Recession in Start-Up versus Established Software Firms*, Journal of Small Business Management, Vol.47(2).

Michael S. and Robbins D. (1998) *Retrenchment among Small Manufacturing Firms during Recession*, Journal of Small Business Management vol.36 (3).

Nelson, J and Prescott, D (2003), *Business and the Millennium Development Goals: a Framework for Action*, UNDP International Business forum, www.undp.org.pdf, Retrieved June 28, 2011

Ofuan, J. I(2010), *Capital Market: An Engine for Industrial Growth and Development*, Nigeria Research Journal of Accountancy, Vol.1(2), Lagos: The Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN).

O'Gorman, C. (2006) *Strategy and the small business*, in S. Carter and D. Jones-Evans (eds) Enterprise and Small Business (2nd ed), Harlow: Financial Times/Prentice Hall.

- Olubukunola, O (2005), *Surviving Strategies for Professionals during Economic Downturns*, The Nigerian Accountant, Vol. 38(2), Lagos: ICAN
- Oyemakinde, W. (2009), *Global Economic Meltdown*, Ibadan: Sunlight Syndicate Ventures.
- Philipo, A(2008), *How to Manage Your Business During Recession*, <http://hubpages.com> Retrieved 11/03/11.
- Porter, M. (1980) *Competitive Strategy*, New York: Free Press.
- Rumelt, R. P. (1984) *Towards a Strategic Theory of the Firm*, in R. Lamb (ed) *Competitive Strategic Management*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall
- Sanda, O.(2009), *Causes, Effects and Possible Solutions to the Economic Meltdown: The Nigerian Experience*, Journal of Development Administration, Ibadan: department of Management and Accounting, Lead City University.
- Smallbone D., North D, and Kalantaridis C. (1999) *Adapting to Peripherality: a Study of Small Manufacturing Firms in Northern England*, *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, Vol. 11(2), www.academicjournals.com Retrieved 20/03/11.
- Teece, D. J. (2007) *Explicating Dynamic Capabilities: The Nature and Microfoundations of (Sustainable) Enterprise Performance*, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 28(13), www.academicjournals.com. Retrieved 20/03/11.
- UNIDO (2004), *The Role of Industrial Development in the Achievement of the Millennium Development Goals*, Proceedings of the industrial development forum and associated roundtables, Vienna, December 1 -3, www.unido.org.pdf, retrieved June 28, 2011.
- Whittington, R. (1991) *Recession Strategies and Top Management Change*, *Journal of General Management*, Vol.16 (3), www.academicjournals.com. Retrieved 20/03/11.
- Williamson, P.J. and Zeng, M. (2009) *Value-for-money Strategies for Recessionary Times*, *Harvard Business Review*, Vol.87(3), www.academicjournals.com Retrieved 20/03/11
- Yawson, A(2005), *Performance Shocks, turnaround strategies and corporate recoveries: The Australian experience* www.doc.fce.unsw.edu.au, Retrieved 11/03/11.

Commercialization of important research outcomes: A case study of chemical extraction of humic substances using crude resins.

By

¹Ohene B. Apea ²Ephraim J. H. * and ¹Okyere Isaac

¹University for Development Studies, faculty of Applied Sciences, Applied Chemistry Department,
Navrongo Campus

²Catholic University College Fiapre, Sunyani Brong Ahafo Region Ghana

Abstract

Natural resources are a gift to any nation. The article focused on demonstrating that natural materials hold the potential to generate income for any nation. The study tested the potential and efficiency of crude resins from indigenous plants in the extraction of humic substances from soil. The point of zero charge of crude resins from five plants (Anarcadium occidentale, Bowswellia sacra, magnifera indica, Euphorbia tiricalli, and Havea braziliensis) were determined using potentiometric method (batch titration method). Batch experiments of resin (solid) solution system was used to extract the humic substances. The results revealed that with the exception of Bowswellia sacra resins from the other plants have the potential to extract humic acid and fulvic acid. Adsorption efficiency studies indicated that the plant resin with the highest efficiency of extraction (83.88%) for humic acid is Euphorbia tiricalli. And for fulvic acid the highest efficiency (77.29%) is Anarcadium occidentale. No net adsorption was noted for Bowswellia sacra for HA and FA. Knowledge of the point of zero charge of the resins enhanced our understanding and provided a potential alternative method of extracting commercial grade HA and FA from soil, to generate income for poverty alleviation.

Key words: Humic substance, humic acid, fulvic acid, resin, adsorption, extraction, commercial.

Introduction

Humic substances (HSs) are the most widespread natural complexing ligands occurring in nature. The remarkable properties of HSs have attracted the attention of many scientists and industrialists (Apea, 2011). The results of research on humic substances' properties and applications over the years have brought new knowledge on their physicochemical properties and pointed to the use of these interesting natural compounds in many practical applications. And its commercialization is fast gaining grounds.

Humic substances have been utilized in large-scale in the building, leather, woodworking, ceramic, plastics, paper, and food processing industries. Some of the applications of HSs in the environment include removal of heavy metal and radioactive elements from water discharges from nuclear plants (Ghaddour and Davies, 1999), sewage purification, sorbing gases from animal-carcass rendering plant, hydrogen sulfide and mercaptans from municipal gas supplies, and sulfur dioxide from stack gases (Green and Manahan, 1981), and removal of organic pollutant (agrochemicals and pharmaceuticals). HSs also play an important role in agriculture, and biomedically HSs are used on large-scale in veterinary and human medicine (Mund-Hoym; 1981, Brzozowski *et al.*, 1994) because of their antiviral, profibrinolytic, anti-inflammatory and estrogenic activities (Waksman, 1998). The antibacterial (Ansorg *et al.*, 1978; Skliar

et al., 1998) and antiviral (Klöcking and Sprossig, 1972; Thiel *et al.*, 1977, 1981; Schiller *et al.*, 1979; Klicking 1991; Klöcking *et al.*, 2002) properties of humic substances represent new possibilities for their medical application.

Due to their poly-electrolytic properties, humic substances are one of the most powerful chelating agents among natural organic substances (Tipping, 2002; Apea, 2011). The zwitterionic character of humic substances allows the interaction of anions with positively charged groups of humics and cations with negative charged groups of these substances. The unique chemical properties of humic substance products enable their application in industry, agriculture, environmental and biomedicine. Thus their economic value for generating income for a nation such as Ghana which is taking giant strides to achieve the millennium development goals cannot be over emphasized.

In this study, attempt is made to show that this particularly interesting material (HSs), which, like many others, remains un-commercialized for economic growth, can be harnessed using crude resins from indigenous plants.

ANALYTICAL METHODS

Sampling and preparations of resins

Resins were tapped from plants by slashing the bark. The exuded resins were allowed to bleed out and collected. The resins were prepared for experiment by exposing to air to harden. The surface area of the oxidized resins were reduced mechanically and employed in the adsorption experiments. Resin samples were obtained from the following plants cashew (*Anarcadium occidentale*), frankincense (*Bowswellia sacra*), mango (*magnifera indica*), milk bush (*Euphorbia tiricalli*), and rubber (*Havea braziliensis*).

Experimental Procedure for Point of Zero Charge (PZC)

The PZC of the resins were determined using acid-base titration of the colloidal dispersion while monitoring the pH of the suspension, as indicated by Isaac (2011). Several titrations (10 times) were carried out to obtain a satisfactory graph. The experiment was repeated for all the resins and the PZC of the individual resins were used to design the adsorption experiments

Extraction and isolation of humic substances

Humic substance fractions were extracted and isolated from soil samples using a procedure described by Apea (2011). The humic substance isolates were used in the preparation of standard solutions of concentrations 120.66 mgC/l for fulvic acid, and 110.68 mgC/l for humic acid.

Determination of organic carbon

Quantitative analysis of the organic materials present in standard solutions, the individual phases of solid-solution systems were determined by accounting for the total organic material present in terms of organic carbon. The determination was carried out using a modified Walkley-Black method by Forster (1995).

Experimental procedure for adsorption process

The adsorption process experiment was carried out by bringing 1.0g of the activated resin (resin soaked in a solution of pH 1 for 10hrs) into contact with 10ml solution of a standard solution of humic acid (3.162 mgC/ml) or fulvic acid (3.447 mgC/ml) for 10hrs. The liquid phase of the resin-solution system was separated to terminate the experiment by filtration using filter paper. The filtrate was then analyzed for its total organic matter content in terms of organic carbon. The variations in the organic carbon value in the solution phase before and after the experiment were used to discuss the extent of adsorption. The experiment was carried out in batches and repeated five times for each resin-humic substance system.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Point of Zero Charge (PZC) of plant resins

The outcome of the experiments indicated that the PZC of the crude plant resins occur at low pH values (Table 1). This implies that the crude resins have a high potential for environmental remediation. In natural environments (terrestrial and aquatic) pH values are normally higher the pH of the observed PZCs. Under these conditions the resins are expected to be negatively charged, thus their ability to form complexes with the cations of metal pollutants will under normal environmental conditions be feasible. However, below the PZC, the resins are expected to have high affinity for anions.

Table 1: PZC of plant resins

RESINS	PZC VALUES
CNPR	3.62
FR	4.16
MPR	3.22
MBPR	4.85
RBR	3.81

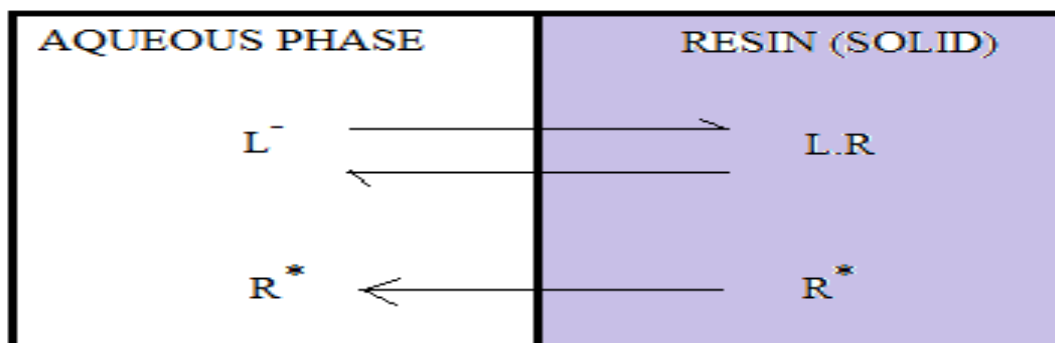
In this study, resins activated below the PZC of the crude resins were brought into contact with aqueous humic substances to determine the relative effectiveness of the different resins in humic matter removal from aqueous systems containing a resin.

Theoretical considerations on the resin-humic substances aqueous system

The extraction system is made up of aqueous phase and a solid phase. The aqueous phase contained the organic ligand (FA or HA). The solid phase was a solid adsorbent such as milk bush plant resin, rubber plant resin, frankincense resin, cashew nut plant resin and mango plant resin.

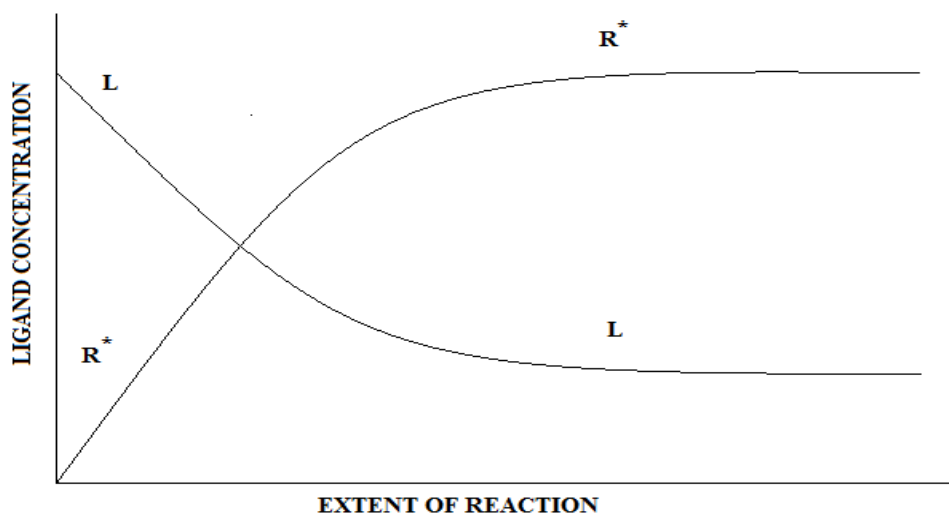
When resins are introduced into the organic acid solution, adsorption of organic acid ligands by the resins is expected to occur (Figure 1). This is due to the positively charged surface of the resins which attract the negatively charged ligands in the aqueous phase (organic acid solution).

Figure 1: Hypothetical reaction profile for the interaction between the solid resin and aqueous humic substances.



The interaction of resins and organic ligands is conceived to be reversible and eventually reaches equilibrium. Water soluble organic compounds (R^*) in the impure resinous material also go into the aqueous phase (Figure 2). The release of soluble organic species from the resins continue in a reaction considered in this study as being irreversible and continues till it reaches its maximum level when all R^* are completely in solution (Figure 2). It was also assumed that, R^* in the aqueous phase is not re-adsorbed by the resins. Thus, R^* does not interfere in the adsorption at the resin's surface as well, and does not compete with the organic ligands for binding site on the resins. Another assumption made was that R^* does not interact with the organic ligand (L). R^* increases the concentration of the total organic carbon in the aqueous phase.

Figure 2: Hypothetical reaction profile for the interaction between the solid resins and aqueous humic substances.



It may therefore be stated that from the hypothetical reactions below, the concentration of $LR + L_{(aq)} = RL_{(s)}$, and $R_{(s)} \rightarrow R_{(aq)}$ in the aqueous phase reduces with time and becomes steady at equilibrium while R^* increases in the aqueous phase and reaches maximum concentration over time (Figure 2). Thus accounting for the concentration of the species at equilibrium in order to determine the extent of ligand adsorption requires careful analysis when the species are quantitatively determined in terms of total

organic carbon. The relationships below are thus the conceived theoretical accounting of the quantitative study of the absorption process.

$$\begin{aligned}
 M_T &= M_{L_I} + M_f \dots\dots\dots i \\
 M_I &= L_I \dots\dots\dots ii \\
 M_f &= L_{aq} + R^* \dots\dots\dots iii \\
 M_T &= L_{aq} + L_a + R^* \dots\dots\dots iv \\
 L_a &= M_T - L_{aq} - R^* \dots\dots\dots v \\
 \therefore L_a &= M_T - L_{aq} \dots\dots\dots vi \\
 \text{But, } M_T &= L_I + R^* \dots\dots\dots vii \\
 \Rightarrow L_a &= (L_I + R^*) - L_{aq} - R^* \dots\dots\dots viii \\
 L_a &= L_I + R^* - L_{aq} - R^* \dots\dots\dots ix \\
 L_a &= L_I - L_{aq} \dots\dots\dots x
 \end{aligned}$$

(Where

M_T = total mass of organic compound in aqueous phase,

M_I = total mass of organic ligand in aqueous phase before adsorption, L_I = initial amount of ligands,

R^* = dissolved organic compound, L_{aq} = un-adsorbed ligand in solution, L_a = organic ligand adsorbed, M_f = sum of R^* and L_{aq})

The total mass of organic compounds in the aqueous phase (M_T) is the sum of the total mass of organic ligand before adsorption and the total mass of organic compounds in the system at the end of experiment any time adsorption has began (reaction i). The total mass of organic ligand is the same as the initial amount of ligands present (reaction ii) in the system before adsorption, whereas the total mass of the organic compounds any time after adsorption had began (M_f) is the sum of the amount of un-adsorbed ligand (L_{aq}) and R^* (reaction iii). Therefore, the total mass of organic compound in the system is the sum of un-adsorbed ligand (L_{aq}), amount of ligand adsorbed (L_a) and R^* (reaction iv). Hence, the mass of ligand adsorbed is the difference between total mass of the organic compound, less the sum of un-adsorbed ligand and R^* (reaction v). Therefore, the amount of ligand adsorbed equals the difference between the total mass of organic compound in the aqueous phase and the mass of un-adsorbed ligand. Meanwhile, the total mass of organic compound is the sum of total ligands and R^* . Therefore, the amount of ligands adsorbed is the difference between the sum of the total amount of ligand in the system (L_T) and R^* , and the sum of un-adsorbed ligand and R^* . The amount of ligand adsorbed becomes the difference between the total amount of ligand in the system and the amount of un-adsorbed ligands.

Adsorption efficiency of resins

The results presented in Table 2 shows that the extent to which HA is adsorbed by the resins is in the order MBPR > CNPR > RPR. All the resins adsorbed HA. Their ability to swell in aqueous solution significantly influences their extent of absorption by increasing the total adsorption sites. This ability subsequently increases the extent of adsorption of HA by the resins. In addition, the variation in particle size of the resins also affects their extent of adsorption. The smaller the particle size the greater the surface area and therefore the higher the adsorption.

MBPR was noted to have the highest efficiency of adsorption (83.88%) and RPR had the lowest efficiency (6.47%) in the absorption of humic acid (Table 3). The outcome indicates that MBPR is comparatively the most effective resin for absorption of humic acid.

Table 2: Mass (mgC/L) of absorption of HA by plant resins

RESINS	M_I (mgC/L)	MR^* (mgC/L)	M_f (mgC/L)	M_{ads} (mgC/L)	STANDARD DEVIATION
CNPR	0.2047845	0.046907	0.221628	0.0300635	0.65988
MBPR	0.2047845	0.1978416	0.230844	0.1717821	0.462989
RPR	0.2047845	0.038573	0.23011	0.0132475	0.50831
FR	0.2047845	0.008963	0.2382177	-0.0244702	0.97452

Note: M_I = Mass of organic acid standards, MR^ = Mass of organic compound dissolved, M_f = Mass of organic acid filtrate and M_{ads} = Mass of organic acid adsorbed*

There was an exceptional case noted in the adsorption of HA using FR. This gave a negative absorption value of -0.0244702 mgC/g of HA. This implies there was no net absorption and there are more organic species in the aqueous phase than there are in the solid.

Table 3: Absorption efficiency of HA by plant resins

RESINS	ABSORPTION EFFICIENCY (%)
CNPR	14.68
MBPR	83.88
RPR	6.47

The extent of fulvic acid adsorption is also influenced by particle size of the resins. However, it was noted that the resin with the highest absorption efficiency for fulvic acid is CNPR, 77.29%, MPR gave the least, 18.52%, (Table 5). In general both humic and fulvic acids can be absorbed by the resins, but to different extents. No net absorption was also noted for FR in the adsorption of fulvic acid.

Table 4: Mass of Absorption of FA Acid by Plant Resins

RESINS	M_I (mgC/L)	MR^* (mgC/L)	M_f (mgC/L)	M_{ads} (mgC/L)	STANDARD DEVIATION
CNPR	0.316505	0.046903	0.11880	0.244635	3.39179
MPR	0.316505	0.010933	0.26882	0.058618	0.84135
MBPR	0.316505	0.197842	0.387977	0.132369	0.780593
RPR	0.316505	0.038573	0.279017	0.076061	0.72170
FR	0.316505	0.008963	0.36688	-0.041412	0.202082

(Note: M_I = Mass of organic acid standards, MR^ = Mass of dissolved organic compound, M_f = Mass of organic acid filtrate and M_{ads} = Mass of organic acid adsorbed)*

Table 5: Absorption efficiency of FA by plant resins

RESINS	ABSORPTION EFFICIENCY (%)
CNPR	77.29
MPR	18.52

MBPR	41.82
RPR	24.03

Stability constant

The concentrations of the ligand in the system phases were used to estimate the stability constants for the humic and fulvic acid systems (Table 6). Based on the assumptions made earlier in the theoretical considerations, the hypothetical reaction equation below were used for the relationship used to compute the stability constants.



Where R_s = resin sample, L_{aq} = ligand of organic acid solution, RL_s = resin – ligand bond

$$K = \frac{RL_s}{[R_s][L_{aq}]}$$

Where k = Stability constant

The greater the amount of ligand adsorbed in the aqueous system the higher the stability constant (K) and vice versa. This confirmed that MPBR had the highest adsorption efficiency for HA removal from solution and CNPR for FA removal (Table 6). In this case, the values of K imply that even though adsorption of a ligand may be appreciable the resin ligand complex is unstable and generates more un-bound forms of the ligand. Thus in such systems there will always be more reactants than products, and adsorption will not lead HA and FA removal from solution. Consequently, a combination of CNPR and MBPR may be used for the removal of humic substances from solution, or their removal may be carried out selectively with CNPR for FA and MBPR for FA.

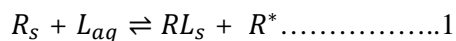
Table 6: Stability constant

RESINS	K (FA)	K (HA)
CNPR	1.30125	0.8536
MPR	0.218	-
MBPR	0.4309	1.7342
RPR	0.2726	0.2537

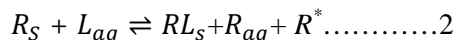
(Note: L_a = ligand adsorbed, L_{aq} = ligand of organic acid solution, $K [R_s]$ = Stability constant of resin)

Zero net absorption

The hypothetical equations suggest that the interaction between the resin (R) and organic ligand (L) in the resin-aqueous solution system is also accompanied by the release of water soluble organic impurities (R^*) from the crude resin into the aqueous phase. In addition, the resin material may also undergo dissolution and introduce more organic material (R_{aq}) into the aqueous phase. The following hypothetical equations are hence conceived for use in the interpretation of the possible cause of negative adsorption.



Where R_s = resin sample, L_{aq} = unadsorbed ligand in aqueous phase, RL_s = resin – ligand complex, R^* = water soluble organic compound (impurities) in the resin



Where R_{aq} = dissolved resin

Careful considerations of the events suggest that the zero net adsorption observed is due possibly to the following:

- The resin-ligand complex formation induces or reinforces the water soluble properties of the resin.
- Ligand adsorption and desorption processes occur at equal rate giving the impression of zero net adsorption.
- There was no ligand adsorption at all, and partial dissolution of the resin as well as the transfer of organic impurities (R^*) into the aqueous phase is the major changes affecting the total organic carbon content of the system.
- The transfer of organic impurities (R^*) into the aqueous phase increases in the presence of humic substances.
- The aqueous forms of the organic impurities and or the HSs have the tendency to catalyze or induce the dissolution of the resin.

Therefore, it is possible that the frankincense which gave negative adsorption values could have been as a result of any of the reasons above. Any mechanism or process which increases the value of R^* and R_{aq} will result in the observation of negative adsorption.

Then, the relation $L_a = (L_I + R^*) - L_{aq} - R^*$

Will become $L_a = (L_I + R^*) - L_{aq} - R^* - R_{aq}$, when there is no change $R^* = R^*$

$$\therefore L_a = L_I - L_{aq} - R_{aq}$$

$L_a = \text{negative}$ since $L_I < (L_{aq} + R_{aq})$

This presupposes that $L_a = \text{negative}$ may imply adsorption in the presence of dissolving solid phase.

Alternatively, when $L_I = L_{aq}$

Then $L_a = L_I - L_{aq} - R_{aq} = 0 - R_{aq} = \text{negative}$

The deductions indicate that ligand absorption can occur but they may be transferred back into the aqueous phase as the resin goes back into solution, and this suggests that the resin is not a good material for extraction in aqueous system at least under the conditions of this experiment.

Resins such as frankincense can only be used when the chemistry of interaction between the resin adsorption surface and the organic ligands as well as changes in the physical and chemical properties of the resin upon interaction with ligands are understood. It is therefore imperative for the study of such resin to be carried out to increase our understanding of aqueous based adsorption.

Conclusion

The successful determination of the point of zero charge of the crude resins indicated that the crude resins have poly electrolytic characteristic which made it possible for the adsorption of HA and FA through the process of ion exchange reaction. This adsorption was authenticated by the determination of organic carbon of HA and FA in the resin solution before and after adsorption. HA was best extracted by milk bush plant resin with adsorption efficiency of 83.88%. FA was best extracted by cashew nut plant resin with adsorption efficiency of 77.29%.

However, there was no net adsorption of HA and FA with frankincense. The extraction process provides easy and cheap way of extracting HA and FA for commercial use with crude resins.

References

- Apea, O. Boansi: Modeling the role of humic substances in the distribution of trace metals in selected ecosystems in Ghana; a PhD dissertation , Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana, 2011.
- Ansorg, R. and Rochus, W.: Studies on the antimicrobial effect of natural and synthetic humic acids. *Arzeimittelforschung* 28:2195. 2198, 1978.
- Brzozowski T., Dembinski A., and Konturek S.: Influence of Tolpa Peat Preparation on gastroprotection and on gastric and duodenal ulcers. *Acta Pol. Pharm.* 51:103.107, 1994.
- Davies G. and Ghabbour, E. A. (eds.): Humic substances, structures, properties and uses. The RSC, Cambridge 1999.
- Forster, J.C.: Organic carbon. In: Methods in applied soil microbiology and biochemistry. Editors [Alef, K.](#); [Nannipieri, P.](#) First ed. ISBN [0-12-513840-7](#); pp. 59-65. 1995.
- Green, J. B. and Manahan, S.E.: Absorption of sulphur dioxide by sodium humates. *Fuel* 60: 488.494, 1981.
- Klöcking, R. and Sprossig M.: Antiviral properties of humic acids. *Experientia* 28: 607.608, 1972.
- Klöcking, R.: Humic substances in the global environment and implications in human health. *Monopoli* 1992, p. 129.
- Mund-Hoym, W. D.: The effect of salhummin baths on rheumatic and traumatic joint diseases. *Med. Welt.* 32: 1378.1381, 1981.
- Schiller, Klöcking, F. R. Wutzler, P. Farber I: Results of an oriented clinical trial of ammonium humate for the local treatment of herpesvirus hominis infections. *Dermatol. Monatsschr.* 165: 505.509, 1979.
- Skliar, T. V., Krysenko, A.V. Gavriluk, A.G and Vinnikov A.I.: A comparison of the developmental characteristics of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* and *Staphylococcus aureus* cultures on nutrient media of different compositions. *Mikrobiol. Z.* 60: 25.30, 1998.
- Thiel, K. D., Klöcking, R. Schweizer, H. Sprossig, M: Invitro studies of the antiviral activity of ammonium humate against herpes simplex virus type 1 and type 2. *German Zentralbl. Bakteriologie* 239: 304.321, 1977.
- Thiel, K.D., Helbig, B. Klöcking, R. Wutzler, P. Sprossig, M and Schweizer, H.: Comparison of the in vitro activities of ammonium humate and of enzymically oxidized chlorogenic and caffeic acids against type 1 and type 2 human herpes virus. *Pharmazie* 36: 50.53, 1981.
- Tipping, Edward: Cation Binding by Humic substances; Cambridge University Press UK, www.cambridge.org ISBN 0-19-551550-1. 2002.
- Waksman, S. A.: Humus: origin, chemical composition, and importance in nature. Williams and Wilkins Co., Baltimore 1938.
- Yamada E., T. Ozaki, M. Kimura: Determination and behavior of humic substances as precursors of trihalomethane in environmental water. *Anal. Sci.* 14: 327.332, 1998.

By

Ojo Olawole, Ireunmi Banwo and Ogundiwin Aaron Ola

Department Of Political Science And Public Administration,

Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.

Abstract

There is no doubt that the achievement of the MDG's would consolidate the Nigerian democracy. Democracy as a form of political system could better be guaranteed if such system is sustained through holistic transformation of the sectors of the economy. This paper therefore explores avenues on how democracy as a political system could be sustained and consolidated by analyzing MDG's policy initiatives within the Nigerian economy and the standard of living of the people. The paper adopted qualitative approach relying on secondary sources of information, analyzing and assessing the impact of the MDG's in all the sectors of the economy. The paper adopted the political economy and the public choice approach as theoretical framework. The paper found out that democracy as a system of government could only be consolidated, if and when the score card of government has shown a visible evidence of the implementation of all the programmes and the transformational effects on the lives of the people. The paper concluded that unless there is a corresponding improvement in the living standard of the people, democracy as a sustainable and lasting system of government will be a ruse.

Introduction

There are three minimal conditions that must be obtained before there can be any meaningful democratic consolidation. First, the existence of state; in other words no state, no democracy, this is because free and fair elections cannot be held,, winners cannot exercise the monopoly of legitimate force and citizens cannot effectively have their rights protected by a rule of law unless a state exists. Second, democracy cannot be thought as consolidated until a democratic transition has been brought to completion. That is, there must be the holding of free, fair and credible as well as contested elections that meets the seven institutional requirements for elections in a polyarchy as Robert Dahl (1971) has set forth.

Thirdly, no regime should be called democratic until the rulers govern democratically. If freely elected executives (no matter the magnitude of their majority) infringe the constitution, violate the rights of individuals and minorities, impinge upon the legitimate functions of the legislature, and thus fail to rule within the bounds of a state of law, their regimes are not democratic (Juan Linz and Alfred stepan, 1996).

When we talk about the consolidation and sustainability of democracy, we are not dealing with liberalized non-democratic regimes, or with pseudo-democracies or with hybrid democracies where some democratic institutions coexist with non-democratic institutions outside the control of the democratic state. Only real democracies can become consolidated and sustainable democracies.

In attempting definitions of consolidated democracy, many scholars list all the regime features that would improve the overall qualities of democracy. Essentially, by a "consolidated democracy" we mean a political regime in which democracy as a complex system of institutions, rules and patterned incentives and disincentives has become, in a phrase, "the only game in town". (Scott Mainwaring, Guillermo, O. and J.S Valenzuela (eds), (1992).

This paper intends to analyze the nexus between consolidation and sustainability of democracy and MDG's in Nigeria as well as what ways has our democracy helped in the attainment or impeded the MDG's.

In essence, this paper examines the performance of our democracy in implementing policies that are meant to improve the living conditions of the citizenry in respect to the attainment of the MDG's.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATIONS

Democracy

Democracy as a concept is one of the most striking characteristics of contemporary politics. Democracy is a very loaded concept whose entire essence cannot be captured by a singular school of thought. In fact, it means different things to different people. It more often than not tend to be emotional and regime-all-encompassing. This is simply because regimes tend to legitimize themselves by referring to themselves as democratic even when the contrary is institutionally the case. It is a form of governance in which the rights of citizens are guaranteed and protected.

Consolidation and sustainability of democracy

Originally, the term "democratic consolidation" was meant to describe the challenges of making new democracies secure, of extending their life expectancy beyond the short term, of making them immune against the threat of authoritarian repression, of building dams against eventual "reverse waves". However, the list of problems of democratic consolidation (as well as the corresponding list of "conditions of democratic consolidation"), has expanded beyond all recognition. It has come to include such divergent terms as popular legitimating, the diffusion of democratic values, the routinization of anti-system actors, civilian supremacy over the military, the elimination of authoritarian enclaves, party building, the organization of functional interests, the stabilization of electoral rules, the routinization of politics, the decentralization of state power, the introductions of mechanisms of direct democracy, judicial reform, the alleviation of poverty and economic stabilization (Scheduler, 1998). In other words, it means reducing the probability of its breakdown to the point where political actors can feel reasonably confident that democracy will persist in the near future. Brutton (1998) Conceptualized democratic consolidation as "the widespread acceptance of rules to guarantee political participation and political competition". Democratic consolidations is the process by which democracy becomes so broadly and profoundly legitimate among its citizens that its very unlikely to breakdown. According to Diamond (1995), it involves "behavioral and institutional changes that normalize democratic politics and narrow its uncertainty".

The above has demonstrated that the sustainability of democracy is a product of many factors or conditions operating together. No one condition on its own will be sufficient, but an accumulation of facilitating conditions can be expected to enhance the prospects for the survival of electoral democracy. Sustainability of democracy can also mean that democracy should keep going. It emphasizes the creation of sustainable improvements in the quality of life of all people through deepening of popular participation in the political and social life of the country.

MDGS

It is necessary to know what the MDGS are so that we can fully appreciate the relevance of their attainment. The MDGS are eight goals designed during the United Nations (UN) millennium summit in September 2000; which are expected to be achieved in 2015, by the 189 nations who adopted the programme. Essentially designed to respond to the world's main development challenges, "the MDGS are drawn from the actions and targets contained in the millennium declaration that was adopted by 189 nations, and signed by 147 heads of state and governments, including Nigeria" (Oluwole, 2007), during the already mentioned UN millennium summit.

The eight goals are basically:

To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; and develop a global partnership for development (UN 2000).

Furthermore, there are 18 quantifiable targets that are set for the programme, which are measured by 48 indicators. The consolidation of electoral democracy is one of such key indicators.

Methodology

The methodology adopted in this paper is principally the descriptive analytical method, which relies extensively on secondary sources of information such as textbooks, internet, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc. bringing out the relationship between consolidation and the sustainability of democracy in Nigeria with MDGs as a veritable instrument.

Theoretical Framework

The public choice approach – This approach or theory is one of the growing paradigms in the field of public administration. It is concerned with the nature of public goods and services and their allocative processes (Mahajan, (1988), Anifowose (1999), Chikote (1981). It further deals with the relationships between the formal decision-making structure and human propensities for individual and collective action. As a result, government structures and processes are evaluated and the multiplicity of governments in a large metropolitan area is also critically evaluated and explained.

From the above, the centrality of poverty has made successive Nigerian governments to initiate sustainable development programmes aimed at alleviating or minimising the deadly scourge of the poverty phenomenon. This is seen in the establishment of national economic empowerment and development strategy (NEEDS), family economic advancement programme (FEAP), national directorate of employment (NDE) and better life programme (BLP).

The political economy approach – This approach or theory is being applied more and more to both political and administrative analysis on account of its comprehensiveness and explanatory strength.

The traditional meaning of the term political economy is that branch of the art of government concerned with the systematic inquiry into the nature and the causes of the wealth of the nations (Mahajan (2008), Auto de Montcrasen (1615).

Adam Smith (1776) in Oxford defined political economy as a “branch of the science of a statesman or legislator” concerned with the twofold objective of providing a plentiful revenue or subsistence for the people and supplying the state or commonwealth with a revenue sufficient for the public service. It proposes to enrich both the people and the sovereign. It should also be emphasized that the essence of political economy is “to penetrate deep into processes and policies, lay bare their essence and then explain concrete forms of their manifestation in everyday life, Anifowose (1999).

The theory of political economy in itself deals with the basis of social development in any society. The production of material wealth – the mode of production. According to Lenin (in Anifowose 1999), “political economy is not all concerned with production but with the social relations between people in social production, the social system of production. The subject matter of political economy is to study the social relations of people in the production process in any society and show how those who own and control the dominant means (the ruling class) control all the facets of the society, and how invariably policies are made to further promote and protect their interests”. In other words, political economy approach shows the inter-connections between the substructure and the superstructure.

Consolidation and sustainability of democracy in Nigeria

Originally, the term “democratic consolidation” was meant to describe the challenge of making new democracies secure, of extending their life expectancy beyond the short-term, of making them immune against the threat of authoritarian repression, of building dams against eventual “reverse waves”. However, the list of problems of democratic consolidation (as well as the corresponding list of “conditions of democratic consolidation”), has expanded beyond all recognition. It has come to include such divergent items as popular legitimating, the diffusion of democratic values, the routinization of anti-system actors, civilian supremacy over the military, the elimination of authoritarian enclaves, party building, the organization of functional interest, the stabilization of electoral rules, the routinization of politics, the decentralization of state power, the introduction of mechanisms of direct democracy, judicial reform, the alleviation of poverty and economic stabilization in the words of Andreas Schedler. Put differently, democratic consolidation means reducing the probability of its breakdown to the point where political actors can feel reasonably confident that democracy persists in the near (and not so near) future.

In his formulation of democratic consolidation, Guillermo O’Donnell drew attention to the threat of silent regressions from democracy to semi-democratic rule and incorporated the overcoming of this threat into his (broad) definition of democratic consolidation. Michael Bratton too conceptualized democratic consolidation as “the widespread acceptance of rules to guarantee political participation and political competition”.

Democratic consolidation is the process by which democracy becomes broadly and profoundly legitimate among its citizens that is very unlikely to breakdown. According to Larry Diamond, it involves “behavioral and institutional changes that normalize democratic politics and narrow its uncertainty”. This normalization requires the expansion of citizen access, development of democratic citizenship and culture, broadening of leadership recruitment and training, and other functions that civil society performs. But most of all and most urgently, it requires political institutionalization. In a nutshell, Whitehead believes that democracy can best be said to be sustained or consolidated only when we have good reason to believe that it is capable of withstanding pressure or shocks without abandoning the electoral process or

the political freedom on which it depends, including those of the dissent and the opposition. Definitely, this will also require a depth of institutionalization reaching beyond the electoral process itself. In the same perspective, Przewoski is of the view that democracy is consolidated when the major political players recognize sufficient common interest in establishing electoral procedures and subsequently see that their interest in keeping to the rules of the game outweighs the costs of their being underpinned, rather than out of any principled commitment to democratic norms and canons.

Exploring the nexus between good governance and democratic consolidation, the UNDP in its 1997 reports came up with a catalogue of what it takes to sustain democracy, viz:

- 1) Popular participation
- 2) Democratic sustenance
- 3) Governmental legitimacy and acceptance by the people
- 4) Transparency
- 5) Promotion of equity and equality
- 6) Ability to develop the resources and methods of governance
- 7) Promotion of gender balance
- 8) Tolerance and acceptance of diverse perspectives
- 9) Ability to mobilize resources for social purposes
- 10) Strengthening of indigenous mechanisms
- 11) Observance of the rule of law
- 12) Efficiency and effectiveness in the use of resources
- 13) Ability to engender and command respect and trust
- 14) Accountability
- 15) Ability to define and take ownership of national solutions
- 16) Enabling and facilitative governance
- 17) A regulation rather than controlling governance
- 18) Ability to deal with temporary issues and
- 19) A service-oriented governance

To achieve a consolidated democracy, the necessary degree of autonomy of civil and political society must be embedded in, and supported by, our third arena, the rule of law. All significant actors especially the democratic government and the state apparatus must be held accountable to, and become habituated to, the rule of law. For the types of civil society and political society we have just described, a rule of law animated by a spirit of constitutionalism is an indispensable condition. Constitutionalism, which should not be confused with majoritarianism, entails a relatively strong consensus regarding the constitution, and especially a commitment to “self-binding” procedures of governance that can be altered only by exceptional majorities. It also requires a clear hierarchy of laws, interpreted by an independent judicial system and supported by as strong legal structure in civil society.

The emergence of a Rechtsstaat-a state of law, or perhaps more accurately a state subject to law- was one of the major accomplishments of nineteenth-century liberalism (long before full democratization) in continental Europe and to some extent in Japan. A rechtssaat meant that the government and the state apparatus would be subject to the law, that areas of discretionary power would be defined and increasingly limited, and that citizens could turn to courts to defend themselves against the state and its

officials. The modern rechtsstaat is fundamental in making democratization possible, since without its citizens will not be able to exercise their political rights with full freedom and independence.

A state of law is particularly crucial for the consolidation of democracy. It is the most important continuous and routine way in which the elected government and the state administration are subjected to a network of laws, courts, semiautonomous review and control agencies, and civil-society norms that not only check the state's illegal tendencies but also embed it in an interconnecting web of mechanisms requiring transparency and accountability. Freely elected governments can, but do not necessarily, create such a state of law. The consolidation of democracy, however, requires such a law-bound, constraint-embedded state. Indeed, the more that all the institutions of the state function according to the principle of the state of law, the higher the quality of democracy and the better the society.

Constitutionalism and the rule of law must determine the offices to be filled by election, the procedures to elect those officeholders, and the definitions of and limits to their power in order for people to be willing to participate in, and to accept the outcomes of, the democratic game. This may pose a problem if the rules, even if enacted by a majority, are so unfair and poorly crafted and so difficult to change democratically that they are unacceptable to a large number of citizens. For example, an electoral law that gives 80 percent of the seats in parliament to a party that wins less than 50 percent of the vote, or an ideologically loaded constitution that is extremely difficult to amend, is not likely to be conducive to democratic consolidation.

Finally, a democracy in which a single leader enjoys, or thinks he or she enjoys, a "democratic" legitimacy that allows him or her to ignore, dismiss, or alter other institutions-the legislature, the courts, the constitutional limits of power does not fit our conception of the rule of law in a democratic regime. The formal or informal institutionalization of such a system is not likely to result in a consolidated democracy unless such discretion is checked.

Some presidential democracies with their tendencies towards populist, plebiscitarian, "delegative" characteristics, together with a fixed term of office and a "no-reelection" rule that excludes accountability before the electorate encourage non-constitutional or anti-constitutional behavior that threatens the rule of law, often democracy itself, and certainly democratic consolidation. A prime minister who develops similar tendencies toward abuse of power is more likely than a president to be checked by other institutions: votes of no confidence by the opposition, or the loss of support by members of its own party. Early elections are a legal vehicle available in parliamentarianism-to help solve crises generated by such abusive leadership.

A Usable Bureaucracy

These three conditions-a lively and independent civil society; a political society with sufficient autonomy and a working consensus about procedures of governance; and constitutionalism and a rule of law- are virtually definitional prerequisites of a consolidated democracy. However, these conditions are much more likely to be satisfied where there are also found a bureaucracy usable by a democratic leaders and an institutionalized economic society.

Conclusion

Democracy as a system of government, could only be consolidated if and when the score cards of government has shown a visible evidence of the implementation of all the programmes and he transformational effects on the lives of the people

The paper found out that poverty in Nigeria pervaded all the strata of the economy, as a result it is our argument that basic functions and services of government, starting with security of lives and property, has to be seriously addressed, otherwise the targets of the MDGs may not be attainable in Nigeria.

Recommendations

Poverty in Nigeria is multi-faceted and deeply rooted. As such, an effective poverty reduction strategy must reflect its multidimensional nature, incorporating economic, social, cultural and political dimensions.

Consequently, achieving the MDGs and sustainable democracy through poverty reduction would require the commitment of all stake-holders involved-individuals, communities, governments, non-governmental organizations and relevant international agencies.

In order to sustain all that had been done especially as regards the on going democratic experiment, this paper suggests the following:

- 1) Free, fair, credible and non violent elections must hold on schedule
- 2) Not only must votes count, they must be able to establish a link between the peoples choice and electoral mandate
- 3) The federal, state and local government must ensure commitment in the area of fund allocation for provision of social services that are beneficial to the poor
- 4) Effective decentralization of governmental activities by greater recognition of local governments
- 5) Also the government must recognize and encourage non-governmental organizations (NGO'S) to be actively involved in a wide variety of activities to help provide development opportunities for grass root communities.

References

- Andreas, S. (1998), What is Democratic Consolidation, *Journal of Democracy*, vol-9, no -2.
- Anifowose, R. and F. Enemuoh (1999), *Elements of Politics*. Lagos: Malt House Press Ltd.
- Chilcote R.H. (1981), *Theories of Comparative Politics. The Search for a Paradigm*. Boulder Colorado: West view Press.
- Dahl, R.A. (1971), *Polyarchy: Participation and Opposition*, New Haven, Yale University Press.
- Daini O. (2007), "MDDS: Beyond Paying Lip Service", *The Punch*, Tuesday, October 30, 2007.
- Juan L.L. and Alfred .S. (1996), Toward Consolidated Democracies..*Journal of Democracy*, 7.2.
- Larry, D. (1995), *Rethinking Civil Society: Towards Democratic Consolidation*, Cross Roads, Lagos: USIS Publication.

Maclean, I. and A. McMillan (2003), *Oxford Concise Dictionary of Politics*, New York: Oxford University Press.

Mahajan, V. D. (2006), *Political Theory*, New Delhi: Chauds and Company Ltd.

Guillermo, M. S. and Valenzuela, J. S. (Eds) (1992), *Issues in Democratic Consolidation: The South American Democracies in Comparative Perspective*, Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press.

Michael B. (1998), Second Elections in Africa, *Journal of Democracy*, vol.9, no 3.

United Nations (2000), Millennium Summit Report.

Yagboyaju, D.A. (2008), Attaining the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Weak States: The Nigerian Example. *International Review of Politics and Development*, vol.6, nos 1 & 2.

Subtle and Covert Sex Discrimination That Hinders Women Empowerment in Nigeria: Barriers to Achieving Millenium Development Goals.

By

Adeleke, Justina Olufunke

Department Sociology,

Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba Akoko

Ondo State, Nigeria.

Abstract

This paper discusses the concept of women empowerment in Nigeria, in line with contemporary trend. It examines various contributions of women to national development, using feminist theory and millennium development aspirational goals. It concludes that there are still some subtle and covert forms of discrimination that limit women empowerment. It submits that to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), there must be a systematic change in policies, after tested trials. This systematic change should start with the family-based.

Key words: *Women Empowerment, Aspirational Goals, Socialization process.*

Introduction

Issues concerning women empowerment and gender equality are no longer new in academia. Since the late 20th Century, considerations of gender equality and women empowerment have assumed universal dimension. There have been various empirical studies on the issues involved over the years (Adeleke, 2010; Muo & Dada 2008; Nagray 2006; Manley 2006; Osunyikanmi, 2006; Aruna, 2005; Adedimeji, 1998; Weidemann, C. J. & Merabet, G. 1992 & Buttner and Rosen, 1985). With the ratification of the convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) by the United Nations General assembly in 1979, the stage was set for women and women right organizations to take a central position in the fight for gender equality and women empowerment (Adeleke, 2010). Ever since, things have taken a new dimension in the contemporary trend.

However, recent studies indicate that many success stories are being recorded as women status and social conditions are improving. (Adeleke, 2010 Aruna, 2005; Ruane & Cerulo, 2000). With the concerted efforts of international organizations and women-rights movements, the status of women in the Nigerian society has improved considerably. Suffice to say, the success and achievement recorded so far may not have been possible without the efforts of national and international organizations like the United Nations Organizations (UNO), Women in Development (WID), Women Trafficking and Child Labour Eradication Foundation (WOTCLEF), Women International Network (WIN), Civil Liberties Organization (CLO), etc.

International Conferences such as the Mexico Plan of Action (1985), Nairobi Forward- looking Strategies (1985), Beijing Declaration and the Platform for Action 1995, among others, have been helpful in arousing public interests and concern for gender equality and women empowerment in Nigeria. For instance, more female children are now enrolled in schools than before. The Universal Basic Education (UBE) programmes and Child Rights Bill (CRB) -almost passed into law by the Federal and many State governments in the country- are very encouraging.

Moreover, in Nigeria's current political structure, there are now more female Deputy Governors and female - members of both the States and National Assemblies, compare to 1999, when we have only 3 female senators out of 109 members of House of Senate, 12 representatives out of 360 members of House of Representative. 15 State Assembly members spread over 36 states and only 1 female Deputy Governor out of all 36 states executives. While in this present dispensation, we have 8 women in the House of

Senate, 12 in the House of Representative and 6 women Deputy Governors (www.allafrica.com, 2011; gender views, 2000). There are also more career-women managers in institutions and establishments such as banks, schools, the Civil Service, industries, capital market, telecom centres, etc. (Adeleke, 2010). In spite of this tremendous progress, it is worthy to note that there are still some outstanding issues and challenges, albeit subtle and covert, which are hindrances to attaining Millenium Development Goal Number Three (3) which is the attainment of women equality and empowerment by 2015.

Subtle Gender Hindrances

According to Benokraitis and Feagin (1993), subtle gender hindrances are discriminatory in nature and considerably more harmful. Subtle gender hindrances can be:

- Intentional or unintentional;
- Visible but often goes unnoticed (because it has been built into norms, values, and ideologies);
- Communicated both verbally and behaviorally;
- Informal rather than formal; and
- Visible on the individual (rather than organizational) levels.

They display the following traits:

- (i) **Condescending chivalry:** This covers superficially courteous behaviour that seems protective and paternalistic, but treats women as subordinates.
- (ii) **Benevolent Exploitation:** That is, when women are exploited, in such a way that the exploitation is carried out so gracefully, often without being noticed.
- (iii) **Dumping:** This is a kind of exploitation whereby a woman is used for a particular job and a man takes the credit.
- (iv) **Showcasing:** This is the placing of women in visible and seemingly powerful positions in which their talents, abilities, and intelligence can be pooled, whenever necessary, for the public consumption and the institution's credibility.
- (v) **Nudity:** This is a wide - spread form of exploitation; it is the use of female nudity to sell everything from toothpaste to cars. Although such advertising may not be seen as exploitation to many because women are expected to be "decorative", the implicit message to the public is that the primary role of women is to provide pleasure, sex, or sexual promise.

Covert discrimination

Covert discrimination, on the other hand, refers to unequal and harmful treatment of women that is hidden, clandestine, and maliciously motivated (Benokraitis & Feagin, 1993). Unlike overt and subtle discrimination, covert discrimination is very difficult to document and prove because records are not kept or are inaccessible. The victim may not even be aware of being a 'target' or the victim may be ignorant of how to secure, track and record evidence of covert discrimination. It includes:

Tokenism: Despite being wide- spread since the 1970s, "tokenism" as a term is rarely defined. But Benokraitis and Feagin (1993) have defined it as the unwritten and usually unspoken policy or practice of hiring, promoting or otherwise including a minuscule number of individuals from under represented groups-women, minorities, the handicapped, and the elderly. According to Benokraitis and Feagin (1993), organizations through tokenism maintain the semblance of equality because no group is totally excluded. Placing a few tokens in strategically visible places precludes the necessity of practicing 'real' equality

which is hiring and promoting individuals purely on merit. The most commonly practiced form of tokenism that limit women's equal participation in the labour force is based on numerical exclusion, which uses quota to maintain a predominantly male work force.

Sabotage: Through sabotage, employers and employees purposely and consciously undermine or undercut a woman's position. Although, sabotage can be contrived and carried out by individuals, it usually involves covert agreements between two or more persons. Since sabotage is difficult to prove, it is also easy to deny. In almost all cases, it comes to "my word against yours" because saboteurs do not leave a 'paper trail'.

Meeting the Third Millennium Development Goal: Promoting gender equality and women empowerment.

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were issued by the UN Secretary- General in 2001. These goals are a 'road map' for implementing the Millennium Declarations agreed on by 191 governments at the September 2000 UN Millennium Summit, where 147 Heads of Government turned out for the largest ever gathering of world leaders. The MDGs comprises eight goals namely: (1) eradicate extreme poverty (2) achieve universal primary education (3) promote gender equality and women empowerment (4) reduce child mortality (5) improve maternal health (6) combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases (7) environmental sustainability (8) develop global partnership for development. Were supplemented by 18 numerical and time bound targets and 48 indicators intended to improve living conditions and remedy key global imbalances by 2015 (www.un.org/millenniumgoals). "Goal 3" calls for gender equality and women's empowerment. In addition, the MDGs address several of the 12 critical areas of concern in the Platform for Action adopted at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing ,namely, (1) Poverty, (2) Education, (3) Health, (4) Violence, (5) Armed conflict, (6) Economic structures and politics, (7) Power and decision-making structures and policies (8) Insufficient mechanisms to promote the advancement of women (9) Lack of respect and adequate protection of the human rights of women (10) Media stereotyping and inadequate access of women to communication systems (11) Natural resources and the environment and (12) Discrimination and violation of the rights of the girl child. ([http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/pdf/Beijingfullreport E.pdf](http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/pdf/Beijingfullreport%20E.pdf)). For meeting these goals there, has been a tremendous improvement in the education of women. Even in Northern Nigeria where the education of a girl child was a problem, a strategy for improvement has been introduced. This situation is confirmed by Dr. Yashua Alkali Hamza, a consultant paediatrician, in her view on girl's education in the North, she submitted that:

"The girl-child's education is poor in the country but it is improving and that more emphasis needs to be placed on the issue. There are still certain areas where girls don't go to school; but, with awareness now, more and more people are realizing that people don't make it unless you go to school. But we have to,also, consider the qualities of the schools, which have to be standard. Even though the illiteracy rate is still high, there is improvement. You can even observe this in the medical schools of nowadays. For instance, when I was a student, there were 46 of us in the class, only six of us were females in the North. It is no longer a taboo to send girls to school" (The Guardian, 2008:18).

To further improve girls' education, the UNICEF in Nigeria has commenced efforts on Girls' Education Programme (GEP) in four States in Nigeria; namely, Bauchi, Kastina, Niger, and Sokoto.

Moreover, in the area of economic empowerment, Ondo State for example, has introduced some ameliorative measures (via the Ministry of Youth and Women Affairs) in the area of skill acquisition and micro-finance where women can learn trades and secure loans to start businesses so as to enhance them for economic empowerment. In another report, Victor (2008:9) claimed that, in relation to the elimination of gender disparity in primary education, Nigeria has a 0.89 percent gender parity index with 72 percent male enrolment to 64 percent in female. Hence, Nigeria is still lagging behind in meeting the MDG No 3 which calls for gender equality and women's empowerment.

According to Abebe (2008:37), of the Nigerian Exports Promotion Council, Nigeria is ranked as one of the poorest countries in the world despite her vast oil revenue. She noted that gender issues were conspicuously absent from the current negotiations on-going in relation to Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA). She claimed that "there is no systematic screening for social and gender impact or compliances with international agreements such as CEDAW. The Sustainability Impact Assessment of the European Union (EU) is yet to have any impact on even EU's trade policy development where women hope to benefit". She argues further that women experience specific and additional disadvantages due to existing gender-based inequalities and biases which include division of labour between men and women, unequal access to and ownership of productive assets, gender biases against women in institutions and State policies and unequal participation in decision-making processes.

In spite of the efforts made by women organizations to ensure the effective participation of women in politics, women's level of participation is relatively low. This was evidenced in the 2010 National Summit on women participation in politics that was held on August 23, in Lagos, organized by the then Minister for Women Affairs and Social Development, Mrs. Josephine Anenih. Moreover, despite efforts in the 7th Senate women were covertly denied leadership positions. Among the 36 States of the Federation, in the current administration, we have only one female Speaker of the State House of Assembly- Oyo state.

Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework to guide this study is feminist theory. The feminist movement has given rise to a large body of theoretical perspectives to explain gender inequality and set forth agenda for overcoming those inequalities. Feminist theories, in relation to gender inequality, contrast markedly with one another. Competing schools of feminism have sought to explain gender inequalities through a variety of ways to deeply embedded social processes such as sexism, patriarchy, and capitalism (Giddens, A., Duneier, M., & Appelbaum, R. 2005).

Feminism is the advocacy of social equality for men and women, in opposition to patriarchy and sexism. The first wave of the feminist movement in the United States of America (USA) began in the 1840s as women who were opposed to slavery, including Elizabeth Caddy Station and Lucretia Mott, drew parallels between the oppression of African Americans and the oppression of women.

Feminist theory views inequality in gender as central to all behaviour and forms of organization. One of the earliest feminist theorists was Ida Wells- Barnett. Following her ground-breaking publications in the 1890s on the practice of lynching Black Americans, she became an advocate in the women's right campaign, especially the struggle to win the vote for women. Like feminist theorists who succeeded her,

Wells-Barnett used her analysis of society as a means of resisting oppression. Feminist scholars such as (Risman & Schwartz, 1989; Epstein, 1988; Kanter, 1977) have not only challenged stereotyping of women, they have argued for a gender-balanced study of society in which women's experience and contributions are visible as those of men (Komarovsky, 1991; Brewer, 1989).

The concept of patriarchy- the systematic domination of women by men- is a central concern of this theory and it is seen as the root cause of subtle and covert discrimination. Men, therefore, use their power to subdue women. Since men realized that women are becoming more empowered educationally, economically, socially, and politically, through sustained awareness campaigns and occurrences in modern societies, men have become afraid of women taking over if given the chances. Instead of the open discrimination that is gradually fading away, men are now adopting the covert and subtle level of discrimination to fence off women. Although feminists differ in their interpretations of patriarchy, most of them agree that the nature and extent of abuse of women's rights involve the appropriation of women's beliefs and sexuality in certain forms. This led some feminists such as Millet (1970) and Zammuner (1987) to assume that the family is a key institution of oppressing women in modern societies and gender differences starts from the socialization process. Firestone (1972) believed that women's oppression originated in their biology, particularly in the fact that they give birth. This means that men control women's role in reproduction and child-rearing. Because women, biologically, give birth to children, they become dependent materially on men for protection and livelihood. Men, therefore, control every aspect of women's life (Isingo Abanihe 2003).

For example, the last corruption allegation that was levied against Patricia Etteh was said to have been master -minded by men to relieve her of her position as the Speaker of the 6th Federal House of Representatives. Also, with the on -going administration, if we are to go by the zoning formula the position of the Speaker was supposed to go to the western zone. Since the nominated candidate is a woman, the position was politically in a covert manner, given to a man. In a subtle political way, men had used patriarchy to subdue women because they are seen as the 'head'. Since women's roles are said to differ from men culturally, men are considered superior to women (Brown, 1977). But Risman (2005), in her study of structure vs. personality argued that what really appear to be sex differences are in Epstein's terms "deceptive distinctions" Risman argued further that men and women behave differently because they fill different positions in institutional settings, work organizations, or families. And that if men and women are in the same structural slots they likely would behave identically. Epstein (1988), on the other hand, argued that the differences exhibited by patriarchy are just deceptive differences that reflects women's lack of opportunity in a male- dominated society. Kanter (1977), on the other hand opined that when women had access to powerful mentors, interaction with people like themselves, and the possibility for upward mobility, they behave like others- regardless of the sex- with the similar advantages. If women are given a chance with these social network variables, it could explain success at work far better than the assumptions of masculine versus feminine work styles. Women are less often successful not because they fear success or had never developed competitive strategies, but because they are often blocked from the network of advantages. If women are given the right support by men the Millennium Development Goal Number 3 will be realizable in Nigeria by 2015. By and large the feminist theory using patriarchy could be criticized for encouraging women to focus on men as being responsible largely for the subtle and covert discrimination against them, ignoring the attitude of women themselves for not being supportive to each other. Zimmerman (1987, cited in Risman, 2005) on the other hand, argued that despite structural

aspects of work and family life, societies cannot be divorced from sex-category. She, therefore, suggests that once a person is labeled a member of a sex category, she is morally accountable for behaving as the person in that category does. The person is expected to 'do gender' as the ease of interaction depends on it. But, by and large, all women need to realize that their potential is the encouragement given by society at large.

Data collection

Data for the study was collected in Akure, the capital city of Ondo State, Nigeria. Data were collected through qualitative method. Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were used to capture the essence of this study. Both gender- male and female- were interviewed. Ten (10) FGDs were conducted with women and in-depth interviews with 50 men. The discussions and the interview sessions were recorded and later transcribed. FGD was preferred with the women because of the sensitive nature of the topic. The topic of this nature can only be better captured through group discussions. In order to achieve the objectives of this paper, working-class women from various social categories- bankers, teachers, lecturers, civil servants, and business executives- were incorporated into the groups. Each FGD comprises 5 members of the same social category. The FGD discussion was moderated by the researcher herself and the discussion topics included the concept of gender equality and women empowerment, challenges and hindrances to attaining gender equality and women empowerment, and the nature of subtle and covert hindrances in achieving the Millennium Development Goals. In order to gain more insight into men's views about the problem, 50 men were purposively selected for interview and the selection of these men cut across various social categories.

For the in-depth interview, open ended questions were used, so as to guide against problem of inconsistencies in the questioning process and that of the respondents. The questions asked included the concept of empowerment, the prioritization of male gender and the use of covert and subtle methods of the discrimination. The study lasted for about eight months, between October, 2010 to May, 2011.

Discussion of findings

During the FGDs, it was generally agreed that much has improved for women. As at today, thousands of women have moved into traditionally male jobs. Women's marital status is no longer a barrier to their employment. Women now participate in higher education at an improved rate. Relevant legislation is being drafted to advance and protect the legal rights of women. But, in spite of recent achievements in the long 'journey' by women, there are still some covert and subtle hindrances to their achieving full potential. For example, one of the women narrated how she was subtly denied of her position as a bank manager just because she is a woman and was about getting married. The reason was she might not be able to cope with her duty as a wife and a Bank Manager.

From the FGDs, the groups equally claimed that the so-called hindrances to gender equality and empowerment begin with the gender socialization-process. As in most children's earliest moments of life, there are some gender-based behaviour and expectations required of them; even most parents treat their male and female infants differentially. For instance, mothers have been found unconsciously rewarding and reinforcing passivity and dependency in girls while rewarding boys for action and independence. They reported that such differential treatment that is having effects later or in adult life (Ruane & Cerulo, 2000). Despite the various conferences and campaigns, it was found that prioritization of males still

occurs in almost all organizations and this is usually done in more subtle and covert ways. These are capable of being a serious barrier to achieving MDG No 3 of women becoming politically, socially, and economically empowered. During the FGDs, some of the women narrated how they were discriminated against subtly and covertly, which had hindered their social and economic empowerment. For example, one of the lecturers in one of the universities narrated her ordeal when was she to become the Head of Department. She complained of serious subtle antagonism and how her colleagues suggested to her how it would be difficult for her to combine her home-children's welfare and all- with administrative work. From the deliberations and the discussions, the ten FGDs concluded that:

- (1) In most occasions even when a woman has all it takes to be a leader and had performed excellently in a previous leadership position, she is usually denied in a subtle manner, with the excuse that she is a woman.
- (2) Another category of the women also observed that when it comes to jobs that are sensitive and require trust, women are called upon to do the job. But situations that require money-making, men will covertly sideline women and claim they don't need money.
- (3) Some are also of the opinion that when it comes to rigorous and tedious office-jobs, women are called upon because they are more organized and trust worthy. Though most often than not, men take the praises for the good job while women, are 'dumped' in the process of evaluation.
- (4) Moreover, it was discovered that tokenism is a prevalent covert factor. Most organizations would maintain on the surface that they are gender balanced but, covertly, during recruitment they deliberately gave few slots to women so that it can be said that both genders are recruited. This happens in every organization, especially academia.
- (5) The women also condemned the act of using women's nudity in advertisement. It was claimed that this single act has reduced women to nothing more than sex objects.
- (6) The women claimed that, these discriminations started from the socialization process and has been entrenched through patriarchy. It is also embedded in religion. Up till now, in some churches, a woman cannot become a pastor no matter how spiritually filled she is. As for the Muslims a woman can never become an Imam.

Also, in the in-depth interview sessions, the men were asked: "Why are covert methods used to limit women's efforts?" About 80 percent of the respondents claimed that male prioritization started from the family's socialization process that has even become internalized as part of societal values. Some of them also stated that women are subtly sidelined in leadership positions or opportunities because women are not pliant to change in positions of authority. This, they claimed, tends not to augur well for harmony and growth in society, especially where there are religious injunctions or doctrines against women in leadership roles.

Although most of them accepted that women should be empowered, they entertained the 'fear' of possible confrontations if women are eventually equal with men.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Ruane and Cerulo (2000), amongst other, have shown that there has been considerable improvement in women's status as thousands of them have moved into traditionally male- jobs; and, thereby, many have been empowered in view of the level of their contribution to societal development which is significantly increasing. However, it is claimed that there are still some unequal and harmful treatments – usually

subtle and covert - that persist to hinder women's empowerment and equal opportunity with men, while limiting professional growth and opportunities (Benokraitis & Feagin, 1993). It is reckoned that these covert and subtle forms of discrimination were laid during the socialization process where expectations and behaviours are gender-based and males are prioritized above, or take precedence over, females in the family system.

This paper therefore submits that, in spite the important contributions of women to societal/national development, there is still discrimination against women, albeit subtle and covert, which hinder them from reaching their potential. It is therefore recommended that women need not be too rigid when they are in leadership positions and should be supportive of one another like their male counterparts. Women should try as much as possible to resist using their nudity for advertisement. There should also be a systematic change towards gender-balancing, starting from the socialization process that is family-based. Moreover, for MDG No 3 to be actualized, men (as a socio-economic category) should be the more sensitized toward giving women more opportunities to achieve their potential, even if after a 'tested trial'.

References

Adedimeji, A. (1998) Women's Reproductive Health, Empowerment and Male Involvement. *Association for Reproductive and Family Health (monograph) Vol.1 No3*

Adeleke, J.O. (2010). Empowering Women in Nigeria: A Paradigm Shift in Contemporary Development Efforts. *AAU: African Studies Review* 9:250-262.

Aruna, J.O. (2005). An Assessment of Some Traditional Practices Affecting Gender Equality in South-Western Nigeria. *International Journal of Violence and Related Studies* 2 (1).383-309.

Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. Assessed, March 2011. <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/pdf/Beijingfullreport> E.pdf.

Benokraitis, N.V. and Feagin, J. R. (1993). Sex Discrimination, Subtle and Covert. In J.M. Henslin(eds.), *Down to Earth sociology, Introductory Readings*. (pp334-342). New York: The Free Press.

Brewer, R.M. (1989). Theorizing Race, Class and Gender. *The New Scholarship of Black Feminist Intellectuals and Black Women's Labour*. New York: Routledge.

Brown, J.K. (1977). A note on the Division of Labour by Sex. In N. Glazer and H.Y. Waehrer(eds), *Women in a Man-Made World*. Chicago: Rand and McNally

Buttner, E. H. and Rosen, B. (1988). Bank Loan Officers' Perceptions of the Characteristics of Men, Women, and Successful Entrepreneurs. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 3 & 4.

Epstein, C.F. (1988). *Deceptive Distinctions: Sex, Gender, and the Social Order*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Firestone, S. (1972). *The Dialectics of Sex*. London: Paladin.

Giddens, A., Duneier, M. and Appelbaum, R. (2005). *Introduction to Sociology*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc.

Isingo Abanihe, U. C. (2003). *Male Role and Responsibility in Fertility and Reproductive Health in Nigeria*. Ibadan Centre for Population Activities and Education for Development (CEPAED).

Kanter, R. (1977). *Men and Women of Corporation*. New York: Harper and Row.

Komarovsky, M. (1991). Some Reflections on the Feminist Scholarship in Sociology. *Annual Review of Sociology*. pp.1-25.

Manley, B.A. (2006). *Equality at Work: Tackling the Challenges*. Geneva International Labour Organization (ILO). www.ilo.org/declaration. Assessed, March, 2011.

Millett, K. (1970). *Sexual Politics*. New York: Doubleday.

Muo, I. K. and Dada, A.O. (2008). "Economic Power Enhancement and Gender Discrimination in Trade Unionism: OOU Experience". In the Proceedings of the 1st International Conference on Socio-Economic Policies and Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) in Africa, edited by E.O. Akinlawo held at Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba, Nigeria, September, 24-26, 2008.

Nagraj, S. (2006). *Equality at Work: Tackling the challenges*. Geneva International Labour Organization (ILO), www.ilo.org/declaration. Assessed, March, 2011.

Osunyanmi, A. F. (2006). "Women Empowerment: An Option for Political Stability in Nigeria". *The Social and Management Scientist Vol2. No. 1*. Pp 63-73.

Risman, B. (2005). *Gender as Structure*. In S.J. Ferguson (eds.) *Mapping the Social Landscape: Readings in Sociology* (pp332-341). New York: McGraw

Risman, B. and Schwartz, P. (1989). *Gender in Intimate Relationships*. Belmont CA: Wadsworth.

Ruane, J.M. and Cerulo, K.A. (2000). *Second Thought: Seeing Conventional Wisdom Through the Sociological Eye*. London: Pine Forge Press.

The Guardian on Sunday, July 20, 2008.

The Guardian Tuesday, August 5, 2008.

This Day Newspaper, August 23, 2010.

Victor, S. (2008). "Nigeria is Lagging behind in Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) UNICEF." *The Punch* (Tuesday, August).

Women's Empowerment Gender Equality and the Millenium Development Goals. A Wedo Information and Action Guide, Women's Environment and Development Organization
www.wedo.org/protect.htm

Weidemann, C. J. and Merabet, G. (1992). Egyptian Women and Micro Enterprise: The Invisible Entrepreneurs. GEMINT Technical Report: No. 34, Bethesda MD: Development Alternative Inc.
www.allafrica.com. Assessed 18th August, 2011.

Zammuner, V. L. (1987). Sex Role Types: A Cross- Cultural Analysis. In P. Sharter and C. Hendrick (eds.), Sex and Gender. London: Sage.

Descriptive Analysis of the Role of ICTs in Development of Education in Nigeria

By

Onabamiro, Ade Adegenga PhD

Department of Counseling Psychology

Tai Solarin University, Ijagun Nigeria.

Anatsui, Tina C.

Lecturer, Dept. of Mass Communication

Babcock University, Illisan-Remo

Ogun State

Abstract

The paper emphasizes the impact of Information and Communication Technologies [ICT] for effective development of education in Africa and Nigeria in particular. ICT is one of the basic building blocks of modern society and it serves as effective means of passing academic instruction, storing and retrieving, coding and decoding information for better understanding of the learner and for effective teaching. The study aims that the government should acknowledge the ICT as a path to ensure qualitative education as a tool for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. The paper employs qualitative and quantitative empirical data, and adopted a structured interview as an instrument and simple percentages for data analysis. The study proved that those children who used the Internet more often had higher standardized test scores in reading and higher grade point average [GPAs] compared to children who used the internet less. The paper concludes that for any nation to move forward with regard to national development, technology must form the bedrock of its academic pursuit. And it recommends that ICTs should be examine from all sides in order to figure out what makes it thick and to nurture and promote the good parts or to slow down the bad parts for the betterment of everyone in society.

Introduction

Education, according to Denga [1993] is broadly defined as “on-going process that facilitates learning and acquisition of theoretical and practical skills that equip man-kind to utilize the environment effectively for personal success in life as well as for the development of society”.

He went further to explain that education is a process that focuses on the development of a total person- his intellectual potentials, skills to increase his productive capacity, development of his character, his psychological adjustment and balance, his political and artistic value. He continued by saying that education is a pot from which people can drink wisdom, knowledge, economic efficiency, morality, decency and functional skills which together can make them a credit to themselves and their society.

From the above views education is the bedrock for the realization of millennium development goals, while Information and Communication Technologies [ICTs] is pre-requisite for sustainable development of education in Africa, especially, in Nigeria. ICT is one of the basic building blocks of modern society and effective ways of passing academic instruction etc for effective teaching and learning experience.

Information technology is simply the collection of computer systems used by an organization; it refers to the technological side of an information system which includes: hardware, software, data bases, networks and other electronic device which allows its users a wide access to information stored in many places to communicate and collaborate with others

The development of electronic information and communication in the science and technology of radio, cassettes, tape recorders, television, video, telex and fax among others gives opportunity to million of people to learn in a more easier manner. The teacher can make use of any or a combination of two or more in the teaching-learning process that is, [multimedia approach] .Of recent, computers era was initiated, and in fact, computers have revolutionalized all areas of human endeavors Viz. Education, transportation, communication, business to mention a few. In education, it has industrialized learning. Learners learn through computer at their own pace and rate. Computer has made the whole world to be a “global village” ICTs brought about the integration of Education Technology into the education pedagogy to enhance the production and quality of teachers in Nigeria. National Policy on Education [2004] concisely states the reasons for the inclusion thus:

- to produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers;
- to encourage further the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers;
- to help teachers to fit into the social life of the community and society at large and to enhance the commitment to national objectives;
- to provide teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and to make them more effective in their profession.

Halbert [1944], asserts that students prefer visually presented information and are more likely to attend to visual stimuli than auditory stimuli presented simultaneously. He continues by saying that non-verbal illustrative content should be integrated with verbal content to enhance the realism of concrete situation and to structure the pattern of learning and to promote active participation of children. In the light of the above, educational technology can be likened to a ‘need’ in the present state of Nigeria educational system. The place of educational technology in effective teaching and learning cannot be over emphasized.

Purpose of the Study

- The purpose of this study is to emphasize the double edge sword of ICTS, and how its power for good and for bad resides on indigenous mass media.
- To identify the problems associated with browsing for information from the Internet and how Internet can be used to facilitate mass communication in Nigeria.
- Another purpose of the study is to create awareness on the importance of ICT in educational growth and its sustenance.
- How ICT is bedrock for building and improving educational system in Nigeria, and how government should acknowledge the ICT as a path to ensure qualitative education as a tool for achieving millennium development goals which include: eradicating poverty, reducing child mortality, curbing population growth, achieving gender equality and ensuring sustainable development, peace and democracy in Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem

Nigeria has embraced ICTs as an instrument to enhance the quality of education, accessibility to learning resources etc. It is worthy of note that ICT infrastructure which include computer hardware and software, bandwidth, connectivity are grossly inadequate, and have constituted constraints on its effective usage. This is further enhanced by associated physical infrastructure such as roads, electricity and so on. With respect to ICT, lack of reliable, widely distributed and high capacity data network for data, including sound and video have contributed to the low availability and penetration of ICT services in Nigeria and in Africa in general.

Komolafe [2009] observed that ICT infrastructures in higher institutions are grossly inadequate, and contends further that much attention was paid to Internet, while other essential equipment are lacking such as: CD-ROM, radio, tape, television and others. 65% of respondents to Komolafe [2009] study confirmed that computers available for internet are grossly inadequate to meet the demands of people for its usage.

Methodology

This study focuses on ICT as a pre-requisite for achieving millennium goals, through sustainable development of education in Nigeria. The study employed descriptive research method, as well as qualitative and quantitative data analysis based on the empirical primary and secondary data were adopted. The primary data employed interview as an instrument and the responses of respondent form the basis of analysis. The secondary data collected is presented and analyzed using simple percentages.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is anchored on the following theories:

Behavioral and programmed learning Theory

This theory opines that learning takes place through a mechanism of stimulus and response. The skinner operant conditioning theory focuses on programmed instruction. Slarin, 1991] Skinner advocated the use of teaching machines to provide modulated learning based upon concrete behavioral objectives. The programmed instruction is a learner-based learning activity which has characteristics like logical sequence of steps, active response by the learner, immediate knowledge of the accuracy of learners' responses and constant evaluation of learning through constant monitoring of programmed success and learner's progress.

Constructivism Theory of Learning

This theory views learning as a process in which the learner actively builds new ideas based upon current and past experience. Knowledge is not transferred from the external world into memories but they create interpretation and their interaction in the world. Constructivism is active, discovery learning and knowledge building and it promotes a free exploration within a given structure. Learning should be durable, transferable and self regulated.

Divesta 1987] mechanism is essential to promote the deeper internal processing required for such learning to occur. It explains how the brain stores and retrieves information to examine the ways in which learners make meaning from experience. Learning is an internal process of interpretation

User-Centered Design Model of E-Learning

This model is an approach to creating experiences for learners with their needs in mind [Evans 2002]. The user in this model is an integral participatory force in the decision making process. Users are present in the decision making process [Johnson 1998] and as well as an active participant in the design of the product.

Gate keeping and selection media theory

McQuail [2005] opines that ‘gate keeping’ has been widely used as a metaphor to describe the process by which selections are made in media work, especially decisions regarding whether or not to allow a particular news to pass through the ‘gate’ of a news channels . He further, to say that the gate keeping theory deals with the processes and factors that influence the decisions of media organization, to select or reject potential newsworthy items for public dissemination. The theory postulates that media organizations as well as key media professionals act as gates, to the flood of information coming in from the larger society. These gates are opened to let some kind of information through for processing and publication; or they are shut to deny other kinds of information the opportunity for processing and publication.

In the light of this research, the media organizations constitute a determining factor in the kind of information or media culture received and disseminated. Therefore, the power to receive or reject information that will develop or harm the societal culture, the media responsibilities and activity, society or country is in the ambit of the media.

CONCEPTS, ANALYSIS AND EXPLANATION

What is ICT?

Focus [2009] states that Information and Communication Technologies include all technologies that enable the handling of information and facilitate different forms of communication. By expanding the notion of information and communication technologies to include both older and newer technologies: newspapers; radio and television to cam-coders; cell-phones; computers and network; hardware and software, satellite systems and so on as well as the various services and applications associated with them, such as video conferencing and distance learning.

ICT is the world’s fastest growing technology which has brought about globalization. The world is now said to be leaving in an informational age; an era where information is the basis for development in whatever capacity. Internet is a good aspect of ICT and is often spoken of in a particular context such as: ICT in education, health care or libraries, the distinction between old and new technologies may become outdated as radio, television; satellite technologies and the Internet are combined in innovative ways to reach a wide range of target audience.

Focus [2009], opines that whatever has a good side also has its bad side. Internet causes distractions, students most times divert to other bad site which exposes them to a lot of bad things such as: pornography, on-line fraud, on-line dating etc. Many female students have been misled; some of them lost their focus on their mission in school due to this on-line dating, while the male students will abandon their academic assignments and involve in viewing naked picture of women on-line.

George [2004]: opined that the development of ICT has its pros and cons. Some of the side effect include; the use of computers to replace human labor, internet scam, erosion of Nigeria cultural values as a result of exposure to modern foreign media etc. On the other hand, ICT has helped in the improvement of communication, trade, politics, health, education, socio-economic development etc. [Focus, 2009]

What is Internet?

Hornby [2001:627] defined internet “as an international computer network connecting other networks and computers from companies, universities, etc. OSCE [2004]: described Internet as a global network of interconnected computers which enables users to share information along multiple channels. It is a universal medium for: publishing; distributing; broadcasting etc

The Internet has some positive roles it plays when referred to as a reliable source of academic information, it offers access of information on every sphere of life. Youths generally across the globe use internet to accomplish many of their undertakings. This interaction of the youths with internet has both pros and cons

The use of ICT by Nigerian Youths

Focus [2009] contends that most Nigerian youths do not make effective use of ICT which leads to their underdevelopment and that of Nigeria. He further, contends that 80% of youths in Nigeria tend to misuse ICT particularly the internet, to search for extraneous information such as hip-hop stars and music, chatting with unknown people from other parts of the world, viewing immoral sites and materials and most especially internet scam [419], while 15% use it for job search, mailing and contact point. The other 5% are those that make effective use of ICT. They access information on health, education, politics and socio-economic developments and research for project, use it to develop their life and skills and carry out legal business etc.

ICTs and the perception of ‘Nigerian’ ‘Youths’ globally

Oketola [2009], contends that a high number of the young Nigerian users allegedly utilize the Internet for illicit activities; a trend that is affecting the way the country is perceived by the outside world. He lamented that a 2009 Internet crime report listed Nigeria as number three on the list of the world’s top 10 online crime spots.

The Federal Government and a number of other stakeholders are campaigning against cyber crime in the country. The prevalence of young people involved in Internet scam has battered the image of the youths so much that an average Nigerian is perceived as a potential scammer. The young Nigerians are said to be the major users of the ever changing ICT innovations in the country. Some of them use the web for information on current issues on health, education, politics, and socio-economic development, sports and

for personal development as well as building skills. Many others who are in the majority of the country's Internet population misuse it for unconstructive activities such as viewing immoral materials. The prevalence of Nigerian youths involved in cyber crime has generated curiosity on a global scale, Oketola [2009].

Relevance of ICT to Education

ICTs have potential to improve young people's access to better education. Many schools and vocational training centers in developed societies are taking advantage of ICT to provide distance learning and to train teachers in new instructions methods. Technology is changing the way classrooms operate through integrating multimedia textbooks, online research and student presentations that made the learning process more interactive and participatory.

Focus [2009] opines that the effective use of ICT to seek life building skills, business opportunities, good governance, commerce, communication is essential to both human and national development.

Life building skills are special competencies youth require to correctly perform a task or deal with specific situation. These skills include communication skills, negotiation skills, building self-esteem skills, goal-getting skills. Most of these skills are not thought in schools. But making effective use of ICT can help develop these skills. The involvement of Nigerian youths in ICT businesses will result to self empowerment and bring about economic development to the nation. There are available home base online jobs like writing articles, editing, bogging etc, which can help empower young people in Nigeria.

Ogunneye [2007] contends that education is a critical factor in the development of any nation as it leads to the production of enlightened citizens. Article 26 of The Universal Declaration of Human Rights [1948] recognizes education along with other necessities such as food, shelter, and water as a fundamental human right. Education is essential for economic development and eradicating poverty. It allows people to be more productive, to play a greater role in economic life and to earn a better living. It is the foundation for acquiring knowledge and skills necessary to participate in and benefit from globalization and technological change.

Education enhances the ability of households to manage health problems, improve nutrition and childcare and plan for the future. Children of mothers who have been to school are healthier, better nourished and more likely to attend and succeed in school than children of mothers who have never gone to school. And it provides people with the tools and knowledge they need to understand and participate in today's world. It helps to sustain the human values that contribute to individual and collective well being. It inspires confidence and provides the skills needed to participate in public debate. It makes people more self-reliant and aware of opportunities and rights. [<http://www.albalagh.net/edicatopm/education2.shtm>]

Education also makes it possible for people to be responsible and informed citizens, and to have a voice in politics and society, which is essential for sustaining democracy. It also provides people with the knowledge and awareness needed to promote tolerance and understanding among people. [<http://www.albalagh.net/edicatopm/education2.shtm>].

Ogunneye [2007], opines that education helps to free human beings from ignorance thus producing individuals with independent minds that can contribute maximally to finding solutions to the nation's problems. It equally helps to produce individuals that can contribute significantly towards the nation's

development. National development without education is a figment of imagination; it is unheard of, it is impossibility.

Hindrances to ICTs Usage to Education in Nigeria

The advantages of ICT are numerous and have been highlighted. It should also be known that the Internet is a major driver of ICT in education. Bandwidth is a major issue in the deployment of e-learning. Bandwidth refers to the amount of information that can be sent or received at a point on a computer network. Therefore, the greater the bandwidth, the greater the carrying capacity and speed of transmission, as well as, the higher the quality and quantity of audio, video interaction and processing tasks, and the more sophisticated the communications technology is required. In effect, the content and services that can be accessed through internet are dictated by the bandwidth available. The former Executive Vice Chairman of Nigeria Communication Commission [NCC] Ernest Ndukwe described the level of internet diffusion as very low attributing the cause to high cost of bandwidth, computers and Internet infrastructures, as well as unreliable power supply.

Teacher Competencies is also highly required because the success of the use of any innovation depends on people, procedure and equipment. For modern technologies to be successfully used in education, teachers need to be sponsored, trained and retrained, since they are the ones to use it. By getting their goodwill and consents the introduction and procedures will be accepted and effective. There are lacks of ICT teachers to handle the subject in most Nigerian schools, including tertiary institutions.

Many of the soft wares for instruction have foreign bias and the illustrations used are not familiar to many Nigerian students. Examples include the use of foreign terminologies like spring, summer, winter, snow and penguin. There is an inadequacy of indigenous educational software.

Inadequate funding has also been described as one the greatest problems of effective implementation of educational programmes in Nigeria. It contributes greatly to the non -availability of ICTs, including the software components. The implication of this is that even if students are taught the theory of ICT, they are unable to practice and develop manipulative skills.

Osuntade [2003] cited in Adebola [2008] contends that there is a lot of unnecessary useless information on the Internet. This, according to him, is because such available information is not checked or censored. He observes that... misleading information may be collected by unguided students' from the Internet.

Tips for searching for academic information on the Internet

Anybody searching for academic information on the internet should know what he or she wants to write, and it is advisable that the person knows more about the Internet site than its general description.

Sometimes people are faced with the problem of getting the exact information they are searching for on the Internet and this can either be; by typing wrong questions or not knowing how to search the internet. Here are ways for searching the Internet for academic information:

- Open Internet searching through search engines [yahoo, Google, Ask.com, Mamma.com, Answer.com etc]
- Through directories

Search engine is very important and helpful when searching for academic information. These are search engines designed for academic purposes: Ask.com, Mamma.com, Answers.com, Yahoo search, etc. One of the search engines is Google and most people prefer to use Google. Google isn't in the advertisement business, but builds indexes to sell to other search engine companies [e.g. Yahoo and [MSN]. While directories are the web address of a particular company, organization, they are also called 'Link' Directories and are not the same thing with search engines. Search engines are used to locate directories. Directories give command to open another directories or sub-directories e.g. <http://www> or www etc.

Evaluating the information searched on the website is very important. It helps to prove the authenticity of such information. When evaluating the information on the website, these are some factors to consider:

- You must know the author, what his or her qualifications are for providing the information
- Check when the website was last updated
- Check for documentation to support any claims made by the author.

Method of data gathering and analysis

At this juncture, it is pertinent to mention that qualitative and quantitative methods of research were employed in this study. This means that primary and secondary data were gathered. The primary data were gathered through the interview of the ICT Director of Babcock University Nigeria, while the secondary data were gathered from the empirical research work done by Johns Hopkins University and the University of Ghana [2006].

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

How would effect of the misuse of ICTs be mitigated in Nigeria?

He responded by saying that internationalization of the mass media or liberalizing access of media products without due process of permission heighten the situation. He further, contends that the situation is worst still with the introduction of what he called 'GPRS'. ['Mobile modem'] made the situation physical and boundary uncontrollable. The youths can view or do what they intend to do without anybody able to monitor or control them.

Is there no way out?' he was asked

He contends that the ways out is blockage of certain sites in internet making it difficult for youths to trespass for accessed.

Integrating Faith and Learning should be introduced and implemented in Nigerian schools where moral principles would be inculcated in the minds of the young ones, that would enable them fitter out flood of information that are 'self-injurious' in nature.

Federal Government should legitimate certain information or materials from passing through the gate of the Service Providers. Parent should be involved in open discussion with their children by creating a time in counseling them on the adverse effects of some information or materials found in the internet. Youths should encourage to inculcate Africa or Nigeria cultures, norms,, values and beliefs by indoctrination by

their parents to support the old adage that said ; “Train a child the way he should go so when he grows up he will not deviate from it”

EMPIRICAL SECONDARY DATA

“Does Home internet use influence the academic performance of low-income children?”

Findings from the research indicated that 140 children aged 10-18 years old [83%] African American and [58%] male living in single parent households [75%] with less median income were followed for a two years to see whether home internet use would influence academic achievement. The study proved that those children who use the Internet more had higher standardized test scores in reading and higher grade point average [GPAs] compared to children who used the internet less.

Researchers from Johns Hopkins University and the University of Ghana looked at the benefits of youths using the Internet for health information in the developing world, where access to health information is scarce. The study surveyed 778, 15 to 18 year old living in Accra, Ghana, who were either in school or out of school on their Internet usage that have knowledge of health information.

Two thirds [66%] of the youth who were in school and around half [54%] of the youths who were out of school had gone online were surveyed. The authors found that regardless of these users' school status, gender, age or ethnicity, 53% went online for health information. The internet was even a relatively more important source for out of school than for in school youth. Youth claimed that the Internet provided interesting material that helped them solve problems or answer a question. The most common topics searched on the Internet by youths include sexually transmitted diseases, diet/nutrition and fitness [APA 2006].

Conclusion

For any nation to move forward with regard to national development, technology must form the bedrock of its academic pursuit on this era of globalization. Adequate exposure in ICT is needed in the 21st century in-order to achieve millennium development goals. Teachers should be placed on the fore-front in the plans and policies concerning ICTs acquisition. ICT has been noted to be a veritable tool for achieving quality education. Therefore a successful implementation of the ICT policy should be of utmost importance to government and the populace.

Porter [2005] opines that ICTs [globalization] is much like fire. Fire itself is neither good nor bad, when used properly, it can cook food, sterilize equipment etc but when used carelessly, fire can destroy lives, and properties etc. He further to say that it is our job to pick up ICTs or globalization, examine it from all sides, dissect it, figure out what makes it thick, and to nurture and promote the good parts and mitigate or slow down the bad parts, but not to see it as something to worship or demonize but as something to mold, shape and manage for the betterment of everyone.

Recommendations

- For effective adoption of ICTs in Nigeria educational institution, will requires collaboration among the stakeholders which will include the Federal government, ministries and government bodies responsible for infrastructure and ICT development.
- Federal government should acknowledge ICT as a path to ensure qualita-tive education, and be ready to provide financial support for procurement of various technologies, provision of supportive infrastructures, training and retraining of personnel and regular maintenance of infrastructures provided.
- Concrete effort should be made into addressing the electricity supply by the Federal government and or generating plants be provided for rural schools for grassroots mobilization on the said objective.
- Administrative staff in the schools should also be trained on use of ICTs to be able to maintain proper database management.

References

Anatsui, T.C. [2010], *ICTs 'Blessing' or 'Curse' in Developing Countries. Journal of Nigeria Association for Educational Media and Technology [NAEMT]PP 116-117*

Adeyanju, O.L [2010]: Infrastructure: Making ICT instruction real for Schools in Rural Communities. Book of Proceeding [NAEMT] PP 8-9

Baran S.J. [1999]: Introduction to mass communication, California: Media Literacy and Culture

Cassel, M. [2001]: Lessons from the History of Internet.” USA: The Internet Galaxy” Oxford University Press

Declaration of Persepolis September, 1975. The international symposium for literacy Held at Persepolis

Dominick, J.R. [2000]: the dynamics of mass communication media in the digital Age, New York: McGraw Hill companies, Inc, pages 350 -36

Denga, [1993] cited in www.sps.org/joutnsld/trlrsd/frm423391.pdf

Focus-Nigeria [2009]: “Nigerian Youth and ICT”, UK: in ‘The Internet Centre

George, D. E. [2004]: Impact of Youth’s Use of the Internet on the Public Library”, USA: School of Information at the State University of New York

Komolafe, C.O. [2009]: Strategies and Challenges of Information and Communication Technology [ICT] Infrastructure Development for University Education in Nigeria

Ololube, N. P. [200]: The Relationship between ICT Selection Processes, Administration and Planning and the Standard of Science Teacher Education in Nigeria. Asia-Pacific Forum on Science Learning and

Teaching. 8 [1]4

Ogunneye, [2007] Teacher, Teaching and Teaching Practice, Lagos: Tonyfred Publishers

Porter, K [2005]: “Globalization: Good or Bad? You’re Guide to Globalization” from the Website: www.globalworld.com

Sybil, [1989:2]: Subramanian, [2006] G Greenfield, and Yan, [2006] Cited in www.globalworld.com

Tejumaie, J.A. [1999] *Communication Theories*.www.wikipwsi.com

Zorkzopy, P. [1990]. Information Technology: An Introduction, London Pitman 17 [3], 14-211 www.apa.org/journals/releases/dev423391.pdf
webclepper.handsnet.org/mt./2006/04/internet_use_in.html, www.geonet/research/2005/castells-network-society www.osce.org/item/13570.html

Comparative Assessment of Health Status and Millennium Development Goals in Sub-Saharan Africa

By

ADESOYE, A. Bolaji (Ph.D)⁶

MAKU, Olukayode E.⁷

ATANDA, Akinwande A.⁸

Abstract

As we approach the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015, since the declaration of the pact in September 2000, frantic efforts have been made in developed and developing countries to enhance health status across the globe via adoption of regional and national specific health development programmes. Despite, all the instituted household and national specific health scheme programmes in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), there is still high persistent evidence of deteriorating health status as explored in this study. However, considering the high level of social, economic and political integration of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) countries in the globe and the three major millennium development goals focused on health, the study assess the progress of the Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) region in achieving the health related targets. Precisely, this is to ascertain and track the progress of the SSA region in reducing child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other deadly disease in comparison with other regions and countries through the use of detailed comparative descriptive and graphical analyses. The study found that Sub-Saharan Africa health status is relatively poor compared to other regions in the World. Proper policy outlook and strategies are proffered to assist the SSA region to achieve its health related millennium development goals targets and ensure sustainable human welfare.

Keywords: Sub-Saharan Africa, MDGs, Health Status, Mortality, HIV/AIDS, Maternal Health.

Introduction

Human welfare intrinsic value is to crucial development goal (Sen, 1999), health status as a main determinant of welfare is also central to a nation's ability to respond to the opportunities that development presents. In recognizing this fact, the United Nation in September 2000, at a summit, world leaders agreed to a set of time-bound and measurable goals and targets, known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), for combating poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation and discrimination against women. The MDGs consist of eight goals, eighteen targets and forty-eight indicators to measure progress and achieve specific targets by 2015. However, the MDGs comprise six main themes as essential for global development. These are: Poverty, Education, Gender Equality, Health, Environment and Global partnership constitute the central theme of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as depicted in figure 1.

⁶ [Department of Economics, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria], [boladesoye@yahoo.com]

⁷ [Department of Economics, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria], [kaymarks73@yahoo.co.uk]

⁸ [Strategic R&D Unit, Datatric Research Consulting, Nigeria], [datatricng@gmail.com]

Better health is central to the achievement of all the MDGs. However, this assessment paper is based on a descriptive analysis of available data for MDG health related indicators (Table 1) of greatest relevance to health status from globally recognized authoritative sources in designated lead international agencies. The achievement of the MDGs is critical in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) region considering the region slow economic growth with relative abundant natural resources which is largely underdeveloped and utilized. The Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) region comprises 46 countries; 10 in Central Africa, 11 in Eastern Africa, 10 in Southern Africa and 15 in Western Africa (see Appendix I).

As the target date of 2015 set by the United Nations Millennium Declaration for meeting all the MDGs approaches, it is an appropriate time to assess the extent to which the quantitative benchmarks for health have been or are likely to be achieved in the Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) region relative to other regions in the world like East Asia and Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, European Union region, Latin America and Caribbean, United Nation least developed countries, and Middle East and North America. Specifically, the next three sections of this paper covers the comparative assessment of each of the three MDGs and their targets that are most directly related to health: to reduce child mortality by two-thirds (MDG 4); to reduce maternal deaths by three-quarters and achieve universal access to reproductive health (MDG 5); and to halt and reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS, achieve universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS by 2015, and halt and reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases, such as tuberculosis (MDG 6). While, the last section of this paper concludes and proffer policy recommendations of achieving the health related MDGs in SSA region by 2015.

Figure 1: MDGs Central Theme

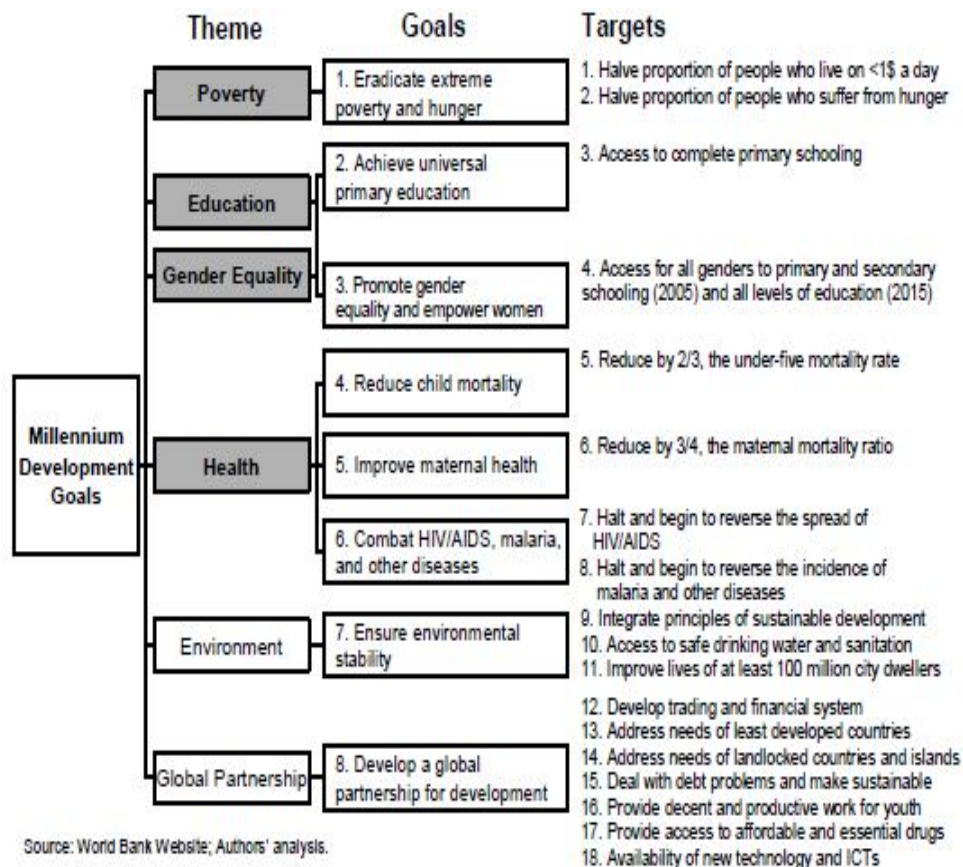


Table 1: Millennium Development Health Goals , target and indicators for the monitoring of progress

Goal 4: Reduce child mortality		
Target 5:	Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate.	13. Under-five mortality rate. 14. Infant mortality rate. 15. Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles.
Goal 5: Improve maternal health		
Target 6:	Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio.	16. Maternal mortality ratio. 17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel.
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases		
Target 7:	Halt by 2015 the spread of HIV/AIDS and have begun to reverse it.	18. HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15–24 years. 19. Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate. 19A. Condom use at last high-risk sex. 19B. Percentage of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS. 19C. Contraceptive prevalence rate. 20. Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10–14years.
Target 8:	Halt by 2015 the incidence of malaria and other major diseases and have begun to reverse them.	21. Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria. 22. Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures. 23. Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis. 24. Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under DOTS.

Source: Extracted from the Appendix 1

MDG 4: Child Mortality in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)

Goal 4: Reduce child mortality

Target 4: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate

MDG 4 comprises one target and three indicators, with Indicators 4.1 and 4.2 addressing reductions in under-five and infant mortality rates, respectively. Indicator 4.3 focuses on immunization against measles, which provides a measure of the coverage of immunization services in the country.

Child mortality rate

Child mortality rate is often conceptualized as the number of deaths of children less than 5 years old per 1000 live births. It is distinct from infant mortality which is the number of deaths of children less than 1 year old per 1000 live births.

During ancient times and the Middle Ages, the child mortality rate was about 200 deaths per 1,000 live births and the under-5 mortality rate was about 300 deaths per 1,000 live births. About 10 million children

die every year (WHO, 2009), very often from preventable causes. Estimates vary depending on the age limit definition of still being a child. Child mortality in this article (at present) refers to under-5 mortality, which is the death of infants and children under the age of five. In 2008, 8.8 million children under five died, down from 9.2 million in 2007, and 12.7 million in 1990. About half of child deaths occur in Africa. Approximately 60 countries make up 94% of under five child deaths (UNICEF, 2008).

According to an estimate by UNICEF (2008), one million child deaths could be prevented annually at a cost of US \$1 billion per year (an average of US \$1000 for each child). Reduction of child mortality is the fourth of the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals. UNICEF (2008) also posited that most child deaths (and 70% in developing countries) result from one the following five causes or a combination thereof:

- acute respiratory infections;
- diarrhea
- measles
- malaria
- malnutrition

Also, UNICEF (2008) established that two-thirds of deaths are preventable. Malnutrition and the lack of safe water and sanitation contribute to half of all these children's deaths. In 2007, the world average child mortality rate was 68 (6.8%). In 2006, the average in developing countries inclusive of Sub-Saharan Africa countries was 79 (down from 103 in 1990), whereas the average in industrialized countries was 6 (down from 10 in 1990). One in six children in Sub-Saharan Africa die before their fifth birthday. The biggest improvement between 1990 and 2008 was in Latin America and the Caribbean, which cut their child mortality rates by 50%. The world's child mortality rate has dropped by over 60% since 1960. However, this indicated that the region has the highest incidence of under five child mortality rate relative to other regions.

In 2008, there were 37 countries in which at least 10% of children under five died, down from 41 in 2006. All were in Sub-Saharan Africa, except for Afghanistan. Seven of the 37 had higher rates of child mortality than in 1990. The highest 20 based on UNICEF (2008) estimates were:

Top 20 Countries with High Child Mortality Rate (*In deaths per thousand*)

- | |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Sierra Leone - 2622. Afghanistan - 2573. Chad - 2094. Equatorial Guinea - 2065. Guinea-Bissau - 1986. Mali - 1967. Burkina Faso - 1918. Nigeria - 1899. Rwanda - 18110. Burundi - 18011. Niger - 17612. Central African Republic - 172 |
|--|

13. Zambia - 170
14. Mozambique - 168
15. Democratic Republic of the Congo - 161
16. Angola - 158
17. Guinea - 150
18. Cameroon - 148
19. Somalia - 142
20. Liberia - 133

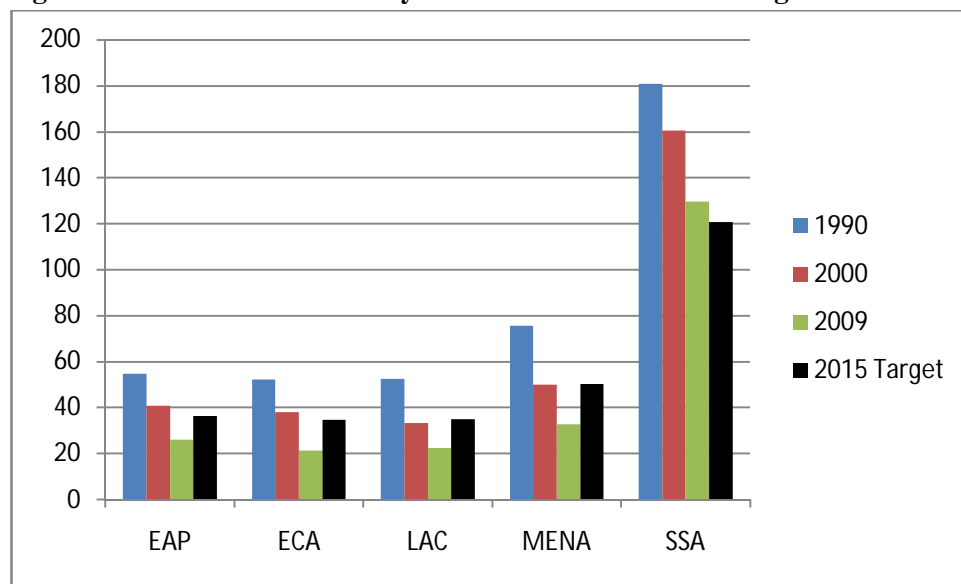
Source: UNICEF Report, 2008

Table 2: Child Mortality in SSA Relative to Other Regions

Region	1990	1995	2000	2005	2009	2015 Target
East Asia & Pacific (EAP)	54.7	50.3	41.0	31.7	26.1	36.5
Europe & Central Asia (ECA)	52.4	48.0	38.0	27.6	21.4	34.9
European Union (EU)	11.9	9.1	7.1	5.9	4.9	7.9
Latin America & Caribbean (LAC)	52.5	43.0	33.5	26.8	22.5	35.0
Least developed countries: UN classification	178.5	164.8	147.0	132.2	121.4	119.0
Middle East & North Africa (MENA)	75.6	62.2	50.2	39.4	32.8	50.4
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	180.9	175.2	160.4	143.0	129.6	120.6

Source: World Bank Development Indicators, April 2010

Figure 2: Plot of Child Mortality in SSA Relative to Other Regions



The table 2 and figure 2 revealed the performance of SSA region in the effort in reducing under age five child mortality rates by 2015 relative to other significant regions in the world. The plot indicated that despite the SSA performance between 1990 and 2009 in achieving the target, its level of child mortality is extremely high compared to other regions in 1990 when the MDG4 was declared, 2000 that marks 10 years after the establishment of the goal and 6 years to the target deadline. This implies that the SSA still needs to gear more efforts towards reducing child mortality rate in the region.

Infant mortality rate

Infant mortality is defined as the number of infant deaths (one year of age or younger) per 1000 live births. The most common cause worldwide has traditionally been due to dehydration from diarrhea. However, the spreading information about Oral Rehydration Solution (a mixture of salts, sugar, and water) to mothers around the world has decreased the rate of children dying from dehydration. Currently the most common cause is pneumonia. Other causes of infant mortality include malnutrition, malaria, congenital malformation, infection and SIDS (Wikipedia, 2011).

Infant mortality rate (IMR) indicates the number of deaths of babies under one year of age per 1,000 live births. So, the rate in a given region is the total number of newborns dying under one year of age divided by the total number of live births during the year, then all multiplied by 1,000. The infant mortality rate is also called the infant death rate (per 1,000 live births).

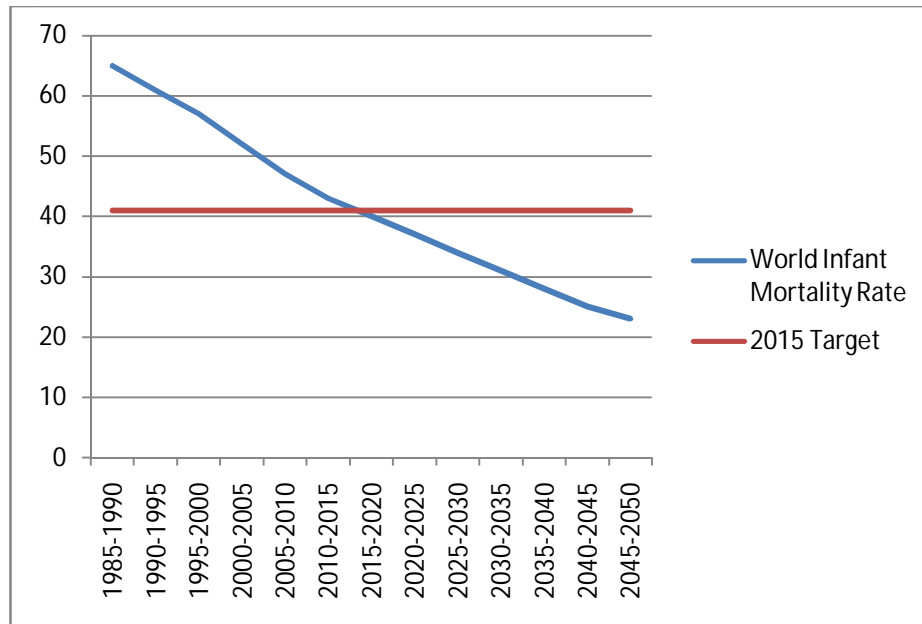
From the United Nation database (2008) on infant mortality rate, the world historical and predicted infant mortality rate between 1985 and 2050 are presented in table 3 and figure 3.

Table 3: World Historical and Predicted Infant Mortality Rate (1985-2050)

Year	World Infant Mortality Rate	2015 Target
1985-1990	65	41
1990-1995	61	41
1995-2000	57	41
2000-2005	52	41
2005-2010	47	41
2010-2015	43	41
2015-2020	40	41
2020-2025	37	41
2025-2030	34	41
2030-2035	31	41
2035-2040	28	41
2040-2045	25	41
2045-2050	23	41

Source: United Nation Report, 2008

Figure 3: Plot of World Historical and Predicted Infant Mortality Rate



From the table 3 and figure 3, it is evident that infant mortality rate decline steadily world over and expected to decrease further. Although, relative to the target the world performance did not match the expected outcome both the estimated in 2005 - 2010 and forecasted in 2010 - 2015. This implies that there is still tendency that the world will not meet up with the target of reducing infant mortality rate to 41 per 1,000 live birth.

However, the position of SSA among other regions in the world is unknown due to pursuit of reliable data.

MDG 5: Maternal Mortality in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)

Goal 5: Improve maternal health

Target 5: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio.

MDG 5 comprises one target and two indicators, with Indicators 4.1 and 4.2 addressing reductions in maternal mortality ratio and increased the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel, respectively.

Maternal death, or maternal mortality, also "obstetrical death" is the death of a woman during or shortly after a pregnancy. In 2000, the United Nations estimated global maternal mortality at 529,000, of which less than 1% occurred in the developed world. However, most of these deaths have been medically preventable for decades. Such treatments have been known to the people since the 1950s. According to the World Health Organization (2009), a maternal death is defined as the death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and site of the pregnancy, from any cause related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management but not from accidental or incidental causes. Generally there is a distinction between a **direct maternal death** that is the result of a complication of the pregnancy, delivery, or their management, and an **indirect maternal death** that is a pregnancy-related death in a patient with a preexisting or newly developed health problem.

Other fatalities during but unrelated to a pregnancy are termed *accidental, incidental*, or **non-obstetrical** maternal deaths.

The major causes of maternal death are bacterial infection, variants of gestational hypertension including pre-eclampsia and HELLP syndrome, obstetrical hemorrhage, ectopic pregnancy, puerperal sepsis (childbed fever), amniotic fluid embolism, uterine rupture and complications of unsafe or unsanitary abortions. Lesser known causes of maternal death include renal failure, cardiac failure, and hyperemesis gravidarum. As stated by the 2005 World Health Organization report "Make Every Mother and Child Count" they are: severe bleeding/hemorrhage (25%), infections (13%), unsafe abortions (13%), eclampsia (12%), obstructed labour (8%), other direct causes (8%), and indirect causes (20%). Indirect causes such as malaria, anaemia, HIV/AIDS and cardiovascular disease, complicate pregnancy or are aggravated by it.

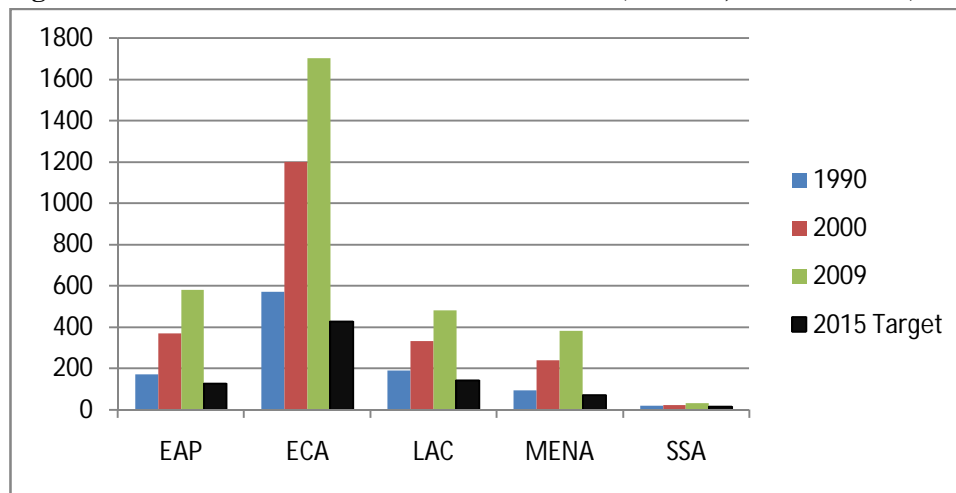
Maternal Mortality Ratio is the ratio of the number of maternal deaths per 100,000 live births. The MMR is used as a measure of the quality of a health care system. The performance of SSA in reducing maternal mortality rate is comparatively assessed in terms of life time risk of maternal death and maternal mortality rate as presented in table 4, 5, and 6 as follows:

Table 4: Lifetime risk of maternal death (1 in 100,000 live births)

Region	1990	1995	2000	2005	2009	2015 Target
East Asia & Pacific (EAP)	170	260	370	500	580	128
Europe & Central Asia (ECA)	570	840	1200	1600	1700	428
European Union (EU)	2800	5000	6500	7900	7800	2100
Latin America & Caribbean (LAC)	190	250	330	430	480	143
Least developed countries: UN classification	19	22	26	32	37	14
Middle East & North Africa (MENA)	93	150	240	330	380	70
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	18	20	23	27	31	14

Source: World Bank Development Indicators, April 2010

Figure 4: Plot of Lifetime risk of maternal death (1 in 100,000 live births)



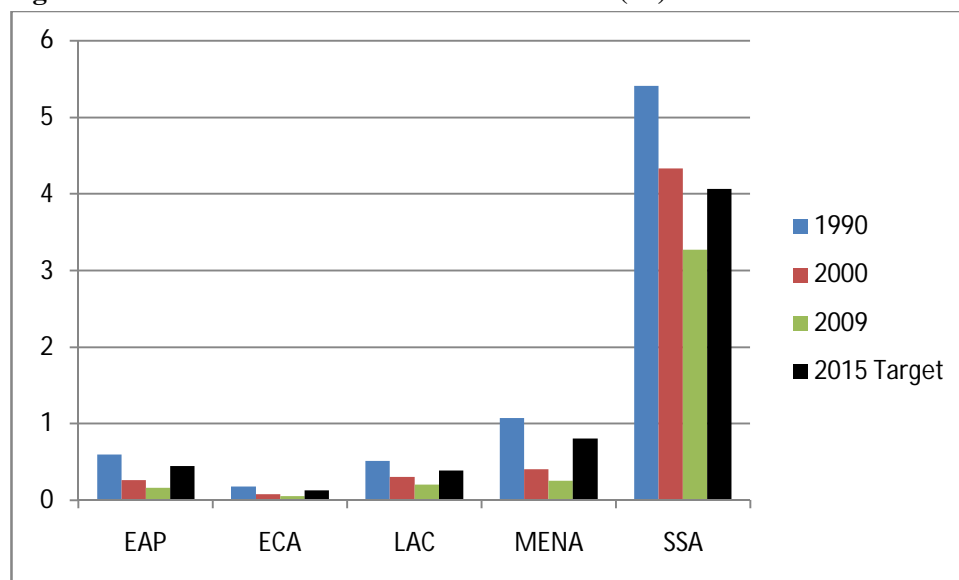
The life time risk of maternal death rate is the probability that a 15-year-old female will die eventually from a maternal cause assuming that current levels of fertility and mortality (including maternal mortality) do not change in the future, taking into account competing causes of death. The relative performance of SSA relative to other regions is presented in table 5 and figure 5. The table 5 revealed that SSA had the largest maternal death rate in 1990 and 2000 relative to other countries but the target was achieved in 2009 like other regions.

Table 5: Lifetime risk of maternal death (%)

Region	1990	1995	2000	2005	2009	2015 Target
East Asia & Pacific (EAP)	0.60	0.39	0.27	0.20	0.17	0.45
Europe & Central Asia (ECA)	0.18	0.12	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.13
European Union (EU)	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.03
Latin America & Caribbean (LAC)	0.52	0.40	0.31	0.23	0.21	0.39
Least developed countries: UN classification	5.26	4.58	3.82	3.08	2.67	3.95
Middle East & North Africa (MENA)	1.08	0.65	0.41	0.30	0.26	0.81
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	5.41	4.95	4.33	3.69	3.27	4.06

Source: World Bank Development Indicators, April 2010

Figure 5: Plot of Lifetime risk of maternal death (%)



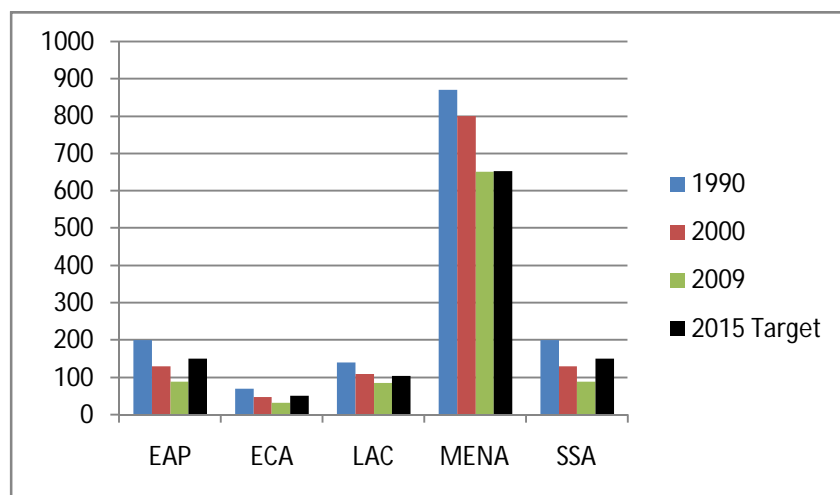
Also, the maternal mortality ratio is presented in table 6 and figure 6. The rate is the number of women who die during pregnancy and childbirth, per 100,000 live births. The data are estimated with a regression model using information on fertility, birth attendants, and HIV prevalence. Based on the modelled mortality ration presented in table 6 and figure 6, it is evident that SSA achieved considerable target 150 per 100,000 live births in 2000 and 2009 taking the third position among other regional peers.

Table 6: Maternal mortality ratio (modeled estimate, per 100,000 live births)

Region	1990	1995	2000	2005	2009	2015 Target
East Asia & Pacific (EAP)	200	160	130	100	88.7	150
Europe & Central Asia (ECA)	69.5	60.1	47.7	35.6	32	52.1
European Union (EU)	21.5	13.1	10.5	8.6	8.5	16.1
Latin America & Caribbean (LAC)	140	130	110	90.7	85.5	105
Least developed countries: UN classification	210	160	120	98.2	87.5	157.5
Middle East & North Africa (MENA)	870	850	800	710	650	652.5
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	200	160	130	100	88.7	150

Source: World Bank Development Indicators, April 2010

Figure 6: Plot of Maternal mortality ratio (modeled estimate, per 100,000 live births)



MDG 5: HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases in SSS

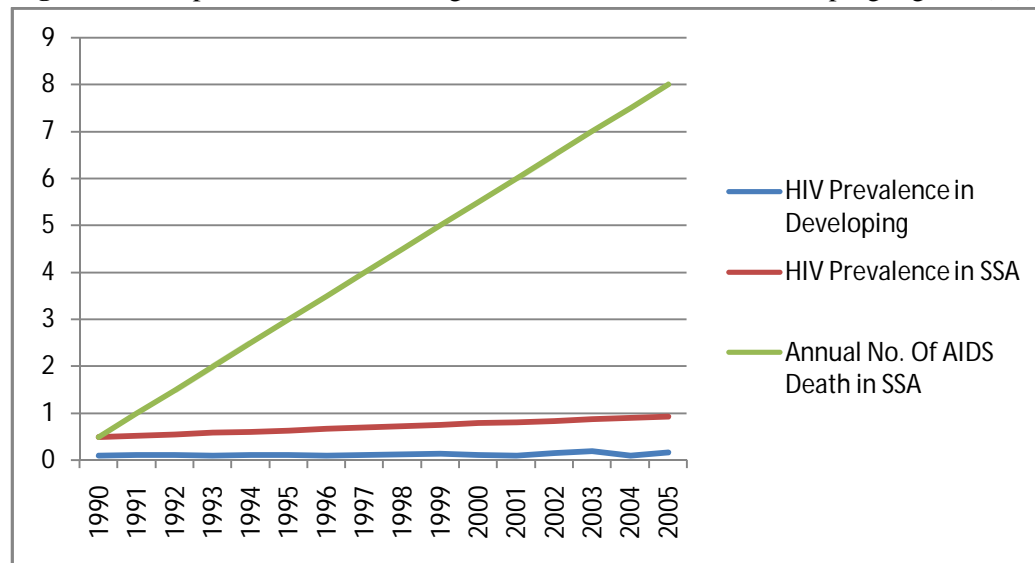
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases

Target 6: Halt by 2015 the spread of HIV/AIDS and have begun to reverse it.

MDG 6 comprises one target and three indicators, with Indicators 6.1, 6.2a, 6.2b, 6.2c and 6.3 addressing HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15–24 years; Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate; Condom use at last high-risk sex; Percentage of population aged 15–24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS; Contraceptive prevalence rate; Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10–14 years.

The target of this goal is to halt by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS. The HIV prevalence in adults aged 15–49 in SSA and all developing regions (%) and number of AIDSS death in SSA (millions) between 1990 and 2005 is shown in figure 7.

Figure 7: HIV prevalence in adults aged 15–49 in SSA and all developing regions (%)



The HIV epidemic remains centered in SSA. With just over 10% of the world's population, the region is home to 64 percent of HIV – positive people and 90% of children (under 15) living with the virus. Twelve million SSA children are orphans. Around 59 percent of HIV-positive adults in SSA—a total of 13.2 million people—are women. Rates of new HIV infection in the region peaked in the last 1990s and prevalence rate in Kenya, Zimbabwe and in urban centres of Burkina Faso show recent declines. HIV prevalence among people aged 15 to 49 in SSA appears to be levelling off, though at extremely high level.

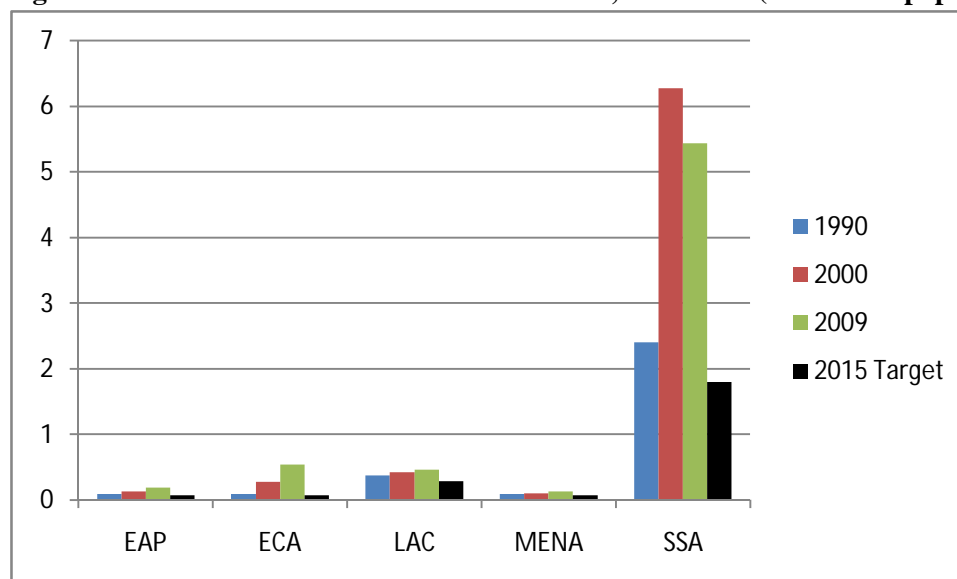
Comparatively, the prevalence of HIV of the population ages 15-49 in SSA relative to other regions is presented in table 7 and figure 8. The rate is the percentage of people who are infected with HIV, i.e. youth rates as a percentage of the relevant age group. The descriptive analysis revealed that SSA had the highest prevalence rate of HIV/AIDs compared to other regions.

Table 7: Prevalence of HIV, total (% of population ages 15-49)

Region	1990	1995	2000	2005	2009	2015 Target
East Asia & Pacific (EAP)	0.10	0.12	0.14	0.17	0.19	0.08
Europe & Central Asia (ECA)	0.10	0.13	0.28	0.52	0.55	0.08
European Union (EU)	0.17	0.19	0.19	0.22	0.23	0.13
Latin America & Caribbean (LAC)	0.38	0.41	0.43	0.45	0.47	0.29
Least developed countries: UN classification	1.56	2.34	2.44	2.30	2.25	1.17
Middle East & North Africa (MENA)	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.14	0.14	0.08
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	2.40	5.26	6.27	5.81	5.43	1.80

Source: World Bank Development Indicators, April 2010

Figure 8: Plot of Prevalence of HIV, total (% of population ages 15-49)



Also, the plot of the prevalence rate indicated that SSA is far much away from the target that is to be achieved come 2015.

Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

The entire descriptive analysis indicated that Sub-Saharan Africa health status is relatively poor compared to other regions like East Asia and Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, European Union region, Latin America and Caribbean, United Nation least developed countries, and Middle East and North America. This has serious implications on her human capital development and productivity. Specifically, the possibility of achieving the desired sustainable growth of the region and maintained a global competitive hedge in the world is daunting with the deteriorating health status evidenced in SSA relative to other regions.

However, considering the critical need for SSA to achieve the MDGs in order to overcome its structural impediments and to prime the SSA economies for growth, this paper proffers that there is need for all SSA countries to employ strategic plans and frantic efforts in closely monitoring its health indicators and investment in a region characterized by high level of corruption rate.

Also, in order to achieve sustainable growth via health, SSA countries have to undergo a period of structural change promoted by a demographic transition and supported by policies to enhance health investment level, sensitization, promote sustainable environment to combat deadly related diseases.

References

Sen, A. (1999). *Development as Freedom*. Human Development Report. New York

UNICEF (2008): [UNICEF press release Sept. 12, 2008](http://www.unicef.org/media/media_45607.html) Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/media/media_45607.html

UNICEF (2008): [UNICEF press release Sept. 12, 2008](http://www.unicef.org/media/media_45607.html) Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/media/media_45607.html

United Nation (2008): Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births). Retrieved from <http://data.un.org/Data.aspx?d=PopDiv&f=variableID%3A77>

WHO (2009): World Health Organization. What are the key health dangers for children? Available at: <http://www.who.int/features/qa/13/en/index.html>

Wikipedia (2010): World Concept Directory. <http://en.wikipedia.org/>

World Bank (2010): World Development Indicators. CD-ROM, April 2010.

World Bank (2002). *Education and HIV/AIDS: A Window of Hope*.

Washington DC: the World Bank.

World Health Directory (2010): Mortality Rate. http://en.wikipedia.org/World_Health_Directory.htm

APPENDIX I

LIST OF SUB-SHARAN AFRICA COUNTRIES

CENTRAL AFRICA (10)	EASTERN AFRICA (11)
Burundi	Comoros
Cameroon	Djibouti
Central African Republic	Eritrea
Chad	Ethiopia
Congo	Kenya
Congo, Democratic Republic	Madagascar
Equatorial Guinea	Mauritius
Gabon	Seychelles
Rwanda	Somalia
Sao Tome and Principe	Tanzania
	Uganda

SOUTHERN AFRICA (10)	WESTERN AFRICA (15)
Angola	Benin
Botswana	Burkina Faso
Lesotho	Cape Verde
Malawi	Cote D'Ivoire
Mozambique	Gambia
Namibia	Ghana
South Africa	Guinea
Swaziland	Guinea-Bissau
Zambia	Liberia
Zimbabwe	Mali
	Niger
	Nigeria
	Senegal
	Sierra Leone
	Togo

Source: African Development Bank Report, 2011.

APPENDIX II

Millennium Development Goals, target and indicators for the monitoring of progress

Goals and Targets	Indicators for Monitoring Progress
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	
Target 1: Halve, between 1990	1. Proportion of population below \$1 (PPP) per day.

	and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar day.	2. Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty]. 3. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption..
Target 2:	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.	4. Prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age. 5. Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption.
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education		
Target 3:	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.	6. Net enrolment ratio in primary education. 7. Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5. 8. Literacy rate of 15–24 year-olds.
Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women		
Target 4:	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015.	9. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education. 10. Ratio of literate women to men, 15–24 years old. 11. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. 12. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament.
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality		
Target 5:	Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, then under-five mortality rate.	13. Under-five mortality rate. 14. Infant mortality rate. 15. Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles.
Goal 5: Improve maternal health		
Target 6:	Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio.	16. Maternal mortality ratio. 17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel.
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases		
Target 7:	Halt by 2015 the spread of HIV/AIDS and have begun to reverse it.	18. HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15–24 years. 19. Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate. 19A. Condom use at last high-risk sex. 19B. Percentage of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS. 19C. Contraceptive prevalence rate. 20. Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school

		attendance of non-orphans aged 10–14years.
Target 8:	Halt by 2015 the incidence of malaria and other major diseases and have begun to reverse them.	21. Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria. 22. Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures. 23. Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis. 24. Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under DOTS.
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability		
Target 9:	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources.	25. Proportion of land area covered by forest. 26. Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area. 27. Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per \$1 GDP (PPP). 28. Carbon dioxide emissions per capita and consumption of ozone-depleting CFCs (ODP tons). 29. Proportion of population using solid fuels.
Target 10:	Halve by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.	30. Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural. 31. Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural.
Target 11:	Achieve by 2020 a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.	32. Proportion of households with access to secure tenure.
Goal 3: Develop a global partnership for development		
Target 12:	Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, nondiscriminatory trading and financial system. This includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction, nationally and internationally.	<i>Official development assistance</i> 33. Net ODA, total and to the LDCs, as a percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income. 34. Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation).

Target 13:	Address the special needs of the least developed countries. This includes: tariff- and quota-free access for LDCs' exports; enhanced program of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction	35. Proportion of bilateral ODA of OECD/DAC donors that is untied. 36. ODA received in landlocked countries as a proportion of their gross national incomes. 37. ODA received in small island developing States as proportion of their gross national incomes.
Target 14:	Address the special needs of landlocked countries and small island developing States.	<i>Market access</i> 38. Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and from the LDCs, admitted free of duty.
Target 15:	Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term.	39. Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries. 40. Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as a percentage of their gross domestic product. 41. Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity. <i>Debt sustainability</i> 42. Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative). 43. Debt relief committed under HIPC Initiative. 44. Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services.
Target 16:	In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth.	45. Unemployment rate of young people aged 15-24 years, each sex and total.
Target 17:	In cooperation with pharmaceutical	46. Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis.

companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries.

Target 18:	In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications.	47. Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population. 48A. Personal computers in use per 100 population. 48B. Internet users per 100 population.
-------------------	---	---

Source: UN (2003) "Millennium Development Goals".

<http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mi/pdf/mdglist.pdf>.

Note: Goals, targets and indicators effective 8 September 2003.

Re-Inforcement of the Regime of Human Rights Law as Channels for Achieving Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

By

Eteete M. ADAM

(B.L, LLB, LLM, MIRSS)

Lecturer, Department of International Law & Diplomacy, Faculty of Law and Security Studies, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State.

Abstract

The concept of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is fast assuming the status of a hackneyed refrain. There are hardly meetings or conferences of World leaders, whether at the domestic or international levels without mention or recourse being made to the 2015 dateline for the attainment of MDGs. This paper undertakes a cursory analysis of the elementary concept of “Development” and particularly, situates it within the confines of the MDGs. It goes further not only to appraise the rudiment of MDGs but particularly, attempts a mid-term assessment of the impact and possibilities of realization of this developmental benchmark set for nation States of the world by the international community. Questions like how realizable has it been? How near are the countries, especially nations of the West African sub-region to the attainment of MDGs before 2015? The paper also juxtaposes MDGs with Human Right Law and takes the position that both are two parallel water bodies flowing through separate channels but ultimately emptying into the same ocean. It is the thrust of this paper that a clear understanding of the legal foundations of human rights, whether at the national or international levels, can effectively advance the attainment of MDGs to a large extent by the deadline of 2015 and beyond. A comparative analysis of the practice of human rights law in some developed nations in contra-distinction with some developing nations of the West African sub-region is undertaken to show the areas of congruence between the concepts of MDGs and Human Rights and concludes that both are essentially poised to attain improved developmental conditions in the standards of human existence in the world. The paper clearly concludes that if the ideals of Human Rights Law are vigorously implemented, it would assuredly advance the attainment of MDGs.

Introduction

Development as a concept is a wide embracing idea. It is multifaceted as it involves development of a group, society or community. At this level, it represents the sum total of development, advancement, increase, success, change, relative to a given society or community. There is also development at the personal or individual level. At this level, it is more of an increased acquisition of skills or capacity building, creativity, discipline and a higher level of accomplishment in the physical, intellectual and material well being of an individual.

The term, “to develop” has been defined by *The New Webster’s Dictionary of English Language* as ‘to cause to grow or expand, to elaborate on,... to begin to have, to realize that that was a potential, to expand by putting money into, to expand to completion, to evolve to cause to come into being.’ Development, in general terms, is so wide that it covers the physical well-being of man, the social, emotional, spiritual,

intellectual, moral and material advancement of man or his society. Some of these faucets of development may be difficult to analyze as they constitute subjective relatives. For instance, it is difficult to analyze the moral or spiritual developments of man as such are directly appropriated to the particular social, cultural class and class normative values. What may be considered as good development indices in one community or social class may be completely objectionable to another community or members of another social strata. One unique thing about development is that of all the gregarious classes of life, only the human society has developed itself beyond its original natural environment. For example, from the days of hunting and farming, man has developed his society by reliance on tools and machinery that have advanced man from subsistence levels to the jet age where man has taken control of his environment.

In spite of the advancement of man in the areas of technology and advancement in Internet Technology, man has been grappling with underdevelopment in many respects and sadly, in many parts of the global community. Part of the crises of the international community is that there are pockets of advancement in few areas of the globe. In other areas, one finds high levels of underdevelopment, abject poverty and malnutrition. These imbalances and social inequity and developmental disequilibrium have led to major concerns for the international community. It appears to be the consensus of scholars that the upsurge of international crimes like terrorism is closely linked to the various festering centres of social and economic injustices. The fad of segmenting the world between the developed, the developing and the underdeveloped is as a result of this imbalance in personal as well as group or community development. It is as an attempt to address this imbalance that the United Nations adopted the Millennium Development Goals as developmental benchmarks for nation states.

The Concept of MDGs

The evolution of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the world community could not have been more auspicious, as it has created the much needed renewal of thrust and initiative in tackling these developmental anomalies. The target date for the realization of the goals of MDGs of 2015 represents a bold effort to mobilize the government of nation States to work towards achieving all round development for all. To this end, many nations of the world have presented a number of major shifts in their economic and developmental policies that have clearly put some of their economies on the path of development. Far from development that was centered on the global North, there have been remarkable examples illustrating once again that the debate on change and sustainable development must go beyond the North to the rest of the globe. It is therefore the thrust of this work to particularly analyze the ideals of MDGs with a view to asking questions like, are MDGs achievable? How far has it gone in achieving its goals and how far still remains to reach the goals of MDGs by the date, 2015? This work also seeks to explore the concept of Human Rights Law and examine how the regime of human rights practice may effectively advance the attainment of MDGs at the national level and internationally.

The evolution of MDGs targeted a period of about 15 years from the year 2000, instructively the beginning of another Millennium to the year 2015 as minimal benchmarks for all round development, especially in developing underdeveloped nations of the world. It is a direct admission that the preceding Millennium, in spite of the claims to advancement to human development, has left a lot of room for complaints. Therefore, the new Millennium with developmental target is a commendable gesture from the world community. Now, more than two thirds of the way to the target date for all round development for all, the question is how much grounds have been covered by the government of the world States? What

are the additional channels that can reinforce the attainment of the set goals by the year 2015? On the whole, the framework for development has proved to be quite useful for global development. According to Steiner (2010):

Over all, the MDGs have proved to be a very useful framework within which to focus both national action and international cooperation. Those who argue that “well, maybe we will not reach all the target and therefore the MDGs did not offer any added value” are wrong. Sometimes, if you set yourselves a target of running one thousand kilometer, and you only reach 900 kilometers, it means that you have actually managed to run 90% of the distance. In many ways, the recent MDGs review in New York and these ten years into the MDGs assessment have shown an uneven but nevertheless, in principle, a positive movement as regards virtually all of the indicators and targets. But it is uneven in terms of individual countries and of the different targets or goals. As far as MDG 7 is concern, which deals with environmental sustainability in the broader sense, you remember that there is a sanitation – and water supply related target, where we clearly have made some significant progress even though there is some way to go.

The generalities of the MDGs target include food security and the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger. It also sets target for the provision of education for all by the year 2015. This is inclusive of eradication of illiteracy by the target date. Another is the target on adequate provision of health care facilities and services. This is quite instructive as currently, most part of the population in underdeveloped nations is exposed to little or nothing in terms of health care services. One other area that MDGs have set target for attainment is gender balance and equality. The fight against corruption in the public and private domains of the economy has also attracted the attention of the conveners of the MDGs' Conferences. The provision of adequate shelter is also expected to improve and be available for all within the 15 year period.

In a nutshell, the attempt has been made to advance the frontiers of socio-economic development. The ultimate goal is the improvement and advancement in the quality of human existence. In this respect, there are several channels that can be explored that can aid the easy realization of these MDGs. In this light, this paper examines the domain of Human Rights Law with a view to relying on its ideals as reinforcements of the ideals of MDGs.

The concept of human rights law

The concept of Human Rights Law is unique in a lot of ways, as it bestraddle the provinces of both national law as well as enjoying international jurisdiction. This uniqueness in a way, explains the reason for a study of human rights law. To have a clear understanding of the subject matter, it is necessary to explain Human Rights Law itself.

Human rights law is that special arm of law which regulates fundamental issues of rights, freedoms and privileges attached to man by the sheer fact of his humanity. That is to say, the idea of human rights is rights that are not created by the States, nor agencies of the government. These are rights which by the nature of man are rights that man is entitled to, which admit of no derogation. To understand the idea of these rights is the classical example of right to life. Every man that is born is entitled to live. To this end, no person, community, government, State or organization can take away these rights to life. It is a right enjoyed qua man's nature as human being. It is not a right acquired by use of money, status or intellect; it is in fact given to man by nature that is by God the creator of man. It is for reason that this paper is

unapologetically opposed to capital punishment. There are several other rights that are described as human rights. The existence of these rights are only acknowledged and sometimes guaranteed by the governments of nation States. They are not rights created by those governments or their agencies. For instance, the 1999 Nigerian Constitution makes detailed provisions for fundamental human rights in the following Sections:

Sec. 33 – talks about right to life

Sec. 34 – rights to dignity of the human person

Sec. 35 – rights to personal liberty

Sec. 36 – rights to fair hearing

Sec. 37 – rights to private and family life

Sec. 38 – rights to freedom of thought, conscience and religion

Sec. 39 – rights to freedom of expression and the press

Sec. 40 – rights to peaceful assembly and association

Sec. 41 – rights to freedom of movement

Sec. 42 – rights to freedom from discrimination

Sec. 43 – rights to acquire and own immovable property anywhere in Nigeria.

The above rights are only examples but not exhaustive of human rights. The role some nation States play is to guarantee and not to create them because they already exist by the nature of man. The government only guarantees and enforces the observation of these human rights. In many jurisdictions of the world, human rights are ‘non-derogable’. That is to say the governments in the statutory instruments have enacted changes that have lifted them to the level of *jus cogens* – international obligations that cannot be violated. For instance, Section 45 of the Constitution of Nigeria places serious restrictions on the violations of these human rights and particularly guarantees non-derogation from them, except in the higher interest of the society itself. Section 45 (1) provides a few exceptions to these rules of non-derogation as follows:

Nothing in Sections 37, 38, 39, 40, and 41 of this Constitution shall invalidate any law that is reasonably justifiable in a democratic society.

- a. In the interest of defence, public safety, public order, public morality or public health.
- b. For the purpose of protecting the rights and freedom of other persons.

In other words, in spite of the rule of non-derogation that the constitution appears to guarantee, there are no rights that are actually absolute as the few mentioned exceptions will allow some limited department from the sanctity of human rights law. The fundamental nature of human rights law is so significant and of external nature that even God the Creator of humanity complied and still complies with the ides of human rights. A classical illustration of this is evident in the story of Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden. In the book of Genesis 3, God the all-knowing Creator of man knew that Adam had eaten of the forbidden fruit and had therefore breached the laws God gave to him concerning the tree of good and evil, yet the Creator acknowledged man’s unachievable rights to fair hearing as found in Section 36 of the Nigeria Constitution earlier stated. God had to come down before passing judgment on Adam and before sentencing him and his wife, Eve to banishment from the Garden of Eden to the external struggle and pains that exercise the brutish nature of man’s present existence. God asked Adam if he has eaten of the tree that He asked him not to eat.

The above situation illustrates the fact that these human rights were not created by the nation States, rather they represent inviolable, irreducible and 'non-derogatable' rights scammed on man at birth. In this light, human rights appear to have evolved from natural rights which itself is foundation in the ecclesiastical canon. For example, Exodus 20 verse 13 provides 'thou shall not kill', these human rights appear not to have admitted of any exception.

Historical background

For several years through the medieval period when there were upheavals against absolutism and authoritarianism of the monarchy, one factor was significant. It was the struggle of the people of those nations like France, England, Germany, Belgium against the absolutism by absolute powerful and absolute power wielding and monarchs from the incendiary writings of Voltaire, Napoleon Bonaparte, Rousseau and later, John Locke. This was a gradual movement away from monarchical impunity and the gross violations of human rights and other lesser rights of the proletariats.

However, there was an accelerated accentuation of acknowledgement and respect of human rights from transcendental revolution of America of 1776 – where though the struggle of the oppressed people of England under the yoke of heavy taxation of royalty- the Tudors, there was a movement to America driven by the desire to establish freedom where human rights will enjoy centrality of place in the process of the struggle for human rights which centered around political and civil rights, it paved the way for the snow balling of the first generation of rights beyond the American republican practice. For instance, rejection of monarchy in France and that rejection of the reign of Louis and his inflammatory Mary Antoinette significantly advanced the frontiers of the development of human rights and sounded the death kernel (knell) of absolutism and abuse of human rights. The Russian revolution of 1917 was a later day acknowledgement of the necessity of the departure from the antiquated ex-long practice of known recognition of human rights. This development sign posted the evolution of what is today recognized as the minimal prescription to or legal benchmark ascribed to any persons in civilized societies by their status as humans.

These developments crystallized to the enactment by the UN nations in 1948 of the universal developments therefore laid the foundation for the universality of these rights as these are necessary prescriptions for the assurance of peace and harmony in any given society.

International Nature of Human Rights Law

The domain of human rights is not limited to domestic jurisdiction but has acquired an international content with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 (UDHR 1948). Several organizations or international agencies like the European Union have promulgated their respective human rights instruments. In the African region, the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights which like its above cited elder brother (UDHR 1948) clearly stipulates minimal prescriptions of human rights that have become obligations to State parties as obligations not to be toyed with by States.

Significantly, development has placed human rights at the front burner of State practice of law at the international level. Its increasingly becoming more relevant in the shifting paradigms of international relations particularly, reference to the regulatory functions of human rights, their diffusion enhancement and enforcement affects the social, political, economic, and cultural spheres of nation States. In this

respect, human rights have taken the centre stage of the legal framework for interactions among States. It will also be instructive, in this respect, to appraise the reference to Human Rights Law to the crisis in Nigeria, Libya, Sierra Leone, Yemen, Syria, Egypt, Cote d’Ivoire, and other nations.

Today, NATO has moved into Tripoli on the basis of gross abuses of human rights. Suffice it to say, that these achievements understood the expanding legal regime of human rights law of criminal interest to human rights as the work and contributions of international organizations like The League of Nations that transmitted into the current United Nations, OAU to African Union (AU), European Union from EEC, ECOWAS, OAS – Organization of African States, and other non governmental organizations. International Committee of the Red Cross, the ICRC for instance, focuses its activities in the development of all manner of prevention and reduction of human sufferings in finances of armed conflict (wars), be they international or non international armed conflicts.

The work of these universal neutral and independent organizations re-emphasizes the urgency of the humanitarian needs of the human race, whether they are combatants or non combatants (The United States of America 1791 Bills of Rights). Foreign though, International Humanitarian Law (IHL), a part of International Human Rights Law (IHRL) the threshold of State obligations under International Humanitarian Law, is higher and stricter than that of International Human Rights Law. Notwithstanding the differences and the congruency between Human Rights Law (HRL) and IHL, the practical relationships are at the centre of a dynamic process that is truly international and yet at the same time domestic.

International application of Human Rights Law was an outgrow from development in domestic law since human rights operate on the basis of equality of all human of creed, gender, color, race or nationality. It therefore stands to reason that the ideality of equality before the Human Rights Law must supply sans frontiers – (beyond boundaries). Since a threat of human rights in a particular location amounts to threats to human rights every where. This is part of the justification for the raising of the regime of Human Rights Law beyond the domestic province to the international level. The devastations of the 1st World and much more the calamities of the 2nd World War had woken the world up to the reality of the international community’s urgent need to make significant contributions to the growth of international limits of warfare. The international organizations therefore make recognition to the enactment of international legal instruments that enjoined nation States to observe and ensure the observance of the basic rights of citizens of the world, whether in peace or conflict situations.

In this respect in the universal declaration of human rights and several other related instruments earlier cited created enforceable obligations owed by State parties that have signed the treaties. The gross human rights abuses during global conflicts had found regulations and controls and as frameworks were all attempts to regulate a way out of inhuman abuses of humanity during crisis. This has made significant contributions to the internationalization of human rights in the world community. Suddenly, development in internet, space, aviation and advancement in the development of mobile telephones and importantly the collapse of the ideological competitions of the cold war era have all combined to reduce the world to a global village. Within these spheres of collapsed national boundaries, there has been the development of cross boundaries crimes for instance, Country A stealing from a citizen of Country B violates such a

citizen's human rights. This raises the question of jurisdiction, which country will have the rights to try the offender for such violations, which country will assume jurisdiction Country A or B?

Generation of Rights

According to *Encyclopedia of Law and Society*, different generations have emerged in the couple of time. The first generation includes negative rights which perfect the individual from the power of the State. They include political and civil rights and liberties such as freedom of speech. The second generation includes positive rights claims requiring action by the State to ensure social justice. To this belongs economic and social justice. Scholars and jurists now suggest a third generation which includes rights to peace economic development and clean environment of international community to protect the citizens of the world. These rights all form the basic focus and aims of the Millennium Developmental Goals (MDGs).

To this end, where a nation State violates the human rights of her citizens, the international community under the agencies of the UN and its several agencies can invoke the customary international law responsibility to protect the citizens of such States for abuses. The trial of Charles Taylor of Liberia is an example in this regard. Another classical illustration is the intervention of the UN in the individual of the sadness government on Genocide based on ethnic cleansing in South West Sudan. The Khartoum government has directly and indirectly through her agents the *Janjaweed* persecuted non-Muslims in South-West Darfur in a bid to compel them to join the Islamic faith. While the jurisdiction of ICC revolves around private responsibility for abuse of humanitarian law which ICT lacked the subject of the jurisdiction of ICT as States and not as power persons. Beyond the International Criminal Court (ICC), the work of the special tribunals like for Russian and Sierra Leone established by the security council, established by Sierra Leone and the UN have all combined to evolve a new and expanding international forms of jurisprudence of Human Rights Law. This in a way has contributed to the internationalization of human rights law.

According to *Encyclopedia of Law and Society*, human rights are rights that belong to every human being, irrespective of any other qualification or condition, such as gender, race or nationality. Therefore, human rights theories and practices are inherently universal and egalitarian. Human rights transcend the boundaries of State legal systems. They are equal for all human beings. Theoretical conceptions of human rights have been present in many historical and geographical contexts. Modern theories of human rights however stem from natural rights theories elaboration of the 17th Century. At the domestic level, human rights were ordinary enshrined in the national States as fundamental rights or civil liabilities. International Human Rights have also become necessary because of the developments of international criminal law. International Criminal Law cuts across the spheres of offences of an international nature or cross boundary offences, or in the event of cross boundary abuse of human rights. International crime law includes piracy, treason, terrorism, illegal immigration and with particular application to international human rights law, crimes against humanity the rest of like crimes that ICC prosecute.

Human Rights and Millennium Development Goals:

A common purpose

From the above expositions of the different fields of Human Rights Law and MDGs, it is clear that the common denominator is the protection and improvement of the quality of human existence. While Human Rights Law, whether at the domestic or international levels, concentrates on the field of guaranteed rights, freedoms and privileges, the wider concepts of MDGs sets minimum standards for the improvement of the physical, intellectual, economic, socio-cultural, environmental, nutritional and gender issues. It is true that to enjoy the high ideals of MDGs, human beings must first be alive as is guaranteed in Section 33 of the Nigerian 1999 Constitution and the relevant provisions of the African Charter on Human and People's Rights and the United Nations Charter on Human Rights. This paper streamlines the connection between the two fields in only one of the MDGs: Education.

Education is one of the guaranteed human rights by the African Charter on Human and People's Rights to which Nigeria, Ghana and most other African countries are signatories. Education also represents one of the core goals of MDGs. The government of the signatory States, while seeking to enforce this particular human rights provision on education, will directly enhance the attainment of MDG 2. For instance, on November 30th 2010, the ECOWAS Court delivered a judgment that upheld the fundamental right of every Nigerian child to free education in line with Article 17 of the African Charter on Human and People's Rights. To finance the scheme, the Federal Government of Nigeria was required to make a block grant of not less than 2% of its Consolidated Revenue Fund to the Universal Basic Education Fund. For the State government to qualify for this Federal Government grant, they would contribute not less than 50% of the total costs of projects as their commitments to the UBE scheme.

According to Falana (2011), the Federal Government of Nigeria has made available a total sum of N148 billion in the UBE fund. It is rather the various State Governments that have failed, neglected and or refused the UBE fund by not providing their 50% counterpart fund. The sad consequence of this failure, in spite of the ECOWAS judgment and direct human rights provision in Article 17 of the African Charter on Human and People's Rights, over 12 million children of school going age are on the streets of Nigeria without enjoying this basic fundamental right to education. This paper therefore calls on State Governments in Nigeria and other tiers of government else where in Africa to desist forthwith from this gross violation of the human right of the citizens. It amounts to hypocrisy for such governments to spend their resources in advocating MDGs 2 and 3. For any efforts at enforcement of MDGs 2 and 3 will indirectly impose duties on the government to enforce the Human Rights provisions on education. Article 3 is relevant here because gender equality must be started from the cradle. Where a girl child is not given education in her later years, she stands a very poor chance of being liberated from the consequences of gender inequality.

Goal number one of the MDGs which centres on eradication of poverty will be impracticable and futile as education is the bedrock to economic advancement and attainment in later years of life. A person that is ill trained or uneducated will certainly not be in strong position to enjoy MDG1. It is the position of this paper that the implementation of the Compulsory, Free and Universal Basic Education Act (2004) is a fundamental right of all Nigerian children and should be enforced without any further delay. This paper also calls on teachers and legal practitioners to take all possible steps in this direction including but not limited to recourse to the law courts for an order of *mandamus* to compel the errant governments to

comply with the judgment of the ECOWAS Court. By so doing, MDG2 of providing education for all by the year 2015 shall be achieved. It is instructive in this light to note that even Section 18 of the Constitution of Nigeria 1999 has created compulsory duties on the part of both States and Federal Governments to provide free and compulsory education up to the junior secondary level. A very noble provision of this particular provision is the creation of enforceable criminal liability against parents that fail to ensure that their child receive full time education up to this level. The Constitution makes it punishable by 3 months imprisonment or a fine of ten thousand naira or both in event of non compliance by the parents or guardian. Sadly though there are not yet reported cases of parents or guardian that have been tried or convicted on account of violations of this fundamental right of a child to education.

Conclusion

It was the purpose of this work to explore the concept of development and to particularly analyze the ideals of MDGs and to juxtapose MDGs side by side Human Rights Law and seek reinforcement of Human Rights Law as channels for the attainment of MDGs. It is the position of this paper that MDGs and Human Rights Law are two parallel institutions which like streams will ultimately empty into the same ocean. The reinforcement of the regime of Human Rights Law, it is posited, will enhance the attainment of MDGs. A classical illustration of this point has been made with MDG 2 as a test case. The enforcement of the human rights to education directly enhances the attainment of MDGS 1, 2, 3 and others.

It is further suggested that beyond the creation of Human Rights Laws or setting up of developmental targets that there must of necessity be the strengthening of State institutions for enforcement of these laws and developmental targets. To this end, reforms of the judicial institutions like the courts and quasi judicial agencies like the Police force and the Prison Service must be carried out.

Finally, in spite of all the provisions by the State of the laws and institutional reinforcements there must be the complementary existence of the political will and sincerity to enforce the laws and attain the ideals of MDGs. The creation of institutions of the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC), The Bureau of Public Procurement and The Code of Conduct Regulations are all commendable, but the will on the part of the government to enforce these noble provisions may just make the difference in the achievement of MDGs and the general improvement in the quality of life as provided by the regime of Human Rights Laws.

Bibliography

- Adedokun, M. O. (2009). *A Handbook of Community Development*. Ibadan: Bolmor Publishers
- Asien, J. O. (2005). *Introduction to Nigerian Legal System*. 2nd Edition. Lagos: Ababa Press Ltd.
- Encyclopedia of Law and Society of America and Global Clark* 2007. California: SAGE Publications.
- Falana, F. (2011). "State Governments are violating UBE Law." *Sunday Punch*, July 31, 2011, p. 2.
Lagos: Punch Nigeria Limited.
- Fenwick, H. (2002). *Civil Liberties and Human Rights*. London: Cavendish Publishing Limited. (2004).

- Henslin, J. M. (1995). *Sociology: A-Down-to-Earth Approach*. Massachusetts: A. Simon & Schuster Company.
- Malemi, E. (2006). *The Nigerian Constitutional Law*. London: Princeton Education.
- Rodney, W. (1972). *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*. London: Bogle. L'Ouverture Publications.
- Steiner, A. (2010). *International Review of the Red Cross*. Volume 92, No. 879, Sept. Edition. Geneva: International Committee of the Red Cross.
- The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999*. Lagos: The Federal Government Press. FGP 195//599/1,500(OL 32).
- The Holy Bible* (King James Version). (2008). Lagos: Bible Society of Nigeria.
- The New Webster's Dictionary of the English Language*. (2000). New York: Lexicon International-Publishers Guild Group.
- Yakubu, J. A. (2003). *Constitutional Law in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Demyaxs Press Ltd.

Meeting Millennium Development Goals Target in African Nations: Good Governance as the Option

By

Michael Abiodun-Oni

Bidemi Isola

*Department of Political Science and Public Administration,
Babcock University, Ilishan Remo,
Ogun State, Nigeria.*

Being a paper presented at the First Joint Conference between Babcock University, Nigeria and Valley View University, Ghana
July 31st – August 4, 2011

Abstract

There are fears and skepticism about African Nations meeting the target date for the achievement of eight MDGs in Africa. This pessimism is stemmed from the various reports on the progress so far about the goals in Africa. Other obstacles being envisaged to prevent the achievement of the goals are the various crises and high level of corruption in Africa. However, this paper thinking is to the contrary. Thus, this study is optimistic that with African leaders embracing the basic tenets of good governance which lays emphasis on accountability, transparency, efficiency and effective, then the goals are realizable on the target date of 2015. The study relies on documentary data sources. Thus, the study collected secondary data from reports from research conducted by various commissions, agencies at both continental and international levels. It was desired that good governance has impacted positively on the achievement of MDGs because, it has provided enabling environment that will promote political stability legitimacy, attraction of foreign, loans and investors and debt forgiveness. The paper concludes that the hope of African nations to meet the target date of 2015 for the MDGs is brighter and higher with the leaders discarding bad governance and embracing good governance. However, it recommended that, there is the need for orientation and reorientation between the leadership and followership. Thus, the paper recommends servant leadership and free, fair and credible elections in order to ensure electorate supremacy in African nations.

Introduction

There are general skepticism within African continent that the MDG's goals adopted by 189 countries as blueprint for measuring national growth and development worldwide are difficult to achieve in African countries particularly against the deadline of 2015. This doubt becomes heightened because of the 2009 United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) reports on Africa. The report entitled Assessing Progress in Africa towards the Millennium Development Goals had identified many African countries to be far away from achieving the goals four years to the deadline. Apart from this report, the general impression is that most of these African countries cannot achieve these goals within the stipulated time

frame of 2015. This conclusion is based on certain development in African states that are impediments to the achievement of these goals.

However, the position of this paper is that, the goals are achievable in spite of these fears and the prevalent negative characteristics of the African countries. The paper's position is that with the African nations embracing the features of good governance, such as participating democracy, practice of rule of law, transparency among other features achieving the goals is a forgone conclusion.

The conviction of this paper about African countries achieving the MDG's goals is that with the embracement of goal governance, this will attract major donors, international agencies and financial institutions across the globe that now base assistance to nations on being very high in the indicators for measuring good governance.

Millennium Development Goals

The goals which are eight in numbers were set as developmental challenges targets to measure, the political, economic, and social health of nations. Thus, the MDG's were set to measure the level of development among nations. Therefore, nations that are able to meet the targets are grouped among developed nations, whereas, others who failed to meet the target by 2015 are grouped under the under developed nations.

The goals were set by 189 nations who adopted the Millennium Declaration at the United Nations Millennium summit in 2000. The target date for the 189 nations was the year 2015. Thus, it was a 15 year indicator put in place to as impetus for African nations to aspire if they must be grouped among the developed nations.

UNMDG'S

The goals include:

1. Eradication of extreme poverty and hunger among nations;
2. Achievement of Universal Primary Education that is, all children must have access to basic primary school education;
3. Promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women. That is, all the opportunities must be opened to all irrespective of sexes;
4. Reduce child mortality – Ensuring that instead of the 1-5 of mortality rates, this must be reduced by sophisticated medications;
5. Improve maternal health – that is being able to reduce maternal mortality that is on the high sights;
6. Eradication of HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases;
7. Ensuring environmental sustainability, that is to ensure a good environment capable of sustaining both human and material habitations;
8. Development of a global partnership for development. That is, nations must be able to enter into relationship with other nations with the sole purpose of ensuring developments.

Good Governance

Governance is regarded as a means of managing resources particularly public resources, conduct of public institutions and affairs in order to ensure the common goal and standard of living for the citizenry.

It is also seen as a process of decision making and the ways and manner this decision is implemented and in some ways, how it is not implemented.

Kunnuji (2006) says that governance is the exercise of state powers in the interest of and to meet the needs of the citizenry by their elected representatives.

Eyinla (2002), is also of the view that governance is the accountability, security of human rights and civil liberties, devolution of power and respect for local autonomy, legitimate and committed government and concerned about peoples' welfare, competency in maintenance of law and order, responsive competency.

Governance "the means by which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development and good governance as synonymous with sound development management" –Potter 2002. It encompasses a broad sphere of a public sector management, accountability, legal framework for development, legitimacy of government, the competence of government to formulate appropriate policies, make timely decisions and ability to implement power effectively and deliver services.

Agaba, Abolade and Emafo (2010) averred that it is value laden, that is, it is a subjective concept, therefore scholars can see it from two different perspectives.

Adeniran (2009) simply says that governance is the process of decision making and by which decisions are implemented or not implemented. He goes further by categorizing governance into corporate, international, national and local. Thus, we have corporate governance, international governance, national governance and local governance.

Aku (2010) describes governance to mean actions, manner or system of governing. He says that, it is an all embracing concept comprising the apparatus of government, the leadership, vision and ideology and that it is systematic.

Governance according to Nnorom and Kunnuji (2006) is the exercise of state powers in the interest of and to meet the needs of the citizenry by their elected representatives.

Ekanem (2009) in his own view sees good governance as the bed-rock of democratic consolidation. He says the concept symbolizes rule of law, accountability and transparency buoyant economy. He also says that it is opposed to poverty, human right abuses, corrupt practices and harassment of civil society.

However, the concept of governance is relative. Therefore, the concept can be categorized into different dimensions. In term of categorization, there are corporate governance, international governance, national governance, local governance, good governance and bad governance. For the purpose of discourse in this paper, two categories of governance are relevant. These are bad and good governance. For example, Yakubu (2006) says that there are both bad and good governance. Omotola (2005) equally states that bad governance is regarded as the fundamental cause of all the problems within the African countries. This he described as evil within our societies.

The two, good and bad governance are however the focus of this paper, while bad governance is regarded as “the evil within our societies” that is inhibiting the achievement of MDGs goals in Africa, good governance is being advocated for to meet these set goals within the target date. Good governance is regarded in this paper as the benchmark to meet the set target of MDGs in African countries.

Therefore, the first attempt here is to expound the ideals of good governance as the needed impetus for achieving the MDGs within the target period. Yakubu’s (2006) states that good governance is a normative judgment which remains a preferred relations that should ideally serve as grades to measure relationship between the state and the society on the one hand and between the government and the people on the other hand.

Kunnuji (2006) is of the opinion that good governance is a process that is related to how power is being exercised in the process of governance (to the utmost and ultimate benefit of the people) particularly as it relates to the management of both public and private affairs. He goes further to say that good governance presupposes that government feels the pulse of the society, in order to know their problems and strive to find solutions to them.

However, Aku (2010) states that the measurement of a good governance is rested on the following elements. These include responsibility, participation, accountability, free flow of information, and respect for constituted authority.

Yakubu (2006) also says that, there are certain attributes which can be attached to good governance. These according to him include accountability based on the notion of popular sovereignty and public choice, a legal framework that guarantees the rule of law and due process, popular participation in pluralism. Others are freedom of association and expression; and bureaucratic accountability based on impersonality of office, uniform application of rules and rationality of organizational structure. This model in a nutshell gives the idea that good governance is solidly located within the ambit of democracy. He says further that good governance strives to ensure that corruption is minimized and views of minorities are taken into account while deciding for the larger majority.

Olu- Adeyemi (2010) is of the opinion that the term good governance is a standard for measuring what is ideal, the best in governance. He states that, it often emerges as a model to compare one of the ineffective economies and political bodies with others. Hence, the advanced countries economic or political institutions which are regarded as “successful” are for measuring good governance. He goes further, to state that those countries institutions referring to institutions in countries of Europe and America are often regarded as standard by which to compare other states’ institutions and concludes which nations are embracing features of good or bad governance. The conclusion among scholars is that the institutions of Europe and America are measures of good governance, whereas, those of Africa and Latin American nations are samples of bad governance.

He identifies eight features of good governance. These include participatory, consensus oriented, accountability, transparency, responsiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, equitable and inclusive government that follows the rule of law. He states that corruption is minimal, and that the views of minorities are taken into account and that the voices of the most vulnerable in society are heard in

decision-making. To him a good governance is responsive not only to the present needs but also to the future needs of the society.

Participation: This is when the citizens are part of governance. This can be achieved through direct or indirect participation. It is a direct participation in governance when citizens stand for election in an intra or inter party election. Indirect participation takes the forms of voting at election, sponsorship of candidate for elections or involving citizens in taking part in policy formulation and decision making. A government that engages its people in governance will elicit their support and cooperation without being forced.

Rule of law: This concept in governance preaches some fundamental tenets that confer legitimacy on government. It also prevents the government from running into crises very often. The features of rule of law are impartiality, equality before the law, fair trial and the assumption that a suspect is presumed innocent until the contrary is proved.

Transparency: This is a guide to good governance that preaches openness on the part of the government. It means a government whose actions and inactions are conducted in the public glare without skeleton in their cupboard. It also means that citizens are not starved of information about government when required. It also means that citizens should be part of decisions that may affect them.

Responsiveness: This means that government must be listening to the yearnings of the people at all times. Machinery must be set in motion to measure the pulse of the populace from time to time. This will enable them to know the problems of the citizens and be able to find solutions to them.

Consensus oriented: The government must be able to collate the various views expressed by different segments in the society as bases for actions and inactions. All interests of the various people in the society must be taken to account in policy formulation and implementation. This is because there are several interests as well as many actors with different views particularly in African society with pluralism. Therefore, good governance dictates the collation of the different interests in society to be able to take decisions that are in the best interest of the different people in the society.

Equity and inclusiveness: This means that all citizens in the society irrespective of age, gender, religion, ethnic background are treated equally and that these citizens must see themselves as stakeholders in the society. They must not be excluded from governance.

Effectiveness and efficiency: One of the features of good governance is that institutions of government must not only deliver services to the people but also as at when due. There must be result to the aspiration of the people as against rhetoric's.

Accountability: Accountability is central to good governance. This is because an accountable government gives reports of its actions and inactions, decisions and indecisions, policy formulation and implementation to the people at intervals. This enables leaders in government to explain reasons why certain actions and decisions are taken. The development in the political system will also be explained to the people. Different channels can be used to reach the people for this accountability purpose. This guards against rumors and hostility against government. It also strengthens the credibility of the leaders in

government and smoothen the relationship between the government and the people. Accountability is a twin brother of transparency.

Achieving MDGs in Africa: The fears and obstacles

Doubts are being entertained in both low and high places in African countries about meeting the MDGs as set by the United Nations in 2000. This pessimism is stemmed from fears emanating from three dimensions. These are, the results of the data collected on the major indicators to measure the development geared towards the achievement of millennium goals. Second, the crises in African nations. Third, corrupt practices pervading public and private sectors.

In a statistics collected by United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) on the reports of assessment of MDGs in Africa published in 2009, the report expressed doubts about African nations meeting the target date of 2015 set for all nations to achieve the 8 goals, in view of African countries lagging behind in the march towards achieving the goals. The report says that:

African continues to make progress toward the achievement of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), but this progress remains uneven across goals and sub regions. Progress in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) continues to considerable lag behind all other regions of the world

In this report, it was stated that, world leaders were not happy about the slow pace of progress particularly in the areas of human development indicators which are germane to the measurement of MDGs target.

In a summary of the assessment of progress on the achievements of the 8 point goals of MDGs, the reports is a bag of mixed reactions on the possibility of meeting the target because of not too encouraging performances of the major indicators (UNSD, 2009). The report is presented here unedited.

Goal 1: Although data on income poverty are not readily available, the current crisis is likely to erode some of the progress already made in countries like Ghana in reducing the poverty headcount, the crisis could also undermine actions already taken by government to reduce poverty.

Progress toward full employment in the region has been slow, despite positive economic growth over recent years in many African countries. Labour productivity growth was positive across all regions during 2006 but it was not strong enough to accelerate progress toward full and decent employment for all. Labour productivity growth remains vulnerable to exogenous shocks and cyclicity.

Goal 2: The region is on track to meet the primary education enrollment target. However, progress towards the target for primary completion, although improving is unlikely to be achieved if current trend continues. The urban and income gradient in enrollment underscores the need to focus more attention on rural areas and poor households in order to meet the target.

Goal 3: The trend toward gender parity remains strong in primary education but the gender gap continues to be wide at secondary and tertiary levels. One encouraging sign is the growing number of women in national parliaments, as evidenced in recent elections in a number of countries.

Goal 4, 5 & 6: Progress toward the health goals continues to present a serious challenge, particularly for child and maternal mortality rates. However, immunization coverage is approaching universality and is

thus reducing infant mortality rates significantly. In many countries, reduction in the prevalence of HIV/AIDS is also being achieved, but not at a rate to reverse the spread of the disease.

Goal 7: The proportion of the population with access to improved water supply and sanitation is growing but is mostly concentrated in urban areas. Most efforts need to be directed.

Goal 8: Significant gaps in fulfilling the global partnership for development remain. These include the inability to conclude the Doha Round of trade negotiations, and the inability of major OECD/DAC countries to reach the ODA/GNI ratio target of 0.7 percent. The Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) continue to pose a risk to the African trade development. Meanwhile, trade with emerging economies like China, India, and South Korea is growing, particularly in the mining sector. (UNSD, ibid)

The current global financial and economic crisis presents both opportunities and risks. In particular, it provides opportunities for African countries to deepen their financial systems, persevere with structural and economic reforms, and to adopt economic and social policies aimed at providing safety nets for the poor and socially vulnerable. Such actions will reinforce and secure progress already made toward achieving the MDGs.

Overall, this report reiterates much the same as that of 2008 Report: The continent is making steady progress on a few goals, but less so on others. There is no convergence either in level or rates of progress across the sub regions. Achieving the MDGs in North Africa though remains less of a challenge than in other sub regions.

Bases for the Doubts in realizing MDGs Target in Africa

1. The data collected on human development indicators of MDGs were critical and not promising. The data are far from assuring and reassuring Africans both at home and in the diaspora that the goals are reliable within the stipulated period. For example, in 2009, various independent bodies published the reports of investigations conducted on the progress on MDGs in Africa either in comparison with other nations or comparison within African nations. The reports are based on data collected from various sources such as, ECA computations, World Health Statistics 2009. The data are subtitled: measurement of gender parity index, gender index parity in adult literacy as conducted in 2007, measurement of level of health progress and minimize or reduction of the rate of HIV/AIDS, gender parity index in primary, secondary and tertiary education for selected African countries.

Again, an African based foundation, MO Ibrahim Foundation also in 2009 reported the result of an investigation on the index of African governance. The report was appalling on the major indicators for measuring MDGs in African Nations. The indicators are on sustainable economic opportunity, education. Poverty and health sectors.

The results of both the United Nations Statistics Division on assessing progress in Africa toward the Millennium Development Goals and 2009 Ibrahim Index of African Governance are presented as reported in this paper. A summary of the data is essential to explain the seemingly hopelessness on the achievement of MDGs in Africa. The summary is as follows:

In Ibrahim Index of African Governance 2009, from the overall table via Ranks, the report shows the only countries like Tunisia, Togo, Seychel with the following points (1, 1, 1) respectively are in the first category of countries that are likely to meet up with the MDG goals on schedule. While countries like Chad, Comoros, Rwanda, Cote d'Ivoire are in the second categories in Africa that are likely to meet up with the NDG Goals by 2015 while other countries are not likely to meet up.

On the study given by the ECA computations based on UNSD data, 2008, Gender Disparity Index in primary, secondary, tertiary institutions (1991-2006) of countries like Lesotho, Mauritania, Namibia are not likely to meet up with the MDG Goal in Gender Disparity Index in Primary education while Lesotho, Namibia and Tunisia were unable to meet up with Secondary education for selected African countries. At the tertiary education level from the table only two countries (Madagascar and Namibia) are likely to meet up with the MDG Goals by 2015.

In a report as reported also by ECA computations based on UNSD data Gender Disparity Index in Adult literary (2007) shows countries like Botswana, Cape Verde, Liberia e.t.c that achieved target. While countries at 0.9 and above are likely to meet up with the MDGs Goals but countries below 0.9 like Mali (0.65) Morocco (0.79) are not likely to meet up with the MDG Goals by 2015.

The report by world health statistics, 2009, on malaria mortality rate per 100,000 population 2006, shows that Cape Verde, South Africa, Swaziland have experienced less than one malaria mortality rate below the regional average of 104 per 100, 000 population and are likely to meet up with MDGs in 2015 on health issue.

Also, the report by world health statistics, 2009, shows the percentage of under fives sleeping under insecticide treated net (2000-2007). Therefore, from the table above only Niger with 56% have the possibility of meeting up with the MDGs Goals on health by the year 2015.

The second doubts, fears and obstacles to the achievement of MDGs goals on schedule in African states are the various crises: political, economical, ethno regional and cultural ravages the continent. These crises were in the form of persistent fuel scarcity, food crises and global economic meltdown among others. The recent economic meltdown remained a threat to the achievement of MDGs because it has "stall, erode or reverse hard won gains in the region" according to the report, the global economic down turn has been discovered high rate of poverty; other effects are the rise in the level of inflation, depreciation in the local currencies.

Politically, there have been persistence crises ravaging the African continent. The unfortunate development in four African Countries in the recent times are pointers to the fact that all is not well with African nations. The avoidable political holocaust in Cote d'ivoire where a sit tight leader Laurent Gbagbo refused to vacate the seat of power for Abubakar Quattru after losing in the general election. In spite of the world leader's intervention which eventually resolved the crisis, the damage done to both human and material capital in the country is today, a gory story to tell. The blatant election rigging and daylight robbery of victors, the victory in the 2007 general elections and the massacre of innocent youth coppers and others after the 2011 general elections in Nigeria posed a lot of credibility crisis not only for Nigeria regarded as the giant of Africa but also other African nations. The forced exist of the Egyptian leader and the reluctance of Mammar Gaddafi to allow for democratic reforms has remained an albatross

which other nations have to contend with. These constant political altercations have impacted negatively on the indicators for achieving millennium development goals in the continent.

The third doubt and fears about achieving MDGs in Africa is the unchecked high level of corruption in both low and high places and in both private and public sectors and institutions. With these problems, it is believed in many quarters that the achievement of MDGs on record time is an impossible task in the continent. However, this paper believes that the hope is not lost and the achievements of the goals are possible on record time in African nations.

Achieving MDGs on schedule in Africa: Good governance to the rescue

In spite of not too impressive reports on African countries on the indicators for achieving MDGs, pervading crises and monumental fraud in the continent, the position of this paper is that, the hope of meeting 2015 target is not lost. To achieve this, the leadership in the continent only needs to discard the features of bad governance now in vogue in the continent and embrace the major tenets of good governance. For the sake of clarity, this paper recalls the features of good governance, such as accountability, rule of law, responsiveness, transparency, free, fair and credible elections, and participatory government among some other virtues of good governance.

Hence, good governance in the continent means that leadership must be transparent, accountable, responsive, equitable and inclusive, participatory, effective and efficient and consensus driven.

Therefore, leadership in the Sub Sahara Africa must ensure that at intervals, they render account of their stewardship to the people, they must be able to solve and resolve their problems, governance must be synonymous with openness, and government business must be conducted in the open. The governance in the continent must not create gulf between the haves and have not's, government policies and programmes must ensure equitable distribution of resources and must embrace all categories of people irrespective of age, gender, ethno, cultural and religious background. Again, all the citizens must be involved in governance. These are in the forms of participation in a free and fair election. Measures must be put in place to ensure citizens, participation both in policy formulation and decision making besides voting at elections. Moreover, leadership must not only be efficient, i.e. delivery of democratic dividends but also must be done effectively as at when needed and required. This high level of corruption must be reduced drastically if opted out completely.

Implications of Good Governance on the Achievement of MDGs in Africa

With the elements of good governance as discussed above dominating all the levels of administration, it will impact positively on governance. This positive implication on governance will bring many changes that are capable of turning around major developments in the continent with multiplier positive changes on the major indicators for measuring the achievement of MDGs. Therefore, notwithstanding the time lag, the hope of meeting the target is higher with good governance as an option.

What are the implications of good governance on the achievement of MDGs in Africa? Good governance is capable of bringing some positive impacts on the achievement of the MDGs. These positive impacts can be grouped into two. These are Internal and External Impact.

Internal impact

These are impacts that are expected to bring changes into different sectors in the African Society. These are generated within the continent with change over from the present bad governance to good governance. Therefore, the internal impacts consequent on the changeover will bring some development to the continent which will assist to achieve MDGs on schedule. The question then is what are these positive impacts? These include, strengthening of legitimacy of government in African continent, political stability, reduction or eradication of corruption, elicit high level of patriotism among citizenry, reduction in brain drain and job opportunities.

Strengthening legitimacy: One of the crises facing leadership in African continent is the crisis of legitimacy. These crises stemmed from monumental electoral manipulations. These electoral frauds have negative impact on the acceptability of government and its leadership. This legitimacy crisis made many people to distant themselves from government which they have not seen as their own. Hence, the need to distant themselves from such government that have come into power through flawed electoral process.

However, with free, fair and credible elections, people will not only see the emerged leaders from such elections as their only but also support and cooperate with them in order to ensure the realization of their objectives.

Elicit High Level of Patriotism: Again, good governance will also elicit high level of patriotism from citizenry. Patriotism and demonstration of it by the citizens will make people to be loyal to the state, sometimes to the point of fault. This will include desire to make personal, voluntarily contributions and sacrifices to ensure national growth and development. Patriotic citizens are expected to be naturally happy in the political system. A patriotic citizen will make full financial obligations to the state. Such citizens will not collude with individual or group whether nationally or internationally to defraud the state. Patriotism will reduce tax evasion and consequently make more resources available to government in the pursuit of MDGs.

A patriotic citizen will be able to think for the state and how to move it forward. This well lead to discoveries and innovations, which in turn can contribute to the achievement of MDGs on schedule.

Political Stability: One of the gains of good governance is political stability. With good governance dominating the centre stage in the administration of African states, the senseless killings and wanton destruction of lives and property will be absent. It is not a gainsaying that many of those who would have been able to turn around things in the area of development projects and programmes may have lost their lives in one or two of those ethno religious and political crises for which the continent is notorious for a very long time.

Political stability is also expected to allow leaders in government at different levels to concentrate on governance. In the first instance, the time spent on resolving crises are concentrated on service delivery to the people. In the instance, resources being wasted to construct and reconstruct after crises or full blown war as witnessed in many parts of the continents will be conserved for national growth and development. Hence, a stable polity will allow leaders to concentrate on governance and therefore be able to solve and

resolve issues bordering on provisions of goods and services to the generality of the people. The concentration of leadership will no doubt assist in the achievement of MDGs goals on schedule.

Reduction in the Level of Corruption: Good governance will also assist to reduce the high level of corruption in the continent. Two features of good governance are capable of reducing corruption in the continent. These are free and fair election, and high level of education and patriotism among the citizen.

With free and fair election, leadership will be conscious that a mis-step by them is an automatic withdrawal of the mandate given to them in the next election. Hence, the need to be conscious of their actions and inactions, including engagement in corrupt practices. Again, with good governance in operation different methodologies of changing leadership will not be only known but will also be employed by the citizens to change their leadership before the next election. With this knowledge by the leaders that they can be changed by the followership before the next election, corruptions are going to be reduced to the barest minimum. This is because any symptom of bad governance will cause them to lose power.

The implication of reduction in the level of corruption or total eradication of corruption in African nations is that the resources that could have gone to private pockets are available for national growth and developmental projects that can change the fortunes of the people. These resources will be available for the development of areas such as health and educational developments which are part of indicators to measure the achievement of MDGs.

Job Opportunities for Citizens: The reduction of corruption will also bring down the poverty level. This is because; there will be funds to establish industries for the purpose of generating employment opportunities for the citizens. The availability of jobs to the people will improve upon the achievement of jobs opportunity goals of MDG.

Reduction in the Rate of HIV/AIDS: The availability of jobs opportunities to the citizens from the industries established will reduce the rates of prostitution that now encourage spread of HIV/AIDS among the people in African nations. Some female gender are today offering their body for service in order to sustain themselves. This is because there are no available job opportunities for them and yet, they prefer prostitution to robbery. With available job opportunities, those who exchange their private parts for service will be reduced. They will be both gainfully and proudly employed. Hence, improvement in the eradication of HIV/AIDS. This is one of the goals of MDG.

Reduction in the Brain Drain: Good governance will also assist to reduce the current brain drain now threatening national growth and developments in the continent. Many of the revered professionals in different sectors, health, education etc in many African countries have left the continent for greener pasture elsewhere. These crops of professionals are currently making waves in their various callings outside Africa.

Therefore, good governance will reduce the current high level of manpower flight. These professionals will be able to make their contributions to African countries instead of using their potentials to develop other lands. These renowned professionals will no doubt assist in the achievement of MDGs.

External impact

These are the impacts that good governance will achieve by being able to attract to African Nations, some of the things that bad governance are scaring away from the continent. These are in the form of ability of African Nations to attract loans from developed nations, agencies and commissions outside the continents. These loans will be used to pursue developmental projects in the areas of goal set by MDG.

Attraction of Donors/Agency: The inability of African continent to attract reputable donors or agencies over the years has been due to hostile environment orchestrated by different forms of maladministration and bad governance. Good governance will make available an enabling environment to attract these donors. The donations can be in form of cash or kind. In whatever form these donations comes, it will assist developments. These donations will assist to improve on the indicators for achieving MDGs. These developments will no doubt contribute to the act of achievement of MDGs on the record time.

Attraction of Foreign Investors: The features of good governance in place in African continent will serve as impetus to attract foreign investors in all the sectors of the economy. The participation of foreign investors will also assist to generate employment opportunities to many of the jobless citizens in the continent. Hence, the rating high on the goal of providing job opportunities to the people as part of the MDGs target in Africa.

Partnership: Good governance in African countries will also assist to attract foreign partners. These prospective partners will be attracted by goodwill and stability in the continent. No sensible nation or leadership will be willing to go into partnership or signing of agreement- bilateral or multi lateral with other nations in political turmoil. A stable polity guaranteed by good governance will not only attract partners but also consolidate and sustain such partnership with other nations.

Debt Forgiveness: A reduction or elimination of different forms of corruption in the corruption in the continent will encourage debt forgiveness. Many developed nations are insisting that African nations must pay their debts in spite of high level of poverty in Africa because of high level of corruption in the continent. These world leaders are not happy about different forms of corrupt practices in African continent hence, the unwillingness to forgive their debts.

However, with good governance, African nations will attract debt forgiveness. These forgiven debts will be used to pursue developmental programmes that are capable of assisting to achieve the MDGs on target date.

Conclusion

The paper concludes that though, the time lag set for the achievement of MDGs are fast approaching and with the various reports, crises and level of corruption in the continent, this paper's position is that the hope of achieving the goals at the record time is brighter and higher. This is because the present bad governance is making many of our sectors unworkable and therefore incapable of achieving MDGs. However, adoption of the elements of good governance in the administration of many African countries is the magic required to achieve the goals in Africa. With good governance, the hope of achieving the MDGs at the record time is higher because many of the possible impacts- Internal and External will work to assist many African Nations and change the present hopeless situation for better.

Recommendations

There is the need for orientations and reorientation programmes to change the present erroneous impression on the part of both the leadership and followership about governance in Africa. Leadership in the continent has to be educated that, the position being occupied is a platform to render selfless service to the people and not the one to amass illicit wealth or drain the state they have been “elected” to govern to the narrow.

On the part of the followership, they need to be educated that those in government are just their representative and not superstars in government. The followership must be made to be aware that they are the people called government and those voted into power are mere representatives, who can be removed from office, the same manner they were voted into power.

Free and fair elections

However, this relationship can only exist between the leadership and the followership only when elections are free, fair and credible. It is only when the follower resist all attempts to manipulate electoral process, that the electorate become supreme in democratic government.

References

Adefuye, A.,(2008), *Good Governance and Accountability in Nigeria*. A lecture delivered at the National Defence College to Course 17 participants on 17 November, 2008.

Agbada J.D (2010 et al) “*Re-thinking of rural poverty, Good Governance and Development in Nigeria*”. African Journal of Modern Society – Volume 1 number2, June 2010

Ake, C., (2001), *Democracy and Development in Africa*, Owerri: Spectrum Books limited.

Aku, D,(2010), A Decade of Democracy and Good Governance in Nigeria 1999-2009. A paper presented at ACPRED’S Roundtable on Democracy and 2011 elections in Nigeria held on 21st- 22nd, September, 2010, Ilorin.

Ekanem E.A (2009) “*Good Governance and Democratic consolidation in Nigeria*” in African Journal of Indigenous Development .Volume 5, Number 1 and 2 –January-December 2009.

Eyinla, B (2002), “The Political Transition and future of Democratization, Good Governance and Development in Allen T. and Ravallion, M and Bidani

Muhammad, A.A.,(2010), Good Governance Crises and Management of Nigeria’s External Image Problem. A paper presented at ACPRED’S Roundtable on Democracy and 2011 elections in Nigeria held on 21st- 22nd, September, 2010, Ilorin.

Nnorom, C.C.P and Kunnuji, M.O.N (2006): Crisis of Numerical Supremacy and Governance in Plural Polity in Oyekanmi, F.A.AD and Soyombo O (eds) *Society and Good Governance in Nigeria*, (Lagos: Irede publishers, 2006).

Ntalaja, N.G, (2000) *Democracy and Development in Africa: A tribute to Claude Ake*, Abuja: AFRIGOV, 2000.

Nuhu NY, Society and Good Governance: The Quest For Legitimacy in Nigeria, in Oyekanmi, F.A.AD and Soyombo O (eds) *Society and Good Governance in Nigeria*, (Lagos; Irede publishers, 2006).

Olu-Adeyemi, O., (2010), The Crises of Democracy and Good Governance in Nigeria. A paper presented at ACPRED'S Roundtable on Democracy and 2011 elections in Nigeria held on 21st- 22nd, September, 2010, Ilorin.

Omotola, S 2005 "The Civil limitations of Civil Society: Insight from Nigeria" in Unilag Journal of Politics, Department of Political Science, University of Lagos.

Todaro, M .P. (1989) *Economic Development in the third World* 4th edition, New York:Longman.

Published Reports

2009 Ibrahim Index of African Governance IIAG.

United Nations Statistics Division reports on Assembly Progress in Africa toward the millennium Development Goals, 2009.

Economic Commission for African reports based on UNSD data, updated in July 2008.

UNAID's Global Report on Regional HIV/AIDS Statistics and Features, 2008

World Bank, *Empowerment and Poverty Reduction: A Source Book*, (Washington DC: The World Bank 2002).

World Health Statistics, 2009.

World Bank (1991), *Managing Development - The Governance Dimension* Washington D.C

An Analysis of Nigeria's Fiscal Policy and Output Growth: Towards Achieving the Millenium Development Goal of Global Partnership

By

OYEDELE, O., ONONGHA, J.O. & LAWAL, E.

Abstract

The eighth MDG to be achieved before the year 2015 is the attainment of global partnership by developing an open, rule- based and non- discriminatory trading and financial system which makes sure that developing countries like Nigeria gain greater access to the markets of developed countries and that least developed countries benefit from tariff reductions, especially on their agricultural products. It is therefore pertinent that the fiscal policies of developing countries must be targeted towards increasing exports to developed countries and increasing benefits of tariff reduction by exporters. A growth in output increases the possibility of favorable balance of trade relations between Nigeria and other developed countries in terms of an increased export level from a reduced export tariff. This study examines the long - run equilibrium relationship between the growth rate of output and variations in (custom and excise duties) trade tariffs using an error correction model and discuss the policy implications therewith on Nigeria's partnership with developed nations.

Introduction

Economic growth and its attainment has remained a topic of concern in developing countries. In their bid to achieve development, fiscal policies play a great role in determining whether this attainment is feasible. Nigeria's fiscal policy has been characterized by high tax levels and increasing deficits. High tax levels are associated with reduced returns to profit for investors reduced disposable income and increased debt accumulation.

Fiscal policy is predominantly viewed as an instrument to mitigate short-run fluctuations of output and employment. By variation in government spending or taxation, fiscal policy aims at altering aggregate demand in order to move the economy closer to potential output. Hence the quality of fiscal policy should be evaluated by its capability to dampen output fluctuations. Nonetheless, we cannot and should not ignore the long-run implications of short run policy instruments in taxation and government expenditure. On the expenditure side, several fiscal policy instruments are known to exhibit long-run effects. For instance, early models of endogenous growth have introduced public expenditure categories as the engine of economic growth.

In 1977, the growth rate was valued about 31,520.3 million naira with an unsteady growth rate, still 1981 when the growth rate increased to about 205,971.4 million naira, the growth rate remained unsteady until 1996 were we had a consistent growth rate of 293,745.4 and the growth rate consistently increased still 2009 with a value of 716,949.7 million naira. Most developing economies depend heavily on income generated from tax at the expense of the negative impact on private investment and its output growth.

This is as a result of the increasing challenge to provide adequate basic infrastructure and services to meet the development standards. The challenge remains that of balancing the quest of these two necessary evils (increasing income to meet increasing deficits and increasing total output growth).

This study estimates the impact of some fiscal policy variables on the output growth in Nigeria covering a period of 30 years (1977-2007). This study is divided into five sections. Section I is the introduction, section II is a review of related literatures, section III is the theoretical framework, section IV is the methodology and section V concludes the study.

Literature Review

Romalis (2006) identifies a causal effect of openness to international trade on growth using tariff barriers of the United States as instruments for the openness of developing countries. His findings show that increase in developing country trade induced by better access to developed country markets could have a meaningful effect on economic outcomes in developing countries – at least for those willing and able to expand their trade. Furthermore, reductions in tariffs and, perhaps more importantly, reductions in the non – tariff barriers that routinely affect developing country exports would almost certainly lead to a substantial increase in the trade of developing countries - a simple policy prescription that will help some developing countries grow. From Kappel's (2004), reducing trade barriers have a decisive positive effect on economic growth and poverty reduction as far as a strong market institutions also exists. Therefore, the formulation and implementation of policies for taxation and public spending have major impacts on economic growth, income distribution and poverty (Gray et al 2007).

Reacting to the debate by social analysts on the connection between trade policy and economic performance, Edward (1997) analyzed the robustness of the relationship between openness and total factor productivity (TFP) growth for 93 countries and finds that more open countries have indeed experienced faster productivity growth.

Taxes have been found to have negative effects on economic growth caused by distortions while productive government expenditure have positive effects; however, taxes on labour income exhibit a positive effect on economic growth as well as taxes on savings and profit (Martin et al 2003). Explaining further on the category of taxes, Kneller et al (1998) find that distortionary taxation which include income and property tax reduces growth, while non distortionary taxation which is consumption and expenditure based does not for 22 developed OECD countries. A study by Romer and Romer (2007) demonstrates that tax increases have large impacts on output which are strongly significant and highly robust. the large effects stem in considerable part from a powerful negative effect of tax increases on investment.

A study by Adefeso et al (2010) show that productive government expenditure had positive effect on economic growth but contrary to expectation there was no evidence of distortionary effects of taxation on economic growth in Nigeria; implying that the composition of government expenditure and tax revenue is crucial in determining economic growth in Nigeria. Afonso et al (2010) also finds real government spending having a positive impact on economic growth.

Gerson (1998) examines the impact of fiscal policy on output growth through its direct impact on labour and capital productivity. He finds that even though public expenditures have a clear impact on output

growth, the effect of taxation is rather mute. Skinner (1988) also finds that while taxes such as personal and corporate income taxes significantly affect output growth, import, export and sales taxes have little impact on output growth.

Theoretical Framework

This study considers an endogenous growth model – the Romer Model, which addresses technological spillovers that may be present in the process of industrialization which is of relevance to developing countries.

The model assumes that growth processes derive from the firm or industry level. Each industry individually produces with constant returns to scale so that the model is constant with perfect competition. It also assumes that the economywide capital stock, K , positively affects output at the industry level, so that there may be increasing returns to scale at the economywide level.

Each firm's capital stock is expected to include its knowledge (A) which the model treats as learning by investing, hence the reason why growth depends on the rate of investment.

$$Y_i = A k_i^\alpha L_i^{1-\alpha} K^\beta$$

We assume symmetry across industries for simplicity, so each industry will use the same level of capital and labour. Then we have the aggregate production function:

$$Y = A k^{\alpha+\beta} L^{1-\alpha}$$

To make endogenous growth stand out clearly, we assume that A is constant rather than rising over time; that is we assume for now that there is no technological progress. With a little calculus, it may be shown that the resulting growth rate for per capita income in the economy would be

$$g - n = \beta n / (1 - \alpha - \beta)$$

where g is the output growth rate and n is the production growth rate.

Without spillovers as in the Solow model with constant returns to scale, $\beta=0$, and so per capita growth would be zero (without technological progress).

Romer assumes that taking the three factors together, including the capital externality, $\beta > 0$; thus $g-n > 0$, and Y/L is growing. Now we have endogenous growth, not driven exogenously by increases in productivity.

The Model

Following the Romer model of growth, we specify an output growth model but expand it to include fiscal policy effects with a linear functional form:

$$RGDP = f(T, O, GI, EX)$$

The equation therefore is given as:

$$RGDP = \alpha + \beta_1 T + \beta_2 O + \beta_3 GI + \beta_4 EX + \epsilon$$

Where

RGDP = real gross domestic product

T = trade tariffs

O = degree of openness

GI = government investments

Ex= export volume

Apriori , $\beta_1 > 0$, $\beta_2 < 0$, $\beta_3 > 0$ and $\beta_4 > 0$

The Data and Source

The data used for the study include the real GDP showing output level, trade tariffs which capture custom and excise duties paid on exports and imports, the degree of openness measured as the ratio of the sum of imports and exports to the cumulative real GDP, total government investments of government as well as the total volume of exports. The data were gotten from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin 2007. The time series data are for the period 1977 to 2007.

Estimation Results

The multiple linear regression technique is employed and from the results, all variables show a positive relationship, however, only the level of public investments and export volume are significant to explain changes in output level for the period. The explanatory power of the model (R^2) and the adjusted R^2 values are high at 79 and 76 percent respectively. The F-statistic of 24.7 shows a joint significant explanatory power, however there is the presence of serial correlation. To correct for this, the differenced values of the variables are used, however, none of the variables become significant. Conducting a unit root test, we find real GDP, trade tariffs, total public investments and export non-stationary at levels but stationary at 1st difference, however, openness is stationary at levels. Testing for cointegration, the Johansen cointegration test shows the existence of a stable long run relationship among the variables at the 5% level.

An error correction model is employed to correct for deviations from the long run equilibrium path, the result shows a positive error correction term of 0.0754486 so that real GDP has a value above its equilibrium and will require negative short run adjustments to return to equilibrium.

Conclusion

Fiscal policies which center on government revenue from taxes and government spending have large impacts on total output levels. The fact that we find the total export volume positively significant to explain variations in real gross domestic product for the period 1977 – 2007 is a call that fiscal policy efforts such as tax/tariff changes and subsidies towards promoting the volume of exports should be strengthened. Even though the trade taxes or tariffs are not significant, they are necessary to increase output and the positive relationship between them show that as custom duties increases, producers would find it more profitable to increase production but for the domestic market. Government expenditures on infrastructures improves the real GDP level and hence enhance economic growth and development owing from its significant and positive effect.

Recommendations/Policy Implications

- Fiscal policies towards export promotion should be enhanced and deliberate strategies towards effective promotion such as lowering export tariffs as well as tariffs on imported inputs should be implemented so as to increase total output.

- Special incentives should be given to export producers and farmers of exportable products so as to maintain a consistent increase in the volume of exports since an increase in the export share of total output significantly increases total output.
- There is also the issue of fiscal linkage such that government can capture large share of rent from the petroleum sector in the form of taxes and dividends and use the revenue to finance exports in other sectors (agriculture and manufacturing) towards increasing diversification of output.
- Public expenditures on infrastructures must get to the grassroots/rural areas where the bulk of agricultural farmers are based so as to increase their productivity and hence output.
- Relative subsidies in the form of preferential corporate income taxes that are lower than the average paid by other industries should be given to export manufacturers.

References

Adefeso H.A., Hakeem, M. and Salawu, B. (2010) 'Fiscal Policy and Economic Growth in Nigeria: Testing the Prediction of the Endogenous Growth Model' *The Social sciences* Volume 5 Issue 2 pp 96-102

Afonso, A., Gruner, H.P., and Kolerus, C. (2010) *Fiscal Policy and Growth : Do Financial Crisis Make a Difference* European Central Bank Working Paper Series No. 1217

Barro, R. J. (1990), *Government spending in a simple, model of endogenous growth.*

Journal of Political Economy 98(S5): 103-125.

Easterly, W. and Rebelo, S. (1993) 'Fiscal Policy and Economic Growth : An Empirical Investigation' *National Bureau of Economic Research* 1050, Massachusetts Avenue Cambridge

Gerson, P. (1998) 'The Impact of Fiscal Policy Variables on Output Growth' *International Monetary Fund Working Paper* WP/98/1

Gray, C., Lane, T. and Varoudakis, A. (2007) 'Fiscal Policy and Economic Growth- Lessons for Eastern Europe and Central Asia' *The World Bank*

Kappem, R. (2004), *Openness, Institutions and Policies: Determinant of Globalisation and Economic Growth in Developing Countries.*

Kneller R., Bleaney, M. and Gemmell, N. (1999) 'Fiscal policy and Growth: Evidence from OECD Countries' *Journal of Public Economics* Vol. 74, pp 171-190

Obi, O. (2007) 'Fiscal Policy and Poverty Alleviation: Some Policy Options for Nigeria' *AERC Research Paper* 164.

Romalis, J., 2006. *Market Access, Openness and Growth.* *NBER Working Paper* 13048.

Romer, C. D. and Romer, D. H. (2007) 'The Macroeconomic Effects of Tax Changes: Estimates Based on a New Measure of Fiscal Shocks' *NBER Working Paper* 13264

Skinner, J. (1988) 'Taxation and Output Growth in Africa' World Bank Policy Planning and Research Working Paper, WPS 73

Todaro, M. and Smith, S. (2007) 'Economic Development' Pearson Addison Wesley 10th Edition.

Zagler, M. Mecker, G. (2003) 'Fiscal Policy and Economic Growth' Journal of Economic Surveys Vol. 17, No.3

APPENDIX

Ordinary Least Squares Regression

Dependent Variable: Real Gross Domestic Product

Variable	Coefficient	T- Statistic	Standard Error	Probability
Trade Tariffs	1.3307	1.3948	0.540	0.1749
Openness	0.9942	1.2877	0.7720	0.2091
Public Investment	0.0542	2.0073	0.0270	0.0552
Export	0.0612	8.1064	0.0075	0.0000
C	167751.6	8.4267	19907.03	0.0000

E-views 4.1 Estimates

$R^2=0.79$ Adj $R^2=0.76$ F-stsat=24.7 Dw-Stat= 0.97 SE of regression= 80708.7

Unrestricted Co integration Rank Test (Lags: 1to 2)

Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigen value	Trace statistic	5% critical value	1% critical value
None	0.9985	502.23	68.52	76.07
At most 1	0.9978	320.07	47.21	54.46
At most 2	0.9852	148.37	29.68	35.65
At most 3	0.591545	30.31	15.41	20.04
At most 4	0.170608	5.24	3.76	6.65

E-Views 4.1 estimates

Trend Analysis of the NHIS Inflows in Ghana (2004-2007): Increasing Marginal Inflows or Diminishing Marginal Inflows? An implication for the Attainment of MDGs in Health

By

FRANCIS K. AGYEKUM,

Department of Banking and Finance

School of Business

Valley View University, Accra

ATO, A. MENDES

(An Alumnus of Valley View University)

Abstract

Health sector of most country is faced with myriad of problems of which financing is one of such challenges. The problems tend to be even more acute in developing economies like Ghana, and as such, service delivery in most developing countries is frustrated by a multiplicity of problem of which financing is one single most important challenge. From independence, Ghana has had 'free' health care, then to a full-cost recovery health delivery system known infamously as the 'cash-and-carry' system and recently, the health insurance mode of financing health care. Though since inception in 2004 the inflow into the insurance scheme has shown an increasing (upward) trend, the trend of this increase is neither a linear nor exponential, raising concern over the sustainability of the scheme. Using the available data from the National Health Insurance Council (from 2004-2007, tax sources only), and employing time-series models, a trend trends analysis which employs a simple autoregressive trend model using the NHIL in the current year (t) as the dependent variable (DV) with the one-year lagged of the NHIL inflow as the independent variable (IV). Like any time series model, the purpose is to account for the patterns in the past movements of the NHILs Inflows and based on that to predict future movement. The general outcome of the study indicated that the trend of the NHIS revenue inflow though upward, the rate of increase is diminishing, thereby confirming the hypothesis that the NHIS inflows thus far (for the years implemented) exhibits diminishing marginal flow. The policy concern is however that if this trend and pattern of inflow into the scheme is not checked, then the sustainability of the scheme would be challenged in future, thereby jeopardizing the health delivery in the country especially for the poor who can hardly afford an upfront out-of-pocket payment.

Background of the Study

Health sector financing is one major challenge faced by most countries, both developed and emerging. However the challenge is even more acute in the developing countries mostly in the sub-Saharan Africa. Though labour intensive, the equipment and general logistics needed to run efficiently normally makes the running quite expensive. The cost in health service delivery is exacerbated by the high cost of training a physician coupled with the fact of their exit to the already developed economies for better living standard, thereby depriving the country that trained them. The service delivery in most developing countries is frustrated by a multiplicity of problem of which financing is one single important challenge. There been has an age-old debate over who should pay for the health-related expenditures: is it government (who holds the national resource in trust) or the individual who receives it? To some people,

health is as a fundamental human right and an issue that bothers on life. Consequently, it is often argued that money must not be left to determine people's fate as far as health services are concerned.

However, in as much as the above argument may sound socially appealing to the general masses, others have argued that its sustainability could hardly be guaranteed. It's further argued that government's budget especially in developing economies cannot sustain a 'gross' subsidization for health services, if not a cross-subsidization to support the poor and the aged. In view of this, it is argued that individual user must be made to pay for the 'full cost' of health care received. 'User must pay', though sounds well from positive economic point of view, however, on normative grounds, it may not be the best option. This is so because what this implies is that people may lose their lives if they were to pay before receiving care.

At independence, Ghana was providing almost 'free' health care for the general public. It then shifted a full-cost recovery health delivery system known infamously as the 'cash-and-carry' system since 1985, whereby patients are required to pay up-front for health services at public clinics and hospitals. This 'user pay before care' came under attack by human right activist, especially where patients including pregnant mothers had to be 'detained' for non-payment of their bills. Due to its harsh impact, the 'cash and carry' was deemed *anti-poor*, therefore the need to replace that with a *pro-poor* health service delivery. Government of Ghana then came under severe pressure and therefore sought to replace the 'cash and carry' with a health insurance mode of financing health care, with the sole intention that the 'affluent will cross-subsidized for the poor and the aged'. As was remarked by the former president of Ghana when lunching the health insurance scheme in Accra, "Ghana is a poor country saddled with many problems, all demanding priority attention. The scheme is the solution for the health care sector and the only *viable alternative* to the *outdated* and *rigid system* of cash and carry," (Kufuor⁹, 2004 in Mends, 2008). Indeed not only did some people considered it outdated and rigid as observed by the former president, others deemed it an inhumane act that could ever be meted out to the people. Indeed the concerned of many was that the user-pay mode (cash and carry), had pushed health care far beyond the reach of the ordinary Ghanaian, and therefore the government needed through a levy (health insurance levy) to cater for health treatment of the aged, the poor as well as children of parents who have subscribe to the scheme. Proponents are of the view that, the Scheme as has been designed will offer affordable medical care, especially to the poor and vulnerable among Ghana's 20 million people.

The National Health Insurance Levy (NHIL) scheme was subsequently introduced in 2004 and intended to secure the provision of basic healthcare services to persons resident in the country through mutual and private health schemes. The levy which was pegged at the rate of two and one half percent (2.5%) is imposed on; i) every supply of goods and services made or provided in Ghana (domestic source) ii) every importation of goods; and iii) supply of any imported goods and services (*import source*) unless otherwise exempted under the National Health Insurance Act (Karim, 2006).

It was felt that the existing structures of the Value Added Tax services could be used to collect the NHIL since that to the authorities would make the collection a bit easier. The levy is payable at the time the goods and services are supplied or imported. Because the NHIL is collected and submitted under the same regime as Value-Added Tax ("VAT"), all rules and regulations applicable under VAT, is equally applicable to NHIL. The duty of collecting the National Health Insurance Levy (NHIL) has been added to

⁹ President John A. Kufour is the immediate past president of the Republic of Ghana. His comment was made when he was lunching the National Health Insurance in Accra. (*Lunching of the National Health Insurance Scheme; Retrieved September 17, 2007, from <http://www.IRINnews.org>*)

that of the Value Added Tax (VAT) secretariat for convenience and cost effectiveness as indicated earlier. However, the only difference between these two levies has to do with where the collected levy must be deposited. While the VAT collections are paid directly into the consolidated fund, the NHIL contributions are deposited in a separate account that is being handled by the National Health Insurance Council (NHIC) and only to be utilized for the implementation of the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS).

Literature Review

Health Sector Financing Strategies

Strategies for financing health care has received attention in the literature, especially those posited within health economics as an emerging discipline within the ambience of economics as a field of study. Jacobs (1997) acknowledges that 'there are three major methods of financing health care service, namely: out-of-pocket payment by consumers (patients), insurance premium and through taxation; and within each category there are a number of different financing techniques'.

Out of pocket payment could take the form of deductibles, co-payments, and full consumer payments. Financing through insurance Jacobs (1997) argues could take the form of insurance premium paid directly by the consumer, or paid by the employer or even by the government'. What Jacobs failed to acknowledge was the fact that the payment of the premium could jointly be made by the three identified groups namely the user (consumer), the employer and the government. With respect to the tax as a source of financing health care, Jacobs (1997) further explains that the tax can be levied income or on specific products or services.

In a broader sense, the financing modes could also be categorized into private (consumer and employer) and public (through tax revenues). However, each of these two broad categories has its own challenges and opportunities. Indeed this admission is to buttress the fact that financing and provision of service should not come from only one organization. For instance since some cost element are financed from tax revenues, it may allow government bodies more direction of health care system in the pursuits of societal objectives (Mends, 2008). In the collective purchaser of the care on the community's behalf, a public body can dictate terms of provision with equal power to both public and private providers.

In the case of private sector health care financing, the insurance company covers specific risks of ill-health to the consumer and incurs the consequential expense of health care. The consumer pays a premium which might cover the use of all approved health. This premium is paid either in full by the consumer or shared by their employer. The individuals pay the premium out of pocket system. Under this system the doctors could discriminate between groups on the basis of ability to pay, so that everybody would be able to afford the charge. Consumers are able to purchase additional health care insurance according to their own preferences and, of course, the ability to pay.

The fact that each of the identified modes of financing health care will impact differently on groups with different characteristics such as ones income level or family size has also received attention in the literature. For instance it has been argued that the burden of insurance premium that are paid out of pocket by the consumer will fall on the consumer directly, (Jacobs, 1997 p 282). Perhaps the tax as financing strategy may have a direct toll on the government fiscal budget but indirect burden on the ultimate payers of such taxes.

The recognition has also been given to the fact that each of these financing methods has cost implications. Jacobs indicated that "in the case of private insurance, there are the costs of marketing, rating alternative consuming groups, paying providers, and monitoring utilization". The cost of collecting taxes and

administering public programs may be the cost if the public were to finance it through tax, (Jacobs, 1997 p 283).

The Concept of Health Insurance: Types and Forms

“Healthcare insurance is a risk pooling arrangement by which the cost of healthcare to any single individual in the society, whether rich or poor, becomes a collective responsibility of all the people in the society” (Donaldson & Gerard, 1993). The health insurance as a health sector financing strategy occurs in a situation in which a fund which allows everybody to contribute into it so that in the event of illness contributors could be supported by the fund to receive affordable healthcare in the health facilities is created.

The health insurance as a concept has been in the economics and health literature for some time now. For instance recounting some of the challenges in the health insurance as a way of financing health care, Arrows (1963), identified two problems; moral hazard and adverse selection. He argued that the moral hazard may occur in two forms: i) when patients may choose to visit care centre on any frivolous reason, and as he doesn't miss a word on this when he indicated that; “it is frequently observed that medical insurance increases the demand for medical care” Arrows, 1963; ii) when the physicians knowing that there exist an insurance may decide to exploit the system to their advantage by either charging a higher fee or inducing demand where there may not be a genuine ailment. As observed by Arrow, (1963) “needless to say, it is far from perfect check, the physician themselves are not under any control and it may be convenient for them or pleasing to their patients to prescribe more expensive medication, private nurse, more frequent treatment and other marginal variation of care”.

Indeed, the idea of insurance in health care is to redistribute income from the group of subscribers who have low propensity and exposure to fall sick to the very people who have higher risk and exposure to get sick; the fact which has been acknowledged by some authors including Arrow, (1963). In the case of Ghana the National health Insurance was established to provide an opportunity for all Ghanaians to have equal access to the functional structure of health care. It is not to move Ghanaians from an unaffordable ‘cash and carry’ (out-of-pocket payment) regime to another unaffordable health insurance one as was contained in *Annual Health Sector Review (2003)*.

However, the issue of whether insurance in the health care sector would ensure cross-subsidization has been changed, that would depend on whether the provider is a private-for-profit or state provider, if not coordinator. Hsiao, (1995) contends that for-profit-insurance plan and HMOs tailor their products to low-risk customers and to those who can afford it. He further argued that such providers target only the affluent and the large employer groups in order to avoid adverse selection. When that happens then the elderly, the disabled and the chronically ill, the unemployed, the poor, worker in unrecognized sectors and perhaps farmers may be neglected.

Most of the literature on the health insurance have attempted to analyse the sustainability of the scheme mostly from the point of view of the behaviour of users (adverse selection) and physician inducing demand (moral hazard) (Arrow, 1963). What these existing literatures have failed to do is to perform a sustainability test based not only on the source of the inflows but also the magnitude as well as the rate of change of the flow into the scheme. The issue of whether the trend of flows into the scheme exhibits increasing or diminishing marginal flow, and using that as a check on the long-term sustainability of the scheme has received little if not no attention; the gap this paper seeks to fill.

Problem Definition and Research Question

The need for a more sustainable mode of health sector financing has been acknowledged by the authorities and health experts in Ghana; hence the introduction of NHIL. However the sustainability or otherwise of the NHIS in Ghana whose implementation started in 2004 to a greater extent depends on the *trend* and *pattern* of the revenue flow into the scheme, among others. Like any tax administration operating in the country, there are a couple of challenges that pose a threat to the smooth implementation of the levy, especially with regards to inflows into the scheme. It is in the light of this that the paper wants to find out if ‘the inflows into the (NHIL) scheme show ever *increasing marginal* tax (revenue) or *diminishing marginal* inflow’; by analyzing the trend of flow of funds from collection agencies into the scheme. In view of this, the paper wants to find answers to the following research questions:

- does the net inflows into the scheme show an increasing marginal inflows or a diminishing marginal inflows over time?

Objectives of the Research

The main objective of this paper is to critically examine the pattern and trend of flow of funds into the scheme and determine whether the national health insurance scheme is sustainable in the long-run given the sources and trend of inflows into the scheme since its inception.

Specifically however, the objective is to:

- * analyze the trend of the NHIL inflows (since its inception to date), in order to establish whether or not it exhibits an *increasing* or *diminishing marginal revenue* of NHIS inflows.
- * examine the pattern of the sources of the inflows into the scheme determine whether the scheme is sustainable or otherwise

i) Limitation and Delimitation of the Study

The main challenge posed as far as this study is concerned has to do with the scanty nature of the data available. This is the case due to the short period of time in since establishment of the scheme. This indeed has the danger of leading to a biased if not false conclusion especially when that has an impact on the degree of freedom.

To overcome this limitation, the researcher attempted two approaches one of which proved pretty successful. First, an attempt was made to get the monthly contributions of the inflows which would have yielded a data series of 36, given the four-year period. This was however not possible due partly to the irregular manner of the levy flow into the scheme. The Council could only aggregate the figures into an annual figure.

The second approach employed to ensure that the findings be acceptable was the choice of the test-statistic. The *t-statistic* is often used in situations where the sample size falls below thirty (30), in order to reduce the bias of the study. Indeed this proved successful to some extent, but the researcher wishes to add that this is a preliminary study in order to establish early caution where necessary.

Methodology

Two main system of equations are employed; first the *trend* (time-series analysis) and the other equations showing *patterns*. The trends analysis employs a simple *autoregressive trend model* using the NHIL in the current year (t) as the dependent variable (DV) with the one-year lagged of the NHIL inflow as the independent variable (IV). (However, to further extrapolate to give us a more accurate outcome of this

model, logarithmic autoregressive trend model has also been employed.) Like any *time series model*, the purpose is to account for the patterns in the past movements of the NHILs Inflows and based on that to *predict* future movement. The other systems of equations which depict the *pattern* (sustainability) of the flow of the NHIL inflows would certainly employ a simple *linear trend model* (as well as *logarithmic linear trend model* for emphasis) with the total NHIL inflows, symbolized by Y_t (and log of the total NHIL revenue) respectively, as dependent variables and time (years of the inflows, 't') as the independent variable.

i) Data Source

A time series data is being employed in this study as it relates to a specified time horizon. This is so because the focus is on analyzing the *trend* of collection of the NHIS revenue over a period of time. Indeed the data source is secondary which was gathered from *alreadyexisting* data from the National Health Insurance head office.

Model Specification

The econometric model that has been estimated was mainly an autoregressive trend model *generally* specified as:

$$NHIL(Y_t) = f(Y_{t-1}) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where the Y_t is the NHIL inflow at the period current (t) and the explanatory variable is the NHIL inflows lagged (Y_{t-1}). Indeed this is a linear autoregressive model which is commonly used as a simple means of forecasting following Pindyck & Rubinfeld (1991; pg 423).

Specifically, *the autoregressive model* to estimate is given below:

$$NHIL(Y_t) = \alpha + \beta(Y_{t-1}) + (e_t) \dots \dots \dots (1a)$$

β ; represents the rate of change of the NHIL revenue inflow (Y) series, which if β turns out to be unity (*i.e.*, $\beta=1$), then the extrapolated series of NHIL is expected to increase by the same absolute amount each time period. However, if the β is less than 1 but greater than zero (thus, $0 < \beta < 1$), then the extrapolated series is expected to increase but at a diminishing rate; and if the β is greater than 1 ($\beta > 1$), then there would be an *exponential* increase in the extrapolated series in the NHIL revenue.

The *linear trend model* estimated is specified generally as:

$$NHIL(Y_t) = f(t) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

However, the specific model is shown below as:

$$NHIL(Y_t) = \delta + \alpha t + (e_t) \dots \dots \dots (2a)$$

A. Hypothesis:

The main hypothesis to be tested is:

- there is diminishing marginal NHIL inflow (revenue) overtime. This implies that the assumption about the β in equations (1a) follows strictly: ($0 < \beta < 1$).

Therefore;

Null hypothesis; H_0 ; $\beta > 1$; (indicating increasing diminishing returns to the NHIS-inflows)

Alternative hypothesis; H_1 ; $0 < \beta < 1$ (there is diminishing marginal NHIL inflow (revenue) overtime)

Findings and Discussion

Data Presentation and Analysis

The data gathered were accurate and objective information from the official in-charge of the documentation of the National Health Insurance levy returns (*see attached*). Data was gathered on the actual annual revenue for the periods in question.

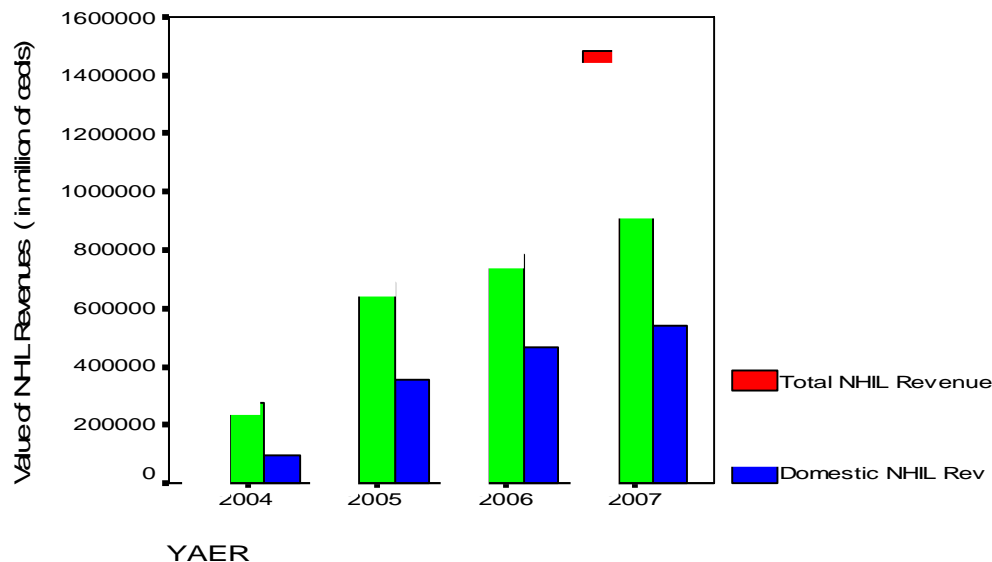
Table 1: Revenue (NHIL) Collections and their Sources

YEAR (A)	IMPORT (NHIL) B	DOMESTIC (NHIL)) C	TOTAL REVENUE (NHIL)D=(B+C)¢ (mil)	Marginal inflow NHIL:E=ΔD/ΔA
	¢ (Million)	¢ (Million)		
2004	273,500,000	94,640,000	368,140,000	0
2005	688,010,000	352,430,000	1,040,440,000	672,300,000
2006	781,850,000	465,610,000	1,247,460,000	207,020,000
2007	946,900,000	538,100,000	1,485,000,000	237,540,000

Source: National Health Insurance Council (2008).

The above Table 1 shows the National Health Insurance Levy (revenue) inflows annually collected from Importation of goods and services (Import NHIL) and revenue annually collected from the local market (Domestic NHIL¹⁰), for the specified periods in question (that is, 2004 to 2007). The import NHIL and the domestic NHIL are summed up each year to get the Total NHIL which has been used for the analysis of this study. The figure 1 below also gives a pictorial view of the two main sources into the scheme and their sum over the four (4)-year period.

Figure 1: Graphical Presentation of the Revenue Inflows of NHIL (Between 2004 and 2007)



The value of NHIL is measured on the vertical axis whereas the years also measured on the horizontal axis. Using bars of fixed width drawn above each year label, the height of the bars are extended until it reached the value of NHIL revenue of the year as indicated by the vertical axis. The import NHIL revenue (represented by the green-coloured bars) is obviously higher than the domestic

¹⁰ This excludes the direct deductions from the SSNIT sources for the formal sector employees.

NHIL revenue (which is represented by the blue-coloured bars). The bars are separated to emphasize the fact that each year is a separate category. The figure clearly shows that the revenue collected from the import NHIL revenue source exceeds the domestic NHIL revenue source. As a result, a fall in importation of goods and services into the country would to some greater extent lead to a substantial fall in the total NHIL revenue to be collected for that particular year in question.

In 2005, the VAT service collected ¢ 1,040,440 million over the 2004 figure of ¢ 368,140 million; the year in which the NHIL was first introduced into the country. The implication of the poor performance in the first year was partly because of the fact that most people had not received much education on the levy from the National Health Insurance Council, the Value Added Tax (VAT) service and the Custom Excise and Preventive Services (CEPS) who were responsible for the collection.

Statistical Analysis and Inferences of the Estimated Equations

i) The Estimated Regression: The Auto-regression Model

$$NHIL(Y_t) = 520300.3 + 0.7755Y_{t-1} \dots \dots \dots (1a)$$

(170354.9878) (0.204557803)

Table 1A (in the appendix) shows the autoregressive equation results. The regression coefficients of **520300.3** for the *intercept* and **0.77553** for the *independent variable* (lagged NHIL inflow) are significant as can be seen from the *t-statistic* and the probability *P-value*. At the 0.05 level of significance, β_1 is *not* equal to unity (one) but rather is found to be between zero and one ($0 < \beta < 1$) i.e; with $\beta = 0.7755$. The statistical evidence is sufficient to deduce that the *trend* of the inflow of NHIL revenue show **diminishing marginal revenue inflow**. This therefore implies that a changes in NHIL revenue (in absolute terms) increases but at a decreasing rate.

The statistical significance has confirmed that at 5% (one-tailed) level of significance the *null hypothesis* that the $\beta > 1$ can be rejected, and therefore accept the alternative hypotheses that the inflow of NHIL exhibits diminishing marginal revenue over *time* as depicted by the figures 2, 2a and 2b below. However, it must be noted here that given the small size of the sample (n) number of years available which was used, the degree of freedom is woefully small and therefore could (and as a matter of fact might) have influenced the significance level. Notwithstanding, the observed pattern really depicts the real trend of the NHIL revenue (collected by the two revenue agencies: CEPS and VAT) since its inception as could be seen from the figures. Though the *beta* is between zero and one ($0 < \beta < 1$), the fact that it is closer to the one (1) than it is to zero (0) would mean that the decreasing marginal NHIS trend is not to be an ever decreasing one. This explains why the marginal NHIL revenue (over time) though diminishing, shows an upward turning point at point *Y* on figure 2(a). This indeed gives some kind of a lean window of hope for the scheme in that the *saturation* point may not necessarily be expected any soon; otherwise **S-curved** pattern would have been observed. Thus, the curve may not diminish absolutely as that would mean the MR (NHIL) curve would fall towards the *negative* zone. With adequate data as the years roll by, the *sustainability* could properly be tested using the observe *volatility* (risk) analysis in which case the fluctuation could be diagnosed either as a real cyclical trend or otherwise.

Fig. 2: Depicting observed Trend of the (Absolute) NHIL inflow from years (2004-2007)

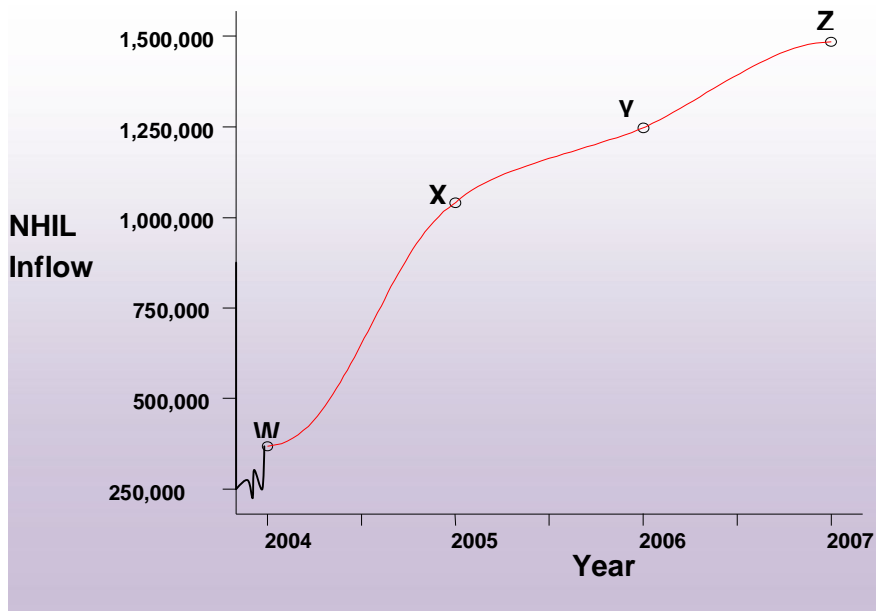


Fig. 2(a): Depicting observed *Pattern* of the (Marginal) NHIL inflow over time (2004-2007)

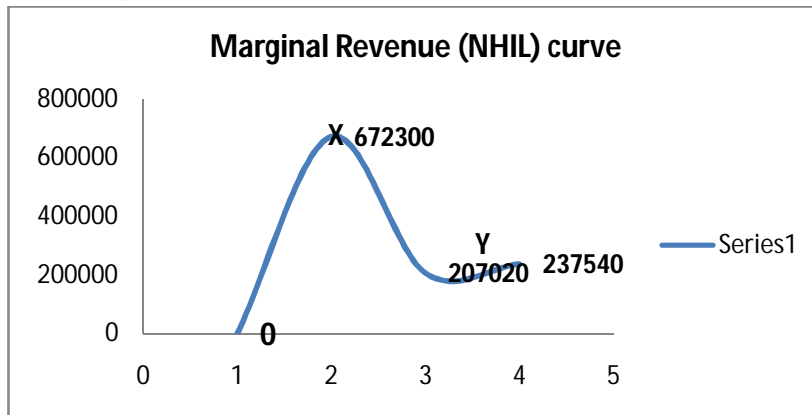
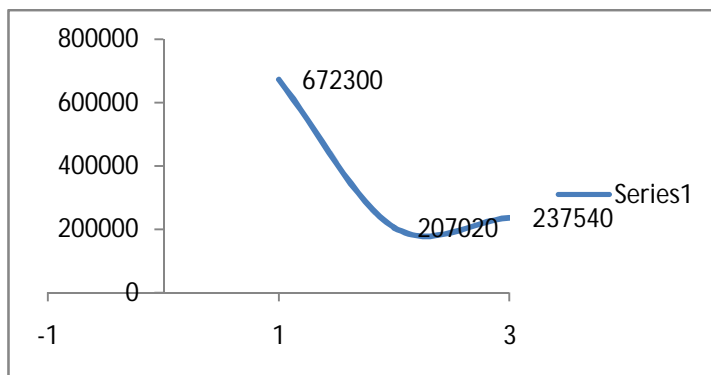


Fig. 2(b): Depicting diminishing Pattern of the (Marginal) NHIL inflow over time (2004-2007)



ii) **Regression LinerTrendModel**

$$\text{NHIL}(\hat{Y}_t) = 145860 + 355760t \dots \dots \dots (2a')$$

$$(211326.075) (77165.372)$$

From equation (2a), the NHIL revenue (denoted by Y_t) be related positively to the year of collection (denoted by t). In the study, every value of t (year of collection) is associated with a corresponding value of Y (yearly NHIL revenue) as was shown in the table 1. This has been estimated in 2a' above; with (e_t) which is the error term. The error term accounts for the variability in Y_t which cannot be explained by the explanatory variables. Assuming the expected value of e_t is zero following *classical linear regression model (CLRM) assumption*, then it means that the expected value of Y_t , denoted by $E(Y_t)$, is given as ($\delta + \alpha t$), and from equation 2a', this is given as $E(\hat{Y}_t) = 145860 + 355760t$. The error term is assumed to have zero mean and constant variance, also following the classical linear regression model.¹¹ The tableA (3) in the appendix clearly shows the multiple 'R' which gives the sample correlation of 0.956 and the coefficient of determination (*R-square*) of .914 (91.4%) with the standard error 172547.0173. With a coefficient of determination (*R-square*) of .914(91.4%), one can infer that about 91.4% of the *variability* in the amount of revenue collected can be explained by the linear effect of the *timeperiod* for which the scheme has been implemented.

Table A (4); shows the regression coefficients. The regression coefficients of 145860 for the intercept and 355760 for the independent variable population are significant. They show that the estimated regression equation is $\hat{Y} = 145860 + 355760t$. At the 0.05 level of significance if β_1 is not equal to zero. The statistical evidence is sufficient to conclude that the relationship between the years and the inflow of NHIL revenue is significant. From the study it is established that an annual increases in the year (ie by 1) is likely to cause an increase in the NHIL revenue by ₦355760 million. This indeed could be used to make a projection into the future.

TableA4 at the appendix shows the population correlation coefficient which describes the measure of the strength of the linear association between the two variables, t (year) and Y_t (NHIL revenue inflow). The slope of the estimated regression equation is positive (table 3, i.e., sample correlation coefficient, +.956). The strength of the correlation is also seen in the fact that the correlation coefficient is close to +1 i.e. +0.956 indicating strong positive correlation between years of the inflows and the inflows that result as the years roll by. The test of statistic shows a significance level at two tailed test as .044. This finding provides the statistical evidence necessary to deduced that there is a significant linear relationship between year and revenue (NHIL) collected.

Conclusion

This preliminary study into the revenue inflow pattern and trend of the National Health Insurance Scheme has revealed a very important unless the drastic measures are taken to step up the domestic source to complement the import source, the scheme's sustainability would certainly be challenged. This especially so because the inflow into the scheme exhibit *diminishing marginal revenue* over the short period that the scheme has been in place.

References

Anderson, D.R., Sweeney, D.J., Williams, T. A., (1996). Statistics for Business and Economics. New York: West Publishing Company

¹¹ One of the key assumptions underlying the CLARM is that the error term has a constant variance and zero mean implying a normal distribution.

- Annual Health Sector Review, (2003) Retrieved October 24, 2007. www.ghanahealthservice.org*
- Arrows, K. J. (1963) Uncertainties and the Welfare Economics of Medical Care. The American Economic Review (December, 1963)
- Donaldson, C. and Gerard, K., (1993) *Economics of Health Care Financing the Visible Hand*. London: the Macmillan Press Ltd
- Hsiao, W.C. (1995) *Comparing Health Care Systems: What Nations Can Learn from One another*. Harvard University
- (1995) *Abnormal Economics in the Health Sector*. *Health Policy* 32 (1995) 125-139 Harvard University
- IRIN, (2004). Ghana National health insurance scheme launched. Retrieved September 17, 2007, from <http://www.IRINnews.org/>
- Jacobs, P (1997). The Economics of Health and Medical Care (4th ed.); *An ASPEN Publication*.
- Karim, S.S., (2006). A report on the effectiveness of Value Added Tax and National Health Insurance Levy in the Republic of Ghana. Retrieved September 17, 2007, from <http://www.ghanatax.com>.
- Mends, A.A. (2008): Analysis of the Trend of National Health Insurance Levy from 2004 to 2007
- Nketia, F. and Berkoh, Y., (2001). The National Health Insurance Scheme; private vs. government enterprise a time for choosing. Retrieved October 24, 2007, from <http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/features/artikel>.
- Pindyck, R. S. & Rubinfeld, D. L (1991): Smoothing and extrapolation of time series. *Econometric Models and Economic Forecasts*. 3rd edition pg 423 McGraw. Hill Co.
- PriceWaterhouse Coopers, (2007). A quick guide to Ghana Taxation. Retrieved October 24, 2007, from www.pwc.com.gh
- Public Notice 9 (PN9), VAT Retail Scheme. Accra: Ghana Publishing Cooperation
- Republic of Ghana: Internal Revenue Act (Act 592), 2000. Accra: Ghana Publishing Cooperation
- VAT, (2004). VAT exemptions. Retrieved December 2, 2007. www.vat.gh

Appendix: Regression Equations Estimates

Table: A (1). Result of the NHIL Equation (1a) thus: Autoregressive Model

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t- Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>
Intercept	520300.3	170354.9878	3.054212401	0.092559
Y_(t-1)	0.77553	0.204557803	3.791251178	0.063062

Dependent: (Y_t) variable is NHIL revenue

<i>Regression Statistics</i>	
Multiple R	0.936938
R-Square	0.877852
Adjusted R Square	0.816778
Standard Error	205635.2
Observations	4

Table: A(2). Regression Result of Log of the NHIL Equation; Log of Autoregressive Model

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t- Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>Lower 95%</i>	<i>Upper 95%</i>
Intercept	5.5615	0.0539	103.1280	0.0009	5.3295	5.79358
logYt-1	0.0907	0.01055857	8.5969	0.0133	0.045342	0.1362

Dependent Variable: log NHIL inflows

Table: A (3) A Test for Significant Using Correlation

		YEAR (t)	NHIL INFLOW
Year (t)	Pearson Correlation	1	.956(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.044
	N	4	4
NHIL Inflow	Pearson Correlation	.956(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.044	-
	N	4	4

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

Table A (4): Estimated Regression: Linear Trend Model

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-statistic	(P-value 5%) Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta(β)		
	(Constant)	145860.000	211326.075		.690	.561
	Year (t)*	355760.000	77165.372	.956	4.610	.044

Coefficients (β), and the dependent Variable: NHIL Inflow

	R-Square		Std. Error of the Estimate
R (0.956)	(.914)	Adjusted R Square (.871)	(172,547.01736)

* Variable is significant at 5% level.

Year= (t+i)	A	B	tY*	Y*(t+i)
1	145860	355760	355760	501,620
2	145860	355760	711520	857380
3	145860	355760	1067280	1213140
4	145860	355760	1423040	1568900
5	145860	355760	1778800	1924660

6	145860	355760	2134560	2280420
7	145860	355760	2490320	2636180
8	145860	355760	2846080	2991940
9	145860	355760	3201840	3347700
10	145860	355760	3557600	3703460

Where i=the year number in question from year t=2007

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND ERADICATION OF POVERTY AND HUNGER IN NIGERIA.

By

Dada, Samuel Olajide

Department of Accounting

Owolabi, Sunday Ajao

Bursary Department, Babcock University, Ilisan Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.

Abstract

In September 2000, leaders from one hundred and eighty nine (189) countries signed the Millennium Declaration which focused on eight (8) Millennium Development Goals, which included poverty reduction. This study assessed the implementation of the millennium development goals of the Federal Government of Nigeria using Ikenne and Sagamu Local governments in Ogun State as case study. The study evaluated the impact of Millennium Development Goals programmes, such as provision of pipe borne water, public health facilities, and employment generation on the standard of living of the citizens of these Local Governments. Fifty (50) people were randomly selected from three major towns in Ikenne Local Government and one hundred (100) from Sagamu Local Government and questionnaire were administered on them to collect information on how they perceived the effect of the programmes on their wellbeing. Physical observation was also carried out to gather information about the location of millennium development goals projects and their impact on the people living in the area. Data collected were analysed using simple averages to test the effects of these projects on the living standard of the people. The study concluded that no significant contribution was made by the programme to eradicate poverty and hunger due to the fact that, most of the boreholes sunk in the area could not function well because of unstable electricity to power them, the few health institutions in the area are not equipped with adequate drugs and personnel as well as increase in unemployment due to closure of some small scale businesses. Based on the above conclusions, government is advised to pay proper attention to the decayed social infrastructures and provide conducive environment for small businesses to survive to reduce unemployment.

Keywords: Poverty Reduction, Hunger, Social Amenities

Introduction

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) originated from the Millennium Declaration produced by the United Nations. The Declaration asserts that every individual has the right to dignity, freedom, equality, a basic standard of living that includes freedom from hunger and violence, and encourages tolerance and solidarity. The MDGs were made to operationalize these ideas by setting targets and indicators for poverty reduction in order to achieve the rights set forth in the Declaration on a set fifteen-year timeline. (Shahani, 2009)

The MDGs focus on three major areas of Human development (humanity): bolstering human capital, improving infrastructure, and increasing social, economic and political rights, with the majority of the focus going towards increasing basic standards of living. The objectives chosen within the human capital focus include improving nutrition, healthcare (including reducing levels of child mortality, HIV/AIDS,

tuberculosis and malaria, and increasing reproductive health), and education. For the infrastructure focus, the objectives include improving infrastructure through increasing access to safe drinking water, energy and modern information/ communication technology; amplifying farm outputs through sustainable practices; improving transportation infrastructure; and preserving the environment. Lastly, for the social, economic and political rights focus, the objectives include empowering women, reducing violence, increasing political voice, ensuring equal access to public services, and increasing security of property rights. The goals chosen were intended to increase an individual's human capabilities and "advance the means to a productive life". The MDGs emphasize that individual policies needed to achieve these goals should be tailored to individual country's needs; therefore most policy suggestions are general. (United Nations, 2006)

Conceptual Framework

The MDGs came into existence in September 2000 at the United Nations Millennium Summit held in New York. It is aimed at reducing the number of people who lived on less than a dollar in year 2015 by pursuing the following eight objectives:

Goals 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education

Goal 3; Promote equality and empower women

Goal 4; Reduce child mortality

Goal 5; Improve maternal health

Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDs, Malaria and other diseases.

Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability.

Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development (FRN, 2006).

Goal number one, that is, eradication of extreme poverty and hunger is the focus of this study. The targets of this goal are as stated below:

Target 1A: Halve the proportion of people living on less than \$1 a day

Target 1B: Achieve Decent Employment for Women, Men, and Young People

Target 1C: Halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

Poverty has been defined differently by many authors and researchers. For instance, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (6th edition) defined poverty as the state of being poor. While it defined being poor as having little money or not having enough money for basic needs. Poverty line is the official level of income necessary to be able to buy the basic things you need such as food, clothes and shelter. Poverty has been described by the World Bank in terms of the inability of a person to earn a daily income of \$1; not having access to safe drinking water; poor health services; having high rate of illiteracy and high infant mortality rate.

Despite its enormous natural and human resource endowments, Nigeria has been experiencing daunting challenges in implementing policies that will ensure the achievement of millennium development goals.

According to Igbuzor (2006), Nigeria, which was one of the richest 50 countries in the early 1970s, has retrogressed to become one of the 25 poorest countries at the threshold of the twenty first century. To him, it is ironic that Nigeria is the sixth largest exporter of oil and at the same time host the third largest number of poor people after China and India. Statistics show that the incidence of poverty using the rate

of US \$1 per day increased from 28.1 percent in 1980 to 46.3 percent in 1985 and declined to 42.7 percent in 1992 but increased again to 65.6 percent in 1996. The incidence increased to 69.2 percent in 1997. The 2004 report by the National Planning Commission indicates that poverty has decreased to 54.4 percent. Igbuzor (2006), went further to say that Nigeria fares very poorly in all development indices. He said

the average annual percentage growth of GDP in Nigeria from 1990 -2000 was 2.4. This is very poor when compared to Ghana (4.3) and Egypt (4.6). Poverty in Nigeria is in the midst of plenty. Although there has been steady economic growth in the last few years, there are doubts whether the benefits are evenly distributed especially to the poor and excluded. Nigeria is among the 20 countries in the world with the widest gap between the rich and the poor. The Gini index measures the extent to which the distribution of income (or in some cases consumption expenditure) among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution. A Gini index of zero represents perfect equality while an index of 100 implies perfect inequality. Nigeria has one of the highest Gini index in the world. The Gini index for Nigeria is 50.6. This compares poorly with other countries such as India (37.8), Jamaica (37.9), Mauritania (37.3) and Rwanda (28.9).

According to the World Bank Report(2001), Nigeria had 31% of her people earning less than \$1; 87/1000 infant mortality; 43% of the people have no access to safe drinking water while 51% have no access to good health services.

In the words of Nnanna (2001), poverty is a global phenomenon which threatens the survival of mankind. 1996 was declared as the international year for eradication of poverty by the United Nations while October 17 every year has been chosen as the international day for eradication of poverty. This attests to the fact that poverty eradication is a worldwide concern.

According to Ogwumike (2001), poverty rate in 1980 was 27%; 46% in 1985; 42% in 1992; 67% in 1996 while it moved up to about 70% in 1999. As a result of this alarming rate, the Federal government budgeted N10billion for poverty reduction programme in 2000 while it was increased by 150% in 2001. In spite of these efforts, not much has been achieved in reducing poverty.

Ogwumike (2001), said various poverty reduction strategies during National Development era include the River Basin Development Authorities; the Agricultural Development Programmes; Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme; Rural Banking Programme and Operation Feed the Nation. All these programmes succeeded in the short run but could not be sustained as a result of changes in government policies by subsequent administrations.

Poverty alleviation programmes like Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Better Life Programme; Peoples Bank; Community Bank; Family Support Programme and Family Economic Advancement Programme did not also address the problem of poverty.

Nzekwu (2006) said poverty situation in Nigeria is a paradox. It is a rich country inhabited by poor people. The country is richly endowed with human and material resources but the unhealthy state of the economy has caused high poverty rate. He said the worsening poverty situation has been traced to poor

and inconsistent macroeconomic policies, weak diversification of the economic base, gross economic mismanagement, and persistent structural bottleneck in the economy among other factors.

The Nature of Poverty in Nigeria

Poverty is a phenomenon that affects majority of Nigerian populace. Over the last ten years, quality of life of the average Nigerian citizen has progressively declined. It is so endemic that people have started seeing it as part of their lot in life. Many research studies have exposed the dimensions and the extent of poverty in Nigeria. For example Anger, (2010), reveals how sharply the per capita income of Nigerians has dropped from a high of over 1,280 dollars in 1980 to a low dollar in 1995. This and other studies generally paint a grim picture of a nation trapped in a vortex of abject and abnormal poverty and declining productivity.

The Nigerian situation becomes more pathetic when compared with other less endowed developing countries in Africa and other parts of the third world. Findings by Anger, (2010) show, for example, that Nigeria's per capita income of \$240 in 1990 was well below the average of over \$500 for sub-Saharan Africa.

The figure for Nigeria was far less than those for Botswana (\$3210), Cote d' Ivoire (\$6600), Egypt (\$1,080), South Africa (\$3,500), Mauritius (\$3,710).

Edoh (2003), affirm that Nigeria is even rated in terms of percentage of population earning less than one dollar per day for randomly selected years. The extent of poverty in the nation becomes even more alarming when a critical look is taken at the general income of the workers in the public service. The situation the Nigerian workers have found themselves in wage administration has necessitated most of the corrupt practices in the country's public service. The severity of poverty in Nigeria is equally glaring when other indicators of services and development are considered. The Vision 2010 Committee Report reveals that:

- *50% of Nigerians live below the poverty line.

- *Only about 40% have access to safe drinking water;

- *About 85% of the urban population lives in single houses with more than seven (7) occupants on the average.

- *Only about 62% of Nigerians have access to primary health care.

- *Most Nigerians take less than one-third of the minimum required protein and vitamins (Edoh, 2003).

Poverty in Nigeria, a country with over 140 million people is all encompassing. The scourge has also shown a rising tendency in the past couple of decades accounting for the nations low development indicators and its ranking along side the poorest nations in the world. The majority of Nigeria's population lives in poverty with insufficient income to cover minimum standards of food, water, shelter, medical care and schooling (United Nations, 2001).

Anger, (2010) believed that Nigeria's incidence of high poverty is revealed by low levels of human capability with inadequate access to sanitation (54%) and portable water (62%) as well as low life expectancy at birth (52 years). Paradoxically, a country with rich natural and agricultural resources and good poverty reduction programmes such as Family Economic Advancement Programme and National Poverty Eradication Programme, has failed to improve the living standards of its citizens.

The question is; why are Nigerians poor despite these laudable poverty reduction programmes and resources at the disposal of government? To summarily give the answer, Edoh (2003) identifies the following as some of the causes of poverty in Nigeria:

- >Corruption and embezzlement
- >Poor Leadership
- >Lack of comprehensive National Poverty Alleviation
- >Lack of sound agricultural policy and protracted neglect of the sector.
- >Lack of basic infrastructures
- >Rapid population growth
- >Excessive internal and external debt burden.

MDGs and Poverty Eradication: The Nigerian Experience

Nigeria like other countries at the UN Millennium Summit that gave birth to the MDGs, launched her own version of the MDGs poverty reduction or eradication programme. This and other programmes targeted at achieving MDGs are contained in the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS 2004) document. In fact, NEEDS has 'poverty reduction' as its third actionable goal. To reduce poverty, NEEDS has set the following broad targets:

- *Increase average per capita consumption by at least 2 per cent a year.
- *Create about 7 million jobs by 2007.
- *Increase immunization coverage to 60 per cent by 2007.
- *Increase the percentage of the population with access to safe drinking water to at least 70 per cent by 2007.
- *Significantly increase school enrolment rates, especially for girls, and increase the adult literacy rate to at least 65 per cent by 2007.
- *Significantly improve access to sanitation (NEEDS 2004). It is disheartening to discover that the Nigerian government did not meet these targets as contained in the policy document. Statistics reveal that Nigerians (especially the common man on the street) do not have access to safe drinking water, primary health care and the rate of unemployment is increasing on a daily basis. This paints an abnormal picture of the failure of NEEDS as a poverty reduction policy.

In line with the policy thrust of NEEDS, the government set up the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) to tackle the challenges of poverty. But since the establishment of NAPEP, no tangible result has been achieved.

The general impression is that NAPEP has failed the country because the poverty rate is still high. It is gathered that the agency has received a total of 11.8 billion naira but it has nothing to show for it (Guardian 2009).

The local governments, in collaboration with their State governments, are not helping matters either. There are reported cases of misappropriation and diversion of budgetary allocations that are meant to efficiently tackle some of the challenges of poverty in the country. The revelation from the Probe by the House Committee on

Power and Steel into the National Integrated Power Project (NIPP) of the former President Obasanjo's administration buttresses the fact that intention on the pages of paper is not enough to tackle the scourge

of poverty in this country. The probe revealed that over 10 billion US dollars was said to have been spent on the NIPP without any result to show for it (TELL Magazine, 2008).

By and large, the poverty reduction or alleviation programme of the government via the instrumentality of the MDGs and NEEDS have not successfully tackled the challenges of poverty in the country. This study is therefore to examine the impact of the MDGs in reducing poverty in four major towns in Remo Division of Ogun State.

Methodology

Survey research method was adopted in this study. The four major towns in Remo Division of Ogun State, (Sagamu, Ikenne, Ilishan and Iperu) were selected for the study. A twenty five questions questionnaire was designed and administered on fifty (50) residents of Ikenne, Ilishan and Iperu while one hundred respondents were selected in Sagamu. The respondents were systematically selected to take care of residents living close to the location of the MDG projects in the four towns for easy access to the people who are direct beneficiaries of the projects.

Oral interviews were conducted to gather information from those that were not able to read or write.

Results of the responses are summarised bellow using tables and simple averages and percentages.

Data Analysis

Out of the two hundred and fifty (250) questionnaires administered on the selected respondents, only two hundred and forty four (244) were returned but two hundred and thirty six (236) or ninety four (94%) were fully completed and analysed for the purpose of this study. 126 were male while 110 were women; 55% of the respondents are self employed and are holders of at least primary school leaving certificate, while the remaining 45% are employees of business organisations and educational institutions. 82% said they were aware of the MDGs while 18% said they do not know anything about the programme. All the respondents in the four towns selected for the study confirmed that they have access to hospital/ maternity clinics but 74% of them said they only have access to privately owned hospitals/ clinics while only 26% said, though they attend government health institutions but they were most of the time attended to by nurses since doctors were not always available and they also have to buy drugs. On accessibility to portable water, only about 29% said they have access to water provided through the MDGs projects but due to epileptic power supply, they experience shortage of water through this source hence they have to buy water from private water vendors who drill boreholes to provide water on cash and carry basis. All the 55% who are self employed complained that because they do not usually get power supply from the Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN), they rely on private generating sets which make their businesses to incur additional cost thereby increasing the cost of doing business. All the respondents agreed that government at all levels have not helped to make life comfortable.

Only 18 residents responded to our interview and they said they do not enjoy satisfactory services from government hospitals as well as public water supplies from the MDG water projects. They said when they attend anti natal clinics they still pay a token fee though it is supposed to be free.

Discussion of findings

From the data collected through the questionnaires and interview, it is clear that majority of the residents do not enjoy benefits from the MDG projects located in their areas. For instance treatment of malaria for children from age 0-5 years and pregnant women are supposed to be free under the MDGs programme but

since doctors are not always available, the people have to be going to private clinics/ hospitals where they have to pay for the services enjoyed.

The study revealed that health personnel in the State Teaching Hospital in Sagamu, the biggest town in the area, have been on strike from September 2010 to February 2011 and the hospital had to be shut down thereby forcing residents to rely on private hospitals for their health needs. This is also the case in other government clinics in the entire state (OgunState) where health personnel are always on strike due to disagreement with the government on remuneration and lack of modern health equipments in the hospitals.

Water supply from MDGs water project has not been regular due to inadequate funding and irregular power supply, hence residents have to rely on private individuals who provide boreholes and sell the water to the public.

Irregular power supply had forced many self employed people out of job while corporate organisations in the area have to spend huge amount of money on diesel to power their generator thereby making cost of doing business to be high. This does not allow for expansion that can generate employment for reduction in poverty and hunger rather business organisations have to either close down or reduce their staff strength to be able to continue in operation. This scenario results in high rate of unemployment that leads to threat to lives and property due to insecurity.

Recommendations

- Government needs to ensure that health institutions are well equipped with drugs and personnel to enable citizens of OgunState have access to good health which will eventually translate to healthy work force that can transform the society.
- Government should take steps to improve electricity supply for improved productivity, make the self employed poor people to improve their living condition thereby providing more jobs for Nigerians to reduce hunger and poverty.
- More functional boreholes should be provided by the government to reduce cases of water borne diseases.
- Security situation must be improved to ensure that investors are attracted to the state thereby creating employment that will stimulate demand and increase profitability of investors and reduce poverty and hunger.

Conclusion

From the study, it can be concluded that no significant contribution has been made by the programme to eradicate poverty and hunger. Government is advised to pay proper attention to the decayed social infrastructures and provide conducive environment for small businesses to survive to reduce unemployment and hunger.

References

Anger, B (2010): Journal of Sustainable Development Vol. 3, No. 4; December 2010 *Published by Canadian Centre of Science and Education*

Asaolu, T. O; Elumilade, D. O. and Adereti, S. A. (2006): Appraising the Institutional framework for poverty alleviation programme in Nigeria:

International Research Journal of finance and economics. Issue 3: (pp.67 –77) (www.eurojournals.com/finance.htm)

- Edoh, T. (2003):** Poverty and the Survival of Democracy in Nigeria in *Nigerian Journal of Political and Administrative Studies*. Vol. 1, No. 4.
- Federal Republic of Nigeria (2006):** Millennium development Goals (MDGs Information Kit.
- Igbuzor, O (2007):** Millenium Development Goals in Nigeria: Issues, Challenges and Prospects. A paper presented at a symposium on organised by the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN), Abuja District on 27th July, 2006 at Sheraton Hotel and Towers, Abuja.
- Poverty Eradication:** CBN Economic and Financial Review Vol. No 4. December, 2001 pp45 –71.
- Olaleye, O. A (2008):** Poverty a Measure of Underdevelopment in Africa in *Essential Readings in Development Administration*, Ibadan, Julius and Julius Associates.
- National Planning Commission (2004):** National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS.
- Nzekwu, G. (2006):** Exchange Rate Stability and Poverty Reduction in Nigeria. Bullion: Publication of Central Bank of Nigeria, July – September, pp 52 – 64.
- Nnanna, O. J. (2001):** In - House Seminars on Poverty Eradication: CBN Economic and Financial Review, Vol. 39 No 4. December, 2001 Pp 4 – 7.
- Shahani. L.(2009):** An Introduction to the Human Development and Capability Approach: Freedom and Agency. Sterling, VA. Retrieved on 27/07/2011 from http://www.idrc.ca/en/ev-146686-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html#ch03note8.
- The World Bank (2001):** Perspectives on Development Winter 2001/2002. pp 37-42.
- The Guardian Newspaper, February 24, 2009.**
- TELL Magazine, April 21, 2008**
- United Nations (2006):** "The Millennium Development Goals Report." United Nations Development Programme, Retrieved on 27/07/2011 from www.undp.org/publications/MDGReport2006.pdf.

Millennium Development Goals and Health in Nigeria: An Assessment

By

ODUSANYA IBRAHIM ABIDEMI

*Department of Economics, Olabisi Onabanjo University,
P.M.B 2002, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria.*

Abstract

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are specifically designed to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, reduce child mortality and improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and other diseases, among other goals. This paper examines the possibility of achieving the health-specific goals and targets in Nigeria. Over the years, various health indicators on Nigeria are quite too poor. In fact, the Northern Nigeria is considered to have the world's worst human development indicators outside conflict and post-conflict zones. It is estimated that one million Nigerian children under five years die every year, life expectancy at birth is around 49 years and three million Nigerians are still living with HIV/AIDS while approximately 42,000 Nigerian women die each year due to pregnancy related problems. The paper reviews strategies and policies being adopted towards achieving MDGs in Nigeria. It examines how the quest to achieve the MDGs has impacted on health care in Nigeria. After assessing relevant data on MDGs in Nigeria, the study reveals that progress made towards achieving the health-specific MDGs is slow and inadequate. Thus, achieving MDGs 4, 5 and 6 with their various targets could be a myth. Hence, it is expedient for the government and all other stakeholders in the health sector to introduce and scale up efficient public health intervention in line with the anticipated targets.

Introduction

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are the world's time-bound set of eight (8) interdependent goals that are meant to tackle issues related to health, education, poverty, equality and the environment. The goals are designed to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability and develop a global partnership for development. These goals were agreed upon based on the Millennium Declaration made at the Millennium Summit in New York in 2000 and were adopted by 189 nations and signed by 147 heads of State, with 2015 set as the target year for achieving them. WHO (2005) noted that the MDGs are vital in certain ways from the perspective of health. First, health is at the heart of the MDGs. And it is central to the global agenda of reducing poverty as well as an important measure of human well-being. More so, health is represented in three of the eight goals and will appreciably impact on the achievement of all other goals, particularly those related to the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, education and gender equality while the health goals also focus on problem that disproportionately affect the poor. Second, the MDGs set quantifiable and ambitious targets against which to measure progress, thereby providing an indication of whether efforts are on track, and a means of holding decision makers accountable. Third, it is possible to calculate what it would cost to achieve the MDGs. This reveals the funding gap between available and needed resources, and consequently provides additional and concrete

support to long-standing calls for increased funding from the health sector. Finally, goal eight calls for a global partnership for development. This unique feature of the MDGs identifies and reiterates specific actions rich countries must take if poor countries are to achieve goals 1 to 7.

Basically, three of the eight Millennium Development Goals are health-specific i.e. reduce child mortality, improve maternal health and combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, while eight of the 18 targets and eighteen of the 48 indicators are health related. Some of these targets include reducing the under-five mortality by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015, reducing the maternal mortality ratio by three-quarters between 1990 and 2015, beginning to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and halting it by 2015, beginning to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases and halting it by 2015 (WHO, 2003).

Although, rapid advances have been made by some countries that show that Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are quite achievable, most countries in sub-Saharan Africa including Nigeria are yet to mobilize sufficient resources, adequate political and financial support to meet specific global challenges posed by issues relating to the fight against (HIV/AIDS) and weak fragile economies. Specifically, the MDGs centre on health issues that bother on women and child health. Meanwhile, the health sector in Nigeria is faced with critical and enormous challenges, ranging from weak infrastructure, ineffective health services, low coverage of immunization, lack of good governance at federal, state and local level coupled with weak political commitment. These challenges are visibly hampering progress that could have been recorded. These developments are not unconnected with the Nigeria's poor human development and health related indicators. The Northern Nigeria is considered to have the world's worst human development indicators outside conflict and post-conflict zones. Roughly one million Nigerian children under five years die every year, due in part to low immunization rates (coverage is below 10% in many Northern states), maternal mortality rates are amongst the worst in the world, with approximately 42, 000 Nigerian women dying each year due to pregnancy related problem, three million Nigerians are still living with HIV/AIDS while 70 million Nigerians live on less than dollar a day (DFID¹², 2009).

An Overview of the Health Care Services in Nigeria

The effectiveness of a country's health care delivery system is crucial in meeting its health goals. In Nigeria, the health system has been in a deplorable state and has been having adverse effects on the health status of most Nigerians. The system is characterized with inadequate and obsolete infrastructure, shortages of all categories of health professionals, poor funding, weak institutional arrangement, brain drain, inadequate investments in capacity development. Nigerian has indeed lost significant health human resources to the developed countries and the trend has continued unabated.

This challenge has affected the full implementation of some programmes and policies in the health sector – the Roll Back Malaria programme, the Global fund to fight HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria, Health Sector Reform Programme (HSRP), Polio Eradication Campaign (PEC) while it is also threatening the quest to achieve the health related MDGs. Presently, Nigeria is one of the countries lagging behind in all the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Going through some selected health indicators, which include life expectancy at birth, under five mortality, maternal mortality, neonatal mortality, it could be deduced that health status in Nigeria is terribly poor. According to the World Health Organization (WHO)

¹² Department for International Development

as reflected in the World Health Statistics for 2006-2010, life expectancy at birth has been hovering around 45-50 years. Also, under-five mortality rate and the infant mortality rate have been around 191 and 100 respectively between 2004 and 2008. Adult mortality for male and female per 1,000 population were put at 424 and 399 respectively in 2008 while neonatal mortality was put at 49 per 1,000 live birth (see **appendix 1**).

The overall performance of the Nigerian health system is unarguably dismal when compared with less endowed African countries. The life expectancy at birth for Nigerians was put at 49 compared with 60, 72 and 58 for Madagascar, Morocco and Rwanda respectively in 2008 (see **Appendix 2**). In 2000, the World Health Organization (WHO) ranked Nigeria's overall health system performance 187th among its 191 members state. The health indicators in Nigeria are currently worse than the average for sub-Saharan Africa. Also, the infant mortality rate was put at 90 per 1000 live birth for Nigeria, trailing next to that of Mali with 102, among the selected countries in the same year. The country also posed the highest under-five mortality among these countries. A cursory look at the selected statistics reveals that the state of health in Nigeria is quite appalling given the country's enormous resources. It is quite obvious that Nigeria is still far from reducing mortality among children to the low level recorded in industrialized nations. This is not unconnected with the deplorable state of both the health system in Nigeria and the health status of Nigerians. Although, the infant mortality rates are unknown, the causes are not certain due to inexistence of vital registration system that provides cause-of-death data in most developing countries like Nigeria. Available information indicate that malaria, acute respiratory infection (ARI), measles, diarrhoea, tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs) account for a disproportionate share of ill health and deaths. The underlying factors include childhood malnutrition, poor immunization status, household poverty, food insecurity, poor living conditions (housing, water and sanitation), and poor home practices for childcare during illnesses. Meanwhile, programmes targeting these diseases and reproductive health issues are currently implemented within a weak health system and hence have little impact (HERFON¹³, 2006).

It is evident that most Nigerians have not been having access to qualitative health care due to their low level of income, low level of education, inadequate skilled health manpower, and lack of modern equipment and health infrastructure. The most intriguing of these factors is the ratio of health workers to the population, for a country with around 150 million inhabitants having 30 medical doctors and 100 nurses respectively to 100,000 population and mere 2 pharmacists to 100,000 population (see **appendix3**).

Globally, the HIV and AIDS epidemic constitutes a major public health, social, economic and development challenges.

It is ravaging many countries of the world; including Nigeria and it is fast reversing the hard-won developmental gains in most sub-Saharan Africa countries. It is contributing to high mortality rates occasioned in these countries. In Nigeria, over one million children have been orphaned by HIV/AIDS while adult HIV prevalence increased from 1.8% in 1991 to 5.8% in 2001. It declined to 5.0% in 2003 (FMOH¹⁴, 2005). The prevalence rate could be perceived to be lower than the subsisting rate in some other African countries but the effect is more pronounced in Nigeria, due to her population. It has significantly contributed to the growing rate of tuberculosis among the populace, which underscores the

¹³ Health Reform Foundation of Nigeria

¹⁴ Federal Ministry of Health

need to combat the HIV/AIDS scourge (FMOH, 2005). Tuberculosis has no doubt constituted a major problem in Nigeria. Nigeria ranks 4th in the world and first in Africa among the 22 high TB burden countries, with an estimated incidence of 293 cases per 100,000 per annum (WHO, 2006). In a bid to curtail the menace posed by the disease, the Nigerian Government established the National Tuberculosis and Leprosy Control Programme (NTBLCP) in 1989 while the WHO Directly Observed Treatment Short Course (DOTS) strategy was adopted in 1993.

Available statistics indicate that Nigeria has some of the worst indicators relating to maternal health in the developing world. Globally, an estimated half a million women die each year from complications of pregnancy and child birth, out of which 55,000 occur in Nigeria alone. Hence, Nigeria which constitutes only 2% of world's population accounts for 10% of the global estimates of maternal deaths. The lifetime risk of a women dying during pregnancy and childbirth is 1 in 18 for Nigeria and 1 in 29,800 for Sweden that is a developed country. The immediate causes of those morbidities and mortality are medical complications such as obstetric hemorrhage, obstructed labour and eclampsia whereas the background causes are socio-economic and cultural circumstances under which women become pregnant in Nigeria (HERFON, 2006).

Strategies adopted for meeting Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Health in Nigeria

This section focuses on strategies adopted by Nigerian Government in achieving the health – specific MDGs – reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases.

After the Millennium Declaration was pronounced, the Federal Government introduced the first major development policy framework titled the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) in 2004 and the State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) was introduced at the state level. The NEEDS and the SEEDS were meant to serve as the bases for policy coordination in projects and programmes between the state and federal governments. It is pertinent to note that they were not put in place exclusively for the MDGs; many of their targets were aligned with the MDGs. In addition, the Vision 20: 2020 was developed as a longer-term growth and development framework for the country. The vision 20:2020 took into account the NEEDS, The 7-point Agenda (a comprehensive framework focused on sustainable growth in the real sector of the economy and it seeks to facilitate improvement in physical infrastructure, power, health, education, etc) and the MDG.

The government also designed specific institutional arrangements for implementing, monitoring and evaluating the MDGs. These arrangements comprise of the National Planning Commission (NPC) which by virtue of its statutory role is the focal institution for the MDGs. To fast track efforts towards meeting the MDG targets, two key platforms i.e. the Presidential committee on the MDGs and the Office of the Senior Special Assistant to the President on MDGs (OSSAP-MDGs), which serves as the secretariat of the committee coordinating and policy compliance with the MDGS, were created in 2005. There is also the House of Representatives' Committee on the MDGs, which provides general oversight of MDGs efforts at the federal level while some states also have dedicated MDG office. The monitoring and evaluation of MDGs are carried out at two major levels. The first level involves tracking the MDG indicators, which is undertaken by the National Bureau of Statistics, and the MDG –related ministries, departments and agencies while the second level is monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of

projects and programmes targeted at the MDGs. This is handled by OSSAP-MDG, the Budget Office of the Federation, the National Assembly, ministries, department and agencies and state governments (FGN¹⁵, 2010).

Specifically, in order to achieve goals 4, 5, and 6 which are directly related to health, certain programmes and policies were introduced. For instance, the Federal Ministry of Health started a health system reform to implement the health strategies of the National Economic Empowerment and Development strategy (NEEDS), NEPAD¹⁶ and the MDGs since 2004. Also, the national policy on Integrated Disease Surveillance and Response (IDRS), National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS), Nigeria Health Sector Reform Programme (HSRP), National Health Act Bill, the National Health Sector Development Plan and the National Strategic Health Development Framework and Plan are some of the policies introduced. Other programmes and policies have also been developed in many areas like health promotion, public private partnership in health, blood transfusion service policy, national food and nutrition policy, national health management information system, Community Health Insurance Scheme, the Roll Back Malaria Programme, the Midwives Service Scheme (in bringing down maternal, newborn and child mortality rates i.e. aimed at the MDG health goals 4 and 5) while the fight against HIV/AIDS is being coordinated and intensified through the National Action Committee on AIDS (NACA), with the State Action Committee on AIDS (SACA) overseeing activities at the state level.

Achieving the Millennium Development Goals in Health in Nigeria: An Assessment

Goal 4 is the first health-specific goal and is aimed at reducing child mortality, with a target of reducing under-five mortality rate by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015.

With reference to Nigeria, it aims to reduce the under-five mortality which was 191 per 1,000 in 1990 to approximately 64 per 1,000 in 2015. The under-five mortality rose to 201 per 1000 live births in 2003 and declined to 138, representing a major drop. But in 2008, it rose to 138 per 1000 live births. The observed variations in the under-five mortality rate over the years portray this indicator as not actually responding to policy interventions. On the other hand, infant mortality was about 81 per 1,000 live births in 2000, but to 100 in 2003. Due to increased investment, it fell to 75 per 1,000 live births in 2008 (see **appendix 4**). It is also revealed that infant mortality is highest in the North East region (109 per 1,000 live births) and lowest in the South West region (50 per 1,000 live births). Based on the report, overall mortality for the country could be about 70 per 1,000 live births in 2015 going by projections on the average over the last eight years, and Nigeria may not likely meet the MDG goal of reducing the infant mortality by two-thirds of the 1990, about 31 per 1,000 live births by 2015. This could only be achieved if the more rapid decline in infant mortality over the past three years can be sustained. A cursory look at the two indicators tends to show that only the infant mortality target of 31 per 1000 live births appears near achievable. This is in part related to the fact that Nigeria has launched an immense campaign for protecting the children against the major killer diseases- measles and malaria since 2006 while it also introduced the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness in the same year. The country is still facing immense challenges in a bid to reduce infant mortality in terms of large population, wide geographic variations, and dwindling resources, improving the quality of health care services and increasing demand

¹⁵ Federal Government of Nigeria

¹⁶ New Partnership for Africa Development

for health care services. Consequently, the prospect for achieving MDG4 is quite doubtful except efforts are stepped up towards overall improvement in child's health.

In terms of goal 5 i.e. improving maternal health, with a target of reducing mortality ratio by three quarters between 1990 and 2015, impacts of the various policies and interventions are not too impressive. The maternal mortality rate fell from 1,000 in 1990 to 704 in 2000 and remained at that level till 2002. It however increased to 800 per 100,000 live births between 2003 and 2007 while it fell to 545 per 1,000 live births in 2008. Although, with projections based on a three-year average, it is estimated that the country's maternal mortality rate will be about 250 per 100,000 live births in 2015 going by the current rate of decline (FGN, 2010). On the other hand, the proportion of births attended by skilled personnel was 45 per cent in 1990. It has been on a downward trend since this period (see **appendix 5**). Some of the factors responsible this situation include poor remuneration of health, brain drain, low quality of service in health facilities, high level of ignorance on health issues, inadequate data, poor funding, inaccessibility of women to modern health care facilities in the rural areas.

Goal 6 is the last healthy-specific MDG and it centres on combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. It has targets of beginning to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and halting it by 2015, and also to begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and other diseases and halting it by 2015. The HIV prevalence among pregnant young women aged 15-24 years has continuously declined in recent years in Nigeria. From 5.4 per cent in 2000, it rose to 5.8 per cent in 2001 and 2002 but fell to 5.0 per cent in 2003 and further declined to 4.2 per cent in 2008(see **appendix 6**). Generally, the HIV prevalence rate is going down but serious challenges are posed by regions and state with high prevalence rate. The South-South region is reported to have the highest prevalence rate of 7 per cent for pregnant women aged 15-24 years while Benue State (a state in the North central region) has the highest prevalence rate of 10.6 per cent. Meanwhile, the number of young people reporting the use of condom during sexual intercourse with a non-regular sexual partner increased from 43.9 per cent in 2003 to 63.8 per cent in 2007, representing a 20-percentage point improvement. Projections also reveal that the country is on track to achieve the target. In contrast, the number of children orphaned by HIV/AIDS has increased. It rose from 1.8 million children to 1.97 million between 2004 and 2007, representing an increase of 9 per cent. A projection based on a four-year average change indicates that the number of children orphaned by HIV/AIDS could hit 2.3 million in 2015. The Human Development Report on Nigeria (2008-2009) considers it as worsening in terms of progress.

Another major target under goal 6 of the MDG is to begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and halt by 2015. Going by available data, the incidence of malaria has decreased for most of the years, except for the peak prevalence 2,203 per 100,000 recorded in 2002. The number fell to 1,727 in 2003 and further to 1,157 in 2004, representing a 42.8 per cent decline from 2000. The rate of progress is considered to be slow (UNDP, 2010). Similarly, the death rate fell from 0.23 to 0.16, representing about a 30 per cent decline within the same period. The progress towards achieving the desired goal is also slow (see **appendix 7**). Meanwhile, variations in the tuberculosis prevalence rate show almost the same characteristics as the malaria prevalence, but the rate has never been as high. Tuberculosis recorded a high of 21.75 per 100,000 in 2003, decreasing in subsequent years. The rate was 15.74 in 2000, declining to 12.57 in 2002. It rose 21.75 in 2003 and then fell continuously to 7.07 per 100,000 in 2004, representing a 43 per cent and 67.7 per cent decline from 2000 and 2003 figures respectively. In the same vein, the death rate fell from 1.57 in 2000 to 1.50 in 2004 through 2007, representing a 4 per cent decline.

Conclusion

Owing to the foregoing, it is obvious that adequate progress has not been made towards achieving the health-specific MDGs in Nigeria. Hence, achieving MDG 4, 5 and 6 with their targets by 2015 could be a myth. It is therefore expedient to introduce and scale up efficient and effective public health interventions. Majorly, there is urgent need to address the problem of shortage of human and financial resources, since these resources are the pillars of a health system. Similarly, a reliable monitoring framework should be developed to ensure judicious utilization of resources and accountability. In addition, programmes, policies and interventions should be targeted at reducing morbidity and prevalence of major child-killer diseases like malaria, cholera, HIV/AIDS, measles, and tackle malnutrition and also provide safe drinking water in order to reduce infant mortality and under-five mortality. To stem the increasing trend of maternal mortality, there should be provision of public health education and information relating to maternal health, adequate and quality antenatal and delivery care, increased access to skilled birth attendants and affordable emergency obstetric care.

Furthermore, level of awareness of the public about HIV/AIDS should be intensified, along with the effective implementation of the National HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework for Action 2010-2015 to strengthen the control of the epidemic. It is also imperative to improve DOTS services across the country, and intensify efforts in endemic areas in order to scale up access and coverage towards bringing down the incidence of tuberculosis. For malaria, the insecticide treated nets should be made available to every household, and public enlightenment campaigns on sanitation should be accorded a serious priority.

References

- Department of International Development (2009) 'Annual Report on Nigeria, 2009' A Publication of DFID, United Kingdom
- Federal Government of Nigeria (2010) 'Millennium Development Goals Report, 2010'. A publication of the Office of the Senior Special Assistant to the President on MDGs, Abuja, Nigeria.
- Federal Ministry of Health (2005) 'National HIV/Syphilis Sero-Prevalence Survey' FMOH, Abuja, Nigeria.
- Health Reform Foundation of Nigeria (2006) 'Nigerian Health Review' HERFON, Abuja, Nigeria.
- World Health Organization (2003) 'Millennium Development Goals and Health Targets' A presentation at the Executive Members' Retreat, held in Accra, Ghana. November 19-20
- World Health Organization (2005) 'Health and Millennium Development Goals' WHO, Geneva, Switzerland.
- World Health Organization (2006) 'The Global Plan to Stop Tuberculosis 2006-2015: Actions for Life-Towards World Free of Tuberculosis' WHO, Geneva, Switzerland.
- World Health Organization (2006) 'World Health Statistics' WHO, Geneva, Switzerland
- World Health Organization (2007) 'World Health Statistics' WHO, Geneva, Switzerland
- World Health Organization (2008) 'World Health Statistics' WHO, Geneva, Switzerland
- World Health Organization (2009) 'World Health Statistics' WHO, Geneva, Switzerland
- World Health Organization (2010) 'World Health Statistics' WHO, Geneva, Switzerland
- United Nations Development Programme (2010) 'Human Development Report on Nigeria (2008-2009): Achieving Growth with Available online at <http://www.ng-undp.org>

Appendix 1: Selected Health Indicators on Nigeria

Health Indicator	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Life expectancy at birth(years) MALE	45	47	48	48	49
Life expectancy at birth(years) FEMALE	46	48	49	50	49
Under five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	197	194	191	189	186
Infant mortality rate(per 1,000 live births)	103	101	99	97	96
Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 live births)	800	800	NA	NA	NA
Neonatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	53	47	47	47	49
Adult mortality rate (per 1,000 population) MALE	513	461	447	439	424
Adult mortality rate (per 1,000 population) FEMALE	478	421	399	389	399

Sources: World Health Statistics, WHO; 2006,2007,2008,2009 and 2010 issues

Appendix 2: Selected Health Statistics for Some African Countries, 2008

Countries	Life expectancy at birth(years)	Infant mortality rate	Under five mortality rate	Adult mortality rate(per 1,000 population)	Number of reported cases of malaria	Number of reported cases of tuberculosis	Births Attended by skilled health personnel (%)	Physicians (density per 10,000 population)	Population using improved drinking water sources (%)
Madagascar	60	68	106	263	352,520	15,391	51	2	41
Malawi	53	65	100	481	4,986,779	7,627	54	<0.5	80
Mauritania	58	75	118	290	201,044	1,605	61	1	49
Mauritius	73	14	16	160	-	85	99	11	99
Morocco	72	32	36	118	53	11,825	63	6	81
Mozambique	51	90	130	470	4,831,491	18,824	48	<0.5	47
Namibia	63	31	42	320	119,711	4,828	81	3	92
Niger	52	79	167	359	2,033,971	5,853	18	<0.5	48
Nigeria*	49	96	186	411	2,834,174	46,026	39	4	58
Mali	49	102	194	386	-	4,734	49	1	56
Rwanda	58	72	112	303	771,753	4,173	52	<0.5	65

Source: World Health Organization, 2010

Appendix 3: Categories of Registered health workers in Nigeria, 2005.

Staff Category	Number	Number of Health Workers per 100,000 population
Doctor	39,210	30
Nurse	124,626	100
Midwife	88,796	68
Pharmacist	8,773	2
Dentist	12,072	11

Medical Laboratory Scientist	3,059	3
Community Health Practitioner	117,568	93
Physiotherapist	769	0.62

Source: Federal Ministry of Health, Nigeria

Appendix 4

Indicators	1990	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2015 Target
Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	191	183.75	183.75	183.75	201	201	201	201	138	157	NA	63.7
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	91	81.38	81.38	81.38	100	100	100	100	86	75	NA	30.3

Source: Nigeria MDG Report, 2010

Appendix 5

Indicator	1990	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2015 Target
Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 live births)	1,000	704	704	704	800	800	800	800	800	545	NA	250
Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (%)	45	42	42	42	37.3	36.3	36.3	43.5	43.5	38.9	NA	100

Source: Nigeria MDG Report, 2010

Appendix 6

Indicator	1990	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2015 Target
HIV prevalence among pregnant young women aged 15-24(%)	NA	5.4	5.8	5.8	5.0	5.0	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	To be halted
Young people aged 15-24 reporting the use of a condom during sexual intercourse with a non-regular sexual partner (%)	NA	NA	NA	NA	43.9	43.9	63.8	63.8	63.8	NA	100
Children orphaned by HIV/AIDS (million)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.8	1.97	1.97	1.97	NA	-

Source: Nigeria MDG Report, 2010

Appendix 7

Indicator	1990	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Malaria prevalence (per 100,000)	NA	2024	1859	2203	1727	1157	1157	1157	1157	NA	NA
Death rates associated with malaria (per 100,000)	NA	0.23	0.19	0.15	0.19	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	NA	NA
Tuberculosis prevalence rate (per 100,000)	NA	15.74	12.01	12.57	21.75	7.07	7.07	7.07	7.07	NA	NA
Death rates associated with tuberculosis (per 100,000)	NA	1.57	2.24	1.58	2.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	NA	NA

Source: Nigeria MDG Report, 2010

Free Trade and Industrialization of Sub-Saharan Africa: An Assessment of Millennium Development Goals Achievement in Nigeria's Manufacturing Sector

By

Adefulu, Adesoga and Egwuonwu, Thomas K.

*Department of Business Administration & Marketing, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State,
PMB 21244, Ikeja, Lagos, Nigeria.*

Abstract

Among other things, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) advocate trade openness, the character of which is rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory as one of the measures to boost national and international economic well-being. The focus of this paper is to examine the extent of Nigeria's trade openness and its effect on the growth of the nation's manufacturing sub-sector as measured by the contribution of the latter to the GDP between 2000 and 2009. The scope of the focal sector excludes oil refining and cement production. Longitudinal studies were carried out using secondary data published by the Central Bank of Nigeria and the Bureau of Statistics to arrive at the findings. In the study, trade opening represents variable (x) and manufacturing sector growth variable (y) over the period 2000 – 2009. The conclusion of this research is that free trade has not significantly impacted on the existence of manufacturing industries located in Nigeria.

Key Concepts: Millennium Development Goals, Free Trade, Trade Opening, Industrialization, Sub-Saharan Africa, Manufacturing

Introduction

Manufacturing has been identified as a key industrial sub-sector because of its export, employment and other strategic potentials. Examples abound of many nations of the world that have attained global prominence through the feat they achieved in manufacturing for exports. Classification of nations in terms of developed, developing and least developed has largely mirrored each nation's manufacturing level. The ranking of countries in the Competitive Industrial Performance Index (CPI) clearly shows that the industrialized countries of the West dominate the upper segment of the index, while the performance of the nations in Sub-Saharan Africa has remained marginal (UNIDO 2009).

Trade openness is advocated in MDG number 8. The prescription to liberalize national and global market is predicated on the belief that the free flows of trade, finance and information will produce the best outcome for growth and human welfare." UNDP (1997: 36.) It is therefore argued by many researchers that the implementation of appropriate strategies by a nation will likely enable such a country to reap the full benefits of trade openness.

Nigeria, as one of the countries located in Sub-Saharan Africa, is confronted with serious challenges relating to industrialization and trade. In geographical term, Sub-Saharan Africa refers to the area of the continent of Africa which lies south of the Sahara. However, from a political perspective, all African

countries which are fully or partially located south of the Sahara constitute Sub-Saharan. 'In particular, sub-Saharan Africa, excluding South Africa, has been losing its already tiny share of global manufacturing. (UNIDO 2009:57.)

Nigeria, with its teeming population, as well as other Sub-Saharan African countries, are encouraged to make industrialization, especially manufacturing, the primary focus. This will likely contribute extensively to the GDP, provide jobs to several jobless persons, and improve family incomes thereby reducing the poverty level in the country.

The focus of this paper is on the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) number 8 Target 8A and Target 8B. Goal 8 reads "Develop a global partnership for development." Target 8A states "Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system (includes a commitment to good governance, development, and poverty reduction – both nationally and internationally) and Target B reads: "Address the special needs of the least Developed Countries (LDC) (includes tariff and quota free access for LDC exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for HIPC and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA (Overseas Development Assistance) for countries committed to poverty reduction. {<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/MillenniumDevelopmentGoals>.} This study seeks to examine the performance of Nigeria's manufacturing sector between 2000 and 2009 under the prevailing MDG-prescribed open trading system. The objective is to assess the effect of the open trading on the growth of the manufacturing sub-sector in Nigeria. It further aims at suggesting some other mechanisms that have potentials to enhance manufacturing.

Statement of the problem

The MDG posits a solution to the persistent socio-economic inequalities among nations in the area of poverty reduction, mortality and trade. Goal 8 target A/B specifically canvassed global partnership and open trading system in order to address the needs of the least developed countries. This among others will offer free flow of goods, improved standard of living, quota free access for LDC exports and more generous overseas development assistance. Despite all these benefits, the manufacturing sector of the Nigerian economy has not witnessed tremendous growth. It is, therefore, the focus of this study to examine the pervading influence of trade openness on manufacturing sector growth in Nigeria.

Objectives of the study

- To determine the correlation between trade openness and manufacturing sector growth.
- To determine the effect of trade openness on manufacturing sector growth.

Hypotheses

H₀: There is no significant relationship between trade openness and manufacturing sector growth.

H₁: There is significant relationship between trade openness and manufacturing sector growth.

H₀: There is no significant effect of trade openness on manufacturing sector growth.

H₁: There is significant effect of trade openness on manufacturing sector growth.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Conceptualization

The concept 'free trade' assumes an operationalized meaning as 'trade opening' or "trade openness" and as such the terms will be used synonymously. Lipsey (1989:783) defines 'free trade' as "An absence of any form of government interference with the free flow of international trade." Trade opening or trade openness is calculated as total trade/GDP ratio (CBN 2009). As cited in Eneh (2007:171), Tracy (2002:101 -3) postulates that the free market is the most efficient way for millions of people to have their needs met at the lowest possible cost and the freer the market, the more vibrant the economy and the greater the quantity of wealth and opportunity that is created for more people. Allocation of economic resources will be with complete efficiency and prices will accurately reflect supply and demand in a free market. Achievement of Millennium Development Goal No. 8 depends on international trading and the practice of trade openness among nations. International trading has transpired among nations for centuries. Asika (2004:2 – 3) states the basic reasons for it as climate differences, different levels of technology, different natural endowments, different levels of industrial development and interdependence of nations. Institutions such as World Trade Organization (WTO), World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), amongst others, were set up to regulate, monitor and facilitate global trade. Trade openness or outward orientation is where a country strive(s) to pay for the imports it needs by improving efficiency and competitiveness, developing foreign markets, and keeping trade barriers low. (Samuelson and Nordhaus, 2001:599). Trade openness may have two contradictory effects on industrialization of a country, namely, causing reduction in prices of imports and reduce inefficiency within enterprises as they get exposed to foreign competition (Tabi and Ondo (2011:58). Some less developed countries (LDCs), which apparently adopted the open trading mechanism, made impressive performances and have now assumed a new rank of newly industrialized countries (NICs). South Asian countries such as India, South Korea, and Malaysia are cases of remarkable manufacturing and export success. Nations, at regional levels, form trading blocs as 'economic cooperation between countries, mostly neighbours for mutual benefit,' in four alternative ways, namely, Free Trade, Customs Union, Common Market and Economic Union in pursuit of the gains of international trade (Badi and Badi , (2008:158; Weihrich and Koontz, 2005: 64). In Sub-Saharan Africa, some of the existing free trade areas are the Economic community of West African States (ECOWAS), East African Community (EAC) and Southern African Development Community (SADC).Soludo (2007) strongly advocated Nigeria's involvement in the formation and operation of free trade areas with some other nations. He therefore stated that

"Nigeria needs to exploit all the opportunities presented by the world trading system... As a small, open economy, aggressive export-orientation must be a key strategy for sustained prosperity. Nigeria's productive sector must produce more than can be consumed domestically and then export. Nigeria may consider some radical approaches to trade policy...Furthermore, a healthy debate could commence on the possibility of negotiating Free Trade Agreement with the United States of America and the European Union.' Soludo, C. P.23.

Models and Strategies of industrialization

Four key industrial economic sectors were identified in Clark's Sector Model, namely, the primary sector (mining and farming), the secondary sector (refining, construction and manufacturing); the tertiary sector (service sector e.g. education, law, and medicine and distribution of manufactured goods); and the quaternary sector (the knowledge industry which focuses on technological research, design and

development.) Recent studies have shown that a quinary (fifth) sector also exists consisting of non-profit activities. - Wikipedia.

In Nigeria, the five key industrial economic sectors identified can be seen, though not available in same proportions. Basically, the primary sector currently dominates the industrialization effort in Nigeria. Among the several strategic industrial promotion policies existing in Nigeria are:

- a. Export Processing Zones (EPZs), (b) promotion of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), (c) Attraction of Foreign Direct Initiative (FDI), (d) Various Industrial Loan Schemes for industries e.g. Nigeria Export-Import Bank (NEXIM), Bank of Industry, etc. (e) National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy' (NEEDS), with a focus on four key objectives: poverty reduction, employment generation, wealth creation and value reorientation and 'SEEDS' and LEEDS for all the states and Local Governments respectively.

Keen observers have suggested that the availability of adequate infrastructure is the bedrock of industrialization. Surveys of business in low income countries consistently rank lack of access to, and poor quality of infrastructures as one of the major constraints to private investment in manufacturing... with the exception of cellular telecommunications, low-income countries lack most forms of infrastructure. Africa, especially, lags badly behind other regions in terms of the quality and coverage of its basic infrastructure (World Bank, 2007b).

Nigeria's manufacturing sector

Manufacturing is seen as the process of converting raw materials, components, or parts into finished goods that meet a customer's expectations. The structure of Nigeria's manufacturing sector as stated by its national industrial association, the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN) comprises the following:

(a) food, beverages & tobacco (b) chemicals & pharmaceuticals (c) domestic and industrial plastics and rubber (d) basic metal, iron and steel and fabricated metal products (e) pulp, paper & paper products (f) printing and publishing (g) electrical & electronics (h) textile, wearing apparel, carpet, leather/ leather footwear (i) wood & wood products including furniture (j) non-metallic mineral products, and (j) motor vehicle & miscellaneous assembly.

According to (CBN Report, 2009), the index of manufacturing production, estimated at 92.4 (1990 = 1000 rose by 1.3 per cent above the level in 2008. The average capacity utilization in the sub-sector also reflected a slight improvement from 54.7 per cent to 55.0 per cent as it grappled with some challenges. Among the challenges were difficulty in accessing bank credit, importation of raw materials, power shortage and outages.

Unfair trading practices

The findings of UNIDO survey in 2005, for example, showed that the much touted United States of America-initiated African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) and the Everything But Arms (EBA) EU-originated scheme had had a very limited impact in facilitating employment-generating investment in Africa. The survey also showed that AGOA had at that time not yet stimulated new FDI in most African countries, especially in West Africa. (UNIDO 2009: 90.)

According to Watkins (2002) the International Monetary Fund (IMF) posits that the benefits accruing to Africa from the AGOA would be some \$420m, or five times, greater if the US removed the rules-of-origin restrictions. Watkins (2002) observes further that

“these restrictions reflect the realities of mercantilist trade policy. The underlying principle is that you can export to America, provided that the export in question uses American products rather than those of competitors. For a country supposedly leading a crusade for open, non-discriminatory global markets, it’s a curiously anachronistic approach to trade policy.”

Borodo (2008), as president of Manufacturing Association of Nigeria observed the need to reverse the not too encouraging status of the nations of ECOWAS in global trade. In his view

“the urgent and substantial import liberalization promoted by European Union Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) have strong potentials to further weaken trade relations which is currently less than 15% among ECOWAS members. It follows therefore that if ECOWAS and other regional groups in Africa are made to liberalize their economies at a faster pace and not in line with their own poverty and developmental plans, the outcome would further constrain regional cooperation and throw away all benefits associated with regional integration.”

Methodology

The data for this paper was obtained mainly from the secondary source. These data are on trade openings and growth rate in manufacturing sector for the period of ten year, 2000-2009. The source of the data was from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) Annual Report and Statistical Data. The research design is survey research, the paper set two hypotheses and these were tested using the regression analysis. The R^2 indicates the extent changes in the growth of the manufacturing sector are explained by trade openness. The r value shows whether there is correlation between growth of manufacturing sector and trade openness. The t -test statistics is used to tell whether or not the effect of change in Trade opening or trade openness on manufacturing sector is statistically significant. Where the t -calculated is greater than the t -tabulated, it is statistically significant and where t -calculated is less than t -tabulated, it is not statistically significant.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Trade opening and manufacturing sector growth data in Nigeria (2000-2009)

YEAR	TRADE OPENING	MANUF. SECTOR GR
	%	%
2000	8.9	7.9
2001	9.0	4.2
2002	7.5	11
2003	10.8	5.6
2004	12.5	12
2005	17.9	9.6
2006	17.6	9.39
2007	19.4	9.57
2008	22.5	9.28
2009	19.3	7.94

Regression Model Specification

$$Y = a + bx + u$$

Where y = manufacturing sector growth

X = trade opening

a = intercept

b = slope of the regression line

u = error term.

Model Expectation: We expect some growth in the manufacturing sector even at zero trade opening. We expect trade opening to correlate positively with growth rate in the manufacturing sector. The a priori expectation is $a > 0$, $b > 0$

SUMMARY RESULTS

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed(b)

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	MANUFACTURING GROWTH(a)	.	Enter

a All requested variables entered.

b Dependent Variable: TRADE OPENNESS

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.211(a)	.045	-.075	5.57782

a Predictors: (Constant), MANUFACTURING GROWTH

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.608	1	11.608	.373	.558(a)
	Residual	248.896	8	31.112		
	Total	260.504	9			

a Predictors: (Constant), MANUFACTURING GROWTH

b Dependent Variable: TRADE OPENNESS

Coefficients(a)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	B	Std. Error
1 (Constant)	10.364	7.061		1.468	.180
MANUFACTURING GROWTH	.487	.797	.211	.611	.558

a Dependent Variable: TRADE OPENNESS

Discussion of Findings

Trade openness as canvassed by MDG's has significantly affected the manufacturing sector in Nigeria. The extent to which Free trade explains the variation in manufacturing sector growth rate is 05%. There is virtually no influence of trade openness on manufacturing sector growth rate. This is in tandem with reports from Nigeria's Central Bank showing that there has been a progressively declining trend in the manufacturing sector growth.

Furthermore the R value of 21% indicated a very weak association between trade openness and manufacturing sector growth rate. The reason is not far -fetched as the least developed nations lack the capacity to effectively compete on global level. The apparent prejudiced manner in which the trade openness is being practiced might account for the weak relationship between the two variables. The insignificant association between trade opening and manufacturing sector growth was corroborated by Manufacturers Association of Nigeria . The body confirmed that between 2000 and 2008, more than 820 manufacturing companies shut down their operations in the country as the industrial sector groaned under the harsh economic realities.(PUNCH,Lagos-24.07.2009) The adverse effect of trade openness on manufacturing sector growth was supported by Sanusi(2010) when he advocated for concrete steps to be taken to protect local industries from hostile competition from imported products so as to successfully revive the local industries and create adequate employment opportunities. Sanusi is quoted as follows: "No country in the world can survive industrially with such an unfavourable competition and I have been having this argument with the World Bank and IMF in New York and we cannot accept such unfavourable competition. In those days, the British protected their markets with gun boats. Today, everybody, including the World Bank and IMF, is using Malaysia as a model, but their leader was vilified when he refused to accept such conditions in those days. African countries in general and Nigeria in particular must learn from the experience of the Asian countries which took their destinies in their own hands when it mattered most and today, they are major players in world economy and they are being referred to as the Asian Tigers."

The effect of trade openness on manufacturing sector is not statistically significant as the t- cal(1.468) is less than t- tab(2.306) at 5% significant level.

Conclusion

The 'open trading' promoted by the MDG Goal 8, though intended to be mutually beneficial to the nations in their quest for industrialization and manufacturing for exports, is yet to fully achieve the desired goal in Nigeria's manufacturing sector. The sector has severely been stifled by foreign competition and unfavorable environment. Government should therefore carefully handle and manage the process of trade openness for effective outcomes in a competitive economy. Some observers are of the

view that the system has been grossly abused by powerful multinationals and governments of developed nations to the detriment of developing and least developed nations. The need to seek effective ways and means of implementing it equitably, therefore, remains the burning question.

Recommendations

1. Capacity building. The government and the private sector need to cooperate with each other in the effort to meet critical manpower needs. In terms of manpower development, an enabling environment needs to be created and sustained for the operation of qualitative educational, vocational and professional institutions.
2. Infrastructural development. Government need to create a regulatory environment that can motivate more private sector participation in the provision or maintenance of public infrastructure such as electricity, roads and potable water.
3. Private Sector Leverages. The government needs to closely monitor the implementation of existing policy instruments meant to leverage the private sector as the driving force for the nation's industrialization.
4. The UN need to set up a common preferential scheme to reduce trade restrictions on manufactured products from the least developing nations.
5. Nigeria needs to negotiate with several other nations and regions for opportunities of free trade agreements.

References

Amacher, R. C. and Ulbrich, H. H. (1986). Principles of Macroeconomics. Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co.

Badi, R. V. and Badi, N. V. (2008). Entrepreneurship. Delhi: Vrinda Publications (P) Ltd.

Central Bank of Nigeria Annual Reports and Statistical data, 2000- 2009

Clayton, G. E. (1995:560). Economics Principles and Practice. Ohio: Glencoe/McGraw-Hill.

Cooper, D. R. and Emory, C. W. (1995). Business Research Methods. Chicago: R. D. Irwin Inc.

Lipsey, R. G. (1989). An Introduction to Positive Economics. London: Weidenfeld and Nicholson Ltd.

Parkin, M. (1996). Economics. 5th ed. London: Addison-Wesley.

Punch Newspaper, Lagos: 24.07.2009

Samuelson, P. A. and Nordhaus, W. D. (2001). Economics, 17th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill

Sapru, R. K. (2008). Administrative Theories and management Thought. New Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India.

Tab, H. N. and Ondo, H. A. (2011). Industrialization of the Manufacturing Sector and Trade Opening in Cameroon. Research in

World Economy. 2. 1. 2011.

UNDP's Reports 1997

UNIDO's Reports, 2005, 2009

Watkins, M.N. (2002), 'Trade Hypocrisy: The Problem With Robert Zoellick.' Open Democracy, December 12, 2002.

Wehrich, H. and H. Koontz, (2005). Management: A Global Perspective, New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill.

Wikipedia (2011): "Millennium Development Goals; Wikipedia, Free Online Encyclopedia; Accessed at (http://eu.wikipedia.org/wiki/millennium_developmentgoals) on 6th May, 2011.

World Bank's Report 2007

**THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGs) AND THE
CHALLENGES OF DEVELOPMENT AT THE LOCAL
GOVERNMENT LEVEL IN NIGERIA.**

By

IREWUMI BANWO AND AYOMOLA OLURANTI

*DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION,
BABCOCK UNIVERSITY,
ILISHAN-REMO, OGUN-STATE. NIGERIA*

Abstract

This paper examines the relationship between the challenges of development at the grassroots in Nigeria and the capability to attain the Millennium development Goals (MDGs). In achieving this, the paper relied on secondary data. It adopted descriptive and analytical framework of analysis, which emphasizes the lack of autonomy, inadequate financing and functionality on the part of local government in Nigeria. Consequent upon these inadequacies, they have been unable to perform their essential roles in formulating and implementing policies that would enhance the attainment of the MDGs at the grass root level. The paper concludes that strengthening of local government through promotion of rural development with utmost emphasis on agriculture and agro-industrial development could serve as a way out.

Introduction

The paper addresses the Development Millennium Goals (MDGs) and challenges of development with special reference to local government in Nigeria. The paper also examines the possibility of any political systems with weak public institutions, to adequately implement policies or programs that are meant to improve the living conditions of the citizens and also to ensure sustainable development as well as to determine whether there is a relationship between the nature and character of the political system and its capacity to effectively and efficiently implement public policies.

The issue of development at the local government level is not the sole responsibility of the local government. The other levels of government, federal and state, community based organizations, non-governmental organizations; rural dwellers have their roles to play. However, the role of the local government, among these stakeholders is crucial.

The focus of the paper is to examine the performance of local government such as provision of access roads, water and rural electricity, sustaining livelihoods through the provision of credit facilities for agriculture, arts, crafts and small-scale business, and encouraging the formation of cooperative societies and other economic groupings in order to accelerate development at the local level in Nigeria in connection with the MDGS. (Agbakoba and Ogbonna, 2004).

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

The Millenium Development Goals (MDGS)

The MDGS are eight goals designed during the United Nations (UN) millennium summit in September 2000, which are expected to be achieved in 2015 by 189 nations who adopted the programme. The goals are essentially designed to respond to the world's main development challenges, "the MDGS are drawn from the actions and targets contained in the Millennium Declaration that was adopted by 189 nations, and signed by 147 Heads of State and governments, including Nigeria during the UN Millennium summit (Daini, 2007).

The eight goals are basically: To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other disease; ensure environmental sustainability; and develop a global partnership for development (UN, 2000).

Development

The concept "development" has no definite meaning. It has been interpreted to mean different things to different people depending on their intellectual, ideological beliefs, and the issue in question. Development is a complex and continuous process. For the purpose of this paper, we will adopt Fadeiye's definition. According to Fadeiye (2005), development could be seen as those changes or progress, which brings changes of a better quality of life for the generality of the people in the society. Such desirable and positive changes are observable in all human endeavours with reference to social, economic, political and cultural aspects of life, which usher in progress for the benefit of the society. Such development should be towards the eradication of poverty, reduction of inequalities, checking unemployment and facilitating easy access to basic needs of life such as food, shelter and social amenities. Oni et al (2011) assert that development should involve active participation of sundry to bring about concrete and meaningful transformation in the lives of people in the community, state or nation as a whole.

LocalGovernment

Local government is government at the grass roots. It can be defined as "a political sub division of a nation (or in a federal system, a state) which is constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs including the powers to impose taxes or to exact labour for prescribed purposes. The governing body of such an entity is elected or otherwise locally selected" (UN, 1991). The 1976 local government reform in Nigeria defines local government as: government at the local level exercised through representative council established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. These powers should give the council substantial control over local affairs as well as the staff and institutional and financial powers. It allow them to initiate and direct the provision of services and to determine and implement projects, to complement the activities of the state and Federal government in their areas, and to ensure, through devolution of these functions to those councils and through the active participation of the people and their traditional institutions, that local initiative and response to local needs and conditions are maximized.

Local governments can also be defined as that tier of government closest to the people," which is vested with certain powers to exercise control over the affairs of people in its domain" (Lawal, 2000). While

Odion and Yunusa (2009:80) defines local government as the public affair organ that is closer to the people. Moreso, Emezi (2009:61), sees local government as the system of local administration under local communities that are organized to maintain law and order, provide some limited range of social amenities and encourage cooperation and participation of inhabitants towards the improvement of their conditions of living.

Rural Development

According to the fourth Nigerian Economic Summit (1997), rural development can be defined as an integrate bottom-up programme that encourages communities to identify their problems and suggest solutions to them. It can also be defined as a method designed to bring an improvement in the social and economic life of the rural communities who are largely poor. It also means a multi-dimensional process aimed at uplifting the life of rural dwellers; it therefore, involves the creation of employment, access to good roads, health facilities, better housing, good water supply and equitable distribution of income. Rural development though depends primarily on small farmer agricultural progress, implies much more. It encompasses (a) efforts to raise both farm and nonfarm rural real incomes through job creation, rural industrialization, and the increased provision of education, health and nutrition, housing and a variety of related social and welfare services. (b) a decreasing inequality in the distribution of rural incomes and a lessening of urban-rural imbalances as in incomes and economic opportunities. (c) the capacity of the rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of these improvements over time (Todaro and Smith, 2003).

Methodology

This paper adopted the use of qualitative technique, which is the secondary method of collecting data. The secondary sources of data involved the use of textbooks, journals, articles, magazines, newspapers, internet as they are related to this work. The language employed for the study is descriptive analysis.

Theoretical framework

This paper is anchored on political development theory. The development of this theory coincided with the emergence of new states and, in part, the attendant post-colonial challenges of governance. It promptly confirms that governmental organizations in newly independent states were, in general, patterned after Western European models. More importantly, it (the theory) exposes these similarities as superficial and trivial. In the essential process of assignment of roles and the determination of rules, the differences, are decisive; Chilcote (1981). Concepts such as “politics”, “political system”, even “government” lose most of their meanings in such newly independent states like Nigeria.

According to Ollawa (1980), there are two major contending views for the study of development theory, these are namely the bourgeois (or the liberal school), and the neo-Marxist (or underdevelopment school). Within these two broad schools of thoughts, “there is in existence a pluralism of position or differences in some variables at the expense of others within a given theoretical framework”. This has resulted in the existence of conflicting and in some cases, competing models of development strategies.

Literature review

The focus of the paper here is to examine the concern for development and rural transformation in relation to the role and challenges of the local government in this regard. The concept of rural development for long has engaged the minds of scholars both in the developing and developed world.

It is obvious that the local government has responsibility for promoting rural development. The arguments for giving increased attention to rural development are powerful and widely accepted. Robert (1974)

identifies four main reasons: firstly, majority of the people live and find their livelihood in the rural areas, secondly, the drift to the cities (rural-urban migration) is a matter of concern, because of the increasing rate of urban unemployment, housing problems, increasing crime rates and other attendant social evil. Thirdly, it is in the rural areas that most of the poor and most disadvantaged people are found. Fourthly, there is a cluster of new orthodox economic arguments for giving priority to rural, and particularly, agricultural development. These reasons include the production population, and productivity of capital, the expected return on invested capital in agricultural production.

The major goal of all government efforts and activities is to bring about economic, social, cultural and political development, in their areas of jurisdiction. However, there is a wide divergence of views on the nature of development and the condition for attaining it in the literature.

Human Development Report (1990) argued that human development has two sides; the formation of human capabilities such as improved health, knowledge and skills and the use of people make of their acquired capabilities for leisure, productive purposes or being active in cultural, social and political affairs. The two sides must balance if human frustration should not set in. Furthermore, human development must be sustainable. The sustainability of human development not only generates economic growth but also distributes benefits equitably, regenerates the environment rather than destroys it, empowers people rather than marginalize them. It is development that gives priority to the poor, enlarge their choices and opportunities, and providing for their participation in decision that affects their lives. It is development that is 'pro-people, pro-nature, pro-jobs and pro-women' Human Development Report (1994). Agriculture is the major activity/occupation of rural Nigeria with arable and perennial crops been the main farm produce.

The term "rural development" means different things to various people. There is no consensus as to the exact definition of rural development. According to Diejemaoh (1972) "rural development is a process of not only increasing the level of per capital income in the rural areas, but also the standard of living of the rural population. The standard of living is dependent on such factors as food and nutrition level, health education, housing recreation and security". Rural development can be defined as an integrated bottom-up programme that encourages communities to identify their problems and suggest solutions to them (Fourth Nigeria Economic Summit, 1997). It can also be defined as a strategy to bring an improvement in the social and economic life of rural communities who are largely poor.

The objectives of rural development in Nigeria have been identified as follows:

1. To improve the living standards of the low-income population in the rural areas on a sustainable basis,
2. Reducing rural poverty,
3. Increasing rural food production and income,
4. Providing the basic needs of the rural people,
5. Increasing employment and making sure that people live comfortably in their villages,
6. Provision of physical, social and institutional infrastructures and
7. Stemming rural-urban migration. (Marcellus, 2009)

To achieve the objectives, the following strategies can be adopted; they are the community development schemes, the agricultural extension services and the integrated rural development strategy. Above all, the people must be mobilized for active involvement and participation in the development process. It is important here, to pose the question as to whether there is relationship between Local Government and

Rural Development. To such a question, the answer is that, “it all depends on whether the local government system is structured in such a manner that it is development oriented”. In other words, local government predicated on development-oriented philosophy as well as to whether in reality the local government actually possesses both the structural, institutional, organization, and the financial, technical management. Executive capacities to initiate plan and effectively implement and execute development projects and programmes, as well as ensure high quality service delivery to the people at the grass root level of the society. From the above, one may ask if the present Nigerian Local government system in Nigeria is development-oriented. Structurally according to the 1976 reform, the local government system in Nigeria is sufficiently development-oriented. In term of structure the present local government system is adequately equipped with all the relevant institutional and organization capacities to generates, administer and manage development and development plans, projects and programmes. Therefore, the present local government system as instituted by the then military regime has been structurally designed to be a development-oriented one and founded on the fundamental principles of development administration.

However, in spite of the evidence, the local government in Nigeria has woefully failed to really generate and sustain social, political and economic development of the local areas and their people. This is evident in the rural decay, mass unemployment and underdevelopment, illiteracy, lack of basic amenities such as health centre, pipe-borne water, electricity, hunger and malnutrition and lack of educational institutions. All of these have led to high rate of rural-urban migration with all its negative effects for national development such as armed robbery and assassination, congestion, prostitution and general decay in the social infrastructural facilities.

Local government and the MDGS

Our concern here is to examine whether the local government in Nigeria has helped in the attainment or impeded the achievement of MDGS as well as to analyze the performance of local government in their bids to improve the living standard of the people in the rural areas. As a result of this, such index at the level of poverty is very useful.

Local government is created to bring about development in the rural areas. It is widely acknowledged as a viable instrument for rural development and for the delivery of social services to the people. It is believed that this third level of government is strategically placed to fulfill the above functions because of its proximity to the rural people, which enhances its ability to easily articulate and aggregate the demands of the people (Ugwu, 2003).

In the case of poverty, it relates to disempowerment. Agbakoba and Ogbonna (2004) argued that sustainable development from the grass root is centered on the following themes:

- Eradication of poverty
- Promoting human dignity and rights
- Promoting the advancement of women and the disadvantaged groups
- Good governance
- Environmental protection and regeneration.

According to Friedmann (1996), disempowerment can be viewed from three angles, namely social, political and psychological. He further explains that:

“Social disempowerment refers to people’s relative lack of access to the resources essential for the self-production of their livelihood; political disempowerment refers to poor people’s lack of a clear political agenda and voice; and psychological disempowerment refers to poor people’s internalized sense of worthlessness and passive submission to authority.”

The above explains the condition of a clear majority of ordinary Nigerians. This, for instance, is clearly shown in the Human Development Report UNDP 2004) where “over 70 percent of the population live below the international poverty line of \$1.00 per day”. In line with this, Egwu (2006) argues that “approximately 40 per/cent of the population mentioned in the UNDP report live in conditions of extreme poverty of even much lesser than \$1.00 per day”. In more concrete terms, the two reports highlighted above show that the living conditions and the overall quality of life of most Nigerians has deteriorated, over the last decade. Sadly, poverty and other forms of deprivation are more prevalent in the rural areas.

Successive administration in Nigeria has introduced various forms of anti-poverty programmes at all levels of government. From the Obasanjo military regime’s Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), the Green Revolution of Shehu Shagari’s second republic; General Babangida’s Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) and the National Directorate of Employment (NDE); and the present National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), which started as the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP), all the programmes made negligible impact (Dhikru, 2008).

The problem with all these programmes is centered on corruption and mismanagement by public officials. For example, the Punch Newspaper in its editorial of Monday December 24, 2007 reported how the N10 billion allocated to PAP “the forerunner of NAPEP,” was massively mismanaged by politicians, bureaucrats and their cronies”. NAPEP also had little positive results to show, despite huge financial allocations. Apart from its distribution of tricycles (Keke NAPEP), which were highly susceptible to abuse by its coordinators, the anti-poverty agency’s impact was not significantly felt elsewhere (Dhikru, 2008).

Our emphasis on poverty, in the foregoing explanations is largely predicated on the fact that it is a direct consequence of the local government poor performance in the attainment of the MDGS.

Other factors that have also affected the attainment of targets of the MDGS in the local government in Nigeria include inadequate funds, lack of accountability and transparency, and the general lack of committed leadership to the issue of rural development as well as lack of policy framework, weak public institutions and officials among others.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The focus of this paper is based on the MDGS and the challenges of development at the local government level in Nigeria. The attainment of the MDGS and rural development in developing nations depends on the local government where the highest percentage of the people resides. Local government exists in order to bring about development as well as the provision of infrastructural facilities in the rural areas, which will lead to national development.

The attainment of the MDGS on the part of the government at any level of governance is necessary and vital for the success of development. Local government, which by virtue of its proximity to the grassroots

is expected to be at the vanguard of attainment of the MDGS and rural development. However, it has been ineffective and ineffectual to do this in Nigeria.

This is as a result of corruption and mismanagement, inadequate funds, weak public institutions and officials etc. For these reasons, the local government in Nigeria has not been able to fully meet the targets and indicators of the MDGS as at when due.

In order to accelerate the attainment of the MDGS and rural development at the grassroot level in Nigeria, this paper suggests the following:

- Effective decentralization of governmental activities by greater recognition of local governments.
- Introduction of more financial discipline in the local government system to curb especially the endemic problem of corruption and mismanagement. This can be achieved by introducing effective stringent measures to check financial and administrative irresponsibility on the part of both the elected and permanent officials at the local government level.
- Local government allocation from the federation accounts should be increased.
- Effective anti-poverty programme should be introduced with proper policy framework and consequently have an effect on poverty reduction.
- The weak public institutions and officials should be strengthened, reorganize and re-oriented.
- The on-going democratization process should be sustained and reforms made wherever they are necessary.
- Finally upholding of ethical values, accountability and transparency.

References

- Agbakoba, O. and Ogbonna, H. (2004). *Local Government Administration and Development in Nigeria*, Lagos: Hurilaws
- Chikote, R.H. (1981). *Theories of Comparative Politics: The Search for a Paradigm*, Colorado: West View Press.
- Daini O. (2007). "MDGs: *Beyond Paying Lip Services*", The Punch, Tuesday Oct. 30, pg 14.
- Dhikru, A.Y. (2008). "*Attaining the Millennium Development Goals in A Weak State: The Nigerian Example*", International Review of Politics and Development, Vol. 6 (1&2).
- Egwu, S. (2006). "*Elections, Poverty Reduction and Sustainable Development: The Nexus*" paper presented at the 2006 Annual Lecture of Nigeria Social forum.
- Emezi, O.I. (2009). "The Fourth Republic and Local Government Creation", in Odion-Akane, S.(ed) *Local Government Administration in Nigeria: Old and New Visions*, Lagos: Centre for Constitutionalism and Delimitarisation.
- Fadeiye, J.O. (2005). *A Social Studies Textbook for Colleges and Universities*, Ibadan: Akin-Johnson Publishers.
- Friedman, J. (1996). Thinking poverty: Empowerment and Citizens Rights", *International Social Sciences Journal*, No. 148.
- Lawal, S. (2000), Local Government Administration in Nigeria: A Practical Approach in Ajayi, K. (ed), *Theory and Practice of Local Government*, Ado-Ekiti, UNAD Press.
- Marcellus, I (2009). "Local Government and Constitutional Elasticity" in Odion-Akhane, S (ed) "*Local Government Administration in Nigeria: Old and New Visions*", Lagos: Centre for Constitutionalism and Demilitarisation.
- Newspapers
- Nigerian Economic Summit Group (1997). Report on the Fourth Nigerian Economic Summit, Ibadan: Spectrum Books.
- Odion Akhane and Yunusa M., (2009). "Local Government and the Doctrine of Separation of Power", in Odion-Akhane, S (ed) *Local Government Administration in Nigeria: Old and New Visions*, Lagos: Centre for Constitutionalism and Delimitarisation.

- Oni, M.A. et al (2011). "Local Government and National Development" in Olojede I. et al (2011), "Contemporary Issues in Local Government Administration in Nigeria", Lagos: Rakson Educational Publishers.
- The 1976 Local Government Reforms Guidelines*, Lagos: Federal Ministry of Information.
- The Punch*, Monday, December 24, 2007, p. 14
- Thirlwall, A.P. (2003). *Growth and Development: with Special Reference to Developing Economies*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Todaro, M.P. and Smith, S.C. (2003). "Economic Development", Delhi: Pearson Education
- Ugwu, S.C. (2003). *Issues in Local Government and Urban Administration*, Enugu: Academic Publishing co.
- United Nations (2000). *Millennium Summit Report*, UNDP (2004), Human Development Report.

**THE UTILIZATION OF ICTs IN HUMAN RESOURCES UNITS FOR
EFFICIENT SERVICE DELIVERY IN NIGERIA: IMPLICATION FOR
MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGs)**

By
NWOSU, JONATHAN CHINAKA
And
MAKINDE, OLUBISI GRACE
BABCOCK UNIVERSITY

Abstract

The shortage of information technology (IT) skills presents a major hindrance to countries of the region seeking to participate in a global economy. Thus, this paper empirically examined ICTs utilization in human resources units in Nigeria and its implication for MDGs. The study adopted a purposeful random sampling technique in the selection of 300 personnel from fifteen (15) well established organizations including academia (public and private) in Ogun and Lagos States. The age range of the respondents was between ages 25 and 57 years with mean age of 34.82 and standard deviation of 13.03. The ex-post-facto research design was employed. A 30-item self developed questionnaire of the sense of competence scale designed to elicit data on ICTs self-efficacy, MDGs and Human Resources for sustainability was used in generating data for the study. Participants responded to a 5-point Likert-type scale for each factor. Data were analyzed using the t-test, and analysis of variance statistical tools. Research findings demonstrate that personnel's Computer self-efficacy significantly and directly influences continuous use of ICTs. MDGs significantly and indirectly influence continuous use of ICTs for sustainable development in Nigeria; while a significant influence of ICTs on Human Resources Development was noticed on the sustainability and efficient service delivery of the organizations. On the basis of the findings, it was suggested that organization heads should imbibe the technology culture in enhancing the efficiency of their HR unit as well as improving organizational performance.

Keywords: *ICT, Computer Self-efficacy, MDGs, Human Resources Development, Sustainability.*

Introduction

The problem of development is a global challenge and the MDGs is a response by world leaders to that effect. The MDGs provide a platform to engage the development process. Therefore, the goals of millennium development include those dedicated to eradicating poverty, achieving universal primary education, promoting gender equality and empowering women, reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensuring environmental sustainability and developing a global partnership for development.

Over the last ten years significant steps forward have been made in identifying the HRM – performance relationship. However, serious gaps in our understanding still remain with respect to the causal ordering of the variables involved in the HRM – performance relationship (Purcell, Kinnie, Hutchinson, Rayton, & Swart, 2003; Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, & Allen, 2005). Specifically, analysing the impact of HRM

and ICTs on organisational performance in developing a global partnership for development (one of the MDGs goals) is necessary.

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) could be seen as the totality of methods and tools that are used in gathering, storing, processing and communicating information. As Mlitwa (2005) and InfoDev (2006) observed, however, academic commentators, medical practitioners, policy makers, and technology practitioners use various concepts when talking about a technology and most of these concepts often reflects the purpose for which a technology is used.

Tsui (1987) cited by Wachira (2010) affirmed that technology helps the HR function to develop relationships with its constituency and provides it an opportunity for greater effectiveness and satisfaction of both parties. Documented evidence has shown that ICT can be effectively used in HRM to reduce costs, improve services, re-define responsibilities in the organization and improve strategic orientation of HRM.

ICT has potential to generate a more strategic role for HR other than as administration clerks. It may provide the HR function opportunity to create new avenues for contributing to organizational effectiveness through such means as knowledge management and creation of intellectual and social capital and in facilitating flexible working conditions. Use of ICT can establish more virtual customer relationships within the organization thus enabling it to provide strategic value. Through social networking, it can improve employee voice (Martin et al 2009). It frees HRM managers to become strategic members of the top management team (Strohmeir, 2006) and helps to connect HRM to business. It gives HR increased credibility and power through enabling them to generate more reliable data which improves decision making.

Researchers have investigated empirically the effects of HRM practices on organizational performance (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Boselie, 2002). Recent studies reflect an impressive influence of HRM practices on organizational performance. Researchers have divergent views about impact of HRM practices and firms' performance. They argue that HRM practices and performance research have common attributes as well as contradictions (Boselie et al., 2005; Katou & Budhwar, 2006; Wall & Wood, 2005, Wright & Boswell, 2002).

Rizov and Croucher (2008) empirically found that collaborative form of HRM practices (characterized by valuing employees as assets and core partners, creating and communicating a culture of partnership between employer and employees as well as among employees, communicating organization's mission, values, goals and strategy statement through explicit open communication policy and strong support for employees consultative bodies like unions and committees) reflected positive and statistically significant association with firms' performance.

Several studies have found a positive association between HRM practices, ICTs usage and firms' performance (Chang & Kuo, 2004; Jarventaus, 2007; Rizov & Croucher, 2008). Most of these studies have been undertaken in the United States, and Europe (Boseli et al., 2001) and Asia (Bjo`rkman, and Xiucheng, 2002; Kundu & Malhan, 2007). Within Nigeria therefore, limited research has been done to examine the influence of ICTs usage on human resources personnel and efficient service delivery.

In spite of the availability of information and communication technologies (especially in terms of computer and internet usage) in our society today, it is observed that most HR units in most organization in Nigeria (public and private alike) are not familiar with its use and so, they are not able to explore the numerous opportunities it offers to enhance sustainability and efficiency service delivery system. This has adverse effect on the totality of service delivery system in most HR units in Ogun and Lagos States.

Generally, there is a paucity of researches on correlates of ICTs usage in HR units for efficient service delivery. Therefore, this study is designed to fill such research gaps in Nigeria. Specifically, this study investigated the utilization of ICTs and Human Resources for sustainability and efficient service delivery in most HR units in Ogun and Lagos States in Nigeria. Also, the study investigated the HR personnel computer self-efficacy; as well as continuous adoption and utilization of ICTs for efficient service delivery.

Research Questions

1. To what extent will Computer self-efficacy influence the continuous use of ICT by HR Personnel?
2. Will MDGs procedure for ICTs usage influence the continuous adoption and utilization of ICTs for sustainability development in human resources unit?
3. Will there be any significant difference between the adoption and utilization of ICTs by HR personnel for efficient service delivery of the organizations?

Research Hypotheses

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the following hypotheses were formulated for testing at the 5% error margin.

1. Computer self-efficacy will not significantly influence continuous use of ICT by HR Personnel.
2. MDGs will not significant influence the continuous adoption and utilization of ICTs for sustainability development in human resources unit.
3. There is no significant difference between the adoption and utilization of ICTs by HR personnel for efficient service delivery of the organizations.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study adopted an ex-post facto survey research design where questionnaire instruments were used to collect data from the respondents on the studied variables without any manipulation of the variables.

Participants

A purposeful random sampling technique was adopted in the selection of 300 personnel from fifteen (15) well established organizations including academia (public and private) in Ogun and Lagos States. The age range of the respondents was between ages 25 and 57 years with mean age of 34.82 and standard deviation of 13.03

Measures

A 30-item self-developed questionnaire of the sense of competence scale designed to elicit data on ICTs self-efficacy, MDGs and Human Resources for efficient service delivery and was used in generating data for the study. Participants responded to a 5-point Likert-type scale for each factor. The items are scored on a five – point scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). The reliability coefficient for the 30-items scale was .81. Using the Cronbach's alpha model, the reliability coefficient was calculated at 0.77.

Procedure

The questionnaire for assessing the variables of the study was administered on the sample through assistance of six (6) colleagues. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed and found useable for the data analysis.

Data Analysis

CS – Pro was used for the data entry while analysis was done using SPSS 17.0. The data analysis was based on earlier set hypotheses which involved the use of t-test and multiple regression analysis statistical packages.

RESULTS

Table 1: *Summary of Analysis of variance on the effect of computer self-efficacy on continuous use of ICT by HR Personnel*

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Regression	508.179	1	508.179		
Residual	4499.683	298	14.989	33.903	.010
Total	5007.862	299			

The calculated value of $f = 33.903$ which is greater than the critical value of $f = 2.38$ indicates that computer self-efficacy have significant influence on the continuous use of ICT by HR Personnel. Therefore, the null hypothesis that stated that computer self-efficacy will not significantly influence continuous use of ICT by HR Personnel is rejected in favour of the alternate hypothesis. This means that computer self-efficacy will significantly influence continuous use of ICT by HR Personnel for sustainability in Nigeria.

Table 2: *Model Summary of the Multiple Regression Analysis of the effect of MDGs on adoption and utilization of ICT for sustainable development*

	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	SE	Change Statistics				
Model					R ² Change	F Change	d f 1	d f 2	Sig. F Change
Predictor Variables	.786	.715	.691	2.139	.691	57.086	2	298	.000

The results in Table 2 revealed that continuous adoption and utilization of ICT reflects the effect of MDGs for sustainability development by human resources personnel in Nigeria ($R = .786$; $R^2 = .715$; $F(2,298) = 57.086$; $P < .05$). This revealed that continuous adoption and utilization of ICT by human resources personnel in Nigeria accounted for 69.1% of the total variance in the effect of MDGs for sustainability development. This finding rejected the hypothesis, which stated that MDGs will not significant influence the continuous adoption and utilization of ICT for sustainability development in human resources unit.

Table 2: *Model Summary of the Multiple Regression Analysis of the effect of MDGs on adoption and utilization of ICT for sustainable development*

Model	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	SE	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	F Change	df 1	df 2	Sig. F Change
Predictor Variables	.786	.715	.691	2.139	.691	57.086	2	298	.000

The results in Table 2 revealed that continuous adoption and utilization of ICT reflects the effect of MDGs for sustainability development by human resources personnel in Nigeria ($R = .786$; $R^2 = .715$; $F(2,298) = 57.086$; $P < .05$). This revealed that continuous adoption and utilization of ICT by human resources personnel in Nigeria accounted for 69.1% of the total variance in the effect of MDGs for sustainability development. This finding rejected the hypothesis, which stated that MDGs will not significant influence the continuous adoption and utilization of ICT for sustainability development in human resources unit.

Table 3: *T-test analysis showing difference in the adoption and utilization of ICT for HR sustainability and efficient service delivery.*

Variable	N	X	SD	Df	T-cal	T-crit
Adoption	300	57.84	11.73	598	2.964	1.96
Utilization	300	53.09	13.15			

$P < .05$

The table 3 shows that HR adoption of ICT for sustainability is high (57.84) but its utilization for sustainability and efficient service delivery of the organizations is low (53.09). A further analysis revealed that there is a significant difference in the adoption and utilization of ICT of HR unit for sustainability and efficient service delivery of the organizations ($t = 2.964$, $df = 598$, $P < 0.05$). The calculated t - value of 2.964 is greater than the critical table value of 1.96. Thus, the earlier null hypothesis stated cannot be sustained.

Discussion

The findings of the first hypothesis indicated that that computer self-efficacy will significantly influence continuous use of ICT by HR Personnel for sustainability in Nigeria. The result corroborates the findings of Strohmeir, (2006) that ICT frees HRM managers to become strategic members of the top management team and helps to connect HRM to business. It also gives HR increased credibility and power through

enabling them to generate more reliable data which improves decision making. This result is also in line with the findings of Dzenowagis (2005), WHO (2005), InfoDev (2006) and Wachira (2010) who affirmed that ICT is a tool that can be used to reach a series of desired outcome, which provides an opportunity for greater effectiveness.

The outcome of the second hypothesis revealed that MDGs will significant influence the continuous adoption and utilization of ICT for sustainability development in human resources unit. Results in Table 2 show the regression value for the effect of MGDs (.786) and the adjusted R^2 (.691). This implies that that continuous adoption and utilization of ICT by human resources personnel in Nigeria accounted for 69.1% of the total variance in the effect of MDGs for sustainability development. The table also shows that the f-value (57.086) is significant at .000, a level that is less than 0.05. The findings of Wachira (2010) lend a good credence to this study that technology helps the HR function to develop relationships with its constituency and provides it an opportunity for greater effectiveness and satisfaction of both parties.

The findings of the third hypothesis indicated that there is a significant difference in the adoption and utilization of ICTs on Human Resources Development on the sustainability and efficient service delivery of the organizations ($t = 2.964$, $df = 598$, $P < 0.05$). The calculated t - value of 2.964 is less than the critical table value of 1.96. Results in table 3 show that HR adoption of ICT for sustainability is high (57.84) but its utilization for sustainability and efficient service delivery of the organizations is low (53.09). The hypothesis was rejected. The implication of this finding is that most of the organizations either public or private are not technology oriented but the HR unit may lack necessary skills on technology usage.

Conclusion

This study examined the utilization of ICTs and Human Resources for sustainability and efficient service delivery in most HR units in Ogun State Nigeria. Research findings demonstrate that personnel's Computer self-efficacy significantly and directly influences continuous use of ICTs. MDGs significantly and indirectly influence continuous use of ICTs for sustainable development in Nigeria; while a significant influence of ICTs on Human Resources Development was noticed on the sustainability and efficient service delivery of the organizations. On the basis of the findings, it was suggested that organization heads should imbibe the technology culture in enhancing the efficiency of their HR unit as well as improving organizational performance.

References

- Becker, B.E. and Huselid, M.A. (1998) "High Performance Work Systems and Firm Performance: A Synthesis of Research and Managerial Implications", *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, 16, pp. 53–101.
- Bjo`rkman, I., and Budhwar, P. (2007) "When in Rome? Human resource management and the performance of foreign firms operating in India", *Employee Relations* 29(6), pp. 595-610.
- Boselie, J., Dietz, G., and Boon, C. (2005) "Commonalities and contradictions in HRM and Performance research", *Human Resource Management Journal*, 15(3), pp. 67–94.

Dzenowagis, J. (2005) Connecting for health: global vision, local insight. Geneva: WHO

Gloet, M. and Berrell, M. (2003) "The dual paradigm nature of knowledge management: implications for achieving quality outcomes in human resource management", *Journal of Knowledge Management*, Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 78-89.

Martin, G. (2005) Technology and People Management: Challenges and Opportunities, Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, Wimbledon.

Martin, G., Reddington, M. and Kneafsey, M.B. (2009) "Web 2.0 and human resources: 'groundswell' or hype?", Research Report, Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, London.

McDonald, D. & Smith, A. (1995) "A Proven Connection: Performance Management and Business Results", *Compensation and Benefits Review*, Jan-Feb: 59-64.

InfoDev (2006) Improving Health, Connecting People: The Role of ICTs in the Health Sector of Developing Countries. Retrieved from www.findarticle.com

Rizov, M., & Croucher, R. (2008) "Human resource management and performance in European firms", *Cambridge Journal of Economics* 2009, 33, 253–272.

Strohmeier, S. (2006) "Coping with contradictory consequences of e-HRM", Proceedings of the First European Academic Workshop on Electronic Human Resource Management, Enschede, The Netherlands, October 25-26.

Wachira, F. N. (2010) Improving the Management of Human Resources in the Public Service through application of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). Paper presented on Capacity Building Workshop for Public Sector Human Resource Managers in Africa on "Strengthening Human Resource Capacities for the Achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and Africa's Development" Cotonou, Republic of Benin – 12 to 16 April 2010.

Wall, T.D., and Wood, S.J. (2005) "The Romance of Human Resource Management and Business Performance, and the Case of Big Science", *Human Relations*, 58(4), 429–462.

Weigel, G and Waldburger, D. (2004) ICT4D - Connecting people for a better world: Lessons, innovations and perspectives of information and

communication technologies in development. Berne/Kuala Lumpur: SDC/GKP

World Bank Group (2005) About the Goals
<http://ddpext.worldbank.org/ext/GMIS/gdmis.do?siteId=2&menuId=LNAV01HOME1>

World Bank (2003) ICT and MDGs: A World Bank Group perspective.
Washington, DC: World Bank

MDGs AND SECURITY IN THE NIGER DELTA: INTERROGATING THE AMNESTY PROGRAMME AS A PANACEA FOR DEVELOPMENT

By

¹NWAODIKE CHIBUZOR A., ²EBIENFA KIMIEBI I.

³ANABIRI EMMANUEL C.

¹DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, BABCOCK UNIVERSITY, ILISHAN REMO, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA ^{2,3}DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, OYO STATE, NIGERIA

Abstract

The oil rich Niger Delta has been engulfed in crisis in recent times due to local resistance activities by militant groups. Militant insurgency in the region which sustains the nation's economy rides on the groundswell of popular anger linked to decades of marginalization, repression, environmental degradation, hand-scrabble poverty and relative deprivation, occasioned by the actions of the Nigerian state and international petro-business operating in the area. The MDGs is a global initiative aimed at reducing poverty and improving the standard of living of man, among others in society. The paper adopted documentary method and secondary data to source information. The secondary data was obtained through published and unpublished sources such as textbooks, news papers, journals, magazines, internet source among others. This paper argues that, the drive to actualize the MDGs in the Niger Delta has suffered various setbacks due to security hiccups and low implementation of programmes occupying the front burner. The paper concludes that, though the amnesty programme for militants is designed to herald security of lives and property in the volatile region, the politicization of the implementation process will invariably continue to frustrate the actualization of the MDG goals in the area and Nigeria at large.

Keywords: Militant, Security, Development and Amnesty

Introduction

The Niger Delta occupies a very strategic position in oil and gas exploration in Nigeria because it harbors majority of Nigerian oil reserve. The region is quantitatively blessed with the 'almighty' black gold which waters the 80% of Nigeria revenue. However, the issue of developing the region that gives the bulk of the county's revenue has been seriously politicized since Nigeria had its independence. Successive governments both military and civilian have paid lip service to the development agenda of the region. The politicization of the development of this region has led to a struggle which started since independence. The founding fathers of the struggle were first seen as individuals trying to advance their selfish interest and as such the military government and the civilian ones that followed ignorantly mismanaged the struggle through the adoption of militarism as a solution. Thus, the execution of seven Ogoni Indigenes who were Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP) faithful was the height of this mismanagement. Thus, Ebienfa (2010) submitted that all the agitations hardly resulted to any positive response on the side of the central government but rather was met with state violence that resulted to the militants approach by the youths in the region.

The struggle gathered momentum at the re-birth of democracy in 1999, thus several groups such as Movement for the Emancipation of Niger Delta (MEND) Niger Delta People Volunteer Force (NDPVF) NDV, COMA to mention but a few domesticated the struggle. The implication of their struggle is that the peace of the region and the country at large was seen to be at stake because of the nefarious activities of these groups ranging from kidnapping, assassination, destruction and vandalization of the oil pipe line and other activities which are inimical to the growth and development of Nigerian economy. The Obasanjo regime tried to tackle the problem eye ball to eye ball with detrimental collateral damage. The country degenerated during this period towards the status of a weak state that some political scientists were opting for the classification of Nigeria as a failed state.

Put differently, Tuschl (2007), maintained that the oil rich Niger Delta region of Nigeria got embroiled in crisis between the government forces and some militant elements that are aggrieved over certain fundamental issues affecting the region. Since the last few years, militants have fought with government forces, sabotaged oil installations, taken foreign oil workers hostage and carried out lethal car bombings. At the root of the problem is a crisis of underdevelopment. The crisis has been exacerbated by emergent issues of a gross distortion of Nigerian federalism in respect to resource control; citizenship rights and environmental degradation. Unfortunately, the external manifestation has been mainly that of violent agitations and criminal activities of some elements taking advantage of the bad situation.

The crisis portends a very grave danger for the Niger Delta Region in particular and the Nigerian State in general. It is a truism that the militants are not only confronting the Nigerian

State, they are also at war with an extension of global capitalism represented in the region by the Multinational Oil Companies. To curtail the crisis, amnesty was extended to the militants. It can be argued that the basis for the gesture is to maintain peace and tranquility and by extension meet the security challenges in order to develop the region. However, government policies and Millennium Development Goals should complement each other to be able to attain this objective. The theme of the paper, therefore, is to adopt modalities on how the Nigerian government can expedite action on its policy programs and that of Millennium Development Goals concurrently and actualize the needed development and at the same time sustain them so as to bring succor to the sufferings of the people of Niger Delta and by extension the Nigerian masses.

This paper adopted documentary methods and secondary sources of data collection. These include; relevant textbooks, newspapers, journals articles, magazines, internet sources. However, the body of the paper is divided into seven parts which include; abstract; introduction; theoretical framework; MDGs and sustainable development in Nigeria; oil insurgency, security and MDG programme in Niger Delta; politics of amnesty, security and MDGs agenda in the Niger Delta; and concluding remarks respectively.

Theoretical Framework- System and Frustration-Aggression Theories

The **system theory** takes political or social system as the proper unit of analysis and was introduced to sociology and politics principally by Talcott Parsons (The Structure of Social Action, 1937) and later by David Easton (The Political System, 1953). Parson viewed social system as containing four subsystems

devoted to 'adaptivity', 'good seeking', 'integration' and 'latency' which relate respectively to the economy, politics, sociology and family. Both Parson and Easton were influenced by biologists' models of ecological systems (McLean and McMillan, 2003). The theory, however, stressed that taking only the individual as unit of analysis misses interactions which can only be explained by reference to society. It is also not out of place to pitch this research work on the psychological tenets of **Frustration-Aggression Theory**. The theory is derived from psychology and evident in the work of such scholars like McDougall Freud, etc. Its tenets remain the assumption that frustration leads to aggression. Thus, aggression in its effect is as a result of frustration. It is of moment to argue that plight of a politically and economically oppressed and dominated Niger Delta could be the recourse to use of arm.

Buying into these theories, it is conclusive to state that the security challenges in this region can be safely explained within the premise of prolonged oppression of one form or the other has resulted to a halt to the economic means of the entire country and non implementation of governmental policies and the Millennium Development Goals and by extension led to underdevelopment, abject poverty, insecurity of lives and poverty across the entire system. Having adopted political and diplomatic resolutions, it is expected that the federal government will expedite actions towards massive and aggressive implementation of these policy programs so that these scenario do not repeat itself.

MDGs and sustainable development in Nigeria

The purpose of development in any given society is to improve the lives of the masses through expansion of their choices, freedom and dignity. Thus, development is a normative concept referring to a multidimensional process and must be relative over time, place and circumstance (McLean and McMillan, 2003). The physical necessities of life such as food, clothing and shelter must be provided in addition to quality employment, equality, political and economic independence, gender equality, participation in governance among others. However, reverse is the case in most developing countries. It is on this note that the United Nations Millennium Declaration was adopted in September 2000 to address some of these challenges and in particular the problems of poverty and at the same time promote sustainable development.

In spite of this laudable project, many countries that embrace the declaration still wonder in abject poverty and squalor. Of course, Nigeria is not far fetch in this category. The 2004 report by the National Planning Commission indicates that poverty is about 54.4% (Igbuzor, 2007). The Human Development Index for 2010 on the other hand ranked Nigeria 142 out of 169 countries (UNDP, 2010). The statistics therefore suggest that Nigeria is rated very low in all development indices, thus, poverty in the country is in the midst of plenty. The scenario stipulates that about less than 5 years to the 2015 date, it is doubtful whether Nigeria will achieve this feat. Reasons being that the Nigerian state is characterized with political and economic instability, corrupt practices in high and low places, lack of political will to implement some of the programmes among others.

This nonchalance and insensitiveness of the Nigerian government to address the needs and aspirations of the citizenry necessitated the various militant approaches by various groups, thus, resulting to insecurity of lives and property. Of course, Niger Delta is the most affected in terms of neglect and underdevelopment but paradoxically the heart of the nation's economy. That is, Nigeria is a mono-cultural economy and depends mainly on oil and gas which is the fulcrum of its economy. It is on this

premise that the youths in the region decided to bring oil production to a stalemate in an attempt to press their demand.

However, the introduction of amnesty by the government of late president Yar'Adua was seen as a blockbuster towards arresting the ugly situation in the region and was commended both in the academic and leadership community, locally and internationally. The amnesty programme offered diplomatic answer to the problem arising from the agitation of the Niger delta people. The militants embraced the programme and helped in bringing temporary peace to the region. Thus available statistics shows that the barrel of crude oil produced in the region has improved since the amnesty programme got on the way. The amnesty programme was designed to equip the youths of the region with technical knowledge to participate in the development effort. Several youths are sent abroad to acquire all kinds of skill in all human endeavor which is a welcome development but the raging question still bothers on if the central government can provide the enabling environment for these trained youths to practice the skill they acquire by establishing infrastructures, job creation, reduce inequality, absolute and disproportionate poverty. The paper therefore argues that it is not enough to send these youths abroad to acquire skills but should address some pertinent internal issues which could hamper the progress of the program, such as addressing the problems of bad leadership, corruption, infrastructural decay, provision of employment, reduction of inequality to mention but a few.

Oil insurgency, security and MDG programmes in Niger Delta

By oil insurgency we mean “a technology of military conflict characterized by small, lightly armed bands practicing guerilla warfare from rural base areas”. Of late of course the delta militants are not simply lightly armed and operate in some way from urban bases (Fearon and Latin, 2003) The rise of Nigeria as a strategic player in the world of oil geopolitics has been dramatic and has occurred in the wake of a bloody civil war that ended in 1970 and in which several million were killed. In the late 1950's petroleum products were trivial, amounting to less than 2% of total exports. Between 1960 and 1973 oil output exploded from just over 5 million barrels to over 600 million barrels. Government oil revenues in turn accelerated from 66 million naira (N) in 1970 to over N10 billion in 1980. Over the last two years oil and gas revenues have averaged roughly \$50 billion and nominal GDP is in excess of \$100 billion (Nigeria Oil and Gas 2007). A multi-billion dollar oil sector has, however, and a set of expectations driven by the aura of 'black gold' proven to be a little more than a nightmare. Accordingly, the discovery of oil in Nigeria especially within the Niger Delta region was seen as a blessing both to the region and Nigeria at large. The euphoria that beclouded this discovery is likened to that experienced in Alaska, Texas and other parts of United States. But the happiness later turned to a source of discomfort and problem. Oil which has served as a unifying factor to other heterogeneous societies later became a source of disunity to Nigeria. Oil has created a great security threat to the Nigerian political and economic system. Thus, the Niger Delta has been described as a death zone by the United States Intelligence report. Admonishing its citizens to flee from the area for their safety. Kidnapping, Abduction, Assassination, Armed Robbery, destruction of life and properties were seen to be the order of the day in this region and the federal government was in most cases found wanting in providing security to the inhabitants of the region and from the standpoint of political theorists, the only feature that differentiates a state from any other organization is the provision of security but when a state fails to live up to this responsibility, it becomes a weak state. Hence, the activities of the militant groups was seen to be of great threat to the existence of Nigeria, the efforts made by federal government to arrest the situation of insecurity in the region have

been deficient before the introduction of the diplomatic solution christened amnesty which is contemporarily becoming a political affair and as such posing more threat to the unity of the country hence the activities of a religious extremist like Buko Haram seeking for negotiation and granting of amnesty from the federal government. The security dilemma remains that if the federal government offers amnesty to the Boko Haram, there is also a possibility that other ethnic militias or religious factions like Oodua People's Congress (OPC), Movement for the Actualization of Sovereign States of Biafra (MASOB) to mention but a few would want to be involved in activities that will put the peace and security of the country into jeopardy.

In the light of the above, the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) was designed to bring development to countries of underdevelopment through the institutionalization of programs and policies to reduce poverty, inequality, employment, provide quality good health care to mention but a few. These programs have been introduced in Niger Delta area of Nigeria as one of the most impoverished region in Nigeria irrespective of their enormous blessing from nature. The World Health Organization (WHO) and other United Nations Agencies have since 2001 involved in programs and policies that are aimed towards fighting abject and disproportionate poverty, reduction of inequality through the creation of a viable middle class and qualitative medical care to reduce adult and child mortality. These programs were underpinned by the physical and environmental security of the region. Put differently, the essence of all the MDG programs is to provide programs and policies to address some physical and environmental security such as

- What is happening to the people's ability to carry out their day-to-day activities without fear of harm or the unknown?
 - What is happening to the air that people breath?
 - What is happening to the water people drink?
 - What is happening to the rivers people fish?
 - What is happening to the farm people cultivate and harvest?

These pertinent questions were aimed to be answered through the programs and policies of MDG but irrespective of all these laudable promises of these programs, the security situation in the area had been described to be in a deplorable condition. However, scholars have argued that the reason for the inability of these MDG programs to achieve its desired purpose is hospitable to some external and internal reasons which include corruption, bad leadership and the selfish interest of western imperialist who are benefiting from the instability of the region.

Politics of amnesty, security & the MDGs Agenda in the Niger Delta

Security has become so central to the growth and development of nations and their citizens so much so that nations have over the years allotted a sizeable percentage of their budget to security (Odoma, 2009). Security is the state of being secured, freedom from apprehension, confident of safety and freedom from danger or risk (Udofia, 2010). In ideal situations, the fundamental objective of any government is the maintenance of peace and tranquility. For instance, section 14 (2) (b) of the Nigerian 1999 Constitution buttress this fact when it clearly states that "the security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government", However, how true is this declaration in practice in contemporary Nigeria?

The oil rich Niger Delta in recent times epitomizes a centre of frustrated expectations and deep rooted mistrust, unprecedented restiveness, observable neglect, dearth of social infrastructures and services, high mortality rate, chronic poverty and general insecurity. The area has been engulfed in security crisis since the closing years of the last millennium when oil agitations turn violent, due to the inability of peaceful agitations to achieve desired results, hence the violent militant agitations (Ebienfa and Paki, 2011). Due to the mono-dependant character of the Nigerian economy, disruptions in oil and gas production attributed to the activities of militants create adverse effect to the nation and security of lives and property in the Niger Delta in particular, and equally threaten the realization of the Millennium Development Goals. And to actualize the lofty objective of the MDGs in the oil rich but backward region necessitate massive infrastructural development and human capacity development.

The MDGs no doubt are situated in the context of human cum infrastructural development, and cannot be attained in an atmosphere of insecurity. The implementation of MDG projects in the Niger Delta suffers serious setback when militancy was at its peak in the area characterized by hostage-taking, kidnapping, attacks and destruction of oil installations etc. In fact, most contractors abandoned their jobs due to the high level of insecurity in the roads and waterways. Some of such projects include the East-West road, dredging of the River Niger, Electrical Power Stations, Gbarain-Ubie gas gathering project, and the construction of numerous schools, markets, toilet facilities, pipe-borne water and hospitals as the case may be, aimed at improving the living standard of the people. That is, the spate of militancy led to the swelling of the data of uncompleted and abandoned projects spread around the region due to the violent activities of frustrated youth groups, militating against their timely completion.

For instance, the number of persons reportedly kidnapped or held hostage increased from 353 persons in 2008 to 512 persons in the first four months of 2009 (Eseduwo, 2009). More so, over 400 billion naira was budgeted for security in the region in 2008, but despite the suppression and repression tactics of the Federal Government which culminate in the militarization of the region, militant activities continued unabated geometrically (Harcourt, 2009). From the foregoing, it became imperative that, something drastic ought to be done to save the vulnerable economy from imminent collapse and the stagnation of development projects in the area. Therefore, the declaration of the Presidential Amnesty on the 25th of June 2009, to all militants in the Niger Delta that willingly surrender their guns on or before October 4th 2009, ushered in a new dimension to the lingering oil violence in the region. The Amnesty offer was succeeded by a 60-Day window period, requesting all militants who choose to embrace the amnesty programme to surrender their arms and ammunitions on or before 4th October, 2009. To achieve the policy objectives, a Presidential Amnesty Committee was set up, headed by the then Minister of Defense, Godwin Abbe. Arms collections and mobilization centers were also set up in strategic locations across the region and the initial sum of 50 billion naira was released to execute the programme.

The leadership of the militants initially rejected the amnesty offer outright, claiming that it was simply one of the insincere and deceptive policies of the federal government to perpetuate the unbridled exploitation of the region. However, after serious persuasions and politicking, all the known militants except AsariDokubo and the faceless members of MEND embraced the Amnesty Programme. The position of MEND was that, it allowed its commanders to accept the amnesty because their identities have been known, but promise to replace them with a new set of dedicated faceless commanders to continue with the struggle. The general acceptance of the amnesty offer was followed with the massive

surrendering of different typologies of arms and ammunitions, including sophisticated Anti-Aircraft guns, Rocket Propelled Grenades and Multi-Purpose Gun-Boats. A visit to the Arms Collection Centers and the number of arms and ammunitions submitted by the repentant militants was reminiscent of countries plagued by years of civil war. From Okitipupa to Warri, Yenagoa to Port Harcourt and Benin to Eket, the story was the same.

While surrendering his weapons at the Isaac Boro Peace Park, Yenagoa, amidst fanfare, one of the repentant militants, Commander Lagos Jackson, spoke the mind of many of the militants when he asserted that, the decision to surrender his arms and disband his camp in the creeks was based on the proclamation of an unconditional amnesty to all militants by President Yar'Adua, which will allow them the opportunity to return to normal life in the cities unmolested (The Nation, March 21, 2010). The second vital reason why the amnesty programme was embraced by the militants was to give peace a chance and watch keenly what the Federal Government has up His sleeves. To demonstrate to the world that the ethnic minorities were peace loving people, but only became violent as a result of decades of victimization, suppression and brutalization, the militants decided to lay down their arms and give government the opportunity it has been yawning for to reverse the development deficit in the region. This was against the lame excuses often advanced by government that militant activities frustrate the development agenda of the region.

As a panacea of achieving peace, amnesty for militants in the Niger Delta is a good idea. However, the Federal Government must demonstrate the political will to muster resources for the development of the region. The reason has been that, Government so easily finds funds for peripheral matters on the Niger Delta, and not for core issues begging for attention. The above kind of sentiment completely betrays a deep misunderstanding, or covering up, of the working of capitalism in general and especially short sighted kleptomaniac characteristic of the Nigerian State. More so, the unfettered implementation of MDG projects will go a long way to resolve the lingering crisis of development deficit in the area, but government has failed to demonstrate the capacity to do so.

The paper wish to state unequivocally that, the popularized amnesty programme was not adequately planned, and the implementation process is also highly monetized and politicized. To achieve sustainable and dependable outcome, the pioneer step on the part of Nigerian government basically ought to have been a comprehensive militants and arms audit in the region. The argument is that, carrying out a comprehensive audit of the rank and file of the militant population in the region would have afforded the government the opportunity to ascertain the strength of the various militant camps and arms capacity in the region. But since that was not done before the hasty amnesty proclamation, it is difficult to ascertain whether the arms surrendered by the militants at the various arms collection centers across the region actually represent the genuine arms and ammunition capacities of such groups. The grim reality is that, due to the thick fog of insincerity that cloud the relationship between the people of the Niger Delta and the Government, most militants especially the Resource Agitators-Militancy category, surrendered only part of their armory, hence throwing up serious security concerns. In other instances, it was alleged that even the arms and ammunitions submitted by the militants were bought for them for submission by some top government officials simply to demonstrate the acceptance of amnesty in those States. Bayelsa and Delta State are reference points where such allegations held sway (Ebienfa, 2010).

Furthermore, there was no concrete post-amnesty plan, and the government's amorphous amnesty menu, which offers tripartite rehabilitation jobs, skills acquisition (including education), and private business- does not suit all the targeted beneficiaries (Agbo, 2009).. The amnesty programme was designed to pay monthly allowances to the repentant militants. But it was observed that, due to the monthly meager allowances paid to the repentant militants for their up keep, some militants were even excluded from the registration process. Some militant leaders claim that the Amnesty Co-ordination Committee members told them to bring in only a specified numbers of repentant militants for registration from a particular camp. The fundamental question that begs for an answer is that, where will the remaining militants go to and what would become of them? That is, after earning about three hundred to six hundred thousand naira per month as militants, and being discriminated or segregated in a process where they are to earn an insignificant amount of sixty thousand naira, actually leave them with no option than to go back to the trade they have mastered.

Corruption has also been identified as a major bottleneck in the implementation process of the amnesty programme. Evidently, there have been persistent cases of non-payment of allowances to militants, coupled with the inflation of payment vouchers with ghost names. This means, non-militants are receiving the allowances of ex-militants, which clearly pictures the massive corruption that engulfed the amnesty programme. The demonstration by ex-militants at Benin, Warri, Yenagoa and Port-Harcourt were reactions against the high degree of corruption in the programme, coupled with the assassination of former militant leaders, Soboma George, General Ebi etc. by their lieutenants due to high-handedness and financial impropriety.

Again, several months after the inception of the amnesty programme, only 16,335 of the 26,000 repentant militants were able to undergo the demobilization programme at Obubra, Cross Rivers State, and subsequently, as at May 2011, only 1,356 of these ex-militants has been sent abroad for skill acquisition and academic training in the United States, Poland, South Africa, Malaysia, Russia, India, Ghana, Philippines and United Arab Emirates (Ossai, 2011). From the above grim statistics, it is evidence that the federal government is insincere on the implementation of the amnesty programme. Therefore the absence of an effective and acceptable post-amnesty plan is gradually eroding the halcyon days in the Niger Delta, with the recent resumption of attacks by the militants. Though militant agitations seized in October 2009 and led to increase in the oil production output, Nigerians were taken aback when militants blew up an oil pipeline at the Abonemma area of Rivers State, late in December 2009. This has been followed with similar attacks in 2010 at the Shell Petroleum Development Company oil pipeline in Kokori, Delta State, Shell Trunk Line in Obunoma, Rivers State, Car bomb attacks in Warri, Delta State and the recent attack on oil facilities by John Togo (Samuel, 2011). These attacks send a dangerous signal as regards the purported peace ushered in by the amnesty window.

Concluding remarks

There is no denying the fact that absence of a workable post-amnesty programme has led to a vicious circle of conferences without tangible results. The argument in essence is, the present existential condition authenticate and corroborate the perception that, the amnesty policy was formulated and implemented to safeguard the uninterrupted flow of oil and gas production in the region. Again, focusing on the militants rather than implementing the numerous development programmes that have been recommended over time by plethora of committees set up to under study the Niger Delta question, will not yield sustainable

results. The amnesty programme is failing gradually simply because, with the ever increasing consciousness of exploitation in the region, peace will be elusive if the agitations of the people are not adequately addressed. And of course the grim reality is the infamous vicious cycle of poverty-relative deprivation-frustration-violent agitations and insecurity in the region. The implication therefore is that, the spate of insecurity in the oil-rich region and the ever increasing Boko Haram bombing in northern Nigeria will adversely hinder the realization of the MDGs agenda as 2015 draws near. Moreover, all corrupt practices that characterized the amnesty process must be checkmated and due process must be followed to build confidence among stakeholders. Again, there must be political will on the part of the federal and state governments to implement all the policy programs and by extension massively develop the region.

References

- Agbo, A.(2009), "The Gains of Amnesty" *TELL, November 2*.
- Briggs, J. (2002), "Guide to Armed Groups in the Niger Delta", *Terrorism Monitor, Volume 7, 1-2*
- Collier, P. (2003), "The Bottom Billion" Oxford University Press.
- Ebiefafa, K (2010), Oil, Militancy and Political Opportunities in the Niger Delta, *M.Sc Thesis, Department of Political Science, University of Ibadan*
- Ebiefafa, K and Paki, F (2011), "Militant Oil Agitations in Nigeria's Niger Delta and the Economy", *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, Volume 1, No. 5*
- Eseduwo, F (2008), "Petroleum Prospecting, State Violence and Hostage Taking in Nigeria: A Study of the Niger Delta region (1966-2007)". *Conference Proceedings, International Conference on the Nigerian State, Oil and the Niger Delta, Organized* by the Department of Political Science, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, March 11-13.
- Harcourt, W (2009), "The Nigerian State and Repression Tactics in the Oil Delta", *Studies in Environment and Justice, Volume 3, No. 1*
- Ibeanu, O. J. Unbounded; Petro-Business and Petro-Politics in Niger Delta.
- Igbuzor, O. (2006), "Review of Nigeria Millennium Development Goals-2005 Report" <http://www.dawodu.com/igbuzor11.htm>
- McLean, I. and McMillan, A. (2003), "Oxford Concise Dictionary of Politics", New York. Oxford University Press.

Obi, C. (2004), "The Oil Paradox" *ULPA 73 University of Leipzig Papers in Politics and Economics*.

Odoma, S (2009), "Security and Crime Management Imperative for Sustainable Democracy in Nigeria" being a paper presented at the First Annual Learned Conference of College of Business and Social Sciences, Crawford University, Igbesa, Nigeria.

Ossai, J. (2011), "16,335 Ex-Militants Trained Under Amnesty Program. Nigerian Tribune, Saturday, May 28, 2011.

Samuel, E (2011), "Amnesty in the Niger Delta: Challenges and Prospects", *Journal of Niger Delta Studies, Volume 4, No. 2*
The Nation, March 21, 2010.

Udofia, D (2010), "The Role of Religion in the Anti-Corruption War and the Management of National Security in Nigeria" in Albert and Olarinde (eds) Trends and Tensions in Managing Conflicts, Society for Peace Studies and Practice, Abuja.

UNDP (2010), "The Human Development Index (HDI) - 2010 Ranking <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/> Retrieved 17/3/2011 by 3:27pm

EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF THE INFLUENCE OF MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ON NIGERIANS' STANDARD OF LIVING

By

ONUOHA, LUKE

*Babcock University Ilishan,
Ilishan Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.*

NWOSU, JONATHAN CHINAKA

*Babcock University Ilishan,
Ilishan Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria*

Abstract

This study examined the effects of MDGs on standard of living in Ogun State, Nigeria. The major purpose of this study was three folded, (a) to find out the degree of standard of living among Nigerians, (b) to identify the determinants of standard of living and (c) to assess the effectiveness of some of the policies melted out by the government in improving standard of living of Nigerians. The data for the study were collected from 1585 households in ten (10) local government areas (LGAs) of the state using probability proportionate to size of the registered institutions in the LGAs. Data were collected using a 30-item self-developed questionnaire with the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .89. Out of the 1585 questionnaires only 1563 were good for analysis. The data gathered were analysed using descriptive statistics, simple percentages, and regression technique. Results showed poverty incidence to be 56.8% while major determinants of standard of living were shown to be income inequalities, poverty, education, household expenditure among others. Also a significant demographic difference was found on the effect of MDGs on Nigerians' standard of living while policies melted out to improve the economy could not reach the expected goals. The paper suggested the need for viable policies and implementation to meet the needs and yearnings of Nigerians.

Keywords: *Millennium Development Goals, Nigerian, Standard Of Living, Income Inequalities, Poverty.*

Background

At the millennium summit in September 2000, the largest gathering of world history, UN millennium Declaration was adopted, committing member Heads of States of nations to a new global partnership to reduce poverty, improve health, and promote peace, human rights, gender equality, and environmental sustainability. All 191 Member States of the United Nations have pledged to achieve these goals by the year 2015. The Goals and their targets and indicators have been widely accepted as a framework for measuring national and global development progress.

One of the most pathetic features of the Nigerian economy today is that a majority of its populace is living in a state of absolute or relative poverty while the remaining relatively insignificant minority is living in affluence. These skewed economic relations do not reflect the geographical spread of resources

endowment; rather it is a product of classical greed, injustice and selfishness, which is beyond any economic principle. Though, it is true that where one comes from can be strong determinant of one's economic status because of different opportunities and constraints but what is presently happening in Nigeria differs too much from this.

Many factors have been shown to influence the economic buoyancy and sustainability of any nation. Prominent among these factors are those related to poverty level of people; living standard and income inequality. Aderonumu (2007) for example affirmed that many citizens of Nigeria cannot afford to live a decent life. Several millions of Nigerians do not have the usual or socially acceptable amount of money or materials possessions. Only a few people are comfortable. However, poverty has both income and non-income dimension usually intertwined. The poor are those who are unable to obtain an adequate income, find a stable job, own property or maintain healthy conditions (Sancho, 1996). The rural poor have limited or no access to basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, decent shelter, unable to meet social and economic obligations, have few, if any economic assets (World Bank, 1995; Olayemi, 1995).

Although, there are differences across countries with regard to what is meant by living standard, Narayan, Chamber *et al* (2000) identified the following indicator of living standard as being fairly universal:

- Having adequate food
- Having adequate assets
- Being healthy and appearing well
- Having work in order to derive well
- Having self-respects and dignity
- Experiencing peace and harmony
- Experiencing a physically safe and secure environment
- Being confident of the future
- Having freedom of choice and action.

As one approach seek to determine the survival of a nation through standard of living by establishing a poverty line that delineates the poor from non-poor. Another, uses an absolute poverty definition based on some minimum nutritional standard that is converted into minimum food expenses to which is added certain expenditure for clothing and shelter (Narayan *et al*, 2000).

In Nigeria, accompanied by the rapid economic growth that was experienced between 1965 and 1974 was a serious income disparity that is believed to have widened substantially. Despite past policy interventions to correct this abnormality, income inequality has increased the dimension of poverty. Aigbokhan (1997, 1999) found that income inequality worsened after the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) of 1996. Similarly, poverty incidences were 28.1, 46.3 and 65.6 percent in 1980, 1985 and 1996, respectively (World Bank, 1996; IMF, 2005). Also, a high level of income inequality exists between Nigeria's rural and urban areas. This is because most rural communities depend on agriculture; while urban engage mostly in paid jobs. However, income inequality results to discontent, violence and corruption and as part of macroeconomic objectives, governments always give equitable distribution of income a priority. This is important because income inequality is closely related to poverty (Addison and Cornia, 2001; Adams, 1999; Adams and He, 1995; Aboyade, 1983), and a careful study of it gives some insights into the incidence of poverty.

There are enough observable indicators in our society to suggest that most of the people in Nigeria are living in penury, having poor health and having minimum nutritional standard. These situations and many more affirm the urgency of the attention that living standard of Nigerians demand. Therefore, the focus of this study is to empirically examine the effects of MDGs on standard of living in Ogun State, Nigeria. The major purpose of this study was three fold, (a) to find out the nature of standard of living among Nigerians, (b) to identify the determinants of standard of living and (c) to assess the effectiveness of some of the policies adopted by the government in improving standard of living of Nigerians.

Research hypotheses

Specially, this study sought to test to the following research questions.

- There is no significant composite effect of demographic variables {age, socio-economic status and gender} on standard of living of Nigerians.
- There is no significant relative effect of the predictor variables on the criterion variable {standard of living of Nigerians}.
- There is no significant relative effect of various policies in enhancing standard of living of Nigerians.

Design

The study adopted a descriptive survey research design of expost-facto type. This is so because this method enabled the researchers to carefully analyze the sampled population with a view to assessing the influence of the millennium goals on Nigerians' standard of living.

Population

The target population of the study was made up of all residents in Ogun State regardless of their state of origin or ethnic background.

Sample and sampling technique

A sample of one thousand five hundred and eighty-five (1585) residents in Ogun State was used for the study. The selected sample was based on proportional probability sampling (PPS) method in which the state was stratified into four (4) administrative zones (Remo, Egba, Yewa and Ijebu). From the zones, sixteen (16) towns were selected (eight urban and eight rural areas). However, the towns and the participants were selected using simple random sampling method in which all the towns and participants in each zone had equal chance of being selected or included. The participants age range from 30-67years with a mean of 35.4 and a standard deviation of 11.13. Out of the 1585 questionnaire given out, 1563 were good for analysis; therefore, 98.6% success of questionnaire administration was realized. Also, out of the 1563 participants, 666 were female (42.6%) and 897 males (57.4%).

Instruments

The research instrument for the research was "Standard of Living in Nigeria Inventory (SLNI)" The 25-item self-developed questionnaire consisted of 4 subscales. Sub-scale 1 measures demographic data (11 items), scale 2 focuses on sources of household income (6 items); scale 3 explore information on standard of living of Nigerians (15 items), while the fourth sub-scale explores respondents' perception of the effectiveness of various policies melted out by the government in improving the economy.

Validation of Instrument

The instrument was validated by giving it to experts in test and measurement unit to examine and assert its suitability and appropriateness regarding the item content and purpose of study. A reliability test using the test retest method was also carried out to determine the reliability of the instrument. The results produced the reliability estimate of 0.81.

Procedure for data Collection

The researchers with the help of two other assistants administered the inventory on the participants. The data collection lasted 2 weeks. The completed inventories were thoroughly checked to ensure that they were properly filled.

Analysis of Data

Analysis was carried out using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-test statistical and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. Results were tested for at the 0.05 level of significance.

RESULTS

Table 1: Determinants of Standard of Living

ITEM	RESPONSE	PERCENTAGE
Income Inequalities	859	55.0
Poverty	888	56.8
Education	792	50.7
Household Size	682	43.6
Household Expenditure	647	41.4
Socio-economic Status	829	53.0
Occupation	848	54.3

N=1563

Source: Onuoha & Nwosu, 2011

Results on the determinants of standard of living among Nigerians resident in Ogun State revealed poverty incidence of 888 (56.8%); income inequalities (55.0%); occupation (54.3%); Socio-economic Status (53%); education (50.7%); Household Size (43.6), while was Household expenditure (41.4%). When all these variables are taken together, they determine the extent of standard of living among Nigerians.

Hypotheses one

There is no significant composite effect of demographic variables {age, socio-economic status and gender} on standard of living of Nigerians.

Table 2: Summary of Regression Analysis on Correlates of demographic variables on living standard.

Regression Analysis	Source	DF	SS	MS	F
R = .571	Regression	3	3881.361	1293.787	
R ² = .499	Residual	1560	66810.183	42.827	30.100
SE = 8.211	Total	1563	32191.484		

*significant at 0.05 level of confidence

Source: Onuoha & Nwosu, 2011

The results above indicate that age, socio-economic status and gender will jointly predict standard of living of Nigerians. Analysis fielded f-ratio of 30.100, which was found to be significant at 0.05 levels. A co-efficient of multiple regression of R= .571 and multiple regression square R² of .499 were observed. This indicates that 49.9% of the variance in standard of living of Nigerians is accounted for by age, socio-economic status and gender.

Hypotheses two

There is no significant relative effect of the predictor variables on the criterion variable {standard of living of Nigerians}.

Table 3 Relative contribution of the predictor variables to the observed variance on living standard of Nigerians.

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardize d co-efficient	t-ratio	p
	B	SE	Betta		
Household Size	2.439	0.601	0.323	4.666	<.05
Income Inequalities	3.707	0.691	0.418	6.267	<.05
Age	1.887	0.364	0.321	3.016	<.05
Education	2.183	0.562	0.311	3.607	<.05
Poverty Level	2.889	0.586	0.351	5.048	<.05
Socio-economic Status	2.777	0.579	0.382	4.816	<.05
Gender	1.983	0.611	0.346	4.507	<.05

Source: Onuoha & Nwosu, 2011

The results above show that the predictor variables made significant relative contributions to the level of standard of living among the respondents. The Income Inequalities made the highest contribution {B = .418; t = 6.267; p<.05} followed by poverty level {B = .351, t = 5.048, p<.05}; Socio-economic Status {B = .382, t = 4.816, <.05}; Household Size {B = .323, t = 4.666, p<.05}; gender {B = .346, t = 4.507, p<.05}; education {B = .311, t = 3.607, <.05}; and lastly by age {B = .321, t = 3.016, p<.05}. This implies that that Nigerians' standard of living to a large extent depends on the Income Inequalities which in turn affects everything within the home, where to live, how to live and means of survival to mention a few.

Hypotheses three

There is no significant relative effect of various policies in enhancing standard of living of Nigerians.

Table 3: Regression Analysis of various policies on standard of living

Regression Analysis	Source	DF	SS	MS	F
R = .334	Regression	1	403.298	403.298	8.476
R ² = .289	Residual	1562	70967.839	45.434	
SE = 3.975					
	Total	1563	48977.733		

*Not significant at 0.05 level of confidence

Source: Onuoha & Nwosu, 2011

The display on Table 3 indicated no significant relative effect of various policies in enhancing standard of living of Nigerians, which gave a coefficient of multiple regression of $R = .334$ and unadjusted R^2 of .289. The Standard Error {SE} was 3.975 and F- value of 8.476 not significant at an alpha level of 0.05. Therefore, when the R^2 value {.289} is translated into 28.9%, it could be said that about 28.9% of the total variability in the standard of living of Nigerians is accounted for by policies adopted and used to improve the economy.

Discussions

The findings of the determinants of standard of living in Nigeria are revealing as it shows that rural household of Nigeria to a large extent depend on income inequalities, household size, educational level, socio-economic status, gender and age of the respondents. This finding is plausible considering the fact that standard of living of Nigerians often is predetermined by poverty level of the country. These results concur with several studies {World Bank 2003; Oyekale 2006, Babatunde, 2008} that have stressed the relationship between level of income inequality in Nigeria and poverty. Also, the findings of Oyeбанjo, Idowu & Akorede (2008) corroborate the outcome of this study.

The hypothesis which states that “there is no significant composite effect of demographic variables {age, socio-economic status and gender} on standard of living of Nigerians” was rejected. The result indicated that 49.9% of the variance in the standard of living of Nigerians is accounted for by age, socio-economic status and gender. This result is supported by Olayemi {1995}, Worldbank {1995} Sancho {1996}, Aderounmu {2007}, Babatunde {2008} who reported the lack of people to or limited access to basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, decent shelter, and their inability to meet social and economic obligations especially in Africa.

The hypothesis that stated that “there is no significant relative effect of the predictor variables on the criterion variable (standard of living of Nigerians)” cannot be sustained. The findings revealed significant relative contribution of the predictor variables on the criterion variables. The Income Inequalities made the highest contribution { $B = .418$; $t = 6.267$; $p < .05$ } followed by poverty level { $B = .351$, $t = 5.048$, $p < .05$ }; Socio-economic Status { $B = .382$, $t = 4.816$, $p < .05$ }; Household Size { $B = .323$, $t = 4.666$, $p < .05$ };

gender { $B = .346$, $t = 4.507$, $p < .05$ }; education { $B = .311$, $t = 3.607$, $p < .05$ }; and lastly by age { $B = .321$, $t = 3.016$, $p < .05$ }. This implies that Nigerians' standard of living to a large extent depends on the Income Inequalities which in turn affects everything within the home where to live, how to live and means of survival to mention a few. This result lends credence to the findings of Aderonumu (2007) who affirmed that many citizens of Nigeria cannot afford to live a decent life and that several millions of Nigerians do not have the usual or socially acceptable amount of money or material possessions. Only a few people are comfortable.

The hypothesis that stated that "there is no significant relative effect of various policies in enhancing standard of living of Nigerians" was sustained by this study. The result indicated no significant relative effect of various policies in enhancing standard of living of Nigerians. It could be deduced from this study that despite various policies in Nigeria to reduce poverty and to improve living standard, little or no effect has been shown due to wrong implementation and unstable government policies. Therefore, this study corroborates the findings of income inequality in rural Nigeria {Babatunde, 2008}; Urban and rural poverty in Nigeria {Osinubi, 2003, Aderonumu, 2007}; income distribution in Nigeria {Aigbokan, 1999, Oyekale 2006, Babatunde, 2008}.

Conclusion

Based on the empirical evidence emanating from both descriptive and inferential statistics employed for this study, the following conclusions can be drawn on the findings: poverty incidence (56.8%) is still on a high side while major determinants of standard of living were shown to be income inequalities, poverty, education, household expenditure among others. Also, gender, education and socio-economic status were found to be affecting the achievement of MDGs in Nigeria based on the standard of living of the people.

Recommendations

Resulting from the findings of this study and in an attempt to achieve the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of reducing poverty by half in 2015 in Nigeria the following recommendations are made to improve the standard of living of the people.

- The Nigerian government should make deliberate and conscious efforts in addressing poverty issue in the country. This can only be achieved through workable policies and proper implementation.
- Since no nation will ever develop more than its education, policies that will increase educational opportunity for all citizens as well as policies to reduce inter geopolitical zone access to opportunities should be ensured by the government.
- People's lifespan and health should be prolonged by creating an enabling environment through redistribution of wealth and inequality reduction. Also, income redistribution has potentials for reducing poverty in Nigeria.

References

Adebayo, O. (2002). Sources and Measurement of Income Inequality Among Some Rural and Urban Households in Ibadan Metropolis. B.Sc. Project, Dept. of Agric. Econ, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

Adelman, I. and C. T. Morris (1991). The Anatomy of Income

Distribution in Developing Nations. Mimeo (USAID) Washington D. C.

Aderonmu, A. (2007) Mass Poverty in Nigeria. Retrieved from www.findarticle.com on 7th May, 2011.

Addison T. and G.A. Cornia (2001). Income Distribution Policies for Faster Poverty Reduction. WIDER Discussion Paper No. 2001/93, World Institute for Development Economic Research.

Aigbokhan, B. E. (1997). Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria: Some Macroeconomic Issues” NES Annual Conference Proceedings pp. 181 – 209.

Aigbokhan, B. E. (1999). The Impact of Adjustment Policies and Income Distribution in Nigeria: An Empirical Study Research Report, No. 5. Development Policy Centre (DPC), Ibadan, Nigeria.

Alayande, B. (2003). Decomposition of Inequality Reconsidered: Some Evidence From Nigeria. Paper submitted to the UNU-WIDER for the conference on Inequality, Poverty and Human Well Being in Helsinki, Finland Between 29th and 31st of May 2003.

Aromolaran, A. B. (2004). Female Schooling, Non-market Productivity, and Labor Market Participation in Nigeria. Economic Growth Centre, Yale University, Discussion Paper No. 879

Babatunde, R. (2008) Income Inequality in Rural Nigeria: Evidence from Farming Households Survey Data. Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences, 2, 1, 134-140

Clarke, G., L. Colin, X.H. Zou (2003): Finance and Income Inequality: Test of Alternative Theories. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 2984, Washington D.C.: World Bank.

Cornia G.A. with S. Kiiski (2001). Trend in Income Distribution in the Post World War II Periods: Evidence and Interpretation. WIDER Discussion Paper No. 89, UNU/WIDER: Helsinki.

Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) (Now National Bureau of Statistics-NBS) (2003). Nigeria Living Standard Survey: Interviewers Instruction Manual FOS, Abuja, Nigeria.

IMF (2005). Nigeria: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper—
National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy.
IMF Country Report No. 05/433

Ipinnaiye, A. O. (2001). A Decomposition Analysis of the
Sources of Income Inequality in Ibadan Metropolis Unpublished B. Sc.
Project Dept. of Agric. Economics, U. I.

Kalwijl A. and A. Verschoor (2005). A Decomposition of Poverty Trends
across Regions The Role of Variation in the Income and Inequality
Elasticities of Poverty. WIDER Research Paper No. 2005/36

Martins, JH (2006) Household Cash Expenditure by Living Standards
Measure Group. *Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences*, 34,
1-9.

Narayan, D, Chambers, R, Shah, MK & Petesch, P. (2000) *Voices of the
Poor Crying Out for Change: Can Anyone hear us?* Oxford. Oxford
University Press/World Bank.

Olayemi, J (1995) A Survey of Approaches to Poverty Alleviation. A
paper Presented at the NCEMA National Workshop on Integration of
Poverty Alleviation Strategies into Plans and Programmes in Nigeria,
Nov. 27- Dec. 1

Osinubi, T (2003) Urban Poverty in Nigeria: A Case Study of Agege Area
of Lagos State, Nigeria. Retrieved from www.findarticle.com on 7th May,
2011.

Sancho, A (1996) *Policies and Progress for Social Human Development*.
A Handbook Produced by UN World Summit for Social Development
International Centre for Economic Growth, San Francisco.

World Bank (1996) *Poverty and Welfare in Nigeria*. Poverty
Handbook of Federal office of Statistics and National Planning
Commission.

THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND THE CHALLENGES OF ANTI-POVERTY POLICIES IN NIGERIA

By

**OJO OLAWOLE, DAVID OLADIMEJI ALAO AND
POPOOLA MICHAEL A.**

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION BABCOCK UNIVERSITY

Abstract

The paper reviewed Nigerian government policy initiatives towards poverty alleviation over the years and the challenges which rendered the policies ineffective. In spite of its abundant endowment in human and natural resources, Nigeria has been classified, not only as a poor nation, but one of the poorest in the world. However, the successive governments of the country right from 1972 have made poverty alleviation the central focus of their socio-economic reforms and have thus spent billions of naira on poverty alleviation programmes. This notwithstanding, about 70 percent of the country's population still contend with extreme poverty and hunger due to corruption, lack of sustainability, poor policy formulation and implementation, among others. The paper observed that this situation is capable of threatening the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals in the country by 2015. The study concluded by recommending sustainable development, accountability, transparency, consistent policies on agricultural development and minimal politicization of anti-poverty policies as panacea to the challenges observed. The study was descriptive and data obtained through secondary sources while the analysis was qualitative.

Introduction

Nigeria is a country blessed with abundant natural and human resources. According to the United States Energy Information Administration (2007), the nation is rated as the eleventh largest producer of oil in the world. In addition to its richness in crude oil, it is also endowed with other mineral resources such as iron ore, bitumen, bauxite, gold and coal. Moreover, the country is blessed with good vegetations which could support different kinds of agricultural products. Looking at all these, together with the vast human resources endowment of the nation, one will be apt to say that Nigerian citizens should be swimming in affluence, or at least should have no business with extreme poverty and hunger. Paradoxically however, more than half of the population of the country are not able to attain a minimum standard of living and housing which is an indication of extreme poverty and hunger. Hence, poverty in Nigeria is a clear contradiction of the immense resources which the nation is blessed with. Records from the office of statistics show that about 15 percent of Nigeria population was poor in 1960, the figure rose to 28 percent in 1985 and by 1996, the figure jumped to 66 percent (Garba, 2006). Okpe and Abu (2009) put poverty level in Nigeria at 74.2 percent by the year 2000. However, a UNESCO Report on poverty in Nigeria noted that 92 per cent of the country's population survive on less than \$2 per day, while about 71 per cent live on less than \$1 per day as at 2010 (UNESCO,2010)

One cannot overemphasize the fact that poverty is generally considered as a symptom or manifestation of underdevelopment (World Bank 2006) and that it poses threat to further economic development of any nation. Hence, the endemic nature of incidence of poverty in Nigeria has been a matter of concern to the successive governments in the country, therefore, poverty reduction has taken a central position in their socio-economic reforms. They have instituted various policies and programmes meant to support the agricultural sector, generate employment, encourage the establishment of medium and small scale businesses and make credit facilities available to the down-trodden people in the society, all in a bid to extricate the citizenry from the clutches of poverty. From 1972 when poverty intervention policies of the government started, up until now, there have been 28 different poverty alleviation initiatives (Oshenowo,2010)

Sadly enough, the enormous efforts of the various governments policies and the enormous resources committed to poverty alleviation have not achieved their purposes or succeeded in eradicating poverty in the country. (Omotola, 2008) More than half of the country's population live below \$1.5 World Bank poverty line, millions of Nigerians have no access to good shelter, potable water, good health and sanitation, slums are growing by the day, while the labour market is getting more and more populated. Perhaps this is why Sanusi, (2011) commented that 105 million Nigerian out of 150 million population live below poverty line due to poor governance.

It is no gain say that the persistence of poverty and hunger in Nigeria will constitute a serious constraint to the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015, because none of the eight goals can be successfully achieved where extreme poverty and hunger is prevalent. Perhaps, that is why one of the eight goals is 'Eradication of extreme Poverty and Hunger.' Thus ,the objective of this paperis to examine anti-poverty policies of Nigerian governments over the years and why they have not been successful in eradicating poverty. The paper also suggests the way forward in the task of poverty eradication in order to make a significant progress towards the achievement of the MDGs by 2015.

Literature review

Government all over the world generally govern human conduct by what is often referred to as 'policy.' Dye (2000) defines public policy as 'whatever government chooses to do or not to do' Similarly, Dible (2000) defines public policy as "almost all that government generates, discusses, makes and executes in response to stimulate the environment and in relation to objectives of growth, stability and well-being". He further observes that there are so many approaches to public policy, and these include rational decision making model, incremental policy making model, games theory, elite theory and the political process model. For the purpose of this study, public policy is defined as guiding principles or force of law to ensure the achievement of a specific goal by the government.

Poverty according to the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) (2001) is a multidimensional concept encompassing deprivation that relate to human capabilities, including consumption and food security, health, education among others which in turn are the components of the MDGs. The World Bank defines poverty as the inability to attain a minimum standard of living and housing by a portion of the society(World Bank, 2008) Poverty has also been defined as material deprivation which means the state or condition of having little or no money, goods or the means for proper existence.(dictionary reference com/browse/poverty-cached-similar) This definition is supported by Edozien and Mabogunje(1999) who

define poverty as a household inability to command sufficient income to meet its basic needs for food, shelter, clothing, transportation and education. Gore (2002) views poverty as a situation where the majority of the population lives below income levels sufficient to meet their basic needs or when people live below the available resources. The critical aspect of Gore's perspective is that the problem with Nigeria is not the quantity of resources available, but poor response of the government to societal basic needs due to poor and inconsistent policy formulation, glaring dishonesty in implementation, occasioned by high level of corruption and inadequate policy measures to curb the deficiencies. The outcome of these challenges is the growing rate of poverty and hunger as the UN Human Index (2007) categorized Nigeria as one of the twenty five poorest nations in the world. This cannot but be a direct challenge on the attainment of the MDGs by 2015.

Theoretical framework

The study adopts Political Development approach as it is being increasingly applied to political and administrative analysis on account of its comprehensiveness and explanatory strength. The political development theory is a theory adopted by political scientists to explain development programmes embarked upon mostly by developing societies or third world societies. Proponent of this theory include Chilcote, Mcmillan and Mclean(2003). The theory maintains that political development enhances the state's capacity to mobilize and allocate resources to process policy inputs into implementable output. This assists with problem-solving and adaptation to environmental changes and goal realization"(McLean and Mcmillan (2003). This theory is essentially on policy formulation, particularly on social welfare programs and development to facilitate and promote development in the developing countries.(Examples of such policies in Nigeria are NEEDS,NHIS, NAPEP, UBE), These policies provide the necessary guides for their successful implementation. As a matter of fact, some of the policies are incorporated into the manifestoes of most political parties during their electioneering campaigns.

Poverty profile in Nigeria

Nigeria has enjoyed relatively strong economic growth over the past years but poverty is still a major concern. The poverty profile in Nigeria is reaching an embarrassing level realizing that the country is expansively blessed in respect of natural resources, stable climate conducive for growing a wide variety of agricultural produce, for internal consumption and export. Equally, nature has bestowed on the country an environment with one of the least in ecological disaster worldwide, yet poverty is alarming. This explains why Abiola and Olaopa (2008) note that the scourge of poverty in Nigeria is an incontrovertible fact, resulting in hunger, ignorance, malnutrition, diseases, unemployment, poor access to credit facilities, and low life expectancy as well as a general level of human hopelessness. These challenges are the main focus of the MDGs.

Poverty in Nigeria is an intriguing case, given the size, abundant natural resources and the prominent position which the country occupies in sub-Saharan Africa. When viewed from the perspective of the World Bank poverty line of \$1.00 per day, Omotola (2008) opines that about 70 percent of Nigerian population now live in abject poverty which the Millennium Development Summit describes as extreme poverty. The UN Human Index in 1999, a year before the commencement of the MDGS, included Nigeria as one of the poorest 25 nations in the world. While the world's per capital income, as of 2003, was \$7,140, that of Nigeria was \$290. However, Bayelsa State which has the highest per capital income in the country has poverty incidence of 26.6 percent between 1995 and 2006. This figure, according to World

Bank (2008) was lower than those of Ghana, South Africa and Cameroon. (Oshenowo, 2010) posits that, on life expectancy, Nigeria was ranked 155th out of 177 countries, and in terms of infant mortality rate, Nigeria was ranked 148th out of 173 countries accessed. All these are indications of the prevalence of extreme poverty in Nigeria. Furthermore, Nigerian poverty level is worsened by gross inequality in income distribution. Oshenowo (2010) notes that up to 95% of Nigerian wealth was controlled by about .01 percent of the population. The income earned by the richest 20 percent of the population is 55.7 percent while the income of the poorest 20 percent is 4.4 percent.(Earth Trend, 2003)

Although, it is believed that investment level in Nigeria represents about 50 percent of the total investment level in West Africa sub-region, yet unemployment in the country is on the increase with its attendant disaffection and idleness. As at 2010, the unemployment rate in Nigeria was 19.7, and 49 per cent of the unemployed fall within the ages of 18 and 24(Ibiyemi2010) More so, the presence of double digit inflation is robbing people of their purchasing power and this has devastating effects on the living condition of the middle and low income earners in particular(Attahiru, 2003)

If poverty is characterized by hunger, poor shelter, poor sanitation and illiteracy, then one cannot overemphasize the fact that more than half of the country's population is living below poverty line as set by the World Bank in 1990. As stated earlier, about 70 per cent of Nigerian population have no access to decent living while a lot of school age children are out of school and take to street trading instead, because their parents cannot afford to pay their school fees (Oshenowo,2010) This scenario is much more noticeable in the Northern part of the country. That is why Attahiru (2003) opines that poverty in Nigeria can be categorized into geographical distribution. According to him, poverty is much more prevalent in the Northern part of the country than the Southern part due to lack of natural resources like crude oil, inaccessibility to the sea and unfavourable climatic condition.

Furthermore, poverty is more prevalent in the rural areas than the urban centers. Nigeria is made up of about 70 percent rural population which live mostly on subsistence farming.(UNDP,2010) But the neglect of the rural areas by the government in terms of socio-economic development, lack of government support for the agricultural sector and lack of job opportunities make the rural populace to be struggling with eking out living from their subsistence farming. Sadly too, their inability to get fair prices for their farm products further deepens their poverty level. The World Bank(2008) notes that the rural-urban poverty ratio in Nigeria was worse than those of countries like Ghana (2.4), Cameroon (10.9) and South Africa (19.00) .

This study observes that poverty in Nigeria is caused by factors such as, rural-urban migration, inefficient agricultural policies, over reliance on nature at the expense of modern technological development, sectarian conflicts, lack of education, poor health, inflation and high-tech corruption in government and private circles. These problems become endemic due to the inability of Nigerian government to enunciate concrete policies to address them appropriately. Hence it makes the task of attaining the MDGs by 2015 a very difficult one.

An assessment of poverty intervention policies in Nigeria

Successive administrations in Nigeria have identified poverty as the bane of rural development and a factor capable of constituting impediment to equitable socio-economic advancement. Hence, realizing

that human resources development, through poverty reduction, is key to economic growth and development, the governments have initiated various strategies aimed at human resources development and consequently, poverty alleviation. Suffice it to say that the concern of the government on the issue of poverty started in concrete terms since 1972.

In 1972, the government of General Gowon established the Accelerated Food Production Programme(AFPP) and the Agricultural and Cooperative Bank. The goal of AFPP was to encourage rural farmers to produce more food, earn more income and break the yoke of poverty. The bank was established for the purpose of funding agriculture. The programme however failed due to lack of proper evaluation and poor management.(Adeife,2008) In 1976, the military regime of General Olusegun Obasanjo initiated a poverty alleviation programme tagged “Operation Feed the Nation”(OFN) In its bid to ensure the success of the programme, the government dispersed young undergraduates to rural areas to teach peasant farmers the better method of farming in order to increase the yields of their farms. Moreover, the regime identified lack of education as one of the causes of poverty, and thus instituted Free and Compulsory Primary Education Programme. As lofty as these programmes were, they suffered from poor implementation and lack of continuity, which made them fall short of achieving the purpose for which they were established.

On assumption of office as the executive president of Nigeria, Alhaji Shehu Shagari administration introduced the Green Revolution Programme in 1980. The initiative was meant to curtail food importation and boost crop and fiber production in Nigeria. The administration also embarked on the construction of low cost houses in local government headquarters throughout the country. These programmes also failed due to mismanagement and lack of sustainability.

Within its short tenure, the military junta of General Buhari also tried to fight poverty by introducing “Go Back to Land programme” The programme was equally unsuccessful like the previous ones.

The government of General Ibrahim Babangida introduced the “Structural Adjustment Programme” with the aim of putting Nigerian economy on the road to recovery. Unfortunately, the programme turned out to worsen the socio-economic situation and aggravated poverty level in Nigeria. According to Omotola (2008), the regime introduced some measures to fight the scourge of poverty which had reached a crescendo. The measures included the establishment of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), with the aim of providing feeder roads, electricity and potable water for rural dwellers. National Directorate of employment was also introduced to reduce unemployment by training the youth in vocational skill acquisition (Tomlinson 2001). The creation of Peoples’ Bank was a measure to provide loan to low income earners and those in the informal sector. More so, the introduction of Better Life for Rural Women, which was a brain-child of the then first lady-Mariam Babangida, was another intention of the regime to fight poverty, especially, in the rural areas. Babangida’s programmes failed as a result of lack of clearly defined policy frame work, poor implementation, poor management and corruption.(Iroegbu,2009)

Furthermore, the administration of General Sanni Abacha introduced Family Economic Advancement Programme and Family Support Programme. Sadly enough, the poor were taken for a ride again as the money meant for the programmes were misappropriated and ended in private bank accounts of the head

of state and his cronies.(Adeife 2008). The civilian administration of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, which started in 1999, tried harder than any previous administration towards poverty eradication. The administration introduced “Poverty Alleviation Programme”(PAP) as an ad-hoc anti poverty measure.(Nwaobi, 2003) Poverty Alleviation Programme’s goal was to provide employment for people, make credit facilities available to farmers; increase adult literacy rate; improve health care delivery system; improve rural water and electricity supply; embark on training and settlement of tertiary institution graduates and develop small scale industries.(Oshenolo 2010) As fantastic as the initiative sounded, it fell short of alleviating poverty in Nigeria. As a matter of fact, the poverty alleviation programme of the administration received a lot of criticism from those who believed that what Nigerians needed was an effort to eradicate poverty rather than a palliative measure like poverty alleviation programme.

Consequently, the administration established National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)in 2001 with a view to helping low income earners and the poor in the society to get jobs, enable them to have access to basic necessities of life and help them to fend for themselves. The programme consisted of four basic strategies, namely:-

1. Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), which was concerned with providing unemployed youth opportunity in skill acquisition, employment and wealth creation. In order to achieve this, the scheme was further divided into Capacity Acquisition programme, Mandatory Attachment Programme and Credit Delivery Programme.
2. Rural Infrastructural Development Scheme (RIDS) which was concerned with the provision and development of infrastructure needs like water, transport, energy and communication especially in the rural areas.
3. Social Welfare Services Scheme which consisted of four broad sub-categories, namely:-Qualitative Education Programme, Primary Health care Programme, Farmers Empowerment Programme and Social Programme.
4. National Resource Development and Conservation Scheme which aimed at promoting participatory and sustainable development of agriculture, mineral and water resources programme.(Adeife 2008)

NAPEP had a lofty goal of eradicating poverty in Nigeria by the 2010 target. According to Elumide et al,(2006) the government adopted three strategies in order to achieve this goal. The strategies were: restoration of hope to the hitherto hopeless, hapless and neglected poor people in Nigeria by providing them access to basic necessities of life; restoration of economic independence and confidence of the people in the economy and creation of wealth. It is no gainsay that NAPEP was well packaged and it appeared to be a road map to poverty eradication in Nigeria. But the continuous prevalence of poverty in the country puts a question mark on the activities of NAPEP.(Omotola 2008)

The administration of Umaru Musa Yar’adua which began in 2007 also included poverty alleviation as part of its cardinal programmes. The administration came up with the seven point agenda, with the seventh one focusing on poverty alleviation through wealth creation. Apart from this, all the other six areas of focus, if well implemented were capable of poverty reduction in the society. Unfortunately however, just like the other ones before it, the programme ended up being a mere good paper work due to

mismanagement and lack of commitment to it by the government. Hence, extreme poverty continue to plague millions of Nigerians.

From the foregoing, it is abundantly clear that several anti-poverty programmes had been initiated in the country. The question one may ask at this juncture is 'why poverty is still prevalent in Nigeria despite all the concerns and attention which the issue has received from the successive governments'.

Challenges of government policies towards poverty reduction

The greater chunks of Nigerian population still sleep and wake up with poverty in spite of the various efforts and huge resources committed to poverty alleviation over the years. This is why Garba (2006) opines that all the poverty alleviation initiatives in Nigeria right from the time of independence have yielded little or no fruit. The reasons for this are many, ranging from lack of sustainability to insincerity of government to genuinely address the issue of poverty.

One of the major problems facing poverty alleviation in Nigeria is the failure of an administration to sustain or continue the programme of the preceding government no matter how laudable the programme is. This is why every new government evolves its own poverty alleviation policy thereby rubbishing the policy of the former administration. This problem was worsened by the political instability witnessed in the country for almost four decades. Coupled with this is the issue of bad implementation or poor management of poverty alleviation strategy. Some of the programmes lack clearly defined policy guidelines for poverty alleviation. Some examples of this are the Buhari's utopia "Go Back to Land" policy and Abacha's "Family Economic Advancement Programme" which lack frame work for eliminating poverty.

Moreover, corruption, lack of accountability and transparency make most of the anti-poverty initiatives to serve as conduit pipe for siphoning the resources allocated for poverty alleviation. That is why Tomlinson (2001) commented that Mariam Babangida's Better Life for Rural Women programme ended up being better life for rich women who became millionaires out of the money meant for helping the poor. Similarly, Musa (2004) posited that Abacha and his wife found a goldmine in the business of pretending to care for the poor. Hence, policy makers and their cronies have mostly been in the business of hoodwinking or playing a trick on the poor masses of the country under the guise of poverty alleviation. It is no gainsay that poverty level would keep increasing under such insincere and deceitful policies,

Furthermore, public policy on poverty alleviation have failed due to lack of funds and training equipment. For instance, the Capacity Acquisition Programme, Mandatory Attachment programme and Social Welfare Service Scheme under Obasanjo's NAPEP initiative suffered from inadequate equipment for training of the youth which the programme was meant for. More so, some centers complained of lack of enough space to accommodate the various divisions of the programme.(Adeife,2008)

Akin to the above is what Anifowose and Enemu (1999) refer to as differences between theory and practice of government policies. Most of the government initiatives to eradicate poverty have purportedly centered around helping the rural dwellers or farmers to increase their yield and thus improve their income and standard of living. But it has been observed ,over the years that the rural farmers hardly benefit from the agricultural Policy of the government. The government does very little or sometimes,

nothing, to subsidize or support the agricultural sector like the developed nations always do. Hence, credit facilities and other agricultural inputs like fertilizer, insecticide and herbicides which can help farmers to increase their farm yields and earn more money are either not available or made available at wrong time and at exorbitant prices. However, whenever the government does anything to help agricultural sector, the beneficiaries are usually the commercial rich farmers who specialize in the production of export oriented crops like Obasanjo farms, Atiku farms and Nyarko farms. (Popoola,2011) Thus, the peasant farmers are consigned into the level of subsistence farming which make them to barely eke out living from the poor yields of their farms. In addition, the inability of government to ensure effective transportation system linking the rural –urban centers and lack of modern storage facilities compound the problems of rural farmers. All these, no doubt, make nonsense of most government policies to alleviate poverty.

According to Adesopo (2008), the politics of poverty is another hindrance to the policy of poverty alleviation. This arises out of the fact that those who are given the responsibility of alleviating poverty are those who are not poor and who might not have experienced poverty before. The poor people whom the programme target are neither involved nor carried along in the formulation and implementation of the programme. Rather, these are left in the hands of the privileged few who enjoy closeness with the power-that-be who often consider political affiliation in their disbursement of allocated resources to poverty alleviation. Consequently, most of the anti-poverty initiatives failed even before they are executed.

In addition, the inability of government to evolve indigenous policies to meet local needs constitute obstacles to development. Sometimes, government adopt policy solution from elsewhere, usually from the developed economies, which are hardly suitable to local needs. This problem is often compounded by the poor attitudinal factor of the masses who the programmes are expected to affect. Granting of loans in some instances might attract additional wives and increase in the number of children or even encourage some people to embark on unnecessary spending on ceremonies like burial.

Recommendations

One of the challenges identified by this study is lack of continuity of government policies and programmes. Although, as noted above, each successive administration usually embark on poverty alleviation programme, but this has been coming under different names and methods of implementation which often ended up jettisoning the programme of the previous government. Since poverty is constituting a huge challenge to economic development of Nigeria, and as economic development is a component of the MDGs, the study recommends that the policies towards poverty alleviation should be entrenched in the Constitution in order to engender continuity of poverty alleviation programme by any succeeding administration..

The study also recommends that poverty alleviation programme should not be implemented based on party patronage. The political class should appreciate the fact that partisan politics ends with election from where government takes off. The allocation of resources in an exclusive manner thereby favouring political loyalists rather than the targeted group often defeat genuine intention of the policy.

The strengthening of anti-corruption crusade will engender accountability and transparency which will make it difficult for political leaders to corruptly enrich themselves with the resources meant for poverty

alleviation. The study recommends the establishment of special tribunal for the trial of corruption cases by the Independent Corrupt Practices and Related Offences (ICPC) and Economic and Financial Crime Commission. This is borne out of the understanding that the normal court process hinders their smooth operation and efficiency, thereby making corrupt official escape the long arm of the law.

The government should be proactive in institutionalizing a regime of speedy socio –economic development that will have as its bed-rock the provision of infrastructures such as good road linking rural –urban centers, and rural electrification. Also, the provision of agricultural implement, fertilizer and chemicals at affordable rates and the right time would encourage farming activities in the rural areas. The development of the rural areas would go a long way to provide employment opportunities and curtail rural–urban drift.

Conclusion

This study examined the prevalence of poverty in Nigeria inspite of so many anti-poverty policies since 1972. The reasons for the failure of the policies were identified as lack of policy continuity, corruption, politicization of programmes, and lack of sufficient social infrastructure and encouragement to rural farmers, among others. The study, however, recommends policy continuity, strengthening of anti-corruption crusade and socio-economic development of rural areas

It also recommends minimal partisan politics in disbursement of government resources directed at poverty alleviation. It is essential to note that poverty and hunger go hand in hand and their prevalence in Nigeria can pose a serious threat to the attainment of the MDGs particularly since most policies towards the alleviation of poverty do not achieve the expected result. Therefore, if Nigeria will go with the rest of serious nations in the world to achieve the MDGs by 2015, it must take a proactive step towards institutionalizing policies that will genuinely combat poverty and hunger.

References

Abiola, A. and Olaopa, O.R (2008). ‘Economic Development and Democratic Sustenance in Nigeria’. in E.O. Ojo (ed), *Challenges of Sustainable Democracy in Nigeria* (pp25-34)Ibadan: John Archers Publishers limited.

Adeife, K. (2008) Poverty Alleviation Programme Under Olusegun Obasanjo. Unpublished B.A Long Essay, Babcock University, Ilishan: Nigeria.

Adesopo, A. (2008), ‘The Poverty Question and the National Anti-Poverty Programmes in Nigeria’. in Ajayi, K. (ed) *Public Administration and Public Policy Analysis in Nigeria*.

Abuja: Panaf Publishing inc.

Anifowose, R. and F. Enemuo (1999) “ Element of politics” Lagos. Malthouse Press Limited
Development Assistance Committee (DAC) (2001) Rising to the Global Challenge: Partnership for Reducing World Poverty. Policy Statement By the DAC High Level Meeting Upon Endorsement of the DAC Guidelines on Poverty Reduction. Paris. 25-26 April.

Dibie, R. (2000) *Understanding Public Policy in Nigeria: A Twenty First Century Approach*. Lagos: Mbeyi & Associates (Nig) Ltd.

Dye, I.(1977) In Anifowose and Enemuoh 1999. Element of Politics. Lagos.: Malthouse Press Limited

Earth Trends. (2003). *Economic Indicators*- Nigeria.

Edozien, E. A.and Mabogunje, A.O.(1999) "Concept and Incidence of Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria" Ibadan, University Press.

Elumilade, D. O, Ashaolu, T.O.& Adereti S.A (2006), 'Appraising the Institutionalizing Framework for Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria'. *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics*. Vol.3.

Garba, A (2006). *Alleviating Poverty in Northern Nigeria*. A Paper Presented at the Annual Convention of Zumunta Association, Minneapolis, MN, USA, July 28-29 in Oshewolo, S. (2010) Galloping Poverty in Nigeria: An Appraisal of the Government's Intervention Policy, *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa* vol.12, No.6.

Gore, C. (2002). *Globalization, The International Poverty Trap and Chronic Poverty in the Less Developed Countries*. CPRC Working Paper No. 30

Iroegbu, p.(2009) Dynamics of Poverty as Culture in Nigerian World: Implications for the Vulnerable Population. Retrieved from <http://www.gamji.com/article/8000news8813.htm>.

Ibiyemi, S. (2010) Unemployment Rate hits 19.7 in Nigeria. Nigeria Tribune, October 10,2010

Jega, Attahiru (2003) The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria, Kaduna, Toypad Press and Publishers Ltd.

McLean, I. and Mcmillan, A. (2003 (2003) " The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Politics". New York, Oxford University Press Inc.

Nwaobi, G.C. (2003), Solving the Poverty Crisis in Nigeria. AN Applied General Equilibrium Approach. *Quantitative Economic Research Bureau*, Gwanwalada, Abuja .

Okpe, I.J and Abu, G.A(1998), Poverty Alleviation with Economic Growth Strategy: Project and Challenges in Contemporary Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Economic and Social studies*. 40 (1).

Omotola, J.S. (2008), 'Combating Poverty for Sustainable Human Development In Nigeria; The Continuing Struggle'. *Journal of Poverty*. 12.(4)

Oshenowo, S. (2010) *Galloping Poverty in Nigeria: An Appraisal of the Government's Intervention Policy*, *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa* vol.12, No.6.

Popoola, M.A.(2011) *International Aid and the Eradication of Extreme Poverty and Hunger: The African Experience*. Unpublished seminar paper presented at an International Conference held at Valley View University, Ghana, August 3rd, 2011

Sanusi, L. S. (2011) *Nigerian Tribune*. February 13.

UNDP (2007) Human Development Report. New York: Oxford University Press.

UNDP (2010) Human Development Report in Nigeria

UNESCO (2010) UNESCO on Poverty in Nigeria. <http://1allafrica.com>.

United State Energy Information Administration (2007) *Nigerian Oil, Country Analysis Brief*.

Tomlinson, M.(2001) *Strategy Towards strengthening the Poverty Eradication Programme*, Ibadan, University Press.

World Bank. (2008). *Poverty in the Age of Globalization*. Washington DC:

MDGs in Nigeria: An examination of the contributions of the Redeemed Christian Church of God and the Seventh-day Adventist Church (2000 – 2010).

By
Aluko, Jones Oluwole¹
&
Nwogwugwu, Ngozi²

Abstract

The United Nations Organizations in September 2000 made the millennium development declaration; which set the Millennium development goals (MDGs) following the failure of various development initiatives across the globe. The target date for achieving all the eight goals was put at 2015. With Nigeria performing poorly under all acceptable developmental indices, the country is categorized as one of the poor nations of the world in spite of its enormous resources. The church since inception has been committed to human development and poverty alleviation, commencing from the teaching and ministry of Christ, through the early church and the missionaries. Given Nigeria's precarious situation, the task before the Church becomes enormous. Adopting the group theoretical framework, the paper studied the achievement of the MDGs in Nigeria through the prism of the contributions of the Redeemed Christian Church of God and Seventh-day Adventist Church. The study relied on secondary data, comprising of relevant published books, scholarly journal articles, conference and institutional papers, and articles downloaded from the internet. Content analysis of the data collected was carried out. The findings of the study revealed that the church has made enormous contributions towards goals one to six. The paper concludes that though the MDGs may not be achievable by 2015, the Church should improve on its strategies by building synergy with other organizations, including government ministries, departments, and agencies as well as NGOs, and other inter faith organizations towards achieving the MDGs.

1. Aluko, Jones O. PhD, is Professor of Public Administration at Department of Political Science & Public Administration, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Nigeria.
2. Nwogwugwu, Ngozi, is a Lecturer in the Department of Political Science & Public Administration, Babcock University, Ilishan – Remo, Nigeria.

Introduction

The church has a particularly significant contribution to make towards human development and poverty alleviation. Indeed, the church's involvement in human development and poverty alleviation is a bona fide function of the Church (Chagunda, 2002). It is in response to this mission that the universal church and the local church respectively have evolved systematic strategy in matching words and practice in an effort to achieve sustainable development. According to Ajibola (2005), this is given the fact that, firstly, the church is closer to the people and therefore, has a clearer perception of their needs, and secondly, the church is actively involved in social works that are not politically motivated; thereby it is able to gain the trust and confidence of the people.

The church teaches that there can be no true peace or order in the society until the principle of love of neighbor preached by Christ is put into practice. It is this same teaching that underlies most of the church's policy and strategy in her relationship with the country in developmental issues, particularly on the attainment of the MDGs in 2015, by Nigeria. The group approach is adopted for this study with the understanding that the churches in Nigeria are not their brothers' keepers alone, but they are providing for many Nigerians, some of whom do not embrace their faith. This is to act in tune with the dictates of Jesus Christ who says that Christians should care for the poor in their midst.

The Redeemed Christian church of God is a Pentecostal church with headquarters in Nigeria. It was founded in 1952 by a man named Josiah Olufemi Akindayomi, an established prophet of the Cherubim & Seraphim Church in Ebute-Metta, who led a group of twelve (12) former members of the Cherubim and Seraphim (C & S) Church to form the new denomination (Ukah, 2004: 43). The Church has grown to have branches in every state in Nigeria and several cities across, other African countries, Europe, North and South America, and Asia, since Enoch A. Adeboye assumed leadership of the Redeemed Christian Church of God following the demise of founder in 1978 (RCCG, nd).

The Seventh-day Adventist Church is a Protestant Christian denomination distinguished by its observance of Saturday, the original seventh day of the Judeo-Christian week, as the Sabbath, and by its emphasis on the imminent second coming (Advent) of Jesus Christ. The denomination grew out of the Millerite movement in the United States during the middle part of the 19th century and was formally established in 1863. Among its founders was Ellen G. White, whose extensive writings are still held in high regard by the church today. As of May 2007, it was the twelfth-largest religious body in the world and the sixth-largest highly international religious body. It has a missionary presence in over 200 countries and territories and is ethnically and culturally diverse (Wikipedia, n.d).

The Seventh-day Adventist Church came to Nigeria in 1914, relatively late when compared to the mission work of other mainline churches. They first entered the South-western region of Nigeria (through their missionaries: D. C. Babcock and his family, R. P. Dauphin, a Ghanaian and S. Morgue, a Sierra Leonean). D. C. Babcock was the head of the Seventh-day Adventist Church in Nigeria until 1917 when he left the country as a result of ill-health, with E. N. Ashton succeeding him. The Seventh-day Adventist Church in Nigeria remained under the guidance of white missionaries until the appointment of J. A. Adeogun as the first indigenous leader/president in 1961 (Alao, 2004: 19; Adesegun, 2007; Alalade, 2008: 47 - 49). It is presently one of the major Christian denominations in the country with a membership of over two hundred thousand members with branches in every state of the federation. It has two sub-national administrative units, the Eastern Nigeria Union Mission (ENUM) and North Western Nigeria Union Mission (NWNUM) which as at October 2011 were divided into five conferences each. ENUM is made of Anambra-Imo Conference, East central Conference, East Nigeria Conference, Rivers Conference and South East Conference, while NWNUM is made up of Edo-Delta Conference, North – East Nigeria Conference, North West Nigeria Conference, South West Nigeria Conference and West Nigeria Conference (Wikipedia, 2011).

Statement of the problem

The United Nations Organizations in September 2000 made the millennium development declaration in acknowledgement of the fact that various development initiatives across the globe had failed leading to

continuing inequalities and widening of the gap between the rich and the poor. The reality of the world is that many countries are underdeveloped with precarious development indices. Global statistics show that about 20% of the world's population (approximately 1.2 billion people), live in absolute poverty, surviving on less than \$1 per day, while the global wealth is concentrated in a few hands. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in its world development report for 1989, documented that the three richest people in the world have assets that exceed the combined gross domestic product (GDP) of the forty-eight (48) least developed countries (Igbuzor, 2006a).

Most of these least developed countries are in the third world, and as such "Poverty is therefore, one of the major problems facing people in third world countries" (Chagunda, 2002) of which Nigeria is a part.

Nigeria has a lot of potentials, which are enough for it to compete with countries of the G-7, namely; France, Germany, Italy, Japan, United Kingdom, United States and Japan. This view has been strongly supported by reports of the Goldman Sachs (2007), Soludo (2007), NEEDS, (2004), Vision Report (1997), and a host of others. In the study, NEEDS (2004) noted that, Nigeria has the potential to become Africa's largest economy and a major player in the global economy Yet, Nigeria is having the least performance in terms of human and social indicators. (United Nations, 2009 cited in Bello & Roslan, 2010).

The poor performance of Nigeria in all known development indices makes it to be categorized among the poorest countries of the world despite its enormous potentials (Igbuzor, 2006a). Timothy (2009 cited in Bello & Roslan, 2010) writes that "Nigeria would require a whopping N4 trillion annually, beginning from 2009 to 2015 to be able to tackle and reduce poverty by 50%." This is a tall order, and with four years to 2015, the Christian Church needs to re-define and review its strategies if its mandate of providing the good life for the people wherever it is found is to be realized in context of the MDGs in Nigeria. It is in this light, that this study is undertaken.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

The church

The church in this study refers to the Christian church, which is the assembly or association of followers of Jesus Christ. It will embrace all denominations of the Christian faith, Catholic, orthodox, protestant, Pentecostal, without showing bias to doctrinal inclination of any of the denominations. The early church originated in Roman Judea in the first century AD, founded on the teachings of Jesus of Nazareth. (Church History, nd).

The advent of Christian faith in Nigeria is usually identified with evangelization mission of the Portuguese in 15th century. The early western missionaries to Nigeria attempted to build the Christian faith in the country on the category of "church-State relationships." As a consequence of this strategy, the Kings were targeted for conversion and the churches at the period were built around the palaces of the converted kings. This effort yielded fruits, leading to the entrenchment of the catholic faith in particular, among the people of Warri and Benin (Makozi & Afolabi, 1986 cited in Ukpong, 2006, p.2).

A new wave of missionaries arrived in Nigeria between the 19th and 20th centuries. "The emerging Church offered solace to the afflicted and sought to re-connect the common folks to the original sense of

communalism that was shattered by colonialism and slave trade” (Ukong, 2006, p. 4). These protestant churches were at the vanguard of establishment of schools and hospitals. Children of the poor who could not afford to pay fees were educated free of charge as a way encouraging them to accept the gospel.

With the focus of the Church now on reliving the burdens of the oppress and attending to their basic needs of education, shelter, health, and provision of means of livelihood as new vehicles for the spreading of the gospel, the church in Nigeria was entrenched as a pro-people organization, with a mandate of combating poverty, especially at the rural areas, with the aid of the afore-mentioned emergent vehicles that accompanied evangelization.

The Millennium development goals (MDGs).

These are development targets set by the United Nations through the Millennium declaration of September 2000, adopted by 189 nations and signed by 147 heads of state, committing countries both rich and poor to do all they can to eradicate poverty, promote human dignity and equality and achieve peace, democracy and environmental stability (Igbuzor, 2006b; Onwuliri, 2008). They also include commitments to reduce debt, increase technology transfers and build development partnerships (N. N, 2002 cited in Oyelude & Oti, 2007, p 2).

The MDGs have eight main targets;

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. 2015 target is to halve the proportion of people living on less than \$1 a day and those suffering hunger.

Goal 2: Achieve Universal Basic education; 2015 target is to achieve universal completion of primary education.

Goal 3: Promote Gender equality; 2005/2015 target is to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education enrolment by 2005, and achieve equity at all levels by 2015.

Goal 4: Reduce Child Mortality; 2015 target is to reduce by two thirds the child mortality rate.

Goal 5: Improve maternal health; 2015 target is to reduce by three quarters the proportion of women dying in childbirth.

Goal 6: Combat AIDS, Malaria and other diseases; 2015 target is to halt and begin to reverse the incidence of HIV-AIDS, malaria and other major diseases.

Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability; Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources. 2015 target is to reduce by half the proportion of people without access to clean drinking water and basic sanitation. By 2020 achieve a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.

Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development. This goal commits the countries of both North and South to working together to achieve open, rule based trading and financial system, more generous aid to countries committed to poverty reduction, and relief for the debt problems of developing countries. It

draws attention to the problems of the least developed countries and of landlocked countries and small island developing states, which have greater difficulty competing in the global economy (United Nations 2000; Igbuzor, 2006b; Umo, 2007; Onwuliri, 2008; USCCB & CRS, 2009).

Nigeria's socio-economic situation and the MDGs

Nigeria's status as the seventh largest producer of oil in the world with enormous revenue generation capacity from oil and gas and non – oil exports, woefully contrasts with its decaying infrastructural and institutional development. Despite all social and economic policies that have been implemented by successive administrations, social, economic and political instability, abject poverty, acute youth unemployment, heightened crime rate, poor health prospects, have to be the main features of Nigeria's political economy (Ogundiya, 2010).

Adelegan (2009) in his assessment of the socio-economic situation of Nigeria writes that in spite of Nigeria's position as the ninth most populous nation in the world with a population of about one hundred and forty million people, its economy has remained monolithic depending primarily on revenue from oil. "The nation's dependence on oil as a source of revenue jumped from just 4.5% in 1963 to 59.9%, 69.0% and 84.1% in 1973, 1983 and 1993 respectively. Prolonged economic stagnation, rising poverty levels and decay in infrastructure have remained defining features of Nigeria's economy" (Adelegan, 2009: 92). In order to intensify effort and demonstrate government commitment to achieving the MDGs in Nigeria, virtual poverty fund (VPF), was established to house debt relief gains. In the year 2007, very innovative mechanisms for achieving the MDGs were put in place; the first being, conditional grant scheme (CGS) to states and local governments to execute projects and programs. The second mechanism is the social safety nets scheme, which provides cash or in-kind transfer to the poorest in the society (MDG Office, 2008 cited in Bello & Roslan, 2010).

Eneh (2009) contextualizes Nigeria's socio-economic situation in line with the attempts to achieve the MDGs and postulates that;

Nigeria remains one of the poorest countries in the world, regardless of her richness in petroleum oil, which price crossed the \$100 per barrel mark in December 2007. Despite the country's enormous resources, 92.4% of the Nigerian population lives in poverty on less than \$2 per day, while 70.8% lives in extreme poverty on less than \$1 per day.... One third of the children in Nigeria are malnourished. Women are less than 20% of the Nigerian political class. Nigeria's under five mortality rate (at 200 per 1,000 live births) (Eneh, 2009, p. 174).

Theoretical framework

This study has adopted the group approach which considers group as the basis for the study of politics (Mahajan, 2006). According to Isaak (1969), to most group theorists, as with most political scientists, "a political group exists when men with shared interests organize, interact, and seek goals through the political process." What is emphasized is not the structural composition of a group but its activities. The interaction of among its members must be both relatively frequent, sufficiently patterned and be directed towards the attainment of certain interests by its members.

The group approach whose pioneers were Arthur Bentley and David Truman, conceives of society as a mosaic of numerous interest groups with cross cutting membership. Exponents of the approach posit that

the form of politics of any society is ultimately determined by the interaction among groups within the society and the competition among such groups to influence government in the allocation of societal resources and exercise of power. Each group therefore seeks to gain access to decision points within the government and its success in this regard is usually affected by factors such as group cohesion and organization, status, quality of leadership and wealth.

Our two Church groups, Redeemed Christian Church of God (RCCG) and the Seventh-day Adventist Church are two formal groups which are contributing much, positively in many areas of the MDGs with a view to assisting Nigeria to achieve the goals maximally.

Methodology

The research relied on secondary data comprising relevant published books, scholarly peer-reviewed journal articles, newspaper articles, as well as conference and institutional papers, and articles downloaded from the internet. Content analysis of data gathered was carried out, as contributions of the two denominations was examined using the various MDGs goals as criteria of analysis. The scope of the study is 2000 – 2010, being the first ten years following the Millennium declaration, and covering two – third of the target duration of fifteen years, though Nigeria back-dated its implementation of the program to 1995.

THE EARLY CHURCH: THE MISSIONARIES AND SOCIETAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

The Early Church

The strategy for development by the early church was to carry every member of the society on board (the rich as well as the poor). It was seen as a collective action where the quality of life of every member of society was the concern of all members. Its goal was to ascertain the integral development of every member of the society as meeting a decent minimum standard of living. Ajibola (2005) said the Apostle James in James 2: 17 argued for a necessary correlation between belief and practice. An established link between what we do and what we believe (A les orandi les credenda relationship). For James, the Church is insignificant and in fact of no important relevance to human community, if she neglects the basic needs of the brothers and the sisters. Faith by itself, if it is not accompanied by action, is dead. He went further to exemplify the point that “ill clad” (RSV) and hungry person is a brother or sister, i.e. a member of the Christian community. The needy brother is sent away with the empty words; Depart in peace, be ye warmed and filled, without so much as a hand being lifted to meet his urgent needs. James indignantly asks “what on earth is the good of that?” James 2: 15 & 16.

Missionaries and societal development in Nigeria

The missionaries took over from where the apostles stopped. The mission of the church is directed towards the sanctification of souls and the integral development of man’s temporal order by perfecting it in the spirit of the gospel. From 1841, when the first primary school in Nigeria was opened in Badagry by the Methodist Mission (Fagbanuiye, 1986), churches in Nigeria have realized that the Christian message of salvation cannot be effective on a dehumanized person or individual or country. The Good News (kerygma) of Jesus as preached by the church must be such that must not be “isolated from the good news

which they (the people) are expecting to hear from their efforts to produce more food, to eradicate poverty, illiteracy and sickness, to stop the exploitation of the poor and the weak by the rich and the strong, to end the domination of the masses by a few ethnic groups” (Akukwe cited in Ajibola, 2005).

It is a fact of common knowledge that the history of western education in Nigeria is, for the most part, an account of Christian missionary involvement in the crucial sector of social activity in the country. To show that education occupied a pride of place in Baptist missionary endeavours in Nigeria, Herman (1957 cited in Ajayi, 2006) wrote that in the mission views of the Church Education has never been an optional or second rated interest of the church, with worship, preaching, evangelism, mission outreach, and good works. It is at the very heart of the whole church congregation and cannot be left to those who have been given specific responsibility for carrying out the education programme.

It must also be acknowledged to the credit of these missionaries that dispensaries and maternity centres were set up simultaneously with the establishment of either an elementary or a secondary school to take care of the health of the generality of the people either in rural, semi – urban or the so-called urban areas of that era.

The Church in Nigeria and the MDGs

In reviewing the role of the Church in Nigeria in the efforts at achieving the MDGs, the focus of the paper will be on the contributions of two denominations, the Redeemed Christian Church of God and the Seventh-day Adventist Church.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE REDEEMED CHRISTIAN CHURCH OF GOD (RCCG)

MDGs goal 1

The Redeemed Christian Church of God has been strategically working to ensure the achievement of this goal using several operational structures. God’s Provision program founded in 1994, by Pastor (Mrs) Foluke Adeboye, wife of the General Overseer, aims to reduce poverty in the society, targeting the old and handicapped, widows, single mothers, the jobless, orphans, apprentices and the sick, this has positively impacted the poor in the categories specified across the country without regard to religious affiliations. Loans are made available to those within the categories that can engage in petty trading, and repayment is made in monthly installments (Chioma, 2009: 23).

Another program also operated by the RCCG, is “A CAN can make a difference”, a non – governmental organization founded by Pastor Eskor Mfor (of the RCCG). It provides food and other essential materials to the very poor in the society, including prisoners, children in remand homes, and people living in ghettos in Lagos area (Oguntoyinbo-Atere, 2005 cited in Chioma, 2009: 23).

MDGs goal 2

The Redeemed Christian Church of God has established schools across the country. At the basic primary level, which is the key focus of MDGs goal two, the schools are established and managed by many of its parishes in several cities and towns. Besides the quality education provided to school age children in those locations, the Church’s scholarship scheme (Christ the Redeemers Welfare Service, CRWS), provides scholarship for some of those who cannot afford the cost of quality education (Chioma, 2009).

The Educate a Child program of African Missions North America in two years, 2003 and 2004 provided funding for the education of four hundred thirty three (433) children in Nigeria, Kenya and South Africa. The mandate of the educate a child program includes: providing school supplies, books, uniform, shoes and transportation costs to children whose families cannot afford them; improving the drop-out and retention rates of education, particularly of young girls; enhancing the quality of life for children by providing at least one meal daily each school day; developing and implementing a sustainability plan to ensure continuity of all programs (Africa Missions North Africa - RCCGNA, 2005)

MDGs goal 3: Women empowerment

Daughters of Zion (Women's Ministry) is an Arm of RCCG, Tabernacle of Praise, that "is strategically positioned to utilize and harness all talents, gifts and resources to build up women in the body of Christ" (Daughters of Zion, nd). It not only provides spiritual support for women but also caters to their physical, emotional, health, social needs, equipping them with the resources they need to function in the society.

Several of such women ministry departments cut across the different parishes of the RCCG across the country, providing resources for the empowerment of women, and encouraging gender equity in the society, through support for women in different aspects of socio-economic life, seminars/workshops and retreats are held annually to provide instruction on acquisition of resources that will facilitate the effective functioning of women in both private and public life.

MDGs goals 4 & 5

African Missions North America, an international organ of the RCCG that aims to spread the gospel through love and care for the needy, has as part of its mandate, providing health services to orphans and the aged. RCCG has used the enormous resources and professional expertise provided by volunteers working under this program to provide medical services to children and pregnant women to reduce both child mortality and maternal mortality (Oguntinyinbo, 2005 cited in Chioma, 2009).

The Medishare program of Africa Missions North America solicits medicines and medical equipment from pharmaceutical companies all over the world and facilitates the distribution of these medicines and medical products to credible health clinics and hospitals. Africa Missions North America has medical teams in major cities in Nigeria, who implement and monitor drug utilization while guarding against, illegal sale of medical products and medicines (Africa Missions North America – RCCGNA, 2007).

MDGs goal 6: Combating AIDS, Malaria and other diseases

HIV/AIDS is a critical "poverty" issue, especially in rural Nigeria, which unfortunately affects women and children many of whom are orphaned. As a result of its incidence, the number of "child headed households" is on the increase as the number of HIV/AIDs orphans is on the increase (Oyelude & Oti, 2007, p. 2). The RCCG has responded to the challenge of this menace with contributions involving several strategies. The Redeemed AIDS Program Action Committee (RAPAC), serves as the primary vehicle spearheading the efforts of the church to counter the growth of the number of people living with HIV/AIDS in the country. The RCCG has also partnered with the Ford Foundation to add verve to its programs of assistance to victims of HIV/AIDS gets to the grassroots (Oyelude & Adeoti, 2007)

The RCCG is also actively participating in the role back malaria campaign through the instrumentality of its hospitals in different cities of the country. God's Provision Program, an NGO of RCCG also provides medical examination and treatment for the sick across the country who cannot afford medical services provided by regular hospitals. African missions, an international organ of RCCG constructs boreholes in rural communities, which provides portable drinking water for residents thereby reducing health risk and the spread of various diseases (Chioma, 2009).

MDGs goal 7 and goal 8

There is no reasonable evidence of the activities of RCCG in the area of achieving goals 7 which is to ensure environmental sustainability; integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources; and goal 8: to develop a global partnership for development.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE SEVENTH – DAY ADVENTIST CHURCH

MDGs goal 1: Poverty reduction

On the international level, the agency through which the Seventh-day Adventist Church identifies with poverty across the globe is the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA). Though its establishment pre-dated the MDGs, it has come handy as a major vehicle for the provision of the support for the achievement of the MDGs by the church in the area of poverty reduction. ADRA, is a humanitarian development and relief agency that supports, rehabilitates and enhances the quality of life and well-being of communities and citizens in developing countries, especially those living under extreme poverty conditions (WAD, 2006 cited in Chioma, 2009). ADRA started operations in Nigeria in 1987 with its areas of primary focus being: Maternal child care and health services; AIDS prevention; portable water provision and sanitation; primary food production, nursery, primary and vocational education, income generation (small enterprises); women in development as well as Disaster preparedness and response (Alao, 2004: 62).

ADRA has a functional micro-lending scheme (empowerment scheme) to support the poor in the development of their small enterprises and overcome poverty in three cities, namely; Ile-Ife, Osun state; Kaduna, Kaduna State and Benin, Edo state. In order to reverse the exacerbation of poverty which disasters and man-made crises cause, ADRA provided disaster relief materials to victims of Ikeja Cantonment ammunition explosion (Alao, 2004: 62).

The Adventist Women Ministry is the department of the church that coordinates the activities of women in spreading the gospel. This ministry in Nigeria has been very active in providing different forms of support and assistance to the poor through the local branches of the church located in various neighborhoods, both rural and urban, across the country. They provide, food materials, clothing, provide scholarship to indigent students where sufficient funds are available, pay for medical services to the very poor, support widows and the aged in farming their agricultural lands in the rural areas (Chioma, 2009).

MDGs goal 2: Universal Basic Primary Education

The Education department of the Church coordinates its efforts at spreading the gospel through the instrumentality of provision of quality education at all levels, primary, secondary and tertiary. Before the

Millennium declaration of 2000, primary education was mainly coordinated by the local conferences or operated by the major institutions owned by the denomination, as at December 2000, there were twenty primary schools and five secondary schools. The declaration of Millennium development goals led to the decentralization of the coordination of the primary arm of the education component of the denomination's ministry, enabling local churches that could afford it to establish their own primary schools while the secondary schools remained under the control of the conferences. "As at 2004, the denomination had seventy primary schools and seven secondary schools" (Alao, 2004: 54). The number of secondary schools has increased to eleven as at December, 2010 following the return of some schools to their former missionary owners by some state governments (AWM & Education Department, 2010)

MDGs goal 3: Women Empowerment

The major arm of the church that has complete focus on providing women empowerment is the Adventist women Ministry. At the local level, various skill acquisition programs such as soap making, catering, baking, tie and dye, are carried out. These are planned as year round programs in the different local churches; on the average each district hosts a skill acquisition program at least once a year. Such empowerment programmes held by the local districts of the denomination include:

District AWM, Babcock 2005; 2 workshops on soap making and tie and dye making; thirty four women participated with cost of workshop put at twelve thousand naira; Ogba District AWM 2006; Baking of wheat bread; fifty two women participated and the cost of workshop – eight thousand five hundred naira; Aba Headquarters District 2006; Soap making workshop, seventy three women participated and the workshop cost fifteen thousand naira; Oregun District AWM 2006; Baking of wheat bread and white bread; forty eight women participated and the cost of the workshop was twelve thousand naira; Maryland district AWM 2007; soap making and cake baking; fifty four women participated, and the workshop cost twenty three thousand naira; Aba Township No 1 district AWM, 2008; Soap making and baking of wheat bread; seventy three women participated and the workshop cost, eighteen thousand naira (AWM & Education Department, 2010).

Beyond the organization of skill acquisition programs, "women often provide capital for young or middle-aged widows to begin trading or small business. However, it is interesting to note that the beneficiaries of these programs are not limited to the membership of the Seventh-day Adventist Church" (Chioma, 2009, p. 21).

The Adventist Women Ministry also provides scholarships to indigent female students. Across the country eighteen female students in different institutions of higher learning have benefitted and are benefitting from the financial assistance of the organization, which receives support from the Division office of AWM in Abidjan and the World office in Washington DC. The beneficiaries of its scholarship scheme include: two students of University of Calabar, studying Accountancy; twelve from Babcock University, (2 graduated, who studied Public Health and Nursing; ten currently in school, 2 studying Computer Information system, 2 – Accounting and 1 Economics, 2 Public Health, 1 Nursing, 2 Mass Communication); four Nursing students of Seventh-day Adventist school of Nursing and Midwifery, Ile-Ife (AWM & Education Department, 2010).

MDGs goals 4 & 5

The Seventh-day Adventist Church through the instrumentality of its Hospitals strategically located in the different geo-political zones of the country, and the efforts of the Adventist Health International in the country, is working assiduously towards the achievement of the MDGs goals 4 and 5. The various hospitals of the Church (located in Aba, Abia State, Ile-Ife, Osun State and Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State) are in partnership with the Federal Ministry of Health in the delivery of the “safe mama” program, which aims to reduce maternal mortality in the country. The services are available to all women who come to access them regardless of religious affiliation. The hospitals also participate in the various National Immunization programmes of the federal government, including the ones targeting the deadly diseases; cholera, polio, etc.

MDGs goal 6: Combat AIDS, Malaria and other diseases

The Adventist Health International and the Health and Temperance departments of the Church are very active in the organization of awareness programs targeting MDGs goal 6. The Health and temperance educate members on the basic lifestyle that encourages good health and well-being. “The purpose of these societies is to promote the principles and programs of health and temperance in order to improve the quality of life and character, and to counter the use of alcohol, tobacco, debasing drugs, and other harmful substances” (WAD, 2006 cited in Chioma, 2009, p. 21).

At the various, evangelical crusades hosted across the country by the different local churches and conferences, health talks feature as major part of such programs and various health practitioners use the medium to educate the populace on ways of preventing HIV/AIDS and other diseases. In Babcock University, an institution of higher learning owned by the church in Nigeria, HIV/AIDS awareness seminars are held each semester by the students of the Department of Public and Allied Health.

MDGs goal 7

ADRA Nigeria has been very active in activities targeting achievement of goal 7 which is to ensure environmental sustainability; integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources, through the execution of various projects across the country, albeit with funding by various international and national agencies and governments. The completed projects include: Ife Urban water scheme – funded by ADRA, Netherlands; Ilesa Spring Water development – funded by Government of New Zealand; Kaduna Wells – funded by SIMAVI, Netherlands; Edo regional water project – funded by SDA ingathering; Utu-Abak Community water funded by Ireland Aid (Alao, 2004: 62).

MDGs goal 8

The Seventh-day Adventist Church being a non-governmental institution is not directly involved in formation of global partnerships for development, which are the primary assignment of national governments. However, they partner various international institutions and agencies in providing some development assistance in various core sectors as already highlighted above.

Conclusion

The MDGs would have been achievable in Nigeria by 2015 if the government has shown equal commitment to their achievement as the two denominations (RCCG and the Adventist Church) have done in the efforts towards achieving the first six goals. However, evidence from different studies (Igbuzor, 2006b; Oyelude & Oti, 2007; Bello & Roslan, 2010) shows that the government has not shown as much commitment as the Christian church, and as such scholars are agreed that the MDGs may not be achievable in Nigeria by 2015. However, reasonable progress has been made in the area of Universal basic education with the Northern part of the country being the major area of challenge.

Data from UNICEF and WHO reveal that although maternal mortality is a global phenomenon, the critical issues associated with it are most profound in developing countries like Nigeria. From recent estimates, 500, 000 women die each year from maternal causes; and for every woman that dies, approximately 20 more suffer injuries, infections and disabilities in pregnancy or childbirth (Idowu & Asakitikpi, 2009). This data is worrisome when compared with the population of Nigeria, which is 140 million. This means that much still needs to be done in this area for the MDGs to be achieved in Nigeria.

Recommendations

Though the MDGs may not be achievable by 2015 in Nigeria, since they are not an end in themselves, but the means to achieving sustainable development and the good life for all citizens, there is a need for the government, the church and other NGOs both national and international to build synergy in efforts to ensure their achievement even beyond 2015. In line with this the researchers put forward the following recommendations;

- That the church should improve on its efforts and commitment to the first six goals, through forming partnership with other stakeholders such as government ministries, departments and agencies, international and local NGOs and other faith organizations (non Christian) in efforts targeting especially the Northern part of the country.
- The church should develop strategies that will help in sustaining the environment, through enlightenment and awareness programs targeting environmental conservation, including anti environmental pollution, degradation, anti gas flaring, bush burning, and indiscriminate cutting of trees, for both its members and people of other faith groups.
- The Church should use the agency of international religious liberty and inter faith conferences build synergy across the continents, encouraging its agencies and institutions to work with other international bodies and governments in forming partnership for global development.
- The church should play a key role on the fight against corruption, as this will go a long way in helping the reduction of the debt burden and reduction income inequality.

References

Adelegan, Femi (2009). *Governance: An insider's reflections on the Nigerian polity*, Ibadan: Terrific Publications.

Adesegun, A. A. (2007). Adeogun J. A. unknown till 1971, Seventh – day Adventist Church in Nigeria, *Dictionary of African Christian biography*, retrieved online on 14/12/2011 from http://www.dacb.org/stories/nigeria/adeogun_joseph.html.

- Adesegun, A. A. (2009). Christian education in the Seventh-day Adventist Church in Remo, Ogun state, Nigeria, 1959 – 2004 being an unpublished thesis in the Department of Religious Studies submitted to the Faculty of Arts, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of philosophy, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- African Missions North Africa – RCCGNA (2005). Educate a Child program (EACP), retrieved on 14/12/2011 from [http://www.africamissionsna.org/educate/a/child-program-\(eacp\).html](http://www.africamissionsna.org/educate/a/child-program-(eacp).html).
- African Missions North Africa – RCCGNA (2007). Medshare program, retrieved online on 14/12/2011 from [http://www.africamissionna.org/medshare-program-\(msp\).html](http://www.africamissionna.org/medshare-program-(msp).html).
- Ajayi, S. A. (2006). Christian Missions and educational development in Nigeria: The Baptist example, 1854 – 2005 in Ishola, A & Ayegboyin D. (eds) (2006). *Ecclesiastes, the Preacher, the Church and the contemporary society, papers in honour of Reverend (Dr) S. T. Ola Akande, PhD*, Ibadan: Sceptre Prints.
- Ajibola, G. I. (2005). Strategies and practice in Church and state, being a paper presented at the 10th anniversary celebration of conference of All saints seminary, Ekpoma, held 25th to 29th October, 2005.
- Akukwe, F. N. (nd). *Towards a new society: introduction to social development, CECTA, Nigeria*, Onitsha: directorate of Social services, Archdiocese of Onitsha.
- Atowoju, A. A. (2006). The church: one body in Christ, in Ishola, A & Ayegboyin, D. (eds) (2006). *Ecclesiastes, the Preacher, the Church and the contemporary society, papers in honour of Reverend (Dr) S. T. Ola Akande, PhD*, Ibadan: Sceptre Prints.
- Bello, M. A. & Roslan, A. H. (2010). Future of Millennium development goals in Nigeria, retrieved online on 26/05/2011 from www.internationalconference.com.my/.../paper_142_future_of_millennium.pdf.
- Chagunda, C. A. (2002). The contribution of the Church to human development in Third world countries: a comparison of initiatives in South Africa and India, retrieved online on 26/05/2011 from <http://researchspace.ukzn.ac.za/xmlui/handle/10413/722>.
- Chioma, S. N. (2009). A Christian response to poverty in modern times, *Babcock Journal of Economics, Banking and Finance*, May 2009, Maiden Edition, Pp 11 – 31.
- Church history (nd). Church history: Relevance for modern Christianity, retrieved online on 19/07/2011 from <http://www.allaboutreligion.org/church-history.htm>
- Daughters of Zion (nd). Daughters of zion (women ministry) retrieved online on 19/07/2011 from <http://www.rccgtabernacleofpraise.org/women.html>

Fagbamiye, E. O. (1986). Egalitarianism and formal education in Nigeria in Ojo, F. et al (eds) (1986). *Manpower development and utilization in Nigeria: Problems and prospects*, Lagos: University Press.

Idowu, A. E. & Asakitikpi, A. E. (2009). Religion and the quality of maternal health in Badagry, Lagos State, *Nigerian Sociological Review*, Vol 4, Nos 1 & 2, March & November, 2009, Pp 129 – 140.

Igbuzor, O. (2006a). Review of Nigeria Millennium development goals – 2005 report, paper presented at the MDG/GCAP Nigeria planning meeting held in Abuja, Nigeria on 9th March, 2006, retrieved online on 27/05/2011 from <http://www.dawodu.com/igbuzor11.htm>.

Igbuzor, O. (2006b). The Millennium development goals: can Nigeria meet the goals in 2015? Paper presented at a symposium on Millennium development goals and Nigeria: issues, challenges and prospects organized by the Institute of chartered accountants of Nigeria (ICAN), Abuja district on July 27, 2006 at Sheraton Hotel and Towers, Abuja retrieved online on 27/05/2011 from civicus.org/new/media/MDGforICAN.doc.

Isaak, A. C. (1969). *Scope and methods of political science*, Homewood: The Dorsey Press.

Isichei, E. (1995). *A history of Christianity in Africa from Antiquity to the present*, London: SPCK.

Kinman, M. (nd). The Church's role in development – Building transforming relationships, retrieved online on 27/05/2011 from www.e4gr.org/documents/27.pdf

Mahajan, V. D. (2006). *Political theory* (reprint 4th ed), New Delhi: Rajendra Ravindra printers.

Maiyaki, J. Y. (2002). Poverty eradication in Nigeria: Conceptual framework, in Maiyaki, J. Y & Okeke, Clement I. (eds) (2002) *Research and development in Nigeria, (Proceedings of CMD annual conference of heads of research and development in Nigeria civil service, public and private enterprises 1997 – 2001)*, Lagos: Centre for management and Development.

Ogundiya, I. S. (2010). Democracy and good governance: Nigeria's dilemma, *African journal of political science and international relations*, vol. 4 (6), pp. 201 – 208, June 2010, retrieved online on 20/06/2010 from <http://www.academicjournals.org/ajpsir>.

Onwuliri, C. O. E. (2008). The millennium development goals and the church in Nigeria, keynote address presented at the annual theological conference of Catholic Institute of West Africa held at the Catholic Institute of West Africa, Port Harcourt, Rivers state on Monday 10 March 2008, retrieved online on 27/05/2011 from <http://www.futo.edu.ng/speech%20on%20MDGs%20and%20the%20Church.html>.

Oyelude, A. A. & Oti, A. O. (2007). The Millennium development goals (MGDs): gender gap in information, education and library access to HIV/AIDS prevention and treatment in local communities of Nigeria, paper presented at World library and information congress: 73rd IFLA

general conference and council, 19-23 August, at Durban, South Africa retrieved online on 19/07/2011 from http://www.ifla.org/iv/ifla73/papers/149-oyelude_odti-en.pdf

RCCG (nd). The Redeemed Christian Church of God, retrieved online on 01/01/2012 from www.rccg.org

Ukah, A. K. (2004). The Redeemed Christian Church of God (RCCG) Nigeria. Local identities and global processes in African Pentecostalism, being a PhD dissertation submitted to University of Bayreuth, retrieved online on 14/12/2011 from http://opus.ub.uni_bayreuth.de/voltexte/2004/73/pdf/ukah.pdf

Ukpong, D. P. (2006). The presence and impact of Pentecostalism in Nigeria retrieved online on 19/07/2011 from www.glopent.net/.../Presence_and_impact_of_pentecostalism_in_Nigeria.pdf Umo, Joe U. (2007). *Economics An African perspective* (2nd ed.), Lagos: Millennium Text Publishers.

United Nations (2000). Millennium declaration, (September, 2000) retrieved online on 26/05/2011 from <http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.pdf>.

US Conference of Catholic Bishops & Catholic Relief Services (2009). A Catholic campaign against global poverty, achieving the Millennium development goals MDGs, retrieved online on 26/05/2011 from www.usccb.org/sdwp/globalpoverty/MDGs.pdf

Wikipedia (2008). Seventh-day Adventist Church in Nigeria, retrieved on 14/12/2011 from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/seventh_day_Adventist_church_Nigeria.

Wikipedia (n.d). Seventh-day Adventist Church, retrieved online on 02/01/2012 from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Seventh-day_Adventist_Church

Women Empowerment and Good governance in Ikenne Local government, Ogun state, Nigeria

By

**ARABA Teniayo Theresa, NWOGWUGWU Ngozi, OKATA Gift Ngozi & OYELESE Caleb
Olawole**

PhD students of the School of Postgraduate Students, Babcock University, Ilishan – Remo.

Abstract

Nigeria women comprising 49.2% of the national population are not adequately represented at major decision making positions at various levels of governance. The study examined the achievement of Millennium development goal number three, (gender equality) by analyzing the level of women empowerment, and participation in politics and their direct impact on good governance using Ikenne Local Government as case study. The low participation of women was traceable to some factors such as lack of adequate finance, patriarchal nature of the society, electoral violence, general insecurity and rigging of elections. Both the primary and secondary sources of information were relied upon for the purpose of the study. Structured and pre-coded questionnaires were used in the gathering of primary data. Two hundred questionnaires were administered, of which one hundred and seventy were completely filled and returned. The findings of the study reveal that the level of women participation in politics was rather low, due to low level of women empowerment; as such it could not have an appreciable impact on the performance of predominantly male administrations. 78.2% of respondents believe that the level of women empowerment was low in Ikenne Local government; 82.8% of the respondents state that women participation in politics was relatively low; 80% of the respondents believe that lack of support from political godfathers is a major impediment to women participation; 82.2% were also of the opinion that many women were not directly involved in policy making; while 82.2% were of the opinion that more women getting elected into public office will enhance the achievement of good governance in the local government. Greater impetus in women empowerment efforts and improved awareness on women participation in politics is encouraged to ensure the achievement of good governance and MDGs goal number three.

Introduction

In September 2000, the United Nations, recognized that a large portion of the global population live in absolute poverty, (with global statistics putting the figure as high as 20% of the world's population, about approximately 1.2 billion people). As a result, the United Nations made the Millennium declaration which was adopted by one hundred and eighty nine countries and signed by one hundred and forty seven Heads of state and government present at the meeting (Igbuzor, 2006a; Onwuliri, 2008). The Millennium declaration is composed of eight millennium development goals, with third focusing on promotion of gender equality (United Nations, 2000).

Despite several years of democratic governance, Nigeria is yet to achieve good governance especially at the local government level. Women constitute a very large part of the Nigeria's population, with the 2006

national population census figures showing that 49.2 % of the Nigerian population are females. The United Nations specification has also stipulated that at least 35% of national legislative offices should be reserved for women. The implication of the fore-going is that women have massive contributions to make to ensure achievement of political and economic development, which scholars believe can only be attained through good governance (Adelegan, 2009; Nwelih & Ukaoha, 2010).

In the light of the above, the paper will seek to; examine the level of women empowerment in Ikenne Local government of Ogun state since the signing of the MDGs document by Nigeria; evaluate the level of participation of women in politics in Ikenne local government area, during the period under review; assess the impact of the role of women in politics in the achievement of good governance; provide necessary input on how to achieve MDGs goal three, which is to promote gender equality; provide resource material for future research on women empowerment and achievement of good governance.

In the examination of women empowerment, involvement in politics and participation in efforts to achieve good governance, the study will seek to answer the following questions; whether there has been any significant improvement in the level of women empowerment in Ikenne local government since the adoption of the MDGs by Nigeria? Has there has been any recognizable improvement in the level of participation in politics by women (in terms of contesting for elective public offices) in Ikenne local government since the adoption of the MDGs? How active has the women been in ensuring transparency and accountability in the governance of Ikenne local government? Would increase in the number of women in politics lead to achievement of good governance in Ikenne Local government?

The study is sub-divided into nine sections, namely; introduction, literature review, theoretical framework, methodology, results, data analysis, discussion of findings, conclusion and recommendations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Women empowerment

Empowerment means enhancing the capacity of poor people to influence the state institutions that affect their lives by strengthening their participation in political process and local decision making. And it means removing the barriers, such as political, legal, social activities that work against particular groups and building the assets of poor people to enable them engage effectively in markets (Maiyaki, 2002, p. 239). The basic tool for achieving women empowerment is quality education. Education is the basic tool that should be given to women in order for them to fulfill their role in the society (Khan & Ara, 2006).

In spite of all the laudable goals and objectives of education, Nigerian women still suffer a lot of constraints and inhibitions which militates against “their personal and national development. As such 61% of Nigerian women suffer from intellectual poverty (Ojuolape, 2000). Furthermore, early educational curriculum of Nigeria was designed to train women as teachers, nurses and clerks. They are rarely found in professions like medicine, engineering, politics, law and environmental studies” (Achume, 2004). This has increasingly resulted in the lack of qualified women for top leadership positions in various sectors of the society.

Poverty, illiteracy and cultural discrimination against women are major constraints to women empowerment in Nigeria. According to UNESCO (2004) statistics, 31% of women in Nigeria are literate, as against 54% of their male counterparts. Women made up to two thirds of illiterate adults (Egunjobi, 2005).

A recent study has provided an interesting perspective to the study of women empowerment. There study revealed that: attitude of male youth towards women empowerment is positive. They are favoring to provide power over economic resources to women. They also favor women enhanced participation in economic and political spheres. The main reasons for this positive attitude are the transformation of society from male dominance to more balanced gender based society (Naz, et al 2010).

This is a very interesting finding given that the study was done in Pakistan which is a male dominated society like Nigeria. This is an indication of youth rejection of the status quo and a desire for change that will bring about meaningful development through women active participation in the political process and governance.

Women in Politics

Historically, women everywhere hold some measure of influence or informal power, but the degree varies with the gender system in their culture (Leacock, 1986, cited in Makinde & Aladekomo, 1997; p. 73). History is replete with records of roles of women active participation in politics. Through good leadership women have been known to ward off what they considered not beneficial to them and their community. For instance, Funmilayo Ransome – Kuti successfully led Abeokuta women in a demonstration against the colonial government when women were asked to pay tax when they were not represented in formal government (Makinde & Aladekomo, 1997; p. 73). Through collective effort women have also tried to resist patriarchal authority. Roman women in 195 BC, after the Punic wars, demanded for the repeal of a law made during the war barring them from owning more than half an ounce of gold, wearing coloured clothes or riding in horse – drawn carriages or near a city except on ceremonial occasions (Leacock, 1986; p. 117, cited in Makinde & Aladekomo, 1997, p. 73).

The emphasis on gender equality by the United Nations can be better appreciated when viewed from the angle that women representation remains a source of public debate in most countries of the world.

In 2009, women are still dramatically underrepresented in elected office in the United States. Though the reasons for this are complex, public attitudes toward this situation are no doubt of importance. While a number of scholars have demonstrated that women candidates do not suffer at the ballot box because of their sex, we should not assume that this means that voter attitudes about gender are irrelevant to politics (Dolan, 2009, p. 69).

However, in advanced countries of the world, meaningful progress has been achieved in efforts at attaining political equality of both sexes, as both men and women do not only have equal rights to vote but also share equal chances of being voted for. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said of Nigeria and other underdeveloped countries of the world where women are relegated to the background in matters bordering on politics (Epelle & Oriakhi, 2003). Owen & Ogbogu (2009, pp 37 – 38) posit that “in all of

Nigeria's political history, including the previous attempts at democratic rule, women were severely sidelined in terms of representation in government.”

In Nigeria, as in most countries of the globe, few women are able to participate actively in politics, as well as being involved in the various processes that ensure the achievement of good governance, despite the adoption and signing of the MDGs document in 2000. This is directly connected to the low level of empowerment of women both economically and socially. The identified major impediments for women participation in politics in Nigeria include; cultural bias against women, limited education, marital responsibility, financial constraints, conflicts in the demands of politics and traditional roles of women, lack of spousal support, male domination of politics, opposition from men and lack of support from other women as well as electoral violence, general insecurity, and rigging of elections (Abdul-Wasi, 2009; Agbalajobi, 2010; Owen & Ogbogu, 2009).

However the existence of these impediments implies the need for more proactive action through the political and economic empowerment of women, and implementation of affirmative action quotas (CEDAW, 1979 cited in Agbalajobi, 2010). These will require greater activity by women empowerment groups and other civil society organizations to ensure the implementation various policies including the relevant constitutional provisions such as section 40 of the 1999 constitution which indirectly emphasizes affirmative action.

The Centre for Asia – Pacific Women in Politics (CAPWIP) (1999), writes that Women's political empowerment is premised on three fundamental, and non-negotiable, principles. These are: (1.) The equality between women and men; (2.) Women's right to the full development of their potentials; and (3.) Women's right to self -representation and self -determination.

Agbalajobi (2010) argues that compared to earlier republics, the first three elections of the fourth republic in Nigeria held in 1999, 2003, and 2007 showed some level of improvement in terms of women getting elected into public offices. However, this is insignificant when compared to the population of women in the country. The statistics, reveal that women only secured 3% representation in contested positions in 1999, 4% in 2003, while in 2007 they made with only 6%. Few and almost insignificant number of women were elected into various posts in past three general elections held in the country between 1999 and 2007.

A comparison of the women contesting and getting elected into public office in both 2003 and 2007 general elections shows a marginal improvement as revealed in table 1 below.

Table 1, Comparism of women in 2003 and 2007 general elections

Source: Gender Audit and IPU PARLINE database (2003 and 2008) cited in Agbalajobi (2010)

The table shows that, as at 2007 there were 9 female senators out of 109 Senators and 25 women in the House of Representatives of 360 members. There were 54 female members of the State assemblies.

A link between women empowerment, active participation in politics/involvement in decision making and achievement of development in a given society has been made by scholars:

Women's equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. It is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but can also be seen as a necessary condition for women's interests to be taken into account. Without the active participation of women and the incorporation of women's perspective at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved. (FWCW,1995:1 cited in Khan & Ara, 2006).

Good governance

The origin of the concept of good governance has been traced to the great philosopher Aristotle, who

S/N	Position	No of available seats & % total in 2003	No of women elected & % total in 2007	No of women elected
	Presidency	1	0	0
	Senate	109	3 (2.27)	9 (8.26)
	House of Reps	360	21 (5.83)	25 (6.98)
	Governorship	36	0	0
	State House of Assembly	990	38 (3.84)	54 (5.45)

referred to good governance his description of a state ruled by an ethical and just governor (European

Commission for Democracy through Law, (Venice Commission), 2008, p. 3). However, its introduction into modern political/administrative discourse has been credited to the World Bank, which in the late 1990's established a link between the quality of a country's governance system and its ability to pursue sustainable economic and social development (Venice Commission, 2008). To the World Bank, governance encompasses the form of political regime; the process by which authority is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development; and the capacity of governments to design, formulate and implement policies and discharge functions (World Bank, 1991, 1992, 1994, 2000).

The World Bank endorsed good governance as a core element of its development strategy. However, it focused mainly on the economic dimensions of good governance, which has been equated with sound development management (Santiso, 2001a) in its insistence on good governance by national governments before certain level of soft loans and aids could be accessed by such governments. Santiso, (2001b) posit that "in recent years, the strengthening of good governance in developing countries has become both an objective of and a condition for development assistance."

Scholars have identified good governance as having eight major characteristics. These are; it is participatory, consensus oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and follows the rule of law (Adelegan, 2009; UNESCO, 2005; Nwelih & Ukaoha, 2010; Adeyemi, 2006; Hope, 2003).

Women empowerment, good governance and Millennium Development Goals

The Millennium declaration is composed of eight millennium development goals, which can be further broken into eighteen quantifiable targets, and measurable through forty eight development indicators. The MDGs are synthesized from previous development goals to be achieved by 2015, through which member countries of the United Nations committed themselves (both rich and poor) to do all they can to eradicate poverty, promote human dignity and equality and achieve peace, democracy and environmental stability (Igbuzor, 2006b; Onwuliri, 2008; Umo, 2007; United Nations, 2000).

The millennium declaration provides a direct link between good governance and the eradication of poverty across the globe, stressing that the success of the efforts at poverty eradication depended on good governance at both the national and international levels (United Nations, 2000). The goal number three of the millennium development goals (MDGs) is to promote gender equality and empower women, in recognition of the large population of women in the world. Nigeria was among the countries that adopted and signed the Millennium development declaration.

The significance of gender equality and empowerment being the number three of the millennium development goals can be appreciated when viewed from the perspective of women constituting over half of the global population (Afolabi et al, 2003 cited in Agbalajobi, 2010). The numerical strength of women implies that the achievement of good government at various national levels which is necessary for the attainment of the millennium development goals would require women being politically empowered to participate at the highest levels of decision making in their various countries. In furthering the argument for the inevitability of women empowerment in the achievement of the MDGs, several scholars including, Assie-Lumumba, (1996: 8 – 13) and Okwechime (2002: 204) have argued that sustainable development cannot be achieved in any given society if gender issues and women empowerment are ignored. Afonja & Aina (1995 cited in Airewele & Ukeje, 1998: 2003) and Alelle-Williams (2002: 34) argue that the role of women in development is irreplaceable.

Theoretical framework

This study adopts two theories, group theory and power theory as its theoretical construct.

Group theory

Group theory considers group as the basis for the study of politics (Mahajan, 2006). Isaak (1969 cited in Anifowoshe & Enemu, 2008), writes that “to most group theorists, as with most political scientists, a political group exists when men with shared interests organize, interact, and seek goals through the political process.” What is emphasized is not the structural composition of a group but its activities. The interaction among its members must be both relatively frequent, sufficiently patterned and be directed towards the attainment of certain interests by its members.

The major proponents of this theory are Arthur Bentley and David Truman. The theory conceives society as a mosaic of numerous interest groups with cross cutting membership. Bentley equates a description of group activity to a description of all politics, while Truman holds that group behavior is at the centre of the political process and not the summation of what constitutes politics. Exponents of the theory argue that the form of politics of any society is ultimately determined by the interaction among groups within the society and the competition among such groups to influence government in the allocation of societal

resources and exercise of power. Each group therefore seeks to gain access to decision points within the government and its success in this regard is usually affected by factors such as group cohesion and organization, status, quality of leadership and wealth.

Power theory

Niccollo Machiavelli is credited by scholars as the major proponent of power theory due to his postulations in his classic, *the Prince*. However, power theory had its first brilliant expression in the *Leviathan* of Thomas Hobbes. “The grandest conclusion of the Hobbesian politics is his clearest and most expression of the naturalistic conception of human nature” (Johari 2010, 251).

This theory holds that power “is the root cause of competition among individuals. Interests collide in the race to acquire more and more riches honour and command and for this sake, the competitors take the means of killing, subduing, supplanting and repelling their opponents” (Johari 2010, p. 251). Other major proponents of this theory include Hegel, Marx, C. B. Macpherson, R. H. Tawney, C. J. Friedrich, H. J. Morgenthau, M. Foucault, Mao Zedong and Gandhi.

H. J. Morgenthau a leading power theorist of the 20th century states that politics is nothing but struggle for power. According to him, a re-examination of the politics of Western tradition;

Must start with the assumption that power politics, rooted in the lust for power which is common to all men, is for this reason, inseparable from social life itself. In order to eliminate from the political sphere not power politics – which is beyond the ability of any political philosopher of system – but the destructiveness of power politics, rational faculties are needed which are different from and superior to the reason of the scientific age.... contemptuous of power politics and incapable of statesmanship which alone is liable to master it, the age has tried to make politics a science (Catlin, 1969, p. 35 cited in Johari, 2010).

The struggle for power to control the machinery of state and determine the allocation of resources is a major factor in Nigerian political arena, and is at the core of the efforts to achieve good governance. Women as a group, comprise a large part of the population (49.2%) according to the 2006 national population census and as such should play a very major part in politics and governance, in Nigeria’s efforts at attaining good governance and the development it engenders.

Methodology

The study was carried out in Ikenne Local government area of Ogun state, in the South West geo-political zone of Nigeria. The local government is semi-urban in nature and made up of Ikenne, (the local government headquarters), Ilishan, Iperu, Ogere and Irolu, all in the Remo Division of the state. The choice of Ikenne local government is based on the fact that being host of campuses of two universities (Babcock University and Olabisi Onabanjo University) it has a large number of educated and enlightened women who should be able to bring a measure of influence in ensuring women empowerment and involvement in efforts at achieving good governance. The study relied on primary and secondary data.

The design of the study was descriptive survey design. The instrument used in the collection of data was structured and pre-coded questionnaires. Stratified random sampling technique was adopted in the choosing of the respondents for the administration of the questionnaires. The questionnaires were

administered to two hundred persons; one hundred male and one hundred females. One hundred and seventy four of the questionnaires were completely filled and returned. The data collected was processed and analyzed using the SPSS software 15.0 edition. Simple descriptive statistics was carried out and the results analyzed and used to answer the research questions. The secondary data was gathered from relevant published books, journal articles, conference and institutional papers, and internet materials.

RESULTS

Table 2: Bio-data of Respondents

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	21 - 30 (years)	44	25.3
	31 – 40 (years)	127	71.9
	41 – 50 (years)	3	1.7
Gender	Male	74	42.5
	Female	100	57.5
Marital status	Single	14	8
	Married	129	74
	Widow/widower	28	16.1
	Divorced/separated	3	1.7
Religious Affiliation	Christianity	82	47.1
	Muslim	92	52.9
Educational qualification	SSCE	7	4.0
	Diploma	22	12.6
	HND	49	28.2
	Degree	60	34.5
	Postgraduate	36	20.7
Tribe	Yoruba	94	47.1
	Hausa	31	17.8
	Ibo	35	20.1
	Others	14	8.0

Table 2, which shows the bio – data of the respondents, reveals that majority of the respondents 127 (71.9%) are within the age bracket of 31 – 40 years. Majority of the respondents are female 100 (57.5%); 129 (74%) of the respondents are married, 92 (52.9%) are Muslims, 60 (34.5%) have postgraduate qualifications, while 94 (47.1%) are Yoruba.

Table 3: Card carrying members of any of the registered political parties

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	72	41.3
No	102	58.7
Total	174	100

Table 3, shows that 72 (41.3%) of the respondents are card carrying members of any of the registered political parties. Most of the respondents 102 (58.7%) are not members of any of the political parties.

Table 4: Party affiliation of respondents

	Frequency	Percent
ACN	40	55.55
PDP	28	38.88
Others	4	5.56
Total	72	100

Table 4, shows that of the 72 of the respondents who are registered members of any of the political parties, majority 40 (55.55%) are members of the Action Congress of Nigeria, while an equally large number of the respondents 28 (38.88%) are members of Peoples Democratic Party (PDP).

Table 5: Voting at general elections

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	93	53.44
No	81	46.56
Total	174	100

Table 5 shows that 93 (53.44%) of the respondents reported that they voted at past general elections.

Table 6: Votes being viewed to be important in determination of election outcome

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	88	50.57
Agree	48	27.58
Disagree	38	21.85
Total	174	100

Table 6 shows that majority of the respondents 136 (78.2%) believe that their votes were important in determination of election outcomes.

Table 7: Quality of candidate determining voting choice

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	104	59.7
No	70	40.3
Total	174	100

Table 7 shows that quality of candidate of the parties that contested elections affected the voting choice of majority of the respondents 104 (59.7%).

Table 8: Women not empowered to level of financial independence in Ikenne Local government

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	136	78.2
Disagree	38	21.8
Total	174	100

Table 8 shows that most of the respondents 136 (78.2%) agree that women are not empowered to the level of financial independence in Ikenne Local government.

Table 9: Women empowerment programmes being too few in the local government

	Frequency	Percent
Disagree	27	15.52
Agree	44	25.28
Strongly Agree	103	59.19
Total	174	100.0

Table 9 shows that 147 (84.5%) of the respondents agree that the number of women empowerment programmes in the local government are too few to positively impact the socio-economic status of the women.

Table 10: Women participating in politics in Ikenne Local government being few

	Frequency	Percent
U	30	17.24
A	24	13.79
SA	120	68.97
Total	174	100

Table 10 shows that most of the respondents 144 (84.5%) agree that the number of women participating in politics (contesting for elective offices) in Ikenne Local government are too few.

Table 11: Lack of support from political godfathers being impediment to women contesting elections

	Frequency	Percent
SA	48	27.59
A	92	52.87
SD	34	19.54
Total	174	100.0

Table 11 shows that 140 (80.46%) of the respondents agree that lack of support from political godfathers is a major impediment to women contesting for elective offices.

Table 12: Lack of transparency in electoral administration discouraging women from contesting election.

	Frequency	Percent
A	52	29.88
SA	90	51.72
U	32	18.39
Total	100	100

Table 12 shows that 142 (81.6%) of the respondents agree that lack of transparency in electoral administration discourages women from contesting elections.

Table 13: Few women people involved in processes requiring transparency and accountability by public officials.

	Frequency	Percent
A	31	17.82
SA	112	64.36
D	31	17.82
Total	174	100.0

Table 13 shows that 143 (82.2%) of the respondents agree that few women are involved in processes requiring transparency and accountability by public officials.

Table 14: Few women involved in policy making process in the local government

	Frequency	Percent
U	32	18.39
A	120	68.96
SA	22	12.64
Total	174	100.0

Table 14 shows that most of the respondents 142 (81.7%) agree that the number of women involved in the policy making process are too few to impact the achievement of good governance.

Table 15: More women getting elected into public office would lead to governance

	Frequency	Percent
D	30	17.24
A	42	24.14
SA	102	58.62
Total	174	100.0

Table 15 shows that most of the respondents 144 (82.7%) agree that more women getting elected to public office would lead to good governance.

Analysis of data

On women empowerment in Ikenne local government, 136 (78.2%) of the respondents agree that women are not empowered to the level of financial independence from the family financial resources. 147 (84.5%) of the respondents agree that women empowerment programs are too few to impact the local government, as civil society organizations and women groups have failed to mount enough skill acquisition programs for women, while the government has politicized its women empowerment programs, which has discouraged some women and affected participation. The findings show that there is no significant improvement in the level of women in Ikenne local government since the adoption of the MDGs in year 2000. The finding corroborates the results of earlier research findings reveal that there is low level of women empowerment in Nigeria (Egunjobi, 2005; Akpa, 2009). It also agrees with the findings of Agbo (2009) that inadequate funding is a major problem hindering the achievement of women empowerment. Igube, (2004 cited in Akpa, 2009, p. 46) state that “when assessed against any development indices, women have fared worse than men, whether in educational attainment, literacy, employment, income, health status or decision making.” This makes women empowerment an issue of national importance in the quest for achievement of political and economic development.

On women participation in politics, 144 (82.8%) of the respondents believe that few women are active in politics. 80% of the respondents believe that lack of support from political godfathers and male party leaders is a major impediment. 82.8% of the respondents agree that lack of transparency in electoral administration, and incidences of electoral violence during election discourage women from contesting elections. The implication of the findings is that as a result of the inherent impediments, there has not been a reasonable improvement in the number of women who contest for public office since the adoption of the MDGs. This corroborates the findings of earlier studies by Ifamose (2000); Makinde (2000); Khan & Ara (2006); Akpa (2009) and Agbalajobi, (2010); that there are various impediments including the patriarchal nature of the society and male dominance of the political process that serve as impediments to women participation in political process and governance. This also answers research question two.

On whether many women are actively involved in the processes that require transparency and accountability leading to achievement of good governance, 143 (82.2%) of the respondents believe that few women are involved in the processes that require transparency and accountability by public officials, while 142 (81.7%) agree that many women are not involved in policy formulation process, that will ultimately lead to good governance. This findings corroborate earlier research findings by Khan & Ara (2006); Akpa (2009) and Agbalajobi (2010) and answers the third research question.

On whether more women getting elected to public office, will lead to achievement of good governance, 144 (82.2%) of the respondents agree that more women getting elected into public office will enhance the achievement of good governance in the local government because of the fact that women naturally have a soft spot for pro poor, pro – children and pro women policies. This corroborates findings from earlier research by Makinde (1997, 2000); Epelle & Oriahi, (2003); Akpa (2009) and Badejo & Aransi, (2009). These scholars agree that women have the characteristics that make for good leadership; they are flexible, adaptable, have long term vision, more responsive and encourage participatory decision making. This qualities are directly linked to the characteristics of good governance making it imperative that more women in decision making positions will bring about good governance.

Discussion of findings

The findings of the study shows that the number of women who have been empowered to actively participate in different sectors of the economy has not increased significantly since the adoption of the MDGs document. Less than 20% of the elected and appointed political public offices are occupied by women (Agbalajobi, 2010). The reality is that few women occupying decision-making positions in a political sector dominated by men will be ineffective in influencing decisions. The majority of men can ignore the women's concerns, or attack them should they have opposing views. Unless women comprise a significant proportion of leadership positions, about 30 – 35 per cent, they will have little influence over the decision-making process and by extension the achievement of good governance.

Furthermore, the findings of this study equally show that increase in the number of women who are economically and socially empowered, will lead to a corresponding increase in the number of women getting elected to public office *ceteris paribus*. Those women will be able to put their numerical strength to advantage through the influence of the policy formulation process to ensure the achievement of good governance in Ikenne local government. Adoption of policies in a democratic setting are usually based on majority vote and where the women are too few their views will be ignored by the majority (CAPWIP, 1999).

The adoption of the Millennium development goals, of which the number three focuses on gender equality has not led to a corresponding increase in the number women of being elected or appointed into the executive committees or councils of Ikenne local government (so far less than 10% of elected and appointed members have been women). No woman has been reported so far as being in the fore front of agitations or efforts to ensure transparency and accountability in the governance of the Local government. There is no reported forum of women meeting to put forward their views or suggestions in the policy formulation process of the local government. Since women constitute close to fifty percent of the population and have the identified characteristics that make them naturally inclined towards pursuing the various tenets of good governance, more women will have to be empowered to get elected and appointed to top decision making positions for good governance to be achieved in Ikenne Local government.

Conclusion

The fact that few women participate in decision making has deprived women of important rights and responsibilities as citizens and this has prevented them from making meaningful contributions to policy and decision making process, despite their comprising almost half of Nigeria's population. Women are not adequately represented at the key decision making level which means that their voices are missing on decisions on budgets and setting of government policies. This includes policies that affect women and children which women by their natural composition are better equipped to handle. This exclusion is not only at the national and state levels, but also at the local government level.

The involvement of educationally, socially and economically empowered women in politics, especially at the level of policy making, will ensure the entrenchment of the vital characteristics of good governance such as accountability, transparency, responsiveness, participatory decision making, adherence to rule of law and formulation of policies that are pro people, in Nigeria in general and Ikenne local government in particular.

Recommendations

Available data (Epelle & Oriakhi, 2003; Igbuzor, 2006b; Akpa, 2009; Bello & Roslan, 2010) points to the fact that Nigeria may not be able to achieve the millennium development goals by 2015, however, the paper posits that considerable effort should be in place to ensure that even if it is not achieved 100%, let an appreciable level be attained. In this regard, the paper puts forward the following recommendations that will ensure the attainment of MDGs goal number three, and lead to achievement of good governance in Ikenne local government area:

1. There should be increased funding of women organizations to ensure the holding of skill acquisition programs utilizing qualified and trained facilitators, for women in the local government, so as to achieve greater level of women empowerment.
2. At the local level, there should be deliberate effort of encouraging the education of the girl child through provision of scholarship at all levels of education for girls who choose to study science and technology courses. This will encourage more females to go into the professions hitherto regarded as exclusive domain of men.
3. There should be more awareness, utilizing the avenue of the various women empowerment organizations and programmes to encourage women to participate and vie for public office to be able to directly influence policy formulation and implementation.
4. The government should ensure the strict implementation of 2010 electoral act that deals with restriction of the influence of money in politics so as to eliminate the impediment of women not participating as a result of limited financial resources.
5. There should be strict implementation in the local government of the recommendation of the United Nations that 35% of public offices be reserved for women.

References

- Abdul – Wasi, M. B. (2009) election rigging and governance in nigeria: an appraisal *LASU Journal of Humanities*, Vol 6, 148 – 153 <http://artslasu.org/human/vol6/moshhood.pdf> accessed 14/04/2011.
- Achume, R. N. (2004). Barriers to access to leadership position in higher institutions, *Nigerian social scientist*, Vol 7, No 1, March, 2004.
- Adelegan, F. (2009). *Governance: An insider's reflections on the Nigerian polity*, Ibadan: Terrific Publications.
- Adeyemi, L. O. (2006). Democracy and the free market, in Saliu, H. A, Ogunsanya, A. A., Olujide, J. O., & Olaniyi, Johnson (eds). *Democracy and development in Nigeria Vol 2: Economic & environmental issues*, Lagos, Nigeria: Concept Publications.
- Agbalajobi, D. T. (2010). Women's participation and the political process in Nigeria: Problems and prospects, *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations* Vol. 4(2), pp. 075-082, (February) retrieved online on 17/10/2011 from <http://www.academicjournals.org/ajpsir>
- Agbo, M. (2009). Empowering women in the rural areas of Benue state through specific programmes: problems and prospects, *African journal of indigenous development*, Vol 5, Nos 1, & 2, (January – December 2009), ISSN: 0331 – 2380, pp123 – 131.
- Akpa, P. A. (2009). Women empowerment and the Millennium development goals (MDGs), *Millennium development goals: issues on gender, women, poverty and development*, Vol. 3 September, 2009, Pp 43 – 50.

- Alele-Williams, G. (2002). Women and gender equality for a better society in Nigeria, in Ojo (ed) (2002). *Women and gender equality for a better society in Nigeria*, Lagos: Leave Club International.
- Anifowose, R. & Enemuo, F. (eds.)(2008). *Elements of politics*, (revised ed.), Lagos: Sam Iroanusi Publications.
- Assie-Lumumba, N. I. (1996). Behind and beyond Beijing: An African perspective on the fourth world conference on, women, culture and society, in Sesay & Odebiyi (eds.) (1998). *Nigerian women in society and development*, Ibadan: Dokun Publishing House.
- Badejo, B. T. & Aransi, O. A. (2009) Gender in Public Administration in Aborishade, O. & Aransi, I. O. (eds.) (2009). *Public administration in Nigeria*, USA: Catawba Publishing company.
- Bello, M. A. & Roslan, A. H. (2010). Future of Millennium development goals in Nigeria, retrieved online on 26/05/2011 from www.internationalconference.com.my/.../paper_142_future_of_millennium.pdf.
- Centre for Asia – Pacific women in Politics (CAPWIP) (1999). Issues in women's political empowerment in the Asia-Pacific region, retrieved online on 17/10/2011 from <http://www.capwip.org/resources/issuesin/issues.pdf>
- Dolan, K. (2010). The Impact of Gender Stereotyped Evaluations on support for women candidates. *Political Behaviour*. (March, 2010).
- Egunjobi, L. (2005). *Women empowerment, perspectives and prospects*, Ado – Ekiti: Fountain Newspapers and Publishing Co.
- Epelle, A. & Oriakhi, F. O. U. (2003). Active participation of women in Nigerian politics: Lingering obstacles, new hopes, *International journal of governance and development*, Vo. 1, No 2, September 2003, Pp 58 – 70.
- Federal Government of Nigeria (2004). *National policy on education* (4th ed), Lagos: NERDC Press.
- Hope, K. R. (2003). The UNECA and Good governance in Africa, paper presented at the Harvard International Development Conference 2003, Governance and development in a dynamic global environment, Boston, Massachusetts, 4 – 5 April, 2003.
- Ifamose, F. O. (2000). Women participation in the political process: a comparative analysis of the American and Nigerian experiences in Ogunba, Oyin (ed.) (2000). *The empowerment of civil society in a democracy: Nigeria and United States of America*, Ile-Ife: Anchor Print.
- Igbuzor, O. (2006a). Review of Nigeria Millennium development goals – 2005 report, paper presented at the MDG/GCAP Nigeria planning meeting held in Abuja, Nigeria on 9th March, 2006, retrieved online on 27/05/2011 from <http://www.dawodu.com/igbuzor11.htm>.
- Igbuzor, O. (2006b). The Millennium development goals: can Nigeria meet the goals in 2015? Paper presented at a symposium on Millennium development goals and Nigeria: issues, challenges and prospects organized by the Institute of chartered accountants of Nigeria (ICAN), Abuja district on July 27, 2006 at Sheraton Hotel and Towers, Abuja retrieved online on 27/05/2011 from civics.org/new/media/MDGforICAN.doc.
- Johari, J. C. (2010). *Principles of modern political science*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt.
- Khan M. R. & Ara, F. (2006) Women, participation and empowerment in local government: Bangladesh union Parishad perspective, *Asian Affairs*, Vol. 29, No. 1 :73-100, January-March.
- Mahajan, V. D. (2006). *Political theory* (reprint 4th ed), New Delhi: Rajendra Ravindra printers.

- Makinde, T. & Aladekomo, L (1997). Women participation in Governance of Ijero-Ekiti in Ondo State of Nigeria in Olowu, D. & Erero, J (eds) (1997). *Indigeneous Governance Systems in Nigeria*, Ile-Ife: Department of Public Administration.
- Makinde, T. (2000). Women in politics: A comparative study of Nigeria and United States of America, in Ogunba, Oyin (ed.) (2000). *The empowerment of civil society in a democracy: Nigeria and United States of America*, Ile-Ife: Anchor Print.
- Maiyaki, J. Y. (2002). Poverty eradication in Nigeria: Conceptual framework, in Maiyaki, J. Y. & Okeke, Clement I (eds) 2002). *Research and development in Nigeria, proceedings of CMD annual conference of heads of research and development in Nigeria civil service, public and private enterprises 1997 – 2001*), Lagos: Centre of management Development.
- National Population Census (NPC) (2006). National population figure from 2006 census, retrieved online on 22/06/2011 from <http://www.population.gov.ng/index.php?id=11>.
- Naz, I., Ullah, S., Ahmed, T., Bedi-uz-Zaman, N., Farooq, S. & Nisar, A. (2010). Women Empowerment and Youth Perception in Pakistan, *European Journal of Scientific Research*, Vol.39 No.1 (2010), pp.75-89, retrieved online on 17/10/2011 from <http://www.eurojournals.com/ejsr.htm>
- Nweli, E. & Ukaoha, K. C. (2010). ICT Strategies for consolidating good governance in Nigeria, *Pakistan Journal of social sciences* Vol 7 (3): 227 – 230.
- Ogundiya, I. S. (2010). Democracy and good governance: Nigeria's dilemma, *African journal of political science and international relations*, vol. 4 (6), pp. 201– 208, June 2010, retrieved online on 20/06/2010 from <http://www.academicjournals.org/ajpsir>.
- Okwechime, O. (2002). Women empowerment, equality and development, in Ojo (ed) (2002). *Women and gender equality for a better society in Nigeria*, Lagos: Leave Club International.
- Onwuliri, C. O. E. (2008). The millennium development goals and the church in Nigeria, keynote address presented at the annual theological conference of Catholic Institute of West Africa held at the Catholic Institute of West Africa, Port Harcourt, Rivers state on Monday 10 March 2008, retrieved online on 27/05/2011 from <http://www.futo.edu.ng/speech%20on%20MDGs%20and%20the%20Church.html>.
- Oyelowo, O. (2009) Constitutions, good governance and corruption: challenges and prospects for Nigeria. <http://www.enelsyn.gr/papers/w16/Paper%20by%20Prof%20Oyelowo%20Oyewo.pdf> p. 14, accessed 13/06/2011.
- Santiso, C. (2001a). Good governance and aid effectiveness: The World Bank and conditionality, retrieved 21/07/2011 from www.eldis.org/fulltext/conditionality.pdf.
- Santiso, C. (2001b). International cooperation for democracy and good governance: moving toward a second generation? *European journal of development research*, 13 (1): 154 – 180.
- Umo, J. U. 2007). *Economics An African perspective* (2nd ed.), Lagos: Millennium Text Publishers.
- United Nations (2000). Millennium declaration, (September, 2000) retrieved online on 26/05/2011 from <http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.pdf>.
- UNESCO, (2005). Good governance retrieved online on 10/06/2011 from http://portal.unesco.org/ci/enev.php-UNESCO_URL_ID=5205&URL_DO=DO_PRINTPAGE&URL_SECTION=201.html.
- World Bank (1991). *Managing development: the governance dimension*, Washington, DC: The World Bank, Discussion paper, (25th June).
- World Bank (1992). *Governance and development*, Washington, DC: The World Bank.

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGS) AND SECURITY CONTRADICTIONS IN THE NIGER DELTA REGION: WHAT HOPES?

By

OSAH Goodnews

CHIOMA Patience

AYIM Oluchi

Ph.D candidates in the Post Graduate School, Babcock University, Ilishan –Remo Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract

The threats to national security and inflow of direct foreign investments resulting from the activities of ethnic militants and insurgent groups in the Niger Delta region has become a major impediment to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria. This work adopted the Frustration-Aggression and Social Contract theories for its theoretical framework. The methodology used is qualitative and content analysis. The paper identified three major contradictions in the Niger Delta crisis: activities of the militants typified by the rampant spate of violence, kidnapping, and crude oil theft; insincerity by successive Nigerian governments in the form of various repressive and suppressive attacks in several military fronts; and the lack of adequate Corporate Social Responsibility coupled with the divide and rule system of settlement by the multinational corporations. The present amnesty programme has ushered in the cessation of arms conflict and other forms of criminalities in the region but the uncontrolled environmental degradation and flagrant gas flaring has negatively affected the livelihood of the people who are predominantly farmers and fishermen on the one hand and lack of meaningful developmental efforts in the region over the last 50 years on the other hand. The interventionist approach of the government in the establishment of Oil Mineral Producing Area Development Commission (OMPADEC), Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) has not provided meaningful results due to under funding by the Federal government. The paper recommends that all the parties involved in the conflict should unite in executing people oriented developmental programmes and projects that will lead to achievement of the MDGs in the region

Key words: Militancy, Amnesty, Conflict, Degradation, Environmental Sustainability

Introduction

The Niger Delta region of Nigeria is rich with crude oil which is found in Abia, Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross Rivers, Delta, Edo, Imo, Ondo and Rivers States. The oil deposits have attracted multinational oil firms such as Shell, Chevron-Texaco, Eni-Agip, Exxon-Mobil, TotalFinaElf and several oil-servicing companies into prospecting and drilling upstream and downstream. The massive oil deposits which have been extracted for over five decades by the Nigerian government and the multinationals oil companies have generated an estimated \$600 billion. This revenue amounts to nearly \$20 billion annually or about \$54 million daily. Oil multinationals onshore and offshore operations pump about 2.5 million barrels of oil a day. The oil derived from the Niger Delta region also accounts for about 85% of Nigeria's Gross Domestic Product, about 95% of foreign exchange earnings and 80% of all budgetary revenues (Agbo, 2009; Gilbert, 2009; Ibeanu, 2006;).

In the Niger Delta alone there more than 200 oil fields and more than 400 oil producing and storage facilities, however, the oil related activities in the region, with estimated population of over 31 million people, who are densely populated in 185 local governments, remain socio-economically dependent, undeveloped, persistently disempowered, socio-culturally marginalized and psychologically alienated as the majority of the Niger Delta's population live in poverty. They cannot comprehend the paradox of plenty and underdevelopment. This has sustained fierce violent conflicts between successive Nigerian governments and the oil multinational corporations on one hand and ethnic (militants) groups on the other hand. (Agbede, 2010; Amnesty International, 2009; Nwaomah, 2007; Ekpo, 2004; Roberts, 1999).

A 2006 United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) projected a great disconnect between resource generation and the state of development in the oil rich region thus:

Ordinarily the Niger Delta should be a gigantic economic reservoir of national and international importance. Its rich endowment of oil and gas resources feed methodically into the international economic system in exchange for the massive revenues that carry the promise of socioeconomic transformation within the Delta itself. In reality, the Niger Delta is a region suffering from administrative neglect, crumbling social infrastructure and services, high unemployment, social deprivation, abject poverty filth, squalor and endemic conflict (UNDP, 2006:9).

This paradox Okechukwu Ibeanu presents thus:

Compared to the enormous wealth, the social situation in the Niger delta presents a mammoth discrepancy, and is generally worse than the situation in most parts of the country. To illustrate, available figures show that there is one doctor per 82,000 people, rising to one doctor per 132,000 people in some areas, especially the rural areas, which is more than three times the national average of 40,000 people per doctor. Only 27 % of the people in the Delta have access to safe drinking water and about 30% of households have access to electricity, both of which are below the national average of 31.7% and 33.6% respectively. Only 6% of the population of the Niger Delta has access to telephones, while 70% have never used a telephone. For added measure, apart from the Federal Trunk B road that crosses Bayelsa state, the State has only 15 kilometers tarred road. Poverty remains widespread, worsened by an exceptionally high cost of living created by the petro-economy (Ibeanu, 2006:11).

The history of the Niger Delta has been a long history of injustice sustained by violence. The people of the Niger Delta prior to Nigeria's independence in 1960 expressed fear of domination and discrimination but the dominant ethnic groups in Nigeria (Crowder, 1962:204) and suffered relative deprivation from successive governments (Osaghae, 1998) resulted in the ethnic groups mobilization to use all available means to fight for their unmet needs (Irobi, 2010:44).

Armed groups proliferated in the oil producing states of which many were affiliated to the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta particularly from early 2006 onward declared war on the oil industry and increased their use of violent tactics by their battles with security forces, where they demonstrated their sophisticated weaponry (Nwajiaku-Dahou, 2010; The Nordic African Institute, 2009; Hanson, 2007).

This has elicited response from an array of scholars who discussed the insurgency in the Niger Delta region (Watts, 2008; Joab-Peterside, 2008; Kemide, 2006; Okonta, 2006; Oruwani, 2006; Douglas 2004),

the intractable conflicts (Ukaiwo 2010; Don-Pedro, 2009,) and the amnesty initiative and its hopes as for the restoration of lasting peace and development in the region (Gilbert 2010; Aaron 2010; Davis 2009), human security and sustainable peace building (Enu, 2011, Akinola, 2011) with a consensus that environmental sustainability is the antecedent to peace building in the conflict ridden region.

This paper discussed the implications of the security situations in the Niger Delta on the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by Nigeria by 2015. Towards this objective the rest of the paper is in three sections: section II reviews the security situation in the Niger Delta; session III presents the issues in the conflict and contradictions while section IV provides the summary and recommendations. The main method of data gathering is content analysis. Data were gathered from secondary sources from relevant textbooks, journals, magazines, newspapers, institutional and government publications and internet search which were qualitative in nature.

Theoretical framework

The study basically adopted the frustration-aggression and the social contract theories. As no one theory can sufficiently explain the situation of violence and crisis in the Niger Delta region. The Frustration-Aggression theory: The theory posits that aggression is always a consequence of frustration. Over the years, oil-bearing communities in the Niger Delta could not endure the flagrant neglect of the area which was worsening by the negative effects of environmental practices by multinationals. Economic decline and broken promises where all that could get from the state and attempts by these communities to ensure greater control of their resources were met with brick wall. The failures of both the state and the multinationals to meet the expectations of the people of the Niger Delta have bred frustration and aggression in the region, which were vented in various forms of violence.

Due to poverty and deprivation, the people of the region feel insecure which have made them sought ways to protest themselves and confront the forces of injustice that tend to threaten the life-security (Mukoro, 2010; Okai, 2009; Don-Pedro, 2009).

While the oil bearing communities live without safe drinking water, electricity, road, no or poor health care facilities, oil workers live in comfort outside these communities in their camps. The clear manifestation of the failing socio-economic conditions in the region is evident in protests, agitations and violent reactions by the oil bearing communities against the government and multi-national oil companies (Agbede, 2010; Ukiwo, 2009; Don Pedro, 2009).

The second theory adopted here is **Social Contract theory** which holds that prior to the formation of state; man lived in a 'state of nature', where he had right to life, liberty and property. The theory was elaborated by Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and Rousseau. Hobbes conceived a pre-social contract state of the nature in which life was "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short". Man being a selfish, egotistic, brutal, covetous and aggressive creature is free to defend himself either by running away or by killing his enemy. And Locke argued that moral rights preceded the contract to create a state, and the role of the state is to settle disputes over the interpretation of those rights and ensure that violations are punished (Hoffman, 2009; Hobbes, 1991; Locke, 1988).

Crisis Group Africa Briefing (2006) noted that since the state and its allies appropriate almost all the oil from the communities, the people are resentful of the state and oil related activities, which in turn the government has responded with draconian measures.

The deteriorating security situation in the Niger Delta region questions the ability of the State security agencies to guarantee and provide security of life and properties of her citizenry which is the sacred duty of the state over her citizens.

Degenerating security situation in the Niger delta

Before the declaration in January 2009, militancy in the Niger Delta had virtually crippled Nigeria's economy which relied heavily on the oil and gas from the region for over four decades, causing investment inflow to the upstream sub-sector of the oil industry to drastically decline from about 2.4 million barrel per day to a staggering 700,000 barrel per day. Frustrated foreign investors had started to redirect their investments to other African countries as preferred destinations.

In the 1990s the crisis began to assume horrendous dimensions with emergence of social movements and militant youth groups that stood to challenge not only the Nigerian state but also the activities of the multinational oil companies (MNOCs) in the destruction of the Niger Delta's ecology which is the basic structure that supports life in the region (Ojakorotu, 2009)

Organized pressure groups raised their voices in the forms of bills of rights as a reaction to human rights and abuses of the environment in the 1990s. Due to the neglects of the several bills of rights and repressions, ethnic militants groups started to grow from communities in order to challenge the activities of the federal government and the oil companies. And with time, the conflicts escalated and graduated to low intensity conflicts, characterized by unending assassinations, destruction of oil installations, bombings, kidnappings, and mutual destruction of interests (Abidde, 2009, Davis, 2009, Hazen, 2007).

These groups draw inspiration from one of their own, Isaac Adaka Jasper Boro the first armed activist who was infuriated by the injustice of the federal government in failing to develop the region and consequently led a protest against oil exploitation by the Nigerian government claiming that the government had encroached upon the rights of the people of the region to benefit from their lands in 1967 and Ken Saro-Wiwa in the 1990s who was killed for leading a non-violent Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP) against Multinational oil corporations (Shell) demanding for compensations for environmental degradation arising from oil exploration and exploitation.

The armed groups proliferated and showcased Small and Light Weapons (SALW) with which they disrupted and destroyed the petroleum infrastructure of the MNOCs, attacked and inflicted severe damages on the state security forces and also wreaked havoc on numerous Niger Delta communities. By the end of 2004 for example, it was estimated that there were about 1 to 3 million SALW in Nigeria – predominantly in the Niger Delta (Ikelegbe, 2010). These made the conflict to persist in spite of several efforts at pacification and development interventions until 2009.

The agitators have hinged on government's deliberate underdevelopment, political and infrastructural decay, environmental degradation/insecurity, and poverty, youth unemployment, repressive militarization and the perpetration of repugnant human rights abuses to unleash mayhem on their victims (Azaiki, 2003). Other issues for the extant nature of the protracted crisis included the exclusion in terms of access to oil revenues, struggle for greater access to resource sharing (resource Control) and flagrant human rights violations.

Several ethnic Environmental Movement Organizations (EMOs) and armed non-state youth organizations emerged to oppose the continued harassment, intimidation, oppression and repression of their people by the Nigerian state and the Multinational Oil Companies (MNOCs). This dimension in the conflict dynamics of the emergency of ethnic militias, cult groups and availability and use of small arms and light weapons was perhaps most devastating (Ojakorotu & Gilbert, 2010; Joab-Peterside 2007:2).

The fierce violent conflicts between successive Nigerian governments and the oil multinational corporations, and ethnic militants groups have been hinged on these disconnections. Ikelegbe (2010) highlights that the intense conflicts and confrontations between the Nigerian state and the transnational oil companies on the one hand and the communities, civil groups, militant movements and militias as well as conflicts between communities, ethnic groups, militias and cults have turned the region into a huge melting pot of pervasive unrests, violence, crimes, local wars and insecurity.

Security contradictions in the Niger delta

The security situation shows a strategic confrontation with the state security agencies (Joint Task Force) since the emergency of the dreaded Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta in 2006, kidnapping and hostage taking of local and foreign workers, which at times have led to abandonment of sites. The divergent view of what constitute security in the Niger Delta has been an issue of concern, whereas for host communities it is the sustenance of their sources of livelihood and environment and to both the federal government and the MNC the freedom to do business without hindrance (Ibeanu, 2006; Mukoro, 2010).

Best (2004:61), states that:

In the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, for instance, there is conflict between the local ethnic communities inhabiting the area, and the Federal Government of Nigeria over the ownership of proceeds from the sale of oil. The communities argue that the oil found in the land belongs to them, and they should own the proceeds and pay tax and royalties to the government. This is tagged "resource control".

The multifarious nature of the situation also were seen in instances when the communities attacked themselves by destroying objects and projects that bear the imprints of government like infrastructure, electrical installations, water works and constructions perceived as mere palliatives. The communities also engaged themselves in bitter rivalries over who should get what in terms of compensations (Roberts, 1999; Isumonah & Gaskia, 2001).

The MNCs have been engaged in divide and rule tactics in the oil bearing communities. They shrink from development responsibilities in the oil producing areas and instead induce the local chiefs and few elites to foment conflict amongst the agitating members of the community as long as they are don't prevented to extract oil. Where anything developmental initiative is contemplated, it is usually marred by corruption and bad planning leaving behind several uncompleted or non-functional projects (Roberts, 1999; Amnesty International, 2009).

There is still the fact that MNC responses are hardly directed at confronting the environmental security problems in the oil producing areas and the adequate addressing the Millennium Development Goals in the region. As the youths become more militant, the federal government became more repressive in their approach. Instead of pumping money to development and environmental sustainability they showcase

passive, fire brigade, or solely military options. The result been that the Niger Delta region has become highly militarized with the Nigerian Navy, Army and Police deeply involved in harassing innocent citizens (Watts 2004, Don-Pedro, 2009).

Amnesty programme and the MDGs

The devastating consequences of the conflicts and insurgent activities of ethnic militants in the region persisted in spite of several peace efforts and development interventions until 2009, when President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua on June 25, 2009 declared to grant unconditional pardon to combatants in the Niger Delta who agree to lay down their arms, renounce militancy and register with government in the Amnesty Programme for rehabilitation and reintegration. They were to assemble at screening centres across the Niger Delta states in exchange for monthly stipend and training. The government initiated a cease fire and amnesty deal which the various militant groups agreed to, as a step towards resolving the protracted insecurity situations in the Niger Delta and a pre-requisite for promoting economic development in the area in order to restore peace and development and to rebuild confidence in the achievement of the millennium development goals.

The amnesty deal was to last for sixty (60) days, beginning August 6, 2009 to October 4, 2009 as a political solution to the unending insurgency and conflict in Nigeria's oil rich region. At the end of the 60 day grace period a total of twenty thousand one hundred and ninety two (20,192) militants registered for the programme surrendering huge collection of arms and ammunitions to the federal government. The weaponry surrendered to the Nigerian military included 3,760 weapons, 18 gun boats and 387,445 rounds of ammunition (Kuku, 2011). Additional six thousand one hundred and six (6,166) ex-combatants joined the amnesty programme in November 2010 as part of the second phase of the programme (NDAP, 2011).

The Niger Delta Amnesty Programme was aimed at stabilizing, consolidating and sustaining security conditions in the Niger Delta region as pre-requisite for promoting economic development in the area. The terms for the deal included the willingness and readiness of militants to surrender their arms, unconditionally renounce militancy and sign an undertaking within the 60 days window. They were to assemble at screening centres across the Niger Delta states in exchange for monthly stipend and training (Alaibe, 2010).

The Amnesty terms included the willingness and readiness of militants to surrender their arms, unconditionally renounce militancy and sign an undertaking within the 60 days window. The amnesty proclamation and implementation has brought relative peace to the region and several ex-militants have been sent for vocational and educational training abroad to integrate into the civil society in such trade as pipeline welding, crane operations, electrical works, health and safety environment and automobile installation in Ghana, South Africa, Malaysia, Philippines, Russia, United States of America, United Arab Emirates, and Sri Lanka (Alaibe, 2010).

This gives hope that when all hands are on deck lasting peace can be achievable that will lead to progress in achieving the millennium development goals, at least to an appreciable percentage before the end of 2015.

Conclusion

The Niger Delta region has suffered for too long in the hands of the operators of the oil and gas sector. They have accused the oil companies in the area of waging ecological war against the people as these operators enter lands and devastate the environment without compensations which the people in turn responded with resentful actions that create security threats. These security threats have hindered development, national security and inflow of direct foreign investment. The region have been marginalized, suffered devastated ecosystem that can no more carry the traditional occupations of fishing and farming major sources for livelihood pushing the people into extreme hunger, poverty and unemployment, militarized and suppressed by the powers that be, with nothing to show for their contribution to the nation's economy. A total redefinition of the land use acts, resource control and care for the environment that will foster peaceful return of development is advanced as a panacea for comprehensive development as enunciated by the Millennium Development Goals.

Recommendation

- All the parties involved in the conflict should unite in executing massive people oriented developmental programmes and engage in well targeted investments in the area of health services, transportation, infrastructure and other social amenities in the Niger Delta region to alleviate the suffering in the region.
- Proper funding and monitoring of the Ministry of the Niger Delta and the Niger Delta Development Commission should embark on projects that transverse the entire region.
- There should be increase in the budgetary allocations for environmental sustainability by the federal government and the MNCs should make deliberate efforts to be more socially responsive to their host in the form of cooperate social responsibility.
- Reintegrating and empowering the youths of the Niger Delta to key to the development agenda of the government should be treated with all seriousness.
- The National Assembly should repeal obnoxious land use acts that deprive the people of the region of control of the gains of the natural endowments and enact laws that will compel the MNC to respect the people and their environment.
- Collaboration of the military forces with the host communities that will reduce tension and suppression of the people.

References

- Aaron, K. & George D. (eds.) (2010). *Placebo as Medicine: The Poverty of Development Intervention and Conflict Resolution Strategies in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria*. Port Harcourt: Kamuela Publications
- Afinotan, C.A. & Ojaboroku, V. (2009). 'The Niger Delta Crisis: Issues, Challenges and Prospects' in *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations* Vol. 3 (5) also available online at <http://www.academicjournals.org/AJPSIR>
- Agbede, A.R (2010) *Nigeria: and the Challenges of Effective Security*. Ibadan: Netview Books
- Akinola S. R. (2011) 'Post-Amnesty Plan, Peace-building and People –centered Development in the Niger Delta: A Polycentric Planning and Poverty Reduction Strategy (PPPRS)' in *Journal of Sustainable Development and environmental Protection*. Vol 1 No 2

- Alaibe, T. (2010). Presidential Amnesty Programme: One Year After in Newsdiaryonline, October 1, http://newsdiaryonline.com/amnesty_anniversary.htm
- Azaiki, S. (2003). *Inequities in Nigerian Politics*. Yenogoa, Nigeria: Treasure Communications Resource Limited.
- Best, S.B (ed.) (2004.) *Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa: A Reeder*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books
- Chukwuemeka, E.O. & Aghara, V.N. (2010). 'Niger Delta Youth Restiveness and Socio economic Development of Nigeria' in *Educational Research and Review* vol. 5(7) also available online at <http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR2>
- Crisis Group Africa Briefing (2006). Africa Report No 118, August 3
- Davis, S. (2009) The Opportunity for Peace in the Niger Delta in *Global Energy and Environment Initiative Green Paper Series, No 2*
- Dollard, J. et al (1939). *Frustration and Aggression*, New Haven: Yale University Press. Douglas, O; Okonta, I.; Kemedi, D.V. & Watts, M.(2004) 'Oil and Militancy in the Niger Delta: Terrorist Threat or Another Colombia?' in *Niger Delta Economics of violence working papers No 4*
- Don-Pedro, K. N (2009). *Sustainability of Peace and Development in the Niger Delta*. Ibadan: Dtalkshop Press
- Ebo, A. (2007). 'An overview of Small Arms Control Initiatives in West Africa. in *African Strategic Review. Vol. 1 No1*
- Ekpo, U. (2004). *The Niger Delta and Oil Politics*. Lagos: International Energy Communications
- Enu, B.D. & Ugwu, U (2011) 'Human Security and Sustainable Peace Building in Nigeria: The Niger Delta Perspective' in *Journal of Sustainable Development. Vol. 4, No 4*
- Federal Republic of Nigeria (2006). Millennium Development Goals (MDGs Information Kit. Gilbert, LD (2009). 'Youth Militancy, Amnesty and Security in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria'. Paper presented at the Joint Africa Institute of South Africa/South African Association of Political Studies (AISA/SAAPS) Colloquium, Burgers Park Hotel, Pretoria, South Africa, 15-16 October
- Gurr, T. (1970). *Why Men Rebel*. Princeton: Princeton University Press
- Hazen, J.M & Horner, J (2007) *Small Arms, Armed Violence, and Insecurity in Nigeria: The Niger Delta in Perspective*. Occasional Paper of the Small Arms Survey
- Hobbes, T. (1991). *Leviathan*. (ed. C.B Machpherson) London: Penguin
- Hoffman, J. & Graham, P. (2009). *Introduction to political Theory (2ed)* Harlow: Pearson Longman
- Ibaba, S. (2005). *Understanding the Niger Delta Crisis*. Amethyst and Colleagues Publishers, Port Harcourt.
- Ibeanu, O. (2000). *Oiling the Friction: Environmental Conflict Management in the Niger Delta, Nigeria* in Environmental Change and Security Project Report. *Issue No 6. Washington DC: Woodrow Wilson Center*

- Ibeanu, O. (2006). *Civil Society and Conflict Management in the Niger Delta: Scoping Gaps for Policy and Advocacy*. Lagos: CLEEN Foundation Monograph Series, No. 2
- Ibeanu, O. & Momoh, A. (2008). *State Responsiveness to Public Security Needs: The Politics of Security Decision-Making. Nigeria Country Study*. Conflict, Security and Development
- Ikelegbe, A. (2010) *Oil, Resource Conflicts and the Post Conflict Transition in the Niger Delta Region: Beyond the Amnesty*. Benin City: Ambik Press
- Institute for Peace and Conflicts Resolution (2008). *Strategic Conflict Assessment of Nigeria: Consolidated and Zonal Reports*. Abuja: Institute for Peace and Conflicts Resolution
- International Crisis Group (2006) Africa Report No 118, September 28
- Irobi E, 'Resolving the Niger Delta Conflict in Nigeria' in *Peace Studies Journal Vol. 3 issue*
- Isumomah, A. and Gaskia J. (2001). *Ethnic Groups and Conflicts in Nigeria Vol.3: The South South Zone of Nigeria*. Ibadan: Lord's Creation
- Keane, J. (1996). *Reflections on Violence*. London: Verso.
- Kemedi, D. V. (2006). 'Felling the Violence: Non-State Armed Actors (Militia, Cults and Gangs) in the Niger Delta' *Niger Delta Economies of Violence. Working Paper No 10*
- Ken Saro-Wiwa Foundation (2008). *'The Niger Delta Today: Poverty, Pollution, Spills and gas flaring'* available online at <http://www.remembersarowiwa.com/delta-htm>
- Kemedi, D.V(2006) *'Fuelling the Violence: Non-State Armed Actors (Militia, Cults, and Gangs) in the Niger Delta'* in *Niger Delta Economies of violence working papers No 10*
- Kuku, K (2011) 'Amnesty ends 2015' available at <http://www.vanguardngr.com/2011/amnesty-ends2015-kuku>
- Locke, J. (1988). *Treatises of Government* (ed. P. Laslett) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Mukoro, A & Egbadju, O. A (2010). 'Security Contradictions: Bane of Reactions of Oil Producing Communities and the Unending Crisis in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria.' in Ojakorotu, Victor & Gilbert, Lysias Dodd (eds) *Checkmating the Resurgence of Oil Violence in the Niger Delta of Nigeria* available online at http://www.iags.org/Niger_Delta_book.pdf
- National Space Research and Development (2006). 'Niger Delta Mangrove Forest Disappearing, Vanguard, June 7 p.7 '
- Niger Delta Amnesty Programme (2011) Niger-Delta Development Commission (Establishment etc.) Act 2000. Laws of the Federation of Nigeria
- Nwaomah, Sampson (2007). 'Biblical Ecology of Stewardship: Option in the Quest for a Sustainable Environment in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria' *The Living Word: Journal of Philosophy and Theology*, vol 113, no.2, March-April.

- Nordic Africa Institute. Causes and Cures of Oil Related Niger Delta Conflicts. Policy Notes2009/1.
From
http://www.nai.uu.se/policy_activities/ukiwo.pdf
Ojakorotu, V (ed.) (2009). *Contending Issues in the Niger Delta Crisis of Nigeria*. Journal of Alternative Perspectives in the Social Sciences
Ojakorotu, V. & Gilbert, L.D. (2010). *Checkmating the Resurgence of Oil Violence in the Niger Delta*.
- Okai, M. O. (2006). *Religion and Social Conflict Management: The Case of the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria*. Port Harcourt: Cal Integrated resources.
Okonta, I.(2006) '*Behind the Mask: Explaining the Emergence of the MEND Militia in Nigeria's Oil-Bearing Niger Delta*' in *Niger Delta Economics of violence working papers No 11*
- Oruwari Y. (2006) '*Social Inclusion of the Disadvantaged Group: The Challenge for Civil- and Community-Based Organizations in the Niger Delta*' in *Niger Delta Economics of violence working papers No 12*
- Oyeshola, D. O. P (2008). *Sustainable development: Issues and Challenges for Nigeria*. Ibadan: Daily Graphics
- Posigha, B.E. (2010). 'Niger Delta Environment and the Crisis: Libraries as an Instrument for Conflict Resolution' in *International Journal of Environmental Issues* vol. 7 no1
- Sanda, M. (ed) (2005). *Transforming the Niger Delta: Managing the Impacts of Oil and Gas*. Jos: Andex Press
Saro-Wiwa, K. (1991). *Nigeria: The brink of Disaster*. Port Harcourt: Saros International Publishers
- Roberts, N. (1999). *The state, Accumulation and Violence: The Politics of Environmental Security in Nigeria's Oil Producing Areas*. NISER Monograph Series No 17. Ibadan: Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research
- Ukiwo, U. (2009). 'Causes and Cures of Niger Delta conflicts', *Policy Notes*, Nordic African United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2006). *Niger Delta Human Development Report*. Lagos: UNDP.
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2008). *Human Development Report 2007/2008 Country fact sheets Nigeria*. Available
Online:<http://hdrstatsundp.org/countires/countryfactsheets/ctyfsMGA.html>(Retrieved May 21, 2011)
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2011) *Environmental Assessment of Ogoniland*. Nairobi: United Nations Development Programme
United Nations Millennium Development Goals retrieved from background page May, 21, 2011
- Watts, M; Okonta, I & Kemedi D (2004) *Economics of Violence: Petroleum, Politics and Community Conflict in the Niger Delta, Nigeria*. Berkeley: Institute of International Studies
- Watts, M. (2008). "Imperial Oil: The Anatomy of Nigerian Oil Insurgency", *Niger Delta Economics of violence Working Papers*. No.17

World Bank (1995). *Environmental Economic Study of the Niger Delta, Nigeria*. Prepared for the
World Bank by Carl Bio International Denmark.

Tell, October 18, 2010

Tell, March 16, 2009

Tell, June 29, 2009

Tell, November 2, 2009

NIGERIAN AGRO-ALLIED INDUSTRIAL CONCERNS OF THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

By

Gabriel K. Afolabi, Ph.D

Department of Business Administration and Marketing

Babcock University

Ganiyu Bakare

Department of Business Administration and Marketing

Olubisi G. Makinde

School of Postgraduate Studies

Babcock University

Abstract

The millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is a contemporary discourse in the international community of the United Nations (UN) aimed at redressing the obvious decadence in global wellness in several areas including extreme poverty and hunger. This paper focuses on the Nigerian Agro-Allied Industrial Concerns of the MDGs. While a school of thought is of the opinion that technology widens the gap between the rich and the poor, there is the abundance of evidence adduced in the paper to the contrary. The paper presents a number of gains achieved so far in the goal 1 area of MDGs, and concludes with suggestions for improvement in the Nigeria Agro-Allied Sector.

Introduction

In September 2000, the United Nations (UN) at the largest ever gathering of Heads of states of both poor and rich countries adopted a millennium declaration aimed at adding value in general to the lives of mankind, with a target achievement date of 2015. In this regard, the forum explored several vital issues which ranged from poverty eradication, promotion of human dignity, and equality, to the attainment of world peace, democracy and environment stability. These areas of concern formed the benchmark from which eight goals popularly known as the millennium development goals, (MDGs) were subsequently distilled.

As would be expected from such a monumental campaign involving most nations of the world, a number of intellectually sound arguments greeted the conceptual framework in which this Paper is situated. First was the view that the term “development” was restricted to only those things that could be measured, and that some of the targets did not address some of the problems holistically.

Igbugor (2005) identified these dimensions of development as “increased capacity of people to have control over material assets, intellectual resources and ideology, and achievement of physical necessities of life (food, clothing, shelter), employment, equality, participation in government, political and economic independence, adequate education, gender equality, sustainable development and peace”.

The eight goals evolved by world leaders in the year 2000 as the MDGs are condensed into the following:

- Eradication of extreme poverty and hunger
- Universal primary education

- Promotion gender equality and women empowerment
- Reduction of child mortality and improvement of maternal health
- Onslaught on HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- Environmental sustainability, and development of global partnership for development

Buttressing his argument in support of global development as enumerated above, Igbugor (2005) quoted a United Nations Development Project (UNDP) 1988 report to the effect that the 3 richest people in the world had assets that exceeded the combined gross domestic product (GDP) of the 48 least developed countries. In the same report, Nigeria was said to have retrogressed from being one of the richest 50 countries in the 1970s to being one of the 25 poorest countries in the 21st century. Even though the country is the 6th largest exporter of oil, she is reported to host the 3rd largest number of poor people after China and India.

Theoretical framework

In any discussion or decision-making process, the framework provides the basis on which an argument can be anchored. It is the pillar on which a structure rests. In spite of the seemingly glaring role that technology plays in socio-economic advancement of a nation, some school of thought may still hold a view to the contrary. Emeagwali (2007) opines that as the gap between the rich and poor countries continues to expand, intellectual capital and technology rule the world, and natural resources such as oil, gold and diamond are no longer the primary determinants of wealth. This is borne out of the fact that rather than Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) being leaders economically, it is the nations with a few natural resource. A few examples on this note would suffice.

Japan's economic growth surpasses that of Saudi Arabia – the former being driven by technological superiority while the latter is oil based. Also South Korea's economy grows faster than that of oil-rich Nigeria, while Taiwan's economy surpasses that of oil-rich Venezuela in terms of growth. Comparing the economies of the U. S and Norway, he says that even though both countries are rich in oil; the former is superior because her economic growth comes from intellectual capital. While half of the estimated 3 billion world population live on an average of \$500 a year, Bill Gates the computer guru is reported to earn \$500 per second from taxing computer users and controlling computer technology. He thus becomes richer than each of the 70 poorest nations on earth. The question that really follows from the preceding is "Has technology widened the rich-poor gap?" A few instances cited below would attempt to provide the answer and probably support a paradigm shift as the case may be.

A livestock feed additive is reported to have cut veterinary bills by 75% (Okuenyugbo, 2007). The fossil shell flour is a livestock feed mix, an additive, manufactured by Perma – Guard Inc, USA, which enriches livestock feeds. It can be used in fish ponds for cows, camels, horses, and so on. Madilon (2007) recommends high investment in agricultural technology and research, irrigation expansion, and water use efficiency, agro-inputs and mechanized farming, in order to stop spending \$3 billion annually to import basic foodstuff into the Nigeria market. He lamented the primitive stuff of Nigeria agriculture as portrayed by poor quality yield of virtually all Nigeria agriculture units namely crops, livestock, and so on. The author gave the average yield of Nigerian cow as 200 litres per lactation as against 8000 litres by other exotic stock, and an average maize yield per hectare of 1.2 tonnes as against world average of 12 tonnes. Other relevant data in this regard are 300 kg/hectare of groundnut as against 2,700 kg/hectare in

Turkey, Spain or Egypt; 4 tonnes/hectare of onions as against 120 tonnes/hectare in Yemen; 1½ tonnes/hectare of rice as against 20 tonnes/hectare in Thailand, and 5 tonnes/hectare of tomatoes as against 100 tonnes/hectare in Israel.

In the area of information communication technology (ICT), Ezekiel (2007) remarks that Nigeria can leverage on the huge success she has recorded in the ICT sector within the past few years by introducing ICT-driven programmes into the agricultural sector, and that such invitation would help the country to boost agricultural and food production. He suggested putting in place, a policy that would enable farmers benefit from a new agro-based ICT programme that would enable farmers have easy access to vital planting, harvesting, and storage information, which programme has already been developed by the ATCON Association of Telecommunication Companies of Nigeria. The ICT-driven programme, known as Agro vision, would provide farmers with the agro-ecological maps of the crop and soil types in Nigeria, and other vital information like planting and harvesting dates for different types of crops, storage conditions, and the best means of transportation for every type of crop

It would be seen from the proceeding points especially in the agricultural industry, that there is probably no alternative to the use of technology, in order to get things right in the sector. Using this as a reference point for other sectors in the global economy, it is within the framework of this paper to advocate the application of technology in the scheme of MDGs.

Objectives of the MDGs

The major objective of the MDGs is to establish benchmark criteria for ameliorating the various dimensions of severe poverty in the land, and to ensure that human development reaches everywhere on the globe.

The specific objectives include the following:

- Reducing world poverty by half, during the 1990 – 2015 programme phase
- Saving tens of millions of lives, and
- Empowering economically, billions of additional population.

Among the 8 MDGs established was Eradication of Extreme Poverty and Hunger, which forms the focus of this paper.

**TABLE 1: Population below national poverty line, Urban
Percentage – Nigeria**

Year	Value
1993	30.4

Target 1 halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one Dollar a day

Goal 1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Source: United Nations statistics division, Feb 15, 2007

www.indexmundi.com/nigeria/millennium-development-goals.html

TABLE 2: Poorest Quintile's Share in National Income or consumption, percent – Nigeria

Year	Value	Footnote	Type
2003	5	23	G

Target 1 halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day

Goal 1 Eradication extreme poverty and hunger

Footnote 213 refers to expenditure shares by Percentiles of population

Type G refers to Global monitoring data

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, Feb. 15, 2007

www.indexmundi.com/nigeria/millennium-development-goals.html

Table 3 Population Undernourished, Percentage – Nigeria

Target Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from Hunger

Goal 1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Footnotes

2001 - 2003 average33%
 1990 - 1992 average34%
 1995 - 1997 average35%
 Type G - Global monitoring data

Source United Nations Statistics Division, Feb 15, 2009

www.indexmundi.com/nigeria/millennium-development-goals.html

Gains of the MDGs

There have been considerable reductions in poverty level globally since the millennium declaration about a decade ago. In spite of this noticeable global improvement however, the reverse seems to be the case in countries like South Asia (Igbugor, 2005). In Nigeria, as in any other typical nation under the Act, the following goals were set to eradicate extreme hunger and poverty;

- To reduce by 50% between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar (about N150) per day.
- To reduce by 50% within the same period as above, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

The following table indicates the gains realised for the period indicated, in the millennium declaration programme:

Year	Value	Change	Cumulative Change	Footnotes	Type
1991	13			34	G
1996	9	-3077%	-30.77%	35	G
2002	9	0.00%	-30.77%	33	G

Target 2 Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger

Goal 1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Footnote

2001	-	2003	average.....33%
1990	-	1992	average.....34%
1995	-	1999	average.....35%

Types

D denotes Global monitoring data

www.indexmundi.com/nigeria/millennium-development-goals.html

TABLE 5: Children under 5 moderately or severely underweight-percentage, Nigeria

Year	Value	Change	Cumulative change
1990	35.7		
2003	28.7	-19.61%	-19.61%

Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger.

Source: United Nations Statistics Divisions, Feb 15, 2007

www.indexmuni.com/nigeria/millennium-goals.html

TABLE 6: Children under 5 severely underweight-percent - Nigeria

Year	Value	Change	Cumulative change
1990	12		
2003	8.9	-25.83%	-25.83%

Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer hunger.

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme Poverty and hunger

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, Feb. 15, 2007

www.indexmuni.com/nigeria/millennium-goals.html

Suggestion for improvement in the Nigerian agro-allied sector

Having surveyed some of the changes inn the key goals being discussed in the paper, the following suggestions are being offered in this section, towards improving performances in the Nigerian Agro-Allied Sector in the spirit of the Millennium Development Goals.

Integrated Agriculture

Lightfoot (1996) defines integrated agriculture as the study of two or more components of a farm and how they work together. In practical terms, it is the coming together in a single system, of livestock and crops; or trees and livestock. Integration could be horizontal as in harnessing the resources of competitor. It could also be vertical where one operates at different levels of a single enterprise. An instance of this is when a cassava farmer also does the processing of the same tuber harvest.

Integration enhances productivity in farming since it encourages the conservation of the natural resource base, particularly when the waste product of an enterprise is also an input in the production of another product within the same farming system. An example of this is using poultry dung as manure in the horticulture garden, or as feed in a fishery enterprise.

Certain socio-economic and management issues however need to be considered in deciding whether, or how to integrate. Perhaps the most important consideration here is the objective of the organization in the enterprise, or combination of enterprises. In an enterprise consisting of non mutually exclusive undertakings one has to consider the synergism effect of the combination. In a situation where there is no synergism, or where reversed synergism even exists, integration policy should be reviewed in line with organizational objectives. A practical example is where, in an oil palm enterprise, two possible products are obtainable namely palm wine, and palm oil. Since the production of wine reduces the yield of palm oil and vice versa, management has to decide on which goal to pursue-palm oil, or palm wine production. The same logic goes for the mixing together of different animal species in a single farming system, when particular specie may even predate on the other. Another consideration is the availability of needed skills for the integration. Multifaceted operations require a variety of skills and knowledge, for proper management. A further look at the management perspective also demands that proper cost/benefit analysis be done so that the entrepreneur will be able also to justify that integrated farming is not for every farm in every setting, since what is sauce for the goose may not be sauce for the gander.

Market information systems

The concept of Market Information System (MIS) stems from the background of a free market enterprise which is divested from direct government involvement in regulation and control. What roles governments are supposed to play however lies in facilitating and ensuring the transparency that is essential for the smooth operation of the marketing system. In agro-allied ventures, government must ensure equity, food security, professionalism, competitiveness and efficiency in the system. The primary task of MIS is to design and manage the information flow of the marketing system, that will improve productivity and decision-making. Having regard to the fact that companies are growing in size and complexity, which are also becoming more dispersed and decentralized, control techniques must become more sophisticated.

A free market creates the need for sources of information that flow freely, where prices of commodities respond to the dynamics of supply and demand equilibrium. A practical application of this principle is where a number of traders who operates a very good information system that helps them keep their businesses on a sound footing are able to dominate the market of the commodity where they do their business. The marketers are also able to keep abreast of consumer demand, as well as price and quantity of commodities needed. The markets share information among themselves in order for instance, to prevent a glut on the market that would reduce their profit margins. Above all they ensure that none of their information leaks out to new businesses that are trying to join competition.

Risk management in agriculture

The agricultural industry has received considerable attention over the decades in the area of risk management. Right from the field operations to the marketing of farm products, the industry is

bedeviled with one risk or the other. Farm operations are subjected to the vagaries of weather and the attack of pests and diseases.

Risks also abound in the area of commodity marketing volatility whose price-related fiscal consequences predispose household and communities to vulnerability.

It would be recalled that the commodity Boards (Grains, Palm produce marketing, Cocoa boards, and so on) which excised in Nigeria prior to the Military intervention in politics, were established partly to stabilize prices. It is now history that the Commodity Boards have been scrapped by the Military in their Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). In the United States of America, support prices and inventories were used to manage domestic price, while the European Union had a similar scheme and operated commodity- specific exchange rates. The preceding interventions in commodity markets were efforts aimed at stabilization and also reducing risks.

There are different formal markets for risk. The low usage of market-based risk instruments by small scale farmers and other small businesses in developing economies has been attributed to lack of assets insurance, price insurance, or similar products. One of the major forms of risk is related to prices, and the most transparent markets for price risk are futures and options contracts traded on organized exchanges.

Price risk instrument include

- (i) inventories, using warehouses and grain elevators as delivery points,
- (ii) crop insurance, where formal agricultural insurance institutions are better suited to address yield risks than are informal mutual insurance mechanisms, and
- (iii) revenue insurance which is a combination of price and traditional crop insurance.

In contemporary Nigeria, market forces, some of which are mentioned above, are being heavily relied upon to supplement government and household efforts at managing risk. This is due to funding and other constraints. With proper education of all stakeholders in the agro-allied industry, and the continued provision of an enabling environment by governments, the challenges posed by risk will be well addressed towards a better performance of the industry.

Forest resources management

In Nigeria, forests are a vital source of food, raw materials, medicines, and income. Over the years, the rate of depletion of our forest resources has far exceeded the rate of replenishment, with grave consequences on the environment notably the ozone layer. It is to be noted that as the forest trees are cleared, many other products disappear. Some animal species, whose natural habitats are destroyed in the process, become extinct. The traditional shifting cultivation system of farming in rural communities has also worsened the soil and land conservation profile of these communities. Under this system, farmers live by clearing small holdings of forest land, burning the trash and planting crops into the ash-enriched soil. After exhausting the fertility of these holdings, the early farmers move to another portion of the forest and allow the abandoned farm land to regain its vegetation. As a result of increasing population in contemporary times, coupled with dwindling forest land for farming, the recuperation time for the tired farmland has considerably reduced, with adverse effect on soil fertility and crop yield.

This slash – and – burn type of farming aids deforestation fast, which increases surface run-off, and loss of fertility. The management imperative here is that when land has been cleared by ‘slash – and – burn’ for food crops like rice, maize, or beans, fast growing leguminous trees should be planted at the same time to improve soil fertility.

In the task ensuring sustainable farming methods, governments need to formulate policies that will provide security of land tenure and also involve the populace in decision- making. This will give them a sense of belonging, and duty to preserve theirland heritage for theirchildren and generation unborn.

Conclusion

The foregoing has dealt fairly extensively with the issue of sustainability in the development of Nigerian agro-allied industries within the context of the MDGs. It has been observed that even though recent economic growth, especially in agriculture has remarkably reduced the proportion of underweight children from 35.7% in 1990 to 23.1% in 2008, growth has not generated enough jobs and the effect on poverty level is not yet clear. Growth has to be more equitable and broad-based.

In conclusion, it is pertinent to go down the memory lane and recall the role agriculture used to play in the Nigerian economy. Agriculture used to provide employment and income for the majority of people. There used to be the popular groundnut pyramids of North, the timber wealth of the West, and the palm oil resource in the East. Today young people are looking elsewhere for employment, away from agriculture, a reasoning borne out of their poor perception of agricultural undertaking as a career, and several other attractions that lure them away from it. The farm settlement scheme of the old Western Nigeria came partly to make farming a lucrative career especially for the youth. The scheme is today a figment of its imagination.

Until very recently in the life of this nation, governments at all levels have not done enough to reverse this ugly trend. They have favoured other industries and white collar jobs in the scheme of things. The so-called ‘oil boom’ era of the 1970’s was probably the turning point when all attention shifted to the newly found wealth. Erstwhile contractors in agriculture and allied industries suddenly became oil magnates.

Agriculture has increasingly become associated with hard labour and low income. According to Setae (1997), the seeming apathy towards agriculture may have extended to agricultural research, with the sad consequences of the latter’s inability to perform the basic functions of increasing knowledge and boosting agricultural production. Agriculture must be recognized as a vital industry in Nigeria, and the youth especially, must be made aware of the role the industry could play. In words of the author, it is only by ensuring modernization of the agricultural sector and by making available sufficient resources for research and training, together with support for infrastructure, that the full potential will be realized.

Bibliography

Emeagwali P. (2007) Technology Widens rich-poor Gap. Business Day, 6 (249), 10

Ezekiel E. (2007) The Entrepreneur Today, Business Day 6 (247), 33

Igbuzor O. (2005) Review of Nigeria Millennium Development Goals

www.dawodu.com/igbuzor//.htm

Madilon S. (2007) The Entrepreneur Today. Business Day 6(246), 34

Okuenyungbo M. (2007) Livestock Feed Additive that Cuts Veterinary Bills by 75% Business Day 6

(246), 35 Setae M. (1996) What future for Agriculture in the Pacific?

SPORE 66, Wageningen. The Netherlands

www.indexmundi.com/nigeria/millennium-development-goals.html

PETRODOLLAR, THE STATE AND CHALLENGES OF MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGs) IN AFRICA.

By

Joel Nnabugwu Nwachukwu,

Department of Political Science & Public Administration, Babcock University

Chituru Udo Nwachukwu

Human Resources Division, Babcock University,

Ilishan Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract

At the dawn of 21st century, the United Nations had endeavored to coordinate a global development strategy by focusing on specific development objectives for the new millennium. The goals were spelled out in the United Nations Declaration to which all member states appended their signatories precisely in 2002. The MDGs comprise eight objectives which address the main development problematic which are to be achieved by 2015. As the 2015 set date fast approaches, we believe the time is ripe, and that this conference provides an appropriate platform to assess the progress made by this program ever since it was conceived. The paper which deployed a descriptive study relying heavily on secondary sources of data, examined the role of post colonial state, and petrodollar-for those African countries sitting on the black gold -as vehicles for the realization of MDGs. The study found that despite huge earnings from oil, these African countries recorded marginal achievement in the implementation of maternal health, child mortality, education and HIV-AIDS. However, in the areas of gender equality, empowerment of women, poverty reduction and environmental sustainability, these nations with abundance of resources failed to deliver. The study lays the blame squarely on the states which float leadership that lacks strategic qualities of good leadership and therefore suffers from leadership deficit. Our preferred solution is that Africa must be cleaned for the emergence of new future leadership that must create an image of moral and honest societies by drawing and enforcing a leadership code specifically designed to govern behavior and define the task of those to whom the responsibility of creating a new social orders rests.

Introduction

Even before the dawn of 21st century, it had become obvious that states, especially the weak ones, could no longer solve national problems. Problems such as terrorism, migration, drug trafficking, education, the global child and sex trade, poverty, the social economic and political consequences of the spread of diseases across the world are just a few of such challenges. The modern globalization imperative has been one of the potent forces in re orienting state problems solving capacity in the direction of international organizations (Duncan et al, 2004:12). The South, particularly African countries, were not prepared for globalization which has imposed poverty and death trap on their peoples as they are unable to invest meaningfully in key infrastructure, energy, education, health etc.(Humphreys et.al, 2007).

The above reasons can help us to appreciate and understand the purpose and genesis of the millennium development goals (MDGs). This write- up however depose that this development strategy introduced by

the UN is another palliative measure directed at the poor countries of the world since virtually all the industrially developed nations had attained these development objectives before MDGs were enunciated by the UN. Nevertheless, the paper assessed the role of some of the oil rich states, and petrodollar in Africa in achieving sustainable development via the MDGs. To achieve the overall aim of this paper, the subsequent sections are arranged into (i) methodological issues (ii) exposition of the concept of MDGs (iii) characterization of the post colonial state as the sponsor of this global policy and the resource curse (iv) Nigeria, Sudan, Angola and MDGs (v) concluding remarks.

Objectives of the study

This study seeks to discover whether any of the millennium development goals has really been achieved in the face of the oratory at the millennium summits, and whether the rich countries have been able to fulfill their promises to aid sustainable development in Africa. If so, has the “decade of despire” (the 1990s) been replaced with a decade of prosperity in Africa as a result of the MDGs?

In specific terms the paper examined the role of post colonial state, and petrodollar as vehicles for the realization of the MDGs.

Methodology

To varying degrees, this study could be said to have juxtaposed descriptive, analytical, observatory and historical perspectives as it is qualitative in approach. Therefore, to generate insight into, and understanding of our subject matter, documentary evidence, journals, text books, previous research works, and internet sources had been employed.

Literature Review

According to Sachs (2007:179) the MDGs are a veritable benchmark and organizing scheme for public investments especially in poverty stricken countries. He believed that the eight targets insist on decisive attack on extreme poverty in all its ramifications viz low income, high disease burden, hunger, lack of schooling, lack of safe birth (and attendant high maternal mortality), environmental degradation, and lack of access to basic amenities such as safe drinking water and sanitation. He went further to assert that many middle-income nations have either achieved or are on their way to achieve virtually all the goals with exception to maternal mortality and environmental goals, while the heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC)s are far from achieving any of them. He concludes that “the most glaring gaps between the MDGs and current trajectories are found in sub-Saharan African”. Why sub-Saharan Africa? He fingers a fault line: in Africa, according to him, earnings from national resources especially oil, is not spent in a responsible manner to finance outlays on public goods that serve as the platform for private investment and long-term growth that will pave way to both public and merit goods (P.175).

On their part Balaam and Veseth (2008:326) traced the genesis of the MDGs to the global spotlight on the extent of poverty, child malnourishment, and disease in the southern hemisphere in general and sub-Saharan Africa in particular. This reality according to them, was exposed to government and international organizations by numerous NGOs as well as social activists who launched aggressive campaigns about the need for the international community to make a deeper and more meaningful commitments to address the dire needs of many of the poorest countries in the world.

Continuing, they averred that the cost of ignoring public health are high as the AIDS epidemic was reaching an alarming proportion: the UNAIDS/WHO task force on AIDS/HIV estimated that at the end of 2001, there were 28.5 million people living with AIDS in SSA, but that fewer than 30,000 of these were receiving adequate drug treatment. Over 11 million children had been orphaned by AIDS with about 9 percent of the adult population infected. Concluding, they deposed that it became increasingly clear that some concerted effort to face the desperate conditions of many poorer countries had become overdue. This realization led the leadership of the UN, through its Secretary General, to articulate and usher in the millennium development goals in 2005 (P.324)

Maathai (2009:72) on her part informs her audience that in order to achieve MDGs, Sachs and his group-the Earth Institute, the UNDP, and the millennium promise (MP) have pushed the MDGs project to the farthest by establishing 81 "millennium villages" in ten African countries, eleven of which are in the Sauri district of Nyanza province, Kenya. She reports that progress has been made in the areas of malaria control where the incidents of malaria have dropped by 50 percent since the initiative started in 2004. Corn production, she continued, has on average, tripled enabling farmers to sell some of their harvest in the market while retaining some for family consumption. According to her the immediate results and achievement from the experiment highlighted above indicate that when financial resources, including aid, are properly targeted and well spent, they have the potential to transform the lives of the world's poorest people. She however lamented that since the complex and multipronged investments in development-agricultural inputs; investment in basic health; improvement in education; more efficient and regular power, transport, and communication services; and the provision of clean drinking water and proper sanitation-could not come by whimpers, the nagging issues of leadership and governance, which she defined:

as the way a country establishes its priorities, holds its officials accountable for their actions, makes decisions, empowers its citizens to feel invested in and engaged with their government and civil service, and communicates its vision to the people must be addressed in Africa.

Greenhill (2004: 150-156) is concerned about the cost of financing the MDGs. According to him, huge financial resources are needed for these targets to be met in 2015 in the tune of \$50bn per year, worldwide. For the poor countries alone he says:

If poor country governments are to have sufficient resources to meet the MDGs as well as to meet other essential expenditure need and pro-poor investments, the 42 HIPC countries as a whole cannot afford to make any debt service payments. In fact we find that even if all the debts of these 42 countries are cancelled, the HIPCs will need an additional \$30bn in aid each year if there is any hope of meeting goal 1 while for the other goals, a total of \$16.5bn will be needed (P.151).

It is instructive to note that the above estimate, according to Greenhill, is based on detailed costings in some of the key goal areas by UN bodies such as UNICEF, the World Health Organization, including such important organizations like the World Bank.

While the supporters of the MDGs are optimistic about the outcome, critics argued that the programme is already losing traction because governments have limited power to directly affect the outcomes. They argued that poverty is already a worse killer than any foreseeable environmental distress (Kaarbo and Ray, 2011: 490).

Theoretical Nexus

Our theoretical framework is eclectic as it looks at the role of the state which is the starting point for unraveling of policy cul-de-sac in Africa. The theory also deploys an approach that considers oil wealth in the context of national development objectives and strategies in African social formations. Despite the idea of some Western theorists that oil is a curse to the African countries that are endowed with it, oil-the most sought for of all the natural resources in the world, in principle ought to provide enormous benefits to the poor oil-producing countries. In the first place, oil revenue itself can leverage real living standard by financing high levels of public and private consumption as has been the case for some countries such as Libya, Nigeria, Angola, and Sudan etc. Again from oil revenue high levels of investment both out of oil revenue itself and out of borrowing made possible by oil income, is made possible. Thus the lack of fiscal resources needed to finance core public goods and infrastructures is obviated (Humphrey's et.al, 2007: 175). Mixed economy in which both public and private investments contribute to economic growth should midwife development in Africa. Public investments are desiderative for financing both public and merit goods. Public goods such as rule of laws, environmental protection, natural defense, control of infectious diseases, scientific research, as well as basic infrastructure of roads, urban water supply, road, power etc can be effectively provided when petrodollar is well managed and invested. Merit goods on the other hand include basic health care, basic education, social insurance for unemployment and disability, safe drinking water and sanitation, adequate basic nutrition, as well as safe shelter. When these merit goods are accessible to the vast majority of the population of a country, it has, naturally, a spill-over effect on social and political stability. Public investments which should be based on a sound macro-economic strategy must be encapsulated in a budgetary framework that considers both short term macro-economic stability and long term fiscal solvency (Sachs, P.176). Both public and private investment should enjoy complementarity so that none should be seen as a substitute for the other. Finally, public investment expenditure should be part of a development strategy with a time frame of a decade or more just as the much-talked-about vision 20-2020 in Nigeria, and the MDGs which on paper provide good framework for such a development strategy, with their achievable targets and indicators.

Marxist theory of state

According to this line of thought, the state is neither an expression of superior reason as contended by the idealists, nor a manifestation of superior will as maintained by the liberals but an instrument of class power designed to serve the interests of ruling class at the expense of the oppressed class.

No wonder (Ake, 2004: 75) defines it as “the main instrument of political power in class society which secures the dominance of some class in society and suppresses resistance against the latter by other classes and social forces”. The state has also been interpreted partly as being made possible by modern military technology and communications and partly as required by modern commerce and industry (Shively, 2003: 46). Marxists are not at all surprised by the marginalized status of many of the TWCs. For in their view, the bourgeoisie or capitalist class employs its base in the rich global north to reach out its class allies in the south for few new markets for the sale of their products and services, and new workers and peasants to exploit.

This view is corroborated by Viotti and Kauppi (2001: 385) when they averred that “the bourgeoisie in the North joins with bourgeois elements at the top of societies in Third World Countries in exploitative joint ventures. “In advanced, global capitalism” they went on “older colonial forms of imperialism have been replaced by multinational corporations and banks, the present-day agents of the owners of capital

who are able to use neocolonial ties and channels to facilitate their efforts”. Therefore, this perspective concludes that the class structure of dominance at global level explains the misery of peasants and workers, the prevalence of malnutrition and disease, and the consequent brutal forms of structural violence over the The Third World Countries.

Exposition of the MDGs

At the start of the new millennium, the UN General Assembly in its new millennium summit precisely in September 2000, adopted a set of global vision for humanity to be achieved in 2015 by the 189 countries that adopted the programme. In that declaration, the statesmen and women recognized and affirmed “their collective responsibility to uphold the principles of human dignity, equality and equity at global level”. They did not stop here but went further to pledge to “spare no effort to free our fellow men, women and children from the abject and de- humanizing conditions of extreme poverty”. Sequel to these fine words a set of goals, now called MDGs, was born. The eight goals include:

To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; and develop a global partnership for development (UN 2000).

Table 1: How Human Development Goals Relate with Millennium Development Goals and their Targets.

Capabilities for human development	Corresponding MDGs	Targets
Living a long and healthy life	Goal 4: reduce child mortality rate	To reduce by two-thirds, under five (infant) mortality rate by 2015
	Goal 5: To improve maternal health	To reduce by three-quarters between 1990 and 2015 maternal mortality ratio
	Goal 6: To combat HIV/AIDS and other major diseases	To have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS. To have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria, TB and other diseases.
Being Educated	Goal 2: To achieve universal primary education.	To ensure that by 2015 children everywhere, boys and girls, alike, will be able to complete full primary schooling.
	Goal 3: To promote gender equality in education and empower women.	To eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2015 and in all levels of education not later than 2015.
Having a descent standard of living.	Goal 1: To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger.	To reduce by half between 1990 and 2015 the proportion of the people whose income is less than \$1 a day.

Source: Okafor, (2004 p136).

Table 1 above showcases the most crucial-to Africa-of the MDGs, numbers 1 to 6, and their targets, as well as indicate how they relate to human development goals.

Characterization of the post-colonial state

We have earlier touched on the Marxist conception of the state, its character and operational dynamics which reflects the prevailing mode of production and the dominant political class which wield power. The post colonial state in Africa serves as instrument of class domination and controls property accumulation for its sake. For example, a critical performance evaluation of Nigerian state by different scholars describe it as exploitative, cruel and irresponsible (Ake, 1981, Okowa, 2005), weak and violated (Ghazvinian, 2007: 167), dependent and hegemonic (Ihonvbere 1996). Soeres (2005: 14) on the other hand insists that all sub-Saharan Africa's oil nations are successful failed states: countries with strong leaders backed by sophisticated state- owned oil and gas companies and other islands of competence, surrounded by unusually tormented societies and AIDS-ravaged millions who shoulder the burdens of their state failures. The contrast between the heightened expectations of oil producers and their populations, on the one hand, and the dire impact of oil dependence on development, on the other, he continued, is one of the most dispiriting tales of postcolonial hope gone astray. The state is the starting point for unraveling of policy cul-de-sac in Africa. This is largely due to the fact that the former is the sponsor as well as the arbiter in the issues relating to development strategies, MDGs etc. Notwithstanding the fact that the latter is the brain child of the UN. It is against this background that this study examines the relationship between the internal dynamics of the unproductive capitalist state formation, petrodollar, and MDGs as development strategy.

Africa petrodollar states and the resource curse

African continent is seated on a river of the black gold believed to be the most important product in the world. While the major oil producing nations in Africa-Libya, Algeria, Angola, Chad, Cameroon, Congo-Brazzaville, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Nigeria, Sudan and Sao Tome-are struggling with the crises of control over their petroleum resources, new discoveries of oil are being made in Africa. These "new kids on the block" include Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Cote d' Ivoire, and Ghana in west Africa; Uganda, Tanzania, and Mozambique in east Africa; Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), and Madagascar which drilled an estimated 80 wells in 2009(Norbrook, 2010: 69). It is not surprising to know that oil is being discovered virtually all over Africa: consider that

One third of the world's new oil discoveries since the year 2000 have taken place in Africa. Of the 8 billion barrels of new reserves discovered in 2001, 7 billion were found there. In the years between 2005 and 2010, 20 percent of the world's new production capacity is expected to come from Africa (Ghazvinian, 2007: 12).

Any wonder that the American Charity Catholic Relief Services made a conservative estimate that \$200 billion in oil revenue would accrue to African governments over the next decade from 2007 (Ghazvinian, p.15). Narrowing down to west Africa, in 2007 alone its daily oil output was worth about as much as all development aid flowing to the world (Shaxson, 2007: 5). Tragically, this colossus of revenue has not and may not, perhaps, translate to a better standard of living, freedom, peace, and over all development in post colonial Africa.

It is easy to blame African leaders, but they are not alone as they are acting in concert with foreign forces-multinational companies, diplomats and international financial organizations in holding African peoples to the ground in a perpetual state of coma. For example, Ghazvinian (p.14) informs us that:

One of the great scandals of the African oil boom, for example, is that it has produced far more jobs in the United States and Europe than it ever will in Africa. Only about 5 percent of the billions and billions of dollars invested in African petroleum project every year is spent in Africa.

Few political economists point to the illicit global economy and corruption as hampering development in poor countries. Corruption is a transnational process in which many illegal and legal actors are complicit. Easterly (2006: 399) argues that foreign aid is frequently eaten up by corrupt governments, and he therefore calls on “utopia social planners”- apparently those who have planned for MDGs in the global rich North-to adopt much more humble and honest programs to assist developing countries. Naylor (2004: 275) also criticize western governments, bankers, and business outfits for sowing the seed as well as encouraging corruption in the South. Henry (2003: xxiv) goes further to blame the illicit realm for the problems of the developing countries. Why, he asks, despite several trillions of dollars of loans to developing countries since 1970, have so few countries close the development gap with the West? His answer is:

Corruption, bad loans, and a global banking system that soaks up dirty money from around the world. The conventional portrait of the global development crises is an economist’s fairy tale. It leaves out all the blood and guts of what really happened-all the payoffs, corrupt privatization, fraudulent loans, intentionally wasted projects, black market ‘round trip’ transfers, arms deals, insider information, and the behind-the-scene operation of the global haven banking network that facilitated this behavior (Henry, 2003: xxiv).

If the foregoing hints are anything to go by, then the roots of development crises are anchored in the North, and they are germinating and bearing fruits in the South.

Nigeria, Oil Money and MDGs

A central part of the corruption of national politics in Nigeria is “bunkering” or the stealing of oil from pipe lines within the country, and on the high sea through the aid of “international community”. A consultants’ report for Shell in 2003 estimated that a whopping 275,000 to 685,000 barrels per day of crude oil were being stolen by thieves (Shaxson, 2007: 201). Despite this waste, Nigeria still earned 31 trillion naira from oil in the past ten years (Mordi, 2011), yet this has not impacted positively on the lives of millions of Nigerians who are still wallowing in abject poverty as portrayed by statistics in box 1;

BOX 1: Nigeria's Portrait of Poverty

Over 70 percent of Nigerians live below the poverty line. This means that they (the 70 percent) survive on one US. Dollars (\$1) (₦150) a day for all their needs-food, clothing, education, healthcare, housing, transportation, water etc.

70 million Nigerians have no access to portable water. This represents six percent of the world's 1.1 billion persons who do not have access to safe drinking water. Note that Nigeria's population is about 1.1 percent of the world's population.

Nigeria loses 1.2 million out of the 6.02 million babies born yearly. In fact, Nigeria, India, Democratic Republic of Congo, China and Pakistan lead the world in infant mortality rate.

10 million Nigerian children of school age are outside the school system. Several millions study under trees. All in the 21st century.

Nigeria is at the 158th position out of 177 nations surveyed in 2009 in terms of human development indicators.

Life expectancy in Nigeria is 48.4years, one of the lowest in Africa and the world.

Nigeria is short of 15 million (decent) housing units. Millions lives in shacks in urban and rural settlements. 70 million Nigerians are in dire need of decent housing.

Over 100,000 Nigerian girls aged between 13 and 18 years are reportedly held as sex slaves in Mali. Several thousands are in the same situation in North African countries of Libya and Morocco. Same for thousands in Europe.

Thousands of Nigerians (mostly youths) are in jails in Libya, Algeria, Morocco and other parts of the world. Hundreds, perhaps thousands, die annually in their attempt to cross the Sahara desert or Mediterranean Sea in their desperation to escape the harsh economic situation in the country.

EFCC recovered \$9 billion in the last two years from corrupt officials from both private and public sectors.

Source: The Guardian Opinion (July 8, 2011. p5)

Life expectancy in Nigeria and GNP are good indices of its poverty. For example, while life expectancy for Nigeria is 48.4 years, it is 57.1 in Ghana, 57.1 in Cameroun, 62.3 in Benin Republic, 54.1 in Uganda, 71.3 in Egypt. Britain, Sweden and Japan have 78.5, 80.5 and 81.3 in that order.

For GNP per capita, Nigeria, Kenya, Cameroon and South Africa have \$1,224; \$1,628; \$2,197 and \$9,812. Britain, Sweden and Japan have \$35,490; \$38,520; and \$36,180. Literacy rate: Nigeria has 56%, Ghana, Egypt, Turkey, UK, Sweden and Japan are 77, 59.3; 87.6; 99; 99 and 99. For infant mortality, while Nigeria loses 97babies per 1,000 at birth, Ghana and Egypt are 55 and 31 respectively. Turkey is 40 while the UK, Sweden and Japan are 15%, 3% and 3%.

It appears that Nigeria is the worst of African countries in terms of decentralized corruption and underdevelopment:

It is simply the doomsday scenario, an amalgamation of the worst oil has to offer: corruption, ethnic hatred, Dutch disease, and rentierism, organized crime, militant rebellion, hostage taking, and sabotage of industry activity, and a country held together tenuously by a political establishment whose leader, in

the words of US government think-tank, “are locked in a bad marriage that all dislike but none dare leave” (Ghazvinian, 2007:167).

So, the factors promoting poverty and underdevelopment in Nigeria are numerous and complex. The summation is that poverty in Nigeria is man-made, and flows from corruption, nepotism, greed, and governance/leadership deficit. Again cost of governance is another factor of impoverishment of peoples of Nigeria. For example, Nigeria has 1,548 chairmen/deputy chairmen of local government councils; 72 governors /deputy governors for the 36 states; 764 honorable members of State Houses of Assembly; 460 legislators at the national and bloated cabinets nationwide all of who live off public sweat. They fix their own emoluments and allowances and are not amenable to discipline. These political elites and their cronies and cabals constitute the 10 percent that consume 90 percent of national wealth. 25 percent of 2010 budget, for example, was said to have been gulped by the National Assembly alone (The Guardian, November, 2010).

Sudan and Oil Money

What was to become an Anglo-Egyptian condominium over Sudan ended when the latter gained independence on January 1, 1956. But the idea of colonial rule and its concomitant inequality continued in the south, throughout 39 years of war and 11 of peace. Over 1,5 million people were killed during the war, many by hunger and disease. Leaving aside the effect of the war, the vast region had been neglected by distant colonial leaders for well over a hundred years-namely by the Ottoman Turks, then by the British- Egyptian consortium that ruled Sudan from 1898 to 1956, and finally by political elite in independent Khartoum. Consequently, by the time Sudan’s comprehensive peace agreement (CPA) in 2005 was realized, “Southern Sudan was quite literally living in the stone age” (Ghazvinian, 2007: 281).

It is believed that Southern Sudan has close to 1 billion barrels of resources of oil. Sequel to a resources ‘war’ among oil companies from China, Sweden, Pakistan, Malaysia, India etc. 700,000 barrels per day were being pumped by the end of 2007 (Ghazvinian, Ibid). Between 2002 and 2003 Sudan earned over \$450 million from oil alone. Civil society organizations and churches in Sudan insisted that because oil revenue fueled the war in their country, exploitation of oil should have waited until peace was fully negotiated. Even after South Sudan became independent on July 9,2011, the war over Abieye and over sharing of oil revenue between the latter and Khartoum persists.

Angola, Oil Wealth and MDGs

Angola, a country of barely 12 million people, is the second largest oil producer in Africa. In this country also, there is a discernable systematic pattern of corruption in the officialdom: offshore money-laundering, illegal and very lucrative arms deals and opaque agreements that mortgaged the country’s future oil revenues to foreign banks (Ghazvinian, 2007:p.135).

In the words of Ghazvinian:

In the most recent of the reports, Global Witness drew on internal IMF documents to show that, for the years 1997-2001, \$4.2billion was left accounted for by the Angolan government’s budget procedures. To put this in perspective, it is worth remembering that Angola’s gross domestic product during these years averaged \$7 billion to \$8 billion a year, meaning that over a five-year period, an amount greater than half a year’s national GDP disappeared (p.136).

In a country where the ultra wealthy elite and expatriate communities swim in affluence, there is unmitigated housing problem both for the rural and urban dwellers. While the latter dwell in corrugated thin shack or under bridges, the former dwell in shanty towns as *musseques* (Ghazvinian, 2007: 132). In 2003, one out of four Angolans struggled to survive on less than 76 cents a day-an obvious “extreme

poverty”. One quarter of Angolan children died before their 5th birthday (almost all from easily preventable diseases), but many experts believe even this grim statistics is underestimated, since public health officials have never been able to access the most isolated and vulnerable rural communities where mortality rates are certain to be highest (Ghazvinian, Ibid).

Again with a fewer than 600 doctors, 20,000 Angolans die of malaria every year. The future looks even bleaker as 45 percent of school-age children are not reached by the educational system. This is not surprising when one considers that as recently as 2001, the governments combined spending on health, education, water, and sanitation was a meagre 9 percent of the national budget (Ghazvinian, p.134).

Over all assessment of MDGs

MDGs as development strategies are not lacking in official reports with impressive statistics that hide fact under the carpet. These are issued by the relevant UN agencies, and various nations almost on yearly basis. But as these corporate reports are released, independent groups and individuals continue to publish reports that contradict the official ones. For example, while the UN document (2010: 96) says that developing countries have made substantial efforts towards achieving MDGs and have had major successes in goals 1,2,3,and 6, a 2011 Save the Children Report captioned ‘State of World Mothers’, insisted that eight of the ten worst places to have children are in Africa namely Central African Republic, Sudan, Mali, Eritrea, Democratic Republic of Congo, Chad, Guinea-Bissau and Niger (Kiwanuka, 2011: 63). According to UNICEF, about 250,000 African women die every year from difficulties associated with pregnancy and child birth. The risk of maternal death in Sub-Saharan Africa according to Kiwanuka (Ibid), is frightening with one in 22 compared to the developed areas where it is only one in 8,000.

As this report was being compiled, we monitored world media-BBC and VOA net work Africa-precisely on July 21 and 28 which informed the world about the outbreak of malaria and cholera ravaging Western Congo, the human misery enveloping East African countries as well as food insecurity, water insecurity as well as human insecurity in Malawi and South Sudan. To the list of countries being ravaged by hunger and disease, VOA monitored July 28, 2011, informed us that Swaziland which is one of the countries having the highest rate of HIV infection, is not getting enough anti-retroviral drug for AIDS patients; and even if they were available, the drugs could not be taken in empty stomach since there is wide scarcity of food. This is because the promises made by international agencies are yet to be translated into reality. The MDGs 2010 progress chart shows Sub-Saharan Africa has performed so low in virtually all targets using such indicators as rates of improvement in the lives of slum-dwellers, proportion without improved drinking water, productive and decent work, women’s equal representation in national parliament, reduction of hunger by half etc.

However, the UN 2011 MDGs report indicates among others that:

- I. ‘Some of the world’s poorest countries, including Burundi, Rwanda, Samoa, Togo and the United Republic of Tanzania, have made the greatest strides in education’.
- II. “Every region has made progress in improving access to drinking water”,
([http:// www.beta.undp.org/undp/en/home/librarypage/mdg/MDG](http://www.beta.undp.org/undp/en/home/librarypage/mdg/MDG) Report 2011). That report (which seems to contradict 2010 report) did not take into consideration that many school children in Africa are studying in the open place under trees, even in Nigeria. Again statistics on the basis of which judgment could be made on the achievement of MDGs are not readily available since many parts of Sudan, Angola, Somalia, South Sudan, United Republic of Tanzania, Rwanda, are not accessible. This is due largely to the fact that parts of some of those countries had been cut off as a result of wars and political conflicts of the recent past, recall the experience of Angola, Sudan, and Rwanda etc.

National institutions to strengthen MDGs

It should be noted that the establishment of credible and efficient institutions are necessary but not sufficient conditions for total transformation that would lead to the realization of the MDGs beyond 2015. In Nigeria, one notices such numerous institutions at the federal, state, and local government level as the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), SEEDS, LEEDS, CEEDS, Vision 20-20-20, 9-points agenda and NEPAD. In Sudan, one also finds Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRP), Joint Assessment Mission (JAM), Sudan Annual Needs Assessment etc. The leadership rather than these Institutions can be proactive in changing the direction of their countries heading to the oblivion.

Concluding remarks

MDGs have numerous and complex challenges few of which are stated below:

- African leadership is dependent on Western capital and allies, and so this marriage of convenience between the former and the latter cannot conduce to Africa's development.
- Unmitigated decentralized corruption, and unpunished criminality which makes it possible for public money to be diverted into private use cannot help matters.
- Unscientific African societies which are traditionally and ethnically bound have been shoved aside by world capitalism which preys on the former in terms of overall development.
- The MDGs as development strategies are not meant for the rich global North which had attained these objectives in the 19th century. So they cannot be committed to it.
- Even some of the Sub-Saharan African countries that are said to have achieved goal 2, and can potentially achieve some other goals and set targets, face daunting challenges in achieving the most important goals 4 and 5, and even face the risk of backsliding on some of the goals already achieved.
- For the rich countries of the North, MDGs as development strategies for the poor nations of the South, is another Jubilee 2000, Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) corrupt privatization programs prescribed by the West that worsened rather than relieved African people from economic, political and social miseries. The reason is clear: the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)s and even the developing ones cannot afford the funding of MDGs as we stated earlier in this paper. For example, the pledges of the rich global North to the poor countries made in 2005 at the G8 summit in Gleneagles-of doubling international aid to the world's poorest countries to \$60 billion a year by 2010-have been kept in abeyance.
- Finally, MDGs goal 2 is interested in primary education and does not consider technical education at secondary and tertiary levels. This is a resurrection of colonial approach to education.

Africa must be 'cleaned' to have a complete break with the contemporary leadership which has constituted itself into a cocoon. Once Africa is cleaned, it must be united under a new leadership with a philosophy as well as an ideology that would dictate the pace and trajectory of African development. The emerging future leadership must create an image of a moral and honest leadership and followership by drawing and enforcing a leadership code specifically designed to govern behavior and define the task of those to whom the responsibility of creating a new social order rests. The new order must be able to demystify political life by making politics less attractive. The corollary of the foregoing is that corruption which is the bane of African social formations presently would be drastically reduced, as criminality in both high and low places would be punished.

Conclusion

Millennium Development Goals on paper are good development strategies for any country of the world. But since African countries are struggling with crisis of national survival and crisis of foreign control,

they are not in a position to deal in a significant way, with the challenges of development. That some African countries are closer to meeting the simpler MDGs now than it was a decade ago, is largely because human welfare has generally been improving; again China, in its resource competition with the West over Africa, has invested about \$200 billion dollars in Africa in the past ten years, and this can help to account for the little progress made by some African countries. Petroleum resources, everywhere they have been found in Africa fuels crisis, crime, corruption, and war which have stunted growth, development and progress. We hope that Ghana will be exceptional in this “resource curse”.

References

- Ake, C. (1981) *A Political Economy of Africa*. London: Longman.
- (2004) *The State in Contemporary Africa* in Alapiki, H. (ed) *The Nigerian Political Process*. Port Harcourt: Amathyst and Colleagues Publishers.
- Balaam, D.N. and Veseth, N. (2008) *Introduction to International Political Economy*. 4th edition. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Duncan, W.R. et al (2004) *World Politics in the 21st Century*. New York: Pearson, Longman.
- Easterly, W. (2006) *The White Man's Burden: Why the West's Efforts to Aid the Rest Have Done So Much Ill and so Little Good*. New York: Penguin
- Ghazvinian J. (2007) *Untapped: The Scramble for Africa's Oil*. London : Harcourt, Inc.
- Green Hill, R. (2005) *The Unbearable Link-Debt Relief and the Millennium Development Goals in Route*, J.T. (editor), *Taking Sides: Clashing Views on Controversial Issues in World Politics* (Eleventh Edition). McGraw-Hill/Duskin.
- Henry, J.S. (2003) *The Blood Bankers. Tales from the Global Underground Economy*. New York: *Four Walls Eight Windows*.
- Humphreys, M. et al editor (2007) *Escaping the Resources Curse*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Ihonvbere, J. O. (1994) *Nigeria: The Politics of Adjustment and Democracy*. New Brunswick, N. J. Transactions.
- Kaarbo, J. and Ray, J.L. (2011) *Global Politics*. USA: Wadsworth.
- Kiwanuka, N. (2011) *Mums the World*. BBC: *Focus on Africa*. July-September.
- Maathai, W. (2009) *The Challenge for Africa: A New Vision*. London: Williams Heinemann.
- Mordi, R. (2011) *The Tell* No.22, June 6.
- Nigeria Millennium Development Goals Report 2010*.
- Norbrook, N. (2010) “*Who Owns Africa's Oil?*” *The Africa Report*, No.21, February-march 2010.

Okafor, A.A. (2004) *Poverty and Human Development in Nigeria: Challenges of the Millennium Development Goals*. Nsukka: Great AP Express Publishers Limited.

Okunade, B. (2008) *Leadership: The Big Challenge*, University of Ibadan. Inaugural Lecture. The University of Ibadan.

Okowa, W. (2005) '*Oil, Babylonian Mathewnomics and Nigerian Development*': University of Port Harcourt Inaugural Lecture.

Outcome Document of the 65th Session of UN General Assembly on the MDGs, 20-22 September 2010.

Shaxon, N. (2007) *Poisoned Wells: The Dirty Politics of African Oil*. New York: Palgrave, Macmillan.

Sachs, J.D. (2007) *How to Handle the Micro Economics of Oil Wealth* in Humphreys et al (editors). *Escaping the Resource Curse*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Soares, R. (2005) *Petroleum and Politics in the Gulf of Guinea*. U.K: Cambridge University.

Sudan, Millennium Development Goals Interim United Report: December, 2004. The Guardian, November 29, 2010.

UN MDGs 2010 *Progress Chart*.

ACHIEVING MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS THROUGH PARTNER INSTITUTIONS: ETHICAL CONCERNS ON HANDLING OF FUNDS

By

AMPONSAH, E. B.

*Deartment of Accounting
Valley View University, Accra*

Abstract

A lot of concerns have been expressed about unethical decisions and actions in the mishandling of funds in today's public and private institutions. These have been fuelled by the unravelling of serious corrupt practices in the business world in recent times which have led to the collapse of several businesses and public institutions. The expectations of stakeholders and the general public have been mainly the introduction of stiffer measures against culprits. Consequently, this paper studied the vulnerability of institutions and industries to unethical practices, found the major causes of the problem, and suggested measures to be put in place to at least mitigate the situation in institutions through which governments tend to achieve the millennium development goals (MDGs). The study centred on 520 accountants across several industries and institutions in the Kumasi metropolis, specifically at the central business district (Adum) and its immediate surroundings. To achieve the research objectives, primary data were collected for analysis through questionnaires, interviews and discussions. Others were from the internet and literature sources such as books, journals, newspapers, published conference proceedings, etc. Cluster and factor analyses methods and cross-tabulation were employed to analyse the questionnaire data whiles simple frequency was used to analyse data from interviews and discussions. The study revealed that, beside financial institutions, the most vulnerable to unethical practices are public institutions, and the trade and production industries. The major causes of the problem in the area of research had to do with two mentalities, namely, "It-is-public-business/funds" and "Everyone-is-doing-it". Governments ought to carefully formulate customised control policies and procedures purposely for partner institutions, provide copies to the employees and educate them, and promptly implement these policies. This should be followed by strict monthly accountability from each institution as well as snap check audits.

Introduction

A lot of concerns have been expressed about unethical decisions and actions in the mishandling of funds in today's public and private institutions. These have been fuelled by the unravelling of serious corrupt practices in the business world in recent times which have led to the collapse of several businesses and public institutions. The expectations of stakeholders and the general public have been mainly the introduction of stiffer measures against culprits. Consequently, this paper studied the vulnerability of institutions and industries to unethical practices, found the major causes of the problem, and suggested measures to be put in place to at least mitigate the situation in institutions through which governments tend to achieve the millennium development goals (MDGs).

Ethics in the News

The ethics phenomenon in public organisations is not new. But recent publicity on the ethical trend, which is mostly negative, has brought these organisations to the forefront of organisational ethics. Due to the magnitude of impact on the citizenry, the government and other stakeholders, public organisations are questioned whenever misappropriation of public funds and other fraudulent activities occur in their setup.

In Ghana, which is not an isolated case, the news media is replete with frequent news about unethical public institutional behaviours usually involving those who have been entrusted with the assets of the nation. Such unethical issues border on embezzlement, misapplication, and mismanagement of state funds. The following catalogue of public organisational scandals as they appeared in the local newspapers raises a lot of concerns:

- “Inflating contract sums now official” (*Statesman*, June 10, 2011).
- “¢6.4 billion loss hits GCB” (Salia, 2007).
- “Inflating salaries: a challenge to SSNIT” (Welsing-Jones, 2008).
- “Billions of cedis which could have been used as capital for job creation were alleged to have been embezzled or mismanaged by some public servants” (Boateng 1, 2007).
- “Accountants steal ¢5.3 billion from the transportation ministry alone” (Donkor 1, 2007).
- “...Persistent Corruption In The Public Service” (Ohene, 2007).
- “Corruption: NYEP Sacks Coordinators” (Kwakyie, 2011).

This catalogue is only a tip of an iceberg. Consequently, many concerned countrymen have registered their disapproval in various ways such as the following:

- ✓ “Time to wage war on corruption” (Boateng 2, 2007).
- ✓ “The Stinking Revelations In Ministries: Set Up Financial Administrative Tribunal Now!” (Donkor 2, 2007).
- ✓ “Parliament, Probe District Assemblies Too” (Antwi, 2007).

A good number of public and private institutions, in some times past, in sub-Sahara Africa, has been financially distressed and even collapsed as a result of fraud and its associated forms such as collusion, computer fraud, embezzlement, forgery, impersonation, leakage of internal information to armed robbers, misappropriation of funds, stealing, etc. (Elumilade, 2004).

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which originated from the Millennium Declaration produced by the United Nations, are eight international development goals that all 192 of its member states and at least 23 international organizations have agreed to achieve by the year AD 2015. The goals basically include stamping out extreme poverty, reducing rates of child mortality, combating disease epidemics such as HIV/AIDS, and developing a universal partnership for development. The Millennium Declaration affirms that every human being has the right to dignity, liberty, equal opportunity, a basic standard of living which includes freedom from starvation and brutality, and encourages forbearance and harmony. The aim of the MDGs is to promote development by improving social and economic conditions in the poorest countries of the world (<http://www.undp.org/mdg/basics.shtml>).

In order to achieve the MDGs, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is partnering with several of its sister organisations such as UNDESA, UNICEF, UNEP, UNFPA, UN-HABITAT, FAO,

IFAD, etc. At the local front, nations are working to achieve the MDGs through their ministries, departments and agencies in collaboration with the UN agencies. In Ghana, there are concerned calls to include non-governmental organisations.

Ethical Challenges to the Achievement of MDGs

Undoubtedly, there have been some progresses in the achievement of some of the MDGs although progress towards attaining the goals has been jagged. Whereas some countries have realized several of the goals, others are not on the pathway to achieve any. Two countries worthy of emulation are China and India. China has succeeded in reducing its poverty population from 452 million to 278 million people. India has also made considerable strides in the areas of population and economic development. Unfortunately, however, areas that need the most reduction in poverty and most increase in economic development, such as the Sub-Saharan Africa regions, where we belong, have yet to make very serious radical changes in improving our quality of life (http://www.mdgmonitor.org/country_progress-.cfm?c=BRA&cd=).

However, according to Mohammed (2010), “The big challenge to the implementation of the MDGs is one of complexity. . . ; *accountability and weak institutions and deteriorated systems pose dangers . . .*” (emphasis mine).

It might be easy to argue that our countries are doing well in certain areas of the MDGs. Nevertheless, the achievement of one or some of the MDGs is not enough, and the ones achieved should be viewed from several perspectives. For example, it has been observed that while the share of poor people is decreasing in South Asia and in sub-Saharan Africa, the absolute number of the same is increasing. Again, speedy decline in poverty is not essentially tackling gender equality and environmental sustainability. Moreover, HIV reduction is not desirably progressing which in turn is holding back improvements in both maternal and child mortality. Undoubtedly, there have been expansion of health and education services but this is not being matched by quality (<http://www.undp.org/mdg/basics.shtml>).

Progress towards the achievement of the MDGs is also countered by the combination of soaring food prices and the brunt of the worldwide financial and economic crisis. Sustaining reduction of poverty and hunger is endangered because of susceptibility to climate change, mostly in the area of agricultural production. Fragile institutional capability in conflict and post-conflict nations also slows speedy achievement of MDGs, and fast urbanisation is pressurizing social services (<http://www.undp.org/mdg/basics.shtml>).

Undeniably, these are seriously challenging setbacks to the achievement of the goals. However, an attempt to look at the challenges in the immediate environs of the goals themselves may be deceptive, defective and detrimental. Other stealthy and seemingly remote challenges such as ethics ought to be identified and addressed. If the people working in the partnering organisations engage in embezzlement, misapplication, and mismanagement of MDG funds, nations should not reasonably expect the goals to be achieved within the timeframe and at desirable levels.

As a case in point, one of the strongest criticisms against this initiative is the allegation that the MDGs have a model of directly transferring billions of dollars from the governments of wealthy nations to the *often bossy or corrupt governments in developing countries* (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Talk:Millennium_Development_Goals) (emphasis mine). In spite of the

growing democratic system of governance and stability in sub-Saharan Africa, “corruption and conflict remain serious barriers to ending extreme poverty on the continent” . . . and that “the continent loses around \$148 billion each year as a result of corruption alone” (Mohammed, 2010). This brings to limelight the grave ethical problems that confront us as developing nations in our attempts to achieve the MDGs. If our governments and their institutions who should keep watch over the societies are themselves corrupt, then efforts should be uptight to deal with the canker if, indeed, our nations want to make a move towards the achievement of the MDGs.

Methodology

The study centred on 520 accountants across several industries and institutions in the Kumasi metropolis, specifically at the central business district (Adum) and its immediate surroundings. To achieve the research objectives, primary data were collected for analysis through questionnaires, interviews and discussions. Others were from the internet and literature sources such as books, journals, newspapers, published conference proceedings, etc. Cluster and factor analyses methods were employed to analyse the questionnaire data and simple frequency was used to analyse data from interviews and discussions. These apart, demographic data (*age, gender, and experience (in years) in the accounting profession/studies*) were cross-tabulated with respondents’ views on the vulnerability of the organisations/industries studied.

Institutional Vulnerability to Unethical Handling of Funds

Are there particular types of institutions or industries in Ghana that are more vulnerable to unethical handling of funds? Table 1 below presents a picture of how respondents see the levels of institutional vulnerability as far as this subject is concerned.

Table 1: Level of institutions’ vulnerability to mishandling funds

Variables	Vulnerable		Somehow vulnerable		Not vulnerable		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Financial institutions	457	87.9	46	8.9	17	3.3	520	100
Public institutions	435	83.7	73	14.1	12	2.3	520	100
Trade industry	397	76.3	110	21.2	13	2.5	520	100
Mining industry	390	75.0	110	21.2	20	3.9	520	100
Production industries	373	71.7	134	25.8	13	2.5	520	100
Educational institutions	368	70.8	129	24.9	23	4.4	520	100
Processing industries	346	66.5	152	29.3	22	4.2	520	100
Health institutions	297	57.1	175	33.7	48	9.2	520	100
Non-governmental organisations	248	47.7	185	35.6	87	16.8	520	100
Private institutions	233	44.8	211	40.7	76	14.6	520	100
Non-profit organisations	207	39.8	197	38.0	116	22.4	520	100

Source: Field data, 2011 (frepresentsfrequency, and%forpercentage)

The vulnerability of institutions to mishandling of funds is shown in Table 4.11. *Non-profit organizations* (39.8%), *private institutions* (44.8%) and *non-governmental organizations* (47.7%) were adjudged the least vulnerable considering the *vulnerable* option alone. On the other hand, *mining industries* (75.0%),

public institutions (83.7%), and *financial institutions* (87.9%) were considered the most vulnerable institutions in this respect. It is no wonder that financial institutions are perceived to be the most vulnerable since they directly deal with funds. Any other institution that comes close, in this case, public institutions, is indeed a problem area that ought to be dealt with. Hierarchical factor/cluster analysis will provide a more accurate classification or grouping in the course of the analysis.

Table 2 below hierarchically combines the results under *vulnerable* and *somehow vulnerable* using the same data to see whether or not the top of the table will change.

Table 2: Level of institutions' vulnerability to mishandling funds (combining Vulnerable and Somehow vulnerable)

Variables	Vulnerable <i>f</i>	Somehow vulnerable <i>f</i>	Total
Public institutions	83.7	14.1	97.8
Production industries	71.7	25.8	97.5
Trade industry	76.3	21.2	97.5
Financial institutions	87.9	8.9	96.8
Mining industry	75.0	21.2	96.2
Processing industries	66.5	29.3	95.8
Educational institutions	70.8	24.9	95.7
Health institutions	57.1	33.7	90.8
Private institutions	44.8	40.7	85.5
Non-governmental organisations	47.7	35.6	83.3
Non-profit organisations	39.8	38.0	77.8

Source: Field data, 2011

The combined (*vulnerable* plus *somehow vulnerable*) results reveal a shocking 97.8% of the respondents judging public institutions as the most vulnerable. This is not too different from the finding on *vulnerable* alone in Table 1 above. With *financial institutions* now placing fourth (in Table 2), instead of first (as in Table 1), it could safely be said that *public institutions* are perceived to be the most vulnerable to unethical handling of funds because public institutions placed second and first under the *vulnerable* alone and combined analyses respectively.

Again, it must be pointed out that, under this combined analysis, *production* and *trade industries* hotly competed for the top spot. Yet again, the combined results of very high percentages for all the institutions or industries studied reveal that our economy is immersed in very severe corruption. That is, the results confirm media reports and literature on mishandling of funds by government and its institutions.

An inquiry into why a custodian would misappropriate or mishandle MDGs funds revealed the following reasons in the table below:

Variables	Significant		Somehow significant		Not significant		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
“Everyone-is-doing-it” mentality	310	59.6	157	30.3	53	10.2	520	100.00
“It is public business/funds” mentality	371	71.3	113	21.8	36	6.9	520	100.00

Table 3: Reasons why custodians would mishandle funds

Source: Field data, 2011

Of all the socio-cultural factors studied, respondents identified two (“*It-is-public-business/funds*” mentality—71.3% and “*Everyone-is-doing-it*” mentality—59.5% (considering *significant* option alone)) as the most outstanding ones that would make people misappropriate MDG funds. Even a combination of *significant* and *somehow significant* options for the two variables still puts “*It-is-public-business/funds*” mentality higher at 93.1% and “*Everyone-is-doing-it*” mentality 89.9%. The higher results here for “It is public business/funds” confirm the high percentage of public institutions’ vulnerability to mishandling of funds. It is worthy to emphasize that the variables here both attracted very sky-scraping percentages, calling attention to their grave nature in our society. It is obvious that people do not have regard for funds just because it is for government or for others, and that everyone would mishandle them if they were in the custodians’ place. Justification for such unethical behaviours is not only selfish but iniquitous and must be condemned in no uncertain terms by any well-meaning individual.

A cross-tabulation was made to study the possible influence of respondents’ age ranges on their perceptions about the institutional vulnerability to mishandling of funds. It was noticed that the last two oldest age ranges (50 to 54 years and above 54 years) consistently recorded the highest percentages, but this was due to the relatively small size of their samples. The true picture of the trend was therefore obtained from the first six youngest age groups. Looking at the distribution of the percentages, it was also clear that high percentages were scattered over all the age groups, even though respondents below age 25 years slightly counted more than others. In general, therefore, the age range of the respondents could not be considered as a determinant factor.

Cross-tabulation of respondents’ gender with their perceptions on mishandling of funds with regard to institutional vulnerability revealed that male and female respondents differed significantly only when it came to *financial institutions* and *public institutions*. At the same time this happened to the institutions that attracted the highest number of respondents who attested to their vulnerability. In both cases, female respondents were more than males by 7% in affirming the vulnerability of these two institutions. It is however worth noting another equally significant difference between males and females even though the number of respondents was low. Specifically, 50.2% of male respondents and 44.6% of female respondents said *non-governmental organisations* are vulnerable to the malpractice. Even though the percentages of respondents per gender were small, 5.6% more males than females affirmed the

vulnerability of this type of institution. In a nutshell, it could be said that, with the exception of *financial, public* and *non-governmental institutions*, respondents' gender did not have a significant impact on their perceptions on institutional vulnerability.

Here again, the possible influence of the respondents' *experience in the accounting profession/studies* on their perceptions about the factors studied were evaluated. A careful analysis of the data cross-tabulated revealed that inexperienced respondents, as far as the accounting profession is concerned, seemed to be more in number to advocate institutional vulnerability of all the institutions considered. Once again, the high and invariable percentages recorded among respondents with more than 30 years of experience were logically due to the fact that these respondents were only four(4).

Conclusion

This study has revealed that both government and its partner organisations are perceived to be bossy and corrupt. Again, there is a conspicuous absence of effective accountability, strong institutions and very efficient systems and these inevitably hamper the achievement of the millennium development goals. The unethical conduct of the custodians of MDG funds should not be overlooked by stakeholders. Every effort should be employed from within and without to ensure proper accountability in this endeavour.

Recommendations

The UNDP should

1. itself spontaneously and recurrently audit MDG accounts and require strict accountability of every cent from the nations.
2. ensure timely rendition of reports from governments, failure of which should raise answerable questions or prompt its reporting or supervisory lines to investigation.
3. query governments for observed ethical lapses.
4. establish a body for MDG "Funds Application Management (FAM)" to ensure the avoidance of the application of MDG funds based on certain criteria on unauthorized use.
5. not give additional funds to beneficial nations until the UNDP is satisfied with prior performance and living up to the conventions.
6. make countries with proven misappropriations to refund the funds and redirect to nations that use MDG funds appropriately.

Government should overcome the problem through the institution of self-regulatory measures such as

7. establishing a Due Process Committee to serve as a 'tender board' just for MDG funds to see to the fraud-free award of contracts, procurement, etc.
8. setting up a Cost Control Committee to look at all cost items of partnering institutions and the governments generally as regards MDG funds.
9. swiftly prosecuting individuals or custodians who unethically handle MDG funds.
10. using relatively less corrupt organisations, even if they are not public, and individuals to work to achieve the MDGs.

The media and organized civil society should

11. constantly serve as watchdogs that would ensure that unethical use or handling of MDG funds is made unattractive.
12. fight for the establishment of very strong systems and institutions to

keep watch over both the public and private sectors of our economy.

13. educate the citizenry to learn to vote for relatively less bossy and less corrupt individuals and political parties into government.

References

Antwi, K. (2007, October 19). Parliament, Probe District Assemblies Too. *The Heritage*. p. 10. [www.theheritagenews.com]

Boadu-Ayebofoh, Y.(Ed.) (2007, April 4). Financial Integrity. (Editorial). *Daily Graphic*. p. 7.

Boateng, F. K. 1 (2007, November 19). Corruption—An act of wickedness? *Daily Graphic*. p. 9.

Boateng, F. K. 2 (2007, April 20). Time to wage war on corruption. *Daily Graphic*. p. 9.

Donkor, K. B. (2007, October 19a). Accountants Steal ₦5.3bn From Transportation Ministry Alone. *The Heritage*. p. 1. [www.theheritagenews.com].

Donkor, K. B. (2007, October 19b). Fallout From Stinking Revelations In Ministries: Set Up Financial Administrative Tribunal Now! *The Heritage*. p. 1. [www.theheritagenews.- com].

Elumilade, D. O. (2004). Ethical Impropriety and Fraudulent Practices in the Banking Sector in Nigeria: A Call for Transparency and Accountability. In K. I. Dandago and A. I. Tanko (Eds.), *Prudence, Transparency and Accountability: Proceedings of the Second National Conference on Ethical Issues in Accounting*. Vol. 2 (pp. 238-254). Kano: Department of Accounting, Bayero University.

http://www.mdgmonitor.org/country_progress.cfm?c=BRA&cd= (Retrieved on 14/07/2011).

<http://www.undp.org/mdg/basics.shtml>. (Retrieved on 14/07/2011).

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Talk:Millennium_Development_Goals (Retrieved on 14/07/2011).

Kwakye, N. Y. (2011, August 1). Corruption: NYEP Sacks Coordinators. Radio Gold Morning Newspaper Headlines quoted *The Publisher* newspaper at 6.13am.

Muhammed, S. S. (2010). Reviewing Impacts of MDGs in Nigeria. Available at <http://www.economicconfidential/x/features/121-salim-saliyu-mohammed.html>. (Retrieved on 18/05/2011).

Ohene, A. C. (Ed.) (2007, October 19). The Persistent Corruption In The Public Service. (Editorial). *The Heritage*. p. 6. [www.theheritagenews.com]

Salia, A. K. (2007, April 20). ₦6.4bn Loss Hits GCB. ₦842m Scam also rocks ARB Apex. *Daily Graphic*. pp. 1, 3.

Statesman. Inflating contract sums now official (<http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/NewsArchive/artikel.php?ID=210697>) Retrieved on 10/06/2011.

Welsing-Jones, K. (2008, April 24). Inflating salaries: a challenge to SSNIT. *Daily Graphic*. p. 7.

STOCK MARKET DEVELOPMENT AND ECONOMIC GROWTH IN NIGERIA

By

Enahoro, John A. Ph.D., FCA

Nwaobia, Appolos N., MBA, FCA

both Senior Lecturers in the Department of Accounting

Babcock University, Ilisan-Remo, Nigeria.

Abstract

The causality of the stock market development in terms of the depth, breadth and sophistications upon a nation's economic development has been well attested to in several empirical studies. A dynamic capital market base is required to support higher levels of economic growth and investments. This study is an empirical assessment of the determinants of the Nigerian stock market development in terms of number and value of listed securities, value of traded securities: equities, fixed income securities, hedging instruments, and collective investments schemes. This study aims to ascertain the developmental effect of the stock market on the economy of Nigeria in relation to the per capita income of the citizens and poverty reduction. The design instruments applied in the study are statistical stock market performance indicators, national economic indicators through largely the Student's t-tests and the use of the Ordinary Least Square technique.

Key words: *Stock market development, depth of capital market capitalization, investors' confidence, Gross Domestic Product*

Background of the Study

In emerging markets, stakeholders in stock capital markets get worried when there are incidences of delisting of corporate organizations which have previously been listed in the capital market. The Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) only began to recover gradually from the massive decline it recorded in 2008 and 2009 from the economic meltdown suffered globally. In Nigeria, also, two corporations had delisted within three years (2008 – 2011) namely, Afrprint Textiles, and Nampak Nigeria. The third, Nigeria Bottling Company, is in the process of delisting. In August, 2011, three banks previously listed in NSE – Afribank Plc, Bank PHB and Spring Bank were nationalized resulting in their exit from the market. This also took away about ₦32 billion from the market. There are fears that some more and particularly multinational corporations might also proceed to delist for no good reasons if the trend was not appropriately handled by the capital market regulators. Stock market regulations provide for free entry and exit of corporations from the capital market, and stipulate that only those corporations that meet desired quality remain listed. In the opinion of stakeholders, incidences of delisting from the capital market in a developing economy do not augur well for the capital market development since these erode confidence of investors and contribute to the shallowness of the market.

In the wake of the global economic meltdown, great economic pressure on business in Nigeria tended to be unfavourable and had adverse effect on aggregate capital formation. Many companies have their capital base almost completely eroded and their growth stifled. Capital formation in depth and width is

the bedrock of growth and economic stability of a country. Levine (1991, 1997 in Ezeoha, A, Ogamba, E and Onyiuke, N, 2009) is of the opinion that the liquidity role existing in stock market constitutes a significant function. In his view, many profitable long term investments will not be undertaken if a liquid stock market does not exist. This is because investors will be reluctant to tie up capital for long term period. Stock market provides liquidity function when stocks are traded with relative ease and speed.

The level of the standard of living of the citizenry as well as the positioning of a country in the global scheme depends on the strength of its industrial base. In the light of this, it becomes necessary for any country to set up the entire infrastructure, improve the institutional settings and create congenial economic environment that will enhance savings, investments and capital formation in the economy.

The shortage of investment capital has imposed great limitation to the growth of the business and industrial sectors. Capital is supplied to the economic setting through various sources, which include individuals and owners of businesses, banks and non-bank financial institutions as well as the securities market. Capital funds provided as a source of finance to business may be in form of equity, short, medium or long term loans or bonds and debentures. (Nwaobia, 2004).

The focus of this study is the Nigerian Capital Market as source of equity and debt capital as important source of long-term financing that will grow business and the economy of Nigeria. The Nigerian Capital Market according to Nzotta (1999) is composed of two main segments, the non-securities and the securities market. The non-securities market also referred to as the market for negotiated capital funds, consists of all transactions in capital funds that are not covered by negotiable instruments. The market is characterized by direct dealings of a long-term nature between fund users and fund suppliers. Funds sourced through this segment of the market do not enjoy defined structure of rates, as rates are largely influenced by money market rates. Institutions involved in the non-securities capital market include merchant banks, development banks, insurance companies, and leasing companies. These provide financial instruments such as term loans, leases, mortgage loans, and syndicated loans. The securities segment of the Nigerian Capital Market is concerned with dealings in financial assets and securities. These instruments represent the capital and promissory notes of the various bodies that issue them. The securities market has an organized set up with defined patterns of trading rules, identifiable participants and a broad regulatory frame work.

The issue

Aside of spate of distress and collapse of certain banks in the money market sector of the economy which brought about re-organization in that sector in the last decade, capital market in Nigeria has not been sufficiently diversified in available capital with regards to income securities, debts capital, hedging instruments, collective investments schemes and other derivatives. The limitation has therefore, inhibited ability to meet the financing needs of industrial sector for both initial take off and expansion purposes. Considering the aforementioned, the issue for study therefore is the determination and ascertainment of the impediments or hindrances to the effective development of the capital market in terms of volume and variety of capital availableness to provide varied financial instruments such as equity and debt capital and how these impact its ability to drive economic growth.

Objectives of the study

The Nigerian Capital Market as one of the emerging equity markets in the West African Sub region reflects its contributions to the capital formation process to the economy. It is expected to evolve an efficient means of allocating the nation's real and financial resources within various industry sectors. The capital market also provides significant opportunities for risk diversification of financing for investments. The objectives of this study therefore are to:

1. evaluate the performance of the Nigerian Capital Market relative to the efficiency in liquidity and risk diversification.
2. examine the benefits or otherwise which the Capital Market confers on investors and users of capital.
3. establish the factors which have inhibited the development of the Nigerian Capital Market and prevented it from contributing significantly in Nigeria's economic growth.

Review of related literature

Among previous varied studies cited in Ezeoha, A, Ogamba, E and Onyiuke, N (2009) which have examined the nature and causality between the capital market and the economy are studies of Filer, R. K, Hanousek, J, and Campo, N.F (2000); Yarty and Adjasi (2007), Yarty (2008). Other related studies which have investigated structural development in the Nigeria capital market are Ayida (2007), Oyejide (1998), Edo (1995), Akinlo and Akinlo (2007) and Nwaogwugwu (2008). In these studies, it is generally accepted that the effective development of the capital market drives growth in an economy while an economic growth in turn impacts on the capital market development. Yarty and Adjasi (2007) citing Singh (1997), concluded that the stock market was expected to accelerate the economic growth through a boost to domestic savings which consequently increases the quantity and the quality of investments. The stock market also, will step up economic growth as information on the potentials of corporations are made available and these consequently attract investible capital.

From an elaborate study of Popiel (1990), the capital market is deep from a qualitative standpoint when they offer savers and investors a broad range of financial instruments which differ in liquidity, yields, maturity and degree of risks such as debt instruments, equity, and in quasi-equity. The capital market should also encompass a diversity of sub-markets trading in financial markets. The integration of the capital market into the international capital markets also helps in deepening the market. It is expected that the capital markets are linked to the capital market intermediaries. Capital deepening integrates the adoption of appropriate capital market policies which will broaden the market. The capital market should be backed by strong investor confidence, characterized by adequate product offerings, well organized processes, market integrity, and sound regulations. The capital market should exhibit efficient infrastructure of securities exchange, demutualization of capital market exchange and the development of alternative trading markets. Consequently, appropriate policies are expected to regulate the markets and policy reforms made from time to time.

According to Demircug-Kunt and MakSimovic (1996), stock market serves important functions, even in those economies in which a well-developed banking sector already exists. The reason is that equity and debt financing are in general not perfect substitutes. Equity financing has a key role in the management of conflicts of interest that may arise between different shareholders in a firm. Although in countries with developing financial system, stock markets and banks play complementary roles, long term financing for capital formation and concrete investment are only available through the capital markets. The role of the capital markets in economic development is becoming increasingly evident. It is now widely recognized that there is a direct correlation between economic growth and development of the capital market. A well

functioning financing intermediation market facilitates a circle of productivity increases, economic growth and domestic savings. Thus, the choice of the capital market as a financing option no doubt has its linkage and multiplier effect on the economy and thus demands some studies. In this regard, this study hypothesizes:

H₁: That there is a significant relationship between capital market development and economic growth.

Financial resources are often channeled from surplus sources to deficit economic activity areas where they best perform profitably. Effective application of scarce finance affects economic growth. It is rightly observed by Porter (1966) and Goldsmith (1996 as reported in Nzotta and Okereke, (2009) that the level of development of financial institutions including the capital market is a great indicator of economic development in a country. It is emphasized that financial structure in the capital market greatly contributes to the acceleration of economic growth and does improve economic performance. The contribution is such that it facilitates a migration of funds to the best users since this will yield highest social returns. The above views support the development hypothesis theory which asserts that the lack of the developed structure in the capital market restricts economic development (Nzotta and Okereke, 2009). It is considered that the focus of economic policies should be on both the financial system and the capital market and should efficiently operate so that the real sector of the economy will be stimulated to develop. The support of the theory therefore, suggests that measures of government interventions through fiscal policies are necessarily important to facilitate growth in the economy. Capital Market deepening implies the ability of the capital institutions to effectively mobilize capital development for investment purposes, the growth of which creates a diversified capital liquidity claims. These entail active operations of the capital market. Capital market deepening generally entails market capitalization, the all-share index and the total value of traded capital; thus capital market deepening thus entails a measurement of the variables of the capital aggregates of market capitalization (MC), the all-share index (ASI) and the total value of traded capital (TVTC) to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

Methodology

The data used in the study are principally secondary data, covering the period 2000 to 2009. This period is selected because it captures stock market activities prior to and within the period of economic meltdown with the attendant multiplier effect. Data used include data relating to market activities, namely, total value traded (TVT), market capitalization (MC), value of new issues (VNI) as well as Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which were drawn from the publications of The Nigerian Stock Exchange such as the Fact Book, the Annual Reports & Accounts and the CBN statistical bulletin. The data are employed principally in testing the significance in relationship between capital market development and economic growth. The dependent variable in the study is economic growth, which is by proxy the gross domestic product (GDP). The study uses the market capitalization – GDP ratio as the surrogate for GDP/Economic growth. The ratio is given as MC/GDP, where MC = Stock market capitalization, and GDP = Gross Domestic product. This measure is expected to measures the relative contribution of the capital market to economic growth. The independent variable is stock market development defined in terms of the following surrogates:

(a) Market Turnover Ratio (MTR) = TVT/MC

Where TVT = Total value of transactions traded. This ratio is a measure of the activity in the stock market.

(b) Market liquidity ratio (MLR) given as TVT/GDP . This ratio is widely used as a measure of market liquidity (Nzotta 2002, Ogunmuyiwa 2010), and,

c). Market Depth Index (MDI) given by the ratio VNI/MC, where VNI is Value of new issues.

The Model Specifications

We define the relationship as:

$$MCGDP = f(MTR, MLR, MDI)$$

The Regression equation is given as:

$$MCGDP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 MTR + \beta_2 MLR + \beta_3 MDI + \mu$$

Where MCGDP Market capitalization – GDP ratio (Economic growth), β_0 = the intercept, β_1 , β_2 and β_3 = the co-efficients of the explanatory variables, and μ = the error term that absorbs the influence of omitted variables in the proxies used.

A priori expectation

It is expected that a positive relationship will exist between capital market development and economic growth. It is also expected that the intercept and the co-efficient of the explanatory variables will be positive.

Data Analysis

The data are analyzed using the ordinary least squares regression technique in the estimation of the parameters. This shows the magnitude of the effects of stock market development on economic growth. The adjusted R^2 is used as a measure of the dispersion of sample observations from the regression line. It measures the degree to which changes in the level of economic growth can be explained by stock market development. It tells how much of the variability in economic growth that can be explained by its relationship to stock market development. The t-test serves to test for statistical significance of the explanatory variables. The overall significance of the relationship is tested using F-Statistic.

The Hypothesis is accepted if $T_{tab} < T_{calc}$. at 5% level of significance and n-4 degrees of freedom.

Alternatively, the hypothesis is accepted if $S.E(\beta) < |\beta/2|$.

Empirical results and discussion

Given in table 1 below are the results of Ordinary Least squares regression.

Table 1: O.L.S Regression Statistics

Variabe	Coefficient	Std Error	t-Stat.	Prob.
MTR (TVT/MC)	-3.739	0.858	-4.358	0.005*
MLR (TVT/GDP)	9.928	1.679	5.915	0.001*
MDI (VNI/MC)	-0.067	0.248	-0.269	0.796**
C	0.344	0.063	5.440	0.002
F-Stat.	15.622		0.003	
Adjust. R^2	0.829			

* = Significance at $\alpha (0.05)$

**= Insignificance at $\alpha (0.05)$

The resultant regression equation is:

$$MCGDP = 0.344 - 3.739MTR + 9.928MLR - 0.067MDI + \mu.$$

Contrary to a priori expectation, the coefficient of turnover ratio is negative and significant at 5% level of error. The market deepening ratio is also negative but insignificant at 5% level. These imply negative effects on economic growth. However, Market liquidity ratio has a high positive coefficient and this is significant at α (0.05). The implication of this is that stock market liquidity has a strong positive impact on economic growth. This finding is in line with Nzotta (2000) that posits a link between stock market liquidity and economic growth.

It is expected that the channel through which stock market liquidity affects economic growth is unidirectional, that is, from market depth(MDI) to market turnover(MTR) to market liquidity(MLR) and finally to market capitalization GDP (MCGDP). However, a review of Table 2 below (number of listed securities from 2000 to 2009), reveals that there has not been reasonable growth in number and perhaps mix and volume of securities listed in the NSE. The highest growth rate within the study period is 6.48% between 2006 and 2007. Between 2007 and 2009, the number declined: by 4.16% in 2008 and 11.04% in 2009. Within the period, 2008 and 2009, the NSE delisted a number of inactive securities while some others like Nampak Nigeria and Afprint voluntarily left the market. The market in essence lacks depth. Again the new issues market has not been very vibrant. The highest ratio of value of new issues to market capitalization is 27%, recorded in 2008 (see table 3).

TABLE 2: Growth in number of Listed Securities.

YEAR	NO.*	%Δ**
2000	260	-
2001	261	0.38
2002	258	(1.15)
2003	264	2.71
2004	276	4.45
2005	287	3.98
2006	293	2.09
2007	312	6.48
2008	299	(4.16)
2009	266	(11.04)

Source: *Stock Exchange FactBook (various Issues).

** Authors' computations

Table 3: Economic and Stock Market Performance Ratio

YEAR	MC/GDP	TVT/MC	TVT/GDP	VNI/MC
2000	0.10	0.06	0.01	0.08
2001	0.12	0.09	0.01	0.07
2002	0.12	0.08	0.01	0.09
2003	0.22	0.09	0.02	0.14
2004	0.19	0.11	0.02	0.11
2005	0.19	0.09	0.02	0.25
2006	0.28	0.09	0.03	0.23
2007	0.57	0.08	0.05	0.18
2008	0.39	0.24	0.10	0.27
2009	0.28	0.10	0.03	0.04

Source: Authors' computation (from data in Appendix I)

The result of this study portends that Market liquidity, which has proxy of TVT/GDD, is a major stock market developmental factor which drives economic growth. Also with the significance of F-statistic and the high value of adjusted R^2 at 82.98%, the study affirms a strong relationship between stock market development and economic growth. This implies that development of the stock market will promote economic growth.

Conclusions and policy recommendations

Evidence in support of link between the stock market development and economic growth in Nigeria continues to abound. This empirical study shows the expected link as it is established that increased liquidity of the market impacts positively on economic growth. Government varied initiatives to privatize public enterprises is implicit faith in the need to broaden and deepen the capital market. It is in that belief that this will in turn step up growth in the nation's GDP. The NSE which is self regulatory will need to continue to play an oversight role on professional activities of its members, particularly the stock brokers. NSE jointly with SEC the regulatory body should ensure the monitoring and enforcement role of policies and best practices for the capital market. SEC's role of surveillance, investigative and enforcement of rules and best practices will particularly restore investors' confidence in the dwindled activities in the NSE capital market. As a member of the International Organization of Securities Commission (IOSCO), the NSE has to adopt international best practices inclusive of its investor education programme and awareness media campaign. The role of corporate governance in the NSE cannot be overemphasized. This will ensure transparency and accountability, as Board will act always in the best interest of the individual and corporate investors.

References

- Akinlo, A.E. and Akinlo, O. (2007). Financial Development, Money, Public Expenditure and National Income in Nigeria, *Journal of Social and Economic Development* Vol. 1
- Ayida, O.E. (2007). Structural Adjustment, Financial Development and Economic Prosperity in Nigeria, *International Journal of Finance and Economics*, Vol.19.
- Baridam, D.M. (2001), *Research Methods in Administrative Sciences*, 3rd Ed. Port Harcourt: Sherbrooke Associates

Central Bank of Nigeria (2008), *Statistical Bulletin*.

Central Bank of Nigeria (2004), *Annual Reports and accounts*.

Demirguc-Kunt, A and Maksimovic, V. (1996) Stock Development and Financing Choices of Firms , *The World Bank Economic Review*, 10(2),.

Edo, S.E. (1995). An Estimation of a Model of Long-Term Securities Investment in Nigeria, *Economic and Financial Review*, 1 (12).

Enus, P.G. (1985), Business statistics (Methods and Applications), Illinios: Richard D. Irwin inc.

Ezeoha, A, Ogamba, E and Onyiuke, N. (2009). Stock Market Development and Private Investment Growth in Nigeria, *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*; 11(2)

Filer, R. K, Hanousek, J, and Campo, N.F (2000). Do Stock Markets Promote Economic Growth? William Davidson Institute at the University of Michigan, Working Paper No. 151

Goldsmith, R. (1996). Financial Structure and Development, New Haven, Yale University Press.

Levine, R. (1991). Stock Market, Growth and Tax Policy, *Journal of Finance*, September.

Levine, R. (1997). Financial Development and Economic Growth: Views and Agenda, *Journal of Economic Literature*, 31 (5): 1-7

Nigerian stock Exchange (2002), Fact Book

Nigerian stock Exchange (2006), Fact Book

Nigerian stock Exchange (2008), Fact Book

Nwaobia, A.N. (2004).Financing of Business in Nigeria: A Comparative Analysis of Money Market and Capital Market Options; MBA Project

Nzotta, S.M (2002) , The Nigerian capital Market: Challenges and Opportunities, *Journal of Professional administration*, 5(2); 6 -22.

Nzotta, S.M. and Okereke, E.J. (2009). Financial Deepening and Economic Development of Nigeria: An empirical Investigation; *African Journal of Accounting, Economics, Finance and Banking Research* 5(4)

Nwaogwugwu, I.C. (2008). Stock Market Development and Economic Growth in Nigeria: The Causal Linkage; *Nigerian Journal of Securities and Finance*, Vol. 13 No.1.

Ogunmuyiwa, M.S (2010), Investor's Sentiment, stock market Liquidity and Economic Growth in Nigeria, *Journal of Social Science*, 23(1); 63 -67.

Oyejide, T.A. (1998). The Financial System and Economic Growth: Evidence from Africa, *Nigerian Journal of Economic and Social Studies*, 28 (2).

Popiel, P.A. (1990). Developing Financial Markets; International Finance Corporation, Washington.

Porter, R. (1966). The promotion of banking habit and economic development, *Journal of Development Studies*, Vol , No.4, August.

Singh, A. (1997). Financial Liberalization, Stock Markets, and Economic Development; *The Economic Journal*, 107: 771 – 782.

Yarty, C.A and Adjasi, C.K (2007). Stock Market Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: Critical Issues and Challenges, IMF Working Paper, WP/07/209.

Yarty, C.A (2008). The Determinants of Stock Market Development in Emerging Economies, Is South Africa Different/ IMF Working Paper, WP/08/32.

Appendix 1

Economic & Stock Market Statistics (N'billion), 2000 – 2009.

YEAR	GDP	MC	TVT	VNI
2000	4,727.52	472.30	28.15	35.50
2001	5,374.34	662.50	57.68	45.60
2002	6,232.24	764.90	59.41	48.60
2003	6,061.70	1,359.30	120.41	185.0
2004	11,411.07	2,112.50	225.82	235.53
2005	15,610.88	2,900.10	262.94	730.54
2006	18,564.59	5,121.00	470.25	1,650.0
2007	23,280.72	13,294.50	1,076.02	2,400.00
2008*	24,296.30	9,563.00	2,330.00	2,600.00
2009*	24,700.00	7,030.00	677.11	279.26

Source: Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin, 2008

* www.npc.goa.ng/vault/2009 Annual Performance of the Nigerian Economy.

Appendix III: Regression Results

Dependent Variable: ECONGROWTH

Method: Least Squares

Date: 07/29/11

Sample: 2000 2009

Included observations: 10

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
MKTTURNRATIO	-3.739238	0.858034	-4.357911	*0.0048
MKTLIQUIDRATIO	9.927712	1.678533	5.914519	*0.0010
MKTDEPTHINDEX	-0.066988	0.248374	-0.269705	**0.7964
C	0.343693	0.063175	5.440308	0.0016
R-squared	0.886507	Mean dependent var		0.246000
Adjusted R-squared	0.829760	S.D. dependent var		0.144545

S.E. of regression	0.059640	Akaike info criterion	-2.511819
Sum squared resid	0.021341	Schwarz criterion	-2.390784
Log likelihood	16.55909	F-statistic	15.62216
Durbin-Watson stat	1.675288	Prob(F-statistic)	0.003059

* Significant at α (0.05)

**Insignificant at α (0.05)

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA (SSA) AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGs): PERFORMANCE AND STRATEGIC OPTIONS

By

Olukayode E. MAKU¹⁷

Fidelis O. OGWUMIKE (Ph.D)¹⁸

Awoyemi O. SANGOSANYA¹⁹

Abstract

The attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is likely to remain a mirage for Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries given the low Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rates and limited progress on other social indicators in the sub-region. This paper examines the trend of the major indicators of the MDGs, while drawing a comparative analysis relative to other regions in the world. A rigorous descriptive diagnosis of this trend enables us to draw conclusion on the strategic options opened to the SSA countries if the region is determined to achieve the MDGs come 2015. However, the evidence from the descriptive analysis indicated that ineffective growth strategy adopted, environmental pollution, lack of access to basic infrastructural facilities, low private sector involvement, low investment in education and health sectors, corruption and embezzlement of public fund are factors deterring the attainment of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in SSA region.

Keywords: MDGs, SSA, Comparative Analysis, Strategic options.

Introduction

The economies of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) have made minimal progress in terms of sustained growth rates of gross domestic product (GDP) and other social indicators of development. This trend is not only disturbing and worrisome but also poses a great threat to the attainment of the Millennium Development Goal (MDGs). The MDGs emanated from the last decade leading up to the third millennium, when a number of UN conferences were held with the intention of laying down international Development Target (IDTs), which could help countries in fighting poverty. At the Millennium Summit held in September 2000 in New York, representatives of 191 countries adopted the Millennium Declaration. Among the 191 representatives were 147 Heads of State or Heads of Government including African Heads of State. According to Sachs and Reid (2006), the Declaration focuses on concerns arising from peace, security and development issues. It also covers areas including environment, human rights and sound management of public affairs. The Declaration sought to integrate into one overall programme of a variety of complementary and mutually reinforcing development goals. These goals and the development targets defined by the world conferences and summit of the 1990s are related but in some respects different.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are:

- Eradication of extreme hunger and poverty;
- Achievement of universal primary education;

¹⁷ [Department of Economics, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria], [kaymarks73@yahoo.co.uk]

¹⁸ [Department of Economics, University of Ibadan, Nigeria], [foogwumike@yahoo.com]

¹⁹ [Department of Economics, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria], [olusanya2002@yahoo.co.uk]

- Promotion of gender equality and women empowerment;
- Reduction of child mortality;
- Improvement of material health;
- Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases;
- Ensuring a sustainable environment; and
- Development of a global partnership for economic growth and development.

These cardinal eight goals with about eighteen targets are set out to be achieved by all participating countries by the year 2015 (See Appendix A). About four years to the target year of 2015, the Sub-Saharan African Countries have been scored very low relative to others regions in almost all the goals and the targets based on the results of evaluation and monitoring of the progress on the MDGs. A number of factors have been identified as the reasons for the poor performance of SSA with respect to the progress on MDGs. Some of these include failure to converge with other regions, poor economic structure and trade pattern, low level of industrialization, higher proportion of its private wealth held outside the region, high quasi-rent which has tendency to encourage corruption and a host of other problems.

It is against this backdrop that this paper evaluates the cardinal MDGs in the SSA countries and proffer strategic options on how the region should position herself to achieve the goals on or before 2015.

The remaining part of this paper is divided into three sections. Section 2 examines the general overview of selected MDGs with respect to the SSA countries. Section 3 assesses the MDGs by regions and by selected countries while section 4 provides strategic options on how the region could improve on her performance in achieving the selected goals come 2015.

Millenium Development Goals and Sub- Saharan Africa: An Overview

Extreme poverty remains a daily reality for more than one billion people who subsist on less than \$1 a day. Among this vast population, almost half of them live in SSA. Hunger and malnutrition are almost equally pervasive with more than 800 million people in the world having too little to eat to meet the daily energy needs out of which over 300 million are Africans. More than a quarter of children under age 5 in SSA are malnourished (UN, 2005). This first cardinal goal of the MDG has two targets which are to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1 a day and the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

Education gives people choices regarding the kind of lives they wish to live: it enables them to express themselves with confidence in their personal relationships, in the community and at work places. However, for more than one hundred million children in SSA, this human right is being denied. The loss of this potential does not affect children alone, most adults are equally denied of formal adult education. The second MDG has only one target, which is to ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike are able to complete a full course of primary schooling. This goal is far from being achieved in most countries in SSA.

Gender equality is a human right and at the heart of achieving the MDGs. It is prerequisite to overcoming hunger, poverty and disease. This means equality in all levels of education, work/job opportunity, control of resources as well as representation in public, official and political lives. Achieving gender parity in education is crucial to women who are yet to be fully involved in society in both the national and global economy (UNDP, 2004). The target of this goal is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education not later than 2015.

The fourth goal of MDG is to reduce child mortality. Yet, every year almost five million children die in SSA before their fifth birthday. Most of these children live in rural areas and die from diseases that can be prevented through improved access to safe drinking water and sanitation or treated by existing inexpensive means. The target of this goal is to reduce by two-third, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate (UN, 2005).

Improvement of maternal health which has the main target of reducing by three-quarter, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio, is the fifth millennium development goal. Unfortunately millions of women in SSA countries suffer serious injuries or disabilities during pregnancy and delivery which if untreated can course lifelong pain and humiliation. A mother's death can be partially devastating to the children left behind who are more apt to fall into poverty malnutrition and hunger which subsequently subject them to exploitation and child abuse.

Acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) has become the leading cause of premature death in Sub-Saharan African and the fourth largest killer worldwide. More than 20million people have died around the world since the epidemic emerged (UN, 2005)s. In addition to the incalculable human suffering that HIV/AIDS pandemic has brought reversal in decades of development progress in the worst affected countries which are majorly SSA countries. The sixth MDG aims at combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. The target is to have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS.

Environmental sustainability means using natural recourses wisely and protecting the complex ecosystem on which human survival depends. The wave of climatic change has induced threats of rising sea level and worsening floods and even droughts in some parts of the world. In addition, fisheries and other marine resources are being overexploited. Overcoming this and other environmental problems will require greater attention to the plight of the poor and an unprecedented level of global cooperation (Sachs, 2006). The targets under this goal are to integrate principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources to halve by 2015; to halve by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation; and to achieve by 2020 a significant improvement in the lives of least 100 million slum dwellers.

In achieving these goals, international support is critical especially for the poorest countries and for countries handicapped by geographical isolation. In an interdependent and globalised world economy, avenues for trade, international finance and the spread of technology are needed to enable developing countries seize the opportunities for accelerated and sustained development (Sachs and Reid, 2006). Hence, the eight goal of development of a global partnership has the targets of development of an open-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system; address the special needs for the least developed countries including SSA in debt reliefs as well as promote global interactions politically, culturally, socially, technologically and economically.

Assessment of MDGS in sub-saharan Africa

This section attempts to assess the performance of some MDGs in SSA from two folds. First, we assess the relative achievement of the goals in SSA with respect to other regions in the world. Secondly we select some countries in SSA (2 countries each from West Africa, East Africa, Central Africa and Southern African) to see how they are fairing in achieving some selected MDGs.

REGIONAL COMPARATIVE ASSESSMENTS

Goal 1: To Eradicate Extreme Poverty

Regions	Proportion of people living on less than \$1 a day		Convergence level*		Relative Convergence Performance (1990-2008)	2015 Target
	1990	2008	1990	2008		
South Asia	39.4	31.2	19.7	11.5	41.6	19.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	44.6	44.2	22.3	21.9	1.8	22.3
Eastern Asia	33	14.1	16.5	-2.4	114.5	16.5
South-Eastern Asia and Oceanic	19.6	7.3	9.8	-2.5	125.5	9.8
Latin America & the Caribbean	11.3	8.9	5.6	3.2	42.1	5.7
North Africa and Western Asia	2.2	2.4	1.1	1.3	-18.2	1.1

**Positive value indicates level of divergence from the target and negative value represents level of convergence to achieve the target.*

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

In 1990, more than 1.2 billion people (28%) of the developing world's population-lived in extreme poverty. By 2008, the proportion decreased to (19%) with just a marginal difference in SSA from 44.6% living on less than \$1 a day in 1990 to 44.0% in 2008. During the period under review, the rate of extreme poverty fell rapidly in much of Asia though the 2015 target is far from being met. The 2015 target of MDG is to reduce by half the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day between 1990 and 2015. In SSA although poverty rate declined marginally, the number of people living in extreme poverty has been on an increase. Many SSA countries are now showing potentials for long-term growth that could bring up standards of living. The SSA remains the worst-affected region in terms of the proportion of people living with in sufficient food. The proportion was 33% between 1990 and 1992, 34% between 1995 and 1997, and 31% between 2001 and 2008. The rate of decline has been rather too low even though rapid population growth is another problem confronting the region. Several other factors militate against increased food production and distribution in the region such as technology, poor yield, post-harvest losses, drought, poor road network, etc. Policies have to address these and other issues to enhance food production and accessibility to food so as to reduce drastically the proportion of the

population suffering from hunger and poverty; given that food expenditure accounts for about two-third of total expenditure for most of the people who live on income of less than one dollar per day.

The relative convergence indicator between 1990 and 2009 revealed that the SSA is the second least under-performed region in eradicating extreme poverty.

Goal 2: To Achieve Universal Primary Education

The target of this goal is to ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course in primary schooling. Net enrolment ratio in primary education has increased generally in all the regions; SSA recorded an increase from 53% in 1990/91 to 64% in 2007/2008, the third highest increase after Southern Asia and Northern Africa. Although, SSA region has made significant progress since 1990/91, but evidences show that in a number countries such as Burkina Faso, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Mali and Niger, fewer than half of the children of primary school age are enrolled in school. Hence, the progress in meeting the MDG of universal primary education in SSA is still very far away.

Regions	Net enrolment in primary education (%)		Convergence level		Relative Convergence Performance (1990-2008)	2015 Target
	1990/91	2007/08	1990/91	2007/08		
SSA	53	64	-47	-36	11.0	100
Oceanic	74	80	-26	-20	6.0	100
Western Asia	80	83	-20	-17	3.0	100
Southern Asia	72	89	-28	-11	17.0	100
Europe	91	97	-9	-3	6.0	100
Eastern Asia	98	97	-2	-3	-1.0	100
Northern Africa	81	94	-19	-6	13.0	100
Latin America & the Caribbean	86	95	-14	-5	9.0	100

**Negative value indicates level of divergence from the target and positive value represents level of convergence to achieve the target.*

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

Also, the convergence performance assessment indicated that the SSA still relatively improve in enhancing net enrolment in primary education between 1990 and 2008, while taking the third position among other regions.

Goal 4: To Reduce Child Mortality.

The target of this goal is to reduce by two third (2/3) between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate.

Though, survival prospects have improved in every region, none of the region has been able to meet the target but they have varying prospects of meeting the target come 2015. But the prospect of reducing the gap from 168 per 1000 to 62 per 1000 live births is much daunting for SSA with only 20% of the world's young children and accounting for half of the total deaths of under five children.

Regions	Under five mortality rate per 1000 live births		Divergence level		Relative Convergence Performance	2015 Target
	1990/91	2007/08	1990/91	2007/08		
SSA	185	168	123	106	27.4	62
Southern Asia	126	90	84	48	85.7	42
Oceanic	87	80	58	51	24.1	29
C/S Asia	83	78	55	50	17.9	28
Western Asia	69	58	46	35	47.8	23
Southern-Eastern Asia	78	43	52	17	134.6	26
Northern Africa	88	37	59	8	175.9	29
Latin America & Caribbean	54	31	36	13	127.8	18
Eastern Asia	48	31	32	15	106.3	16
C/S Europe	28	20	19	11	88.9	9

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

The SSA still stood as one of the least performed among order regions in reducing under five mortality rate per 1000 live births between 1990 and 2008., while recording a large divergence gap in achieving the targets by 2015.

Goal 7: To Ensure Environmental Sustainability

The target of this goal is to integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources.

Deforestation, primarily the conversion of forest to agricultural land continue at an alarming rate in about 13 million hectares per years. Energy use has become more efficient in must region, though CO₂ emissions continue to rise globally. This is associated with global climatic change. Further, in many African countries, fuelwood derived from biomass continues to account for over 65% of energy use. A major problem resulting from over dependence on fuelwood is deforestation. In addition, high consumption of fuelwood leads to environmental pollution. SSA is still far from achieving the goal of environmental sustainability, given the high levels of biomass derived sources of energy for cooking.

Regions	Energy per unit of GDP (kilogram of oil equivalent per 1,000 dollar in 2000 purchasing power parity)		Dispersion	Relative Performance
	1990	2008	1990-2008	
Northern Africa	164	165	1	0.6
Western Asia	250	287	37	14.8
Southern Asia	245	201	-44	-18
Eastern Asia	419	219	-200	-47.7
SSA	360	363	3	0.8
Latin America & Caribbean	167	162	-5	-3
South-East Asia	203	211	8	3.9
Oceania	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
World	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

Regions	Proportion of land Area covered by Forest.		Dispersion	Relative Performance
	1990	2008	1990-2008	
Northern Africa	1	2	1	100
Western Asia	3	4	1	33.3
Southern Asia	14	14	0	0
Eastern Asia	17	20	3	17.6
SSA	29	27	-2	-6.9
Latin America & Caribbean	50	46	-4	-8
South-East Asia	56	47	-9	-16.1
Oceania	78	63	-15	-19.2
World	31	30	-1	-3.2

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

The goal is equally targeting to halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.

Between 1990 and 2008, sanitation coverage in the developing world increased from 35 to 50%. This means that 1.2 billion people gained access to sanitation during the period. The SSA is thus the least

feasible region to achieving the goal in 2015. Access to safe drinking water and sanitation complement efforts in food, health and education provision. Hence, failure of SSA to make appreciable progress in meeting water and sanitation target can compound the problem and even further reverse the progress achieved in infant and under five mortality.

Regions	Proportion of Population using improved Sanitation (%)		Convergence level		Relative Convergence Performance	2015 Target
	1990	2008	1990	2008		
SSA	32	37	-34	-29	56.1	66
South Asia	20	38	-40	-22	63.3	60
Eastern Asia	24	45	-38	-17	72.6	62
Oceania	54	53	-23	-24	68.8	77
South Eastern Asia	49	67	-26	-8	89.3	75
Northern Africa	65	77	-18	-6	92.8	83
Latin America & the Caribbean	68	77	-16	-7	91.7	84
Western Asia	81	84	-10	-7	92.3	91

**Negative value indicates level of divergence from the target and positive value represents level of convergence to achieve the target.*

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

Selected countries assessments

For ease of comparative and analysis, two countries are selected from each of the four regions that make up the SSA countries. Gabon and Central Africa Republic from Central Africa; Kenya and Tanzania from East Africa; South Africa and Malawi from the Southern Africa; and Nigeria with Benin Republic from West Africa. The random selection of countries is based on one medium income and one low income earning in each region.

Goal 1: To Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger

Countries	% of people living below \$1 a day. 2000-2008	Gini index 2000-2008	Prevalence of undernourishment in total population (2000-2008).
Benin Republic	47.3	36.5	12.0
Central Africa Republic	62.4	61.3	40.0
Gabon	4.8	n.a	n.a
Kenya	19.7	42.5	31.0

Malawi	73.9	7.0	28.0
Nigeria	64.4	5.1	6.0
Tanzania	88.5	7.3	34.0
South Africa	26.2	57.8	n.a

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

The Table shows that majority of the selected countries still have greater proportions of the citizenry living below \$1 per day. Although, the Gini index in most countries shows that dispersion in income is not extreme yet, this has not reflected so much on the prevalence of undernourishment in the region; judging by the selected countries. In fact, the undernourishment figure for Nigeria is too low to be true due to the high levels of both food poverty and poverty based on those below \$1 per day put at 36% and 54.4% respectively in 2004. Generally, therefore, the indicators under goal one have shown little progress and projections show that unless there is a radical change for the better, the goal of MDG one may not be achieved in SSA.

Goal 2: To Achieve Universal Primary Education

It is apparent from the Table above that most of the countries will be able to meet the millennium Development Goal 2 by 2015 if the current pace of progress is maintained, except for Nigeria, where the net primary enrolment ratio is still low relative to other selected countries in the Table.

Countries	Net primary Enrolment Ratio			Youth literacy Rate (% of 15-24)		
	1990	2000-2008	2015 target	1990	2000-2008	2015 target
Benin Republic	41.2	94.7	100.0	n.a	53.3	100.0
Central Africa Republic	57.9	66.7	100.0	52.0	64.2	100.0
Gabon	n.a	n.a	100.0	n.a	97.4	100.0
Kenya	n.a	82.6	100.0	89.8	92.3	100.0
Malawi	n.a	90.8	100.0	63.2	85.7	100.0
Nigeria	n.a	61.4	100.0	73.5	71.5	100.0
Tanzania	51.3	96.4	100.0	62.8	77.5	100.0
South Africa	n.a	84.7	100.0	88.5	96.8	100.0

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

Goal 4: To Reduce Child Mortality

Regions	Infant Mortality Per thousand live birth		Divergence level		Relative Convergence Performance	2015 Target
	1990	2008	1990	2008		
Benin Republic	116.3	80.8	77.5	42	8.2	38.8
Central Africa Republic	109.5	101.4	73	64.9	77.8	36.5

Gabon	59.4	47.2	39.6	27.4	38.4	19.8
Kenya	65.8	60.4	43.9	38.5	75.8	21.9
Malawi	135.6	78.4	90.4	33.2	73.5	45.2
Nigeria	133.4	106.6	88.9	62.1	39.6	44.5
Tanzania	100.5	59.8	67	26.3	78.5	33.5
South Africa	50.2	42.8	33.5	26.1	56.3	16.7

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

Regions	Under five mortality per thousand live birth		Divergence level		Relative Convergence Performance	2015 Target
	1990	2008	1990	2008		
Benin Republic	183.8	113	122.5	51.7	84.5	61.3
Central Africa Republic	185.8	172.2	123.9	110.3	22.0	61.9
Gabon	96	73.3	64	41.3	70.9	32
Kenya	104.8	96.5	69.9	61.6	23.8	34.9
Malawi	224.4	110.8	149.6	36	48.1	74.8
Nigeria	230.5	181.4	153.7	104.6	63.9	76.8
Tanzania	168.7	96.5	112.5	40.3	71.5	56.2
South Africa	67.9	60.5	45.3	37.9	32.7	22.6

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

Almost all the countries selected for this study experience great improvement in the rate of infant and under five mortality rates. However, none of them appears poised to meeting the 2015 targets. This conclusion is based on their levels of success in 2010 and the rates of annual reduction in both indicators. Even for oil rich country such as Nigeria, expenditure on health is less than \$8 per capita compared to \$34 recommended internationally. In general, public expenditure on nutrition is very low; and nutrition for both mother and child is very strategic in combating the spate of both high infant and under five mortality rates.

Goal 7: To Ensure Environmental Sustainability

The table shows that most of the selected countries especially Kenya and South Africa have very low forest area due to their topography and geographical location. However, all the selected countries recorded a relatively stable CO₂ emission per capital between 2005 and 2010 indicating that they are aware and responsive to climatic change. In terms of the population with access to improve water, as at

the end of 2008, only few countries such as South Africa, Gabon and Malawi show signs of meeting the 2015 target of access to improved water.

Countries	% of land and Area (2010)	% of Population with access to improved water (2008)	2015 Target	Co ₂ Emissions Per Capital (metric tons)	
				2005	2010
Benin Republic	41.2	75	100	0.3	0.4
Central Africa Republic	36.3	67	100	0.1	0.1
Gabon	85.4	87	100	3.6	3.1
Kenya	6.1	59	100	0.3	0.3
Malawi	34.4	80	100	0.1	0.1
Nigeria	9.9	58	100	0.8	0.5
Tanzania	37.7	54	100	0.4	0.4
South Africa	7.6	91	100	9.1	9

Source: ADB African Statistical Yearbook, 2011

Strategic Option and Policy Recommendations

Following the assessment of the progress reports on the millennium Development Goal in Sub-Saharan Africa countries, the following strategic options and policy recommendations are made in an attempt to make the region achieve a good number of the goals come 2015:-

- i. The slow progress in poverty reduction recorded in SSA can be attributed to short comings in the strategy of growth and development adopted by most countries. The neglect of the private sector in the development process needs reversal. Policies to ensure sustainable growth and poverty reduction must be anchored on vibrant private sector and reform in the budgeting of public expenditure. Evidences from the literature show that childhood poverty affects poverty in adulthood. Therefore, governments at all levels in SSA should continue to tackle inter-generational transmission of poverty by investing in human capital of children. Children in particular, have special needs and are vulnerable and therefore, needs to receive adequate and effective share of public expenditure to enhance their basic capacity to participate actively in the economy and overcome poverty and deprivation. More resources should be budgeted to meet the needs of children including ensuring that they gain access to the labour market without much delay after acquiring necessary skills. The role of the private sector in creating jobs should be emphasized and appropriate incentives should be given to this sector to enable it provide productive employment.
- ii. SSA has one of the highest proportions of women in the labour force. Most of them are employed in the informal sector and basic survival activities. Therefore, there is need for this region to promote women empowerment and active participation in more challenging and income enhancing activities as well as active participation in public decision making. In particular, incentives for active participation in the

- labour market should be created through the private sector so as to reduce the high level of underemployment as well as open unemployment among youths in general and women in particular.
- iii. Changes in technology, industrial practices and the regulatory environment explain much of the environmental pollution and inability to access safe water in the region, the region should strategize and reposition itself to face the challenges of climatic changes and environmental challenges. The high rate usage of biomass fuel for cooking in the region calls for urgent reversal. There is need to increase the supply of not only environmentally friendly energy sources for cooking but also the cooking facilities. This may require incentives from both the governments of SSA and international partners to induce households to ensure gradual if not rapid transition from biomass to more environmentally friendly energy sources.
- iv. The region has invested much on education and health care and could have achieved greater outcomes than it has achieved in terms of universal primary education and reduction of child mortality rate maternal mortality rate and combat of HIV/AIDS. There is need to improve on the management of investment in education and health. Policies to encourage access to facilities as well as the functionality of facilities should be pursued with vigour. In fact, given the importance of education for household welfare, it is imperative to increase access of household members, especially women, to education so as to accelerate poverty reduction as well as infant and child mortality decline.
- v. The issue of corruption and embezzlement of public fund should be addressed squarely and recovered funds should be channeled to core MDG areas that can fast track sustained growth and development of the region. The use of debt relief in this regard should be appraised and all necessary efforts should be made to block leakages of public resources and ensure that public expenditure are effective and result oriented.

References

Africa Development Bank (2011). Africa Statistical Year Book 2011.

Ndedi A. A. and Bunwareees. (2007): NEPAD and the Millennium Development Goals: The roles of African government

Sachs, J. D. (2006) Foreign and Skeptics thrive on pessimism Los Angeles Times, issue of may 7, 2006.

Sachs, J. D. and Reid W. V. (2006). Investments Towards Sustainable Development. Published by SCIENCE MAGAZINE. 9th may 2006. Vol 312 www.1002.sciencemag.org.

UN (2005): United Nation Millennium Project: Investing in Development: A Practical Plan to Achieve the MDG goals.

UN (2006): The Millennium Development Goals Reports.

UNDP (2004): The Millennium Development Goals. Available at <http://www.undp.org>.

UNIDO (2004): Industrialization, Environment and Millennium Development Goals in Sub-Saharan African

APPENDIX

Millennium Development Goals, target and indicators for the monitoring of progress		
Goals and Targets		Indicators for Monitoring Progress
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger		
Target 1:	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar day.	1. Proportion of population below \$1 (PPP) per day. 2. Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty]. 3. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption..
Target 2:	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.	4. Prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age. 5. Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption.
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education		
Target 3:	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.	6. Net enrolment ratio in primary education. 7. Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5. 8. Literacy rate of 15–24 year-olds.
Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women		
Target 4:	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015.	9. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education. 10. Ratio of literate women to men, 15–24 years old. 11. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. 12. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament.
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality		

Target 5:	Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, then under-five mortality rate.	13. Under-five mortality rate. 14. Infant mortality rate. 15. Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles.
Goal 5: Improve maternal health		
Target 6:	Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio.	16. Maternal mortality ratio. 17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel.
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases		
Target 7:	Halt by 2015 the spread of HIV/AIDS and have begun to reverse it.	18. HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15–24 years. 19. Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate. 19A. Condom use at last high-risk sex. 19B. Percentage of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS. 19C. Contraceptive prevalence rate. 20. Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10–14years.
Target 8:	Halt by 2015 the incidence of malaria and other major diseases and have begun to reverse them.	21. Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria. 22. Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures. 23. Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis. 24. Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under DOTS.
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability		
Target 9:	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources.	25. Proportion of land area covered by forest. 26. Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area. 27. Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per \$1 GDP (PPP). 28. Carbon dioxide emissions per capita and consumption of ozonedepleting CFCs (ODP tons). 29. Proportion of population using solid fuels.

Target 10:	Halve by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.	30. Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural. 31. Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural.
Target 11:	Achieve by 2020 a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.	32. Proportion of households with access to secure tenure.
Goal 3: Develop a global partnership for development		
Target 12:	Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, nondiscriminatory trading and financial system. This includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction, nationally and internationally.	<i>Official development assistance</i> 33. Net ODA, total and to the LDCs, as a percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income. 34. Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation).
Target 13:	Address the special needs of the least developed countries. This includes: tariff- and quota-free access for LDCs' exports; enhanced program of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction	35. Proportion of bilateral ODA of OECD/DAC donors that is untied. 36. ODA received in landlocked countries as a proportion of their gross national incomes. 37. ODA received in small island developing States as proportion of their gross national incomes.

Target 14:	Address the special needs of landlocked countries and small island developing States.	<i>Market access</i> 38. Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and from the LDCs, admitted free of duty.
Target 15:	Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term.	39. Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries. 40. Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as a percentage of their gross domestic product. 41. Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity. <i>Debt sustainability</i> 42. Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative). 43. Debt relief committed under HIPC Initiative. 44. Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services.
Target 16:	In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth.	45. Unemployment rate of young people aged 15-24 years, each sex and total.
Target 17:	In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries.	46. Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis.
Target 18:	In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications.	47. Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population. 48A. Personal computers in use per 100 population. 48B. Internet users per 100 population.
<p><i>Source:</i> UN (2003) "Millennium Development Goals". http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mi/pdf/mdglist.pdf. <i>Note:</i> Goals, targets and indicators effective 8 September 2003.</p>		

GENDER INEQUALITY IN NIGERIA: POLITICAL STATISTICS AND BIBLICAL IMPERATIVES

By

UMAHI, GAIUS A [PHD]

*DIRECTOR, FOUNDATION DIPLOMA PROGRAMME AND LECTURER, RELIGIOUS STUDIES
DEPARTMENT, BABCOCK UNIVERSITY, ILISAN-REMO, OGUN STATE*

OKEZIE, GOODLUCK N

*LECTURER, ECONOMICS, BANKING AND FINANCE DEPARTMENT, BABCOCK UNIVERSITY,
ILISAN-REMO, OGUN STATE*

Abstract

The correlation of statistics and Biblical imperatives was designed to review theory, literature and empirical findings in studies of gender equality and see how they can be viewed from the scriptural point of view. Gender equality spans many areas including politics, economics, society, religion, career, security, domestic duties etc. This work looked at the political indicators in Sub-Saharan Africa, specifically Nigeria, as they concern gender equality in the region. To achieve this, the following variables was modeled: The number of seats occupied by women in the Lower or Single House or National Assembly (NWOA), Upper House or Senate (NWS), State Houses (NWS) and State Houses of Assembly (NWSHA) from 1999 to 2011. These variables were looked at from the perspective of the number of seats available for the political positions. Descriptive statistics (pie and box plot) and Granger Causality were used to describe the data outlay and derive the causal relationships of the variables, respectively. It was expected that the data analysis results will establish gender inequality against women, in regard to NWOA, NWS, NWS and NWSHA in the Nigerian government. These indicators go a long way to suggest that gender equality, as understood today, was not the intention of God during the creation week and after. We argued that biblically and politically, equality cannot exist between men and women. While this was not the original plan of God, men and women are functionally different. Their different functions are complementary but not competitive. Arguably, therefore the pursuit of gender equality as ignited and fuelled by the negligence of men to love, care and protect the women folk and the consequent radical feminism, will at the end, be utopian in approach and outcome. The drive should be towards gender co-operation, in the stead of gender equality.

JEL: J-Labour and Demographic Economics.

Introduction

The bases for the drive for gender equality are a derivative of the huge evidences of gender inequality. Global political statistics of 2011 show that there are 37,790 seats for Single, Lower House or National Assembly. Women occupy 7,156 of that. At the Upper House or Senate, there are 6, 861 seats. Women occupy 1,250 seats. The data is highly skewed against women. The ratio is that for every five seats in the National Assembly and the Senate there are 4 men and 1 woman.

Regional averages show that Sub-Saharan Africa has 19.0% and 19.7% women occupying the House of Representatives and Senate, respectively. (IPU, 2011). Out of 186 countries in the world, Nigeria ranked between the 113th – 118th positions in world classifications of women in national parliaments for 2007 to 2011. (IPU, 2011). In reality, woman's representation in public life is low; this is due to social and religious reasons (Akinyode-Afolabi and Arogundade, 2003). One of the reasons the MDGs program was established was to engender gender equality.

The objectives of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are as follows: eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; promote gender equality and empower women; achieve universal primary education; reduce child mortality; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; improve maternal health; ensure environmental sustainability and develop a global partnership for development (Olaitan, 2005). The adoption of the MDGs by many countries around the world is a huge act of faith and should ordinarily be extolled. However, some of them deserve closer attention. This is especially so when we realize that all of those goals are expected to be realized by 2015. While the time frame may be the hindrance for some of them to be realized, for others, there is something fundamentally questionable. Pointedly, gender equality. The Bible appears to be at variance with the MDGs objective on gender equality. Is gender equality trying to upturn the veritable word of God?

In providing possible answer to the above question, this work focuses solely on gender (in)equality, one of the objectives which has received a lot of attention in recent times. The interest is to show that based on some selected biblical imperatives and a statistical evaluation of 1999 - 2011 indicators in Nigerian politics, the present quest for achieving gender equality may not be possible after all. However, it appears that some levels of success may be achieved when all the finances and gender policies of the various nations and governments have been implemented, but eventually, the feminists' and perhaps, our corporate dream of 'equalitarianism' needs a biblical interpretation of the statistical facts and figures.

Conceptual background

The scheme for this work is to evaluate political data on the identified variables and then use scriptural texts on gender inequality in the interpretation of the results. This procedure sustains the argument that the standard of the Bible on gender issues predates empiricism, statistical facts and figures. Thus, the conceptual framework of the study is presented as:

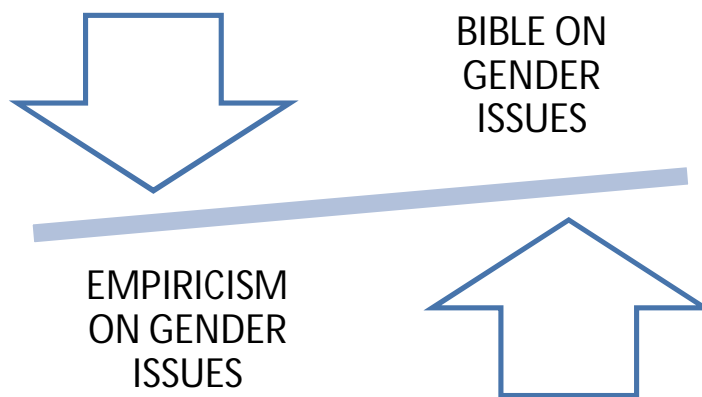
Figure one : Relationship of gender in(equality) and theology



The correct understanding of gender issues in respect to the Bible, calls for an obedient interpretation of scriptural texts on the subject. This is the only way empirical evidences on the issue can be accepted by both male and female. This will lead to a cordial and functional coexistence between the genders. Thus, an appropriate use of empiricism will enhance the theology of the gender agenda.

Problem: literature and observation confirm that theology and empiricism, as per gender issues are developing in opposite directions. This movement has created a confusion, which calls for an epistemological review of the Bible, to project God's position in regard to the status of male and female in the home, governance and society.

Figure two: A scheme of the indirect positions of theology and empiricism



Consequently, in African politics, elections result to violence. In the past and specifically, the 2011 elections in Nigeria resulted to the death of more than 500 people. The violence is often more against women. This has been the case in Nigeria, Uganda and Zimbabwe (UN women, 2011).

Objectives

The main objective of this paper is to use theology to explain the empiricism on gender issues. Specifically, the following objectives will be considered:

- i. Review the current state of gender issues in Nigeria using selected political statistics
- ii. Examine if men and women are created equal from scriptural perspective
- iii. Investigate evidences of male- female inequalities
- iv. Create a biblical balance in the in(equality) of male and female

Methodology

This study analyzes data set of 1999 to 2011. The relevant variables are:

- Number of seats available and number occupied by women in the National Assembly

- Number of seats available and number occupied by woman in the Senate
- Number of seat available and number occupied by women in State Houses
- Number of seats available and number occupied by women in the State Houses of Assembly

A better understanding of the data requires a concise description of each.

Table one: codes and description of relevant variables

Variable code/meaning	Variable description
NSNA [Number of seats available in national assembly]	The number of seats that were available in national assembly for election during the study years
NSS [number of seats available in Senate]	The number of seats that were available in Senate for election during the study years
NWONA [number of women in National Assembly]	The number of women who are elected into the national assembly of Nigeria
NWIS [number of women in Senate]	The number of women who are elected into the Senate of Nigeria
NSIS [Number of seats in States]	The number of gubernatorial seats available in the 36 states of Nigeria
NWOIS [Number of women in States]	The number of women who occupy gubernatorial seats in states
NSISHA [Number of seats in State Houses of Assembly]	The number of seats available in the states houses of assembly
NWOISHA [Number of women in State Houses of Assembly]	The number of women in state houses of assembly

To model the Granger Causality, four models will be created from the variables listed.

Model one: $NWONA = f(NSNA)$ or $NWONA = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NSNA + \mu \dots \dots (1)$.

Model two: $NWIS = f(NSS)$ or $NWIS = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NSS + \mu \dots \dots \dots (2)$.

Model three: $NWOIS = f(NSIS)$ or $NWOIS = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NSIS + \mu \dots \dots \dots (3)$.

Model four: $NWOISHA = f(NSISHA)$ or $NWOISHA = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NSISHA + \mu \dots \dots \dots (4)$.

Hypothesis:

H0: $F_{NSNA, NSS, NSIS, NSISHA} = 0$

H1: $F_{NSNA, NSS, NSIS, NSISHA} \neq 0$

In Nigeria, elections are conducted every four years. As a result, there were elections in 1999, 2003, 2007 and 2011. Thus, there is a steady state of political elections during the intervening periods of 2000 to 2002; 2004 to 2006 and 2008 to 2010. Runoff elections were held at some points of these intervening periods (Alabi, 2011: 6), but they do not form consistent records for analysis. Based on the assumed steady states of the intervening periods, the numeral 1 was used as the data number for those periods when elections did not hold. It is expected that this will have no significant effects on the impact of the explanatory variables on the independent variable.

Table two: Number of seats available and number occupied by women in National House of Assembly, the Senate, State Houses and State Houses of Assembly.

Years	Seats available and occupied [house of assembly]		Seats available and occupied [Senate]		Seats available and occupied [state houses]		Seats available and occupied [state houses of assembly]	
	NSNA	NWONA	NSS	NWIS	NSIS	NWOIS	NSISHA	NWOISHA
1999	351	12	108	3	36	0	990	12
2000	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2001	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2002	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2003	360	22	109	4	36	0	990	38
2004	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2005	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2006	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2007	358	25	109	9	36	0	990	54
2008	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2009	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2010	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2011	352	13	109	4	36	0	990	67

Sources: Afolabi and Argundade, 2003: 96; IPU, 1999, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010 & 2011; iKNOWPOLITICS, 2011.

Selected biblical imperatives

For the purpose of this discussion, some texts from the Old and New Testaments of the Bible will be used. These are Genesis 1-3, 1 Cor. 11:2-9 and Ephesians 5: 22-25. While these are the major building blocks, some other biblical examples will be explored. The creation story of Adam and Eve in Genesis Chapter 2, seem to indicate that they were not equal. Adam was created before Eve and she was created from the man and for the man (vss. 7, 18, 21-23). It means that Adam had spent some reasonable number of hours (technically, and theologically believing that the Hebrew *yomis* equivalent to one day of 24 hours) before the emergence of Eve. It was after the man had given names to all the animals and other created things that God said in verse 18 “It is not good that man should be alone; I will make him a helper comparable to him.”

Although White, 1988:25 posits that “in the creation, God had made her [Eve] the equal of Adam,” but after the fall, she was “placed in subjection to her husband,” it was still the responsibility of the man, as given by God, “to love and protect her.” We will therefore suggest that the type of equality that came to the fore in the creation account, prior to the fall, was purely an internal - domesticated equality. In this

instance, both of them knew within themselves that they were both the work of God's hand and humans alike. Adam did not create Eve nor was he divine while Eve was human. So, in that respect, they were equal but the other way round, for the fact that Adam came first, and for the fact that God even commanded him to love and 'protect' her, the argument of complete equality is very slim. This inequality is evident in different cultures of the world, and cannot be torpedoed by sloganialism in the various activities of the feminist movements. Thus, based on a proto-anthropological perspective, it cannot be true that complete equality, as believed and hoped by some feminists, and included in the MDGs, can exist between man and woman.

Another aspect of this inequality possibility lies in the culturally sacrosanct practice of making the woman to be the one who will leave her father and mother and join a man in his own home during monogamous marriages. The reverse will be an aberration and biblically unacceptable. Consequently, at least in many cultures, the woman's name is subsequently subsumed into that of her husband. Interestingly, all of these happen joyfully without any agitation from the women who are thus married. Even today, in the face of feminists push for equality, women still do not bother having their names subsumed into that of the men. Their challenge and prayer usually concern the possibility of finding the men who will agree to marry them not with the drive for equality.

Interestingly, this push and agitation for equality is often coming from quarters where God's principles and laws are not respected. Many women are excellently happy with their husbands though they instinctively and consciously know that their husbands are apparently in charge as heads. Such godly women enjoy enormous peace in their homes and do not feel threatened in any way. In the context of the temptation and fall, White, (1988: 25) has observed that:

Eve had been perfectly happy by her husband's side in her Eden home; but, like modern Eves, she was flattered with the hope of entering a higher sphere than that which God had assigned her. *In attempting to rise above her original position, she fell far below it. A similar result will be reached by all who are unwilling to take up cheerfully their life duties in accordance with God's plan.* In their efforts to reach positions for which He has not fitted them, many are leaving vacant the place where they might be a blessing. In their desire for a higher sphere, many have sacrificed true womanly dignity, and nobility of character, and have left undone the very work that Heaven appointed them (*Italics ours*).

Further, the events in chapter three of Genesis still show, consistently, that man is the head of the woman mainly because he was created first and for the fact he was not the one who was directly deceived. Following the remarkably disappointing disobedience of man to God, though the woman was directly deceived, God did not call Eve to question but the man (Gen. 3:9-12). This shows that God still reckons with the headship of man even after the fall. There is an interesting inverse pattern in verses 9-19. Here, when God accosted the man, the man blamed the woman and she blamed the serpent (3:9-13). God's direction of discipline shows a reverse order. He begins with the serpent, then Eve and then the man. Thus we see the man at both ends of the chiasm while the woman and the serpent are sandwiched. Diagrammatically, this looks like this:

Figure three: STAGE ONE: God's questioning process at Eden

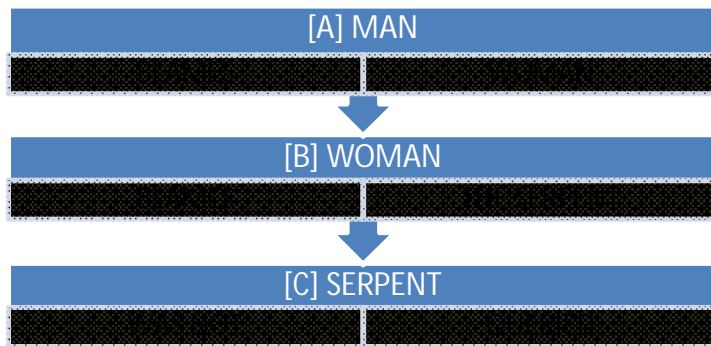
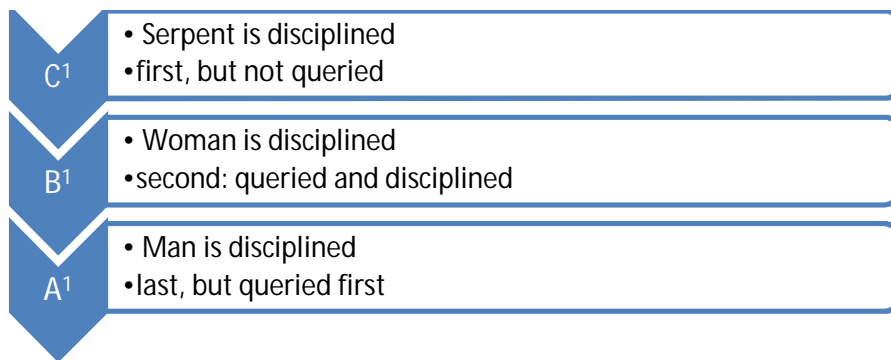


Figure four: Stage two: God's direction of discipline at Eden



The discipline details of Eve shows another twist in the inequality thrust of the Genesis account. Apart from the conception and birth sorrows and pains, the woman desires or interests of the woman were to be for or toward her husband. And most strikingly, the last part of verse 16 says, “and he shall rule over you.” This is not an equality language at all. In as much as this concept of ruling does not suggest absolute subordination and domination, it sheds enough light on the impossibility of equality in the first few chapters of Genesis. In fact, it continues to emphasize the imperative of inequality of the sexes.

This inequality argument is also towed by Paul in 1 Cor. 11:3-9. In verse 3, he posits that “the head of every man is Christ, the head of woman is man, and the head of Christ is God.” This declaration, according to (Elwell 1984:497) implies that *kephale* (head) is “normally understood to designate a position of superiority or rule.” Moreover, he added that “in any case, for Paul the headship of the male does involve a superiority of rank and authority” (Elwell, 1984: 497). Further in verses 8 and 9 he quotes from Genesis 2 to buttress his headship theology. He says, “For a man is not from woman, but woman from man. Nor was man created for the woman, but woman for the man.” The first part agrees with Genesis idea of the woman being made from the rib which was taken out of the man while the second part agrees with the fact that woman was made as a helper to the man. This does not imply total subordination of the woman to the man, but a kind of a symbiotic relationship. Paul seems to suggest this symbiotic idea in verses 11 and 12: “Nevertheless, neither is man independent of woman, nor woman independent of man, in the Lord. For as woman came from man, even so man also comes through woman; but all things are from God.”

Ephesians 5: 21-25 reads

Submitting to one another in the fear of Christ (God). Wives, submit to your own husbands, as to the Lord. For the husband is head of the wife, as also Christ is head of the Church; and he is the Savior of the body. Therefore, just as the church is subject to Christ, so let the wives be to their own husbands in everything. Husbands love your wives, just as Christ also loved the church and gave Himself for her (NKJV).

In the original Greek, the word translated *submitting* is ὑποτασσομενοι (*hypotassomenoi*) which is grammatically a present, middle, participle word. It is a combination of two Greek words, υπο (under) and τασσω (to place or arrange). According to (Moulton, 1978: 419), the word could have the following shades of meaning: “to place or arrange under, to submit oneself, render obedience, be submissive.” It is interesting to notice Paul’s symbiotic expectation in verse 21 (submitting to one another) but at the same time becoming more specific from verses 22-24. Although Adeyemo (2006:1436) suggests that “this divine arrangement does not imply that women are in any way inferior to men”, it should be noted that the submission of wives to husbands remains inviolate. Paul specifically charges wives to submit to their husbands because the husband is the *head* of the wife. In fact, he becomes more categorical when he added, ‘in everything.’ However, it is note worthy that only those men, according to White (1980: 117), who are submissive to Christ should expect this kind of submission from their wives. We can deduce here that while the woman is to submit (place or arrange under) herself to her husband (imperative of command), if he is also obedient and submissive to Christ, the man is to love his wife (imperative of command) while both should submit (showing deference) to one another.

Continuing with this gender inequality discourse, the argument of church leadership and administration comes to mind. From the O.T priesthood order to the N.T church leadership pattern, it is also clear that women and men are not equal. Throughout the Old Testament, we see a consistent pattern where men are the only ones who are saddled with the responsibility of leading the people of God. In this, Aaron and his male descendants are the only ones to interface with God and bring succor to His people. This same pattern is also observed in the New Testament. Commencing with the call of the 12 apostles and other church leaders like Paul, Stephen, Timothy, Titus etc, it is crystal clear that men and women are not equal from the ecclesiastical perspective and any attempt (like one of the MDGs present agenda) will not only be an affront to the biblical imperatives but will ultimately be an effort in futility because the wise God did not design it that way. The cliché, two captains cannot pilot a ship, becomes germane here and further authenticates this argument.

According to (Akao 2000:85), the Bible has copious references “where greater premium or value is put on the males as against their female counterparts, who were adjudged insignificant and grouped with children.” The argument of gender inequality or male emphasis in the Scriptures infers that the Jewish culture did not favor women. Manus (1984:185) corroborates this positing that in ancient Judaism, women did not fare well. They were fully despised and denigrated. In fact, (King and Stage, 2001:57) observe that “the law of Deuteronomy 24:1-4 gives only the husband, not the wife, the power to initiate divorce proceedings, and at any time and for any reason, without an obligation to provide for her support.”

The extension of this argument means that if the women had written or at least contributed in its writing, the gender imbalance would not have been there. While one may be tempted to sympathize with the

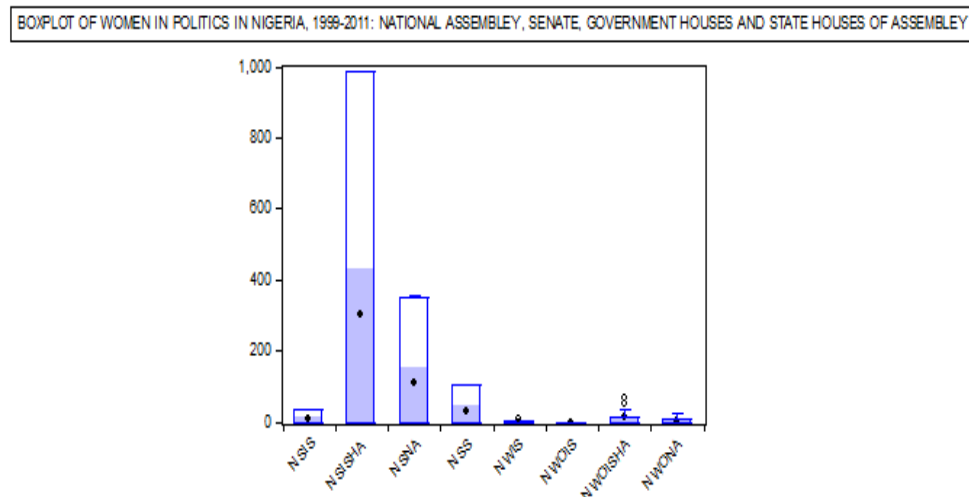
above thought, the point is that God never makes mistakes. If He allowed it, then we should respect it. We will further posit that this de-emphasis of women against their male counterparts is not limited to the Jews, there is the “pervasiveness of patriarchy in all cultures and societies, in Scripture, theology and the Church.” (Olalekan, 2004:129). It is seen in Aristotelian philosophy and Anthropology as well as the Judeo- Christian Traditions (Olalekan:129).

In the Athenian society, women were generally excluded from education and politics and were expected to obey men (Umahi,2010: 82). In the Roman society, their law required that the male head of the nuclear or extended family controls women. This control extends even to life and death (Umahi, 2010: 84). It has been contended, that all of this low view of women and inequality stems from the Hellenizing effect of the Greco-Roman world. As was observed earlier, the Jewish cultural and religious practices have impacted much of our world today. So, just as “women did not have the same status with men in the ancient world,” (Schreiner, 2008:768), they do not now nor ever will be because of the biblical imperatives argued for in this paper. However when it comes to the issue of salvation, there is equality (Gal. 3: 28).

Data analysis and discussion

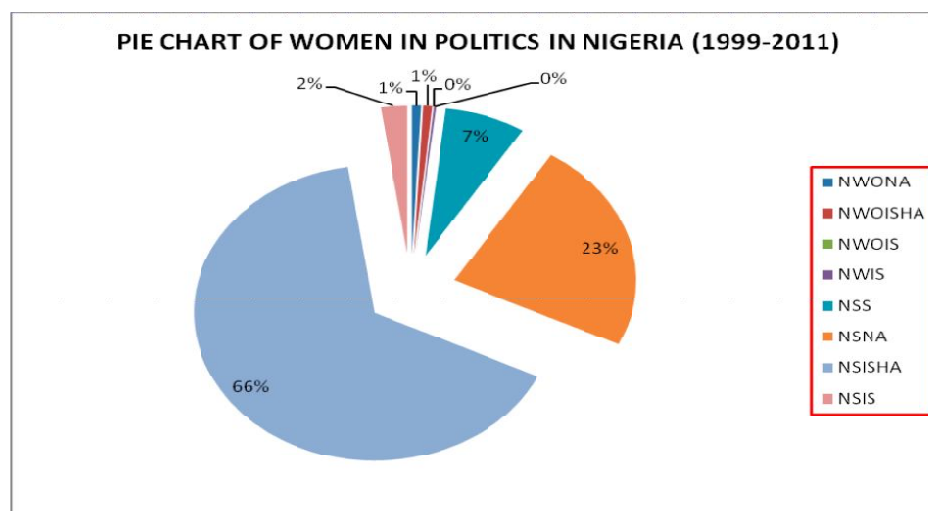
The data analysis consist of charts and granger causality tests. The charts describe the data, while the granger tests were used to evaluate the hypotheses

Figure five:



The number of seats available converge around an average of approximately 36 - 990 seats per year. This is geometrically represented by the box graph for NSNA. Moving from NWOIS to NWOISHA, the seats occupied by women averaged of 0 – 43 seats. The male politicians claimed an average of 36 – 949 seats. This is clarified and supported by the pie chart that follows. Out of the 66% seats available in National assembly, women occupy 7%. This implies that men occupy 93% of the 66%. This negative skewness runs through from senate to state house of assembly. Are women worse off because of male political leadership? Should women be worse due to male leadership in politics?

Figure six:



SOURCE: DATA ANALYSIS, 2011

Table four: Pair wise Granger Causality Tests.

Date: 07/13/11 Time: 10:08

Sample: 1999 2011

Lags: 2

Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Prob.
NWOIS does not Granger Cause NSIS	11	NA	NA
NWOISHA does not Granger Cause NSISHA	11	0.00000	1.0000
NWONA does not Granger Cause NSNA	11	0.00015	0.9998
NWIS does not Granger Cause NSS	11	1.10005	1.0000

The probabilities are all approximately 1. This means that the likelihood of occurrence of the causal relationship is certain. From the table, the $f\text{-statistic}_{\text{calculated}}$ are :

- NWOISHA and NSISHA = 0.00000
- NWONA and NSNA – 0.00015
- NWIS and NSS = 1.1005.

The $f\text{-statistic}_{\text{tabulated}}$ is 4.69. As a general rule, high values of calculated $f\text{-statistic}$, imply the rejection of the null hypothesis. (Koutsoyiannis, 1977: 142). Since these figures are small, the null hypotheses are accepted. This means that none of the independent variables has a causal effect on any the dependent

variables. This is possible because the numbers of females that get elected are too insignificant to make any recognizable impact on the number of seats available for each category of elective posts.

Theology and Empiricism of gender equality in Nigeria.

Christian Epistemology emphasizes the derivation of truth from the Bible. Thus, a comparison of the statistical facts and theology on gender equality is apparent. God made the man and the woman to live together in symbiotic harmony. While the man is the head of the woman, she is the helper. From the Augmented Dickey-Fuller and Phillips–Perron unit tests, the Granger Causality, pie and box plot charts, the political environment in Nigeria agrees with the headship of the man over the woman, but gender equality promotion is slowly removing the woman from her God appointed place beside the man. Even though the authority of the man gave him power *and* position over the woman, this authority “... placed *him* under greater obligation to serve his fellows” (White, 2005: 339), in this case the woman. So, in the mind of God, men as head were supposed to serve women in a loving protection and care in the homes, government and workplace. This is the true headship of the man. In the absence of this, women seeking liberation through gender equality and as part of the MDGs projects will be utopian. We believe that the objective of the MDGs in respect to gender issues should not be “gender equality”, but “gender co-operation”. This can be met as men do not seek their own profit only (1 Cor. 9: 19; and 10:33), but also the good of their women. So, while the gender discussions are very important, the unguarded quest for complete equality seems to be driving on the wrong side of the road.

This is because it discourages the men from fulfilling their God-given work, but rather prepares them for war against women. The model of counterpart funding in executing MDGs programs presents a progressive partnership. In the same way men and women are partners in progress.

Their positions play different but specific functions to each of them. Gender peace is possible only as each of them functions within his or her sphere of authority .thus, “no one is to control another’s mind, to judge for another or to prescribe his(*her*) duty... no one has a right to merge his(*her*) own individuality in that of another” (White, 339). This means that women are not properties, they are not objects, rather they are human beings with right to think and act in obedience to God’s will for them. Thus, women have ownership right to landed properties and other properties; they have social rights and physical integrity. These rights do not vitiate the headship of the man over the woman.

Conclusion

Theology and empiricism on gender in(equality) in Nigeria agree. Men are leading. However, there is often a neglect of the male responsibility of care and protection of the woman. Is the solution gender equality? The MDGs and other numerous programs and policies suggest areas of actions to achieve gender quality. Such suggestions surround projects that present women as unimportant humans, who require to be made relevant. Truthfully, women have fine features, which require the male protection and care. What is needed is a biblical approach to this problem. The focus on gender issues may be directed to the following: Programs and policies that encourage the care and protection of women by men and recognition of the women’s functions as help-mates. These will lead to gender peace and symbiosis, through gender co-operation, not equality.

References

Adeyemo, T. (2006). African Bible Commentary. Nairobi: WordAlive Publishers.

Akao, J.O. (2000). "Ordination of Women: Arguments for and against with a Nigerian Perspective" in Orita, Ibadan Journal of Religious Studies, XXX11/1-2 June and December.

Akinyode-Afolabi, A and Arogundade, L (2003), "Gender Audit 2003 Election and issues in women's political participation in Nigeria", WARDC.

Alabi, Williams (2011), "Elections over, time to work", The guardian, Sunday.

Elwell, W.A. (1984). Evangelical Dictionary of Theology. Grand Rapids: Baker Book House.

iKNOWPOLITICS (2011), "International knowledge Network of Women in Politics "In 2011 Nigerian Election Updates: Voting Results for Governorship & State assembly coverage, allafrica.com/stories/201106130719.html. and <http://www.theinfostrides.com/?topic=14364.0#ixzz1RsjpgHii>.

IPU (2011), "Nigeria Senate and national assembly", INEC 2011, Governorship/State Assembly Election Coverage. http://www.ipu.org/parline/reports/2363_E.htm and <http://www.inecnigeria.org/>. Accessed, July 11, 2011.

IPU (2011), Women in Parliament, <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>. Accessed, May 22, 2011.

IPU (2011), women in parliament: regional averages, <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>. Accessed, May, 2011.

IPU (2011), women in parliament: world averages, <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>. Accessed, May, 2011.

King, J. Philip and Stager, E.Lawrence, (2001), Life in Biblical Israel. London: Westminster John Knox Press.

Koutsoyiannis, A (1977), "Theory of Econometrics", (2e), London: Macmillan.

Manus, C.U. (2004). "The Subordination of the Women in the Church, 1 Co 14: 33b-36 Reconsidered" in Revue Africaine de Theologie vol.8, n.16, (Kinshasa: Faculte deTheologie Catholique.

Moulton, H.K. (1978) The Analytical Greek Lexicon. Grand Rapids: Zondervan Publishing House.

Olaitan, M. A (2005), Poverty Reduction through Micro Finance: The case of Pakistan. Central Bank of Nigeria, Bullion, vol. 30.

Olalekan, D.A. (2004). "Paul and the Modern Feminism Perspective: An African Overview" in Insight: Journal of Religious Studies.

Schreiner, T.R. (2008). Grand Rapids: Baker Academic.

Umahi, G.A. (2010). Head Covering in Selected Churches in Igboland, Nigeria. Saarbrucken, Germany: VDM Verlag Dr. Muller GmbH & KG.

UN WOMEN (2011) "Nigeria: Tracking Electoral Violence against Women in real time" In united nations entity for gender equity and the empowerment of women. <http://www.unwomen.org/2011/04/nigeria-tracking-electoral-violence-against-women-in-real-time/>. Accessed July 11, 2011.

White, E. G. (2005), *The Desire of Ages*, USA: Pacific Press Publishing Co.

White, E.G. (1980). *The Adventist Home*, Hagerstown MD: Review and Herald Publishing Association.

White, E.G. (1890). *Patriarchs and Prophets*. Washington, D.C: Review and Herald Publishing Association.

UNENDING CONFLICTS IN NIGERIA: A CONSTRAINT TO ATTAINMENT OF MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS.

By
DAVID OLADIMEJI ALAO,
BABCOCK UNIVERSITY

Abstract

The study aimed at examining the implementation of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria and the challenges posed by unending sectarian conflicts. It is a descriptive study that relied heavily on secondary sources of data while qualitative method was adopted in presenting the result. The study observed noticeable achievement in respect of the implementation of education, child mortality, maternal health, HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases programmes. However, a nation with abundance of natural resources, one of the least records of ecological disasters globally and friendly climate achieved very little in respect of poverty reduction, gender equality, empowerment of women and environmental sustainability. The study opined that the preponderance of conflicts contributed to loss of government revenue, hindered productivity in agriculture and other sectors, diverted attention of policy makers and caused misallocation of resources to conflict management rather than socio-economic infrastructures that could have reduced poverty and transformed the lives of the citizenry. The study recommended good governance based on political legitimacy and sustainable development partly as solution to unending conflicts to fast track the process of attaining the MDGs by 2015.

Introduction

The efforts of the world leaders that gathered at the United Nations Millennium Summit and developed eight goals to guide international development efforts In September 2000, is one of the enviable policies to achieve sustainable development Worldwide. Eight cardinal objectives/ goals were clearly enunciated towards the achievement of these goals. These are: (1) To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. (2) To achieve universal primary education. (3) To promote gender equality and empower women. (4) To reduce child mortality. (5) To improve maternal health (6) To combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other infectious diseases. (7). To ensure environmental sustainability; (8) To develop a global partnership for development.

Nations in Africa are at various stages in implementation of MDGs and various reports at the United Nations reflect the areas of successes and the challenges that might not make the goals realizable by 2015. One of such constraints identified in this study is the preponderance of conflicts. Indeed, no meaningful development can be achieved in a situation of violence and protracted conflicts. This explains why this study attempts to locate the impact of conflict on attainment of MDGs and to recommend measures to ensure the attainment by 2015.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are:

1. To evaluate the implementation of the MDG from 2000 - 2010.
2. Assess the effects of conflict on the attainment of MDGs in Nigeria from 2000 - 2010.

3. To recommend measures for attaining the MDGs by 2015.

Statement of Problem

One of the greatest challenges facing Africa, a continent blessed with abundance of natural resource, good climate and where natural disaster is lowest of all continents is leadership. This has led to high level of corruption and significant proportion of the population is living in abject poverty, thereby causing crises of control and survival and conflict dominating relationship. The Conflict Related Death Map (1990-2007) shows that 88% of the death related conflicts worldwide are located in Africa. Osaghea (2005) listed about thirty five different conflicts in Nigeria from 1999-2006. Such conflicts alter the focus of government; divert resources to less productive sector, destruction of lives that are part of those targeted in MDGs as well as the destruction of property. Therefore, a situation of an unending conflict constitutes a serious challenge to attainment of MDGs. This explains why this study attempts to investigate the journey so far and what could be done to fast-track the attainment of the MDG as 2015 is around the corner.

Methodology

The study was descriptive while data were collected from secondary sources. These consisted of available governmental records, relevant text books, journals, newspapers and internet. Qualitative method of analysis (content analysis) was adopted on the basis of which deduction and recommendations were made.

Literature Review

The goal of this section is to provide needed background for conflict and modernization as well as the impacts on the attainment of MDGs. Azaiki (2003.30) describes Nigeria as a multi- ethnic, multi- lingua and multi- cultural nation that can safely be regarded as a mega state, and a rainbow nation. Deutch, Coleman & Marcus (2006) and Shinwari (2011) see conflict as disagreement in varying degree between two groups to attain a goal that is not mutually attainable. Dominant in Nigeria are ethnic, religious, political, territorial and economic conflicts. Hence, scholars refer to them as sectarian conflict. Conflict for the purpose of this study is disagreement that leads to mass disruption of socio – economic life causing death, displacement of the people, and compounding the problem of poverty, hunger, disease and negatively affecting the attainment of MDGs by 2015.

Development according to Riggs (1980.25) in Sapru (2008) 'is concerned not only with raising the levels of economic production and consumption, but with freedom, justice, security and the basic integrity of man as a human being.' Riggs and Krishna (1987.35) see development as "a process whereby human societies become less determined by environmental constraints, and more able to shape their own destiny".

Lipset's (1959) opines that economic development sets off a series of profound social changes that together tend to produce democracy, provided that there is political penetration and participation as these are critically lacking in Nigeria. This explains why most of the measures taken by the government to solve a particular problem end up generating negative reaction and opposition.

Inglehart (2005) argues that mass cultural and attitudinal changes are the crucial intervening variables between economic development and political outcomes. Rueschemeyer (1992), among others in contrast, argues that the most important intervening variable is the changing balance of class forces in society. Boix (2002), Acemoglu (2005), and Robinson (2005) concentrate their analysis on the ways in which economic inequality and stratification influence a country's regime type, though they disagree over the

precise role played by inequality and stratification patterns. In effect, crisis of control and survival invariably lead to conflictual relationships that significantly affect the implementation of the MDGs in Nigeria.

Theoretical Framework

The task of attaining the MDGs by 2015 is largely predicated on how the government can cope with the challenges of deficient inherited colonial structure, ethnic plurality and religious intolerance among others that generate conflict. The task of modernizing makes modernization theory relevant for this study, as it shall combine elements of systemic/structural and frustration aggression theories.

Dryzek (2008) traced modernization theory back to the age of enlightenment, when scholars started to investigate how society changed and progressed. The emphasis at this phase of modernization theory was that humans were able to change their society within a generation, and that this change was often facilitated by modern inventions (Lewis (1955), Parsons (1963), Lerner (1958) in Apter (1969). Rosenau (1964) among others argues that change contributes to revolutionary potential rather than eradicating disaffections. Hence, the greater change occasioned by modernization process, the higher the likelihood of intra-societal violence. Though the theory was discarded in early 1970s because of parochial assumptions on development tailored along Western perception, there is renewed vigor with the emergence of globalization. Modernization theory according to McGuigan (2011) is a grand theory encompassing many different disciplines as it seeks to explain how society progresses, what variables affect that progress, and how societies can react to that progress.

The aspect of modernization relevant to this study is that modernization is a special kind of hope, it consists of all the past revolutions of history and all the supreme human desires (Apter, 1969). The revolutions with specific reference to Nigeria consists of transition from traditional to colonial society and finally as an independent nations with its strains and hopes. Hence, Coleman (1960) suggests that “competitiveness is an essential aspect of political modernity, but not all competitive systems are modern”. Competition for political gains that could not be properly managed, produces its own seed of conflict. This explains why many scholars attempt to link modernization with conflict and social disorder (Feldman and Hurn, (1966), Deutch, (1962) and Olson, (1967) in Anifowose (2006).

Modernization therefore puts the nation in the market place of ideas and ideologies, so compelling that in a complex and pluralistic society like Nigeria, conflicting understanding and management of issues largely generate conflict. McGuyan (2011) notes therefore that as societies modernize, the groups whose aspiration could not be met are often left aggrieved. Such groups use ethnicity or religion platform to instigate conflict particularly if the leadership of such platform commands wider acceptability. This explains the relevance of frustration/ aggression hypothesis as found in the works of Gurr (1939), Feierbends and Ivo (1966) and Anifowose (2006). Globalization however added a new impetus to conflict as events in one part of the world easily impact others within a short time. This explains the new dimension of bombing, kidnapping and other acts of terrorism that manifested in Niger Delta and increasingly rearing its ugly head in Boko-Haram crises to mention but few. Hence, modernization increases the complexity in human affairs within which polity must respond by acting appropriately. To address the challenges of ethnic plurality, and inequality in Nigeria, more states and local councils were created, various revenue formula evolved, the adoption of federal character policy among others could not remove the seeds of mistrust and conflict that had structurally been planted during the era of colonialism. This led to crisis of survival and control due to post independence bad governance, as efforts directed towards national integration was more or less a failure. This explains the relevance of the systemic model

that provides a socio-structural explanation for the origins of violence as there cannot be sufficient understanding of the problems associated with violence or conflict without adequate consideration of the social context within which it occurs.(Johnson, 1966). The prevalence of conflicts in Nigeria therefore hinders the implementation of MDGs the attainment of the eight goals by 2015.

Berman (2009) criticized the modernization theory that it failed to differentiate between the establishment of democracy and its sustainability. Also, the dependency theorists argued that non-Western societies were actually doomed by their position in the international economy to a state of underdevelopment and dependence while the structure of the societies modernizing receives little or no attention in the theory. This led Mushakoji (2009) to observe that modernization or democracy is not an answer to all forms of insecurity. However, some aspects of the theory are significantly relevant to this study as discussed above.

Assessment of Implementation of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria (2000-2010)

The Executive Summary of Nigeria report on MDGs (2010) reveals that the situation is “better than you might expect and likely to speed up”. The gains according to the report manifested in sustained economic growth, improvements in planning and policy, and growing government investment in the social sector. There is however the need to approach the above assessment with caution since there is no uniform degree of success among the thirty six States in Nigeria and what is on ground might run contrary.

The Report on economic growth, particularly in agriculture notes the reduction of the proportion of underweight children, from 35.7 per cent in 1990 to 23.1 per cent in 2008. The reality is to the contrary as Sanusi, (2011) (the Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria) observes that 105 million Nigerians out of 130 million live below poverty line due to poor governance. The Hidden hunger initiatives (2010) identify that poverty/ hunger complicates the task of achieving all the MDGs by 2015 except global partnership and sustainable environment. This study however observes that poverty and hunger equally negatively affect sustainable environment as shall be discussed shortly. However, the growth recorded has not generated enough jobs and the effect on poverty is not yet clear, as the current trends fall far short of the internationally expected projection towards the attainment of MDGs by 2015.

Nigeria is currently facing one of the greatest challenges in respect of ensuring environmental sustainability. Natural resources are some of Nigeria’s most valuable assets but are still brutally destroyed. For example, between 2000 and 2010 the area of forest shrank by a third, from 14.4 per cent to 9.9 per cent of the land area. For instance in the Niger Delta Region, the World Bank environmental specialist David Moffat and Prof. Olof Liden of Stockholm University in Sagay (2006) reported that every year the region is polluted by 2.3 billion cubic metric of oil from some 300 separate spills almost one a day. The end result is that there is acute shortage of portable water, and agriculture (fishing) which is the main economic activity has been destroyed leaving significant majority of the populace in abject poverty. Though the Report notes that access to safe water is now 58.9 per cent and that of sanitation is 51.6 per cent but these figures are doubtful. It is more of double assault on the fragile physical environment as trees were converted to coal due to shortage of kerosene.

The Report notes that 88.8 per cent of the children are now enrolled in school. Youth literacy had risen from 64.1 per cent to 80 per cent between 2000 and 2008. The greatest challenge is that the learning environment is not usually conducive; the quality of the teaching staff is questionable, while teachers' commitment to duty is largely doubtful. The preponderance of conflict often lead to closure of Schools in Bornu, Plateau, Bauchi States to mention but few as this constitutes a serious impediment to attaining the MDGs by 2015.

The Report (2010) notes gradual improvement in the proportion of girls enrolled in primary school. Few women are currently holding political office even when there are many that are competent and dedicated. The data extracted from IPU (1999-2011) (Iknowpolitics) reflects that less than 10 percent of women are in the National Assembly, same is true of every facet of life, such as in gainful employment. The noticeable trend is that there is regional variation in respect of gender equality and women empowerment. However, the current Federal Cabinet is made up of 35 percent female which is a positive development that should be sustained. More attention therefore is required in this specific goal. There is noticeable progress in the reduction of child mortality. Under-five mortality has fallen by nearly a fifth in five years, from 201 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2003, to 157 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2008, according to the Report (2010). In the same period, the infant mortality rate fell significantly from 100 to 75 deaths per 1,000 live births, as Integrated Management of Childhood Illnesses has contributed to these successes. Also, polio eradication has recorded 95% success as at 2008. This agrees with Kim Moon (2011) that commended Nigerian's efforts for the reduction in maternal and child death rates. In spite of conflict, this goal has received a steady progress, while efforts must be sustained to ensure the goal's attainment by 2015.

The Report recorded steady progress in improved maternal health.

Mortality fell by 32%, from 800 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2003 (at that time one of the highest maternal mortality rates in the world) to 545 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2008.

However, the record above does not clearly articulate the ratio of urban coverage as compared to rural dwellers living at the mercy of local birth attendants. To turn the progress to success story by 2015, a regime of peace is not negotiable. The same commendable result has been achieved in eradicating polio by reducing the number of cases by 98 per cent between 2009 and 2010. Another marked success was the reduction in the prevalence of HIV from 5.8% in 2001 to 4.2% in 2008. Awareness and use of contraceptives have also improved, and access to treatment for HIV/AIDS rapidly doubled from 16.7%.

The nationwide distribution of 72 million long-lasting insecticide-treated bed nets, although only in its initial stages, is believed to protect twice as many children (10.9%) in 2009, compared to 2008 (5.5%). The success story in the implementation of health related program is not irreversible except there is concerted effort to sustain it.

The Debt relief negotiated by Nigeria in 2005 during Obasanjo regime greatly improved the macroeconomic environment. Debt servicing fell from 15.2 percent of exports in 2005 to 0.5 per cent in 2008. The debt relief is a key component of the prospect of meeting the MDGs in Nigeria as more resources could be diverted to this end. One of the key benefits is the elimination of unsustainable annual debt service payments to external creditors. The rapid spread of technology has yet to bridge the digital

divide, the Report observes. While 41.6 per cent of the population own a mobile phone and only 15.8 per cent access the internet.

However, a nation with abundance of natural resources, with one of the least records of ecological disasters globally and friendly climate achieved very little in respect of poverty reduction, gender equality, empowerment of women and environmental sustainability. Critics however opined that even the achievement recorded might not be totally traced to the implementation of the MDGs but the general welfare improvement worldwide as a result active participation of South East Asia in international trade. This implies that efforts must be intensified to achieve the MDGs by 2015.

Challenges of conflict to attainment OF MDGs

There are a number of challenges that conflicts pose for the attainment of MDGs by 2015 not minding that Nigeria is recording significant progress in five of the eight goals. The first set of challenges deals with the difficulty of performance in a weak state as there could be no effectiveness under a situation of conflict.

Available statistic reveals that those that are vanguard of conflict are overwhelmingly youths and close to 50% of all combatants had left school because of the collapse of the educational system. (Humphreys and Weinstein, 2004 in Sierra Leone). This is largely true of Nigeria as crime particularly in the Niger Delta area is the cheapest source of livelihood. In the north, religion indoctrination is more convincing than economic gains. These might combine to hinder the attainment of the MDGs.

It is significant to note that the group that should contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is often more engaged in the prosecution of avoidable conflicts. At the other end, women, age and children that the MDGs largely targeted are the most vulnerable victims of such conflict because of high incidents of rape and murder. This cannot but affect the attainment of the MDGs by 2015.

Refugee problems on account of conflict distort resource allocation by government and individuals. Victims suffer traumatic experiences due to refugee situation and displacement. Though there is no accurate compilation in respect of Nigeria, but the UNHCR (2009) reveals that more than 6.4 million people are internally displaced in Africa as at 2008 while about four hundred thousand out of one million refugees returned home. Hawkin (2009) observes that stealth death accounted for more than nine million deaths. With poor governance, Humphreys and Weinstein (2004) observed that development failure leads to conflict, but during episodes of conflict, development agendas are frequently abandoned, while the focus is on relief. The resultant effect is that insecurity is high, investment climate is bad, and discouraging, making many able bodied men and women to be unemployed, brutalized mentally and socially and complicate the task of attaining the MDGs.

Recommendations

The study has observed that the prevalence of conflicts constitute a serious challenge to the attainment of the MDGs and therefore recommended the underlisted steps to curb conflicts and fast track the attainment of the goals.

Growth or development may at the other end generate conflict, particularly when it produces local, state or regional inequalities. Leaders in this respect must be prepared to confront issues and not personalities. Compensation is recommended for unintended consequences of such actions or inactions through

allocation of projects or facilities that will actually meet the need of aggrieved parties and ensure sustainable peace.

Also, efforts should be intensified to encourage the growth of Regional development bodies as the South West Regional Development Commission (SWERDCO), which will have as parts of its goals, the components of the MDGs. This might equally help to reduce the incidence of conflict, provided that the unintended competition will be healthy and generate employment for the teeming unemployed youths.

In addition, concerted effort towards human capital development is recommended. Nigeria is classified among the nations in the world with medium level human capital development, this lower growth and increases conflict risks and affects other programmes. The real problem is not that our institutional environment is hopelessly not amenable to changes, but our managerial frames are hopelessly inappropriate to fast-track socio-economic development. This can be achieved through invigoration of our educational system to meet modern needs for development.

Furthermore, there is the need to reconstruct the perception of the victims and the perpetrators of conflict through which lasting peace could be achieved and thereby create a conducive environment for the implementation MDGs as it is being experimented in the Niger Delta area. This could be achieved through peace education that might require the intervention of the third party outside the government circle and encourage joint infrastructure the management if properly managed will encourage interaction among communities hitherto in conflict.

Lastly, positive change in our political system is advocated to make it trustworthy, inclusive, transparent and a true representation of the wish of the electorates. This is expected to solve the problems associated with legitimacy, penetration and integration in our political system.

Conclusion

The study set out to examine the preponderance of sectarian conflicts in Nigeria and the impact on attainment of the MDGs by 2015. It observes that such conflicts had led to loss of lives, displacement of population, traumatic experiences by the victims, particularly women, aged and children that are parts of the targets of the programme. The youths that ought to serve as the engine of development and be able to contribute significantly to socio-economic development of the nation are turned to vanguards of conflict. This also led to their early deaths and incapacitation due to injuries. Focus is shifted from development and resources redirected to prosecution of conflicts.

The study therefore recommends judicious and sincere handling of issues associated with modernization or/and development, to ensure equity, fair play, justice and accommodate, to a large extent the cultural preference of each of the areas affected. Also, compensation should be arranged to cater for those that might not be equitably treated to prevent conflict while the development of regional bodies is recommended to open up employment opportunities. Increasing investment in our educational system is also recommended and political transformation that will make the system more transparent, representative and fair as this will encourage an inclusive participation in politics and minimize conflict, thereby allowing government to focus attention on attainment of MDGs by 2015.

References

- Acemoglu, D. and Robinson, J. A. (2005).. *Economic Origins of Dictatorship and Democracy*. Cambridge University Press,
- Afolabi and Arogundade (2003.96) IPU 1999-2011. Iknowpolitics.
- Alex de Waal, 1990, "Famines", (Review of Amartya Sen's *Poverty and Famines*), *Times Literary Supplement*, August.
- Almond, G & Coleman J.S (1960.533) *The politics of Developing Areas*. Princeton, N.J: Princeton University Press.
- Anifowose, R. (2006) *Challenges of Sustainable Democracy in Nigeria*, Ibadan: John Archers Publishers.Pp.5-9
- Bonvillain, Nancy. *Women and Men: Cultural Constructs of Gender*. Prentice-Hall, Inc. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey. 2001.
- Boix, C. (2003) *Democracy and Redistribution*, Cambridge University Press.
- Conflict Related Death (1990-2007) in New world map at <http://sealthconflict.worldpress.com>. Accessed March 10, 2011
- Cardoso, F. H. and Enzo, F. (1979) *Dependency and Development in Latin America*. University of California Press, in http://www.com/Development-America-Fernando-Henrique/dp/0520035275/ref=sr_1_1? Accessed July 11, 2011
- Diamond,L (1995) "Rethinking Civil Society: Towards Democratic Consolidation" *CROSSROADS*. USIS Publication, Lagos: April. P.13
- Dryzek, J. (2008). "Political Science." Microsoft® Encarta® 2009 [DVD]. Redmond, WA: Microsoft Corporation.
- Egwu, S.A (2002.4) *Ethnic and Religious Violence in Nigeria*. Abuja: African Centre for Democratic Governance.
- Frank. A. G. (1970).*Latin America: Underdevelopment and Revolution*. Monthly Review Press, in http://www.amazon.com/Latin-America-underdevelopment-Andrew-Frank/dp/0853451656/ref=sr_i_2? Accessed July 11 2011.
- Humphreys, M. (2004). "Natural Resource, Conflict, and Conflict Resolution: Uncovering the Mechanisms." Working Paper Presented at McGill Workshop on Natural Resources and War <http://www.mcgill.ca/rgchr/jcrpapers/>
- Humpherys, M. and Varshney, A.(2004) *Violent Conflict and the Millennium Development Goals: Diagnosis and Recommendation*. Prepared for the Meeting of the Millennium

Development Goals Poverty Task Force Workshop, Bangkok June 2004. P.7

Inglehart, R. and Welzel, C. (2005). *Modernization, Cultural Change, and Democracy: The Human Development Sequence* Cambridge University

Press.in<http://www.amazon.com/Modernization-Cultural-Change-Democracy>

Development/dp/0521609712/ref=sr_1_1?. Accessed July 11, 2011.

Lipset. S. M. (1959) "Some Social Requisites of Democracy.", *American Political Science Review* 53, no. 1: pp. 69-105.

McGuyan B. (2011) What is Modernization Theory Wise Geek. Accessed July 11, 2011

Mushakoji, K. (2009.87) 'Peace Studies and Peace Politics. Multicultural Common Security in North-South Conflict Situations', in Webel, C. & Galtung, J. Ed (2009) *Handbook of Peace and Conflict Studies*, London: Routledge

Newswatch (1999) Unending Ethnic Conflicts in Nigeria Raises Fears about Prospects of Successful Democracy in Nigeria" (special report), Lagos, August 30, 1999, pp.16-23

Ojo, E (2008.377) eds. "A Survey of Ethno- Religious Crisis in Nigeria and Its implications For Democracy", *Challenges of Sustainable Development in Nigeria*, Ibadan: John Archer Ltd.

O'Donnell, V. (1973) *Modernization and Bureaucratic-Authoritarianism*. University of California Press, in<http://www.Modernization-Bureaucracy-Authoritarianism> American-Politics-modernization/dp/0877252092/ref=sr_1_1? Accessed July 11.

Rosenau, J. (1964) ed., *International Aspects of Civil Strife*. Princeton; Princeton University . P.5.

Rueschemeyer, D., Stephens, E. H. and Stephens, J. D. (1992) *Capitalist Development and Democracy* University of Chicago Press. in [http://www.amazon.com/Capitalist-](http://www.amazon.com/Capitalist-Development-Democracy-Dietrich-Rueschemeyer/dp/0226713448/ref=sr_1_1?)

Development-Democracy-Dietrich-Rueschemeyer/dp/0226713448/ref=sr_1_1? Accessed July 11 2011.

Riggs, F.W (1980) 'The idea of Development Administration', in Weidner, E.W (1980) (Ed) *Development Administration in Asia*. Durham: Duke University Press, p25 in Sapru, .K (2008) *Administrative Theories and Management Thought*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Private Ltd. p264 and Riggs, F.W and Krishna, D.(1987)

Sagay, I.E (2006) Nigerian Constitutions, Operation of Federalism and the South South Zone. A Key Note Address at the All Niger Peoples Conference, 2006 Held at Grand Hatt Dallas, Texas, USA, on 24-27 August, 2006. In [http://www.dawodu. Com/sagay/2.htm](http://www.dawodu.Com/sagay/2.htm). Accessed January 11, 2012.

Sanusi, L. S. (2011) *Nigerian Tribune*. February 13.

The Guardian (2011.14) "A New Regional Development Commission " May 16.

United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Report (2010). List African Countries by Human Development Index.

The Hidden hunger initiatives (2010) in www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-11297290. Accessed October 15 2010.

**SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPEDIMENTS TO MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT
GOALS (MDGS) IN BENUE
STATE-NIGERIA: A STUDY OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN TIV,
IDOMA, AND IGEDE ETHNIC GROUPS**

By

Ochugudu, Achoda Ipuele and Sev, Joseph.T

*Department of Business Management,
Benue State University, Makurdi – Nigeria*

Abstract

*This study seeks to identify the various socio-cultural impediments to MDGs in Benue State-Nigeria using women entrepreneurship in Tiv, Idoma and Iggede ethnic groups as the study focus. It specifically examines how the poverty reduction target of MDGS can be achieved by confronting the socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among these ethnic groups. To achieve this objective, major businesses within the three geopolitical zones (zone A, B, C) were used. The major towns that were used in these zones were thus: Vandeikya and Katsina Ala in **Zone A**. Gboko and Makurdi in **Zone B** and Otukpo and Oju in **Zone C**. Ten small scale businesses each was selected from the various towns chosen in the respective zones except Gboko and Makurdi where 15 and 20 women owned outfits respectively were selected because there are the commercial centres of the state. In the case of Oju LGA, only 7 organised businesses (outfits with a business name) were found. The population of the study comprises all the owner-managers of the selected small scale businesses in the three geo-political zones. They were purposively used as the sample size because the researcher wants to gauge the pulse of all the selected owner- managers on the issues under investigation. Thus, population (N) = sample size (n). I.e, $N = n = 72$. Both primary and secondary sources of data were used. Closed-ended questionnaire was used to source primary data. SPSS was used to run the correlation analysis and coefficient of determination for hypotheses one and three respectively. The Chi-Square test statistic was used to test hypothesis two. It was observed that witchcraft, taboo, gender roles, fears by husbands among others were found to be the common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship in Benue and they also contributed to the poverty prevalence in the state. It was suggested that churches, intellectuals, NGOs and relevant government agencies should educate communities on the dangers of the above socio-cultural factors and their consequences on poverty prevalence as a way of achieving MDGS by 2015.*

Key words: MDGs, Poverty reduction, Women entrepreneurs, Socio-cultural impediments, Benue state, Nigeria,

Introduction

Nigeria is potentially Africa's richest country. As the world's sixth largest producer of crude oil, with huge reserves of mineral and agricultural riches and manpower, it should be enjoying some of the highest global living standards. But available indicators point, ironically, to some of the lowest living standards in Africa. "Despite its oil wealth, Nigeria has performed worse, in terms of basic social indicators, than sub-

Saharan Africa as a whole and much worse than other regions of the developing world, such as Asia and Latin America,” says a Situation Assessment Analysis published in 2001 by Nigeria’s National Planning Commission and the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF). The latest signs are that the situation may be getting worse in terms of achieving the MDGs especially the poverty reduction target by 2015. Surveys conducted by Nigeria’s Federal Office of Statistics show that in a 16 year period that began in 1980, the percentage of Nigerians living in poverty rose from 28 percent to 66 percent. Numerically, while 17.7 million people lived in poverty in 1980, the population living on less than US \$1.40 a day, rose to 67.1 million by 1996 (Kpelai, 2011). Within the same period the percentage of the rural poor increased from 29 percent to 70 percent, while the share of the poor in the urban areas rose from 18 to 55 percent. Those classified as the core poor (the poorest of the poor - living on about US \$0.70 a day), increased from six percent to 29 percent of the population.

A World Bank figure for Nigeria’s Gross National Product (GNP) per capita also confirms this trend. From a peak of US \$780 in 1981, GDP fell to an all time low of US \$220 in 1994 before inching upwards to US \$310 in 1998. Inflationary pressures since then imply a further decline. Equally telling was the geographical distribution of poverty within the country. Statistical data available indicates that by 1960 the poverty level in Nigeria covers about 15 percent of the population and by 1980 it rose to 28 percent. In 1985, the poverty level was 46 percent and it dropped to 43 percent by 1992. By 1996, the Federal Office of Statistics estimated poverty level in Nigeria at about 66 percent. The poverty levels by zones as at 2008 shows that South -South has 36.2 percent; South East 28.0 percent; South West 46.0 percent; North Central (where Benue state belongs) 71.3 percent; North East 72.0 percent and North West has 76.1 percent (Soludo, 2008). The poverty level in all the zones increased substantially when compared to the poverty indices in the same zones as at 2004. The question that one is tempted to ask at this point is – with the failures of the various poverty alleviation programmes of the government and the consistent poverty growth rate in Nigeria from an all time low of 15 percent in 1980 to an alarming 76.1 percent in 2008, will Nigeria be able to achieve the poverty reduction target of the Millennium Development Goals by 2015?. This question is difficult to answer and it calls for viable alternative strategies that can reduce this menace to a reasonable level by 2015. It is on this premise that this study suggests increased women involvement in economic activities by confronting the socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede ethnic groups in Benue State- Nigeria as an alternative strategy. Specifically, this study is undertaken to identify the various socio-cultural impediments to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma, and Iggede ethnic groups in Benue State-Nigeria with a view of establishing its relationship with, and its effects on poverty prevalence in the state. The findings will form the basis for suggesting the way forward toward achieving the poverty reduction target of MDGs by 2015.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to examine the effects of socio-cultural impediments to poverty reduction target of MDGs with a focus on women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede ethnic groups in Benue State-Nigeria. Specifically, the study seeks:

1. To ascertain the extent of the relationship between the size of women involvement in entrepreneurship and poverty prevalence in Benue state.
2. To identify the common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and the Iggede ethnic groups of Benue state

3. To examine the effects of socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship on poverty level among the Tiv, Idoma and Igede women entrepreneurs in Benue State

Research Questions

In order to achieve the research objectives, the following research questions will be used

1. How significant is the relationship between the size of women involvement in entrepreneurship and poverty prevalence in Benue State
2. What are the common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and Igede ethnic groups of Benue State
3. What effects does socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship have on poverty level among the Tiv, Idoma and Igede women entrepreneurs in Benue State?

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses formulated in a null format will be tested as a basis for drawing conclusions in this study:

- H₀₁:** The size of women involvement in entrepreneurship does not have significant relationship with poverty prevalence in Benue State
- H₀₂:** There are no common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and the Igede ethnic groups of Benue State
- H₀₃:** Socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship do not have any effect on poverty level among the Tiv, Idoma and Igede women entrepreneurs in Benue state

Scope of the Study

The scope of this study is limited to only organised small scale businesses owned by Tiv, Idoma and Igede women operating in the major towns within the three geopolitical zones in Benue state. The major towns to be used in this study are thus: Vandeikya and Katsina Ala in **Zone A**. Gboko and Makurdi in **Zone B** and Otukpo and Oju in **Zone C**. Ten small scale businesses each were selected from the various towns chosen in the respective zones except Gboko and Makurdi where 15 and 20 women-owned outfits respectively were selected since there are the commercial centres of the state. In the case of Oju LGA, only 7 organised businesses (outfits with a business name) were found. The range of data used covered a period of ten years from 2000 to 2010.

Review of Related Literature

Proper understanding of the issues under consideration can only be achieved if the works of authorities and scholars in the area of entrepreneurship, poverty and Millennium Development Goals are reviewed. This section will therefore review relevant literatures in these areas.

Conceptual Clarification

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

In September 2000, leaders from 189 nations ratified the Millennium Declaration. The declaration is an unprecedented global commitment and one of the most significant United Nations documents of recent time. It offers a common and integrated vision on how to tackle some of the major challenges facing the

world. The declaration has resulted in eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) focused on reducing (eradicating) extreme poverty, achieving universal primary education, promoting gender equality and empowering women thereby improving the quality of peoples' lives, reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensuring environmental sustainability, and building partnerships to ensure that globalization becomes a more positive force for all the world's people. Specific targets and indicators have been set for each of the goals, to be achieved by 2015 (Akpomi, 2009:5), and UNDP (2003:7). Available statistic as revealed by the Federal Office of Statistics in 1996, estimated poverty level in Nigeria at about 66 percent. The poverty levels by zones as at 2008 shows that South -South has 36.2 percent; South East 28.0 percent; South West 46.0 percent; North Central (where Benue state belongs) 71.3 percent; North East 72.0 percent and North West has 76.1 percent (Soludo, 2008). If as at 2008, the poverty level in all the geopolitical zones is still on the increase, it therefore means that the probability of eradicating poverty by 2015 will only remain a dream in a broad daylight. An alternative strategy that this study suggests for achieving the poverty eradication target of the MDGs by 2015 is to encourage women entrepreneurship through tackling the socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among states with high poverty prevalence rates. This is why Benue state experience is being investigated in this study.

Poverty

Poverty according to Ajakaiye (1998) is a state of being unable to meet basic material needs encompassing food, water, clothing, shelter, education as well as basic non-materials needs including participation, identity, sex, etc. It is a deadly socio-economic phenomenon that manifests in a people's inability to acquire the basic necessities of life (such as food, clothing and shelter) needed for decent living (NES 1997 cited by Odion, 2009). Sharing the foregoing opinions, Sen (1985) also observed that poverty is the deprivation of basic capabilities rather than lowness of income as indicated by World Bank which defined poverty as a situation when people are living on less than \$1 per day. It has also been described as a state of being poor or being unable to have the basic necessities of life (Kryman, 2010).

Women Entrepreneurship

Mayoux, 2001 and Ndubisi, 2004 simply defined women entrepreneurs as women that participate in total entrepreneurial activities, who take the risks involved in combining resources together in a unique way so as to take advantage of the opportunity identified in their immediate environment through production of goods and services. Most of them are involved in micro, small and medium scale enterprises which contribute more than 97 percent of all enterprises, 60 percent of the Nigeria's GDP and 94 percent of the total share of the employment (ILO, 1998), (Erinosho, 2005) and (Dhameja (2002), women entrepreneurs represent a group of women who have broken away from the beaten track and exploring new avenues of economic participation.

Encouraging women entrepreneurship through confronting or tackling limitations or constraints associated with women owned businesses is a step towards enhancing economic growth and reducing poverty. Available statistics or empirical evidences point to the obvious fact that there is an inverse relationship between economic growth and poverty. According to Dickey (2005), there is compelling evidence that GDP growth is associated with measurable declines in the rate of poverty. Annual growth rates of 6.4 percent in East Asia resulted in 15 percent declines in poverty with corresponding figures of

3.3 percent growth and 8.4 percent poverty decline in South Asia. Negative economic growth rates in sub-Saharan Africa have actually resulted in a poverty increase.

Bouton and Sumilinski (2000) report, based on an examination of data from 50 developing countries between 1970 and 1988, that countries with higher growth also had higher levels of private investment (as cited in a report of the CPSD, <http://www.undp.org/cpsd/documents/report/english/chapter1.pdf>).

Socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship in Benue State

Socio-cultural constraints or impediments refer to both social and cultural factors that hinder women entrepreneurial development and growth in Benue state. Some of the factors as observed by Nyam (2011) among Tiv, Idoma and Iggede ethnic groups of Benue state include the following:

Marriage: Marriages in Tiv, Idoma and Iggede are very expensive not only in terms of the bride price but also in terms of the incidental cost to both families. Both the mother of the bride and the groom are required by tradition to buy certain household items like bed, chairs, wardrobe, and other kitchen items. Most times, the families may go into borrowing in order to fulfil this obligation. The amount of money spent to fulfil this rite to a large extent drains the capital that they would have use to either start or expand their existing businesses. Incidentally, this social/cultural practice is pervasive to all the three major ethnic groups under study.

Burial: Burials among the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede ethnic groups according to this study have become a festival rather than a solemn rite. Huge sum of money is spent on food, drinks, cows, pigs, goats etc. to entertain sympathizers for the number of days decided by the chief mourner. Women of the immediate and extended bereaved family who are members of social, community or church associations are sometimes required by their associations to entertain members with specific items like goats, cow, drinks etc. Fulfilment of this social/cultural requirements sometimes push some women to either go into borrowing or sale their valuable like jewelries, wares and/or even business equipments. This has led to the collapse of so many businesses in the state and further constrains others from venturing into business activities.

WitchCraft: The Tiv name for witchcraft is **Mbatsav**. It is also called **Ohe** in Idoma and **Oluwa or Ojiga** in Iggede. Mbatsav, ohe and ojiga are the elderly people who possess supernatural powers to do many mysterious things e.g. killing, causing misfortune and failures in one's life. It is also believed that these people can travel to any where to hunt their victims who are usually the successful people in the society. As a result of the fear of being harmed, women who have enough capital to start a business usually do not so for fears of mysterious misfortunes.

Women role as Mothers: The traditional role of women according to the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede people is for household chores and procreation. This belief have seen women performing such functions as cooking, farming, nursing of children and taking care of the whole family. This practice has left the woman with little or no time to pursue entrepreneurial activities in Benue State.

Fears by Husbands: Both Tiv, Idoma and Iggede men believe that allowing their wives to travel every now and then for business trips can lure them into unwholesome behaviours such as sex with other men who are their business partners. Another reason men give for preventing their wives from engaging in

business is that their roles as breadwinners may be overtaken by their wives in an event that they become successful. The fear of losing their wives for other men and/or losing control of the wives has made many men to discourage the wives from engaging in entrepreneurial activities in the state.

Settlement Pattern: The Tiv settlement pattern was also observed by Anyam to have impeded women entrepreneurship in Tiv land. The Tiv ethnic group by culture believed in disperse settlement as a means of acquiring more land for farming purposes. This settlement pattern makes it impossible for their wives to open up small sales outfit or stores to sale consumable items to people in the neighbourhood. This is not so among the Idoma and Igede people of Benue state.

Education: Before now, the Tiv, Idoma and Igede people believed that girl child education was a waste of time and resources. To the three ethnic groups, a girl child is not supposed to go to school but to remain at home for household chores, farming and eventual marriage. This has in a way affected the early development of women entrepreneurship among these ethnic groups in Benue state.

Inheritance: Tiv, Idoma and Igede women do not inherit properties either from their parents or their husbands. In fact, the situation is even worse among the Tiv ethnic group where women themselves are inheritable. The Tiv culture permits a deceased brother to inherit both the properties, businesses and even the wife(s) of his brother. His wife (widow) in this situation cannot dream of steering the business of her deceased husband. This culture discourages women from participating in their husband's business since they know that the business will be inherited by someone else upon the death of their husbands. This constrains women entrepreneurship in Tiv land.

Aleku: This is highly revered in Idoma culture. The Aleku is depicted by masquerades. The worshippers of Aleku believed that women who are engaged in any form of sexual relationship outside her matrimonial home die mysteriously together with their offspring. The fear of the Aleku discourages husbands from allowing their wives venture into businesses that will necessitate them having contact with men especially travelling for a business trip and spending the night outside matrimonial homes.

Ashuku: It is a very vicious cult in Idoma land that is against people who indulge in secret adventures that are inimical to the society. For example, it frowns at people who would want to use their fellowmen for rituals and for money-making. It also prevents wives from transacting with anybody without the knowledge of the husbands. As a result, women cannot borrow money from male friends for business purposes or take advantage of customers to make undue profit. This cult has created fear in the minds of Idoma women and discourages them from undertaking entrepreneurial ventures. This is also similar to the **Akpam cult** of the Igede people of Benue state.

Research methodology

In this study, the design adopted was a survey approach. This enables the researcher to gather first information from the respondents. The researcher also used both primary and secondary data in the study. Primary data was gathered through the administration of closed-ended questionnaire on selected women entrepreneurs operating in Vandeikya, Katsina Ala, Gboko, Makurdi, Otukpo and Oju towns in Benue state. While records on economic growth and poverty prevalence rate by geopolitical zones maintained by the Benue State Economic Planning Commission was used as a secondary source of data. The population

of the study comprises all the owner-managers of the selected small scale business in the three geopolitical zones. They were purposively used as the sample size because the researcher wants to gauge the pulse of all the selected owner managers on the issues under investigation. Thus, population (N) = sample size (n). I.e, $N = n = 72$. SPSS was used to run the correlation analysis and coefficient of determination for hypotheses one and three respectively. The Chi-Square test statistic was used to statistically determine the effect of socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship on poverty level in Benue state.

Data presentation and analysis

The demography of the participants or the selected women owned businesses (by activity sector) in the three geopolitical zones is presented thus:

Table 4.1.1 Distribution of Respondents by Activity sector

S/N	Nature of Business/activity sector	Frequency	Percentage
1	Services (health, event mgt, tailoring, cafe, biz. centres, recreational parks and estate services)	20	27.8
2	Hotel, Bar, Joints and Restaurant	16	22.2
3	Commerce (Buying and selling)	12	16.7
4	Manufacturing (Value creation)	11	15.3
5	Education (Schools)	6	8.3
6	Petroleum (Fuel stations)	5	6.9
7	Transportation	2	2.8
8	Agriculture (Commercial farm)	1	1.4
Total	Total	72	100

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 4.1.1 shows that 20 women entrepreneurs representing 27.8% are engaged in service delivery, 16 women representing 22.2% are engaged in hotel, bar and restaurant businesses, 12 women representing 16.7% are engaged in commerce, 11 women representing 15.3% are engaged in value creation (manufacturing), 6 women representing 8.3% provides education, 5 women representing 6.9% are into petroleum business, 2 women representing 2.8% are into transportation business while only 1 woman representing 1.4% of the respondents is into commercial agric farming. On the whole, services, hotel, commerce and manufacturing businesses are the common and most active sector of investment by Benue women.

Table 4.1.2 The Degree of Women Entrepreneurial Participation and Poverty Profile in Benue State from 2000-2010

Year	ZONE A		ZONE B		ZONE C		State economic growth(sum of ratio from zones)	Poverty prevalence rate in (%)
	% of women entrepreneurs in business	% contribution to Economic Growth (ratio)	% of women entrepreneurs in business	% contribution to Economic Growth (ratio)	% of women entrepreneurs in business	% contribution to Economic Growth (ratio)		
2000	6	3	12	6	8	4	13	52
2001	3	1	9	3	6	2	6	80
2002	2	1	10	5	6	3	9	40
2003	2	1	6	3	2	1	5	58
2004	2	1	4	2	4	2	5	58
2005	4	2	14	7	4	2	11	39
2006	6	3	12	6	8	4	13	34
2007	4	2	14	7	4	2	11	39
2008	8	4	16	8	6	3	15	32
2009	10	5	20	10	8	4	19	29
2010	12	6	22	11	10	5	22	27

Source: Benue State Economic Planning Bulletin, 2010

From table 4.1.2 above, it can be observed that there is a direct/positive relationship between the number of women entrepreneurs in business at any point in time and economic development. This is obvious as the table above reveals thus: In 2000, when the number of women entrepreneurs in business in the state was 6, 12, and 8 for zone A, B, and C respectively, the corresponding ratio representing contributions to economic development from the zones stood at 3, 6, and 2 for zone A, B, and C respectively. The trend shows a high contribution ratio to economic development where the number of women entrepreneurs in business were high and low contribution ratio where the number of women entrepreneurs was also low. This trend was observed throughout 2001-2010 in all the periods and zones under investigation.

Again, it can also be observed from the table that there is no steady growth in the number of women entrepreneurs within the period under investigation in the three zones. This invariably implies that in some of the periods, as new women owned businesses were being started, some of the existing ones were folding up. The proportion of entrance to exit and exit to entrance were not the same in some of the periods under investigation. There was a general decline in the number of existing women owned businesses from 2001-2005. This decline could be explained from the likely hood of the effect of socio-cultural constraints or impediments to the women entrepreneurs in the state. From 2008-2010, there was also a general improvement and increase in the number of new women entrant into entrepreneurship in the three zones under investigation. This may be as a result of the increase campaign for gender equality by advocacy groups in the last four years.

Furthermore, it can also be observed from the table that there is an inverse relationship between the level of economic growth and poverty prevalence rate in the state. When economic growth dropped from 13% in 2000 to 6% in 2001, poverty rate increased from 52% in 2000 to a corresponding 80% in 2001. Again, when economic growth rises from 6% in 2001 to 9% in 2002 showing a percentage increase of 50%, there

was also a corresponding 50% decrease in poverty rate from 80% in 2001 to 40% in 2002. This trend also continued throughout the period under investigation.

Table 4.1.3 Common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among Tiv, Idoma, and Iggede ethnic groups (See Appendix A)

The analysis of the table reveals that 52 women entrepreneurs representing 72.2 % of the respondents strongly agree that the common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede ethnic groups are witchcraft, taboo, gender roles, fear of uncertainty by husband, and exorbitant marriage and burial ceremonies while 10 women representing 13.9% of the respondents agree to these constraints as being common to the three ethnic groups in Benue state. Only 4 representing 5.6% and 6 representing 8.3% of the respondents strongly disagree and disagree to these constraints as being common to the three ethnic groups in Benue state.

Table 4.1.4 Effects of socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship on poverty level (See Appendix B)

The analysis of the table reveals that 65 women entrepreneurs representing 90.3% of the respondents strongly agreed that some of the effects of the identified socio-cultural constraints common to the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede ethnic groups which causes poverty in Benue state are thus: it causes untimely collapse of business, limit women contribution to economic growth, discourages women entrepreneurial initiatives, encourages financial dependency on husbands and above all, waste the natural God given talent in women. While 7 women entrepreneurs representing 9.7% of the respondents also agreed that the above mentioned factors are consequences or effects of the socio-cultural impediments to women entrepreneurship that leads to poverty in the state.

Test of hypotheses

H₀₁: The size of women involvement in entrepreneurship does not have significant relationship with poverty prevalence in Benue State

The result of the pearson movement correlation shows that economic growth and poverty are negatively correlated at -0.793 i.e 79%. This is a strong negative correlation confirming that there is an inverse relationship between economic growth and poverty. We therefore reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the size of women entrepreneurship has a significant relationship with poverty prevalence in Benue State. (See Appendix C)

H₀₂: There are no common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and the Iggede ethnic groups of Benue State

The result of the Chi-Square shows that: $X^2_c > X^2_t$ i.e Since $11.79 > 9.49$ @ 0.05 level of significance, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there are common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede ethnic groups of Benue state as shown in table 4.1.3. (See Appendix A and D)

H₀₃: Socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship do not have any effect on poverty level among the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede women entrepreneurs in Benue state

The result of coefficient of determination shows that $r^2 = 0.629$. This means that the degree of variability in poverty prevalence in Benue State that can be attributed to the effects of socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and Iggede women is 63% approximately. We therefore reject the alternative hypothesis and conclude that socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship increases poverty prevalence in Benue state. (See Appendix C)

Summary of findings

From the analysis of data and results of hypotheses, it was observed that the size of women entrepreneurs in the state is directly related to the size of economic growth. This means that the more women are involved in entrepreneurship, the more their contributions increase the size of economic growth. Also, the analysis shows an inverse relationship between economic growth and poverty prevalence in Benue state. Inverse relationship here indicates that poverty rate decreases as economic growth value increases and vice-versa. This finding is consistent with the result of a study reported by Dickey (2005) that shows thus: “there is compelling evidence that GDP growth is associated with measurable declines in the rate of poverty. Annual growth rates of 6.4% in East Asia resulted in 15% declines in poverty with corresponding figures of 3.3% growth and 8.4% poverty decline in South Asia. Negative economic growth rates in sub-Saharan Africa have actually resulted in adverse poverty increase”

Again, it was observed that some socio-cultural practices were common to the three ethnic groups even though there bore different names. Some of these practices as was observed from the study include witchcraft, taboo, gender roles, fears of uncertainty by husbands and exorbitant marriage and burial ceremonies which to the respondents depletes resources and limits investment in economic activities.

Furthermore, socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship were found to have contributed to the high poverty prevalence in Benue state. This is because a change in economic growth is a function of changes in the size of women entrepreneurship (holding all other factors constant). The data in table 4.1.2 shows a general decline in women entrepreneurship in the State from 2001-2005. This resulted in corresponding increases in poverty level within the same period. These decreases were assumed to be a function of the socio-cultural constraints confirming therefore that they contributed to the high poverty level in Benue state. This position was further strengthened by a coefficient of determination value of 63% as the variability in poverty caused by socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, since poverty is inversely related to economic growth, it is obvious that for us to achieve the poverty eradication target of the Millennium Development Goals by 2015, the size of women contribution to economic growth must be improved and this can be achieved by confronting the socio-cultural constraints or impediments to women entrepreneurship in our various areas.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the study recommends that

1. Stakeholders like churches, women advocacy groups, intellectuals, and other relevant government agencies especially Ministry of Women Affairs should intensify effort to enlighten traditional rulers, parents, husbands and elders in Tiv, Idoma and Iggede communities of the danger of holding on to certain beliefs or tradition that limit the freedom/potential of women to contribute to economic growth and development of Benue state. This will, to a large extent empower women to venture into entrepreneurship thereby increasing the chances of reducing the poverty level in Benue state by 2015.
2. The extravagant and wasteful spending of scarce resources in burials and marriage ceremonies should be discouraged as a way of redirecting these resources to gainful entrepreneurship. Churches, Intellectuals, NGOs and relevant government agencies at all levels should prevail on traditional rulers/institutions to set a ceiling of expenditure in both marriages and burial ceremonies which has become an avenue of showing social ego in the state. This will help in encouraging and preserving savings for gainful entrepreneurship especially among the women.
3. Entrepreneurial training opportunities should be opened for Benue women by the government so that the women can be trained on how to take up investment in agricultural oriented ventures like poultry farming, fishery etc which has great prospect but is totally neglected at the moment by women entrepreneurs in Benue as the distribution of women entrepreneurs in table 4.1.1 shows. This will enhance women participation in business as men who may not want their wives to be involved in regular businesses may be encouraged to open some of the commercial agric farms within the house for the wives.

Bibliography

Ajekaiye, D. O. and Adeyeye, Y. A. (1998). "Concepts, Measurement and Causes of Poverty." *Central Bank of Nigeria Economics and Financial reviews* Vol. 39, No. 4, Abuja.

Akpomi, M.E. (2008). "Developing Entrepreneurship Education Programme (EEP) for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Nigeria", Post-Doctoral Research Project carried out at the University of Reading, UK.

Bouton, L. and Sumilinski, M. (2000) "Trends in Private Investment in Developing Countries: Statistics for 1970–1988", Discussion Paper 21, Washington, DC: International Finance Corporation.

Dickey, C. (2005) "'Europe's Time Bomb; the French Riots should be a Wake-up Call: what is 'Normal' is no longer Sustainable", *Newsweek*, 21 November, p.42.

Erinosho, S. (2005). "Women and Sciences". 36th Annual Inaugural Lecture, Olabisi-Onabanjo University.

Kpelai, S.T. (2009). *Entrepreneurship Development in Nigeria*. Makurdi: Aboki Publishing

Krygman, C. (2010). "Small Scale Business." <http://www.economicswatch.com>.

Mayoux, L. (2001). "Jobs, Gender and Small Enterprises: Gauging the Policy Environment Right". An ILO Working Paper Series on Worries in Entrepreneurship Development and Gender in Enterprises (*WEDGE*). No. 15.

Ndubusi, F. (2004). Bankers List Financing Alternative for SMEs Financing Equity Investment Scheme, Maritime.

Nyam, T.F. (2011). "An Empirical Analysis of the Socio-Cultural Factors on Women Entrepreneurship in Benue State". Unpublished Seminar Paper, Benue State University, Makurdi.

Odion, W. E. (2009). "Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Poverty Question in Nigeria." In Omotor D. G. and Akpotor, A. S. (ed). *Millennium Development Goals and Challenges*, Abraka: Delsu Investment Nigeria Limited.

Sen. A. (1985), *Commodities and Capabilities*. North Holland: Amsterdorn.

Soludo, C. (2008). "Poverty in Trend in Nigeria: Lessons for Developing Nations" Speech Deliverer in an Economic Submit, Abuja-Nigeria

UNDP (2003), *Human Development Report 2003-Millennium Development Goals: A Compact among Nations to end Human Poverty*. New York, Oxford University Press

Appendix A

Questionnaire/Data Analysis

Table 4.1.3 Common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among Tiv, Idoma and Igede in Benue state

Witchcraft, taboo, gender roles, fear of uncertainty by husbands, and exorbitant marriage and burial ceremonies are the common socio-cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship among the Tiv, Idoma and Igede ethnic groups of Benue state?	SA	A	N	SD	D	Total
Zone A women entrepreneurs	17	3				20
Zone B women entrepreneurs	25	5		2	3	35
Zone C women entrepreneurs	10	2		2	3	17
Total	52	10		4	6	72
Percentage	72.2	13.9		5.6	8.3	100

Source: Field survey, 2011

Appendix B

Table 4.1.4 Effects of socio cultural constraints to women entrepreneurship on poverty in Benue state

Some of the effects of socio-cultural constraints that leads to poverty include: leads to untimely collapse of businesses, limit women contributions to economic growth, discouraged women entrepreneurial initiatives, leads to financial dependency on husband and waste the natural God given talent of women	SA	A	N	SD	D	Total
Zone A women entrepreneurs	20					20
Zone B women entrepreneurs	30	5				35
Zone C women entrepreneurs	15	2				17
Total	65	7				72
Percentage	90.3	9.7				100

Source: Field survey, 2011

Appendix C

CORRELATIONS

/VARIABLES=EG POVTR

/PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

Correlations

[DataSet0]

Correlations

		EG	POVTR
EG	Pearson Correlation	1	-.793**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004
	N	11	11
POVTR	Pearson Correlation	-.793**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	
	N	11	11

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

Coefficient of Determination $CD = (r^2)$

Since correlation value (r) above = -.793 at 1 significant level, $CD = -.793^2 = 0.629$ i.e 63%.

Appendix D

Chi-Square Result for Hypothesis Two

F ₀	F _E	F ₀ - F _E	(F ₀ - F _E) ²	(F ₀ -F _E) ² /F _E
17	11.3	5.7	32.49	2.88
3	1.8	1.2	1.44	0.8
25	23.2	1.8	3.24	0.14
5	3.9	1.9	3.61	0.93
2	2	0	0	0
3	3.5	0.5	0.25	0.07
10	13.5	-3.5	12.25	0.32
2	3	-1	1	0.33
2	0.5	1.5	2.25	4.50
3	1.4	1.6	2.56	1.82
TOTAL				11.79

Source: Computation from table 4.1.3

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND DISADVANTAGED GROUPS – A STUDY OF THE FEMALE STUDENT’S ACCESS TO SECONDARY/TERTIARY EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

By

Solomon A. Adebola, Ph.D, Adekunle O. Binuyo,

And Oluseyi O. Oduyoye

Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo

Abstract

Whereas the Millennium Development Goal 3 seeks to promote gender equality and empower women, with a specific target of eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later by 2015, this study discovers that whereas the former target has been largely achieved, the latter (i.e. eliminating gender disparity in all levels of education) may not be achieved by 2015 in certain parts of Africa, including Nigeria.

In advancing possible reasons for inequity in access to secondary/tertiary education, and the attrition rate of enrolled students from these institutions, an earlier study took a critical look at each of the following groups of disadvantaged students:

- *the female student*
- *the poor student*
- *the rural student*
- *the physically challenged student.*

This study however took a detailed look at the female student and it was found that access to secondary and university education is often hampered by lack of awareness, financial constraints, and socio-cultural prejudices against the girl child. The authors offered suggestions on the roles that could be played by parents, the community, government, and the university system in alleviating much of these obstacles. Compared to previous research, the paper highlighted the results of a study carried out in 80 low income countries which showed that in 47 out of 54 African countries (including Nigeria), girls have less than 50 percent chance of going to secondary school. The paper concludes by suggesting a radical reengineering of the secondary/tertiary education system in Nigeria, into differentiated levels and segments, to ease off the current pressure on the system. The paper also suggests the grant of autonomy to the university system, to be let off its leach of reliance on government in the policy formulation and implementation in respect of matters of internal structure of the individual university. Lastly, according to the paper, when the practice of discriminating against females in the area of access to education is considerably reduced especially in Nigeria, then the chances of meeting the Millennium Development Goal of universal access to education would have been considerably achieved.

Introduction

The Millennium Development Goals were developed from the September 2000 Millennium Summit at the United Nations Headquarters in New York. At the said summit, world leaders from 192 United

Nations member states and at least 23 international organizations agreed to achieve by the year 2015, eight (8) international development goals listed below;

- Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education
- Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women
- Goal 4: Reduce child mortality rate
- Goal 5: Improve maternal health
- Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability
- Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development

The third Millennium Development Goal is aimed at promoting gender equality and empower women. The specific target of this goal is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later by 2015.

Going down the historical lane, one is reminded of the commencement of tertiary education in Nigeria, which was brought by the establishment of University College, Ibadan in 1948, as an affiliate of London University. This was followed in 1960, with the establishment of University of Nigeria, Nsukka, and by 1964, three other universities had sprung up at Lagos, Zaria, and Ile-Ife. It was subsequent to the Ashby Report on higher education, in 1962, that the University College Ibadan was upgraded to a full fledged university. These five universities formed the pioneering seed that was sown in the advent of tertiary education in Nigeria.

It is worthy of note however, though surreptitiously, and by a large stretch of imagination, that the number of university establishments even at that material time, was very strongly skewed in favor of the southern part of the country. That perhaps, *ceteris paribus*, was the beginning of the much orchestrated inequity in the access to higher education in Nigeria. That is the main thrust of investigation by this paper, particularly with due consideration of the disadvantaged groups, especially the female child. And this is of great essence, because, according to Ade-Ajayi et al (1999):

The politics of higher education takes various forms. It centres largely on questions of access, equity and equality of educational opportunity, financing, and influence of external forces. What policy options might there be which deserve serious consideration and can be resorted to in the circumstances?

The Structural Adjustment Policy (SAP) of the Federal Government, particularly during the regime of the Babangida-led government, actually shifted the attention of the university substantially to the roles of university education in economic development at the great expense of the social problems of the perceived inequity in access to higher education by some identified groups of the nation's citizenry. These groups, often referred to as the disadvantaged groups, are the females, the poor, the rural dwellers, and the physically challenged. The perception of many watchers in the educational sector, is that the SAP-driven economic policy of the Federal Government is systematically excluding these disadvantaged groups from the major gains of tertiary education in Nigeria.

Beyond the shores of Nigeria, efforts have been made by the USA government to accommodate the peculiar problems of the disadvantaged groups in university admission processes. (Adeyemi, 2001). In order to alleviate problems of inequity of access to higher education in Britain, the Endowed Schools Bill

was enacted in 1869, and the Education Act in 1890. This process later metamorphosed into the Universities Council for Central Admission (UCCA) in 1961, and eventually the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS) in 1992. (Adeyemi, 2001). UCAS's role fundamentally has been to "promote partnership between the applicants on the one hand and universities and colleges on the other, so as to provide applicants with EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES, to obtain a place in higher education, where they may achieve their full potential and to enable institutions to admit committed students who have the ability to benefit from their experience. (UCAS, 2001)

It was in an attempt to solve the perceived imbalance in university admissions that the Federal Government created the Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board (JAMB) via Decree number 2 of 1978. JAMB was saddled with a principal mandate of admitting students into programmes in Nigerian tertiary institutions, based on four major criteria

(a)	merit	-	40%
(b)	catchment area	-	30%
(c)	educationally disadvantaged areas	-	20%
(d)	university discretion	-	<u>10%</u>
100%			

The initial JAMB decree of 1978 was repealed and substituted with Decree 33 of 1989, and later amended through Decree 4 of 1993. It remains to be seen, though, how much has been achieved through JAMB, in redressing the apparent imbalance in access to tertiary education in Nigeria, particularly by the disadvantaged groups.

THE FEMALE GENDER AS A DISADVANTAGED GROUP

A review of background studies

In the opinion of Willingham and Cole (1997), there is a significant difference in the performance of men and women in school work, as established by standardized tests. This difference in performance has been ascribed to social and pathological factor differentials congenital to the different gender groups. According to Willingham and Cole (1997:349) while "females and males show broad similarity, they equally show distinctive patterns of difference". While Hyde, Fennema and Lamon (1990), using meta-analysis, opined that age, sample selectivity and cognitive level of test played a role in performance based on gender differentials, Halpern (1992) and Cleary (1992) concluded that where gender differences exist, they manifest in men doing better in mathematics and science related fields, while women perform better in predominantly verbal fields and subjects.

A common feature of rural areas is that their communities are often ethnically homogenous, with relatively high concentrations of ethnic groups that are specific to such communities. It is the contention of Dassin (2005) that, besides the females and the rural dwellers, the poor and the physically challenged also form a significant portion of the group often considered as disadvantaged in access to university education in Nigeria.

The 1991 National Population Census results gave the following data in respect of differentials in literary level, by gender and geo-demographic status nationally:-

Table 1. National Literacy Levels

	Urban Areas	Rural Areas
	%	%
Females	63.8	38.7
Males	80.0	57.0
Total	47.7	72.0

(Source: Report of the Committee of Vice Chancellors of Nigerian Universities (CVCNU), 2007)

Table 1 above indicates clearly the lower level of literacy for females when compared with the males, and that of the rural dwellers when compared with their urban counterparts

Table 2 . Literacy Levels Among Able and Disabled Segments in Nigeria

Segment	Literate	Illiterate	Not Stated	Total	%
Both Sexes	56.69	42.84	0.47	100	
Not disabled	57.76	42.77	0.47	100	
Disabled	43.32	55.64	1.04	100	
Males	65.69	33.55	0.46	100	
Not disabled	65.78	33.77	0.46	100	
Disabled	49.06	49.81	1.14	100	
Females	47.77	51.75	0.48	100	
Not disabled	47.82	51.70	0.48	100	
Disabled	37.32	61.82	0.95	100	

Source: NPC (1998)

It is obvious from the table above that the disabled of both sexes, are clearly disadvantaged in literacy level, when compared with their able counterparts.

It is noteworthy of note that various international corporate bodies have made significantly spirited efforts at alleviating the problems of the physically challenged. Such bodies include the Association of African Universities (AAU), UNESCO, Ford Foundation and the World Bank. Noteworthy too are the efforts made in a similar attempt by some universities in Nigeria. Such efforts include the establishment of the Centre for Supportive Services for the Deaf and Hearing Impaired at the University of Ilorin, the Department of Special Education at the University of Jos, and the Special Policy Adaptations for the handicapped at Babcock University.

Disparity in access to higher education, and attrition rate in completion:-

(a) The Case of the Female Student

On a historical note, it would be recalled that the earliest effort to allow women access to higher education in the United States was in 1833, when Oberlin College recorded its first female registered student. This was centuries after colleges in the United States opened their doors to male applicants. Incidentally, the Oberlin example later opened a floodgate for the establishment of “female-only” universities like Mount Holyoke in 1885, Vassar in 1865, Madcliffe in 1879, and Byrn Mawr in 1885. (Akabue and Enyi, 2001).

It was not until about a century after the first female registered in a USA College, that Nigeria recorded its first female student at a tertiary level. This was at the establishment of Yaba Higher College, and later the University College, Ibadan in 1948. Shortly after, precisely in 1963, the first set of almost two hundred (200) graduands at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka had a sprinkling of only five (5) females. (Akabue

and Enyi, 2001). Even as at date, enrolment in universities has continued to be skewed in favor of males. Even, where attempts have been successful at achieving near parity, there has been a consistent and persistent template of paradigm in gender-streaming of program disciplines.

Female access to secondary education in Nigeria

To corroborate the above-stated finding is the focus of this revisit – i.e. the average girl's accessibility to secondary school education in Africa, especially Nigeria. According to Okpi (2011), a recently published report has listed Nigeria among the countries failing in promoting the education of the girl-child. The study carried out in 80 low income countries showed that in 47 (including Nigeria) out of 54 African countries, girls have less than 50 percent chance of going to secondary school. The study entitled, 'Make it Right: Ending the Crisis in Girls' Education', was carried out by the Global Campaign for Education and RESULTS Education Fund, a body which focuses on raising awareness to education between boys and girls, especially in developing countries.

According to the report, the disparity is gradually shrinking such that girls now represent 53 percent of children who are out of school. It also puts the national enrolment rate of girls into primary schools at 59.6 percent, the gender parity index at 0.91 and the percentage of females in tertiary institutions at 40.7 percent of the total students. The indices showed that only 44.1 percent of girls in primary schools in Nigeria made it to secondary schools and in the last decade, Nigeria has been able to increase the enrolment of girls into primary schools by 7.9 percent.

The 80 countries surveyed were graded with reference to performance on national enrolment rates, transition of girls from primary to secondary, female students in tertiary institutions and change in the enrolment of girls into primary schools in the last decade.

Findings of the study

The results of the study revealed that countries such as Ghana, Senegal, Ecuador, Tunisia, Tanzania, Bangladesh, Lesotho, and Ukraine appeared in the category of 'strong performers' because they have made progress not only in enrolling girls in school, but also in improving their ability to complete their primary education and progress to secondary school. Nigeria, Cote D'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Central African Republic, Togo, Chad, Iraq and Yemen, were listed as 'failing' due to their low rates of girls' primary enrolment, completion and transition to secondary. Other African countries as Burkina Faso, Mali, Mozambique, Uganda and Zambia were listed among middle performers, while countries like Niger, Guinea, Ethiopia, Kenya and Cameroun were among the weak performers, with better figures than the countries on the failing list.

Lastly, according to the report, females in developing countries are still being discriminated against when it comes to education, accessibility, adaptability, and acceptability. This situation, if not quickly redressed, is a major setback to the realization of the Millennium Development Goal of universal access to education especially of the disadvantaged groups by 2015

Table 3 below indicates the disparity of female/male representation, across disciplines in Nigerian universities, within the period 2000 to 2004.

Table 3. Enrolment in the universities by discipline, gender, year

Discipline	2003/2004			2000-2004		
	M	F	%F	F	M:F	%F
Arts	4530	4007	49.3	29584	1:1	46:3
Education	4441	4463	50.1	36882	1:1	47:7
Engineering/Technology	7567	1079	12.5	11516	8:1	11.6
Environmental Science	553	199	26.5	4589	3:1	24.0
Medical Science	5912	3678	38.4	23476	1.6:1	38.9
Basic Science	10822	5183	32.4	36001	2.5:1	29.1
Social Science	8922	6535	42.3	39954	1.7:1	37.7
Law	2688	2646	49.6	14522	1.8:1	44.4

Source: National Universities Commission (2004)

In the opinion of Erinoshio (2005), the apparent relatively low representation of females in Nigerian universities can be ascribed to factors that include socio-economic biases and discriminations, non-supportive socialization processes, gender insensitive curricula and school texts, differential teacher-pupil interaction, and polarization of interest and experiences among the male and female genders (Erinoshio, 2005). It would seem, therefore, that the question of gender inequity in tertiary education enrolment in Nigeria has degenerated into some sort of socio-economic albatross to government. This is especially so, when viewed in the contextual principles of the Fifth Goal of the Dakar Declaration on Education For All (EFA), that is the elimination of gender disparities in Education by 2005, achieving equality in gender education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to education of good quality. (Obayan, 2004). The inequity in male/female access to higher education has been aptly described by Obayan, (2004:71), as a "development which becomes endangered if it is not engendered".

It is worthy of note that the trend of enrolment in higher institutions of learning, with its substantial skew in favor of the male gender, still persists in constituting the main determinants of the location of women on the occupational ladder (AAU, 1994). Paradoxically, female students, often bogged down by house work, at the perilous expense of school work, are more susceptible to lower academic achievements, and consequently more prone to higher attrition rates in school. The relatively higher drop out rate for the female undergraduates is further compounded by other factors like early marriages, unplanned pregnancy, and socio-cultural factors that perceive the female gender as being eventually bound for the motherhood and kitchen roles only.

Incidentally, one of the major fall-outs of under-representation of females on university enrollments, is an ambivalent translation of the template paradigm to the work place, including the universities. Evidences abound which indicate that females are grossly under-represented in leadership positions across vocational and professional fields in the country, including the universities. The female gender is obviously under-represented on university faculties, even in areas like education, medicine, and law that are traditionally considered to be female friendly. Members of the female gender who make it to the professorial cadre on university faculties are often in the gross minority. The general tendency is for the female faculty members to cluster somewhat at the junior or middle level. What obtains in other vocational fields, including political elective/appointive positions, is a similar scenario. This situation has

not done much to provide the female student with the proper mentor personalities and profiles to aspire towards. Unfortunately, according to Ade-Ajayi et al (1999), members of the leadership of African Universities, most of who are male, do not even see the inequity in the female/male representation in enrolment as an issue of serious concern.

The authors must acknowledge our generous use of data from the works of Professor S. Y. Erinosho. These include table 4 below, which shows clearly, the disparity between the male/female genders, as reflected in the females participation in key positions in Nigeria.

Table 4: Women Participation in Key Positions In Nigeria In The Year 2005.

Position	Total	Female	% Female
University Vice Chancellors	50	2	4.0
University Registrars	50	7	11.9
Pro Chancellors	50	1	2.3
Appointed Council Members (Federal Universities)	161	3	1.2
Seats in Parliament (Lower Houses)	450	30	6.7
Seats in Upper Houses	108	3	2.8
Ministerial Level	72	16	22.6
Speakers of State Houses	36	2	5.6
National Political Reform Conference	375	31	8.0

Source: Erinosho (2005)

In the words of Dauda (2004), “In Nigeria, gender issues in development were treated as peripheral in national planning, until the Declaration of the United Nations Development Decade for Women, between 1975 and 1985. As a result, women’s ...management capabilities were marginalized and not taken cognizance of by national planners. ...gender roles have shackled women to the floor preventing them from participating in, and benefiting from development efforts”. The views of Dauda (2004) are ably represented in table 4 above. It is the strong contention of this paper, that, from whichever societal socio-political or economic-cultural angle one looks at it, either matrilineal or patrilineal, even an ardent misogynist will want to agree that Table 4 above does not portray or reflect an enviable gender platform for national development – hence the need for an urgent reform.

Challenges ahead

The establishment of private universities has, paradoxically, been a *sine qua non onus* to the system on one hand, and an obvious *ex gratia*, on the other. While helping to alleviate pressure on admissions and access into the already saturated public university system, they have tended to create a generation of highly elitist institutions, whose doors are open to only the financially privileged upper echelon in the community. Incidentally, there are not many of these new generation institutions that have put in place any meaningful measures to address the issues at stake in respect of the disadvantaged group, the main focus of this paper. This still remains a challenge to the university system in Nigeria.

Recommendations

This paper will not be complete without offering suggestions on what could be a panacea to the problems of the disadvantaged groups especially the female child, in the light of access to secondary education, and subsequent graduation from higher education in Nigeria. The following are some recommendations in this regard:

1. Government should finance, in all its ramifications, and make compulsory education for all citizens regardless of gender, at the primary level, and up to the senior secondary school (SSS) level. This will afford all citizens, irrespective of their socio-economic or geo-demographic status, the basic functional education that can afford each member of the community the privileged foundation of being able to read and write.
2. Government should embark on a massive campaign to create awareness on the need for the education of all female children, and all physically challenged children.
3. Government should seek avenue for assisting students especially females, who are identified to be financially needy. It is on record here that Babcock University (BU), a private university located in the South West of the country, (a region that is particularly known for its thirsty quest and drive for the acquisition of education and knowledge), is doing a lot in this regard. BU acknowledged programs in this regard include:
 - (a) The opportunity given to poor students to engage in the “Work-Study” program to assist them financially.
 - (b) The offer of financial assistance by the BU Parent Consultative Forum (an association of the parents and teachers of the institution) to students who lose their parents or financial guardians while they (the students) are enrolled at BU.
 - (c) The offer of the Heritage Allowance, (a form of financial assistance) to students who are bona fide children of constituency members of the proprietors of the University.
 - (d) In the spirit of ensuring access to university education to all, especially the disadvantaged groups, a sister university of Babcock University, Adeleke University, which is billed to open its doors to her first set of students in October 2011 in Ede, Osun State, Nigeria, has offered to give full scholarships to financially-handicapped students from their first year of enrollment at the University.
- (6) Educational funding agencies like Federal Government Scholarship, Federal Government Students Loans Board, Commonwealth Scholarship, and Bureau for External Aid, (some of which have almost become endangered or extinct), should be resuscitated and reinvigorated for the benefit of students, particularly the female ones.
- (7) Deliberate action plans should be encouraged by government and corporate bodies at all levels to have more women appointed into critical and managerial positions. This will provide some role-model mentors to be looked up to by younger women. This will help to break the vicious cycle of under representation of the female in school and in the work place.
- (8) The university should be made more female friendly by providing facilities for female members of the university community to take proper care of their young infants, when the mothers, faculty or students, are at work or in the class. A baby crèche should be provided as an integral part of every university physical infrastructure. Students who are legally married, and who have babies while at school, should be encouraged to return to their studies as soon as they can afford to after childbirth. This way, the institution of motherhood should not be seen to be working at cross purposes with the acquisition of higher education.

Conclusion

From this paper thus far, it is apparent that the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals especially of universal access to education by disadvantaged groups is being threatened in some African countries, including Nigeria. In a position paper on the critical issue of equity in access to education, the World Bank had this to say “where apparently equal access to educational facilities appears not to ensure equal participation in or equal use of resources among population groups, it would be necessary to determine the factors that facilitated or hindered participation and learning, and then to tailor policies to mitigate or eliminate them” (World Bank, 1994:16). The World Bank’s position aptly describes the position of this paper, in respect of the needs of the female child.

As a signatory to the Millennium Development Goal, Nigeria cannot afford to be derailing where the rest of the world is taking care of their disadvantaged groups especially the female child. The nation should make the necessary adjustments in her educational and socio-economic policies to ensure that she attains considerable progress in attaining the Millennium Development Goal of ensuring gender equity in access to education by 2015.

References

- AAA (1994) “Demand Access And Equity Issues In African Higher Education, Past Policies, Current Practices And Readiness for the 21st Century”. Ithaca, NY, Cornell University.
- Ade-Ajayi, J. F. Laneck, K. H. G., and Johnson, G. A. (1999) “The African Experience with Higher Education”. Athens. Ohio University Press in association of African Universities, Accra.
- Adeyemi, K. (2001) “Equity of Access And Catchment Area Factor in University Admissions In Nigeria”. Higher Education, Vol. 42. pp 307-332. Netherlands. Kluwe Academic Publishers.
- Akabue, A. U. and Enyi, D. (2001) “Crises And Challenges In Higher Education In Developing Countries – A Book of Readings”. Ibadan. Wisdom Publishers Ltd.
- CVCNU (2007). Field Work Report on Access to Higher Education by the Disadvantaged Group In Nigeria.
- Dassin, J. (2005) IFP in 2005: Nurturing Leadership and Social Change: The Mission of the Ford Foundation International Fellowships Program.
- Dauda, R. O.S (2004) Paradox of Gender Equality In Nigerian Politics. Essays In Honor of Dr (Mrs.) Veronica Adeleke. Lagos. Concept Publications.
- Erinosho, S. Y. (2005) “Women And Science”. 36th Inaugural Lecture of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye.
- Halpern, D. F. (1992) “Sex Differences In Cognitive Abilities” Hillsdale, N. J. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc . (2nd ed).

Hyde, J. S.; Fennema, E; and Lamon, S. J. (1990). "Gender Differences In Mathematics Performance: A Metal-Analysis". *Psychological Bulletin*, 107, 139-155

Lloyd, P. C. (1972) *Africa In Social Change: Changing Traditional Societies In Modern World*. England, Penguin Books Ltd

National Population Commission (NPC) (1998) 1991 Population Census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria: Analytical Report At the National Level.

Njoku, P. C. (2005) "University Education And National Development" Babcock University Academic Congregation Colloquium series, vol. 2

Obayan, P. (2004) *Educating For The Knowledge Economy*. Ibadan. Mosuro Publishers.

Okpi, A. (2011) 'Less Than 45% of Girls Make It to Secondary School-Report. *Sunday Punch*. July 24, 2011.

Psacharapolous and Woodhall (1985). "An Education for Development: An Analysis of Investment Choices". Washington DC. IBRD/World Bank.

UCAS (2001) "The UCAS Annual Report 1999 – 2000. Chattenham, UCAS. UK.

Wellingham, W. W. and Cole, N. S. (1997) "Gender and Fair Assessment". Mahwah, N. J. Lawrence.

World Bank (1994:16) *The Dynamics of Education Policy Making*. Washington, D.C

NATIONAL HEALTH INSURANCE SCHEME AND THE ATTAINMENT OF MATERNAL MORTALITY TARGET OF THE MDG IN GHANA;

(SELECTED HOSPITALS IN GREATER ACCRA REGION).

By

¹ AGYEKUM, Francis K., ² MAWUTOR, Godfred

³ FOSUA, Amo Hannah

^{1,2} Valley View University, Department of Banking and Finance, School of Business

³ Valley View Universities, Department of Accounting, School of Business

Abstract

The health needs of women and children which as encapsulated in the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's 4 and 5) are two priorities in most countries of which Ghana is no exception. In response to the attainment of MGD Goals 4 & 5 the government of Ghana, introduced the NHIS in 2004 and subsequently declared free maternal health care for pregnant women in 2008. However, evidence seems to suggest that the prevalence rate of maternal mortality has not significantly improved even after the free maternal health care through the NHIS. This study was therefore conduct to evaluate the real impact of the NHIS on the maternal health in Greater Accra Region by evaluating the trend both maternal visit and mortality before and after the introduction of the NHIS, ascertaining whether there is significant difference between the causes of maternal mortality before and after the introduction of NHIS and finally analysed the impact of the implementation of the NHIS on maternal health in the selected (years). Using time series data from OPD attendance records in selected hospitals across the Region, two main system of equations were employed; first the trend (time-series analysis) and the other equations which was simply a multiple regression. The outcome of this study revealed that the NHIS and the 'FREE Maternal Care' policy introduced by the governments have more nominal effect than real, though in some cases results were mixed. Whereas the implementation of the NHIS has positive impact on maternal OPD attendance, this has not directly translated into reducing the maternal death in the selected years, as the causes of maternal mortality in Ghana, before and after the implementation of the NHIS have been almost the same. It is therefore recommended that for the MDG of improving maternal health to be realised in the region, the hospital facilities need to be upgraded to complement government's (NHIS) policy of 'free maternal care' policy under the NHIS has wrought.

Key words:Maternal Mortality, multiple regression, MDGs

Background of the Study

The health needs of women and children which are laconically encapsulated in the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's 4 and 5) are two priorities in most countries of which Ghana is no exception. Indeed women in developing countries are often confronted with serious health issues either for themselves, especially during pregnancy or their children, and one of such problems is accesses to adequate health care either for themselves or their children. The World Health Organisation's reports

indicate that Africa faces a high maternal death ratio of approximately 1,000 deaths per 100,000 lives (WHO, 2001).

According to WHO and UNICEF recommendations, (as cited in MDGR, 2010) Women are expected to receive care from a trained health-care practitioner at least four times during the course of their pregnancies. The report however indicated that, “less than half of pregnant women in developing regions and only a third of rural women receive the recommended four visits.” (MDGR, 2010).

Apoya and Marriott, (*paper for Oxfam International*, 2011) cited in (Salisu and Prinz, 2009; MOH, 2002) that Ghana is not on track to achieving the health Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), because one quarter of the population live over 60km from a health facility where a doctor can be consulted and skilled birth attendance is low at only 46%. And therefore should the current trends persist Ghana, then the earliest years for Ghana to achieve the MDG for maternal health would be 2027.

The inability of the pregnant women to access the health services are accounted for by myriad of issues prominent among which is ‘inability to pay-for-user fee. Access to health insurance and thus healthcare is an essential condition for improved maternal and child health according to (Reginald, 2011).

Ghana has since independence operated various health delivery financing modes. Ranging from free health care for all (in 1957 after independence) to an introduction of user fees in the mid-1980s; to user fee partial exemptions for a section of the vulnerable in society (somewhere later ‘80s) and the present stage of health insurance, have been the phases of health financing modes the country has experienced. Indeed the introduction of the National Health Insurance Scheme in Ghana in 2004 is not only a fulfilment of political manifesto but most importantly as part of global response to reduce financial barriers to health care generally as has acknowledged by Hatt, Chankova, and Sulzbach (2009).

Problem Statement

The health and safety needs of every individual especially the pregnant women are of a great concern to governments all over the world. It is in this light the MDG goal of improving maternal health has been embraced by all governments. However, the specific target of reducing the maternal mortality by three quarters between 1990 and 2015 seems to be more of mirage than reality. This is even more pronouncing in developing countries of which Ghana is no exception.

According to MDG Report, (2008) “the high risk of dying in pregnancy or childbirth continues unabated in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia”. Indeed, “the maternal mortality remains unacceptably high across much of the developing world; and in 2005, more than 500,000 women died during pregnancy, childbirth or in the six weeks after delivery, globally, the report added. Sad enough is the fact ninety-nine per cent of these deaths occurred in the developing regions, with sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia accounting for as high 86 per cent of them. Indeed a woman’s risk of dying from treatable or preventable complications of pregnancy and childbirth over the course of her lifetime is 1 in 22 in sub-Saharan Africa as compared to 1 in 7,300 in the developed regions (MDG Report, 2008).

The Ghana government, in her response to the attainment of MGD Goals 4 & 5 introduced the NHIS in 2004 and subsequently declared free maternal health care for pregnant women in 2008. This was partly in response to the alarming rate of maternal and child deaths which prevailed in the country the cause of which some blamed it on the people’s inability to pay for the care received. However, evidence seems to suggest that the prevalence rate of maternal mortality has not significantly improved even after the free maternal health care through the NHIS.

It is in the light of this research is being conduct to evaluate the real impact of the NHIS on the maternal health in Ghana in contrast with the nominal impact of the same.

Objective of the Study

- To evaluate the trend both maternal visit and mortality before and after the introduction of the NHIS.
- To Ascertain whether there is significant difference between the causes of maternal mortality before and after the introduction of NHIS
- To analyse the impact of the implementation of the NHIS on maternal health in the selected (years).

Policy Significance of the Study

Given that almost all the developing countries are trailing behind the MDGs target of 'reducing by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio' including Ghana, this study is expected to inform and influence policy directions of the government of Ghana as far as maternal health goals of the MDGs is concernment. Indeed identification of complementary factors necessary in attaining the MDG on maternal health will in no small way inform policy direction and focus.

LITERATURE REVIEW

MDG on Maternal Health

The Goal-5 of the Millennium Development Goal is to improve maternal health of which the targets are: to reduce thematernal mortality ratio by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015; and to achieve, universal access to reproductive health by 2015 according to the MDGs Report,(2010). Witter, Adjei, Armarm-Klemesu and Graham (2009) have indicated that reducing maternal mortality and reaching the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 5 target by 2015 has been quite challenging for many countries to meet of which Ghana is of no exception. In deed achieving good maternal health requires quality reproductive health services and a series of well-timed interventions to ensure a women's safe passage to motherhood (MGDR, 2010).

In fact measuring maternal mortality (which often are deaths resulting from the complications of pregnancy or childbirth) is quite challenging task due to underreporting and misreporting of such occurrences, especially among the rural poor. Ghana is classified as one of the countries with high burden of maternal mortality with an estimated maternal mortality ratio (MMR) in Ghana in 2005 at 560 per 100,000 live births (range: 200–1,300) (WHO; 2007).

The MDG Report indicates that most maternal deaths could be avoided in most part of the developing countries (MDGR, 2010). The same report alluded to that that 'leading causes of maternal mortality in developing regions are *haemorrhage* and *hypertension*, of which *haemorrhage* accounts for a third of all maternal deaths. Some few indirect causes include malaria, HIV/ AIDS and heart disease, which actually accounts for about 18 per cent of maternal deaths. (MDGR, 2010). Indeed, some other direct causes, such as obstructed labour, complications of *anaesthesia* or caesarean section, and ectopic pregnancy, explain 11 per cent of all deaths during pregnancy or childbirth in developing. These disease can be prevented or managed but requires a range of interventions which ought to be administered by a skilled health-care provider. To effectively ensure this, it is said that adequate equipment and supplies should however be acquired.

Health Sector Financing Strategies

Strategies for financing health care has received attention in the literature, especially those posited within health economics as a emerging discipline within the ambience of economics as a field of study. Jacobs (1997) acknowledges that ‘there are three major methods of financing health care service, namely: out-of-pocket payment by consumers (patients), insurance premium and through taxation; and within each category there are a number of different financing techniques’.

Out of pocket payment could take the form of deductibles, co-payments, and full consumer payments. Financing through insurance Jacobs (1997) argues could take the form of insurance premium paid directly by the consumer, or paid by the employer or even by the government’. What Jacobs failed to acknowledge was the fact that the payment of the premium could jointly be made by the three identified groups namely the user (consumer), the employer and the government. With respect to the tax as a source of financing health care, Jacobs (1997) further explains that the tax can be levied income or on specific products or services.

In a broader sense, the financing modes could also be categorized into private (consumer and employer) and public (through tax revenues). However, each of these two broad categories has its own challenges and opportunities. Indeed this admission is to buttress the fact that financing and provision of service should not come from only one organization. For instance since some cost element are financed from tax revenues, it may allow government bodies more direction of health care system in the pursuits of societal objectives (Mends, 2008). In the collective purchaser of the care on the community’s behalf, a public body can dictate terms of provision with equal power to both public and private providers.

In the case of private sector health care financing, the insurance company covers specific risks of ill-health to the consumer and incurs the consequential expense of health care since the consumer pays a premium which might cover the use of all approved health.

The fact that each of the identified modes of financing health care will impact differently on groups with different characteristics such as ones income level or family size has also received attention in the literature. For instance it has been argued that the burden of insurance premium that are paid out of pocket by the consumer will fall on the consumer directly, (Jacobs, 1997 p 282). Perhaps the tax as financing strategy may have a direct toll on the government fiscal budget but indirect burden on the ultimate payers of such taxes.

The recognition has also been given to the fact that each of these financing methods has cost implications. Jacobs indicated that “in the case of private insurance, there are the costs of marketing, rating alternative consuming groups, paying providers, and monitoring utilization”. The cost of collecting taxes and administering public programs may be the cost if the public were to finance it through tax, (Jacobs, 1997 p 283).

The Concept of Health Insurance: Types and Forms

“Healthcare insurance is a risk pooling arrangement by which the cost of healthcare to any single individual in the society, whether rich or poor, becomes a collective responsibility of all the people in the society” (Donaldson & Gerard, 1993). The health insurance as a health sector financing strategy occurs in a situation in which a fund which allows everybody to contribute into it so that in the event of illness contributors could be supported by the fund to receive affordable healthcare in the health facilities is created.

The health insurance as a concept has been in the economics and health literature for some time now. For instance recounting some of the challenges in the health insurance as a way of financing health care, Arrows (1963), identified two problems; moral hazard and adverse selection. He argued that the moral hazard may occur in two forms: i) when patients may choose to visit care centre on any frivolous reason, and as he doesn't miss a word on this when he indicated that; "it is frequently observed that medical insurance increases the demand for medical care" Arrows, 1963; ii) when the physicians knowing that there exist an insurance may decide to exploit the system to their advantage by either charging a higher fee or inducing demand where there may not be a genuine ailment. As observed by Arrow, (1963) "needless to say, it is far from perfect check, the physician themselves are not under any control and it may be convenient for them or pleasing to their patients to prescribe more expensive medication, private nurse, more frequent treatment and other marginal variation of care".

Indeed, the idea of insurance in health care is to redistribute income from the group of subscribers who have low propensity and exposure to fall sick to the very people who have higher risk and exposure to get sick; the fact which has been acknowledged by the some author including Arrow, (1963). In the case of Ghana the National health Insurance was established to provide an opportunity for all Ghanaians to have equal access to the functional structure of health care. It was to move Ghanaians from an unaffordable 'cash and carry' (out-of-pocket payment) regime to another affordable health insurance one as was contained in *Annual Health Sector Review (2003)*.

METHODOLOGY

Two main systems of equations are employed; first the *trend* (time-series analysis) and the other equations which is simply a multiple regression.

Data Source

A time series data is being employed in this study as it relates to a specified time horizon. This is so because the focus is on analyzing the *trend* of collection of the NHIS revenue over a period of time. Indeed the data source is secondary which was gathered from *already existing* data from the National Health Insurance head office.

Model Specifications

Multiple Regression Model

The econometric model that has been estimated was mainly a multiple regression model *generally* specified as: $MM_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OPD^b + \beta_2 OPD^a + \beta_3 OPD^{af} + \beta_4 t + \mu_t, \dots (1)$

Where the MM_t is the Maternal Mortality rate level using the monthly OPD attendance current (t) and the explanatory variables are OPD^b , OPD^a , OPD^{af} (the superscript 'b', 'a', and 'af' the OPD attendance 'before', 'after' and 'after the free' introduction of the NHIS into the country). Indeed this is a linear multiple model which is commonly used as a simple means of estimating a regression equation; following Pindyck & Rubinfeld (1991).

Specifically, *linear model* to estimate is given below:

$$MM_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \mu_t, \dots \text{linear trend model}$$

B_{tb} ; represents the rate of change of the MMt_b rate over time, which if β turns out to be unity (*i.e.*, $\beta=1$), then the extrapolated series of NHIL is expected to increase by the same absolute amount each time period. However, if the β is less than 1 but greater than zero (thus, $0 < \beta < 1$), then the extrapolated series is expected to increase but at a diminishing rate; and if the β is greater than 1 ($\beta > 1$), then there would be an *exponential* increase in the extrapolated series in the MMt_b rate. The

The *linear trend model* estimated is specified generally as:

$$MMt_a = f(t) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

However, the specific model is shown below as:

$$MMt_a = \beta_0 + \beta_2 t_a + \mu_t \dots \dots \dots \text{linear trend model}$$

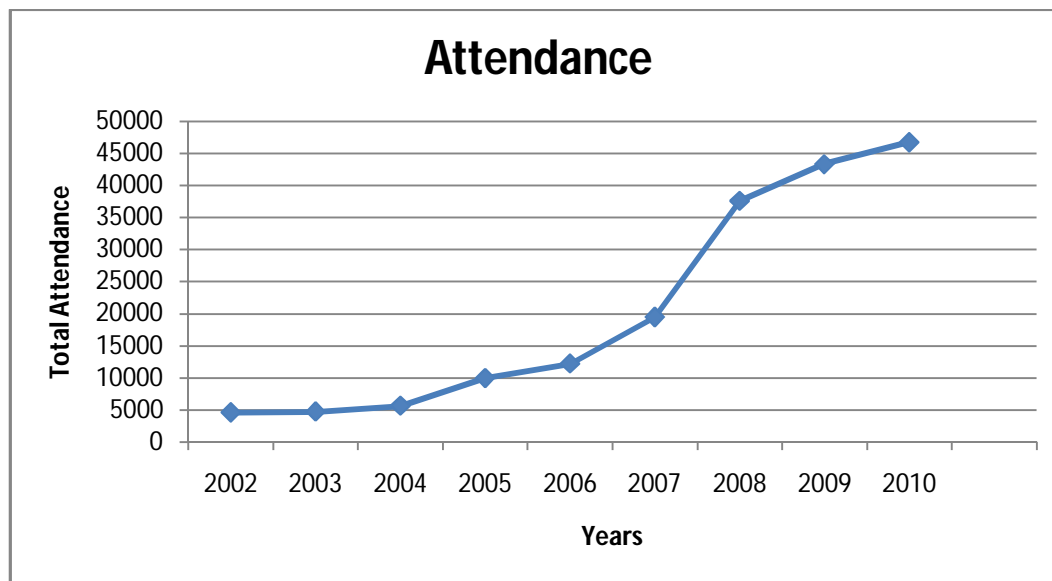
$$MMt_{af} = \beta_0 + \beta_3 t_f + \mu_t \dots \dots \dots \text{linear trend model}$$

RESULTS

Data Presentation and Findings

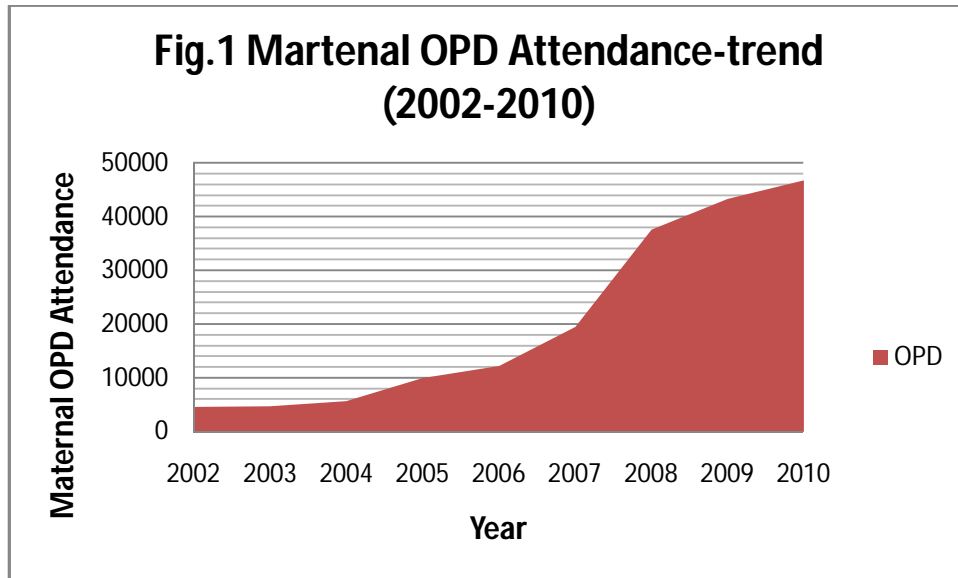
The study sought to determine the relationship between maternal mortality and attendance before and after the introduction of the NHIS and time by regressing attendance and time on maternal mortality.

Figure 1: Maternal Attendance between 2002 to 2010



Source: Authors' Computation

Data obtained seems to project that maternal attendance has been increasing over the period 2002 to 2010. As expected attendance was generally low before the introduction of the NHIS and even increased further after the introduction of the free delivery system. The trend is shown in the figure below:



$$MM_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OPD^b + \beta_2 OPD^a + \beta_3 OPD^{af} + \beta_4 t + \mu_t \dots (1)$$

$$MM_t = 0.2385 + 0.002718 OPD^b + 0.000989 OPD^a + 0.00043 OPD^{af} + 0.54473 t_1$$

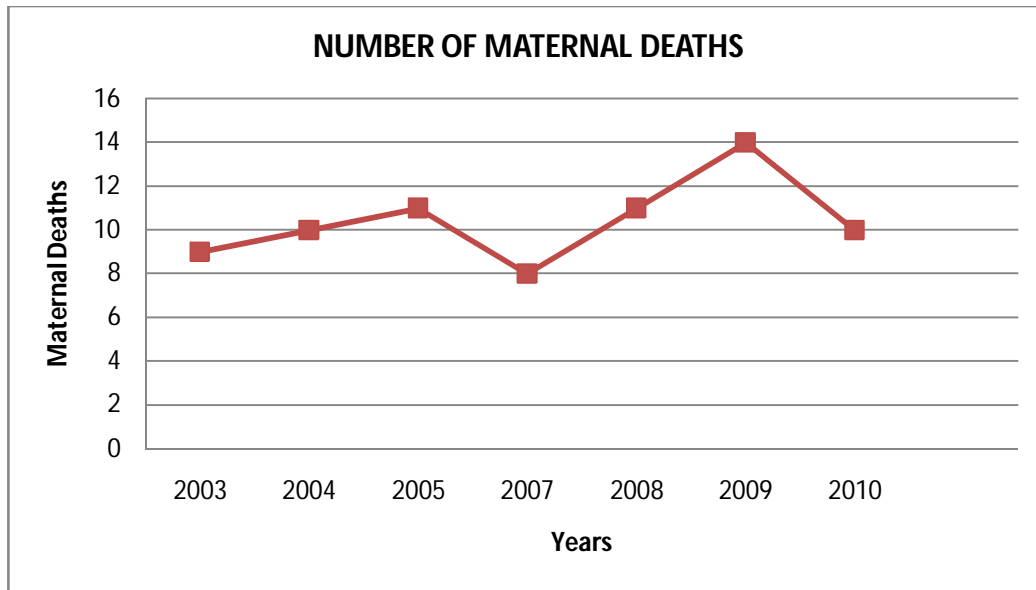
Table 1: Se (0.000339) (0.0005) (0.0001) (0.2948)

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t -Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>
<i>Intercept</i>	0.238552	1.20423	0.198095	0.848601
<i>OPD^b</i>	0.002718	0.000339	8.008002	9.06E-05
<i>OPD^a</i>	0.000989	5.43E-05	18.18845	3.76E-07
<i>OPD^{af}</i>	1.43E-05	0.000109	0.131442	0.899123
<i>Time</i>	0.54473	0.294774	1.847961	0.107087

Source: Authors' Computation

The results from this general model are displayed in Table 1 above. The results seem to indicate that, there existed a positive relationship between maternal mortality and attendance before the introduction of the NHIS. Thus, it appears even though attendance was increasing maternal deaths were also increasing. All the other variables also showed a positive relationship with maternal deaths - even though some of the coefficients were statistically insignificant. Most importantly, maternal deaths were increasing over time (as seen by the time variable) which could be attributed in part to the increasing attendance after the introduction the NHIS and most especially the free delivery system.

Figure 2: Maternal Deaths from 2002 to 2010



Source: Authors' Computation

Figure 2 portrays the trend of maternal deaths over time. It can be observed that maternal deaths slowed down after the introduction of the NHIS in late 2004 but it started increasing after 2007 and continued to increase even after the free maternal delivery system had been implemented.

Table 2: Relationship between maternal deaths and time after the introduction of Free Delivery System

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>
Intercept	3.902	0.763	5.114	0
timeMonths	-0.16	0.104	-1.548	0.153

Source: Authors' Computation

Table 2 highlights the relationship between maternal mortality and time after the introduction of the free maternal delivery system in 2008. It can be seen that over time the rate of deaths decreased even though the coefficient is statistically insignificant.

Table 3: Relationship between maternal deaths and time AFTER the introduction of NHIS

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>
Intercept	2.773	.574	4.827	.001
timeMonths	-.157	.078	-2.016	.071

Source: Authors' Computation

The result in Table 3 presents the relationship between maternal deaths and the introduction of the NHIS (before the introduction of the free delivery system). Again, it could be observed that maternal deaths reduced over time. Thus, over time the NHIS contributed to the reduction of maternal deaths. The test of significance of the coefficient indicates that the variations in the maternal deaths are actually explained by time and not due to chance.

Table 4: Relationship between maternal deaths and time BEFORE the Introduction of NHIS

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>
Intercept	2.465	.267	9.229	.000
timeMonths	-.020	.036	-.562	.587

Source: Authors' Computation

Finally, it can be seen that there existed a negative relationship between maternal deaths and time before the introduction of NHIS. Thus, even without the NHIS the results here seems to indicate that maternal deaths were on a decrease, with passage of time. Again (not shown here), a general observation of the trend model looking at time and maternal deaths showed that the relationship was again negative.

Table 5 Causal Factors of Maternal Mortality (from 2002 to 2010)

Date	Causal Factors of Maternal Mortality
2002	Anaemia, Raptured uterus, Haemorrhagicshock, Septic abortion, and Cardiac arrest.
2003	Uterine Atony, Severe Anaemia, Haemorrhagicshock, and Incomplete abortion.
2004	Haemorrhagicshock, Septic abortion, Cardiac arrest, and Retained Placenta
2005	Haemorrhagicshock, SevereAnaemia, Uterine Atony, and Incomplete abortion
2006	Haemorrhagicshock, Severe Anaemia, Cardiac arrest, Lobar pneumonia, and Abruption placenta
2007	Retained placenta, Haemorrhagicshock, Severe Anaemia, Incomplete abortion, and Hypovolemic shock
2008	Cerebral Anoxia, Uterine Atony, Haemorrhagicshock, Cardiac arrest, Severe Anaemia, and Abruption Placenta
2009	Incomplete abortion, Retained Placenta, Haemorrhagicshock, Severe Anaemia, Uterine Atony, and Raptured uterus.
2010	Severe Anaemia, Septic abortion, Haemorrhagicshock, Retained placenta, and Cardiac arrest.

Data from La General Hospital records (2002-2010)

Discussion of the Results

An evaluation of the trend both in maternal visit and mortality; before and after the introduction of the NHIS, has given interesting outcome which has been discussed here, in addition to the other set objectives.

The study used OPD attendants as the variables for maternal visits before and after the introduction of the NHIS; and also before and after the introduction of the free maternal care policy. The outcome indicated that the maternal visit (OPD attendance) before the introduction of the NHIS was generally low (thus,

2002-2004), suggesting low patronage (see fig.1). However, after the introduction of the NHIS (2004-to date) there was sudden jump, peaking ever further after 2008 where the *free, Maternal Care policy* was introduced by the government. Indeed the outcome suggests that one sure way of reducing the number of maternal deaths is to give all women access to good healthcare regardless of their economic status in society if the *target-1* of the MDGs-5 were to be attained. The introduction of the NHIS gave more pregnant women access to quality healthcare and hence the tremendous increase in maternal OPD attendance.

The fee-for-service (cash-and-carry) system presented a financial barrier to most pregnant women to access quality health care from the formal health sector thereby compelling them to resort to the services of traditional birth attendants (TBA); consistent with the findings of Bergström and Goodburn (2010). The introduction of NHIS and the subsequent policy of *free maternal care* had a positive effect on the maternal visit, confirming what Asante and Aikins, (2007) discovered that the introduction of user fees resulted in a decline in utilization of health services in the country.

One fascinating outcome of this study is the fact that even though, maternal OPD attendance soared after the introduction of the NHIS, the maternal mortality did not reduce as may be expected. Some years after the NHIS, maternal mortality increased (in absolute terms, but as a ratio of OPD attendance there was a reduction), and in some other years there was a reduction.

The outcome that NHIS did not positively have a direct significant impact on incident of maternal deaths (in absolutes) is explained by the second objective of ascertaining whether there is significant difference between the causes of maternal mortality before and after the introduction of NHIS. Indeed the study suggested that there has actually not been any significant change in the causes of maternal mortality *before* and *after* the inception of the NHIS. This is so because *Haemorrhagic shock* continues to be the single largest cause of maternal death, followed by severe anaemia; while incomplete abortions and cardiac arrest also remain the general causes of maternal death in Ghana. This result seems to echo report by the Millennium Development Goals that most maternal death in developing countries is predominantly caused by Haemorrhagic shock (accounting about 35% in all pregnant related deaths), with hypertensive disorders, abortion, obstructed labour, among other, all contributing to the deaths of pregnant women (MDGR, 2008; MDGR, 2010). It was seen from table 5 that the major causes of Maternal Mortality (*from 2002 to 2010*) are predominantly either lifestyle diseases or not those covered by the NHIS. Besides, the NHIS only concentrated on curative other than preventive health care, where most of these identified causes fall into. It is therefore not surprising that even after the introduction of the NHIS, the maternal mortality levels have not significantly changed.

Conclusion

Generally, study has revealed that the impact of the implementation of the NHIS on maternal health in the selected years has been mixed. Whereas the implementation of the NHIS has positive impact on maternal OPD attendance, this has not directly translated into reducing the maternal death in the selected years. This is simply so because the causes of maternal mortality in Ghana, before and after the implementation of the NHIS have been almost the same. The only difference however is that few other causes like malaria could be averted with early care-seeking among the pregnant women.

In effect what this suggests is that the NHIS and the 'FREE Maternal Care' policy introduced by the governments have more *nominal* effect than *real*. This is so because the health facilities have not been upgraded to enough rises to the challenge that free maternal care policy under the NHIS has wrought.

Policy Recommendation

For the MDG of improving maternal health to be realised in Ghana, the nation's hospital facilities ought to be upgraded to rise to the challenge that government's (NHIS) policy of 'free maternal care' policy under the NHIS has wrought.

Additionally since most of the leading causes of maternal mortality in the country all fall outside the curative concerns of the NHIS, there is the need for the Scheme operator to add preventive care as a dimension to the bid to reducing the high unacceptable incidence of maternal mortality in the country. The situation now seems to move on intervention after, (thus, curative) instead of on how to prevent the occurrence of such causes of deaths.

The preventive aspect would succeed with more investment into research into those leading causes of death, as well as public health educations to ensure early attention by the pregnant mothers.

References

- Bergström and Goodburn, (2008) 'the role of Traditional Birth Attendants in the Reduction of Maternal Mortality', assessed from www.jsieurope.org/safem/....pdf (retrieved 10/01/2011)
- Campbell, O.M., and Graham, W.J. (2006). Strategies For Reducing Maternal Mortality: Getting On With What Works. *The Lancet* [Maternal Survival Series] 368(9543)
- Ghana Health Service (GHS). (2007a). *Reproductive Health Strategic Plan 2007*. Accra, Ghana: Ghana Health Service.
- Ghana Health Service (GHS) (2007b). *Ghana Health Service Annual Report 2007*. Accra, Ghana: Ghana Health Service.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2007) *Ghana Maternal Health survey, 2007*, Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), Noguchi Memorial Institute for Medical Research (NMIMR), and ORC Macro (2004) *Ghana Demographic and Health Survey 2003*.
- Hatt, L., Chankova, S, and Sulzbach, S. (2009) Maternal Health in Ghana: Investigating the Impact of the National Health Insurance Scheme on Maternal Health Indicators (*Global Health Action*)
- WHO, (2004) International Classification of Diseases, 10th Revision, Geneva.
- Longman Contemporary Dictionary, (2010). www.longman.com/dictionary (retrieved on 20/2/2011)
- Ministry of Health (MOH) (2008a). Independent Review Health Sector Program Of Work 2007: Draft Report. Accra, Ghana: *Ministry of Health*.

Sulzbach, S. (2008) Evaluating the Impact of National Health Insurance in Ghana: Health Systems 20/20; *USAID*

Ronsmans, C. and Graham, W. (2006). Maternal mortality: Who, when, where, and why. *The Lancet* 368: 1189-1200

The Millennium Development Goals Report, 2008, assessed from
<http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/MDG%20Report%202010%20En%20r15%20-low%20res%2020100615%20-.pdf>

The Millennium Development Goals Report, (2010), assessed from
<http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/MDG%20Report%202010%20En%20r15%20-low%20res%2020100615%20-.pdf>

Thaddeus, S., and D. Maine. (1994) Too Far to Walk: Maternal Mortality in Context. *Social Science & Medicine* 38(8): 1091.

United Nations Development Program (UNDP). 2003. *Indicators for monitoring the Millennium Development Goals: Definitions, rationale, concepts, and sources*. New York: United Nations.

World Health Organization (WHO). 2004a. *Making pregnancy safer: The critical role of the skilled attendant*. A joint statement by WHO, ICM, and FIGO. Geneva: Department of Reproductive Health and Research, World Health Organization.

World Health Organization (WHO). 2004b. *Unsafe Abortion: Global And Regional Estimates Of The Incidence Of Unsafe Abortion And Associated Mortality In 2000*. Fourth edition. Geneva: World Health Organization.

Daily Graphic: 'Addressing Ghana's High Maternal Mortality Rate' (reported by Lucy Yeboah; assessed at www.myjoyonline.com (13/02/2010))

Indigenous Technology and Scientific Research as Ingredients for Economic Development: A Case of Shea Butter Industry

By

¹Ohene B. Apea* and ²Eugenia Larbi

^{1 and 2}University for Development Studies, faculty of Applied Sciences, Applied Chemistry Department, Navrongo Campus

Abstract

The issue of technological advancement and poverty alleviation in developing countries is still gingering to experience a major take-off. This study attempts to show that a blend of scientific research and indigenous technology can improve upon industrial productivity. The study assessed the methods for the extraction of shea butter by understanding their principles and determined the best method in terms of yield (volume of oil/kilogram of nut). The yield of Traditional, mechanical press, and solvent extraction methods were determined by extracting 1000g of the nuts. The experiment revealed that the standardized traditional extraction method produce 493.9ml/kg. The mechanical gave a significantly lower yield, 366.7ml/kg and the chemical extraction method (with n-hexane as the solvent) gave a much higher yield, 560ml/kg indicating that extraction can only be improved by chemical means and not mechanical. The mechanical press method was tested on roasted and unroasted nuts and the average yield in each case are 366.7ml/kg, and 251.3ml respectively. the study concluded that the yield of shea butter extraction methods cannot be optimized without taking into consideration the chemical principles involved. Thus the industry can be made viable to generate more income for the nation when research outcome are utilized to standardize and optimize its productivity.

*Corresponding author: Ohene B. Apea, University for Development Studies, faculty of Applied Sciences, Applied Chemistry Department, Navrongo Campus. E-mail: Mobile: +233-244-110017

Introduction

Worldwide, natural vegetable oil and fats are increasingly becoming important in nutrition and commerce because they are sources of dietary energy, antioxidants, bio-fuels and raw material for the manufacture of industrial products. They are used in food, cosmetic, pharmaceutical and chemical industries. Edible oil in Ghana is mainly imported, an indication that oil production in Ghana is lower than demand. Although the major raw materials for production of vegetable oil in Ghana are palm, existence of indigenous plants that contain oil are well known among rural communities.

Vitellara paradoxa (the shea tree), an indigenous wild tree is one such plant of African savanna parkland. The shea tree is an African tree of the Sapodilla family whose seeds yield shea butter. The shea seeds or nuts are primarily grown in the west and central Africa in the semi arid Sahel referred to by traders as 'shea belt' - Ghana, Mali, Burkina Faso etc. The fruit production is from 15 to 30kg per tree and the fruit weighs from 10 to 57g (Chevaller, 1943).

In Ghana, shea butter is mainly produced in the northern part of the country where the trees are commonly found. Women are usually responsible for the processing of pure shea butter which has a smooth and soft paste texture (Sekaf Ghana Ltd). Extraction of the butter is mainly done to supplement food supply for their families especially during periods of post harvesting. This takes place in a communal way, thus women give each other helping hands to relief each other of the stress one has to go through before the butter is finally extracted. Shea butter is extracted by various methods and this accounts for the variations in the quality of a shea butter. Some of the methods of extracting shea butter are the traditional method, use of organic solvents, and mechanical press among others. The extraction with solvent though gives a high yield (Mbaiguinam *et al.*, 2007) is not wholesome for consumption due to some traces of the solvent that may remain in the butter. The press as reported by Obeng *et al.* (2010) produce high yield as compared to the traditional, but the bulkiness of the device does not make it available to women to use to relief them of the stress they go through.

The shea tree is described as the tree of life due to the numerous benefits. Apart from its clinical and cosmetic value it serves as food for people during drought seasons, and as a source of income to those who extract it and helps to bring people together in situations where individuals are helped. Despite the relevance of shea butter which runs through all facets of life little is done especially about the traditional method to improve it. Much has not been done on this method of extraction, mainly because many reports from NGO's have claims of it been cumbersome and have ruled it out as not been the best method of extraction. Several studies have been undertaken though, in order to increase shea butter extraction rate and also to improve the shea butter quality using the traditional processing conditions (Louppe, 1994; Hall *et al.*, 1996). Attempts were made to incorporate appropriate technology into a number of the processing stages, both to improve efficiency and to reduce the amount and drudgery of the labour, as well as impact on the environment (Hall *et al.*, 1996; Elias *et al.*, 2004, Schrechenberg 1996). Some results relative to the identification of shea trees varieties for producing shea butter with specified quality were obtained by Maranz *et al.* (2005). Other researches aimed to determine the factors influencing the quality of fats during their preparation which included shea butter (Louppe, 1994; Hall *et al.*, 1996; Kapseu *et al.*, 2001; Womeni *et al.* 2002) and cocoa butter. Louppe (1995) noted that blanch shea nuts improved shea butter quality; while Hall *et al.* (1996) underlined that the sensorial characteristics of shea and cocoa butters are linked to the kernel roast. A recent study was also carried out by Obeng *et al.*, (2010) to optimize yield taking into consideration temperature, particle size by use of the press.

In order to ascertain the truth in the claims that, the effectiveness of shea butter lays solely on mechanical means, is false and that the economic viability of of shea butter business can be improved employing the right principles in extraction, this study focused on method analysis to indicate that standardization and improvement of local industrial process can contribute to economic advancement and for that matter achievement of the millennium development goals.

ANALYTICAL METHODS

Sampling and sample preparation

Dried shea nuts of good looking texture were bought in bowls from Navrongo market. The nuts were sorted out to remove very dark ones, shells or any unwanted materials that were present in them. They were then washed in water to remove the moulds that were growing on them as a result of storage, after which they were allowed to dry and pounded with a pestle and a mortar to obtain moderately fine

particles. The pounded nuts were divided into five and each sample was worked on separately taking into consideration roasting temperature, kneading temperature, masses of the paste and the temperature for heating of the butter.

Traditional method of shea butter extraction

1000g of the pounded shea nuts were weighed into five separate containers after which each sample was roasted and allowed to cool. They were weighed and milled into a fine paste after which 750ml of water was added to each sample and stirred for about 15mins. The paste was beaten (kneaded) continuously for 30-55min until it turned whitish. The butter was washed four times, each with 800ml of water after which the butter was boiled to evaporate the remaining water from it. The temperatures for each step; kneading and boiling, were taken and recorded. The average values were computed and used to develop a standard extraction procedure.

Pounding of shea nuts

The pestle and mortar for the pounding were washed and allowed to dry after which nuts were gradually pounded by hitting them with a pestle in the mortar into coarse particles.

Roasting of shea nuts

Fire was set and a cooking pot was placed on it, after which 1000g of pounded shea nuts were weighed into it. With the help of the stirring rod the nuts were constantly turned in the pot to ensure even distribution of the heat from the fire. Five different temperatures were taken from time to time. The nuts were taken off the fire at a time when it becomes crispy and easily broken with the fingers. The time for roasting was also taken. The pot was allowed to cool after which the second to the fifth samples were roasted in the same manner as the first. The roasted nuts were allowed to cool and weighed again to obtain the moisture content of the nuts.

Milling of nuts

The roasted nuts were sent to the mill. To avoid adding to the mass the grinding mill was unscrewed and every remains of paste removed from it, the samples were then milled into a fine chocolate colored paste. After each sample the miller was unscrewed to clear it of any remains that might add up to the mass of the next sample to be milled.

Kneading of shea paste

1000ml of water was added to the paste and stirred for 15-20min until the paste is able to leave the finger or the palm without some sticking. The paste was then rubbed with the palm just the case of beating an egg or creaming cake (kneading). Kneading continued until the brownish paste turned white and very light in the palms, the temperature and time were recorded. Water was then added after which the whitish matter was scooped from the surface of the water into a separate pot; the process was repeated for four other samples labeled B, C, D and E.



Figure 3.1: Kneading of shea paste

Rinsing of butter

Exactly 1000ml of water was poured on the whitish matter after which it was gently rinsed to get rid of the brownish color from it. Washing was repeated for four times with the same volume of water. Water was then gently squeezed out from the whitish matter for one minute after which it was put in a pot and boiled to remove remaining water.

Boiling of shea butter

The washed butter was transferred to a vessel and heated to boil. Three different temperatures were taken while boiling continued until a hissy sound was heard indicating the absence of water molecules, the time for boiling was also recorded and the butter was allowed to cool after which the volume was measured using labeled containers.

Standardized traditional method of shea butter extraction

The averages of extracting conditions such as temperature, time etc were obtained from the traditional method of extraction and used to derive standardized values for shea butter extraction. The procedure was developed for extraction of shea butter from the analysis of 1000g roasted nuts. The roasted nuts were weighed after cooling and milled into a fine paste after which 750ml of water was added to the paste and kneaded. This was repeated for four other samples and computing the yield in each case.

Test of standardized traditional method of shea butter extraction

The averages obtained from the five separate extractions of the traditional method were used to extract shea butter. Exactly 1000g of shea nuts were pounded for 6 minutes, roasted at a temperature of $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 21 minutes. It was then milled for 6 minutes and kneaded for 35 minutes. The times and temperatures for kneading and boiling were recorded with the yield of oil.

Construction of mechanical press

A clamp was firmly fixed on a bench with round headed nails after which the angle iron bars were fixed in them tightly and cut into pieces according to the dimensions of the device; after which square threads were cut on the iron bar. Holes were drilled on a 35cmx35cm galvanized plate; it was then rolled into a

cylindrical shape with a base soldered together. The handle was measured and cut. Two angle irons of the same dimensions were tucked together after which they were all assembled.



Figure 2.2: sawing of

metal bars into pieces



Figure 2.3: Soldering metals bars together



Figure 2.4: Assembling of parts

Assembling of parts of device

The base, sides and all parts making up the device were soldered together after which the shaft was fixed to a plate which would serve as the load for the press. The device was then sprayed with a green paint to make it attractive and to avoid soiling the dress of whoever uses it.



Figure 2.5: Shea Butter Extraction Device

Shea butter extraction with mechanical press

A mechanical press was designed, constructed and used to extract 1000g samples of the shea nuts. 1000g of pounded nuts were roasted, milled and mixed with 750ml of water and stirred for 10-12min, after which they were wrapped in a piece of cloth and placed in the perforated cylindrical galvanized tin. By the help of the handle of the device the pressure was applied to the sample to obtain the oil which was collected in bowls. The collected oil mixed with the oil was boiled to evaporate the water leaving the oil. The efficiency in terms of yield and average time spent in the laboratory were computed and used in discussing the extraction methods.

Extraction with soxhlet extractor

A 500ml capacity soxhlet extractor was used in the extraction of milled nut (paste). 50g of the paste was packed in a clean linen cloth into the soxhlet extractor and 370ml of n- hexane was used as the extracting solvent for 55min of continuous extraction. Heat of about 60⁰C was applied to the round bottom flask that contained the solvent. Vapor moved up unto the sample and reflux for four continuous times. The sample was then removed and the vessel was washed of any solvent after which simple distillation was allowed to take place to separate the organic solvent from the extracted oil.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Traditional method of extraction

The stages through which the extraction was carried out were:

- Pounding
- Roasting
- Milling
- Kneading

- Boiling

Table 3.1: Time taken for each stage of the extraction to be completed

SAMPLE	POUNDING TIME (MIN)	ROASTING TIME (MIN)	MILLING TIME (MIN)	KNEADING TIME (MIN)	RINSING TIME (MIN)	BOILING TIME (MIN)	TOTAL TIME (MIN)
I	8	27	6	50	9	27	127
II	9	20	6	30	9	19	93
III	9	15	7	42	8	23	104
IV	8	21	6	38	7	15	95
V	9	24	7	27	7	14	88
Stats	Ave.	8.6	21.4	6.4	37.4	8	19.6
	Std.	0.55	4.51	0.55	9.26	1.00	5.45
	Dev.						15.43

From the results obtained in table 4.1 above, it was observed that shea oil extraction via the traditional method is much involving considering the time needed for each stage to be completed. Averagely, a 1000g or 1kg of shea nuts can be extracted within a period of about 101.4 minutes using the traditional method of extraction. The period involves about 8.6minutes of pounding, 21.4 minutes of roasting, 37.4 minutes of kneading, 8 minutes of rinsing and 19.6 minutes to boil and evaporate the remaining water. The numerous processes involved as well as the times to finish each, confirms the complaints of stress associated with this method of extraction.

Standardization of traditional method of extracting shea butter

The yield of shea butter by the use of the traditional method is dependent on certain variables which are mass of paste, roasting, kneading and boiling temperatures. The table below show the outcomes of five separate extractions undertaken using specifically the traditional method.

Table 3. 2: Averages of the five extractions undertaken using 1kg of nuts

EXPERIMENT	ROASTING		KNEADING		BOILING		Time Taken (min)	Yield ml/kg
	Time (min)	Temp (°C)	Time (min)	Temp (°C)	Time (min)	Temp (°C)		
I	27	101.9	50	33.6	27	100.5	127	486.4
II	20	98.6	30	27.7	19	102.0	93	499.5
III	15	102.1	42	33.2	23	102.8	104	499.5
IV	21	93.3	38	28.1	15	102.9	95	495.8
V	24	114.4	27	25.3	14	101.5	88	495.4
STATS	Ave.	21.4	102.1	37.4	27.6	19.6	101.4	493.4
	Std. Dev.	4.51	7.76	9.26	3.65	5.45	0.99	15.43

The values of table 4.2 revealed that the mass of the paste which is kneaded into the butter is proportional to the quantity of oil obtained. In the experiments undertaken, the masses of the paste reduced due to some remaining in the miller, apart from that it revealed that a kg of nuts would yield an average oil of

493.4ml. Another observation made was that the lesser the kneading temperature the more easier it was to squeeze water from the whitish butter hence a less temperature as well as time was needed to evaporate water from it through boiling. In the case of experiment III in table 2, the average temperature was 33.2°C, it was enough to melt the butter which made it difficult for water to be squeezed out hence the higher time recorded for boiling despite the high temperature applied to it. The average values obtained helps to give the range within which extraction should be carried out with a fair knowledge of the expected average yield.

Test of standardized traditional method of extraction

To confirm whether upon application, the standardized values would improve the yield, average values of the five extractions were used to develop a standardized method. Extraction was then carried out using the standardized method outlined below. The results obtained after a series of extractions are as presented in the table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Average times and temperatures used in extraction using standardized values

SAMPLE	Pounding Time (min)	Milling Time (min)	Roasting		Kneading		Boiling		Yield ml/kg	
			Time (min)	Temp °C	Time (min)	Temp °C	Time (min)	Temp °C		
A	8	7	24	101.2	36	31.5	20	99.5	499.8	
B	9	6	23	100.5	38	29.5	25	101.1	499.5	
C	9	6	19	102.2	32	29.0	24	100.1	499.7	
Stats	Ave.	8.6	6	22	101.3	35.3	29.9	23	100.2	499.7
	Std. Dev.	0.58	0.58	2.65	0.85	3.06	1.322	2.65	0.81	0.15

The values of the average time used as well as the yield obtained is an indication that if the extraction of shea butter via the traditional method despite the stress, is undertaken using the standardized method, a particular range of oil volume 493.4-499.7ml will be obtained if all things been equal. The volume of oil obtained from the standardized method was slightly higher than the non-standardized; this implies that if the temperature and the times of the standardized method are strictly followed, a much higher yield will be obtained most importantly, working under standard condition will ensure consistent optimum yield. The increase in yield of the standardized method does not take away the intensiveness of labour from the method. The stress still persists but an enhancement of yield is achieved, which is gratifying since it complements the effort one puts in the extraction. This presupposes that, the use of optimized values would improve the yield of the traditional method of shea extraction.

Extraction with designed shea butter device

In using the mechanical press two different extractions were made thus with roasted nuts and unroasted nuts. Below are tables for each recorded values for the nuts used.

Table 3.4: Average values obtained from the extraction of roasted nuts using the designed device

SAMPLE		POUNDING TIME(min)	ROASTING TIME (min)	BOILING		YIELD PER KG
				TIME(min)	TEMP(⁰ C)	
A		9	8	18	100.0	375
B		8	8	18	101.2	358
C		9	8	20	99.7	367
STATS	AVERAGE	8.6	8	18.7	100.3	366.7
	STD. DEV	0.58	0	1.15	0.79	8.50

From the table 3.4, it was revealed that extraction with the press offers considerable savings in time, water and labour. There is therefore no need for kneading or rinsing of the paste, this saves time and reduce stress on processors since the device required minimal effort and time (15min). The traditional method of extraction gave significantly higher yields of shea butter compared to the screw press method, probably due to unrecovered fat from the cake. Heating the press area in contact with the ground cotyledon may improve the expressed shea butter yield.

Table 3.5: Values obtained from extraction of unroasted nuts using the designed device

SAMPLE		POUNDING TIME (MIN)	BOILING		YIELD PER KG
			TIME(min)	TEMP(⁰ C)	
D		9	18	101.4	258
E		9	19	101.1	245
STATS	AVERAGE	9	18.5	101.3	251.5
	STD. DEVIATION	0	0.71	0.21	9.19

The table 3.5 shows results for extraction of unroasted nuts with the mechanical press. In this case, it revealed a lesser volume of oil yield; 251.5ml/kg extracted as compared to that of the roasted, 366.7ml/kg. The butter obtained using the unroasted nuts was observed to be brownish in color but this offered a more reduced time, stress and energy in terms of fuel.

Extraction with soxhlet extractor

Two different solvents were used for extraction with the soxhlet extractor. The values obtained for each were recorded, after which steam from water was also used ad values compared.

Table 3.6: Values Obtained From Extraction with Organic Solvents

SOLVENT	MASS OF PASTE (g)	YIELD (ml)	YIELD (ml/kg)
n-hexane	50	28	560
Dichloromethane	50	20	440
Steam	100	25	250

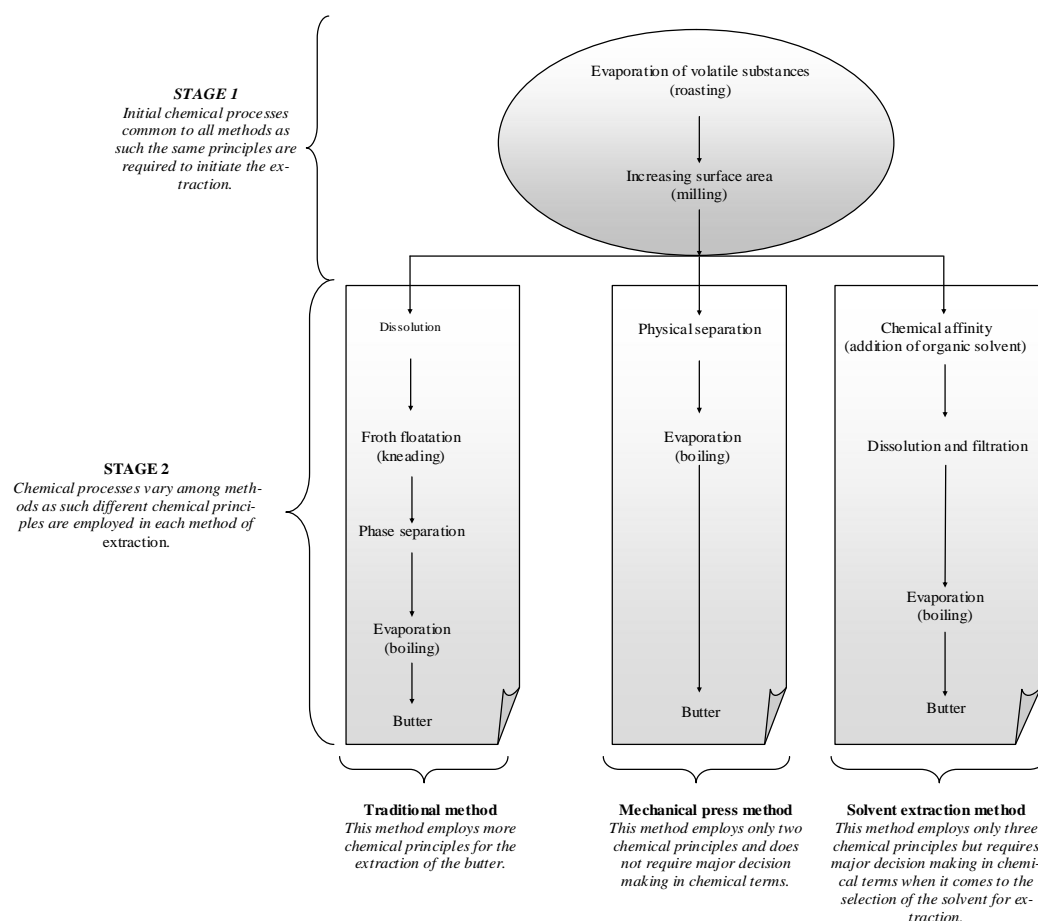
The values obtained in table 3.6, revealed that n- hexane is the best solvent for extracting oil from shea nuts. The use of organic solvent gives a higher yield meaning the scientific means of extraction is the best in terms of yield. Steam comparatively gave a low yield while the traditional method which also uses water gives a higher yield. This explains that water alone is not responsible for the extraction of shea butter for the traditional method and this suggest that more than one principle is involved in the extraction process.

Chemical principles behind extraction methods

A series of operations may be needed before the extracted material can be isolated by distillation or evaporation of the solvent (Redmond, 2008). Mechanical separation by filtration is also employed.

Figure 3.1 shows chemical principles behind shea butter extraction processes

Chemical principles are behind shea butter extraction. In all the three methods of extraction, the nuts are



pounded, roasted and milled (figure 3.1) after which different physical, chemical means of separation or combination of both separation processes are employed before shea butter is finally obtained.

Pounding of the nuts helps to increase the surface area of the nuts as well as breaking the intra molecular forces that binds the nuts (figure 3.1). This physical process of increasing surface area shortens the time

required to evaporate volatile and non-volatile substances in the grounded nuts by application of heat through a process referred to as roasting (figure 3.1). The heat applied to nuts during the roasting stage partially burns the non-oil organic matter and converts water soluble compounds which exist in combination with the ester (oil) as a paste-like mixture of solid and liquid (oil) phase. The surface area is further increased through milling to enable the separation of ester from the mixture by either physical or chemical means (figure 3.1).

In the traditional method water is used to separate the esters from the solid phase, after milling of the roasted nuts, through a process similar to froth flotation. In this method water is added to the paste-like mixture, followed by mechanical agitation (by hand, see figure 2.1) until froth is formed (the kneading stage). It must be noted that the froth is usually obtained slightly above room temperature (27.6°C). The froth is then skimmed off the surface of the mixture, heated to a temperature of 101.9°C until all the water has evaporated. The shea oil free from water is then allowed to cool to room temperature to obtain shea butter. This technique is used in metallurgy and the chemical principle is that in its simplest form, floatation is a modified gravity process in which finely ground roasted shea nuts is mixed, usually with water. The oil or organic compound referred to as ester floats while the finely ground roasted nuts sinks.

In the case of the mechanical press the finely ground roasted nut with increased surface area is separated from the ester by simple application of pressure (in the form of a load) on a permeable membrane bag which contain the paste-like mixture to squeeze out the oil. The process can be likened to vacuum-aided filtration process. The shortcoming of the mechanical separation process using the press machine is that it cannot completely remove all the oil from the mass of the paste.

The use of n-hexane on the other hand, operates on the principle of solvent extraction. In the solvent extraction, the solvents used must meet several requirements. They must dissolve the maximum amount of the desired component and a minimum amount of undesirable materials. The solution must be easy to separate from undissolved substance. In the extraction of solids, this separation is usually not difficult, but in liquid to liquid extraction, a solvent must be chosen that will separate quickly and completely from the liquid being extracted. The final requirement is that the solvent be easy to separate from the extracted material, usually by distillation, without affecting the quality of the product (Redmond, 2008).

N- hexane has a low polarity and is able to dissolve all the esters present since esters also have a low polarity. It is on this chemical basis that dichloromethane and water gave low volumes of oil. The inequality in boiling points helps for the easy separation of the solvent from the oil through the application of heat. In all the methods discussed, shea butter is produced but in terms of quantity, the use of n-hexane results in a better yield (560ml/kg) than the traditional method and the use of the mechanical press. Finally, it is concluded from this study that the application of heat and the use of solvents are what increases yield. It is apparent, therefore, that a combination of both scientific and mechanical means can give a better yield in oil extraction.

Conclusion

Yields of shea butter with the traditional method gave irregular volumes. However, the standardized values solved the irregularity problem by giving a range of values between 493 and 494ml using 1000g of shea nuts and the same volume of water both for kneading and rinsing. The use of the designed screw

press helps to reduce stress, pain and water as in the case of the traditional method. The screw press however, requires a heater mantle that would keep the extractor above the melting temperature of shea butter for more efficient extraction of the butter.

The traditional method of extraction as well as the standardized gives the best yield whereas the use of the press reduced significantly the amount of labour and does not give comparatively high yield. It was therefore noted that the extraction cannot be improved by sheer use of mechanical devices but by scientific means. It is therefore apparent that productivity in the indigenous industries can be improved when scientific research is incorporated into the industrial sector to accelerate economic growth.

References

- Chevalier, A. (1949). Nouvelles recherches sur l'arbre à beurre du Soudan. *Revue Internationale de Botanique Appliquée et d'Agriculture Tropicale*, 28: 241-256.
- Elias, M., Carney, J. (2004). La filière féminine du karité: productrice burkinabée, « éco consommatrices » occidentales et commerce équitable. *Cahier de géographie du Québec*. 48:1-26.
- Hall, J. B.; Aebischer, D. P.; Tomlinson, H. F; Osei-Amaning, E. & Hindle, J. R. (1996). *Vitellaria paradoxa: A monograph*. School of Agricultural and Forest Sciences Publication no. 8. University of Wales, Bangor. 105pp.
- Hill, H. L. (1930). The Shea Tree in the Northern Territories. Year book of the Gold Coast Department of Agriculture, 1929: 226-238.
- Kapseu, C., N.Y. Jiokep, M. Parmentier, M. Dirand and J. Dellacherie, (2001). Acides gras et triglycerides du beurre de karité du Cameroun-Fatty acids and triglycerides of Cameroon shea butter. *Rivista Italiana Sostanze Grasse*, 78: 31-34.
- Loupe, D. (1994). Le karité en Côte d'Ivoire. Centre de Coopération Internationale en Recherche Agronomique pour le Développement, Montpellier. 28pp.
- Maranz S., Di Vincenzo, D., Serraiocco A., Vito, R., Wiesman, Z. and Bianchi, G. (2005). Regional Variation in Shea butter Lipid and Triterpene Composition in Four African Countries *Journal Agric., Food Chemistry* 53: 7473-7479
- Mbaiguinam, M., Mbayhoudel, K. and Djekota, C. (2007). *Asian Journal of Biochemistry* (2): 101-110, 207
- Obeng, G. Y., Adjaloo M. K., and Donkor, P. (2010). Effect of Temperature, Moisture Content. Particle Size and Roasting on Shea Butter Extraction Efficiency. *International Journal of Food Engineering* Vol.6 Issue 2. Art 13. Pp 1-11.

ARE THE MDGs PRIORITY APPROACH FOR AFRICA'S ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT?

By

By Robert G. M. Nyemah²⁰

Abstract

This paper seeks to review the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) vis-à-vis economic development in Africa using a political economy methodology of analysis. Analyzing the MDGs and its affiliated concept of “big push” and Africa’s development, the author underscored that the MDGs as such cannot be considered as an instrument for economic development in Africa, instead they are tools for tracking progress toward poverty reduction and provide basic policy road map to achieving the set goals. The author believes that the MDGs, as they are, do not capture essential elements needed for economic development and sustainability. In light of this, the author maintains that the future of the MDGs is bleak beyond 2015 due to lack of emphasis on economic development and sustainability. The author also questioned the differences between the MDGs and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper introduced by the World Bank and IMF. The author further points out that the MDGs are instruments of donors’ enhanced aid program for intervention in selected areas of recipient countries’ economy. On these bases, the author concludes that the MDGs are not priority approach for Africa’s economic development, and therefore suggested a way forward to rescue Africa out of its present social and economic situation.

I. Introduction

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) declared in September of 2000 during the UN Millennium Summit are eight (8) objectives, eighteen (18) targets and forty-eight (48) indicators, aimed at encouraging development by improving social and economic conditions in the world’s poorest nations (Wagner, 2010). During the Millennium Summit, the then UN Secretary-General, H.E. Kofi Annan, presented his report entitled: “We the peoples: the role of the United Nations in the 21st Century”, in which the appalling social and economic conditions of the Third World was highlighted gave rise to the MDGs, with prime focus on reducing poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental devastation, and discrimination against women (Annan, 2000).

As the timeline for the MDGs is closing in by 2015, Wagner (2010) asserted African leaders, UN experts and Africa’s development partners are beginning to re-assess the MDGs vis-à-vis Africa’s economic development and sustainability, realizing that reducing poverty, hunger, illiteracy and the like requires greater investment in agricultural and industrial production, as well as greater job creation and institution of policies in favor of economic development and sustained economic growth. It had also been brought to forefront that the MDGs have succeeded in mobilizing the needed financial and political will for improved social services for the poor, but is themselves inadequate measures to address the root cause of

²⁰ Robert GwahMusahNyemah is a Liberian who holds a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) in Economics. Currently he is the Head of Research and Consultancy at the Regional Maritime University (RMU), Accra-Ghana and Editor of the RMU Journal

Africa's present social and economic condition, including conflicts, and therefore fall short of addressing Africa's economic developmental needs. This assertion had made it imperative for closer review of the MDGs in the light of sustained social and economic development in Africa.

II. Misrepresentation of Africa's Development Challenges

The dispensation of Structural Adjustment Policy (SAP) of the 1980s and 1990s dealt a devastating blow to Africa's social and economic conditions. The IMF and World Bank imposed economic prescription was a failure for African economic development (George, 1990). During the SAP era Africa was the only Third World region with negative per capita growth (Abuka, et-al, 2005). Despite the policy-based development lending of SAP, Africa remained lingering in extreme poverty and debt crises, with total debt reaching about USD\$340 billion in 1995 from USD\$39 billion in the 1970s (Economic Development in Africa, 2004). According to the SAP, developing countries were to implement macroeconomic policies by expanding the role of private market at the expense of the state. In that way, it was thought, Africa would achieve sustained high economic growth rate on its own. Where a developing country failed to achieved high growth rate, it was concluded by that it was a result of macroeconomic mismanagement or hindrance to private market expansion (Naiman and Watkins, 19990). Consequently, such failure was associated with corruption as a factor of bad governance, hence the well-established Western notion that Africa is suffering from governance crises (Abuka, Ajakaiye, et-al, (2005). With this notion, the World Bank argued that "underlying the litany of Africa's development problem is a crisis of governance" (Brautigam and Knack, 2004).

In view of the above, one can only emphasize that Western experts on Africa are limited to understanding that good governance itself requires hand-on resource, which are inadequate in many African countries due to low income level. Abuka, Ajakaiye, et-al, (2005) elaborate that good governance is not a variable that explain economic performance, instead the quality of governance as such is a result of a country's level of economic development, hence the misrepresentation and misunderstanding of Africa's development challenge. It is along this misconception that the MDGs are constructed, making them questionable measures for economic development.

III. Are the MDGs Instrument for Africa's Economic Development?

According to the Millennium Development Project, commissioned by H.E. Kofi Annan in 2005 to assess how to meet the MDGs, declared in its January 2005 report that poor countries were in a "poverty trap" and requires a "big push" of basic investment in the areas of the MDGs (Easterly, 2005). This declaration re-introduced the 1950s classic narrative of economic development for poor countries-big push- to favor development policy making, using foreign donors for public investment strategy and good governance.

With the re-introduction of "big push", can the MDGs serve as a model and roadmap for Africa's economic development? First and foremost, the MDGs are economic forecast and program base on short and medium term economic stabilization and do not take into consideration long term sustained social and economic growth, as well as regional and country specific. In this respect, Abuka, Ajakaiye, et-al, (2005) termed such approach to economic management as an "accountant's approach", meaning that little or no attention is given to national differences because accounting statements are the same everywhere in the world. Such approach shows the inherent weakness in international financial and development institutions.

The MDGs, on the other hand, are mainly focused on poverty reduction and not economic development. They are poverty reduction strategy, raising the question of the difference between MDGs and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSPs), introduced by the World Bank and IMF in 1999 as a replacement of SAP and a required document for debt relief within the framework of the Heavily Indebted Poor Country (HIPC) program. Harrison, et-al, (2005) in their work: "Are Poverty Reduction Strategies Undercutting the MDGs?" pointed out that the PRSPs covered the MDGs. They further indicated that five (5) broad categories corresponding to the principal objectives of the MDGs were used to map the relevant PRSPs goals and indicators. This assertion clearly shows that the MDGs and PRSPs are two policies for the same purpose-poverty reduction in poor countries.

The MDGs, as a poverty reduction program, it must however be noted, according to Fleshman, (2010), that bringing the most destitute out of poverty in Africa, requires greater investments in agricultural and industrial production, greater job creation and policies that favor economic growth and development. Regrettably, the MDGs do not adequately address the underlying economic and social causes of poverty, disease and conflict in Africa. In light of this understanding, African Development Bank President, Donald Kaberuka, , during a leadership panel sponsored by the Tanzanian, Liberian and Danish governments on 22nd September 2010 on the theme: "Inclusive Growth and Employment in Africa", said: "Africans know how to fish, but they need help in building a fishing industry". For his part, the Secretary-General of the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), Mr. Supachai Panitchpakdi, cautioned that expanded social services, while important, are not sustainable without a firm economic base. Excessive emphasis on social services, along with widening social and economic inequality, he continued, require "repositioning the MDGs within a broader development framework. Such a framework, according to him, emphasizes investment, especially in productive capacity, an equitable distribution of resources, policy space, and sustainable employment generation as the main drivers of poverty reduction. He concluded, saying: "One reason we risk missing many MDG targets is that the economic model that underpinned them has been indifferent to the kind of values behind a sufficiency economy that provides a decent living for all. To match the vision demonstrated back in 2000 and meet the MDGs, whether by 2015 or after, we must again find the courage and ambition to change the path of our economic development" (Fleshman, 2010). All of these statements point to the fact that the MDGs are not instrument neither a roadmap for Africa's economic development. In respect of these assertions, one therefore wonders as to the way forward for the continent social and economic developmental path.

IV. The Way Forward

In search for a way forward, it must be underscored that Africa is a continent with low rate of domestic investment due to the extreme low rate of domestic saving. The interplay of low rate of domestic saving and investment is a consequence of low per capita income on the continent (Abuka, et-al, 2005). A combination of these factors exacerbates poverty and leads to low or negative social and economic development in Africa. Regrettably, the low rate of domestic saving on the continent is not offset by a significant flow of private foreign capital investment due to the lack of or relatively poor infrastructure and weak human capital base. The multiplier effect of these factors is the inability of Africa to graduate from extreme poverty. This suggests the need for a new approach to Africa's social and economic development, as opposed to the MDGs.

Africa, in partnership with the donor community, need to define a shared vision and understanding regarding what will be required from both the donor community, on the one hand, and African countries,

on the other hand, for the implementation of their shared vision. However, for reasons best known to the authors of the MDGs, the eight (8) goal with their corresponding targets and indicators, did not defined a vision, making it further questionable as to how they were driven. What is clear is that the MDGs are enhanced donor intervention in the Aid Program which is to be doubled to about USD\$50 billion by 2015(Abuka, Ajakaiye, et-al, 2005). This top-down approach without a vision has the potential to deprived recipients from embarking on a path of independence and economic development. In this regard, President Paul Kagame of Rwanda said: "The MDGs are international priority. Africa must chart its own development path". He further said: "The debate on the MDGs agenda has, at times, been dominated by a few voices, primarily from the developed nations and affiliated non-governmental organizations. Despite their good intentions, their perspective is often predicated on paternalism not partnership, on charity not self-reliance, and on promises unfulfilled rather than real change". He continued, saying: "We can no longer rely on the goodwill of other nations neither do we need to, nor should we want to. We must assume effective leadership, take full ownership of the development of our countries and truly deliver for our citizens."(Fleshman, 2010).

Echoing President Kagame's statement, Africa needs a national development strategy with a shared vision based on "big push" funded generously by foreign aid as was in the case of the reconstruction of Western Europe after World War II under the financial and political support of the Marshall Plan, or in the case of Latin America in the 1960s under the Alliance for Progress, launched by President John F. Kennedy administration as a reaction to the challenge posed by the Cuban revolution. This will be to serve as massive investment effort in Africa's human and physical capital for the improvement of Africa's human resource base and infrastructure development. As opposed to the MDGs' big push concept, this should be a "big push" that will take into consideration the social and economic specifics of Africa, and implemented with sound fiscal discipline and prudent macroeconomic management.

V. Conclusion

Economically speaking, Africa is a physical challenge continent. Economic development theory in the case of Africa must be carefully designed in consideration of the continent's social and economic specifics. The lack of such understanding which led to the misrepresentation of Africa's development challenges and the notion of governance crisis, served as factors for the failure of the Structural Adjustment Policy of the 80s and 90s. This also explained the lack of vision-focus and top-down approach of the MDGs. Consequently, the "big push" concept discussed vis-à-vis the Marshall Plan for Europe after World War II and the Alliance for Progress in the case of Latin America in 60s are good economic recipes for Africa with an African specific. If the international community has well-meaning intention for Africa to graduate from its current social and economic conditions, it is recommend for a revision of these two economic development strategies for the continent.

Reference

Abuka, C., et-al. (2005). Africa In The World Economy: The National, Regional and International Challenges, FONDAD, p.23

Annan, K. (2000). We The Peoples: The Role of the United Nations in the twenty-first century. *Retrieved from* <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpan000923.pdf>

Brautigam, D., Knack, S. (2004). Foreign Aid, Institution and Governance in Sub-Sahara Africa. Retrieved from <http://www.american.edu/sis/faculty/upload/Foreign-Aid-Institutions-and-Governance-in-SubSaharan-Africa.pdf>

Easterly, W. (2005). Reliving The 50s: The Big Push, Poverty Trap And Take-off In Economic Development. *Retrieved from* http://www.cgdev.org/files/3486_file_WP_65_1.pdf

Economic Development in Africa-Debt Sustainability: Oasis or Mirage? (2004). United Nations, New York and Geneva

Fleshman, M. (2010). Summit Hears Calls for More Job Creation, Investment. *Retrieved from* <http://www.un.org/ecosocdev/geninfo/afrec/vol24no4/anchor-mdgs-to-progress.html>

George, S. (1990). A Fate Worse Than Debt (Pp. 143, 187). New York: Grove Weidenfeld

Jensen, L. (2010). The Millennium Development Goals: Report 2010. New York, N.Y.: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

Harrison, K. et-al. (2005). Are Poverty Reduction Strategies Undercutting the MDGs? An empirical review. *Retrieved from* http://www.unescap.org/stat/meet/sl/IPMA.04_%20MDGs_PRSPs.pdf

Naiman, R., Watkins, N. (1999). A Survey of the Impacts of IMF Structural Adjustment in Africa (PP. 103-115). Center for Economic and policy Research, NY

Wagner, D. (2010). 2000- Millennium Development Goals. University of Iowa Center for International Finance and Development

EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES NEEDED IN AFRICA TO MEET THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

By

GibrilJAW

Deputy Rector

Regional Maritime University Accra Ghana

Abstract

This paper deals with the educational systems needed in Africa in order to meet the Millennium Development Goals. One of the main issues is establishing a demand-driven educational system, a higher educational system that will serve as a dream interpreter and problem-solver to our governments. The paper also looks at the clustering Higher Educational Institutions in order to promote quality education, optimize the utilization of the scarce human resource and also promote the type of research that will not only satisfy our intellectual curiosity but also address the needs of the African governments and communities. Finally the paper also deals with the current trends in the establishment of many new private institutions of higher learning with the limited qualified academic staff in the continent and how it affects the MDGs.

Key words: *Millennium Development Goals, demand-driven educational system, clustering, quality education.*

Introduction

Working towards meeting the Millennium Development Goals set by the United Nations is good but there is an urgent need to go back to the drawing board to re-architect the strategies that will enable African countries to meet their targets by 2015. The goals set by the United Nations are universal problems that need universal solutions but the starting points are different. A quick analysis of our educational systems in Africa reveals that there are many gaps that can hinder the achievement of the MDGs by 2015.

Setting measurable targets and proper strategies is the way forward. An effective educational system in Africa is the “sine qua non” condition for meeting the targets. How can we create educational institutions that are development oriented? How can we rescue the looming crisis of knowledge production in our educational systems? How can we commoditize and commercialize the research output for wealth generation? These are questions that need urgent attention for the MDGs.

Literature review

The Millennium Development Goals emanated from the United Nations’ declarations at the Millennium summit in the year 2000. The Declaration asserts that every individual has the right to dignity, freedom, equality, a basic standard of living that includes freedom from hunger and violence, and encourages tolerance and solidarity [1]. The targets set for poverty reduction were:

- 1- Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- 2- Achieve universal primary education
- 3- Promote gender equality and empower women

- 4- Reduce child mortality
- 5- Improve maternal health
- 6- Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- 7- Ensure environmental sustainability
- 8- Develop a Global Partnership for Development

One hundred and ninety two United Nations member states and at least twenty three international organizations have agreed to achieve the eight goals by the year 2015. The MDGs emphasize that individual policies needed to achieve these goals should be tailored to individual country's needs; therefore most policy suggestions are general [3].

Meeting the Goal two (Achieve universal primary education) will help us achieve in a way the goal three which consists of eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education. While most of the Millennium Development Goals face a deadline of 2015, the gender parity target was set to be achieved a full ten years earlier - an acknowledgement that equal access to education is the foundation for all other development goals. Yet recent statistics show that for every 100 boys out of school, there are still 117 girls in the same situation. Until equal numbers of girls and boys are in school, it will be impossible to build the knowledge necessary to eradicate poverty and hunger, combat disease and ensure environmental sustainability. And millions of children and women will continue to die needlessly, placing the rest of the development agenda at risk.

Educating Girls Advances Development for All

Meeting the Education Goal will speed progress toward every other Millennium Goal. Educating children helps reduce poverty and promote gender equality. It helps lower child mortality rates and promotes concern for the environment. It is inextricably linked to Goal 3 – gender parity – as universal primary education by definition requires gender parity. Gender parity in primary education, meanwhile, is of limited worth if few children of either sex participate. Further, education – specifically free primary school for all children – is a fundamental right to which governments committed themselves under the 1989 Convention of the Rights of the Child. [4]

What Policies are Needed In Africa to Achieve these Goals?

African countries need to formulate clear policies that will enable us map out strategies for the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals by 2015. Aligning the countries policies at Regional and Continental levels could facilitate the emergence of educational and research centers of excellence. Regional centers of excellence need to be given specific task to be performed in this mission. Existing Regional Centers need capacity building, enhanced competencies, upgraded infrastructure, adequate and sustained funding.

African countries should not stop at formulating policies in order to adapt the MDGs to the African context but should cater for sustainability beyond 2015. The educational sector can play a pivotal role in this strive to meet these.

In order to achieve the educational goal, a global information campaign on the importance of child (including girls) education should be launched. Parents need to be enlightened about the benefits of educating their children and how education can alleviate poverty. This global campaign should be undertaken by the African governments with the help of donor agencies. Donors could also assist the African countries in formulating policies that will ensure an enhanced enrollment of children in schools. Some of those policies consist of reducing or eliminating school fees, providing learning materials and school feeding programmes. These policies should be accompanied with donor funding.

Emphasis must be put on the children in disaster and conflict zones of the continent since we are advocating for education for all. Donors should assist the governments in those areas in providing food, clean water, medication and shelter and technical assistants in education. Alternatively these services could be provided to displaced children (in refugee camps) because of conflicts.

Challenges in meeting the educational goal

Can we ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling? Is this goal specific enough? Can we achieve it in Africa by 2015? What we need in Africa is quality education for all, it would be better to reframe that goal and make it: “Ensure that all boys and girls successfully complete a full course of primary schooling”. Quality education requires qualified and adequately remunerated teachers, modern infrastructure and teaching and learning aids. As stated in the MDGs, the educational goal is more of a quantitative than a qualitative goal. Can we set goals that are both quantitative and qualitative? One of the major challenges in meeting the educational goal is that the resources that should support the 2000-2015 strategic plans are scarce. Because of the lack of resources the expansion of educational facilities in Africa does not match the population growth. This leads to compromising the standards as mass promotion (regardless of the examination results) is adopted in some primary schools so as to create space for the future intakes.

Schools in remote areas lack qualified teachers and infrastructure, a special “rescue package” is needed to address the declining interest in the teaching profession. Clustering schools within some disadvantage areas could resolve the teacher shortage and also optimize the resource allocations.

An effective tele-education program can help in providing pupils in very remote areas with the desired type of education. This could be implemented in various ways: for example, engaging the national television stations in broadcasting regular educational programs or using some international commercial stations like DSTV to broadcast relevant educational programs across the African continent.

Providing the right caliber of teachers and the adequate infrastructure can go a long way in helping our countries achieve that educational goal but that is not enough to fully achieve it. A vigorous sensitization campaign should be launched so as to enable parents to know the necessity of enrolling their children in school and allowing them to complete.

Role of Higher Education in meeting the MDGs

The African Higher Educational system should play a central role in the Millennium Development Goals. All the eight goals can be met when our academic and research programs are demand driven.

Universities and other Tertiary Institutions should serve as the dream interpreters for our governments and all sectors of our society. Example, conflicts in the continent have been creating serious setbacks to our developmental programs. Can the universities introduce a compulsory module on conflict prevention and resolution so as to educate the present and future elites of the continent?

African governments should use the brain potential of our universities to help our policy makers (for example national assembly subcommittees) take informed decisions when it comes to issues that are outside their expertise. Elected members of parliaments are not necessarily the right technocrats that can re-engineer the development of the continent.

Academic programs need to be re-structured and this should be done in collaboration with the governments and the private sector. Naturally, the private sector prefers going for the “low hanging fruits” (that is holistic graduates who can fit into their systems without undergoing another training) because they

have customers to satisfy and deadlines to meet. The time it takes to add values to a “raw graduate” and the financial resources required for that, effect serious losses for companies.

African problems need African solutions, the dream African Educational Institution should not come up with curricula bench marked to the international standards but should rather be tailored to our developmental needs. If you fall back in a race you either remain there forever or you run faster than the one in front”.

Role of the private sector in meeting the MDGs

An integrated, well thought out and financially supported approach is required to develop the educational system in the continent. A strategy and action plan is required in this regard. In formulating a strategy for Africa we need to understand the lessons learnt from others and focus on our own needs. Lessons learnt from the emerging economies, in particular, China and India are very relevant for Africa.

Manufacturing companies are not flourishing in Africa because of lack of knowledge production. Universities/Public Research Institutions should work in tandem with the private sector so as to commoditize and commercialize the research outputs. Poverty cannot be eradicated in Africa if we continue to spend money on other people’s ideas and no one spends money on our ideas.

Public-private partnerships [5]: The public sector must create the right environment and allow the private sector to develop to support it in turn. The public sector defines the national aspirations and provides continuity, but it is often slow and lacks capacity. The private sector is dynamic, more versatile and result oriented, but is more vulnerable and profit driven. The partnership is symbiotic by nature. The private sector can help in many ways including:

- Contributing to core and applied research. This can be done either in partnership with African Universities/publicly funded research institutions or in an independent capacity through private research institutes; Supporting universities and public bodies to manage scientific data and knowledge;
- Mobilising external resources from the Diaspora and building external partnerships.
- Supporting the development and implementation of national programmes and curricula and delivery of projects

Conclusion

In order to address the educational concerns, African governments must engage the Institutions of higher learning, Research Institutions and the private sector in the formulation of clear policies and smart strategies that will enable us to meet Millennium Development Goals by 2015. Poverty is a global problem that African countries cannot tackle individually, the need to align our policies and combat it holistically at regional and continental levels is felt by all nations in the continent. There cannot be any development without a well structured, customized African educational system, through donor support; concerted efforts can make our 2015 dream become a reality.

References

- Can the MDGs provide a pathway to social justice?: The challenge of intersecting inequalities. 2010. Naila Kabeer for Institute of Development Studies.
- Deneulin et al, (2009). *An Introduction to the Human Development and Capability Approach: Freedom and Agency*. Sterling, VA: Earthscan.
- United Nations. (2006). "The Millennium Development Goals Report: (2006)." United Nations Development Programme, retrieved from www.undp.org/publications/MDGReport2006.pdf (accessed January 2, 2008).
- Role of UNICEF in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (2006), retrieved ww.unicef.org/mdg. 2006
- Role Africa's Private Sector & Research Institutions Should Play Enhancing Science & Technology Development in Africa. (2011) Professor M. Kah. AFCBF_20th Anniversary-Kigali

UBIQUITOUS ICT IMPACTING MDGS: THE BEDROCK FOR ACHIEVING GHANA'S DEVELOPMENT GOALS

By

Henry Quarshie & Dominic Damoah

VALLEY VIEW UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF COMPUTER SCIENCE

Abstract

The need to speed up progress on socio-economic development is becoming increasingly more urgent as we approach the 2015 deadline for achieving targets for the MDGs. The past 15 years has seen various interventions by the government of Ghana to achieve, MDG 3. The role of women in national development is equally important as that of men. Investing in the girl child education is the single most effective way of reducing poverty in the country and the world as a whole. Education is the key to women empowerment and removing gender disparities at all levels of education and national life. Studies confirm that much as universal access to basic education can be achieved by the 2015 deadline (NDPC & UNDP, 2010), sustained growth registered at the basic level for the girl child through higher levels of education will be difficult to achieve. Ghana's performance on MDG 3 as at 2010 indicates stagnation of enrolment numbers beyond the basic level of education mostly for females (NDPC & UNDP, 2010). This study considers the impact ICT would have in achieving MDG 3 in Ghana with special mention to the intervention for the girl child education beyond the basic level. Available results indicate that despite the achievements at the basic level, the girl child education beyond this level is still a challenge. The girl child is however, ready to embrace ICT but the lack of ICT infrastructure at the basic level for teaching and learning is preventing empowering the girl child through technology. It was also established that improving, ICT at all levels especially at the basic level will not only help achieve MDG 3 but also improve the girl child education beyond the basic level. Consequently, the girl child would be empowered to pursue courses and/or programmes that are more technologically incline at the high school and tertiary levels thereby contributing tremendously to achieving all MDGs.

Introduction

World's leaders at the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in 2000, made the Millennium Declaration which captured the aspirations of the international community for the ensuing century. In this declaration, world leaders aspire to see a world united by common values and striving with renewed determination to achieve peace and respectable standards of living for every man, woman and child. The summit concluded with the adoption of a global action plan to achieve eight anti-poverty goals (known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)) by 2015 aimed at changing the face of global development cooperation.

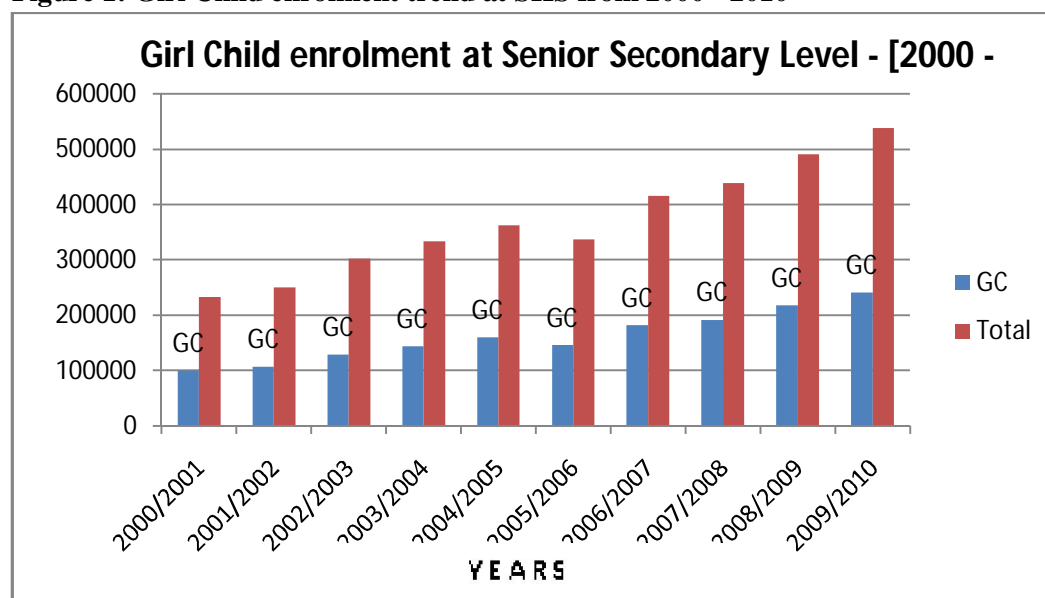
In September 2000, Ghana committed herself to achieve the eight time-bound MDGs and its associated indicators. This study considers the impact ICT would have in achieving MDG 3 in Ghana. MDG 3 which also is to Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women targets ensuring gender parity index in primary

level enrolment, improve the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector, and increase proportion of seats held by women in national parliament.

“Ghana has made strides towards achieving MDGs 2 and 3. Available data and trend analysis on MDG 2 of achieving universal primary education show that, Ghana is on track to achieving both the gross and net enrollment targets by 2015. On the MDG 3 target of ensuring gender parity especially at the Primary and Junior High school (JHS) levels, trends show that Ghana is on track in achieving both targets, although primary level parity has stagnated at 0.96 since 2006/07, while the parity at the JHS increased slightly from 0.91 in 2006/07 to 0.92 in 2007/08, on the other hand the parity at the Kindergarten has declined slightly from 0.99 in 2006/2007 to 0.98 in 2007/08” (NDPC & UNDP, 2010).

Despite the refreshing achievement made at the basic level, there still remind a challenge in replicating the achievement at the Senior Secondary level and beyond. The (Education Unit, 2010) of the Ghana Statistical Service reported that, girl child enrolment at the Senior Secondary level is growing at a rather slow pace for the last ten years as shown in figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Girl Child enrolment trend at SHS from 2000 - 2010



Legend: GC stands for Girl Child Enrollment

Source: Education Unit Ghana Statistical Service

An average of 44% of the total enrollment at the Senior Secondary level are girls and this translate to an average ratio 1:2 of girls to boys.

Tertiary education in Ghana is defined in the Report of the President’s Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana as the education offered after secondary level at a university, polytechnic, specialized institutions, Open University and any other institutions to provide training that lead to the award of diploma and degree qualifications (Ghana, 2002). Available information indicates that the total number of males enrolled at the tertiary level is 65% whereas female enrollment is 35% (NCTE, 2007).

From the above discussions, achieving all targets of MDG 3 by 2015 is possible *ceteris paribus* if ICT play a key role especially meeting the 50:50 ratio at all levels. Empowering the girl child with ICT as a tool for learning for life would increase and sustain her interest in education beyond the basic level of education up to the tertiary level.

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Girl child education in Ghana

In a report presented at the Conference of the Federation of University Women of Africa, the girl-child was defined as a biological female offspring from birth to eighteen (18) years of age. This is the age before one becomes young adult. This period covers the crèche, nursery or early childhood (0 – 5 years), primary (6 – 12 years) and secondary school (12 – 18 years), (Offorma, 2009).

(Ocho, 2005), asserted that, education is the process through which individuals are made functional members of their society. The United Nations at its General Assembly in December 1949 adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 26) which emphasized that Education is an indisputable right of every human being. Consequently, considering the girl child as an individual, it is very prudent to educate her to become functional in the society. Dr. Kwegyir Aggrey once said; “Educate a man, you educate an individual, but educate a woman, you educate a nation”.

In her report, “Girl Child Education in Africa”, Offorma in 2009 indicated strongly that, educating the girl is key to transforming her life and that of her community. In a study by (Fant, 2008), he argued that, the education of the girl child would improve her life chances, and also enhance the welfare of her household.

The critical issues that have been identified to be affecting girl child education include; Access to education, Retention and Dropout, Equity, Enrollment, Quality, and Achievement in school subjects (Offorma, 2009). Other issues that serve as barriers to girl child access and participation in formal education are the cultural and traditional values and the daily realities of poverty which stand between girls and their prospects for educational opportunities (Fant, 2008).

In acknowledging the above mentioned critical issues affecting girl child education, the Ministry of Education, Ghana in 1997, established the Girls’ Education Unit (GEU) within the Basic Education Division of Ghana Education Service (GES). GEU was mandated to address issues related to ensuring that girls, who have been lagging behind boys in education at all levels, go to school, remain in school and continue schooling at higher levels. The appointment of a Minister of State [2001 – 2008] specifically responsible for girl child education reinforces the government’s commitment to continue this critical component of ongoing educational reforms. Current results are encouraging, but there is still much to do. (Girls' Education Unit, 2001)

Even though girl child education has made tremendous gains at the basic level there are challenges beyond this level and also in achieving the indicators for MDG 3 by 2015. Governments, non-governmental Organizations (NGOs), international agencies, religious bodies, individuals and the business community have all churned out interventions seeking to improve and sustain the girl child enrollment beyond the basic level.

It is the conviction of the researchers that, introducing ICT at the basic level to technologically empower the girl child would inspire her to aspire to go to school beyond the basic level through to the tertiary level.

Use of ICT in Education in Ghana

The educational system of Ghana has undergone an array of reforms. From the post colonial master era, to FCUBE (1996) and recently the new education reform in 2007, Ghana education trust fund (Act 581, 2000), school feeding program, and capitation grant also in 2007 all aimed at improving the standards and quality of education in Ghana.

The Government of Ghana has placed a strong emphasis on the role of ICT in contributing to the country's economy. The country's medium-term development plan captured in the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (GPRS I & II) and the Education Strategic Plan 2003-2015 all suggest the use of ICT as a means of reaching out to the poor in Ghana.

At the national level, Parliament in 2004 passed into law Ghana's ICT for Accelerated Development (ICT4AD) policy. This policy represents the vision of Ghana in the information age and addresses 14 priority focus areas or pillars. The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in compliance to government vision of making ICT the engine of growth outlined an ICT in education policy in 2007. The objective of the policy among other things is to promote ICT as a learning tool in the school curriculum at all levels, ensure that students have ICT literacy skills before coming out of each level of education, provide guidelines for integrating ICT tools and standardizing ICT resources for all schools, facilitate training of teachers in ICT, and determine the type and level of ICT needed by schools for teaching and administration purposes.

Currently, the tertiary level of education is the most advanced in the deployment and use of ICTs for teaching and learning in Ghana. Each university in Ghana has its own separate ICT policy, which includes an ICT fee paid by students. This enables students to have access to computer labs with broadband internet connection (Mangesi, 2007).

At the basic and secondary levels of education, the government of Ghana started a project in 2007 to set up computer laboratories in all science schools in the country and this has lead to a significant number of computers being installed across the country (Mangesi, 2007). There is, however, a great disparity between public and private schools as well as between urban and rural areas in access to ICTs. The Ghana Education Service has included the study of ICT to the SHS curriculum and consequently part of the SSCE/WASSCE.

Methodology

The study seeks to explore the use of ICT as a tool to achieve MDG 3 with special mention to the intervention for the girl child education beyond the basic level. The descriptive survey method which involves collecting numerical data to test hypotheses was employed.

The target population was the southern sector (i.e. Western, Central, Greater Accra, Volta and Eastern regions) of Ghana. The accessible population was the entire population of Takoradi, Cape Coast, Accra, Ho and Koforidua municipalities. The objective for selecting respondents from the southern sector of Ghana is to get a representation from five regions and also because they are densely populated (Ghana Statistical Service, 2011). Out of 570, 530 questionnaires were successfully administered representing 93% response rate thus the representative sample size is 530.

The data collection instruments used to acquire information for this descriptive survey was questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire which had 16 closed questions in all was structured into four main sections namely; general information, ICT and Education, investment in ICT, and conclusion. A 17th question which was open ended gave opportunity to the respondents to state their opinions on how to increase and sustain the girl child's interest and enrolment beyond the basic level of education. Interviews were conducted for some of the respondents and experts in ICT, Education, and Development planners. In his book (Ackroyd, 1992) define interviews as encounters between a researcher and a respondent in which the latter is asked a series of questions relevant to the subject of the research. There are four major types of interviews namely; the structured interviews, unstructured interviews that are the open situation, having greater flexibility and freedom, the non-directive interviews and the focused interviews (Cohen, 1994). For this study, the researchers opted for the face-to-face unstructured interviews and the questions were semi-structured.

The data collected from the survey was analyzed through descriptive statistics using SPSS. A quantitative technique was used to establish statistical significant conclusions about the sample size (Creswell, 2003). Qualitative analysis which utilizes numerical and graphical methods to look for patterns in a data set, to summarize the information that will be revealed in a data set, and to present that information in a suitable form was also employed thus, frequency tables, and graphs were used to analyze data on research questions 1 – 3 and 5.

This research also sought to benefit from the strictness of designing, collecting, and analyzing data as argued by (de Vaus, 2001).

FINDINGS

General information

Out of the sample size (i.e. 530), 270 representing 50.9% of the respondents were males and 260 representing 49.1% were females. 28 (5.3%) of the respondents' current level of education is JHS, 193(36.4%) at SHS, 135(25.5%) at post secondary, 155(29.2) at first degree or bachelors and 19 (3.6%) at masters or above. Of these respondents, 237(44.7%) said 'YES' they experienced the use of ICT for teaching and learning at the basic level of education whiles 293 (55.3%) said 'NO'. Of the 293 who responded 'NO', 153(52.2%) of them were females as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Cross-tabulation of Current level of Education versus experience use of ICT for teaching and learning at Basic Level Education

		Yes	No	Total
Gender:	Male	130	140	270
	Female	107	153	260
Total		237	293	530

Eleven questions were used in the questionnaire for the survey to test for the relationship between gender, ICT, government and other factors. Chi-square analysis and percentage distribution of the hypotheses were used to infer conclusions.

Hypothesis 1: The girl child does not drop out of school more frequently after the basic level of education than boys.

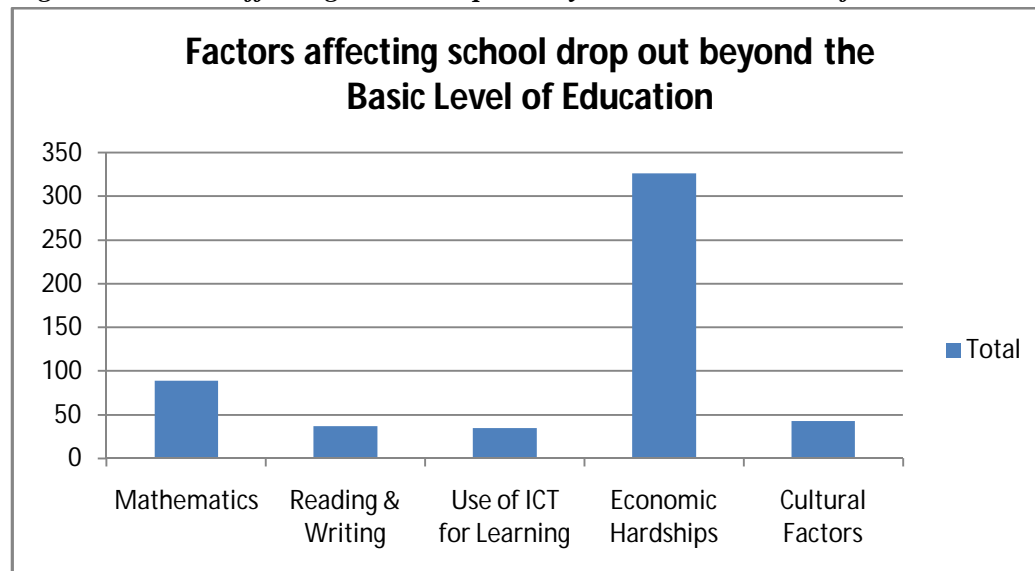
With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square computer value χ^2 (df=1, N = 530) = 2.298 is less than the critical value χ^2 (p=0.05,df=1) = 3.84. Therefore, we failed to reject the null hypothesis because statistically it is not significant. Hence, there is no relationship between gender and dropout after the basic level of education. Therefore we, safely conclude that, “The girl child DOES NOT drop out of school more frequently after the basic level of education.”

Table 2: Cross-tabulation of Gender versus School drop out beyond the Basic Level of Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Boys	80	15.1	15.1	15.1
	Girls	450	84.9	84.9	100.0
Total		530	100.0	100.0	

The result from table 1 indicates otherwise. Here a huge percentage of male and female believe that the dropout rate for girls is higher than boys. But the Chi-square results indicate that is not always true. This could mean that given the same opportunity the girl child will not drop out of school.

Figure 2: Factors affecting school drop out beyond the Basic Level of Education



Respondents were asked to rank the possible factors that could account for the drop of the girl child and the result indicates the modal class is economic hardship Refer to figure 2. 61.5% of them believed that economic hardship faced by most girls in the course of their education is the number one cause for the high dropout rate after the basic level.

Hypothesis 2: The girl child adapts and copes well with ICT just like the boys.

Table 3: Cross-tabulation of gender versus adaptation and coping well with using ICT for teaching and learning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Boys	488	92.1	92.1	92.1
	Girls	42	7.9	7.9	100.0
Total		530	100.0	100.0	

With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square computed value ($\chi^2(df=1, N = 530) = 13.438$, is greater than the critical value $\chi^2(p=0.05, df=1) = 3.84$. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis because statistically it is significant. We conclude there is a relationship between gender and ICT use which is, “The girl child DOES NOT adapt and cope well with ICT”. The table 3 shows that 92.1% percentage of both sexes share the view that, “The girls normally do not adapt and cope very well with ICT for teaching and learning,” This confirms the results from the chi square test.”

Hypothesis 3: The girl child is most likely to study ICT related programs at the tertiary level.

With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square computed value $\chi^2(df=1, N = 530) = 13.438$, is greater than the critical value $\chi^2(p=0.05, df=1) = 3.84$. This is statistically significant so we reject the null and conclude there is a relationship between gender and ICT programs offered at the tertiary level “The girl child is NOT most likely to study ICT related programs at the tertiary level. The result from the cross tabulation indicates that boys are more likely to study ICT related programs at the tertiary level. A large percentage of both male and female believe that the girls are not most likely to study ICT related programs at the tertiary level than boys. This is confirmed by the Chi-square results.

Table 4: Cross-tabulation of Gender versus Study of ICT related programs at the tertiary level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Boys	457	86.2	86.2	86.2
	Girls	73	13.8	13.8	100.0
Total		530	100.0	100.0	

Hypothesis 4: The girl child will opt for courses that are less ICT related.

With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square computed value ($\chi^2(df=1, N = 530) = 0.940$, is less than the critical value $\chi^2(p=0.05, df=1) = 3.84$. This is statistically not significant so and we failed to reject the null hypothesis, therefore we can safely conclude that, “The girl child will normally opt for courses that are less ICT related.”

The result of the cross tabulation indicates that 83.5 percentage of male and female hold the view that girls have strong dislike for ICT related courses than boys. The Chi-square result is very supportive of this view. This could be inferred that under the current state of affairs girls will normally opt for courses that are less ICT related.

Table 4: Cross-tabulation of Gender versus dislike for ICT Related Courses

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Agree	443	83.5	83.5	83.5
	Disagree	87	16.5	16.5	100.0
	Total	530	100.0	100.0	

Hypothesis 5: The girl child's understanding and ease of use of ICT promotes her interest in Education beyond the basic level.

With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square value $\chi^2(df=1, N = 530) = 0.55251425$ is less than the critical value $\chi^2(p=0.05, df=1) = 3.84$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. This result is statistically not significant so we failed to reject the null hypothesis and conclude there is no relationship between gender and ICT savvy of the girl child. This means that, "The girl child's understanding and ease of use of ICT promotes her interest in Education beyond the basic level. This is corroborated by the data in table 5. Majority of the respondents share the opinion that girl child's understanding and ease of use of ICT promotes her interest in Education beyond the basic level.

Table 5: Cross-tabulation of Gender versus child's understanding and ease of use of ICT tools for learning is an impetus to promoting interest in continuing his/her education beyond the basic level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Agree	483	91.2	91.2	91.2
	Disagree	47	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	530	100.0	100.0	

Hypothesis 6: The difficulty experienced by the girl child in adapting to current trends is a significant hindrance to sustaining her interest in education.

With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square value $\chi^2 = 0.616$ is less than the critical value $\chi^2(p=0.05, df=1) = 3.84$. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This result is statistically not significant, which implies there is no relationship between gender and difficulty experienced by the girl child in adapting to current trends in education. Hence, "The difficulty experienced by the girl child in adapting to current trends is a significant hindrance to sustaining her interest in education." The view above is upheld by the cross tabulation report. A greater majority of the respondents (65.1%) share this opinion.

Table 6: Cross-tabulation of Gender versus Difficulty experienced with adapting to current trends in Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Agree	345	65.2	65.2	65.2
	Disagree	185	34.8	34.8	100.0
	Total	530	100.0	100.0	

Hypothesis 7: Introducing learning for life with ICT at the basic level of education will enhance the girl child enrolment at the tertiary level.

Table 7: Cross-tabulation of Gender versus learning for life with ICT at the basic level of education will enhance the girl child enrolment at the tertiary level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Agree	492	92.8	92.8	92.8
	Disagree	38	7.2	7.2	100.0
	Total	530	100.0	100.0	

With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square value $\chi^2(df=1, N = 530) = 0.000485321$, is far less than the critical value $\chi^2(p=0.05, df=1) = 3.84$. Therefore, we fail to reject null hypothesis in favor of the alternative hypothesis. This is statistically insignificant so we conclude that there is no relationship between gender and enrolment by reason of ICT for life. The test establishes that, “Introducing learning for life with ICT at the basic level of education will enhance the girl child enrolment at the tertiary level.” The result in the cross tabulation indicates that the general perception is very good, since 92.8% of the observed population share the same opinion.

Hypothesis 8: There is inadequate investment by government in ICT for the educational sector.

With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square value $\chi^2 = 0.905$ is far less than the critical value $\chi^2(p=0.05, df=1) = 3.84$. Therefore, we failed to reject the null hypothesis. This is statistically insignificant for that matter we conclude that, “There is inadequate investment by government in ICT for the educational sector.”

This is clearly shown in the cross tabulation that the general perception is not from right. 88.6% of the observed population believes that, the Ghanaian government has not invested enough in ICT for the educational sector.”

Table 8: Cross-tabulation of Gender versus Inadequate capital investment by government in ICT for the educational sector

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Agree	470	88.6	88.6	88.6
	Disagree	60	11.4	11.4	100.0
	Total	530	100.0	100.0	

A follow up question was asked to ascertain which level of education has suffered the most deprivation of ICT infrastructure. 60.8% of the respondents overwhelmingly confirm that the basic level lacks ICT infrastructure.

Hypothesis 9: Empowering the girl child technologically could register and sustain enrolment after the basic level.

With 1 degree of freedom, the chi square value $\chi^2 = 0.914$, is far less than the critical value $\chi^2(p=0.05, df=1) = 3.84$. Therefore, we failed to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative hypothesis. This is statistically insignificant so it can be inferred that there is no relationship between gender and ICT empowerment. Hence, “Empowering the girl child technologically could register and sustain enrolment after the basic level.” 95.3 percent of the sampled size agreed that empowering the girl child technologically could register and sustain enrolment after the basic level whereas only 4.7% believes otherwise. Refer to the table 9.

Table 9: Cross-tabulation of Gender versus Empowering technologically (through the use of ICT for teaching and learning) could register and sustain enrollment beyond the basic level of education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:	Agree	505	95.3	95.3	95.3
	Disagree	15	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	530	100.0	100.0	

Discussion

Considering the factors affecting the girl child education 61.5% of the respondents believed that economic hardship faced by most girls in the course of their education is the number one cause for the high dropout rate after the basic level. The combined effect of difficulty with mathematics, reading and writing, use of ICT for learning or lack of exposure and cultural factors were not strong enough to cause the drop out of girls after the basic level.

The girl child does not adapt and cope well with using ICT for teaching and learning in her education. She is not most likely to study ICT related programs at the tertiary level. Given the options they will choose courses that are less ICT related. Increasingly it is becoming a big challenge for the girl child to adapt to the current trends in education because of ICT and this could affect her confidence and interest to pursue education beyond the basic level. These could possibly be contributory factors to their comparative high dropout rate after the basic level of education and lack of interest to pursue higher education in Ghana. It could be inferred that the girls dislike for ICT is the root cause of their lack of interest to pursue Tertiary education. Put differently, few girls are able to brave the storm to undertake tertiary education.

This state of affairs calls for interventions specifically designed to see the girl child equipped with ICT for life. It was also realized that the girl child's understanding and ease of use of ICT promotes her interest in education beyond the basic level. When the challenges faced by the girl child in adapting to ICT for education are removed, it is the conviction of the researchers that it could significantly register and sustain her interest in higher education. Hence, if government considers introducing learning for life with ICT at the basic level of education it will enhance and have a positive impact on the girl child's enrolment at the tertiary level and consequently, a ripple effect in achieving all the MDGs.

The survey again revealed that no more will culture significantly cost the girl child her desire to pursue education beyond the basic level at least for girls in the southern part of Ghana. The Ghanaian society has come of age placing equal importance to the girl child education as well. Most girls of school going age will receive basic education by the 2015 deadline (NDPC & UNDP, 2010). To maintain this positive development, the study shows that ICT for life will do the unexplained. 95.3 % of the sampled size agree that empowering the girl child technologically could register and sustain enrolment after the basic level.

The study brought to light what the Ghanaian Government could radically do to change the face of her work force in the decades ahead. Reducing the gender parity using ICT will emancipate women economically and equip them with the necessary skills to compete favorably in knowledge- based economies. 88.7% of the sampled size agrees that, the Ghanaian government has not invested enough in ICT for the educational sector.” It is a fact that the basic level of education has suffered the most deprivation of ICT infrastructure and human resource.

Recommendation

Kofi Annan, former U.N. Secretary General, in a report to the World Education Forum, Dakar, Senegal, 26th April, 2001 said, “No development strategy is better than one that involves women as central players. It has immediate benefits for nutrition, health, savings and reinvestment at the family, community and, ultimately, country level. In other words, educating girls is a social development policy that works. It is a long-term investment that yields an exceptionally high return.”

In the light of the above findings, the following recommendations have been made towards Ghana's achievement of all the target indicators for MDG 3 through the introduction of ICT at the Basic level of Education for teaching and learning and also as a tool for learning for life. Also, we strongly recommend the establishment of a government scholarship for needy but brilliant girl child. The use of role models and the institution of awards to encourage and motivate brilliant girl child identified at the district level. At the Basic level, there must be guidance and counseling sessions to educate the girl child to appreciate the need to continuing education beyond the basic level.

Conclusions and implications

Introducing ICT for Life at the basic level will breach the gender is disparity gab between boys and girls and sustain interest for the girl child beyond the basic level. Public Private Partnership will accelerate investment in ICT at the grassroots level will have desired impact on the girl child education. Ghana's policy philosophy should be expanded to go beyond, “Access” to “No Child left behind” in Technology literacy.

The implications of achieving MDG 3 using ICT empowerment will increase enrolment of Girls, achieving gender parity and sustaining the girl child interest in education.

Again, empowering women to rub shoulders with men will translate into economic, social and political emancipation, creating a elite society and reducing technology illiteracy, equipping the girl child with employable skills and tools to succeed in accessing information to improved maternal health and improve participation in non-agro-based businesses.

Achieving gender equality and women's empowerment (MDG 3), is central to attaining universal primary education (MDG 2), reduce under-five mortality (MDG 4), improve maternal health (MDG 5) and reduce the likelihood of contracting HIV/AIDS (MDG 6), poverty reduction (MDG 1), and directly or indirectly having beneficial effects other MDGs.

References

- Ackroyd, S. a. (1992). *Data collection in context*. Harlow: Longman.
- Annan, K. (2001). *Building a Partnership for Girls' Education*. Dakar.
- Cohen, M. (1994). *Research Methods in Education*. London: Croom Helm.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, California, USA: Sage Publications.
- de Vaus, D. (2001). *Research Design in Social Research*. London: Sage Publication.
- Education Unit. (2010). *Enrollment Statistics 2001 - 2010*. Accra: Ghana Statistical Service.

Fant, E. K. (2008). *Education and Girl-Child Empowerment: The Case of Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District in Northern Ghana*. Tromsø: University of Tromsø.

Ghana. (2002). *Meeting the challenges of education in the twenty first century - Report of the president's committee on review of education reforms in Ghana*. Accra: Adwinsa Publications (Gh) Ltd.

Ghana Statistical Service. (2011). *2010 Population and Housing Census (Provisional Results)*. Accra.

Girls' Education Unit. (2001). Approaches for advancing girls' education in Ghana. *Symposium to Identify Current Practices and Identify Future*

Directions. Accra: Ghana Education Service, UNICEF and WUSC.

Kozma, R. B. (2006). *ICT, Education Reform, and Economic Growth*. Santa Clara: Intel Corporation.

Mangesi, K. (2007). *ICT in Education in Ghana*. infodev.

NCTE. (2007). *TERTIARY EDUCATION POLICY*. Accra: National Council for Tertiary Education.

NDPC & UNDP. (2010). *2008 Ghana Millenium Development Goals Report*. Accra: Government of Ghana & United Nations.

Ocho, L. O. (2005). *Issues and concerns in education and life*. Enugu: Institute of Development Studies of Nigeria.

Offorma, G. C. (2009). *Girl Child Education in Africa*. Nsukka.

By

ISHMAEL MENSAH

Lecturer, Department of Hospitality & Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana.

Abstract

There have been growing concerns about the impacts of hotels on the environment globally and in Accra where there is uncontrolled development of hotel facilities. This has led to calls for hotels to reduce their carbon footprints by embarking on environmental management practices since sustainable hotels lead to sustainable destinations. A number of hotels, mostly in the developed world have responded to such concerns by embarking on a number of environmental initiatives. However, it is larger hotels which are mostly multinationals or have international affiliations which have been at the forefront of environmental initiatives (Wahab and Pigram, 1997; Mauforth and Munt, 1998; Mensah, 2006). This study therefore determines how hotels in a developing sub-saran African city like Accra are responding to the calls for sustainable practices by looking at their environmental management initiatives and environmental management performance. The managers of 200 hotels which were selected through the stratified random sampling method were surveyed using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire elicited information on the environmental management performance of the hotels in ten key areas. The results of the study indicated that though the hotels performed creditably in the area of environmental health, their performance in the area of voluntary environmental management activities such as eco-labelling and certification was not encouraging. Also, only 34% of the hotels had voluntarily instituted initiatives in improved environmental performance. The results have implications for environmental policy formulation, voluntary environmental initiatives and the realization of the millennium development goals.

Introduction

It cannot be gainsaid that rapid hotel development has a negative impact on the environment. Available evidence suggests that hotels pollute the environment, generate waste and consume large amounts of natural resources. However, as a result of a widely held notion that the impacts of hotels on the environment does not come close to that of manufacturing, extractive and agricultural industries, greater attention has been focused on these industries to the neglect of the hospitality industry which has been described as ‘the silent destroyers of the environment.

The 1980s saw greater global efforts at safeguarding the environment and enhancing the wellbeing of people. Agenda 21 which was the action plan of the Rio Earth Summit in 1992 and the 1987 Brundtland Commission report dubbed ‘our common future’ set the tone for sustainable tourism development. During the review of ‘the first five years’ of implementation of Agenda 21 in 1997 at the nineteenth Special Session of the UN General Assembly, there was an indication that there was the need to give further consideration to the importance of tourism in the context of Agenda 21. The tourism industry coined the phrase *sustainable tourism* as a corollary of the sustainable development paradigm of the UN. However, for tourism to be truly sustainable, it must achieve the triple bottom line namely; providing quality and enlightening experiences to tourists, conserving the environment and improving the well-being of host populations. The UN in order to help improve the lives of the world’s poorest by 2015 developed a set of

eight goals in 2000 at the United Nations Millennium Summit. Target 7 of the MDGs is ensuring environmental sustainability.

These developments have led to calls for the hotel industry to reduce its carbon footprints by embarking on environmental management practices. The industry appears to have yielded to these calls with several environmental initiatives both at the corporate, national and international levels. Environmental initiatives at the international level include International Hotels Environment Initiative (IHEI) and Asian Pacific Hotels Environment Initiative (APHEI). At the corporate level, the environmental policies and programmes of multinational hotels such as Hilton, Accor, Marriott' and the Rezidor Group have been documented (El Dief and Font, 2010). In the wake of all these initiatives, the question as to what environmental initiatives are being undertaken by hotels in Ghana still remains unanswered.

The hotel industry in Ghana is experiencing rapid growth in response to increased tourist arrivals and the government's efforts at promoting foreign investment. For instance, the number of registered hotels in Ghana grew by 23.2% from 1,295 in 2004 to 1,595 in 2008 as shown in Table 1. However, this figure is short of other hotel facilities that have not officially registered with the Ghana Tourist Board.

Table 1 Number of Hotel Rooms and Beds, 2004-2008

Year	Number of Hotels	Number of Rooms	Number of Beds
2004	1295	8082	24146
2005	1373	19042	24434
2006	1427	22827	27661
2007	1459	20874	26226
*2008	1595	24410	29645

**Projections*

Source: Ghana Tourist Board (GTB), 2008

Also, the geographic distribution of hotels among the ten regions of Ghana has not been even. The Greater Accra Region (GAR) has the largest number of hotels. Approximately 41.7% of all rooms existed in the GAR in 2007 (GTB, 2008). The uncontrolled and haphazard development and operation of hotels could lead to widespread environmental impacts and this could thwart efforts geared towards the realization of MDG target 7. Already, there have been reports in the media about some hotels that have discharged untreated waste into public places and water bodies. It is against this background that this study seeks to determine the environmental management initiatives of hotels in Accra and to assess their environmental management performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Impacts of Hotels on the Environment

Environmental impacts of the hospitality industry have been well documented in the available literature (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Hunter and Green, 1995; Gossling, 2002). Since tourist accommodation constitute the largest sub-sector of the tourism industry, it therefore has undisputable wide impacts on the environment, rendering sustainability in the industry a priority issue (Graci, 2010). The impacts of hotels on the environment have been in the areas of energy consumption (Chan and Lam, 2003); water consumption (Bohanowicz, 2006); solid and liquid

waste generation (Chan and Lam, 2001); use of chemicals and atmospheric pollution (Briguglio and Briguglio, 1996); and displacement of local communities (Torres, 2003).

An estimated 75% of the environmental impacts of the hotel industry could be attributed to the excessive consumption of both local and imported non-durable goods, energy and water (APAT, 2002). A British study reported by Kirk (1995) asserted that hotels use comparatively more energy than other industrial buildings. Gössling (2002) estimated that hotel facilities worldwide consume about a 100 TWh of energy. Hotels also consume disproportionately large volumes of water (Hunter and Green, 1995). Hunter and Green (1995) concluded that in the Mediterranean, hotels could easily consume 400 litres of water per guest per day whilst locals may only require 70 litres per day. Also, waste is the most visible impact of hotels on the environment (Bohdanowicz and Martinac, 2003). According to IHEI (2002), a typical guest produces in excess of one kilogram of waste per day. This amount doubles on checkout days (Shanklin *et al*, 1991). However, the amount of solid waste generated is dependent upon the size and type of the hotel, as well as the existence of waste management facilities (Davies and Cahill, 2000).

Briguglio and Briguglio (1996), attribute the vast amount of dust found in the atmosphere in Malta to the demolishing of existing buildings and construction of new ones for tourism purposes. Moreover, the development of tourism and hospitality facilities especially in the developing world has often resulted in the displacement of host populations. This takes the form of conversion of agricultural lands into holiday resorts (Ratz and Puczko, 1997). Rajentra (1992) claims that in 1984, 70 fishing families on the Malaysian Island of Langkawi were evicted from their land to make way for condominiums and hotels.

Environmental Initiatives and Management Practices Of Hotels

The hotel industry mostly in developed countries and multinational hotel companies are initiating environmental management programmes. In Hong Kong alone, a survey conducted in 1992 found that about 30% of hotels have launched environmental programmes with different degrees of success (Barlett, 1992). Graci *et al* (2009) also found out that many of Toronto's hotels were undertaking some degree of environmental initiatives. Environmental management practices in the hotel industry include environmental policy formulation, green purchasing, compliance with environmental laws and regulations, environmental auditing, ecolabelling and certification, waste management and recycling, conservation, environmental education, pollution prevention, environmentally responsible marketing and support for local communities (Bohdanowicz, 2006; Erdogan, and Baris, 2007). However, the most popular environmental management practices in the hospitality industry are those geared towards cost savings; waste management, recycling, energy and water conservation (Forte, 1994; Withiam, 1995; Mensah, 2007).

Waste management and energy savings have been critical concerns in hotel environmental management. A survey carried out by the American Hotel and Motel Association (AH&MA) revealed that Hotel managers rated reduction of energy consumption as well as waste management through recycling as their most important concerns (Stipanuk, 1996). A number of hotels are also undertaking waste management programmes. For example, the Hyatt Regency hotel in Chicago has a recycling programme which resulted in the recovery of \$120,000 in hotel items such as silverware from thrash between 1997 and 1998 (Enz and Siguaw, 1999). Chan and Lam (2001) also believe that the thrust of the green campaign in the hospitality sector has been on energy savings as evidenced by the number of hotels engaging in energy-saving measures which range from the use of compact fluorescent bulbs to shutting down unused appliances. The Inter-Continental in Los Angeles also

installed a power monitoring system that enabled the hotel to save \$12,000 in electricity costs. Environmental Management has also been targeted at conserving water and improving the quality of water partly because the hotel industry is greatly affected by the non availability of the right amounts and quality of water and will face difficulty in alleviating over-consumption and dealing with cost of water and water conservation (Zhao and Merna, 1992). For instance, at Sandals Negril, a 215-room hotel in Jamaica, the hotel recorded savings of approximately 45,000 m³ of water due to an environmental management system which was instituted by management (Meade and Pringle, 2001).

Hotel managers are also increasingly recognising the need to adapt to and support the local environment in which they operate, as part of their corporate social responsibility. An EU funded hotel construction project in Western Samoa uses traditional designs and techniques and only imports materials where local substitutes cannot be produced. The land on which the hotel is located is owned by local villagers, local people are employed and local agricultural produce are consumed by tourists (Eber, 1992). In spite of the growing popularity of environmental management in hotels, only larger hotels have been found to be at the forefront of environmental management (Mauforth and Munt 1998; Edwards, 2000; Mensah 2006). According to Mauforth and Munt (1998), this is due to the fact that small and medium scale accommodation companies do not have the capital resources or internal arrangement structure to conduct environmental management.

Methodology

This paper is part of a larger study undertaken on environmental performance of hotels in Accra. Accra in this study is defined to include all the eleven sub-metros of the Accra Metropolitan Area (AMA) as well as *Ga East Municipal Area*, *Ga West Municipal Area*, *Ga South Municipal Area*, *Adenta Municipal Area* and *Ledzokuku Krowor Municipal area* (Figure 1). This area was chosen because it has the largest concentration of all classes of hotels in Ghana.

Data for this study was obtained through a cross-sectional survey involving managers of sampled hotels. The target population was thus all managers of all categories of hotels and Guest Houses in Accra. The survey was undertaken during the months of June and August 2010. The stratified random sampling procedure was used to select 200 hotel managers. A structured questionnaire was employed for the collection of data. This was first pretested in Cape Coast and Elmina to render the instruments more relevant and appropriate as well as to ensure the content validity of the instrument for the actual data collection. The questionnaire contained both open and close-ended questions which elicited information on respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. Other questions were on organizational characteristics of the hotels and their environmental management practices.



Figure 1:

Map of Study Area

Source: GIS Unit Department of Geography and Regional Planning, UCC.

A five-point likert scale ranging from 1(never) to 5 (very frequently) was used to gauge their environmental management performance. The questionnaires were mainly self-administered. The data collected from the field was edited, coded and processed using the Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) software PC version 16.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Socio-demographic Characteristics of Managers and Profile of Hotels

The hotel managers surveyed were mainly Ghanaian men between the ages of 21-39 and graduates of tertiary institutions. They were overwhelmingly Ghanaians (98.5%). Also, 70% were males reflecting the gender bias in top managerial positions in the Ghanaian hospitality industry. More than half (56.8%) were between the ages of 21-39 years and about two-thirds (66%) had completed tertiary education.

Table 2 Profile of Hotels

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Affiliation		
Independent	187	94.4
Affiliated	11	5.6
Total	198	100
Number of guestrooms		
Less than 10	46	23.1
10-39	132	66.3
40-69	9	4.5

70-99	4	2.0
100 and above	8	4.0
Total	199	100
$\bar{x} = 23.84$ Mode = 10		
Number of employees		
Less than 10	104	53.1
10-39	72	36.7
40-69	6	3.1
70-99	5	2.6
100 and above	9	4.6
Total	196	100
$\bar{x} = 21.80$ Mode = 10		

Table 2 shows that the majority of the hotels studied (94.4%) were independent. Only 11.6% were affiliated to foreign multinational companies in the form of franchises, management contract or joint ventures. Also, 23.1% of the hotels had less than 10 guest rooms with the majority (66.3%) having between 10-39 rooms. Only 4% had 100 or more rooms, showing an overall average number of 24 guestrooms. Majority (53.1 %) of the hotels also employed less than 10 people with only 4.6% employing more than 100 people. The average, number of employees was 22. The bulk of the hotels in this study were therefore independent and small to medium scale businesses.

Environmental Initiatives

About one-third of the hotels (34%) had initiated environmental management programmes (Figure 2) which means the majority had not undertaken such initiatives. However, the environmental programmes, they claimed to have initiated were mostly centred on waste management and sanitation (59%) as shown in Figure 3. There was a dearth of comprehensive environmental management programmes tailored to reduce the carbon footprints of the hotels as well as improving the well-being of host populations. This state of affairs could have been informed by the fact that waste is the most visible impact of hotels on the environment (Bohdanowicz and Martinac, 2003). The hotels therefore had a greater tendency to clean up their waste so that their environmental performance could be more apparent.

Indeed, most of the hotels visited during the study were clean and green with waste bins provided in the guestrooms epitomizing the importance management attaches to waste collection and sanitation. However, environmental programmes in other areas such as pollution prevention,

water and energy conservation which are popular in developed countries have not attracted the attention of most hotel managers in Ghana.

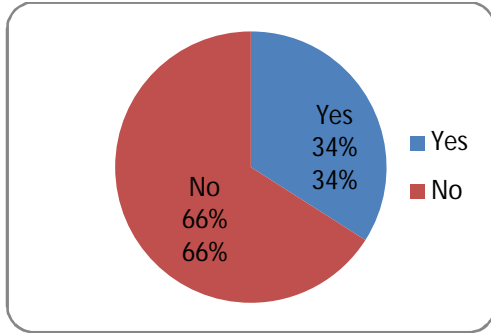


Figure 2: Percentage of hotels with environmental initiatives

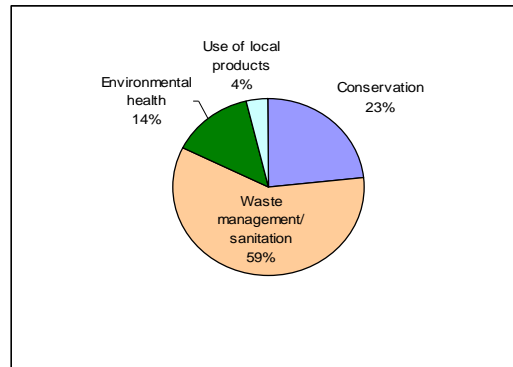


Figure 3: Initiatives in improved environmental performance

Environmental Management Performance

From Figure 4, the 3-4 star hotels were the best environmental performers (overall mean = 4.63) followed by 1-2 star hotels (overall mean = 3.84), budget hotels and guest houses of which both had an Overall Mean of 3.34 suggesting that they rarely undertook the environmental management practices. It appears therefore that size and class of hotel are related to environmental performance. This finding supports the fact that larger hotels are at the forefront of environmental management (Mauforth and Munt 1998; Edwards, 2000; Mensah 2006).

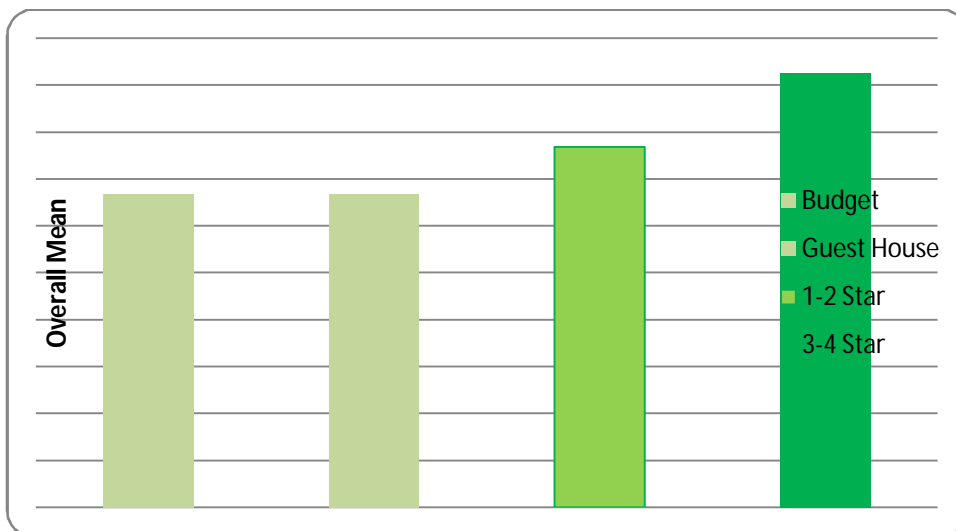


Figure 4: Overall environmental performance among categories of hotels

Therefore on the environmental performance spectrum, the 3-4 star hotels could be described as the 'greenest' hotels in Accra. This is not surprising because the larger and upscale hotels tend to have the

management systems, technology and other resources that foster sound environmental management practices. Budget and Guest houses in Ghana usually do not have the resources and structures need to embark on sound environmental management practices. Even in the area of enforcement of environmental laws by the GTB and EPA, smaller hotels have often been sidestepped. Smaller hotels (with less than 40 rooms) are not obliged to conduct environmental impact assessments. Also, in February 1998, Golden Tulip hotel attracted all the attention when it had problems with its sewerage plant leading to the spillage of sewage into an open drain. Since such multinational hotels are more sensitive to reputational damages, the hotel subsequently had to invest millions of dollars to rectify the problem.

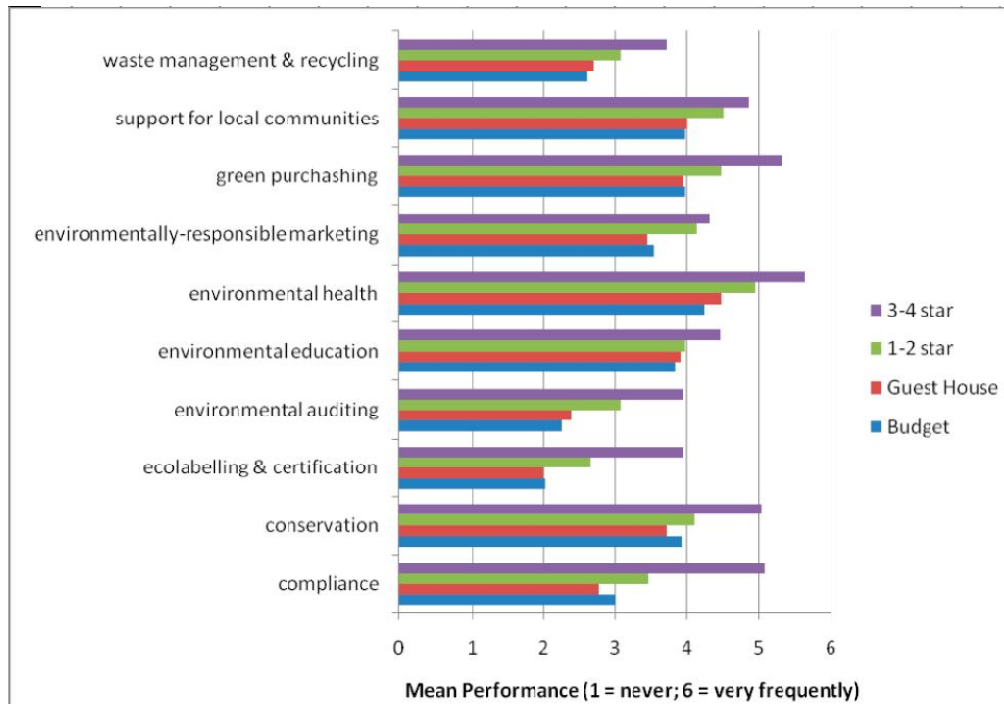


Figure 5 Environmental Performance among Hotels in Key Areas

Figure 5 lends further credence to the fact that the 3-4 star category hotels were the best performers on all the indicators followed by 1-2 star category. Budget hotels and guest houses were the worst performers. Ironically, the hotels rarely or occasionally undertook waste management and recycling though their self-reported environmental initiatives were in the area of waste management. This is because recycling is hardly undertaken by the hotels. Waste management by these hotels involved the collection and deposition of waste rather than minimizing waste or recycling.

Collectively, the hotels performed creditably in terms of environmental health and pollution prevention, their support for local communities and in green purchasing. However they performed abysmally in the areas of eco-labelling and certification and in environmental auditing. Environmental auditing has been described as a fairly new concept in tourism (Butler 1993; Ding and Pigram, 1995) and this perhaps accounts for its unpopularity in the Ghanaian hotel sector. Also, ecolabeling and certification which is assuming popularity globally as a voluntary environmental management tool, is almost non-existent in the Ghanaian hotel industry.

Conclusions and implications

Results of this study clearly show that the environmental management activities of hotels in Accra are restricted to waste management. Environmental management activities geared towards climate change mitigation has not been given serious consideration by hotel managers. Even with regards to waste management, the major concern has been waste collection and not waste prevention or recycling. This study also brings to the fore, the fact that voluntary environmental activities are almost non-existent in the hotel industry in Ghana despite its growing popularity globally as relevant environmental management policy alternatives. Apart from the fact that about two-thirds of the hotels had not initiated any environmental programme, coupled with the fact that environmental initiatives by one-third of the hotels were in the area of waste management and sanitation which smacks of compliance to GTB, AMA and EPA laws and directives, the hotels also rarely undertook environmental auditing, ecolabelling and certification.

The close association of environmental management with sanitation and waste management has implications for the achievement of the UN millennium development goals (MDG) target seven which aims at achieving environmental sustainability. Though sustainable tourism development provides the desired impetus for the realization of this goal, unsustainable practices by hotels, especially those that border on resource consumption will render the realization of this goal an illusion. Unfortunately hotel managers in Accra seem to be more concerned about environmental issues that confront their immediate surroundings such as sanitation and waste management. In fact evidence from the study suggests that they equate sanitation and waste management to environmental management. They therefore ignore the broader environmental issues that have ramifications for the realisation of the MDGs. Issues like reducing waste and resource consumption through recycling, conserving energy and water through education and use of appropriate technology as well as regulating climate change through low carbon emissions have not been properly addressed by hotels in Ghana. Hotels in Accra will continue to consume large volumes of resource without due regard to how it impacts on the lives of the urban poor in Accra. In places like *Kokrobite* and *La*, hotels compete with local fishermen for the beaches, and the hotels always have the upper hand because they have enough financial resources to enable them acquire those lands whilst the fishermen are short-changed.

The unpopularity of voluntary environmental management, calls for Ghana's environmental policies to be geared towards encouraging greater industry self-regulation rather than enforcement by state institutions. Incentives should be provided for hotels that subject themselves to third party environmental audits or acquire ecolabels and other certification schemes.

References

- Barlett, F. (1992). How green are Hong Kong hotels? *One Earth*, 16, 22-23.
- Becken, S., Frampton, C., & Simmons, D. (2000). Energy consumption patterns in the accommodation sector - The New Zealand case. *Ecological Economics*, 39, 371-386.

Bohanowicz, P. (2006). *Responsible resource management in hotels - attitudes, indicators, tools and strategies*. Unpublished Doctoral thesis, School of Industrial engineering and management, Royal Institute of Technology, Stockholm, Sweden.

Bohanowicz, P. (2006). *Responsible resource management in hotels - attitudes, indicators, tools and strategies*. Unpublished Doctoral thesis, School of Industrial engineering and management, Royal Institute of Technology, Stockholm, Sweden.

Bohdanowicz, P., & Martinac, I. (2003). *Attitude towards Sustainability in chain hotels- Results of a European Survey*. Paper presented at the CIB 2003 International Conference on Smart and Sustainable Built Environment, Brisbane, Australia.

Briguglio, L. & Briguglio, M. (1996). Sustainable Tourism in the Maltese Isles. In L., Briguglio, R. Butler, D. Harrison, & W.L. Filho (Eds.), *Sustainable Tourism in Islands and Small States* (pp. 161-179), London: Pinter.

Chan, W.W., & Lam, J.C. (2001). Environmental accounting of municipal solid waste originating from rooms and restaurants in the Hong Kong hotel industry. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 25(4), 371-385.

Chan, W.W., & Lam, J.C. (2003). Energy-saving supporting tourism sustainability: a case study of hotel swimming pool heat pump. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 11(1), 74-83.

Davies, T., & Cahill, S. (2000) *Environmental implications of the tourism industry*. Discussion paper, 14 March 2000, Resources for the Future, Washington, D.C.

Eber, S. (Ed.). (1992). *Beyond the Green Horizon, Principles for Sustainable Tourism*. A discussion paper commissioned from Tourism Concern by WWF, UK.

Edwards, T.J. (2000, April). Small hotels and their environmental adaptation, is being small really being eco? The case of Nassau/Paradise Island, Bahamas, *Proceedings of the 9th Annual CHME Hospitality Research Conference, University of Huddersfield*.

El Dief, M. & Font, X. (2010). The determinants of hotels' marketing managers' green marketing behaviour. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(2), 157-174.

Enz, C.A., & Siguaw, J.A. (1999). *Best hotel environmental practices*. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 40(5), 72-77.

Erdogan, N. & Baris, E. (2007). Environmental protection programs and conservation practices of hotels in Ankara, Turkey, *Tourism Management*, 28, 604-614.

Forte, J. (1994). Environmental-friendly Management in Hotels, in B. Taylor, C. Hutchinson, S. Pollack & R. Tapper (Eds.), *Environmental Management Handbook* (pp. 97-113). London: Pitman Publishing.

Ghana Tourist Board (2009). *Tourism Statistical Factsheet on Ghana*. Accra:

Gossling, S. (2002). Global environmental consequences of tourism. *Global Environmental Change*, 12, 283-302.

Graci, S. (2010). Examining the factors that impede sustainability in China's tourism accommodation industry: A case study of Sanya, Hainan, China.

Graci, S. (2010). Examining the factors that impede sustainability in China's tourism accommodation industry: A case study of Sanya, Hainan, China. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 19(1), 38-55.

Graci, S. and Dodds, R. (2009). Why Go Green? The business case for environmental commitment in the Canadian hotel industry, *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 19(2), 250-270.

Hunter, C., & Green, H. (1995). *Tourism and the Environment, a Sustainable Relationship?* New York: Routledge.

International Hotel Environmental Initiative (2002). *Hotels care: Community action and responsibility for the environment*. IHEI, London, UK.

Italian Agency for Environmental Protection and Technical Services (APAT). (2002). *Tourist accommodation EU eco-label award scheme, final report*. APAT. Retrieved June 16, 2008 from: http://www.apat.gov.it/certificazioni/site/_contentfiles/3rdActivityReport

Kirk, D. (1995). Environmental management in hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary hospitality Management*, 7(6), 3-8.

Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. Harlow: Longman.

Mauforth, M., & Munt, I. (1998). *Tourism and Sustainability, New Tourism in the Third World*. New York: Routledge.

Meade, B., & Pringle, J. (2001). Environmental management systems for Caribbean hotels and resorts, A case study of five properties in Jamaica. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, 2(3/4), 149-159.

Mensah, I. (2006). Environmental management practices among hotels in the greater Accra region. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(3), 414-431.

Mensah, I. (2007). Environmental management and sustainable tourism development: The case of hotels in the Greater Accra Region (GAR) of Ghana. *Journal of Retail and Leisure Property*, 6, 15 –22.

Ratz, T., & Puczko, L. (1997). Social changes affected by tourism development at Lake Balaton, Hungary. In T. Flognfeldt & H. Holmengen (Eds.), *TTRA-European Chapter Conference, Report 2* (pp. 61-75). Lillehammer: Lillehammer College.

Shanklin, C.W., Petrillose, M.J., & Pettay, A. (1991). Solid waste management practices in selected hotel chains and individual operations. *Hospitality Research Journal*, 15(1), 59-74.

Stipanuk, D.M. (1996). The U.S. lodging industry and the environment-An historical view. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 37(5), 39-45.

Torres, R. (2003). Linkages between tourism and agriculture in Mexico. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3): 546-566.

Withiam, G. (1995). Survey says: Hoteliers aware and active on environment. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 36(2), 15.

Zhao Jin-Lin, & Merna, K.M. (1992). Impact analysis and the international environment. In R. Teare & M. Olsen (Eds.), *International Hospitality Management; Corporate Strategy in Practice*, New York: John Wiley and Sons.

MDGs and the SSA: The Entrepreneurial Challenge of Consumption Complex Syndrome – Empirical Evidence from Nigeria.

By

Gazie S.Okpara, Ph.D. (Corresponding Author)

Sabbatical Senior Lecturer, Business School

Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA)

Achimota, Accra-Ghana

Julius O. Onah, Ph.D.

Professor Emeritus

Department of Marketing, Faculty of Business Administration

Abia State University

Abstract

With the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) initiative in its last trimester, the woeful performance of the Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) is all well documented. Focusing on Nigeria's private sector entrepreneurship affirmed by the World Bank as a true engine of growth, job/wealth creation and poverty reduction, the paper examines the daunting challenge of Consumption Complex Syndrome (CCS) to this sector, and consequently to the MDGs. Using experiments in the footwear industry, the study sampled 200 consumer-respondents and established a high prevalence of CCS – a state of consumers' mind that consistently predisposed them to foreign-labeled products, even when the domestic ones were ironically preferred in a Blind Brand Experiment. The concomitant policy, entrepreneurial and market imperatives towards the MDG's Poverty Reduction are considered.

Keywords: *MDG, Consumption Complex Syndrome (CCS), Shoes, Attitude, Poverty Reduction, Indigenous Entrepreneurship*

Introduction

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) originating from the UN's Millennium Declaration asserts that every individual has the right to dignity, freedom, equality and a basic standard of living. The MDGs were meant to operationalize these ideas by setting targets and indicators for ultimate poverty reduction within a fifteen-year timeline.

UN's 50th anniversary led to a major report entitled "*We the Peoples: The Role of the United Nations in the 21st Century*," which led to the Millennium Declaration. This initiative acceded to by 192 member-nations and some 23 international organizations in 2000 is evidently the most topical global issue till date. Christened the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the eight-point initiative also dubbed 'Goals' is ultimately aimed at encouraging development by improving social and economic conditions in the world's poorest countries by 2015 (MDG, 2011).

With the MDGs in its last trimester, sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) is reputedly off-track, lagging behind all other regions on all goals (Teunissen and Akkerman, 2005; Addison et al., 2005; Mistry, 2005; Klopper, 2007). Sub-Saharan Africa comprising some 47 countries, generally refers to the area of the African continent which lies south of the Sahara. Usually called “the Black Africa,” it excludes the Arab world or North Africa (Wikipedia, 2011).

This study is focused on MDG 1 (Poverty Reduction), using Nigeria: the most populous nation in SSA. Documented report showed that it had not fared any better in the MDG benchmark, and will most likely miss the target by 2015 (Jonathan, 2010). Concentrating on the private sector, acclaimed as the true engine of growth, job and wealth creation (World Bank, 2011), the paper examined the prevalence of Consumption Complex Syndrome (CCS) in domestic products patronage (using the footwear industry), and its incidence on MDG’s poverty reduction.

The rest of this study is organized in four core sections of literature review, methodology, analysis and findings/conclusion.

Statement of the problem

Unbridled pro-foreign consumption is a major setback to indigenous entrepreneurship and therefore poverty reduction initiative. Following the exposure of Nigerians to foreign products, first by colonialism, and later by the wave of globalization and global media, Nigeria’s penchant for all manner of foreign brands (FOS, 2004) had remained a national worry. With the consequent crippling of the real sector, Nigeria’s probability of halving her level of poverty by 2015, by about 49 million people (Onabolu, 2011; Jonathan, 2010) is slim. This is because a trade-deficit economy leads to BOP (write in full) imbalance, increased indebtedness, de-industrialization, unemployment, loss of national identity and poverty (Kousari, 2005).

Nigeria, like most sub-Saharan African countries (Ndulu, et al., 2005), had pursued MDG-inspired economic reforms to improve macroeconomic management and widen space for real private sector activity. However, dating back to the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) in 1986, government had shown marked desperation and frustration in battling consumption-fuelled import-mania and smuggling (Adenekan, 2011; Eshalomi, 2011), which costs Nigeria an estimated N750 billion annually. The “Prohibition List” in 2004 (which included footwear) had failed to boost import substitution, as smuggling persists (Frimpong, 2005).

Inherent limitations with the extant government measures in improving the attitude to and patronage of home-made products, hence create employment and reduce poverty, lie in the fact that they seem to have failed in addressing one of the complexities of the consumers’ mind bordering on *Consumption Complex Syndrome* – a state of the consumer’s mind that consistently predisposes him to foreign products, even when the domestic ones are ironically preferred in a blind brand experiment. The syndrome encourages imports/smuggling at the expense of domestic real sector, employment generation and poverty reduction.

Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study is therefore to explore the prevalence of consumption complex syndrome in Nigeria, and its implication to the MDG’s Poverty Reduction. Specifically, it intends to: a) determine

whether consumption complex plays any significant role in purchase behavior, thereby crippling the domestic real sector and jeopardizing the MDG 1 and b) establish whether a typical Nigerian consumer can truly distinguish objectively between home and foreign brands of products (shoes), in a blind brand experiment. Concomitant policy issues will be highlighted too.

Research hypotheses

Working towards the above objectives, the following hypotheses are hereby formulated in their null structures:

Ho₁: There is no significant difference in the attitude strength between home and foreign products (shoes), such that domestic entrepreneurship is unaffected by imports.

Ho₂: There is no significant difference in preference pattern between home and foreign products (shoes), in a blind brand experiment.

Ho₃: Consumption complex is not a significant determinant of brand choice between home and foreign products.

Significance of the study

Pro-foreign consumption challenges government (Nenadi, 2005) and indigenous entrepreneurship (Mike, 2011). Hopefully, the indigenous real sector in Nigeria would witness a renewed demand-driven vibrancy, leading in turn to employment, MDG's poverty reduction and improved living standards.

Consequently, government is expected to benefit immensely from the emerging vibrancy via tax. Pressures on domestic currency and the external reserves would also ease off. Consumers' mind would be disabused from the subconscious enslavement inherent in consumption complex, where mere labels of country-of-origin remain the extant measure of quality. Further, the study will expectedly add to the existing stock of knowledge in the realms of consumer behavior, and country-of origin effects (COE).
(delete)

Limitations and assumptions

The study is obviously limited by the fact that only MDG 1 (Poverty Reduction), and the footwear (shoes) industry in Aba, Nigeria, were the central focus.

Again, to minimize ambiguities, the following assumptions are made:

- i. Poverty is implicated in all the MDGs, such that its reduction will have a huge favourable multiplier effect on the overall MDG.
- ii. We assume that only the top-quality home-made shoes will be used in the BBE (write in full) comparison with foreign ones. This is because the foreign brands are known to be of high quality and international standard.
- iii. A pro-foreign Nigerian consumer, who cannot differentiate home-made shoes from foreign ones in a blind brand experiment, has a consumption complex syndrome, all things being equal.
- iv. Given that shoe components can be imported (as is the present practice), the resultant shoes are home-made so long as they are assembled, coupled and finished in Nigeria.

THEORETICAL CONSTRUCTS

Millennium Development Goal (MDG 1: Poverty Reduction)

MDG 1 is the first of eight goals targeted for actualization by 2015. Seeking to eradicate extreme poverty, its specific targets include:

1A: To halve the proportion of people living on less than a US\$1 a day.

1B: To achieve decent employment (for women, men and youths).

1C: To halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

2.2 Pro-Foreign Attitude: An Evolution

Existing stream of literature on consumers disposition to foreign (or local) brands largely focused on the country-of-origin effects (COE), the earliest study of which is traceable to Schooler in 1965 (Peterson and Jolibert, 1995). Bilkey and Nes (1982) also published a vastly referenced article that affirmed this influence. Pro-foreign attitude and consumption are exacerbated by colonial experience, mass media and the internet (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999).

Owing to its adverse impact on indigenous entrepreneurship and national economy, policies and programs from Australia's "Buy Australian," Nigeria's "Re-branding Nigeria," Uganda's "Gifted by Nature," South Africa's "Proudly South African," to Ghana's "Buy local," are conceptualized and executive to grapple with it. (Elliot and Cameron, 1994; Nworah, 2006; Njoku, 2004; Opoku and Akorli, 2009).

Concept and prevalence of Consumption Complex Syndrome (CCS)

Consumption Complex Syndrome (CCS) is a state of the consumer's mind, which predisposes him to favor and prefer foreign-labeled products, without a consistently justifiable reason for this. CCS is usually perpetuated by "Made-In" labels that indicate its country of origin (Peterson and Jolibert, 1995), which may differ from its country of manufacture (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999). These labels are mere extrinsic product cues (like price, brand name, warranty) which have no direct bearing on product performance.

The prevalence of various manifestations of CCS is well documented. Studies in China (Sklair, 1994), Vietnam (Shultz, Pecotich and Le, 1994; Ger et al, 1993), Democratic Republic of Congo (Friedman, 1990), Zimbabwe (Burke, 1996; Dakin and Carter, 2010), Ghana (Opoku and Akorli, 2009), Mozambique (John and Brady, 2009), Ethiopia (Belk, 1988), Niger (Arnould, 1989) and Nigeria (Oyeniyi, 2009; Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999; Ekeng and Ewah, 2010, Shenge, 2010; Achumba, 1998; Njoku, 2004) are replete with this evidence.

Beyond the merit of choice democratization inherent in CCS, its demerits range from fake labeling (Opoku and Akorli, 2009; Gilley, 1996), collapse of indigenous and domestic industry (Ugwu, 2005; Eshalomi, 2011, Mike, 2011), increased unemployment (Amaefule, 2011; Njoku, 2004; Okechukwu and Onyemah, 1999), loss of national identity (Nworah, 2006), pressure on the exchange rate, loss of government revenue owing to smuggling (Adenekan, 2011), and vulnerability of economy.

Theories of Country-Of-Origin Effects

Several models offer explanations to the disposition of consumers to or against foreign products. They could be summed up as theories of Superiority (Elliot and Cameron, 1994) which is found more

pronounced in developing economies (Belk, 1988; Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1990), Ethnocentrism (Sharma, et al, 1995; Nagashima, 1970; Lillis and Narayana, 1974; Bannister and Saunders, 1978; Toyne and Walters, 1989), Affinity/Animosity (Watson and Wright, 2000; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007; Keenam and Pokrywczynski, 2009; Bahae and Pisani, 2009b), Transition (Ger et al, 1993; Batra et al, 2000; Kottak, 1990; Arnould, 1989).

This stream of literature has little explanation for a situation where consumers have no objectively verifiable and consistent rationale for preferring foreign brands (irrespective of origin). Consumption Complex Syndrome is put forth here to encapsulate this gap.

Methodology

Scope/Design: This study focused on MDG 1 (which transcends others), and the shoes industry in Aba, Nigeria. The latter's "Bakassi lines" in the Ariaria International Market, has the second highest concentration of members in the Footwear Group of the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN), plus the largest members in the footwear informal sector (Obuzie, 2008).

This research design is intended to study samples of shoes manufacturers and consumers in the Aba, as well conduct a blind-brand experiment on various shoes' loyalty, manipulating branding (an independent variable) and monitoring its effect on shoe choice (dependent variable).

Data: Primary data were generated through interviews (manufacturers), questionnaires (consumers) and blind brand experiments: the consumers who had earlier filled the questionnaires were studied further, by asking them to pick their preferred shoes from a collection of clueless domestic and foreign ones. A pro-foreign consumer who decisively picked the right one (foreign brand) did not have the CCS. Otherwise, he or she did.

Sampling: 1750 shops comprised the Bakassi Lines, broken down into 70 lines (or columns) of approximately 25 shops each (Obuzie, 2008). Using the one-tenth rule (Ezejelue and Ogwo, 1990), 7 lines were chosen, and 3 shops drawn per line as each line had between 20 and 30 shops depending on size. Consequently, 21 (7 X 3) shops constituted the sample size, drawn through simple random sampling (without replacement). Furthermore, 200 consumer-respondents were judgmentally sampled for the experiment from Aba (comprising Aba North and Aba South) considered large and cosmopolitan enough in ethnic mix.

Tools: Apart from descriptive tables and charts, hypotheses were tested using Kolmogorov-Smirnov D-test and Chi-Square Test.

Analysis

Highlights of the outcome of data analysis revealed the following:

Demography of Respondents: The majority of consumer-respondents were aged between 25-31 (41%), applicants/students (49%), at least first-degree holders (45.2%), and single (58%).

Shoes Patronage Characteristics: 91.5% respondents preferred foreign shoes, especially from Italy. Again, the bulk of respondents preferred Durability (39%) in shoes, bought Not Too Regularly – 5 monthly – (30.5%), and claimed they can distinguish local from foreign shoes (98%).

Attitudinal Strength Indices (for Home and Foreign Shoes)

Comparing the attitude strength scores along the 0 - 400 continuum (Appendix 1), home shoes have an unfavorable attitude score (359/400) - indicative of poor ratings on most shoe attributes - as against the foreign shoes' score (41/400).

Analysis of Manufacturers' Interviews

The manufacturers' interviews showed that most of them started business between 1980 and 1999, owned unincorporated and owner-managed outfits with less than 7 employees. Most shoes components (except gum) were imported, with daily output and sales ranging between 30-120 and 25-100 pairs respectively - Cameroun constituted their largest foreign clientele. Smuggling (imports) still posed a huge menace.

Test of Hypotheses

The three hypotheses stated in 1.3 were tested, using Chi-square (Chisnall, 1981) and Kolmogorov-Smirnov (Churchill, 1976) tests, thus:

Hypothesis I: The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (D) value is 0.40, with a critical value of 0.100 at 0.05 level of significance (see Appendix 2). Since the calculated D exceeds the critical value at 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis II: Again, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (D) test was conducted (see Appendix 2). The calculated D (0.01) is less than the critical value (0.096), therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis III: This hypothesis isolated and used only the responses of the pro-foreign consumers in the earlier BBE. Chi-square was the tool of analysis here (see Appendix 3).

Since the calculated Chi-square value (15.37) is greater than the critical value (5.99) at level of significance (0.05) and degree of freedom (2), the null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Summary of findings

The outcome of the data analysis and test of hypotheses are highlighted hereunder.

1. 92 percent of respondents preferred foreign shoes. This corroborated the views of the domestic shoe manufacturers, who inexorably resorted to fake foreign labeling.
2. Quality/durability was the foremost attribute sought in shoes. This attribute was measured in terms of label or origin.
3. Italy was the preferred country-of-origin for foreign shoes. However, no significant brand loyalty existed as 67 percent of respondents would settle for any other foreign brand in the absence of Italian shoes.
4. 98 percent of respondents claimed they could distinguish foreign shoes from the home-mades. Only 32 percent, however, could make this distinction in a blind brand experiment. Therefore labels of origin rather than shoe attributes, influence patronage.
5. The Attitude Strength Indices (ASI) for both home and foreign shoes indicate that while the latter is 10 percent short of the perfect ASI, the former is merely 10 percent short of the worst.
6. In a Blind Brand Experiment (BBE), there is no significant difference in preference pattern between home and foreign shoes, in spite of the negative "Aba-Made" attitude to domestic shoes.

7. Consumption Complex played a significant role in preference for foreign brands of shoes, as respondents ironically preferred the domestic ones in a BBE.

Recommendations/Conclusion

To boost the domestic real sector's potential in enhancing MDGs' poverty reduction, the following recommendations are made:

1. The import prohibition of some categories of products (including shoes) intended to protect the domestic real sector, should be made more effective by the relevant government agencies, given its level of abuse/contravention. Vibrancy in this sector will have a corresponding multiplier effect on employment, income and poverty reduction.
2. The use of foreign labels on home-made shoes need be legislated against. Partnership arrangements between local and foreign shoe investors should rather be encouraged, so as to derive "the benefits of both worlds."
3. A pan-Nigeria Blind Brand Experiment on home and foreign shoes should be conducted as a credible way to "mindful consumption" (Sheth et al, 2011). This will empirically convince Nigerians of the landmark improvements in "Aba-Made" shoes, which are falsely labeled as and mistaken for foreign ones.
4. Given that Consumption Complex Syndrome (CCS) was prevalent in shoes' purchase decisions in Aba, it is recommended that further BBE studies be conducted in other regions in Nigeria to ascertain the extent of spread of this syndrome among the major ethnic/religious blocs.

In conclusion, the challenges of domestic entrepreneurship in Nigeria, besides Consumption Complex Syndrome (CCS), are legion. Ranging from poor power supply, policy inconsistency and multiple taxation to poor spin-off incentives, domestic entrepreneurship stands a little chance of making the multiplier impact on MDGs' poverty reduction. The new Ebele Jonathan-led government should immediately rise to the urgency of this consumption paradigm shift within its four-year tenure, which coincidentally ends in 2015 – the MDG target year of reckoning!

References

- Achumba, I.C (1998), "The Challenges of Service Marketing and Human Resource Development," Journal of Business, University of Lagos, Volume 1, Number 2.
- Addison, T; Mavrotas, G. and McGillivray, M. (2005), "Aid to Africa: An Unfinished Agenda," Journal of International Development (Special Edition on Aid to Africa), Volume 17, Issue 18, November.
- Adenekan, Sulaiman (2011), "How Smuggling is Crippling Nigeria's Economy – Investigation", The PUNCH Newspapers, February 25.
- Agbonifoh, B. A, Ogwo, O.E and Nnolim, D.A (1998), Marketing in Nigeria: Concept, Principles and Decisions, Aba: Afritowers Ltd.
- Amaefule, Everest (2011), "Nigeria Lost 1.9 million Manufacturing Jobs – MAN", The PUNCH Newspapers [online]: www.punchontheweb.com/Artice.aspx?theartic=Art20110217445762 (accessed 17/02/11).

- Arnould, Eric J. (1989), "Toward a Broadened Theory of Preference Formation and the Diffusion of Innovation: Cases From Zinder Province, Niger Republic," *Journal of Consumer Research*, Volume 16, September.
- Bahae, M. and Pisani, M. (2009b), "Iranian Consumer Animosity and U.S. Products: A Witch's Brew or Elixir?" *International Business Review*, Volume 18, Number 2.
- Bannister, J. P. and Saunders, J. A. (1978), "U.K Consumers' Attitudes Toward Import: The Measurement of National Stereotype Image," *European Journal of Marketing*, Volume 2, Number 8.
- Batra, Rajeer; Ramaswamy, Venkatram; Alden, Dana L.; Steenkamp, Jan-Benedict E. M. and Ramachander, S. (2000), "Effects of Brand Local and Non-Local Origin on Consumer Attitudes in Development Countries," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Volume 9, Number 2.
- Belk, R.W. (1988) "Third World Consumer Culture" in E. Kumcu and A. F. Firats (eds.), *Research in Marketing: Marketing and Development - Toward Broader Dimensions*, Greenwich, CT: JAI.
- Billey, Warren J. and Erik, Nes (1982), "Country-of-Origin Effects on Product Evaluations," *Journal of International Business Studies*, Volume 13, Number 1.
- Bullion (2004), A Central Bank of Nigeria Publication, Volume 15, December.
- Burke, T. (1996), *Lifebuoy Men, Lux Women*, Durham: Duke University Press.
- Chisnall, Peter M. (1981), *Marketing: A Behavioral Analysis*, Berkshire: McGraw-Hill Book Company (UK) Ltd.
- Churchill, Gilbert A. (1976), *Marketing Research: Methodological Foundations*, Illinois: The Dryden Press.
- Dakin, John A. and Carter, Steve (2010), "Negative Image: Developing Countries and Country-Of-Origin: An Example from Zimbabwe," *International Journal of Economic and Business Research*, Volume 2, Numbers 3-4.
- Ekeng, Alex B. and Ewah, Sunday O. E. (2010), "Analysis of Consumer Propensity Towards Foreign Products: A Survey of Consumers in Two States in Nigeria," [online]: www.papeers.ssrn.com/so/3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1607817 (accessed 01/03/11).
- Elliot, Gregory R. and Cameron, Ross C.(1994), "Consumer Perception of Product Quality and the Country -of-Origin Effect," *Journal of International Marketing*, American Marketing Association Volume, Number 2.
- Encarta Encyclopedia [online]: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Encarta>, (accessed 01/03/11).
- Eshalomi, Mathew (2011), "Vegetable Oil: How Importation, Smuggling Threaten Local Market," in Ronke Badamus, *The PUNCH Newspapers*, February 25.

Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) of Nigeria Publication, 2004.

Friedman, J. (1990), "Being in the World: Globalization and Localization," Theory, Culture and Society, Volume 17.

Frimpong, Kwadwo (2005), "Why Nigeria's Ban of Ghana Exports was Illegal," Homepage Ghana, November 10.

Ger, G., Belk, R. W. and Lascu, D.N. (1993), "The Development of Consumer Desire in Marketing and Developing Economies: The Cases of Romania and Turkey", in Advances in Consumer Research, L. McAlister and M.L. Rothschild (eds.), Volume 20, Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Hawkins, Del I., Best, Roger J. and Coney, Kenneth A. (2001), Consumer Behavior: Building Marketing Strategy, 8th ed., Boston: Irwin/McGraw-Hill Company.

Jonathan, Goodluck E. (2010), "Nigerian Millennium Goals Report," on-line: www.undp.org/africa/documents/mdg/nigeria_2010.pdf. (accessed 29/05/11).

Keenan, K. and Pokrywczynski, J. (2009), "Country and Region of Origin as Advertising Copy-Points: Perceptions of Asia and Asian Nations in the Arab and Western Worlds," Paper Presented to the American Academy of Advertising, Asia Pacific Conference, Beijing, China, May.

Klopper, H. C. (2007), "Poverty and Development: Pulling Forces and the Challenges for Nursing in Africa," Nursing and Health Sciences, Volume 9, Issue 4.

Kottak, C.P. (1990), Prime Time Society, Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Kousari, K. (2005), "Africa's Development and External Constraints," cited in Africa in the World Economy: The National, Regional and International Challenges, Teunissen, Jan J. and Akkerman A. (eds.), The Hague: FONDAD.

Lillis, C.M. and Narayana, C.L. (1974), "Analysis of 'Made-In' Product Images – An Exploratory Study," Journal of International Business Studies, Volume 5, Number 2, Spring.

Mike, Jide (2011), "Challenges and Opportunities of Manufacturing Investments in Nigeria," Paper Presented at the 10th Biennial Techno-Exposition, organized by the Raw Materials Research and Development Council (RMRDC), in Abuja, 16 February.

Wikipedia (2011), on-line: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Millennium_Development_Goals (accessed 25/05/11).

Mistry, P. S. (2005), "Reasons for Sub-Saharan Africa's Development Deficit That The Commission For Africa Did Not Consider," African Affairs, Oxford University Press, Volume 104, Issue 417, October.

Nagashima, A. (1970), "A Comparison of Japanese and US Attitudes Toward Foreign Products," Journal of Marketing, Volume 34, January.

Ndulu, B.; Kritzinger-van Niekerk, L. and Reinikka, R. (2005), "Infrastructure, Regional Integration and Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa," cited in Africa in the World Economy: The National, Regional and International Challenges, Teunissen, Jan J. and Akkerman A. (eds.), The Hague: FONDAD.

Nenadi, Usman (2005), cited by Johnmark Ukoko, "Ban on Imports: Impact on Manufacturing Sector," Business Times, June 20 - 26.

Njoku, Uju A. A. (2004), "Marketability of Nigerian Textile Materials, A PhD Thesis in Marketing Management, St. Clements University, British West Indies.

Nwokoye, Nonyelu G. (2000), Modern Marketing for Nigeria: Principles and Practice, 2nd ed. Onitsha: Africana-FEP Publishers Ltd.

Nworah, Uche (2006), "Re-Branding Nigeria: Critical Perspectives on the Heart of Africa Image Project," [online], Available: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doc=10.1.1.110>, (accessed 01/03/11).

Obuzie, Eric (2008), Interview with the Chairman, Umuehilegbu Industrial Market (the Bakassi Lines), Ariaria International Market, Aba, Nigeria.

Okechukwu, Chike and Onyemah, Vincent (1999), "Nigerian Consumer Attitudes Toward Foreign and Domestic Products," Journal of International Business Studies, Volume 30, Issue 3, September.

Onabolu, T. (2011), "School Shoes for Goodluck Jonathan," Thisday, on-line: www.thisdayonline.com (accessed 29/05/11).

Opoku, Robert A. and Akorli, Patrick A. K. (2009), "The Preference Gap: Ghanaian Consumers' Attitudes Toward Local and Imported Products," African Journal of Business Management, Volume 3, Number 8, August.

Oyeniyi, Omotayo (2009) "Analysis of Nigerian Consumers' Perception of Foreign Products," [online]: www.upg-bulletin-serro/achieve/2009-3/3-220Oyeniyi-pdf, (accessed 01/03/11).

Papadopoulos, Nicolas and Heslop, Louse A. (1990), "A Comparative Image Analysis of Domestic Versus Imported Products," International Journal of Research in Marketing, Volume 7, Issue 4.

Peterson, Robert A. and Jolibert, Alain J.P. (1995), "A Meta-Analysis of Country-of-Origin Effects," Journal of International Business Studies, Volume 26, Number 4, 4th Quarter.

- Punch (2011), "OPS lauds Jonathan's Initiative on Tariff," on-line:
www.punchontheweb.com/Articl.aspx?theartic=Art201105273105187 (accessed 27/05/11).
- Riefler, P. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2007), "Consumer Animosity: A Literature Review and a Reconsideration of its Measurement", *International Marketing Review*, Volume 34, Number 1.
- Sharma, S.; Shimp, T. and Shin, J. (1995), "Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Test of Antecedent and Moderators," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Volume 23, Number 1.
- Shenge, Nyitor A. (2010), "Impact of Country of Origin and Price on Products' Advertisement Efficacy", *Journal of Social Science*, Volume 24, Number 3.
- Sheth, Jagdish N., Sethia Nirmal K. and Srinivab, Shanthi (2011), "Mindful Consumption: A Customer-Centric Approach to Sustainability, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Volume 39, Number 1.
- Shultz, C.J., Pecotich, A. and Le, K. (1994), "Changes in Marketing Activities and Consumption – the Socialist Republic of Vietnam," cited in "Effects of Brand Local and Non- Local Origin on Consumer Attitudes in Developing Countries," Rajeer Batra, Venkatram Ramaswamy, Dana L. Alden, Jan-Benedict E.M. Steenkamp and S. Ramachander (2000), *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Volume 9, Number 2.
- Sklair, L. (1994), *The Culture-Ideology of Consumerism in Urban China: Some Findings in a Survey in Shanghai*," cited in "Effects of Brand Local and Non-Local Origin on consumer Attitudes in Developing Countries," Rajeer Batra, Venkatram Ramaswamy, Dana L. Alden, Jan-Benedict E.M. Steenkamp and S. Ramachander (2000), *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Volume 9, Number 2.
- Teunissen, Jan J. and Akkerman, Age (2005), *Africa in the World Economy: The National, Regional and International Challenges*, The Hague: FONDAD.
- Toyne, B. and Walters, P. (1989), *Global Marketing Management: Strategic Perspective*, Boston: Allyn and Bacon..
- Udeh, John O. (1999), *Entrepreneurship in the 21st Century*, Enugu: Catholic Institute for Development, Justice and Peace.
- Ugwu, Charles (2005), "Manufacturers Groan Under Harsh Polices," *Business Times*, 30 December – 2 January.
- Ukwu, Ukwu I. (1981), "Trade and Marketing in Traditional Nigerian Society," *Nigerian Journal of Development Studies*, Volume 1, April 19.

Watson, John J. and Wright, Katrina (2000), "Consumer Ethnocentrism and Attitudes Toward Domestic and Foreign Products," *European Journal of Marketing*, Volume 34, Issues 9 & 10.

Wikipedia (2011), "Sub-Saharan Africa," http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/SubSaharan_Africa (accessed 29/05/11).

Wilkie, William L. and Pessemier, Edgar A. (1973), "Issues in Marketing's Use of Multi-Attribute Attitude Models," *Journal of Marketing Research*, Volume 10, Number 4, November.

World Bank (2011), "World Bank Calls for Growth in Africa that Creates Jobs, Alleviates Poverty Amidst Concerns for Rising Food Prices," on-line: web.worldbank.org/WEBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES (accessed 29/05/11).

World Book Encyclopaedia (2001), Volume 17, Chicago: World Book Inc.

Zimbardo, P.G.: Ebbesen, E.B. and Maslach, C. (1977), *Influencing Attitudes And Changing Behaviour*, 2nd ed. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Inc.

APPENDIX

Explanatory Methodology

Measurement of Attitude Strength Index for Ho₁

The Wilkie-Pessemier Multiattribute model (Wilkie and Pessemier, 1973) was used here, thus:

$$A_s = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{w_i}{I_i} - \frac{X_{ih}}{I_i}$$

Where:

A_s = Consumer attitude strength for shoes (home or foreign).

W_i = The weight of the various shoes' attributes.

I_i = Ideal rating of the different shoes on attribute i.

X_i = Respondent's belief (rating) about shoe's performance (home or foreign) on attribute i.

i = Relevant shoe attributes.

n = Number of attributes being considered.

|I_i - X_i| = Absolute variance from the ideal shoe, of respondent's rating on each shoe attribute (home or foreign).

The parameters were derived thus:

n and W_i: The seven attributes and their weights/rankings (%) by respondents were Quality/durability (54.5), design (18.7), comfort (9.6), packaging (7.6), price (5.6), finishing (2.5) and availability (1.5).

I_i and X_i: Ideal (I) and Actual ratings (X) are respectively got from the assumed "Excellent" rating and respondents' own ratings. The actual ratings (X) ranged from Poor, Fair, Good, Very Good to Excellent, with their corresponding points from 1, 2, 3, 4 to 5 respectively.

The indices for the attitude strength between home and foreign shoes by the sampled respondents are 359 and 41 respectively. These relative values are compared with the best attitude index (0) and the worst (400).

Test of Hypotheses 1 and 2 Using Kolmogorov – Smirnov (D) Test.

This was used to test our preference hypotheses (H_{01} and H_{02}) where some ordering is prevalent. It involves specifying the cumulative distribution function that would occur under the null hypothesis, and comparing that with the observed cumulative distribution function. The point at which the two functions show the maximum deviation is determined, and the value of this deviation is the test statistic (Churchill, 1976), which is compared with its corresponding critical value. Where the test statistic is higher than the critical value, the null hypothesis is rejected. The D-test, utilized in hypotheses 1 and 2 can be summed thus:

$$D = \max |C - O| = \text{maximum, and}$$

$$\alpha_{0.05} = \frac{1.36}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (\text{for large samples})$$

Where: C = Cumulative distribution function
 O = Observed cumulative distribution function
 n = Sample size
 α = Level of significance

Hypothesis I:

Feeding the Attitude Indices for home (359) and foreign (41) shoes into the function, the maximum absolute deviation (D) between observed cumulative proportion (O) and theoretical cumulative proportion (C) is: $0.90 - 0.50 = 0.40$. At $\alpha = 0.05$, critical value for D for large samples is: $= \frac{1.36}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{1.36}{\sqrt{184}} = 0.100$

Hypothesis II:

All respondents (200) were asked to pick their choice from the two pairs (Home and Foreign) after filling the questionnaire. Countries of origin were concealed. Using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (D) Test, the results from the shoe choices made by all the respondents in the course of BBE were 97 (Home) and 103 (Foreign). D value is at an absolute maximum where $0.94 - 0.50 = 0.01$, and D calculated = 0.01. At $\alpha = 0.05$, critical value for D for large samples $= \frac{1.36}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{1.36}{\sqrt{200}} = 0.096$

Test of Hypothesis 3 Using Chi-Square Test

Chi-square, denoted X^2 , (www.graphpad.com) is used here because of the nominal characteristics of the variables in H_{03} . Of the 183 pro-foreign respondents used in the experiment, 58 and 84 picked the right (foreign) and wrong (domestic) shoes respectively. 41 were undecided. Feeding these data into the computer, the resultant values were $X^2 = 15.37$, $df = 2$, Critical value = 5.99 at 0.05 level of significance.

INFORMAL SECTOR BUSINESS PROLIFERATION: HARNESSING POTENTIALS FOR DEVELOPMENT IN GHANA.

By

¹Peter Agyekum Boateng

²Dr. Irene Akuamoah-Boateng

³Ama Foriwaa Karikari

^{1, 2, 3}Valley View University, Department of Management Studies, School of Business, Oyibi

Abstract

The rapid and enormous growth of the informal sector, in spite of its erratic and muddling characterization, provides immeasurable backing for the nation's economy. This implies that the development of the nation may leapfrog to a boastful height (toward poverty reduction) if such wasting resources and opportunities are converged, organized, coordinated and regulated. This study focused on how potential skills within the sector could be harnessed toward the achievement of the first Millennium Development Goal (MDG) in Ghana. The paper was purely based on the review of literature, summarizing and giving a critical and evaluative account of existing knowledge related to the area of study. The trends of the informal sector is considered and seen from various studies to be growing and supportive of the economy. This is believed to be as a result of the nation's institutional engagements in such key areas as financing, unions, cooperatives, literacy and basic education, training and skills development, and, national and local governments, as suggested by the International Labor Organization (ILO). Unrelenting efforts to get organized and coordinate the activities of the sector are on-going. Concurrently, several other studies imply the need to revamp the sector (reinforcements, and changes in focus and strategies) in order to achieve the MDGs. The study reveals that development needs (social and economic) keep increasing (due to increased populations) bringing along with it the need for augmented support. Challenges leading to failure in achieving success in the informal sector in most cases are identified as slow employment-generating growth, absence of structural economic transformation, high demographic pressure, inappropriate education and training policies, failed labor regulations, no enabling environment for investment, economic choices motivated by politics, and brain drain. Recommendations made to extricate the confusion and guide policy-making for organized informal sector activities include lower-level collaborative partnership (LLCP, focused on illiterate and semi-illiterate workers) and, clustering and networking. Others are, creation of business enabling environments, availability of marketing and information support, infrastructure, productive resources, financing, and most importantly, regular collection of data to keep informal sector regulating policies up-to-date.

Keywords: Informal sector, informal sector employees, lower-level collaborative partnership (LLPC)

Introduction

Over the years governments have increasingly lost grip on their ability to engage the working population in its entirety in the provision of goods and services. The solution to this phenomenon seems far in a distance, possibly unreachable, heightening the level of societal uncertainty, especially in developing nations. Hopes in governments' ability to pursue and maintain the welfare of its own people have dropped. Escalating unemployment rates and the seemingly irreversible economic turmoil have pushed

the masses (especially the illiterates or semi-illiterates) into diverse business activities for survival – “each one for himself” business spree.

This condition has brought about the proliferation of businesses in the informal sector, a drift from the formal. The unexpected and immeasurable benefits reaped by nations (especially low-income nations) in this new direction have caught the admirations and speculations of both governments and international institutions. Relentless efforts have been expended but yet, more need to be done to make hay – arrest and tap the hidden valuable skills of the informal sector toward the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Ghana. The International Labor Organization (ILO), in a report, recommends disentangling the formal sector’s high unemployment puzzle with more job creation in the informal sector (both rural and urban areas) to prevent increase in poverty levels (ILO, 2000).

The surge of informal sector business proliferation in Ghana is marked by lack of organization and regulation, as in most developing nations. While the formal sector is predominantly characterized by literacy, it is otherwise in the informal sector (ILO, 2002; Adu-Amankwaah, 2008) where skills abound, but erratic. The sector seems to be thriving with no direction. The researcher believes that the development of the nation may leapfrog to a boastful height if such wasting opportunities are converged, coordinated and regulated. Palmer (2008), calling for the strengthening of the informal sector makes the following statements:

Developing countries need to have a national skills development strategy that pays due attention to the informal economy, and is operationalized through strong coordination between government ministries, departments and agencies, public and private providers and ISAs (Informal Sector Associations, and unions). Coordinating councils or NTAs (National Training Authorities) must be vested with real authority and *employers must be strongly represented in such bodies*. ISAs should be strengthened.

In light of this, several studies have been conducted, attempting to seek to regulate the sector with the formation of unions and other governmental institutions (Adu-Amankwaah, 1999). Others have also approached it providing financial resources. Yet they all do not seem to be all.

Many of these skillful illiterate or semi-illiterate entrepreneurs fail to perceive the good in getting organized thereby missing the path toward productivity. High illiteracy and poverty rates in the informal sector amount to wasting skills in several industries. Such skills need to be sought for, and motivated toward personal and national development. “Formalization needs to be made more ... appealing to informal economic units and workers so that informal ventures are more likely to voluntarily opt to formalize, and governments will have to expend less resources in enforcing formalization” (Palmer, 2008).

Among other things, this study focused on alternative viable possibilities for harnessing the potentials of the informal sector toward poverty reduction – achieving the first MDG in Ghana. It concurs with Palmer’s proposition, with slight modification – suspecting that efforts to organize the informal sector should comfortably begin at the grass roots, below union and cooperative levels. This proffer is an attempt to make formalization more appealing in the sector. It may be a prologueto Palmer’s proposed policy.

Most studies conducted have been on urban areas but have now shifted to include rural informal sectors (Adu-Amankwaa, 1999). This brings about the two main environments for studying the informal sector in Ghana: rural and urban. The rural sector could not have been left out because, “among Ghana’s relatively large labor force of self-employed workers, two-thirds are engaged in agriculture which is predominantly rural based” – an area that sees the convergence of high levels of the less educated according to Adu-Amankwaa (1999; citing Adu-Amankwaa & Tutu, 1997; see also Palmer, 2008).

The following are some questions posed, needing answers to help solve identified problems: What is the current level of informal sector contribution to the economy? What is the current level of illiteracy in the informal sector? What is the current level of illiteracy in the informal sector? How has the informal sector been supported? What are the challenges of the sector? How should the informal sector be mobilized? What is the essence of division of labor and work specialization through skill collaboration?

Methodology and Overview

The study focused on the proliferation of informal sector businesses, and how potential skills could be converged and connected toward the achievement of MDGs in Ghana. The paper was purely based on the review of literature, summarizing and giving a critical and evaluative account of existing knowledge related to the area of study. It sought to analyse the growth trends of the informal sector, and its impact on the economy of Ghana. There was also a review on the expected roles and challenges to regularize the sector. Finally, recommendations to extricate the confusion in the informal sector have been made. Due to the erratic nature of the sector, there exists incoherency in available information. This does not present any encumbrance because information, whichever form it takes, gives a tip-off on the general direction of policy decisions.

The idea of informal sector goes back to 1972 when an employment mission report on Kenya was released (ILO, 2000). The report indicated that rural urban migration did not only result in urban unemployment, but also the beginning of small scale unregulated businesses, which has today become the bedrock of many economies, especially among low-income nations.

The informal sector has been defined to include informal businesses such as “employers, ... street vendors, informal wage workers, apprentices, unpaid family workers, unregistered or undeclared workers in formal enterprises, and those working outside informal enterprises ... domestic workers, casual or day laborers, industrial outworkers, home workers...” (Palmer, 2008; see Adu-Amankwaah, 1999). It is “the sector of the economy which represents self-employed artisans, often paid in cash, and generally not listed in official figures” (Economics-Dictionary.com, 2011), The World Bank, according to Dada (n.d.), sees the informal sector as “the ‘illegal’ sector ...” Schneider (2002) describes it as “unreported income from the production of legal goods and services, either from monetary or barter transactions - hence all economic activities which would generally be taxable were they reported to the state (tax) authorities.” He cites Smith (1994, p.18) defining it as “market-based production of goods and services, whether legal or illegal that escapes detection in the official estimates of GDP (Gross Domestic Product).” Adu-Amankwaah (1999) defines the informal sector as “the range of economic units in both urban and rural areas which are largely owned and operated by individuals with little capital and labor, and which produce goods and services to generate income and employment”

Trends of the informal sector

A report issued by the International Labor Office (2008) on *Skills and Productivity in the Informal Economy* indicates that around the globe informal sector provides majority of the non-agricultural employment in most developing countries:

- East/Southeast Asia.....65% of non-agric employment (ILO, 2006a)
- South Asia (India).....92% (ILO, 2006a)
- Latin America.....75% (ILO, 2006b)
- Sub-Saharan Africa.....68% (ILO, 2007c)

On the continent of Africa, the informal sector has been very important in providing employment. It has also been a means to reduce poverty in many economies. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the contribution of informal enterprises to non-agricultural GDP from 1988 to 1999 was 42%. North Africa contributed 27%; Asia 31%; and Latin America 29% (Palmer, 2008). A study in 1999 indicated that 27% of the GDP of the Sub-Saharan African countries is generated from the informal sector. It also accounted for nearly 20% of total employment. In the non-agricultural sector, the informal sector accounted for almost 41% of GDP and approximately 77% of non-agricultural employment (Charmes 1999).

In Ghana, Adu-Amankwaa (2010, citing Ninsin (1991, *The informal sector in Ghana's political economy*, Freedom Publication, Accra, Ghana), traces the informal sector to the Gold Coast era when colonial capitalism began. The sector received more attention in the development of Ghana from mid 1980s to the early 1990s (Adu-Amakwaa, 1999) after a period of economic decline, from 1970 to 1982 (Yankson, 1992) cited by Barwa (2008). See also Table 1, which indicates a drop in formal sector employment from 464,000 to 186,000 (1985 to 1991 respectively) – a total of 278,000 jobs lost within six years. These years saw a decline in wages and formal sector employment, thereby projecting the need for informal transactions, which became the haven for the nation's economy from “large scale poverty” – a strategy for economic survival (Barwa, 2008).

Table 1: Trends in formal sector employment in Ghana, 1960 to 1991

Year	Public sector formal Employment (000)	Private Sector formal Employment (000)	Total formal sector Employment (000)
1960	184	149	333
1965	278	118	396
1970	288	110	398
1975	318	137	455
1980	291	46	337
1985	397	67	464
1986	347	66	414
1987	315	79	394
1988	252	55	307
1989	177	38	215
1990	189	40	229
1991	156	31	187

Source: Gockel, Augustine F. 1998. Urban informal sector in Ghana: Features and implications for unionisation, Paper presented within the framework of the GTUC/ICFTU-AFRO New Project Approach to Structural Adjustment in Africa, October. Cited by Adu-Amankwaah (1999), (Labour Education No 116, ILO).

Barwa (2008) states that these strategies were necessary because economic conditions were not getting better, the working population increasing, and also students were graduating from schools. The following are few reports on the trend of the informal sector in Ghana:

- In 1988 the informal sector's contribution to non-agricultural GDP was 58.3%, and as a share of total Gross Domestic Product was 31.4% (Charmes, 2006).
- A report by the ILO (Jobs and Skills Programme for Africa, 1989) shows that 60 percent of non-agricultural employment came from the informal sector; while the formal sector only accounted for 15.6 percent.
- In 1997, the total employment in the informal sector as percentage of total employment in Ghana stood at 78.1% (ILO, 1997).
- Adu-Amankwaa (1999, citing Hormeku, 1998) mentions that the informal sector, in total, contributed to over 80% of the labor force of the nation during the late 80's (as reported by the People's Daily graphic, June 1991).
- As at 1999, Ghana's labor force "estimated to be in waged employment" was 1.6 percent, "with the remaining being in self-employment, including the informal sector" (Adu-Amankwaah, 1999).
- Schneider (2002) indicates that the sector's contribution to Gross National Product (GNP) in 1999/2000 was 38.4%.
- Charmes (2004), in a study indicates that in 1999, the total employment in the informal sector stood at 34.3%, while 76.2% accounted for non-agricultural employment. In that same year, self-employment in the sector was 93.6% while paid employment was only 10.2%. 69.5% of the total workforce in the informal sector during same year constituted women.
- Palmer (2008) reported that "the informal economy ... represents some 95 per cent of private enterprises in Ghana."
- In 2008 it was estimated by Barwah that the sector will experience an annual growth rate of about 5.6 percent, as compared to less than 1 percent in the formal sector.

A closer look at the given statistics unveils a slight lack of chronological coherency. This problem is not a characteristic of Ghana only. It is an obvious limitation in most nations, especially in developing countries where efforts are still underway to gain full control, coordinate and regulate the sector for development and poverty reduction. Charmes (2004) noted,

More than ten years after the adoption of the international definition of the informal sector by the 15th International Conference of labour Statisticians, the compilation and calculation of harmonised indicators and estimates remain difficult and hazardous. Harmonisation is still a hard task ahead in the field of informal sector...

In spite of the few inconsistencies, available data indicate the possibility of increasing productivity in the informal sector (Palmer, 2008). Due to the experienced economic escape and the envisaged enormity of the informal sector's support for development in Ghana, institutions have endeavoured to make needed resources available.

Attempting to direct and support nations on sustainable development in the informal sector, some key areas of responsibility have been identified by the International Labor Office (2002) and discussed in the next section of this paper.

Growing and strengthening the informal sector

Below are suggested key areas where institutional and individual investments should focus to ensure regularization, productivity, and sustainable development of the informal sector (ILO, 2002). They include the roles of financing, unions, cooperatives, literacy and basic education, training and skills development, and national and local governments.

The Role of Financing: “Developing an enterprise... requires more money than potential entrepreneurs have readily at hand ... the most important single factor in creating an enterprise...” Some entrepreneurs in the informal sector accept financing as one of their top priorities (ILO, 2002). During a United Nation’s World Summit progress report on Millennium Development in New York, a former president of Benin, Mathieu Kerekou, said: Access by poor people to financial services is a powerful tool to fight poverty. ... access to a broad range of financial services, ... they can invest in income producing activities and meet their vital needs...”(Ghana Business News, 2009)

Few decades ago, only few small-scale enterprises could depend on banks for financial support. Majority of them depended on traditional money-lenders, which attracted high interest rates. Now, informal sector financing has been sponsored mainly by the non-banking institutions (GBN, 2009). For example, Opportunity International allocates 93% of its loan portfolio to commerce; Ezi Savings & Loans allocates 80%. About 90% of loan clients in the savings and loans industry are women. Most of such loans go to market women, hairdressers, dressmakers, taxi-drivers, carpenters and others.

The Role of Trade Unions: The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) positions trade unions as institutions brought into existence by workers after meeting certain requirements, and not as already existing. When workers organize themselves into unions, it becomes their responsibility to effectively seek the protection of all members in the union (ICFTU, 2001). Trade unions are established mainly by unprotected workers in order to gain rights, benefits and social protection (ILO, 2002).

The 1992 constitution of Ghana gives workers the right to organize in unions. The nation saw the organization of trade unions since the end of the 1970s, even before the constitution. Among the numerous trade unions constituted to support the informal sector are the following: Ghana Private Road Transport Union (GPRTU), General Agricultural Workers’ Union (GAWU), Timber and Woodworkers Union (TWU), Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (ICWU), Ghana Hairdressers and Beauticians’ Association (GHABA) (Adu-Amankwaa, 1999), and many more.

The Role of Cooperatives: according to the ILO (2002), the most effective way to ensure formalization in the informal sector is by forming informal cooperatives, or unregistered “pre-cooperatives.” Cooperatives are characterized by joint ownership and democratic management; an environment in which every activity supports the economic units of the members. The members could be entrepreneurs or member in the sector. Cooperatives begin as informal businesses, then later grow and get registered into formalization (ILO, 2002). This role, a strategy to promote formalization in the informal sector, sounds laudable. As at

2004 there were over 2,200 registered cooperatives in Ghana, categorized as follows: 1080 Agricultural, 740 Industrial, 241 Financial, and 205 Services cooperatives.

The Role of Literacy and Basic Education: As mentioned earlier, the informal sector is predominantly characterized by illiteracy or semi-illiteracy (ILO, 2002; Adu-Amakwaah, 2008) which amounts to wasted skills and resources in the various industries. “An essential ingredient for employability and access to decent work is basic literacy. Especially in today’s knowledge-based economy, the illiterate have little other choice but to work in the informal economy” (ILO, 2002).

It is impossible to estimate illiterate or semi-illiterate workforce composition in the sector due to lack of data. Since various studies have confirmed the enormity of illiteracy in the informal sector, it then could be safe to conclude that majority of the most current illiteracy rate, that is, 35% as at 2009 (Table 2) are within the sector.

It can therefore be seen from the table that illiteracy in Ghana has been dropping. One may be quick to allude this to the government’s tuition free basic educational reform initiative since 1996 (Ghana Education Finance Brief, 2009). It is very essential to recognize that the most effective means to increase employability level of individuals is to consider basic education as a right.

Table 2: Literacy/Illiteracy Rates in Ghana

Year	Literacy	Illiteracy
1980		56.2
1985		48.9
1990	58.46	
1995		34.8
1999		29.7
2001	51.1	49.9
2003		25.1
2006	57.9	47
2008	66	44
2009	65	35

Source: Ghanaweb.com (2001). General Information about Ghana.
<http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/general/statistics.php> ;The Statesman, (2006). Ghana's literacy rate raise to 53 percent and JSS students flop in English; NationMaster.com (2010).
http://www.nationmaster.com/time.php?stat=edu_lit_rat_adu_tot_of_peo_age_15_and_abo-total-people-ages-15-above&country=gh-ghana

The Role of Training and Skills Development: The goal of training in this regard is to make the person employable and also increase productivity in a more formalized environment; it is not to keep the person in the informal sector. “Because of the heterogeneity of the informal economy, there is a wide range of training needs” (ILO, 2004). Skills needed in the informal sector should not be limited to technical and entrepreneurial. It emphasizes that training should not only be recommended, but provided. Training should

- involve both core work and life skills – continuous training such that the worker can adapt to changing environmental circumstances; learning to learn, not just training for occupational skills.
- be portable – ability to apply skill to closely related jobs.

One of the goals of Vision 2020, an adopted framework for development in Ghana, was the training of human resource base by the year 2020, when the nation is expected to have become a middle-income nation (Haan & Serrieré, 2002). The government's focus in this direction has led to the establishment of several entities to deal with vocational training. These include the following: Vocational and Technical Education Division (VOTEC); National Vocational Training Institute (NVTI); and National Coordinating Committee for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (NACVET). There are 10 Polytechnics, 22 Technical Training Institutes, and approximately 300 public and private Vocational Training Institutions (VTI) in Ghana. In addition to these are the establishment of several other associations that provide informal training (see Table 5 for associations in Sunyani district, a suburb in Ghana) (Haan & Serrieré, 2002).

Table 3: Informal Training Offered by Local Trade Associations in (Sunyani)

Association	Courses Offered
Small Scale Carpenters Association	Carpentry, Joinery Woodworks
Ghana Electronic Services and Technicians Association	Electronics and Electricals
Ghana National Tailors and Dressmakers Association	Sewing, dressmaking, embroidery
Ghana Hairdressers and Beauticians Association	Hairdressing, Manicuring and Pedicuring
Tanoso Porters Association	Pottery
Food Makers Association	Cooking
National Association of Refrigerator and Air Conditioner Repairers	Refrigeration and Electricals
Ghana National Association of Garages	Auto mechanics, Auto electricals, Welding and Body works
Batik, Tie and Dye Manufacturers	Batik Making, Tie and Dye Making

Source: Haan & Serrieré (2002). *Training for Work in the Informal Sector: fresh evidence from West and Central Africa*; adapted from Mensa-Bonsu (2001), *Survey of technical and vocational training facilities in Ghana*.

The Role of national and local government: “The most important role of governments in this regard is to guarantee the freedom of all workers and employers irrespective of where and how they work, to form and join organizations of their choosing without fear of reprisal or intimidation” (ILO, 2002). Such associations could be unions, cooperatives, or employers’ organizations. The government’s role is not complete until the roles of informal workers are recognized as partners in the formulation of policies, and also in the implementation of progress at the national and local levels. A democratic and representative environment must be created for informal workers.

The government of Ghana seems to have done much in this regard by encouraging the formation of unions, as well as cooperatives as mentioned above. In addition to the already mentioned are the Ghana Cooperative Council (GCC), and Ghana Cooperative College (GCC) (Oppong-Manu, 2004). Other

institutions and programs that relate to the sector include the National Board for Small-Scale Industries (NBSSI), the Fund for Small and Medium Enterprises Development (FUSMED), the Council for Indigenous Business Associations (CIBA), and many more. The Internal Revenue Service (IRS) as well as the Metropolitan and District Assemblies are established to regulate the operations of the sector (Adu-Amankwaah, 1999).

Key challenges of the informal sector

In spite of the immense efforts by the government of Ghana and its limb institutions, the informal sector seems not to be far from the dilemma of several other developing countries. There seem to be some progress, but not enough. Mr. M. Eson-Benjamin (CEO, Millennium Development Authority, Ghana) reported, during a Joint International Conference, that many countries (such as Ghana) are failing to reach the poor and vulnerable, amidst efforts to shortly celebrate the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (Eson-Benjamin, 2011). The United Nations (UN) Millennium Development Goals Reports indicate that “poverty stays high” in Sub-Saharan Africa. The reports also show very high deficit productive and decent work environment for Africa and Asia (UN, 2010). The challenges appear to be enormously adding up even though experts argue that the sector is the driving force behind most African (developing) economies (Iwalewa, 2011).

Adu-Amankwaah (1999) sums up these challenging “needs” in two categories:

- *Social needs* – job security, health care facilities and the promotion of occupational health and safety, protective clothing, protection against income losses during sickness, annual leave and maternity rights, minimum wage, general infrastructure and environmental sanitation; and
- *Economic needs* – training and education for skills development, basic tools, business premises, financial credit, marketing opportunities.

In other studies some other challenges facing the informal sector have been outlined (Dada, n.d.; Haan & Serrieré, 2002) Among them are the following (Table 4):

Table 4: Major Challenges facing the informal sector from various studies

Dada (n.d.)		Haan & Serrieré (2002)
Financial Assistance	Credit Sales	Lack of capital
Low Patronage	Lack Of Good Working Environment	Poor Management & Technical Skills
Irregular Power Supply	Difficult Customers	Inadequate Technology
High Transportation Cost	Local Government Harassment	Disadvantageous Market Structures
Inadequate Equipment	Poor Economy	Inadequate Infrastructure
Bad Business Location		Government Policies, regulation or harassment

Source: Dada (n.d.). *Harnessing the potentials of the informal sector*; Haan & Serrieré (2002). *Training for Work in the Informal Sector: fresh evidence from West and Central Africa*.

Various institutions have input much effort but concurrent reports from various studies accentuate the insufficiency of such moves to right the informal sector (Iwalewa, 2011; Adu-Amankwaah, 1999). In a recent speech on *The Power of Partnerships in Africa*, a former United Nations Secretary General, Kofi Annan (May 6, 2011) buttressed this concern by emphasizing that "...development needs in Africa are multiplying... and populations empowered by advancements in information and communication technology are asking more of their leaders." It can be seen that these mentioned challenges emanate from almost all the major areas focused upon for improving the sector. This indicates that the government of Ghana may need to re-formulate its strategies for dealing with the informal sector.

Commenting on the reasons why the informal sector in Africa has "failed to increase productivity and earnings," the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) enumerated the following nine reasons:

- *Slow employment-generating growth*: poverty in Africa has not decreased in spite of reported economic growth. Per international standards, growth is high but not high enough to impact poverty levels. Growth is fuelled by capital-intensive industries instead of labor-intensive ones.
- *No structural economic transformation*: productivity in the agricultural sector is still very low on the continent of Africa. This prevents nations from transforming and diversifying into higher productivity sectors in agriculture or in other sectors.
- *High demographic pressure*: nations have not been able to accommodate the high increase in demographic growth. The ECA (2006) indicates that labor force has grown at 2.9% in Sub-Saharan Africa putting pressure on the labor market.
- *Inappropriate education and training policies*: these have resulted in low skill supply and skills mismatch; especially in Ghana where the educational system has been so much politicized.
- *Failed labor regulations*: policies fail to balance job protection with labor flexibility. For example, minimum wage be set to reduce number of working poor and also, not so high to affect firm profitability.
- *No enabling environment for investment*: limited participation in exports is affected by low investments due to administrative barriers, lack of access to factors of production and poor infrastructure.
- *Economic choices motivated by politics*: politically motivated choices have destroyed many economies.
- *Brain drain*: reduction in the supply of skilled and professional workers; mostly young and highly educated who could have helped revive the informal sector.

It has been noted that government's convictions about the immense contributions of the informal sector has weak corresponding financial commitment. The sector is neglected "as it seldom accounts for a pride of place in government planning for the overall economy" (Adu-Amankwaah, 1999; Iwalewa, 2011). Every nation is considered a "system" where each unit inter-depends upon the other. It also means that the "system" must be considered in its entirety, for productivity and development. This paper holds that government's spending on other areas of the economy at the neglect of the informal sector will be an enormous setback for the nation. Not so much is seen of banks in financing the sector due to the following factors: improper bookkeeping, undefined management structure exhibiting lack of accountability, confusing personal residential address systems for follow-ups, and improper titles to assets for collaterals. Increasing government's financial allocations for the informal sector could be used as facelift to motivate all banking institutions into the stream.

As mentioned earlier, reports indicate progress in the reduction of illiteracy rates in Ghana but on the other side a serious hindrance. A recent report states that

Ghana is one of the 75 countries that have missed the goal of achieving the Universal Completion of Primary Education by 2015 required by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which states that by

2005, there should be an equal number of girls in classrooms as there are boys. The gender parity stands at 0.88 and is greater in poverty ridden regions (Integrated Social Development Center, 2009).

The report further indicated that “out of the total number of children who get enrolled into basic schools, only 39% of boys and 22% of girls managed to complete nine years of formal education.” Even though education is a constitutional right, it is reported that 18% of school going children are out of school.

These figures are undoubtedly alarming for a nation that is pursuing national development. These figures are certainly not promising for the future of the informal sector. The Integrated Social Development Center reports that free education in Ghana is not free in practice – a reason why most children are dropouts. To the researcher, a constitutional right to basic education means the government endeavouring to clean-up all “financial attachés” that even the poorest in the most remote rural area may have the privilege of being educated.

As mentioned earlier, the informal sector is predominantly characterized by illiteracy (ILO, 2002; Adu-Amankwaah, 2008). This assertion has initiated ILO’s concern for “decent work.” According to ILO, *People engaged in informal activities have their own “political economy” – their own informal or group rules, arrangements, institutions and structures for mutual help and trust, providing loans, organizing training, transferring technology and skills, trading and market access, enforcing obligations, etc. What we do not know is what these informal rules or norms are based on and whether or how they observe the fundamental rights of workers (ILO, 2002).*

The importance of training and skill development in the informal sector cannot be underestimated, especially in an environment chocked with illiteracy. Haan & Serrieré (2002) indicate in their study that “Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Ghana shows some major weaknesses: (i) inadequate funding, (ii) fragmented institutional framework, and (iii) low quality and limited outreach of training at different levels.” The report further identifies some coordination and collaboration problems existing in the educational setup due to the multiplicity of entities dealing with vocational training. There are three main institution in this regard with distinct responsibilities but “but in some ways appear to duplicate efforts.” Studies indicate that

opportunities for skill development are limited in Ghana... about one third of the working population has never been to school... and only 1.4% has received any formal skills training. Such deficiencies in technical and vocational education and training, may have contributed to the growth of informal trade since potential entrants in metal and woodworking and other ‘technical’ trades, lack the technical skills to do so (J.Y. Amankrah, March 2001, *Ghana’s experience in apprenticeship training and other skills development initiatives in the informal sector* (VSP/Ministry of Manpower Development and Employment, Accra; cited by Haan & Serrieré, 2002).

Traditional Apprenticeship Training (TAT) is believed to have contributed immensely to informal sector training in Ghana. Haan & Serrieré (2002; citing David Korboe, April 2001, *Ghana: Vocational Skills and informal sector Support Project (VSP): Beneficiary Impact Assessment* (consultancy report for NACVET/World Bank – VSP), state: “it is believed that TAT is responsible for some 80-90% of all skills development in the country – against a contribution of 5-10% by public sector Vocational Training Centres and 10-15% by private, non-profit training providers.” It is clear from the above studies that the training and skills development role is yet to be fully assumed. It still goes back to the informal sector

since most of the training in the nation emerged from TAT. This means that the government's efforts toward the informal sector will have to be intensified.

Below is a survey (Table 5) highlighting the types of training required by informal workers from three cities in Ghana. With the exception of retraining courses, the table indicates that training needs cover a wide area, including usage of modern machines, managerial skills, general education, and bookkeeping skills.

Table 5: Types of training required in the informal sector (Cities: Accra, Tema and Kumasi)

Type of Training Required	Percentage of Total
Ability to use modern machines	29.1
General education	19.2
Managerial skills	17.7
Bookkeeping skills	13.3
No response	10.5
No training	8.9
Retraining courses (technical skills)	3.3

Source: Yankson, P.W.K (1992). Employment in the Urban Informal Sector in Ghana. ILO/JASPA, Addis Ababa; adapted by Barwa (1995)

One important factor with regards to training is flexibility. Since it is difficult to regularize and coordinate the sector, it will be laudable and more effective to “reach out to the people where they are and at times convenient to them” (Ministry of Human Resource Development, India, 2007). It will also be worth it to consider a complete revamp of the vocational and education training system by integrating all the entities into one. A common platform with increased decentralization needs to be developed to train and provide certification for informal workers. Other private institutions could also be encouraged to support the nation train and develop the skills of informal workers.

The motive behind the establishment of unions and cooperatives does not seem to have been deeply rooted in the informal sector. There seems to be a missing link because most informal workers' understanding in this direction is far from the actual. They miss the mark of claiming ownership of their unions or cooperatives by sitting back, placing their deplorable conditions at the doorsteps of these associations (ILO, 2002). This misunderstanding sets in motion the hesitation of most informal workers to be part of unions and cooperatives. Another misunderstanding leading to lack of audience and support for established associations is the “not recognized” label placed on them by public authorities, thereby having to rely on established trade unions or employers' organizations to speak on their behalf. In simple terms, most informal workers' perception is that too much authority has been accorded cooperatives and unions that they are not listened to, as individuals. These are all setbacks toward the goal of regularizing the sector for coordination and reporting. This glitch could be cracked through the provision and maintenance of regular training and communication links between the informal sector and the appropriate institutions with such responsibilities. Government's intentions, including the need for cooperatives and unions, should be explicitly explained to informal workers, especially the illiterate, to avoid compounding problems through misunderstanding.

Recommendations and Conclusion

Besides the few that have been mentioned already, the following recommendations could be considered to help solve the informal sector dilemma. The paper begins here with a proposition by the researcher.

Lower-level Collaborative Partnership: One of the premises for this study is the belief that unionization or cooperativeness is not the appropriate level to begin attempts to regularize and coordinate activities of the informal sector. The researcher believes that *grassroots associations* should be the beginning point, and should be encouraged. *Lower-level Collaborative Partnership* is here advocated, with special focus on illiterates or semi-illiterates.

The two levels of collaborative partnerships proposed here are, higher- and lower-level collaborative partnerships; higher-level refers to unions and cooperatives, and other associations, while lower-level collaborative partnerships refers to unions at the grassroots, between informal workers in a particular industry, working together within the same business unit. Lower-level collaborative partnership is intended to encourage division of labor (work specialization) in environments with high tendency for workers to presume and pretend to possess required skills to perform all functions of a business unit; poverty, and its related pressures could be a factor.

Under lower-level collaborative partnership, a handful of informal workers are identified, motivated and trained to specialize in an identified skill. Skills are aggregated after training where each partner/owner performs a specific function toward producing an identified product for which the business is established.

Kofi Annan (2011) simply puts it this way: “Partnerships have already demonstrated their transformative impact.” Beside skill perfection, speed, productivity and quality, collaborative partnership could be a tool to kick start unionization in the informal sector in a stealthily but momentous style. A handful of informal workers will have to be encouraged to “cohabit,” each with a particular perfected skill, within an industry (for example carpentry). All executed tasks then culminating in a desired product or service. Collaborative partnership is also meant to promote a sense of ownership. It automatically empowers the informal worker as he becomes part of the ownership of the business unit right from the beginning.

The major characteristics of collaborative partnership are ownership, empowerment, and responsibility. Automatically, ownership is conferred on a worker for being a partner (possessing a specialized skill). It also offers participation in managerial decision-making which increases the worker’s sense of responsibility. Such partnerships create an environment of dependency where partners learn new skills from each other, ultimately boosting self-confidence. Among the numerous merits of lower-level collaborative partnership is *collective responsibility*. The worker will assiduously work to protect the interests of the business unit, himself and others; a point where the informal employee might have come to appreciate the benefits of collaborating with others across business units (and industries) under unionization. From this platform of “cohabitation” will present an excellent opportunity for the government of Ghana to pick up the process of regularization and coordination of the informal sector.

Another area yet to be explored by the government of Ghana and other enabling institutions within the informal sector is *Clustering and Networking* (Abdel-Fadil, 2000; citing Meine Pieter Van Dijk, (1997), “Issues in Small Enterprise Development: An Overview”, *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, vol. 6, issue 2, p.

216). One major setback in attempts to regularize the informal sector is the regional dispersal of potentials. The aim here is to locate economic units in the sector to the sources of labor and raw materials. The mining sector in Ghana is one that seems to be close to clustering and networking. In this approach, both existing and new informal units may be geographically spread. Governments' role here will be to initiate and motivate the establishment of geographical zones (close to, but not the same as erecting structures for market women by metropolitan assemblies) to enhance the process of clustering and networking. This will also make government interventions easier.

Additionally, the following may also be looked at as a way of empowering informal sector economy:

- Support by creating market demand for the goods and services produced.
- Policies formulated to ensure business enabling environment.
- Availability of infrastructure (water, transport, cost of energy, and telecommunications).
- Availability of productive resources (land, buildings, machinery, and inputs).
- Accessibility of finance for investment and working capital purposes.
- Availability of market activity information – regular identification and sharing of best practices.
- Participation of workers in the formulation and implementation of laws and policies.
- Conducting training in local language for easy understanding.
- Maintenance of regular communication between institutions and informal workers.
- Regular collection of data to keep the informal sector regulating policies up to date.

On the surface, activities of the informal sector seem to be growing, and under control but a thorough analysis presents a different perspective. There seems to be growth, but only at the international level. Locally, it does not seem to be enough to create employable workers and reduce poverty toward the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. Through its policies, the national and local governments have created enabling environments that to some extent encourage financing, unionizations, cooperative establishments, education, training and skills development. But the end of the road still seems far from expected. Development needs keep multiplying due to the massive increase in population. This means that more efforts and resources are expected to be expended.

The sector is not beyond control, and if the suggested expositions are given particular attention, including the proposition in this paper (LLCP: Lower Level Collaborative Partnership), the puzzle could be disentangled for a better Ghana.

References

Adu-Amankwaah, K. (2009). *Trade Unions in the Informal Sector*.
www.streetnet.org.za/wp-content/pdf/Ghanainformalsectororganisation.pdf
Accessed: 29/6/2011

Annan, K. (May, 2011). *The Power of Partnerships in Africa*.
<http://www.talkafrique.com/issues/the-power-of-partnerships-in-africa-by-kofi-annan> Accessed: 29/6/2011

Barwa, S. D. (1995). Structural adjustment programmes and the urban

informal sector in Ghana. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/-ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_123422.pdf Accessed: 26/6/2011

Birchall, J. (2001). *Organizing workers in the informal sector: A strategy for trade union-cooperative action*. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/-ed_emp/---emp_ent/documents/publication/wcms_110508.pdf Accessed: 17/6/2011

Business Dictionary.com <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/informal-sector.html> Accessed 16/6/2011

Cazzuffi, C. & Moradi, A. (2010). Why do Cooperatives Fail? http://www.csa.e.ox.ac.uk/conferences/2010-EdiA/papers/15_CazuffiMoradi.pdf Accessed: 28/6/2011

Charmes, J. (2004). *Data Collection on the Informal Sector: A Review of Concepts and Methods Used Since the Adoption of an International Definition towards a Better Comparability of Available Statistics*. 7th Meeting of the Expert Group on Informal Sector Statistics (Delhi Group). http://mospi.nic.in/jacques_charmes_7th.htm Accessed: 19/6/2011

Constitution of the Republic of Ghana (1992).

Dada, J. O. (n.d.). *Harnessing the Potentials of the Informal Sector: Lessons from Nigeria*. http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/AAPAM/UNPAN0_5582.pdf Accessed: 6/14/2011

Diez de Medina, R. (2011). *Statistical update on employment in the informal economy*. http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/WCMS_157467/lang--en/index.htm Accessed: 16/6/2011

Economic Commission for Africa (2006). *Ensuring decent employment for Africa's poor: key challenges*. www.uneca.org/era2005/chap2.pdf Accessed: 1/7/2011

Eson-Benjamin, M. (August, 2011). *Millennium Development Goals as Instruments for the Development in Africa*. 1st Joint International Conference between Babcock University, Nigeria, and Valley View University, Ghana.

Fadil, M. A. (A Survey of the Basic Features and Problems of the Informal Small and Micro-Enterprises in the Arab region). http://www.femise.org/PDF/M_Abdelfadil_0600.pdf Accessed: 26/6/2011

Fox, L. (n.d.). *Empowering the informal sector in Africa*. <http://info.worldbank.org/etools/docs/library/250952/day4FoxInformalsectorAfricaApril2Se2.pdf> Accessed: 14/6/2011

Ghana Business News (April 28, 2009). *Putting Ghana's informal sector in business*. <http://www.ghanabusinessnews.com/2009/04/28/putting-ghana%e2%80%99s-informal-sector-in-business/#comments> Accessed: 27.6.2011

Ghana Education Finance Brief (2009). A draft to outline education financing issues of concern. http://areghana.org/reports/edu_fin_factsheet.pdf Accessed: 6/28/2011

Haan, H. C. (2002). Training for Work in the Informal Sector in Ghana. <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLM/2145781103217503703/20295542/TrainingforWorkWCA.pdf>; Accessed: 30/6/2011

Husmanns, R. & Mehran, F. (n.d.). *Statistical definition of Informal Sector*. ICLS-R-2004-01-0295-1.

www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/download/17thicls/final.pdf
Accessed: 14/6/2011

Husmanns, R. (n.d.) *Defining and measuring informal employment*. <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/download/papers/meas.pdf>
Accessed: 16/6/2011

International Labor Office (ILO)

- (1999). *World Employment Report 1998-99: Employability in the global economy – How Training Matters*. [www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/P/09465/09465\(1998-1999\).pdf](http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/P/09465/09465(1998-1999).pdf) Geneva, p. 173. Accessed: 22/6/2011
- (2002). *Decent work and the informal economy*. www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/relm/ilc/ilc90/pdf/rep-vi.pdf Accessed: 28/6/2011
- (2003). *Learning and training for work in the knowledge society*, Report IV (1), International Labour Conference, 91st Session, Geneva. <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/relm/ilc/ilc91/pdf/rep-iv-2.pdf> Accessed: 27/6/2011
- <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/relm/ilc/ilc91/pdf/rep-iv-2.pdf> Accessed: 22/6/2011
- (2004). *Conclusions concerning human resources training and development*, op. cit., para. 7. <http://www.ilo.org/public/portugue/region/eurpro/lisbon/pdf/rep-iv-1.pdf> Accessed: 22/6/2011
- (2004). 17th International Conference of Labor Statisticians (ILO), Final Report. <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/download/17thicls/final.pdf> Accessed: 22/6/2011
- (2007). African Employment Trends. http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/2007/107B09_44_engl.pdf Accessed: 19/6/2011

Integrated Social Development Center (2009). *Fee-Free Basic Education Campaign* http://www.isodec.org.gh/press_release.php?idprelase=61
Accessed: 28/6/2011

Iwalena, B. (May, 2011). *The Role of the Informal Sector in African Economy*. <http://www.talkafrique.com/issues/the-role-of-the-informal-sector-in-african-economy> Accessed: 29/6/2011

Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary. <http://nws.merriam-webster.com/pendictionary>

Ministry of Human Resource Development (February, 2007). National Conference. *Approaching Inclusive Growth through Skills Development*. New Delhi. http://portal.unesco.org/geography/en/files/6842/11761200205Conference_Proceedings.pdf/Conference%2BProceedings.pdf Accessed: 29/06/2011

Ogwo, B. A. (2010). Combinatorial Approaches to Informal Sector Human Capital Investments and Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa. http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/e-forum/Latest_Italy_Presentation_1.pdf

Oppong-Manu, I. (2004). *Cooperatives and Cooperative Education in Ghana*. http://www.uwcc.wisc.edu/info/uwcc_ed/bb/bb3/isaac.pdf Accessed: 28/6/2011

Palmer, R. (2008). *Skills and productivity in the informal economy*. ILO Employment Sector Employment Working Paper No. 5. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/-ifp_skills/documents/publication/wcms_103983.pdf Accessed: 17/6/2011

Schneider, F. (2002). Size and measurement of the informal economy in 110 countries around the world. http://www.amnet.co.il/attachments/informal_economy110.pdf Accessed: 17/6/2011

Singh, M. (2005). *Meeting basic learning needs in the informal sector*. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001480/148069eo.pdf> Accessed: 27/6/2011

United Nations (2010). *The Millennium Development Goals Report*. http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/MDG_D_Africa.pdf Accessed: 31/7/11

United Nations (2011). *Millennium Development Goals: 2010 Progress Chart*. http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mdg/Resources/Static/Products/Progress2010/DG_Report_2010_Progress_Chart_En.pdf Accessed: 31/7/11

HEALTH-SEEKING BEHAVIOUR OF PARENTS FOR UNDER-FIVE CHILDREN: A CASE STUDY OF GOMOA WEST DISTRICT IN THE CENTRAL REGION OF GHANA.

By

Daniel Ganu DrPH

Department of Health Sciences

Valley View University

Abstract

A progress report prepared and presented by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC), Government of Ghana and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Ghana in April 2010 indicated that the under-five mortality rate of 53 per1000 is unlikely to be achieved by 2015, (NDPC/UNDP, 2010). According to the report, one challenge confronting this achievement is the 'Health-seeking behavior' of parents for their under-five children. There is therefore the need to find out where and how parents seek treatment for their under-five children when they fall sick. The study employed descriptive-correlational and participatory action research approach employing data collection techniques such as individual interviews using structured questionnaire, focus group discussions (FGD), observation and community assemblies. A sample size of 170 households was used. The result of the study showed that 8.8% of the respondents will always seek health care for their under-five children in the church and 32.9% believed that the pastor can heal their children more than the doctor. More so, 11.2% will take no action when their children are sick but believed that the sickness by itself will go away if they should wait for some time. Also, 38.8% will not seek prompt care at the hospital but will result to some other means for treatment. Only 12.4% of the respondent will take their children to the hospital without hesitation when they realized that the child is sick. Only 5.3% of the parents strongly agreed that they will prefer taking their children to the hospital than any other place. With the emergence of the kind of healing charismatic churches and their new way healing, it is strongly recommended that health educators and policy makers focus their attention on health seeking behavior of parents for their under-five children.

Key Words:*Health-seeking behavior, under-five children,*

Background

The United Nations Millennium Declaration, adopted by the world's leaders at the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in 2000, spoke of a world united by common values and striving with renewed determination to achieve peace and decent standards of living for every man, woman and child. Derived from this Millennium Declaration are eight Millennium Development Goals aimed at transforming the face of global development cooperation. The fourth goal was to reduce child mortality rates by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015. A progress report prepared and presented by the National Development

Planning Commission (NDPC), Government of Ghana and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Ghana in April 2010 showed that:

“Under-five mortality rate which has shown worrying trends since 1998 has now begun registering improvements. After declining successively from 122 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 98 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1998, the under-5 mortality rate appears to have stagnated at 111 deaths per 1,000 live births during the period of 2003 and 2006. The 2008 GDHS reported an appreciable decline in under-five mortality rate to 80 per 1,000 live births, representing about 28% decline, NDPC/UNDP, 2010, page 39”

The report mentioned few key challenges that beset the target of reducing under-five mortality in Ghana and among these challenges is the poor health-seeking behaviours of parents for their under-five children. According to the Chief Executive Director of the National Development Planning Commission “the under-five child mortality in Ghana was 155 per 1000 live births, but this declined to 100 per 1000 live births in 2002, according to the Human Development Report of 2004. However, judging from the current trend, under-five mortality of 53 per 1000 is unlikely to be achieved by 2015.” (Gyau Isabella, Public Agenda Friday January 21, 2005).

Although evidence shows that there has been significant reduction in both infant and under-five mortality rates in recent times, it is unlikely that the 2015 target of reducing the child mortality rates will be achieved unless there is an effort to scale-up and sustain the recent child survival interventions which have brought about the current improvement in these indicators.

The Health of a people cannot be overlooked since a healthy population is essential for development. The researcher is convinced that all children including school-going-age pupil must be healthy as a crucial determinant for poverty reduction.

A study conducted in Nigeria showed that 36% of the household used patent medicine dealers as their initial choice of care for malaria treatment for their under-five year children. This was followed by the government hospitals, 27.1%. (Uzochukwu B.C. & Onwujekwe O. E, 2004). Poor health remains a leading problem among the Ghana's rural poor population. The leading causes of morbidity and mortality such as all forms of tuberculosis, bronchitis, pneumonia, measles, diarrhea and malaria are prevalent in under-five children in the rural communities. Aside from unsanitary living conditions, poorly distributed and often substandard health services and facilities cause poor health among the urban poor. Likewise, the increase costs of hospitalization, medical consultation and medication prevent the poor from seeking health services. Moreover, the poor's misguided health practices and their lack of knowledge and information on health promotion and disease-prevention contribute in worsening their health situation. On the other hand, the attitudes of most Ghanaians towards health are characterized by their tendency to delay or ignore preventive health care measures until illness becomes evident.

Information on health-seeking behaviour and health care utilization has important policy implications in health systems development. Factors which influence which treatment sources people seek when symptoms occur include socio-cultural factors like beliefs and household decision making to seek care, social networks, gender and economic status (Puentas-Markides, 1992). The action taken by parents when a child is perceived to be sick depends on whether the communities under study perceive such sickness as a major childhood health problem. There is therefore the need to find out where and how

people seek for treatment when they or members of their households fall sick in the light of increased cost of treatment resulting from the changes in the healthcare financing scheme (Munguti K.J, 1998).

Many health behaviours are influenced by culture and learned within the family. Providing preventive health care and sick care are major functions of the family (Friedman & Morgan, 1998).

Families differ in their perceptions of what constitutes health as well as in their definitions of illness. These differences translate into a variety of health practices and healthcare seeking behaviors. Families often use formal health care services in addition to informal health care resources to manage illness and promote the health of their members. Use of professional services for health promotion and care during illness is decided by the family based on economic factors as well as cultural, political, religious, and social influences (Bomar, 1996; Purnell & Paulanka, 2003).

There have been two broad frameworks for looking at health seeking behaviour. The first is the pathway model, which describes the steps of the process from recognition of symptoms to the use of particular health facilities. This method attempts to identify a logical sequence of steps, and looks at social and cultural factors which affect this sequence. This has been primarily an anthropological approach, with qualitative methods of investigation. The second is the determinants model, based on a more bio-medical and quantitative approach, where the focus is on outlining a set of determinants which are associated with the choice of different kinds of health service. The different models of health seeking behavior can be studied to produce a broad framework to inform investigation and intervention, particularly in the context of looking at use and non-use of "modern" medical services in developing countries.

The factors determining the health behaviors may be seen in various contexts: physical, socio-economic, cultural and political. Therefore, the utilization of a health care system, public or private, formal or non-formal, may depend on socio-demographic factors, social structures, level of education, cultural beliefs and practices, gender discrimination, status of women, economic and political systems environmental conditions, and the disease pattern and health care system itself.

Problem statement

The central question in the research is whether health-seeking behaviour of parents affects the survival chance of children under-five years in Ghana. Cultural practices and values of parents may affect the health-seeking behaviour for their under-five children. One basic question to address is to find out where parents seek health care for their children. Health-seeking behaviour studies acknowledge that health control tools, where they exist, remain greatly under or inadequately used. Understanding human behaviour is a prerequisite to change behaviour and improve health practices. Do parents delay in seeking appropriate health care for their under-five children? This research seeks to address the key underlying factors that influence parents on their health-seeking behaviour for their under-five children. Therefore, the purposes of this study was to identify the health seeking behaviors of Ghanaian parents for their under-five year children and the barriers they experienced in obtaining health care services.

Objectives of the study

1. Generally, this study seeks to establish the health-seeking behaviour of parents for their under-five children. Specifically, the study aims to:
2. Ascertain the demographic profile of the under-five children and their parents at Gomaa West District.
3. Identify factors that influence health-seeking behaviour of parents for their under-five children.

4. To find out if there is a relationship that exist between prompt and early care seeking at the hospital and the following variables:
 - i. Age
 - ii. Employment status
 - iii. Educational Level
 - iv. Family Size
 - v. Income level
5. Ascertain case management and compliance of care of parents for their under-five children.

Significance of the study

The purposes of this study were to identify the health seeking behaviors of Ghanaians parents for their under-five year children and the barriers they experienced with obtaining desired health care services. The study will give better understanding of the interplay of various factors that influence parents on their health-seeking behaviour for their children.

By interviewing family members regarding their experiences with the health care system as well as beliefs and practices with respect to their children's health, it was hoped that a better understanding of the needs of family members in obtaining health care services would be achieved. This information could then be used to guide the development and implementation of health programs and services that are responsive to the needs of the Ghanaian population.

The study will also give direction to health professionals especially to health educators in disseminating information to parents with children under-five years of age.

Scope and limitation of the study

The general population of the study will compose of all the 22,894 households in Gomoa West District. A sample will be drawn from the general population but will be limited to households who have children under-five years of age.

Methodology

The study employs descriptive-correlational and participatory action research approach employing data collection techniques such as individual interviews using structured questionnaire, focus group discussions (FGD), observation and the community assemblies. Vital documents or information from the Gomoa West District Hospital were obtained. This was useful in tracing any medical records related to under-five children admitted at the hospital during the study period. A one-to-one modular questionnaire about the health of all children under 5 years was administered to household heads who had given oral consent. Questions were about children who had had illness for the past one month before the survey including what action they had taken. The ten key symptoms were defined as: fever, cough, diarrhoea, fast breathing, difficult breathing, convulsions, drowsiness, vomiting, inability to drink or breastfeed, and difficulty drinking. For children who had been sick, further modules elicited information about use of appropriate (non-traditional) health-care providers such as village health workers, dispensaries, health centres, hospitals, or private doctors. Questions were asked about the care the child had received at each provider visited, and any other treatments the child had taken. Special attention was paid to the care

received by children with danger signs: fast breathing, difficult breathing, fits or convulsions, very sleepy, vomiting all ingested material, or inability to drink or breastfeed.

Study area

The Gomoa West District is one of the 17 districts within the Central Region of Ghana. It lies within latitude 514 north and 535 north and longitude 0.22 west and 054 west on the eastern part of the Central Region of Ghana. It is bounded on the north by Agona West Municipal, on the northeast by Effutu Municipal, on the west and northwest by Mfantseman Municipal and Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam Districts respectively, and on the south by the Atlantic Ocean. The Gomoa West District covers an area of 1,022.0 sq km and a total population 194,792 which is 12.23% of the regional population. This makes it the district with the highest population and surface area next to Assin Foso.

Apam is the District Capital of the Gomoa District with an estimated population of 16,494 (2000 PH census) Apam is about 68km from Cape Coast and 69km from Accra the Regional and National capitals respectively. The 2000 Population and Housing Census recorded 194,792 as the population of the district, representing an inter-census increase of 44.6%.

About 37.6% of the populations are within the 0.14 age group as compared to 43.7% and 41.4% for the region and national respectively. The average household size for the district in 1984 was 6.8; it is now estimated to be 4.42. This suggests that there has been a drastic reduction in the birth rate. It also suggests less pressure on households as they can make more savings for investment, all things being equal.

RESULT

Table 1: Demographic Profile of the Respondents

	EDUCATION		EMPLOYMENT			INCOME BRACKET	
	No Education	JSS/ SSS	Self Employment	Government Employment	No Employment	below Gh¢50	Above Gh¢ 400
Freq	90	79	154	11	5	119	2
%	52.9	46.5	90.58	6.48	2.9	70	1.17

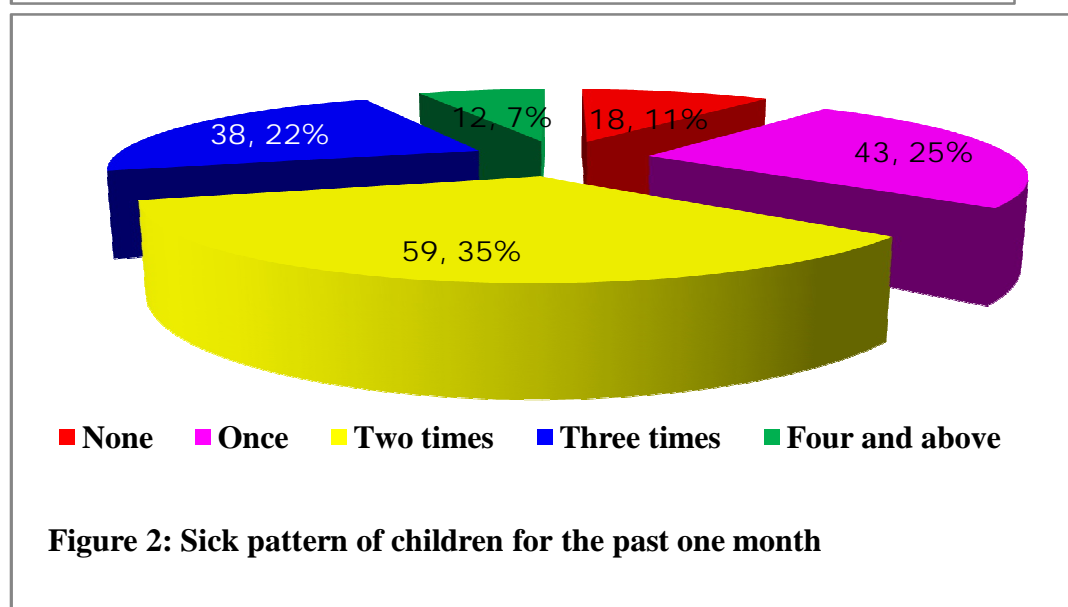
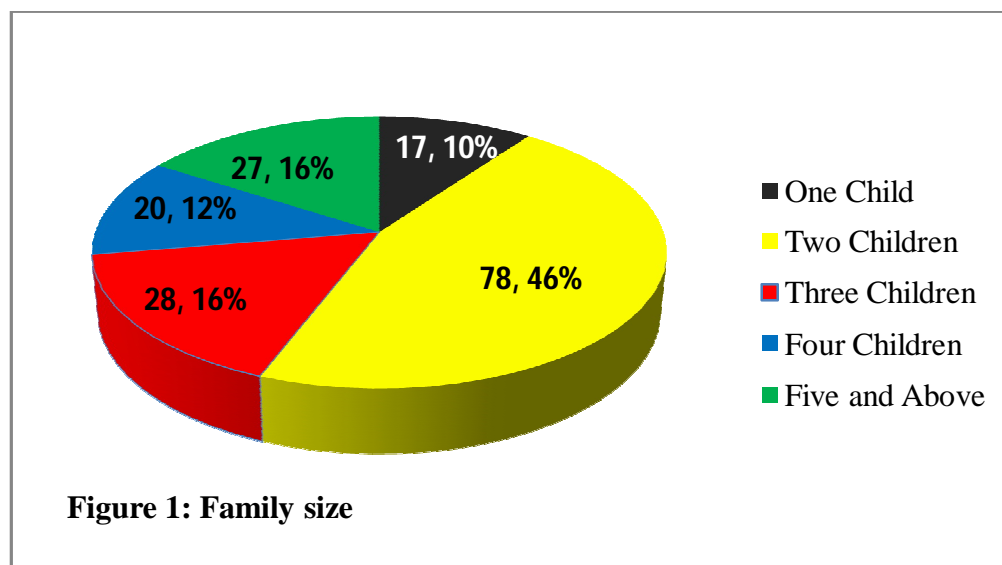


Table 2: Frequency of Sickness

	Frequency	Percentage
High Fever/Temperature	21	8.6
Vomiting	39	15.9
Cough	93	38
Diarrhea	19	7.8
Difficulty breathing	5	2.0

Fast breathing	17	6.9
Convulsion	32	13.1
Inability to eat, drink or breastfeed	15	6.1
Blood in the stool	1	0.4
Drowsiness	3	1.2
Total	170	100.00

Table 3: Behavioural/Belief/Cultural Practices

		5 Always	4 Often	3 Sometimes	4 Seldom	1 Never
Church/ Pastor	Freq	15	4	102	4	38
	%	8.8	2.4	60	2.4	22.4
Hospital	Freq	9	39	4	72	4
	%	5.3	22.9	2.4	42.4	2.4
Herbalist/ Spiritualist	Freq	2	12	7	94	14
	%	1.2	7.1	4.1	55.3	8.2

Table 4: Influencing Factors

		5 SA	4 A	3 NS	2 D	1 SD
Wait-Sickness will go away	Frequency	10	41	5	59	13
	Percentage	5.9	24.1	2.9	34.7	7.6
Sickness Caused by Evil Spirit	Frequency	3	4	38	78	31
	Percentage	1.8	2.4	22.4	45.9	18.2
No time-too busy	Frequency	3	9	3	98	20
	Percentage	1.8	5.3	1.8	57.6	11.8

Table 5: Action Taken When Child was Sick

	Frequency	Percentage
Took no action	31	11.2
Bought drug from the drug store	61	21.9
Visited the village herbalist	34	12.2
Prepared herbal medication myself	23	8.3
Went to my pastor for prayers	70	25.2
Went to the hospital	59	21.2
Total	170	100.00

Table 7: Case Management and Compliance

		5 SA	4 A	3 NS	2 D	1 SD
Complied with referral	Frequency	53	50	3	8	13
	Percentage	31.2	29.4	1.8	4.7	7.6
Complied with medication	Frequency	47	43	1	5	4
	Percentage	27.6	25.3	0.6	2.9	2.4
Complied with appointment	Frequency	40	21	9	16	11
	Percentage	23.5	12.4	5.3	9.4	6.5

DISCUSSIONS

Parents usually endeavor to seek health care for their under-five children but the question is what kind of care do they seek? In a poor rural setting of Ghana where parents are usually not well educated, it is likely that they can be influenced by many factors. Table 1 showed that 52.9% had no formal education and 46.5% have only up to Senior Secondary School education. Research has well documented the view

that educational level is strongly related to occupational attainment. What this suggests is that parents cannot be gainfully employed for adequate monthly salary earning. This will affect quality of life of the households. Further, Table 1 portrayed that 90.58% of the respondents are self employed (Subsistent farmers, carpenters, petty traders, drivers, hairdressers) while only 6.48% were employed by the government as primary school teachers. Subsistence farming provides for the basic needs of the farmer without surpluses for marketing. About 28% of the households have more than 4 children per household. (Blake J, 1981), found that family size is directly related to quality of care children receive in the family. It was evident in his study that bigger family size is found to have an important detrimental impact on child quality. The study showed that 29% of the children got sick more than 3 times within one month. More so, 89% got sick within a month. This suggests that either parents did not comply with doctors' medication or the children are exposed to certain dangers in the community. Belief or Culture is a powerful tool in influencing the kind of action one takes. Parents were influenced by either their belief or cultural practices as to where to seek health care for their children.

When parents were asked where they will prefer to seek health care for their children, 8.8% of parents responded that they will always seek health for their children in the church as against 5.3% who will seek health care in the hospital. But on the actual, when their children got sick, 25.2% of the parents took their children to their church pastors for healing. Parents had a firm belief in their pastor/church that they can heal their sick children. The habit of resulting for health care in the church instead of the hospital in itself is not bad but reliance on faith healing to the exclusion of other forms of treatment can have a public health impact when it reduces or eliminates access to modern medical techniques. This was also evident in both higher mortality rates for children (Swan R. & Asser S, 2004) and in reduced life expectancy for adults (Simpson, WF, (2009).

Charismatic church members believe that the miraculous sign gifts, including "faith healing," are normative for today. Therefore, they believe that dramatic miracles are still occurring in the church. The emerging healing power being portrayed by the charismatic churches has had a significant impact on health-seeking behavior of parents for their children.

Our attitude is largely influenced by our perception. The perception of some parents is that when sickness comes and nothing is done, it will go away by itself with time, hence 5.9% of the respondents just waited for the sickness to go away when their children were sick.

Multiple-regression correlational analysis of the variables depicts that- employment status, income level, and educational level correlate positively with prompt and early care seeking at the hospital. This suggests that mothers though working, if their children are sick, will seek prompt and early care for them. Employment will not hold back a mother from seeking prompt care for their children at the hospital. It further suggests that employment is not the reason why they will not seek prompt care at the hospital.

On the other hand, the higher the income level of the mother, the more likely she will seek prompt and early care for her child at the hospital. Furthermore, the higher the education level, the more likely she will seek health care for her child.

This is confirmed by a study done by (Tinuade A. O & Durotove M. O, 2010)- "Maternal education and family socioeconomic status are predictors of appropriate healthcare-seeking behaviors for childhood

illnesses.” Age and family size correlate negatively with prompt and early care seeking at the hospital. This suggests that as age and family size increase, the less likely mothers will seek prompt and early care for their children at the hospital.

Recommendations

With the emergence of the charismatic churches and their new way of healing, it is strongly recommended that health educators and policy makers focus their attention on health seeking behaviour of parents for their under-five children if MDG goal was to be achieved. Mothers should also ensure appropriate health-seeking behavior of parents for their under-five children for the achievement of MDG goal 4. Lastly, health education is also required to synthesize parents about the importance of early and prompt health seeking for their children at the appropriate facility.

Conclusion

Health seeking-behaviour of parents is very crucial for the health of their children. A typical feature of the health seeking behavior of parents was that they neglected the appropriate health care facilities, but seek out private services, practice self-medication until the disease reached a serious stage. Perceived severity of the disease of the children of parents tends to be a determinant of seeking health care or visiting appropriate health facility. Health workers need to better understanding the changing trend especially as it has to do with the belief of parents relating to prayer healing.

Reference

The Government of Ghana and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), 2008 *Millennium Development Goal, Report of 2010*.

Uzochukwu B.S.C. & Onwujekwe O. E. (2004), *Socio-economic differences and health-seeking behaviour for the diagnosis and treatment of malaria: a case study of four local government areas operating the Bamako initiative programme in south-east Nigeria, International Journal for Equity in Health* 2004, 3:6.

Puentas-Markides C. (1992). *Women and access to health care*. *Social Science Medicine* 1992, 35:619-626.

Munguti K.J. (1998). *Community perceptions and treatment seeking for malaria in Baringo district, Kenya: implications for disease control*. *East African medical Journal*, 75:687-691.

Gyau Isabella O. (2005). *Ghana: Millennium Development Goals will most likely not be reached by 2015*: Public Agenda (Ghana), Friday, 21 January 2005.

Rosenstock IM (1966), "Why people use health services", *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly* 44 (3): 94–127.

Ghana Statistical Service, Accra, Ghana and Demographic and Health Surveys, Macro International Inc. Calverton, Maryland, USA.

Friedman, M.M., & Morgan, I.S. (1998). *The family health care function* in M.M. Friedman (Ed.), *Family nursing: Research, theory, and practice* (4th ed.) (pp. 403-434). Stamford, CT: Appleton & Lange.

Bomar, P. J. (1996). *Nurses and family health promotion* (2nd ed). Philadelphia: Saunders.

Purnell, L. D., & Paulanka, B. J. (2003). The Purnell Model for cultural Competence in L. D. Purnell & B. J. Paulanka (Eds.), *Transcultural health care: A culturally competent approach* (2nd ed.) (pp. 8-38). Philadelphia: Davis.

Ministry of Health (2008), *High Impact Rapid Delivery Supplementary Survey*, GHMS, Ghana.

Blake J. (1981). Demography: Family size and the quality of children. Vol. 18 (4):421-42.

Tinuade A. O. & Durotoye M. O. (2010). *Socio-demographic Factors and Appropriate Health Care-Seeking Behaviour for Children Illnesses*. Oxford Journal of Tropical Pediatrics, Vol. 56, Issue 6, Pp 379-385

Asser, Seth M.; Rita Swan (1998-04). "Child Fatalities From Religion-motivated Medical Neglect". *Pediatrics* 101 (4): 625–629.

Simpson, W. F. (1989-09-22). "Comparative longevity in a college cohort of Christian Scientists". *Journal of the American Medical Association* 262 (12): 1657–1658.

WOMEN-OWNED SMALL SCALE BUSINESSES AND HOUSEHOLD POVERTY REDUCTION IN VANDEIKYA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF BENUE STATE

By

NOMOR DENNIS TERPASE

DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS, BENUE STATE UNIVERSITY, MAKURDI

Abstract

This paper examines the impact of small scale businesses on poverty reduction in Vandeikya Local Government Area. The study focus on those businesses owned by women and the impact of the income earned by women from these businesses on poverty reduction in Vandeikya Local Government Area of Benue State. Data for the study was primary data collected from structured questionnaires distributed to a sample of 270 women who own small scale businesses in Vandeikya Local Government Area. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and Logistic regression Model. Results from the study showed that women-owned small scale businesses have a significant impact on poverty reduction in the study area but that the impact is not as expected. The study recommends that the government should provide access to credit facilities for women, the government should provide vocational and skill training for the women, husbands and members of the public should provide support to women, women should develop a savings culture among others.

Introduction

Poverty is a problematic issue which has a negative effect on people in various forms. According to Ajala, Fakoya and Ajala (2003), the phenomenon is common in various parts of the world but is more pronounce in developing countries of the world.

According to Satya (2002), about 2.8 billion people live in absolute poverty. The World Bank report (2005) also confirmed this same fraction of the world population to be living below the poverty line. Alegieuno and Attah (2005) noted that, the area that is hardest hits is countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. According to Faiola (2008), 50% of African population still lives below the poverty line. In Nigeria, the Nation-Master (2008) reported that, about 70% of the population is poor. Thus, poverty reduction presupposes the development of every economy.

In view of the above, eradicating poverty becomes the most important goal of human development. Indeed, it is now widely believed that development must be about improvement of human well being, removal of hunger, disease and promotion of productive employment for all. A nation's first goal must be to end poverty and satisfy the priority needs for all its citizenry in a way that will not jeopardize the opportunity for the future generations to attain the same objective (Ibeh, 2007).

Faced with the problem of poverty in the country, past governments in Nigeria have taken different measures to curtail the impact of poverty on the people. Some of the government agencies and programmes meant to alleviate poverty include: the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAD), Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI); the Petroleum Trust Fund (PTF); The National Directorate of Employment (NDE); The People's Bank; The Better Life Programme (BLP); The Family Support Programme (FSP); among others. It is worrisome however, to note that in spite of all these laudable programmes, the incidence of poverty has continued to be on the increase. According to Abdullahi (2001), the rural population and mostly women are more affected by this incidence of poverty.

Due to this situation, many families in Nigeria now get involve in small scale business to ameliorate this intractable problem. According to Oluwole (2003), it became necessary for women to leave their traditional role as kitchen executive and get themselves in small scale businesses to compliment their families' income. According to Ajala et al (2003), more women than men have gotten themselves involved in small scale businesses since 1980s. ILO (write in ful) (2003) observed that, the reason for women continuous involvement in small scale businesses are: their limited access to paid jobs; their limited access to land for farming and their limited access to capital used in establishing large business organizations as compared to men. Ajala et al (2003) noted that, women have made a significant impact in the area of self-employment in petty trading and moving of informal business ventures. Such ventures include self employed trading, hairdressing, dress making, operating bars, laundry activities, fetching water for sale, road side food selling and various other small and very few medium scale business activities. They venture into all these activities to generate income for their households and hence contribute to the welfare of their families.

In Benue State in general and Vandeikya in particular, it is observed that, there is a significant level of women involvement in these small scale businesses. Reports by National Association of Small Scale Industrialists(NASSI) and Benue Chambers of Commerce, Industry, Mines and Agriculture(BESCIAMA) showed that, women are involve in small businesses such as, Tailoring; Restaurants; beer Parlours; Food preparation in the areas of meat pies, zobo, kunu, brukutu, ice cream, garri, and yam flour; Hair dressing; etc. The reasons for their involvement are not other than complimenting the family's income generation and to be self-employed. Thus, a result oriented poverty reduction programme in Benue state should embrace this sector of the economy.

Indeed, women involvement in small scale businesses in Benue State in general and Vandeikya Local Government in particular have grown significantly as a result of women's limited access to land for agricultural purposes, lack of capital for other businesses, lack of access to paid jobs etc. In spite of this significant involvement in small scale businesses by women, research studies have not given attention to the extent of the impact of this sector on poverty reduction in the study area and Benue State at large. More so, policy makers and programme have given more attention to the idea of man breadwinner and have neglected the importance of women's breadwinning role as noted by MDG, (2009).

This paper therefore assesses the impact of small scale businesses owned by women on household poverty reduction in Benue State taking Vandeikya local government area of Benue State as a case study. The study hypothesized that women involvement in small scale businesses area do not have a significant impact on household poverty reduction in Vandeikya Local Government.

Brief literature review

The concept of small scale business and poverty reduction are clarified in this section. In addition, the theoretical framework as well as the core empirical works is presented.

Concept of small scale business

A small scale business can be said to be one that requires a small amount of capital to establish it. This kind of businesses usually have a small number of employees or in most cases personally handled by the owner, and are referred to as micro-businesses (this is the term used by international organizations such as the World Bank and the International Finance Corporations. The term “mini businesses” or “bob businesses” is a common colloquial expression for a single family operated business with few or no employees other than them). These kinds of businesses are common in many countries depending on the economic system in operation. Example of these businesses are, hawking, street retailing, small shop, market place etc. (Wikianswers 2010).

According to Longenecker (2008), a small scale business is privately owned and operated, with a small number of employees and relatively low volume of sales. Small businesses are normally privately owned corporations, partnerships or sole proprietorships. The legal definition of “small” varies by country and by industry. In the United States, the small Business Administration establishes small business size standards on an industry-by-industry basis, but generally specifies a small business as having fewer than 100 employees. In the European Union, a small business generally has fewer than 50 employees. However, in Australia, a small business is defined by the Fair Work Act 2009 as one with fewer than 15 employees. By comparison, a medium sized business or mid-sized business has fewer than 500 employees in the US, 250 in European Union and fewer than 200 in Australia (Longenecker 2008).

In addition to number of employees, other methods used to clarify small companies include annual sales, (turnover), value of assets and net profit (balance sheet). These criteria are followed by the European Union, for instance, (head count, turnover and balance sheet totals). Small scale businesses are common in many countries, depending on the economic system in operation. Typical examples include: convenience stores, other small shops, hairdressers, tradesmen, lawyers, accountants, restaurants, guest houses, photocopiers, small-scale manufacturing etc (Longenecker 2008).

In Nigeria, the federal government new national industries policy defines small scale business as those with a total investment of between N100.00 and N200.00 exclusive of land but including working capital. In 1989, budget speech by President Ibrahim Babangida, a small business was defined as “any business requiring not more than N100.00 in capital excluding land”. National directorate of Employment (NDE) defines small scale business as “An establishment with capital investment as low as N5, 000.00 and employing as few as 3 persons (Iornem, 1992). These definitions were revised by the National Council of Industries at its 13th meeting (NCI-13) in Makurdi as a business with total cost (including capital) not exceeding N1m with total employees of not more than ten (Obitayo 2001).

Despite the differences in the definition of small scale business however, all these definitions share the same idea that small scale businesses are generally low in terms of numbers of persons employed, investment, financial strength relative to size and sale volume. As such any business operated by a family

with capital less than 1 million naira and with no or less than 10 employees is used by the researcher as small scale business.

Concept of poverty

Poverty is a complex, multidimensional and hydra-headed malaise that has existed from time immemorial and has affected several facets of lives in Nigeria. It has been defined differently from various perspectives. It is a deadly socio-economic phenomenon that manifests in a people's inability to acquire the basic necessities of life (such as food, clothing and shelter) needed for decent living (Odion 2009).

According to Sen (1985), poverty is the deprivation of basic capabilities rather than lowness of income as indicated by World Bank which defined poverty as a situation when people are living on less than \$1 per day. It has also been described as a state of being poor or being unable to have the basic necessities of life (Akinbode, 2003).

Obo and Abua (2008) described poverty in whatever form it may manifest as a condition that signifies a state of complete deprivation, want and inadequacy. To Aluko (1995), poverty means inadequate level of consumption, giving rise to insufficient food, clothing and shelter. This essentially infers to a state of lack.

Imran et al (2009) looked at poverty as: (i) lack of means in relation to needs, that is, absolute poverty and (ii) lack of means in relation to the means of others, that is, inequality or relative poverty. The World Bank (1990) defines poverty as "the inability to attain a minimum standard of living. Later, the World Bank (2000) defines poverty as lack of command over commodities or as a severe constriction of the choice set over commodities, leading to pronounced deprivation in well being or welfare. This definition is much broader and extends beyond food and non food items to include key assets and social determinants of human development. In this paper, the concept of poverty is taken as defined by Imran et al (2009), that poverty is the lack of means in relation to basic needs.

Theoretical and empirical framework

The need to tremendously fight poverty is embedded in the theory of the vicious circle of poverty propounded by Ragnar Nurkse (1953). According to the vicious circle of poverty, poverty is a serious human problem that is self perpetrating which if not properly handled; it will be inter-generational (Jhingan, 2007). Since Benue State is also in this state of poverty, efforts are needed to be made to alleviate poverty. For Benue State in general and Vandeikya Local Government in particular, any result oriented poverty alleviation policy ought to be focused on small scale businesses. However, according to the Social Exclusion theory, everybody irrespective of gender, age, race, religion, ethnicity, location, occupation and social hierarchy must be involved in poverty alleviation projects (Ritzer 1986). Therefore, a result oriented poverty policy should have a focus on women.

The social exclusion theory is supported by the theory of liberal feminism. According to the theory, the society is divided into the private and public sphere. It argued that societal values are found only in the public sphere. However, these values cannot be achieved except both men and women are found at the public sphere (MDG 2009). Small scale businesses are found at the public sphere and poverty alleviation is value that is essential to every society most especially the developing world which Nigeria is one of. This argument crowns the essence of women participation in small scale businesses.

Empirical studies have also shown that income from small scale businesses owned by women have significant impact on household poverty level. One of such studies was conducted by Ajala et al (2003), to examine the economic utilization of women's small scale businesses activities towards poverty reduction in Ibadan North-East Local Government Area of Oyo State. The study which used primary data revealed that marital status and education are most significantly related factors to women's owned small scale business activities.

To quantify the effect of women's income on household poverty, Holger (2009), took a study on the contribution of female non-farm income to poverty reduction in Tanzania. Results from the study revealed that females off-farm activities are rather a survival strategy than a means to achieved sustainable welfare increases in the long run. The study concluded that the often cited conclusion that off-farm employment leads to poverty reduction may be unrealistic except factors such as illiteracy among women, household work-load, cultural factors, limited access to markets, limited enabling environment, etc are overcome.

Ibro et al (2006) conducted a study on the factors affecting the success for women entrepreneurs in West Africa. The study revealed that women-owned small scale businesses are very important economic activities. The study thus concluded that the adoption of new technology by women has the potential of making a positive change for their businesses. In the same vein, studies by Yeshiareg (2009), and ILO (2003), revealed that women entrepreneurial activities are significant in terms of reducing household vulnerability to poverty.

Methodology

The study was carried out in Vandeikya Local Government Area of Benue State. Women owned businesses studied include: petty provision trade; sale of pure water and soft drinks; sale of fried kosai/beans/yam; sales of food/canteen; catering services; braiding of hair; sales of recharge cards; food processing, i.e. making of zobo, kunu, burutu etc; hair dressing; weaving of clothes; sewing and dress making; cosmetics shops and sales of beer. The study was designed to cover the twelve council wards of the entire local government. One major town where small scale business activities take place was selected. A stratified random sampling technique was used to select 270 respondents in the study area. Questionnaire and interview method of collecting data was adopted. Out of the 270 questionnaires distributed, only 228 were returned. Therefore the presentation and analysis of data was based on the 228 returned questionnaire. Data were analysed using the logit regression model.

The logit regression model was used to determine the correlates of poverty of small scale business women in the study area and to analyse the determinants of poverty. In the model, the endogenous variable is a dichotomous or dummy variable with 1 representing the household as poor and 0 if the household is not poor (Imran et al 2009).

This approach is in line with Allen and Thompson (1990), Manson (1980) and Ramakrishna and Demeke (2002). The parameters of the model are estimated by the maximum likelihood function formed by assuming independence over the observations. Ramakrishna and Demeke (2002) implicitly expressed this model as:

$$P_1 = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ik})}} \quad 3.1$$

Where,

P_1 = probability that poverty reduced

β_0 = Constant term

β_i = Coefficient to be estimated

X = Independent variable

K = Number of independent variables.

$$\text{Let } Z = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_k X_k \quad 3.2$$

$$P = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Z}} \quad 3.3$$

As Z ranges from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$, P ranges from 0 to 1 and P_1 is non-linearly related to Z_i . The logit of the unknown binomial probabilities, that is, the logarithms of the odds, are modeled as a linear function of the X_j . In estimated form, the model is expressed as:

$$\text{Logit}(P_1) = \ln \frac{P_1}{(1 - P_1)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} \dots \beta_k X_{ik} + U \quad 3.4$$

The unknown parameters β , are estimated by maximum likelihood. Thus, the model is explicitly expressed as:

$$\text{POVSTAT} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{expedu} + \beta_2 \text{expfd} + \beta_3 \text{fdgfreq} + \beta_4 \text{hltfac} + \beta_5 \text{capbase} + \beta_6 \text{hhhed} + \beta_7 \text{clthslf} \quad 3.5$$

Where;

POVSTAT = Poverty status (equal to 0 if poverty has reduced and 1 if poverty has not reduced).

β_0 = Constant term

β_i = Coefficient of the parameters to be estimated.

expedu = Impact of the business on children education (equal to total annual expenditure on education).

expfd = Expenditure on food (equal to the amount of money spent on food in the day).

fdgfreq = Annual income

hltfac = Food consumption (equal to 1 if the family meet three square meal and 0 if the family does not).

capbase = Access to health (equal to 1 if the family have access to health and 0 if the family does not).

hhhed = Business size (equal to the business capital base).

clthslf = household head (equal to 1 if headed by a women and 0 if headed by a man).

Results of logit regression analysis

The results from the estimated model is presented below

Table 2: Results of logit regression analysis

VARIABLE	B	S.E	SIG	EXP
Constant	-21.805	1.194	0.999	1.000
Expedu	0.001	0.000	0.147	1.000
Expfd	0.001	0.001	0.857	1.000
Fdfreg	-0.838	0.677	0.028**	0.433
Hltfac	-0.908	0.421	0.002*	0.268
Capbase	-0.004	0.002	0.001*	1.000
hhhed	0.010	0.389	0.900	1.010
Clthslf	0.389	0.653	0.063***	1.476
Chi-square	3.668			0.000
Nagelkerke R ²	0.513			

Note: * means the parameter is significant at 1%, ** means the parameter is significant at 5% , *** means the parameter is significant at 10%

The estimated logic regression equation becomes

$$\text{POVSTAT} = -21.805 + 0.0001\text{Expedu} + 0.001\text{expfd} - 0.838\text{fdgfreq} - 1.318\text{hltfac} - 0.004\text{capbase} + 0.010\text{hhhrd} + 0.389\text{clthsf}.$$

From the result, three of the exogenous variables namely feeding frequency in a day, access to health facilities and capital base had negative estimated coefficients which are -0.838, -0.908 and -0.004 respectively. The other variables such as expenditure on education, expenditure on food, household head and clothing were estimated positive at 0.001, 0.001, 0.010 and 0.389 respectively.

The result also shows that food frequency, access to health care facilities, capital base are significant at 5%, 1% and 10% respectively. The negative sign of the variables indicate that the higher the value of the variables, the higher the likelihood that poverty will reduce. In other words, the higher the variables, the lower the probability that poverty will increase. That is to say that, the variables have negative relationship with poverty status. The positive value of the parameters on the other hand implies that a higher value tend to increase poverty status of the households.

The regression result shows that expenditure on education has a positive value of 0.001 and is statistically insignificant. This result agrees with the expectation that the increase in expenditure on education as a result of high dependency ratio limit the business women's capacity to reinvest their profit to expand the businesses. The inability to expand business size, results to a stagnation of poverty status.

The result also shows that the value of expenditure on food is positive (0.001) and statistically insignificant. This implies that the higher expenditure on food from the business income will take away the capital base and profit that would have been reinvested for business expansion of the business size. This result also conforms to the apriori expectation.

The value for food frequency was negative (-0.838) and statistically significant at 5% level. This result also conforms to apriori expectation. This implies that the ability to meet three square meals in a day implies a reduction in poverty status of the households. The value of access to health facilities was also negative (-1.318) and statistically significant at 1% level of significant. This result also conform to the expected influence of access to health care facilities on business performance hence reduction in poverty. As access to health care facilities improves the health of small scale business women improve, leading to improve in physical and mental ability to manage the business. The improvement in management of the business lead to increase in the profitability of business, thus, increases the probability that poverty will reduce.

The result for capital base of the business was also negative and statically significant at 1% level of significant. The result is in agreement with the apriori expectation of a negative relationship between capital base and poverty status. This is because increases in involvement with considerable capital will increase profit. This will increase access to food, good shelter, improved health, clothing and education, thus implying a reduction in poverty status of the households.

The value of the household head is positive (0.010) and statistically insignificant. This result agrees with the apriori expectation that the household headed by female are tended to be poorer than the household headed by males.

The result for self-clothing is positive and statistically significant. This result however does not agree with the a priori expectation. It is expected that, if women can clothe themselves from the income they gets from small scale businesses, the income of their husband which should have been for the same purpose will be channeled into other family needs and thus improving family welfare. The result obtained here implied that women in Vandeikya local government spend so much on buying cloths. This reduces capital and profits to be reinvested into the business thus reducing the probability of reducing poverty.

The Nagelkerke R-square (R^2) is 0.513 meaning that about 51% of the sample variations in the poverty status of household is explained by the independent variables leaving 49% unexplained. The remaining 49% is assumed to be explained by the variables not built in the model.

Also, the chi-square statistic (X^2) is 3.668 and is significant at less than 1% level of significant. The significance of the chi-square statistics is an indication that the estimated model performed well. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Consequently, the alternative hypothesis that women owned small scale business has a significant impact on poverty reduction in Vandeikya Local Government area of Benue State was accepted.

More so, the result also shows that constant has a negative sign of -21.805 and this conform to the a priori expectation. The negative relationship between the constant value and poverty status is an indication that holding other variables constant, involvement of women in small scale businesses has the prospects of reducing household poverty.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The research has shown a significant impact of small scale businesses owned by women on poverty reduction. This is an indication that women have a lot to contribute to poverty reduction efforts. Small scale businesses are one of the most common economic activities towards poverty reduction engaged in by both men and women. Women have gotten engaged in this sector more than men. The major reasons are to support their husbands in improving families' welfare. Though it has been shown that the extent of the significance of the impact of these women-owned small scale businesses on poverty reduction is low as confirmed by the significance of the associated chi-square., It is clear that these businesses have great prospects of improving on the significance, if government and private individuals cooperate in tackling the problems that are faced by women. This can be done through: giving skill acquisition training to women on business management know-how by the government; increasing women access to credit facilities, giving of subsidies and tax relief/exemption; recognition of the need to save by the business women; and giving women the support and encouragement to carry out these businesses.

References

- Abdullahi, S. (2001), "Improving the Status of Women in Nigeria: A case Study of Poverty Alleviation". *A Paper Presented at the National Conference of the National Association for the Promotion of Studies in the Arts and Social Science*. University of Akure.
- Ajala, C. C. et al (2003). "Women's Small Scale Business Activities towards Poverty Alleviation in Ibadan North-East Local Government Area of Oyo State". *Asset Series*. A Vol. 3. No.1 pp. 1 – 6.
- Alegieuno, J. and Attah, Y. A. a. (2005), "Poverty Reduction through Micro-Finance: The Case of Indonesia and Philippines". *A Publication of central Bank of Nigeria*. Vol. 30 No.3, pp 1-10.
- Aluko, S. (1995), "Poverty: It's Remedy Issues". In Onibokun, A. and Faniran, A. (eds). *Governance and Poverty in Angolophone West Africa*. Ibadan: CASSAD
- Brain B. (2000), *Social Exclusion, Social Isolation and the Distribution of Income*. <http://www.sticerl.ise.ac.uk/dps/case/cp/paper12.pdf>.
- Faiola Anthony, (2008), World Bank counts More Poor People. <http://www.washingtonpost.com.business>.
- Holger Seebens (2009), "The Contribution of Female Non-farm Income to Poverty Reduction". *Paper Presented at the international Association of Agricultural Economics Conference*, Beijing, China.
- Ibeh, S. E. (2007), "The Concept of Poverty and Poverty Alleviation". *Journal of Business and Management Studies*. Vol.4, No.2. pp 216-222

Ibro Germame et al (2006), "Factors Affecting Success for Women Entrepreneurs in West Africa: The Case of Kosai, a value Added Cowpea product". *A Paper Present at 2006 American Economics Associated Annual Meeting*, Long Beach, California.

ILO (2003), "Ethiopian Women Entrepreneurs: Going for Growth". *Ethiopian International Labour Organization and Women's Affairs Department, Ministry of Trade and Industry*.

Imran et al (2009), "The Impact of Socio-Economic and Demographic variables on Poverty: A Village Study". *The Labore Journal of Economics*. Vol.14 No.1 pp. 39-68.

Iornem, D. I. (1992). *How to start and manage your own Business and Guarantee Success*. Kaduna: YVC Press.

Jhingan, M. L. (2006). *The Economics of Development and Planning*. Delhi: Vrinda Publications.

Longenecker, J. G. et al (2008), "Small Scale Business Management. Launching and Growing entrepreneurial Ventures".
<http://www.fbswllc.com/smallbsuiness.htm>.

Mou, I. (2007). "Poverty. The Challenge, the Imperatives". *Zenith Economic Quarterly*. Vol. 2 No.12 pp 19-32.

Nation Master (2008), "Economic Statistics: Population below Poverty Line by Country". <http://www.nation-master.com>

Obitayo, K.M. (2001), "Creating an Enabling Environment for Small Scale Industries". *CBN Bullion*. Vol. 25. No.3.

Obo, U. E and Abua, M. A. (2008), "Democracy and the Dialectics of Mass Poverty: The Nigerian Experience (1999-2006)". *A Journal of Contemporary Research*. Vol.5 pp 298-309

Odion, W. E. (2009). "Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Poverty Question in Nigeria". In Omotor D. G. and Akpotor, A. S. (ed). *Millennium Development Goals and Challenges*. Abraka: Delsu Investment Nigeria Limited.

Ritzer, G. (1996), *Sociology Theory*. New York.

Satya, R. C. (2002), "Population Growth and Poverty Measurement".

<http://www.unstats.un.org/lund/methods/poverty/endowments>.

Sen. A. (1985). *Commodities and Capabilities*. North Holland: Amsterdam.

Wikianswers (2010), "The Impact of Small Scale Business in Nigeria". <http://www.wikianswers.com>.

World Bank (2005), "Facts and Statistics of Poverty". <http://www.globalissues.org>.

World Bank (2006), "Report On Nigeria". <http://www.worldbank.org/Nigeria>.

World Bank (2009), "Poverty around the World". <http://www.globalissues.org>.

Yeshiareg, D. (2002), "Women's Economic Empowerment for Poverty Reduction and Economic Growth". <http://www.bridgenew.edu/SOAS>.

NIGERIA'S MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN CRISIS – POTENTIAL THREAT TO MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL ACHIEVEMENT

By

Binuyo, A.O. & Oduyoye, O.O.

*Department of Business Administration and Marketing, Babcock University,
Ilishan Remo, Ogun State. Nigeria.*

Abstract

With a population of close to 150 million and various government policies aimed at increasing the level of employment and eradicating poverty hitting the rocks over the years, Nigeria, a country which boasts of the second largest economy on the African continent after South Africa, may not meet the Millennium Development Goal of eradicating poverty by 2015. This is because a key sector of the economy – Manufacturing - is seriously being threatened with extinction. With this background, the authors opined, given the stringent and unfavorable operating conditions in the country, Nigeria's manufacturing sector may not survive for too long. A possible leeway out of the difficult situation forms the foundation for the second part of the study i.e. the need to empower the Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) sector. Although the government established the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency (SMEDAN), a body tasked with developing the SME sector to a level comparable to that of advanced nations, the impact of this agency does not seem to be felt in much of the country in terms of employment generation and poverty reduction. With the near collapse of the nation's manufacturing sector, the only rescue seems to be the Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) sector. Compared to previous research, this study breaks new ground by evaluating the performance of cooperative-financed small businesses against such parameters as level of infrastructure support by SMEDAN, linkage with sources of non-bank finance, training support as well as capacity building and promotional services – all within the Ikenne Local Government area of Ogun State in South-Western Nigeria. The second part of the study employed a survey research involving officers of cooperative societies in five towns within the Local Government. The officers, whose main task is to oversee loan funds given to members to run various small businesses, are to evaluate the services of SMEDAN against the parameters earlier mentioned. The results of the survey revealed that SMEDAN's activities in such key areas did not enhance the effectiveness of small businesses within the survey period. The overall lesson from these findings is that with the near-collapse of the nation's manufacturing sector, the main thrust of Nigeria's quest to regional leadership and poverty eradication must be hinged on entrepreneurship development especially an aggressive promotion of micro, small and medium scale enterprises. This is crucial to achieving the 2015 Millennium Development Goal of eradicating poverty in Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

Millennium Development Goals – What They Are

In September 2000, the largest gathering of world leaders in human history convened for the Millennium Summit at the United Nations Headquarters in New York. At the said summit, all 192 United Nations member states and at least 23 international organizations agreed to achieve by the year 2015, eight (8) international development goals listed below;

- Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education
- Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women
- Goal 4: Reduce child mortality rate
- Goal 5: Improve maternal health
- Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability
- Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development

According to Kabeer (2010), the Millennium Declaration asserts that every individual has the right to dignity, freedom, equality, a basic standard of living that includes freedom from hunger and violence; and encourages tolerance and solidarity. He further posits that the MDGs were made to operationalize these ideas by setting targets and indicators for poverty reduction in order to achieve the rights set forth in the Declaration on a set fifteen-year timeline.

There are eight goals with 21 targets, and a series of measurable indicators for each target.¹The goals and associated targets are as follows:

- **Goal 1 : Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger**

Targets

1. Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1 a day.
2. To halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger by 2015.

- **Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education**

Target

1. Ensure that by 2015 children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

- **Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women**

Targets

1. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015.

- **Goal 4: Reduce child mortality rate**

Target

1. Between 1990 and 2015, reduce the under-five mortality rate by two thirds.

- **Goal 5: Improve maternal health**

Target

1. Between 1990 and 2015, reduce the maternal mortality rate by three quarters

- **Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases**

Targets

1. To have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV and AIDS.
2. To achieve universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS by 2010.
3. To have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major illnesses.

- **Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability**

Targets

1. By 2015, halve the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.

- **Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development**

Target

1. To deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures and make debt sustainable in the long term.

The MDGs focus on three major areas of Human Development (humanity): bolstering human capital, improving infrastructure, and increasing social, economic and political rights, with the majority of the focus going towards increasing basic standards of living.

The focus of this paper is on how the overall human development index of Nigeria and, by extension that of the African continent, can be guaranteed through the enhancement of the manufacturing sector as well as an aggressive promotion of the Small and Medium scale Enterprises.

Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are as follows:

- To evaluate the performance of Nigeria's manufacturing sector for the immediate past two years i.e. 2009 and 2010.
- To assess the operating environment of the nation and gauge whether such supports the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals by 2015.
- To assess the performance of the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN) within Ogun State in the past five years especially in helping the citizenry eradicate poverty and providing employment.
- To evaluate how successful SMEDAN has been in her support operations to small businesses in the past five years in Ogun State.
- To proffer recommendations on possible ways by which Nigeria can meet the Millennium Development Goal of eradicating poverty and providing employment for a majority of the citizenry by 2015.

Methodology

The study employed both primary and secondary data. The first part of the study entailed the collection of relevant data from the website of the umbrella body of manufacturers in Nigeria i.e. Manufacturers Association of Nigeria. The data comprise mainly information on manufacturing outfits which have closed shop for one reason or the other within the past two years (i.e. 2009 and 2010) in the major geographical zones of the country. The conclusion of the first part of the study forms the foundation for the second part. Data is collected on the operations of the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN) especially on its support function to small businesses in Ikenne Local

Government Area of Ogun State. This is a pilot study for a larger work which spans the entire Ogun State, a border state to Lagos, the most industrialized state in Nigeria.

The second part of the study employed questionnaire survey as the main research instrument. The questionnaire, which is in five parts, comprises 29 questions which span infrastructure support, access to finance, establishment of business support centres, training support, etc. SMEDAN is to be evaluated by the respondents on the basis of the questions posed in the questionnaire. The answers to the questions are analyzed using basic analytical tools as simple percentages, strength of association, etc. in determining how well SMEDAN is doing in ensuring the survival of small and medium enterprises within the study area and thereby guaranteeing employment and reducing poverty. The overall result of the study then forms the basis for determining how well the nation is poised in meeting the Millennium Development Goal of guaranteeing employment and reducing poverty by 2015

The Nigerian landscape – An overview

A typical day in present day Nigeria is likely to witness able-bodied men and women just idling away their time. There is palpable tension in the land and the reasons are not far from the fact that things are not working well with many Nigerians. There is no gainsaying the fact that poverty stalks the land and it is estimated that 70percent of the population live on less than a dollar a day. According to the World Bank, about 40million Nigerians are unemployed. More than that number is probably under-employed. The Boko Haram phenomenon in Northern Nigeria as well as general poverty in the land, very much to a large extent, accounts for this. Youths need jobs, the energy sector is not working and this has ruined several small-scale industries, kept millions of people out of their jobs, caused the closure of several factories and with people losing their jobs, the problem of insecurity does not seem to abate.

The Nigerian situation becomes more pathetic considering the fact that in the 60s, agriculture was the mainstay of the Nigerian economy, a major source of employment and the country's main foreign exchange earner. The country not only produced enough to feed itself, it was the major food basket for the West African sub-region. Considering the near-collapse of the manufacturing sector, this paper therefore examines the role of small and medium enterprises as a possible panacea to underdevelopment and poverty in Nigeria.

Though the 2010 figures for the closure of manufacturing companies were not readily available, Yusuf (2008) reported that many textile companies closed down in Northern Nigeria thus leading to a loss of thousands of jobs and unquantifiable multiplier effects on the economy. This is apart from lost taxes that would have accrued to local, state and federal governments. It was reported that the Nigerian Textile Manufacturers' Association (NTMA) which used to be the second largest employer of labor after government, lost 577,000 workforce between 1992 and 2006 during which 149 out of 176 textile companies were reported to have shut down. This, by all indices of measurement, is no good news to any economy.

The small and medium enterprises sector and the Nigerian economy

Successive governments in Nigeria have always emphasized the place of the Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs) as the engine of growth, without concrete action on ways of actively developing the sector. Indeed, all over the world, the growth of SMEs determines the development of countries given the

fact that critical mass of people in such countries are captured within this net. According to Recklies (2001), the sector of small and medium sized businesses (SMEs) is an important factor in most economies. Agbedo (2011) posits that a cursory look at industrialized countries in America, Europe and Asia shows that Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) have overwhelmingly succeeded there. Defined in America as a business where the owner-manager knows the names of all the workers, SMEs are really very small businesses in terms of space and time but are globally seen as the driving force of the larger economy. SMEs create employment, are flexible, deepen research and serve as veritable sources of innovation and raw materials for the big companies. SMEs have the advantage of starting with small capital, thereby limiting their risks and reducing management overheads. Studies have shown that 90 percent of businesses in the growing economies in today's world are small businesses (Osolor 2010). As in most developed countries, the SME sector is vital to job creation hence; poverty reduction. SMEs are often the real engines of local and sustainable economic growth, which benefits the communities and the larger companies operating there. Many small business owners, due to the failure of infrastructure, and the generally harsh operating environment, have turned into *Okada* riders i.e. commercial motor cyclists.

Akwaja (2004) posited that the problems and challenges confronting Nigerian SMEs are enormous and require pragmatic solutions in the interest of the economy. The shortcomings of Nigerian SMEs subsector could be summarized as follows:

- (i) Rate of survival beyond the first year of existence is 5%
- (ii) SMEs contribution to industrial employment in Nigeria is around 31% compared to that of developed economies which stood at about 64%
- (iii) Contribution of SMEs to the Nigerian industrial output and GDP are less than satisfactory owing to very low capacity utilization (as low as 30%)

Uche (2005) maintained that while many Governments around the world accorded SMEs with much recognition as notable boosters of economies to the extent of establishing extensive support arrangement in the interest of their sustainability unlike Nigeria where SMEs are faced with myriads of challenges such as lack of long term loans since most loans in the Nigerian markets are short-term while SMEs require long term loans to be able to grow and become successful.

Nnanna (2005) submitted that several challenges confronting Nigerian SMEs frustrate the survival of many of them causing many to die within their first two years of existence or perform below standard. Such challenges include grossly inadequate infrastructural facility (road, water, electricity e.t.c), Insecurity of lives and properties, inconsistent monetary, fiscal, and industrial policies, limited access to markets, multiple taxations and levies, lack of modern technology for processing and preserving products, policy reversals, capacity limitations, data inadequacies, harsh operating environment, fragile ownership base, fragile capital base, while other challenges are driven by the inherent characteristics of the SMEs themselves.

The American economy boasts a wide array of enterprises, ranging from one-person sole proprietorships to some of the world's largest corporations. However, large corporations, contrary to expectations, do not dominate the economy. According to the US Small Business Administration, (SBA) a government body that regulates the activities of all small businesses in the United States, 99 percent of all independent enterprises in the United States of America employ fewer than 500 people. These enterprises account for

52 percent of all US workers; 19.6 million Americans work for companies employing fewer than 20 workers, 18.4 million work for firms employing between 20 and 99 workers, and 14.6 million work for firms with 100 to 499 workers. The mission of the SBA is to maintain and strengthen the American economy by enabling the establishment and viability of small businesses and by assisting in the economic recovery of communities after disasters. According to Wikipedia, the SBA has directly or indirectly helped nearly 20 million businesses and in 2008, had a loan portfolio of roughly 219,000 loans worth more than \$84 billion making it the largest single financial backer of businesses in the United Statesⁱⁱ.

According to Fanimu and Olayinka (2010), most of the toys manufactured in places like China, Singapore and Malaysia are produced within the precinct of homes. SMEs make invaluable contributions to the economies of both developed and underdeveloped economies. They are beneficial in stimulating entrepreneurship and often do serve as a seed-bed for upgrading indigenous technology on one hand and adaptation of foreign ones, on the other. Other social contributions include the transformation of the traditional sector into a modern one, and the creation of employment, stemming rural-urban migration, serving as a training ground for managerial skill acquisition. (Owualah, 1987).

In order to align with the rest of the world in growing the SME sector, the present government in Nigeria through one of its financial institutions, the Bank of Industry (BOI) recently took a bold step in reviving this comatose sector. In June 2010, the bank approved loans of more than N16 billion to various co-operative groups across the country, to assist Small and Medium Entrepreneurs. According to the report, which appeared in *The Guardian* newspaper of June 18, 2010, the bank has also trained almost 10,000 small and medium entrepreneurs within the last three years on how to establish and run bankable small businesses. This information was disclosed by the bank's Managing Director, Ms Evelyn Oputu at an Entrepreneurial Development Workshop/Boot Camp organized by the bank and the Embassy of the United States in Nigeria.; she further explained that "the products of the workshop and boot camp series formed the nucleus of BOI's cooperative lending programme, under which the bank lends to specially formed cooperatives that comprise mainly women and youths under a collective guarantee arrangement." With this initiative, Nigeria's small businesses could be well-positioned to contribute substantially to the nation's economy by creating jobs that would go a long way in absorbing the army of the unemployed.

According to Adesina (2011), creation of gainful employment opportunities and empowerment schemes for grass-root women and youths, as spelt out in the United Nation's Millennium Development Goals' guidelines, are parts of the anti-poverty activities African countries are under-utilizing. Corroborating the above with the situation in Ghana, the same author posits that part of the ways through which government has been intervening in the fight against poverty and unemployment, especially at the grassroots was the provision of unconditional sponsorship for practicable, productive and sustainable business initiatives by the youths. However, the same author counters that human liberation against unemployment, poverty, hunger and criminalities cannot be achieved through dependence on government or academic knowledge alone. Youths, especially undergraduates must imbibe the culture of entrepreneurship, discover their God-given talent and receive vocational training as a backup for whatever they have gone to school to be trained for. This way, hopefully, African countries would draw closer to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals of the United Nations.

Nigeria's manufacturing sector – a Two-Year Overview

In the manufacturing sector, Nigeria has not fared any better in the past few years in achieving the MDGs. According to a survey carried out as part of its membership operational audit in January 2010 by the Manufacturers' Association of Nigeria,(MAN) a total of 834 manufacturing companies closed shop in 2009 as a result of their inability to continue to cope with the challenges posed by the harsh operating environment in Nigeria. The MAN survey covered five manufacturing enclaves, into which the country is divided, in terms of manufacturing activities. These include Lagos, Northern, South-East, South-South and South-West Areas. Still quoting the last author, an economic analyst and former United Nations Development Programme's top economist, Dr. Warea Thomas was quoted to have analyzed that when a company stops operation, the workers there become the frontline victims. If the 834 firms were officially given by MAN to have closed shop in 2009, it is easy to speculate that not less than 83,400 jobs were lost in that year alone; if we assume that they were all medium-sized manufacturing firms, with each having 100 workers. In addition, MAN says that between 2006 and 2010, despite official statistics, over one million additional jobs have been lost in view of the continually failing firms.

According to Ogar (2011) a recent joint report by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) has recommended a new industrial policy that would induce economic transformation for African countries to make any significant headway in poverty reduction and solving their economic problems. The report revealed that Africa now accounts for only about one percent of global manufacturing and cannot realistically hope to reduce widespread poverty if concrete and effective steps are not taken by governments to expand this vital economic sector. From the look of things, in order to build a reasonable development process in African countries especially Nigeria, governments have to evolve a strategy where they are not dependent on external lenders. Countries must be able to own the industrialization process. For this to be the case, a solid infrastructural base must be in place and firmly in control of the indigenes – sadly, this is not the case with Nigeria.

Since the advent of petroleum, Nigeria simply abandoned the agricultural sector, a practice which has since proved to be a costly mistake in terms of overall development of the nation's economy. There is no gainsaying the fact that any nation that will experience true development cannot promote manufacturing at the expense of the agricultural sector. Agriculture has been and will continue to be a major source of revenue, employment and foreign exchange earnings in the short to medium term. African countries, to develop in the true sense of the word, should create mutually reinforcing linkages between agricultural and non-agricultural sectors of their economies. This is no less so in the so-called "giant of Africa", Nigeria.

Contribution of SMEs in selected Asian economies (%)

Industrial Characteristics	Malaysia 1985	Singapore 1990	Republic of Korea (1991)	India 1994
Contribution to total no of Industrial Establishments	92.1	88	97	94
Contribution to total Industrial Employment	49.4	40	63.5	31
Contribution to total Industrial Production	46.7	26	44.5	40
Contribution to total Industrial Value Addition	30	23	45.8	35

Source: Confederation of Asia Pacific Chambers of Commerce and Industry - Journal of Commerce and Industry (1994): Vol. II, pp. 6-18

Roles of SMEs in Economies of Selected Countries

Economy	SME as % of Industrial Sector	Year	% Employed by SMEs	Year
Australia	95	1991/92	50.6	1991/92
Philippines	98.7	1988	50.77	1993
Canada	99.8	1992	59.24	1991
Hong Kong	97.95	1993	63	1993
Japan	99.1	1991	79.2	1991
Mexico	98.17	1993	50.77	1993
USA	99.72	1990	53.67	1990
S/Korea	99.8	1992	78.5	1991

Source: *Confederation of Asia Pacific Chambers of Commerce and Industry - Journal of Commerce and Industry* (1994): Vol. II, pp. 6-18

Conclusion and Recommendations

In order to build a different Nigeria in terms of development and poverty reduction, it is the opinion of the authors that government must become efficient: this would require developing zero tolerance for corruption, emphasis on service and productivity, the formulation of sustainable policies rather than ad-hoc measures and empty slogans that are tied to individuals in power; traditional values that stress integrity and hardwork also need to be re-invented and promoted. As a nation, Nigeria must guide against a situation where manufacturing companies crumble like a pack of cards – to do otherwise would constitute an impediment for any meaningful national development. The country must depend less on non-renewable resources along with an aggressive promotion of micro, small and medium enterprises – these are crucial to achieving both the Vision 20-2020 objective as well as Nigeria’s Millennium Development Goals.

References

- Abati, R. (2009) Food Security, Poverty alleviation and the Oceanic Forum. *The Guardian*, May 10, p.70.
- Adeloye, L. (2010) Harsh Operating Environment Claims 834 Nigerian Manufacturing Companies –Investigation. Manufacturers alert Federal Government To imminent De-industrialization Trend
- Adesina, B. S. (2011) Imperative of Entrepreneurship as Antidote to Unemployment. *The Guardian*, July 12, 2011.
- Agbedo, O. (2011) ‘With Right Policies, SMEs Will Thrive In Nigeria’ *The Guardian*, June 25, p.47.
- Akwaja, C. (2004): Why Small Businesses Have not Thrive, *Financial Standard*, Millennium Harvest Limited, Lagos.
- Businesses: Whose Responsibility? *International Small Business Journal* Vol.6

Fanim, D. and Olayinka, C. (2010) SMEs As Catalyst to Improved National Productivity. *The Guardian*, February, 9, p.31.

Kabeer, N. (2010) Can the MDGs Provide a Pathway to Social Justice?: The Challenge of Intersecting Inequalities. Institute of Development Studies. MDG

Monitor.<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/DATASTATISTICS/Resources/MDGsOfficialList2008.pdf>. Accessed February 2, 2011. A List of Goals, Targets, and Indicators.

Nnanna, G. (2005): Underdevelopment of SME Subsector, *Small Business Journal*, Businessday Media, Lagos. No. 1 Autisment pp.10 -30.

Ogar, M. (2011) 55”UN urges New Policy to tackle Africa’s Industrial Problems. *The Guardian*, 26th July, 2011, p.96

Okwe, M. (2010) ‘*Bank of Industry Disburses N16billion to SMEs*’. *The Guardian Newspaper*, June 18, 2010, p. 15.

Osolor, P. (2010) Entrepreneurship and MSME – The Engine for Economic Growth.http://peterosolor.com/?pen.wikipedia.org/wiki/Small_Business_Administration. Accessed 31st July, 2010.

Owualah, S.I. (1987) “Providing Necessary Economic Infrastructure for Small

Oyedijo, A. (2005): Nigeria’s Economy and Its Career Promise for the Mature Employees, *The Gardian Newspapers*, Lagos.

Recklies, D. (2001) Small Business – Size As a Chance or Handicap.

Management Project GmbH. webmaster@reckliesmp.de

Uche, C. (2005): MAN Decries Poor Infrastructure, *Financial Standard*, Millennium Harvest Limited, Lagos.

United Nations (2006) “The Millennium Development Goals Report: 2006.”

United Nations Development

Programme.www.undp.org/publications/MDGReport2006.pdf Accessed

February 2, 2011.

Yusuf, H.B. “Nigeria: ‘Essay’ on Reviving the Textile Industry. <http://www.agoa.info/?view=&story=>

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND THE CHALLENGES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN NIGERIA

By

Prof. Jones.O ALUKO.

Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Babcock University.

Segun OJUOLA

Department of Education and General Studies, Babcock University.

Gift NTIWUNKA

Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Babcock University.

Abstract

The strive for sustainable good governance and human capacity development has always been a major challenge facing the multi ethnic society of Nigeria just like most countries in the Sub Saharan Africa. Consequently, there had been several transitions from civil rule to military rule and vice versa. The peculiar nature of the country as a heterogeneous society has had serious implications on the general performance of the Public Service which is the engine room of policy administration and implementation. The public service is also a veritable tool for the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals. However, its performance has been greatly influenced and undermined by ecological factors such as political, economic, social and cultural. This paper therefore examined the impact of the ecological challenges on the performance of the Nigerian Public Service using Riggs' Prismatic Society model. The paper is predicated on the modernisation theory. It also relied on secondary data such as textbooks, journal articles and scholarly materials as its sources of information and data. The findings showed that the Nigerian Public Administration has not fared well in the implementation of the MDGs consequent upon the barrage of challenges facing it. It thus appears that the set target of 2015 will be a near impossibility if the Nigerian public service does not experience an urgent transformation and repositioning to meet these challenges.

Keywords:MDGs, Public Administration, Ecological Factors, Prismatic Society, Challenges, and Development.

Introduction

According to S.D. Matankari,

"Every country has the fundamental principles by which it exists and it aims to achieve towards the betterment of the lives of its citizens. For African countries, sustainable development is an imperative especially in time like this when democracy, globalization, technology and modernization have combined to highlight the inevitability of change towards the eradication of poverty and the other unwholesome consequences of underdevelopment" (Matankari, 2009).

Thus for countries in Africa, the need to achieve development has been a major challenge for its governments. These countries move at different pace depending on the number of factors that impedes them. Within the past five decades since independence Nigeria which was once among the world's 50 richest countries in the 1970s but slumped to find itself among the 25 poorest countries in the world at the dawn of the 21st century despite its abundant natural resources has experienced negative transformation in its political leadership, public management, economic development, industrial organization and quality performance. Some ecological factors such as social, cultural, political and economic have been largely responsible for the state of Nigeria nation. (Dibie, 2004; Ogunmola & Badmus, not dated).

Development in Nigeria has encountered so many obstacles ranging from lack of democracy and good governance, to corruption, unemployment, indiscipline, mass migration, political and socio-economic instability, inter/intra-ethnic conflicts prolonged military rule, rising poverty level, severe infrastructural bottlenecks that hinder private sector activities, lack of transparency and accountability, decline in public institutions amongst others.

To improve the standard of living in Nigeria among other states in the developing countries, the United Nations initiated a policy referred to as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that represent eight broad goals benchmarked for global development especially in the developing world. It is expected that governments among other things will reduce the level of poverty in their countries by half on, or, before 2015.

Despite the great effort by the world body, and the several other initiatives embarked upon by Nigeria, it is glaring that these goals may not be realised by the year 2015. Hence this study which is descriptive in nature, and based mainly on secondary sources of information on Nigerian Public Administration, MDGs, Riggs' Prismatic Society Model among others sets out to examine the impact of the ecological challenges on the performance of the Nigerian Public Service using Riggs' Prismatic Society Model; finds out how Nigerian Public Administration has fared in the implementation of the MDGs, ascertains whether the set target of 2015 will be met despite these challenges and make recommendations that will accelerate the implementation speed.

Theoretical framework

Modernization theory can be used to explain the motive behind the MDGs that is geared towards development. Modernization which is the processes of transformation from traditional societies to modern societies also refers to a process of change towards those types of social, economic, and political systems that developed in Western Europe and North America from the seventeenth century to the nineteenth and spread to other European countries, South America, Asia and Africa in the nineteenth and twentieth century is one of the major perspectives of national development since the 1950 (Eisenstadt, 1966; edu.learnsoc.org, 2011).

Societies according to Emile Durkheim develop through series of evolutionary stages, from simple to complex technology, subsistence farming to commercial agriculture, rural to urban population, and most important from animal and human power to inanimate and industrialization (Smelser, 1969). These stages are based on different degrees and patterns of social differentiation and reintegration of structure and cultural components that are functionally compatible of the maintenance of society (structural functionalism) (Parsons, 1951; Levy, 1966).

Contemporary developing societies are therefore at the premodern stage of evolution and will eventually achieve economic growth and take on the social, political, and economic features of the Western world which have progressed to the highest stage of social evolutionary development. Socially, they will experience high level of urbanization, research, literacy, mass media and transportation facilities; weak kingship ties and nuclear conjugal family systems; low birth and death rate; and life expectancy that are relatively longer.

On the political realm, the societies will have a higher level of political awareness, more extensive and special group structures and party system. On the economic realm, they will experience more industrialization, technical upgrading of production, and increase division of labour, growth of infrastructure and commercial facilities and the development of large-scale markets. While at the cultural level social relations will be more bureaucratic. Status relations will be based on meritocracy rather than age, gender, and ethnicity. People will become more receptive to change and more achievement oriented. As societies of the world modernise further technologically cultures will also become not more than one (homogeneity) (Powell, 1982; edu.learnsoc.org, 2011).

The essence of the Millennium Development Goals therefore is to ensure that all these happen as it results into economic growth and improvement in the well being of the citizenry.

The challenges of Nigerian public administration using riggs prismatic society model

The effective performance of the public service has been greatly undermined by the social, cultural, political and economic factors and thus posed major challenges to the realisation of the nation's Millennium Development Goals. For a better understanding of the nature of these challenges, the impact of the social-cultural, political and economical challenges on the performance of the public service shall be examined, using Fred Riggs' Prismatic Society Model.

According to Riggs, cited in Sapru (2008), to study the behaviour of a particular administrative system, it is also necessary to have a deep understanding of the environment in which it functions since such environment has a direct effect on its component systems. Therefore, a prismatic society as defined by Riggs is the one which has achieved a certain level of roles necessary for dealing with modern technology, but has failed to integrate these roles. Such society has moved away from the fused stage but has not yet reached the diffracted stage. Looking at Nigeria as a transitional society that is highly differentiated but poorly integrated is the rationale for adopting this model to examine the administrative system. Riggs prismatic society has three important characteristics:

- i. It has heterogeneous structures which reflect the wide disparities within the social cultural, economic and religious contexts; it is a system where extremely modern structures exist simultaneously with the traditional ones. The urban areas are based on the western pattern and influences while the rural areas operate predominantly traditional system with no facilities of modern living such as computers, telephones among others; consequently there is an uneven, unbalanced development in the society where the ruling elite would exert and enjoy enormous influence and power and always protect the interest of the 'haves' against the 'have-nots' which have the tendency of creating a 'revolutionary atmosphere' in the society. The manifestation of this is the recent Niger Delta agitations and the Boko Haram menace in the North-Eastern part of Nigeria.

- ii. It has formalistic structures. Formalism according to Riggs refers to the extent to which discrepancy exist between norms and practices, between the prescriptive and the descriptive between the formal and the effective power and actual practices and facts of government and society.” The key question here is: ‘How should we do it and how are we doing it?’ In a prismatic society the laws, rules and regulations are not obeyed and adhered to in practice. This again is experienced on the performance of the Nigerian Public Service.
- iii. It has an overlapping structure. This according to Riggs means “the extent to which formally differentiated structure of a diffracted society co-exists with undifferentiated structure of a fused type”. For example, the traditional structures and modern ones perform the same essential functions within the society leading, to confusion and discrepancy. This is obvious in the way the bureaucratic behaviours are governed and controlled by certain traditional organisations like family, religion and caste (Riggs in Sapru, 2008 p. 259). Overlapping thus usually manifests in several dimension such as nepotism, especially when there is need to make appointments to various administrative posts certain members of a family or ethnic groups are given preferences over others. Also it manifests in poly-communalism where several ethnic, religious and racial groups co-exist in hostile interaction with one another. There is the existence of clefts, poly normativism and lack of consensus and separation of authority from control, as experienced within the echelon of the Nigerian Public Service.

Riggs also described an economic sub-system of a prismatic society as Bazar-Canteen Model where both market economy and traditional economy co-exist and present price indeterminacy. This model presents a situation where a small section of people exercise control over economic institutions and exploit a large number of people. Hence, bargaining, rebates, corrupt practices are features of this model.

There is great disparity in prices of goods and services from person to person, place to place and time to time .Wage relations are also determined along family, ethnic, or religious divides (Sapru, 2008: p. 262).

The public service in Nigeria had been greatly influenced by the several transitional governments from civil rules to military rules and vice versa. The peculiar nature of the country as a heterogenous society has had serious implications on the general performance of the service as instruments for policy execution, service delivery and sustainable development. The Nigerian Public Service has not been able to live up to this enormous task of social transformation and sustainable development. The ecological challenges are quite overwhelming.

The first major challenge of the public administration is that of separation of administration and politics. According to Woodrow Wilson cited in Adebayo (2004) “administration lies outside the proper sphere of politics and that administrative questions are not political questions”. The political masters are responsible for policy formation while administration consists in the execution of policy and that administration begins only when policy –making ends (Adebayo 2004: 67).

However the doctrine of political neutrality has been discarded and public administrators have ceased to be non-partisan and neutral and have engaged in playing the role of informal brokers between the national government and their ethno- regions and engaged in cover politics as observed by Dibia (2004: 192). This was the scenario during the military regimes when public administrators became the master policy

formulators and implementers and the military administrators relied so much on them for “good governance”.

The political factor has had a far reaching impact on the performance of the public service. In most advanced democracies, politicians rose through the ranks in phases, thereby acquiring experience during the various stages of their tutelage. Oftentimes an aspiring politician moves from the position of ward leader to counsellor through their county or local government (Aluko, Occasional lecture series).

Such politician continues to move up the ladder in various elective capacity from local government chairman to state legislator, governor, minister and perhaps eventually becoming the president (not necessarily in a strict order). What is being underscored here is that such politician would have acquired enough experience about their roles in formulating well articulated programmes and the relationship between them and the public servants. However, such experience is lacking in most developing countries, hence most African politicians lack the ability to provide good leadership that could engender development and social transformation and thus make the job of the public administrators a herculean task to execute.

Poverty of followership is another problem in the contemporary environment. Since majority of the followership are poor they cannot objectively assess the performance of their political leaders.

Another major challenge facing the public service is socio-cultural. The public service operates within the gamut of the larger society. It is a component unit within the complexity of the society. While its activities directly impact on the society, the public service itself comes under strong social influences. There is a mutual interaction. The service has its norms, value system, ethics and culture which have been established over the years. However the greater influence on the public service has changed this traditions and culture of the service. Many public servants today place emphasis on the material gains of the service over the services they are rendering. This makes them to become easy prey to various personal and group pressure interests. Many times the interest of the pressure group conflicts with the larger society interest (Sanda, 1991).

Because of the peculiar heterogeneous structure of Nigeria, there has always been intra-ethnic rivalry among the multi-ethnic groups. Oftentimes this rivalry manifests in the way public servants relate with a colleague who comes from a different ethnic group. Thus the service are polarised along ethnic lines especially when matters pertaining to the provision of basic and physical amenities are concerned. Employment, deployment and promotions are often based on ethnic divides, quota system and geographical spread. The resultant effect is general indiscipline, lack of merit, promotion of mediocrity and general structural and infrastructural breakdown.

Also conditions of service and retirement benefit pose a challenge to the effectiveness of the public servants. The question is “what does a public servant in Nigeria look forward to after retirement?” Since there is no motivation for retirement and steady upward mobility in terms of promotion, a public servant adopts a sit-tight attitude on the job and devises other crooked illegal and corrupt means of “saving for the raining days”. This in turn would have adverse effect on management and control of state affairs.

Dibie (2004) observed that “most public managers in Nigeria behave as though government is no man’s business”. Since government is nobody’s business, as such its properties or interests do not need to be protected when in actual fact, government interests equal public interests and authority. There is usually low productivity as a result of the pursuit of private business activities by public managers and sometimes resource wasting, rivalries between departments and inter-ethnic groups. There are also narrow bureaucratic perspectives that place a premium on controlling public resources rather than on output or social and economic benefit expenditure.

Philips (1990) cited in Dibie (2004) summarized the shortcomings facing the Nigeria public service to include a good public image, clearly articulated job description, performance standard, competitive salaries, sustained opportunities for training and retraining and a commitment to the research of critical public issues in Nigeria.

The assessment of the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), stands for the eight broad goals benchmarked by the United Nations for global development especially in the developing world. It ranges from the eradication of poverty and hunger to the achievement of universal basic education, promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women, reduction of child mortality and improvement of maternal health, combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, and promotion of environmental sustainability and global partnership for development.

The United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) given the role of Global MDG Monitor for the UN System transformed the MDGs into an actionable instrument of development management by turning the eight goals into 18 targets and 48 indicators that can be used to monitor human progress across nations. Nigeria amongst other nations signed up to these goals, targets and indicators (UNDP, 2007; Hamadu and Okafor, 2009).

It is expected that by 2015, these goals would have been met. This deadline is a major challenge to many African countries like Nigeria which seems to have fallen behind meeting key targets, to improve institutions that promote building statistical capacity that will inform national development planning processes. To meet these goals, the country has developed some home grown development agenda such as the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), the “Seven-point Agenda”, Vision 2020, among others.

NEEDS developed in 2004 was to promote macroeconomic stability through transparent, rule-based and sound fiscal, monetary and foreign exchange policies; improve public sector efficiency and transparency and promote private sector development by upgrading infrastructure, privatize unviable state enterprises and reform the financial sector. The “Seven-Point Agenda initiated by late President Shehu Umaru Y’Adua was for development in critical sectors such as energy and power, health, infrastructure, national security, rule of law and resolution of Niger Delta problem. Vision 2020 is Nigeria’s dream to be in the league of the twenty leading economics of the world by the year 2020 (National Planning Commission, 2005; Hamadu and Okafor, 2009).

Despite these initiatives and coupled with the federal allocation from federal government budget to states and local government and the annual savings from debt servicing of about US\$1 billion channelled to various poverty reduction programmes, the country still faces a lot of challenges that hinder its progress towards the achievement of all these goals by 2015.

Since 2004, MDG reports prepared with the help of the UNDP, National Planning Commission (NPC) and the office of the Senior Special Assistant to the President on MDGs (OSSAP) has helped in the analysis of the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals as well as its interventions, challenges and successes.

Goal 1- Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger. The need to eradicate poverty and hunger is regarded as the most important goal of human development. The first goal of any state must be to end poverty and satisfy the priority needs of all its citizenry in a way that will not jeopardize the opportunity for the future generations to attain the same objective. Poverty in Nigeria is deep and pervasive especially in the rural areas. The number of people living in relative poverty (less than \$1 per day) is high. In 2000, the percentage of the population living in relative poverty was 60 per cent. It reduced to 54.4 per cent in 2004 and is expected to drop to 21.35 per cent in 2015 (MDGR, 2004; MDGR, 2010).

Due to recent economic growth particularly in agriculture and the establishment of the “National Poverty Eradication Programmes (NAPEP), the proportion of underweight children has reduced remarkably from 35.5 per cent in 1990 to 23.1 per cent in 2008. But the growth is yet to generate sufficient jobs and its effect on poverty reduction is yet to be felt. Therefore reducing poverty and hunger remains a key development challenge in the country (MDGR. 2010).

Goal 2- Achieve Universal Primary Education. The 2010 MDGR shows that as at 2008, 88.8 percent of children (9 out of 10 children) are now enrolled in school. However, not all the children that start primary school complete their primary education. Currently 72.3 per cent of children get to primary 5 as against 97 per cent in 2000. Lagos has the highest proportion of students that start primary 1 and reach primary 5 (98.7 per cent) while Akwa Ibom has the lowest of 27.1 per cent. The low completion rates reflect poor learning environments that is characteristic of a prismatic society and the urgent need to raise the teaching standards. Government through the Nations Teacher’s Institute have provided Federal Teachers’ Scheme and in-service training to improve the quality of teaching (MDGR, 2004; MDGR, 2010).

Literacy rate increased from 64.1 per cent in 2000 to 80 per cent in 2008. This is more pronounced in the urban areas. Also much progress has been made in adult education programmes. It is expected that with the sustenance of the progress made over the last four years, youth literacy rate will reach 87 percent in 2015 (MDGR. 2010).

Goal 3-Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women. The number of girls enrolled in primary school is not sufficient to meet this target. The number of girls in school is on the decline especially at the tertiary level and more especially in the North. At the secondary level, the number dropped from 81 per cent in 2000 to 79.5 percent in 2008 (MDGR. 2010).

The number of women occupying key position in the national assemble is also discouraging. The political mileage women recorded between 1999 and 2007 was eroded in the 2011 National Assembly elections. In 2007, there was a slight increase in the number of women in the federal legislature. It rose from 2.7 per cent for the Senate and 5 per cent for the House of Representatives to 8.25 per cent in the Senate and 7.22 per cent in the House in 2007. At the 2011 election, only seven female Senators (7.63 per cent) and 19 Representatives (5.28 per cent) were elected in 2011 as opposed to 9 Senators and 25 Representatives that sailed through in 2007 and out of those elected in 2007, only 3 female Senators and 11 Representatives were re-elected in 2011 (Nigeria Daily News, 2011).

Social, economic, traditional, cultural and religious factors have been identified as forces militating against gender equality in the country.

Goal 4- Reduce Child Mortality. There has been rapid progress in reducing child mortality in the areas of water and sanitation although many families still do not have access to them. Under-five mortality has fallen by over a fifth in 5 years from 201 deaths per 1000 live births in 2003, to 157 deaths per 1000 live births in 2008. Infant mortality rate has drastically dropped from 100 to 73 deaths per 1000 live births as a result of the recent intervention that includes Integrated Management of Childhood Illnesses that reflect the underlying causes of child death (MDGR, 2010).

To further reduce this figure, there is need to improve access to primary health needs in the area of investment in infrastructure, human resources, equipment and consumables and better management. Implementation arrangements need to target local needs which vary hugely from community to community and state to state. The current policy framework for MDG4 the National Health Sector Development Plan, aimed at improving child health among others tries to deal with the major child-killer conditions in Nigeria such as malaria, pneumonia, diarrhoea and malnutrition. (MDGR, 2010).

Goal 5-Improve Maternal Health. Maternal mortality fell by 32 per cent, from 800 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2003 to 545 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2008 while the proportion of births attended by skilled health worker has remained very low and threatens to hold back further progress. It is estimated that Nigeria's maternal mortality will be about 250 per 100,000 in 2015 if the current rate of decline is sustained. And should the Midwives Service Scheme begin to yield dividend, access to quality primary healthcare will improve. So far, available data indicate that 228 maternal healthcare centres and 10 health training institutions have been built. 2,312 facilities have been equipped with medical equipment while 6,673 health workers have been trained (MDGR, 2004; MDGR, 2010).

Goal 6- Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other Diseases. Nigeria has marked huge success in eradicating polio by 98 per cent between 2009 and 2010. It has succeeded in reducing prevalence of HIV among pregnant women aged 15-24 from 5.8 percent in 2001 to 4.2 per cent in 2008 even though some states still have high prevalence rates that require urgent policy attention. There has been a sharp decrease in malaria prevalence rates. It declined by 42.8 per cent from 2,024 cases per 100,000 in 2000 to 1157 in 2004. Death rate also fell from 0.23 to 0.16 about a 30 per cent decline within the same period. This was facilitated by the nationwide distribution of 72 million long-lasting insecticide treated bed nets. Projections up to 2015 show that the incidence rates could be about 455 and 594 in the year under the 3 year average and six-year average scenarios, respectively (MDGR, 2010).

Goal 7- Ensure Environmental Sustainability. Some of the most valuable national assets are still seriously threatened. For instance, between 2000 and 2010 the area of forest shrank by a third, from 14.4 per cent to 9.9 per cent of land area. This affected employment as over two million people earn their living especially in the harvesting of fuel wood and poles. Currently, 80,000 people work in the log processing industries, especially in the forest zones of the South (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2005 in MDGR, 2010).

Access to safe water and sanitation is a serious challenge for Nigeria. Safe water can help reduce death from diarrhoea which has been recognized as the biggest killer of children under five years old in Africa. Globally, it is expected that improving access to clean water sanitation and hygiene could reduce disease burden by at least 9.1 per cent in terms of disability-adjusted life years and by 6.3 per cent in terms of death. Presently, 58.9 per cent of the population has access to an improved water source and over half the population has access to improved sanitation. The subsection for water supply and sanitation is guided by the National Water Supply and Sanitation Policy (NWSSP) approved by the federal government in 2000. Also joint effect has been made by the state and local government to ensure that safe water is made available to the citizenry (MDGR, 2010).

MDG 7 face challenges in the areas of climate change, overexploitation of ground water especially in the north, increase in the influx of saline water in the south, migration and changes in rainfall, weak institution capacities, a low level of professional manpower and low levels of private sector capacity and participation, lack of water supply infrastructure especially in the rural areas among other things (MDGR, 2010).

Goal 8- Develop a global partnership for development. Official development assistance from developed countries to Nigeria has increased dramatically since 2004. The 2005 debt negotiation provided new opportunities for investment in the social sector. Debt servicing fell from 15.2 per cent of exports in 2005 to 0.5 per cent in 2008. The deregulation exercise in the telecommunications sector in 2001, led to an increase in proportion of the population with access to mobile telephones from 2 per cent to 42 per cent between 2000 and 2008. However, only 15.8 percent of the population currently has access to the internet (MDGR, 2010).

The country has encountered so many problems in the implementation of these eight goals. The availability of up-to-date data on most of the indicators is one of them. For example critical health statistics in Nigeria are grossly unreliable. There has never been any national survey on maternal mortality yet about 10 per cent of global maternal deaths are routinely attributed to Nigeria. Besides, there is limited funding available for data generation and management. At the state level, data that exist are scattered across ministries and departments without any coordinating body and legislation to facilitate dissemination of the data to other units of government and external organizations while at the grassroots most times there are no statistics (Hamadu and Okafor, 2009; MDGR 2010).

In addition, the slow pace of project execution, weak monitoring mechanism for the MDGs, delay in the release of funds to contractor by banks, poor public expenditure management and the shortage of manpower especially at the high-end and technical level pervade nearly all sectors of the Nigerian economy especially in science and engineering fields. These are obvious defects in the mechanism of implementation which is the public service.

Concluding remarks and Recommendations

Using Fred Riggs' prismatic Society Model, the condition and challenges of the Nigerian Public Administration has been properly mirrored. The assessment report of the MDGs has shown that Nigeria is still far from realising 50 percent to meet the 2015 target. It has been obvious that these challenges emanate from the ecological factors that have been discussed in this paper and how they have undermined

the performance of the public service especially in its enormous task of implementing policies that will make the MDGs attainable and realizable by the timeline of 2015.

However, with the well focused, unbiased and intentional restructuring of the public service and its roles, it will surely enhance its performance, and help to expedite action on meeting the MDGs timeline.

The following therefore are recommended:

1. The effective performance of the public service in the sustainable development process will require a “high level of creative assessment and innovation” by the political leaders with focus on competence and merit (Dibie, 2004).
2. Government involvement must be restructured and apparatus that will engender accountability and transparency must be put in place.
3. Training and retraining of competent public managers especially in public administration oriented programmes will surely improve accountability and performance monitoring. It will also equip them to meet the challenges of the 21st century.
4. Changing some of the social and cultural values in the country will also help to re-orientate the public managers (Dibie, 2004). Also, the SERVICOM which is a regulatory body to ensure quality service delivery and to protect the rights of the citizens should be encouraged and its services be enhanced for optimum performance.
5. To deal with the problem of integration especially in a multi-ethnic society like Nigeria, adherence to true federalism and a reduction in the powers of the national institutions of government is the solution. A decentralization of critical national institutions and political power will result in a relaxed bureaucracy, less-heated inter-ethnic relations and an efficient and accountable civil service (Ayoade, 1999 cited in Dibie, 2004).

References

- Adebayo, A. (2004) *Principles and Practice of Public Administration in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
- Aluko, J. O. Occasional Lecture Series.
- Ayoade, J. A (1999). “The Federal Character Principle and the Search for National Integration in Nigeria” In Kunle, A. Agbaje, A., Suberu, R., *Federalism and Political Restructuring in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Press Ltd.
- Dibie, R. (2004) *Public Administration, Politics and Changes in the Principles of Governance in Nigeria*. Lagos: Mbeyi & Associates Press (Nig) Ltd.
- Hamadu, D and Okafor, R. (2009). “On MDGs Statistical Capacity building in Nigeria: A necessary step towards achieving millennium development goals (MDGs)” *Journal of IAOS*, Vol. 26 Issue 1&2.
- Hoselitz, B. (1960) *Sociological of Modernization Aspects of Economic Growth*. New York: Free Press.
- Matankari, S. D. (2009). **“Sustainable Development and the Imperatives of Public Service Reform Implementation in Nigeria” a lecture delivered at the Continental African public Service Day Celebrations Dar es Salaam, 15 to 19 June, 2009 Tanzania 15 to 19 June, 2009.**
- Millennium Development Goals Report 2004 Nigeria.

Millennium Development Goals Report 2010 Nigeria. www.mdgs.gov.ng Accessed July 5, 2011

National Planning Commission (2005). National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). Abuja: Central Bank of Nigeria

National Policy on population for sustainable Development 2005

Nigeria Daily News. (June 7, 2011). "Nigeria Women Who Will Shape Seventh National Assembly" Retrieved from <http://www.nigeriadailynews.com/latest-additions/20613-nigerian-women-who-will-shape-seventh-national-assembly.html>

Ogunmola, D. and Badmus, I. A."Meeting the Challenges of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria: Problems, Possibilities and Prospects
http://www.latrobe.edu.au/humansecurity/assets/downloads/MDGconpapers/Ogunmola_and_Badmus.pdf

Parsons, T. (1951) *The Social System*. New York: Free Press.

Philip, A. (1990). *The 1988 Nigerian Civil Service Reforms and Their Post 1992 Prospects*. Ibadan: NISER Publication.

Powell, G. B. (1982) *Contemporary Democracies: Participation, Stability, and Violence*. England: Harvard University Press.

Riggs, F. W. (1964) *Administration in Developing Countries: The Theory of Prismatic Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Sanda, A. O. (1991) *Essays in Public Administration*. Ibadan: Fact Finders International.

Smelser, N. (1966) *Modernization and the Structures of Societies* Vol. 1. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

UNDP (2007). "UNDP's support to the achievement of the MDGs in Nigeria"
<http://www.ng.undp.org/nigeriamdgs.shtml> Accessed June 14, 2011.

Wilson, W. (1887). "The Study of Administration" *Political Science Quarterly*, June 1887.

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS: VERITABLE TOOLS FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

By

Adekunle Oluwole Binuyo

Oluseyi Oduyoye

Department of Business Administration and Marketing

Babcock University, Ilisan Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.

P.M.B 21244, Ikeja, Lagos, Nigeria.

Abstract

This study investigated the millennium developments goals as veritable tools for economic development with emphasis on impact on productivity, employment, longevity, standard of living and cost of living in Nigeria. One hundred and forty structured questionnaires were distributed among the following groups of people that were randomly selected. Entrepreneurs (20 copies), Health workers (20), Married women (20), University Students (20), Civil Servants (20), Teachers (20), and Private Sector workers (20) to test the hypotheses that Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have not significantly contributed to economic development of Nigeria, that MDGs have no significant impact on Maternal Health Outcomes, and finally that there is no significant relationship between MDGs and Longevity. One way ANOVA was used to test the hypothesis of the study. The study revealed that Millennium Development Goals have a significant contribution on the economic development of Nigeria. Based on the findings and conclusions, the paper recommended that the various levels of Government should take pragmatic steps to ensure strict continuous implementation of the MDGs program for the benefits of the entire Nigerian citizenry and also in the interest of continuous progressive development of the Nigerian economy.

Introduction

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are a series of time - bound development targets aimed at addressing the challenge of under-development. The MDGs address issues of poverty, education, gender equality and empowerment, child mortality rates, maternal health, H.I.V and Aids with other diseases, Environmental Sustainability and global partnership for development. The developing countries of the world are beset with myriads of problems which bothered on poverty. Hence, the one hundred and ninety two members United Nations came together and unanimously resolved to deal with the various poverty-related issues. The plan by the international community is to resolve these issues by the year 2015. This is perhaps the most significant step in the war against poverty.

The consequential effects of these and other related problems are quite evident in the lives of the citizenry. For example, a child dies every 3 minutes in Nigeria due to poor sanitation. The use of contaminated water in the midst of in-sanitary conditions explains the prevalence of water and sanitation related but preventable diseases (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004). "Diarrhea, which results from poor sanitary/hygienic habits and consumption of water of poor quality is the second main cause of infant mortality after malaria and the third main cause of under-five mortality" (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004:5). Malaria which is believed to be responsible for school absenteeism and general low productivity

in work and farm places is prevalent in about half of the Nigerian population (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004). The prevalence of malaria has direct correlation with poor water and sanitation situation.

This same problem is not limited to Nigeria alone, Ethiopia is among the countries with the least access to potable water supply and different studies have pointed this out. For example, according to Tefera (2005) and Meseret (2008) only 30% of the population in 2001 had access to drinkable water, 70% of this number is urban based, and this figure increased slightly to 34% in 2003, and 47.3% in 2006 (PASDEP 2006) yet, Ethiopia is largely rural, where over 80% of the population are rural dwellers, (Getachew, 2002). Data from the Ministry of Health shows that the top ten diseases across the country are mainly related to environment and sanitation, thus making inadequate access to water a critical issue.

Poor access to water supply and sanitation limits opportunities to escape poverty and exacerbates the problems of vulnerable and marginalized groups, especially those affected by HIV/AIDS and other diseases (DWAF 2003; WHO, 2004).

Objectives of the study

The broad objective of this study is to establish the relationship between Economic Performance and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The specific objectives are as follows:

- To determine the relationship between longevity and MDGs.
- To affirm the effect of MDGs and National Productivity.
- To identify the relationship between MDGs and Maternal Death.
- To highlight the benefits of MDGs to the citizenry.

Statement of the problem

The developing countries are confronted with diverse challenges that threaten quality of life of their citizens. These challenges have adverse effects on the citizens in diverse ways all of which jointly combine to adversely affect the economic growth of the country and as such requires pragmatic steps to resolve in the interest of growth of the National Productivity and Income.

This is because economic growth is linked to poverty reduction which is the target of the MDGs. Its effect on economic growth is in a cyclical manner. Therefore, carefully thought out mechanism that ensures functional nexus of infrastructural services and economic activities are rudimentary ingredients for livable human settlements. Livability, in this context, refers to overcoming poverty, providing basic public services, maintaining minimum level of environmental standards, adequate housing, security and safe environment, access to amenity and learning institutions as well as other necessity of normal living.

Hypotheses

This study aims at testing the following hypotheses:

Ho: Millennium Development Goals have no significant effects on economic growth.

Ho: Millennium Development Goals have no significant impact on Maternal Death.

Ho: There is no significant relationship between Millennium Development Goals and Longevity.

Literature review

The Millennium Development Goals are a set of eight development programs that the one hundred and ninety two members United Nations agreed to implement so as to drastically reduced poverty to the barest minimum as will be seen in the following targets set to be achieved on or before the year 2015:

Goal one: Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger.

Goal two: Achieve Universal Primary Education.

Goal three: Promote Gender Equality and Empowerment.

- Goal four: Reduce child Mortality rates.
- Goal five: Improve Maternal Health.
- Goal six: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria, and other diseases.
- Goal seven: Ensure Environmental Sustainability.
- Goal Eight: Develop Global Partnership for Development.

Several authors reported the multiple challenges confronting developing nations arising from the condition of poverty which has hitherto confronted developing nations head on. Adequate access to social welfare services, such as medical services, education, potable water supply, roads, electricity, employment opportunities etc, are strong indices of development (Adeyemo, 1989). Potable water supply is both a function of adequate and accessible functional water infrastructure. The United Nations' estimates of 1.1 billion people lacking access to safe drinking water, is compounded by the record of 2.4 billion people without access to adequate sanitation. The implication of this is the hundreds of millions of cases of water related illnesses and more than 5 million deaths every year (Cunningham, 2004). Globally about four (4) million cases of diarrhea every year is responsible for the death of some 2.2 million people, majority of which are children under the age of five (5) years (AWDR 2006). In Africa, about 38% (Meseret 2008) of the populations or over 300 million (AWDR 2006) people have no access to safe water supply, a higher proportion than in any other region in the world.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have focused global attention on significantly improving maternal and infant health. In 2008 70% of around 8.8 million under-five deaths occurred during the first year of life (World Health Organization, 2010). Estimates suggest that there are around 350,000-500,000 maternal deaths per year (United Nations Joint Action Plan 2010) with 15 million more women suffering long-lasting injury or illness from preventable pregnancy-related causes and complications (United Nations Joint Action Plan 2010) and many more suffering related mental morbidities (Hogan *et al.* 2010). Data from the Ministry of Health shows that the top ten diseases across the country are mainly related to environment and sanitation, thus making inadequate access to water a critical issue.

The burden of maternal and infant deaths falls disproportionately on low income countries (LICs) and lower middle income countries (LMICs) and among the poorest within these countries. The causes of maternal and infant mortality and morbidity are well established (Ronsmans & Graham 2006) yet knowledge on effective management of conditions has not been translated into significantly improved outcomes because of a lack of effective models of service delivery (Campbell & Graham 2006). Urban populations are often assumed to have better access to health care than those living in rural areas. However, urban health systems in many LICs and LMICs have a weak to non-existent public health structure, a non-uniform implementation of strategies and underdeveloped infrastructures. Although urban women tend to be more likely than rural women to give birth in health facilities, urban inequalities in maternal-newborn health care are huge in many poor countries (Matthews *et al.* 2010), and poor quality of care in many urban facilities plays a significant role in counteracting the positive effects of skilled attendance at birth (More *et al.* 2009). Sub-optimal health outcomes are evident among the urban poor with the lowest access and use of health care facilities.

Establishing evidence-based ways of improving access to and uptake of maternal and infant care models in urban areas is of increasing importance as rapid urbanization is taking place in many LICs and LMICs and poor urban and peri-urban communities are growing.

Table 1: Table of Maternal Health Outcomes and their Definitions

Table 1: MCH outcomes Maternal health outcomes	Definition
Maternal death	The death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and site of the pregnancy, from any cause related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management. The summary indicator to be used is the Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) defined as the number of maternal deaths per 100,000 live births.
Late maternal death	Death of a woman from direct or indirect obstetric causes more than 42 days but less than one year after termination of pregnancy.
Severe acute maternal morbidity ("near miss")	Based on major direct obstetric complications or interventions in low income countries (Prual <i>et al.</i> 2000): Haemorrhage ³ Dystocia ⁴ Hypertension ⁵ Sepsis ⁶ Incomplete abortion C-section / hysterectomy / blood transfusion ⁷
Infant mortality	Number of deaths among under one year olds AND Infant deaths per 1,000 live births.
Neonatal mortality	Number of deaths in the first 28 days of life per 1,000 live births.
Post neonatal mortality	Number of deaths after the first 28 days of life and before 1 st birthday per 1,000 live births.
Perinatal mortality	Number of stillbirths and deaths in the first week of life per 1,000 live births.

Source: WHO, (2004)

The target of Millennium Development Goal No. 3 is to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and at all levels by 2015. The positive thing about Millennium Development Goals is that they are targeted to help those who are poor, marginalized, and underprivileged in society. Women in the dry lands fit into this category. It is important to note that gender equality is broader than the attainment of primary and secondary education. There are related

issues such as ending violence against women, an issue that is notably absent in the Millennium Development Goals and target. It is obvious that violence against women represents a key barrier to gender equality and women's empowerment and those women who are victims of domestic violence are less productive on the job, leading directly to a decrease in national output. Empowerment of women in the spirit of promotion of gender equality required that there must be the opportunity not only to be schooled but also to be allowed to use that education to obtain decent work and also to participate in political decision-making. Furthermore, empowerment requires agency – the ability of women to control their own destiny.

Methodology

Primary data was used in this study. Structured questionnaire was administered to Health workers, Entrepreneurs, Married women, University students, Civil servants, Teachers, and Private sector workers. Twenty questionnaires were distributed to all the various people sampled for this study. A total of one hundred and forty questionnaires were served on the target audience. A total of one hundred and twenty five questionnaires were filled and returned making a total of 89%.

The respondents were drawn from Oyo and Ogun states in Nigeria in a two stage sampling technique. In the first instance, the population was stratified into seven as reflected. Thereafter, by random sampling questionnaires were served on twenty individuals from each of the seven strata. The hypotheses will be tested using one way ANOVA .

Table 2: Table of one way ANOVA **ANOVA**

Predictor Variables		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
EMPLOYMENT	Between Groups	302.494	26	11.634	9.605	.000
	Within Groups	118.706	98	1.211		
	Total	421.200	124			
PRODUCTIVITY	Between Groups	6974.609	26	268.254	162.890	.000
	Within Groups	161.391	98	1.647		
	Total	7136.000	124			
LONGEVITY	Between Groups	3171.838	26	121.994	58.004	.000
	Within Groups	206.114	98	2.103		
	Total	3377.952	124			
LIVINGSTD	Between Groups	238.014	26	9.154	6.875	.000
	Within Groups	130.498	98	1.332		
	Total	368.512	124			
LIVINGCOST	Between Groups	333.722	26	12.835	9.228	.000
	Within Groups	136.310	98	1.391		
	Total	470.032	124			

Source: Field Survey, 2011

ANOVA(b)

Table 3: Table of Multiple Classification ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12589.279	5	2517.856	2413.809	.000(a)
	Residual	124.129	119	1.043		
	Total	12713.408	124			

a Predictors: (Constant), LIVINGCOST, PRODUCTIVITY, LONGEVITY, LIVINGSTD, and EMPLOYMENT

b Dependent Variable: ECONOMICPERF

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 4: Regression Result Model Summary

Model Summary ^a										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.995 ^a	.990	.990	1.02133	.990	2413.809	5	119	.000	1.100

a. Predictors: (Constant), LIVINGCOST, PRODUCTIVITY, LONGEVITY, LIVINGSTD, EMPLOYMENT

b. Dependent Variable: ECONOMICPERF

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 5: Table of Coefficients

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	18.514	1.469		12.603	.000
	EMPLOYMENT	.983	.064	.179	15.394	.000
	PRODUCTIVITY	.988	.012	.740	79.388	.000
	LONGEVITY	.968	.018	.499	54.678	.000
	LIVINGSTD	.726	.068	.124	10.738	.000
	LIVINGCOST	.674	.061	.130	10.971	.000

a Dependent Variable: ECONOMICPERF

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Findings and Discussions

Findings from this study are as follows:

From table 2 above, the F- values indicates relationships between the dependent variable (Economic Development), and the explanatory variables namely: Employment, Productivity, Longevity, Standard of Living, and Cost of Living. The relationship between Economic Development and each of the individual explanatory variables is significant as their respective F-values (one way ANOVA table) are higher than table value (1.63). The order of significance being highest with Productivity {F (26, 98) = 162.890; P

<0.05}. The order of significance being lowest with Standard of Living {F (26, 98) = 6.875; P < 0.05}. Thus, the second and third hypotheses are rejected in turns since the F-values in each of the two cases invalidated them. Similarly, from the table of Multiple Classifications ANOVA, the combined F-value (table 3 above) also showed that the predictor variables are jointly significant F (5,119) = 2413.809; P < 0.05. Thus, the first hypothesis is also invalidated.

From table 5 above, the relative contribution of each of the predictor variables to Economic Growth is seen. The highest contribution according to the table comes from Productivity (T 124df) = 79.388; P < 0.05 and the lowest relative contribution comes from Standard of Living (T 124df) = 10.738; P < 0.05. It is noteworthy that these results are in perfect agreement with those which were obtained from F-values as previously discussed above.

From table 3 (above), the coefficient of Determination, R^2 , showed that 99% of the changes observed in the dependent variable (Economic Growth) is attributable to the independent variables. From the table of coefficients, a model showing the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables in the form:

Economic Growth = 18.514 + 0.983 Employment + 0.988 Productivity + 0.968 Longevity + 0.726 Living Standard + 0.674 Cost of Living

Conclusion

The Millennium Development Goals are laudable programs as designed by the United Nations. The programs if properly funded according to the research paradigm are veritable tools indeed for Development.

The basic thrust of the MDGs is to make economic growth more inclusive than it has been in the past and to bring all the world's people to basic standards of health and education that modern technologies make readily feasible. Better health and education, besides directly improving people's welfare, will also strengthen their capacities to contribute to, and participate in, the growth process. Because the large majority of poor people live in rural areas often far distant from growth centers, a more pro-poor pattern of growth and development will necessarily involve higher investment in infrastructure, and in transport, than would be required for growth without particular priority for poverty reduction.

References

Adeyemo, A.M. (1989): Spatial Variation in Accessibility to Secondary School Facilities in Oyo State. *Unpublished Ph.D. thesis* Geography Department, University of Ibadan Nigeria.

AWDR, (2006): African Water Development Report; UN Water/Africa Economic Commission for Africa unwaterafrica.uneca.org. Accessed on 30/04/2009.

Campbell, O.M.J. and Graham, W. (2006): Strategies for Reducing Maternal Mortality: Getting on with what works. *The Lancet* 368:1284-99.

Cunningham W.P. & Cunningham M.A. (2004): Principles of Environmental

Science: Inquiring and Applications, McGraw. Hill Higher Education.

FGN (2004): Federal Government Nigeria: Draft National Water-Sanitation Policy; The Federal Ministry of Water Resources, Abuja.

Gatechew, A. (2002): Managing Sustainable Rural Water Supply in Ethiopia, Ministry of Water Resources, Addis Ababa Ethiopia www.ilri.org/publications. Accessed on 02/01/2009.

Hogan, M.C., Fareman, K.J., Naghavi, M., Ahn, S.Y., Wang, M., Makela, S.M., Lopez, A.D., Lozano, R. and Murray, C.J.L. (2010): Maternal Mortality for 181 countries, 1980 – 2008: A Systematic Analysis of Progress towards Millennium Development Goal 5. *Lancet* 375:1609-23.

Matthews, Z., Channon, A., Neal, S., Osrin, D., Madise, N. and Stones, W. (2010): Examining the Urban Advantage in Maternal Healthcare in Developing Countries. *PLOS Medicine*.

Meseret, A. (2008): Analysis of Household Water Accessibility in Dessie Town; Amhara Regional State of Ethiopia, *M.A Thesis in Urban Management*, Ethiopian Civil Service College Addis Ababa.

More, N.S., Bapat, D.S., Barnett, S., Costello, A., Fernandez, A. and Osrin, D. (2009): Inequalities in Maternity Care and Newborn Outcomes: One-Year Surveillance of Births in Vulnerable Slum Communities in Mumbai. *International Journal for Equity in Health* 8:21.

PASDEP (2006): A Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP) (2005/06-2009/10), Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon (2010) *Investing in Our Common Future. Joint Action Plan for Women's and Children's Health*. UN, New York, US.
WHO (2004), Water Sanitation and Health (WSH), Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Links to Health, Facts and Figures.

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND THE POVERTY QUESTION IN NIGERIA

BY

DR. FATILE, JACOB OLUFEMI

ADEJUWON, KEHINDE DAVID

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

LAGOS STATE UNIVERSITY, OJO

LAGOS STATE

Abstract

Over the past decades, Nigeria's preoccupation with development has had very marginal success. The past failures and depressing prospects have provoked a great amount of concern. Poverty is of the global problem that has plagued nations like Nigeria with seemingly no workable solution in sight. Attempts at reducing poverty and deprivation seem to have defiled domestic and international development programmes. Undisputedly, Nigerians suffer in the midst of plenty despite numerous poverty eradication programmes gulping billions of naira. These and many others have given the country a bad image locally and internationally. The paper examined the poverty question in Nigeria within the context of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), adopted by the United Nations in 2000. The paper highlights the rising poverty profile and the challenges of achieving the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria. This paper analyses the effect of eradicating poverty in Nigeria via the instrumentality of the MDGs. The paper found out that there is no correlation between poverty alleviation programmes and the level of poverty. The paper recommends the formulation and implementation of policies that can overcome the institutional constraints that militate against actualization of the Millennium Development Goals of eradicating poverty in Nigeria within the targeted time frame.

Introduction

The issue of poverty and measures to reduce the incidence of poverty have remained at the front burner of government policies the world over in the last two decades. Due to precarious socio-economic ambience and the global publicity it has generated, sub-Saharan Africa has become synonymous with poverty, and Nigeria hosts the largest population of poor people in the region. From the 1980s, the poverty situation in Nigeria has been galloping as empirical studies have shown. For an average Nigerian, to achieve a dignified living condition in a truly human sense is difficult. Poverty is more endemic in the rural areas and the Northern zones still demonstrate no hope of escaping extreme poverty.

Specifically, the governments at the various levels in Nigeria have introduced different poverty alleviation programmes (Eriki and Okafor, 2005). However, since independence, successive governments have made different attempts to combat the scourge, but the failure of the interventions explains the inherent limitations in domestically generated ideas on poverty reduction. Poor governance, official kleptocracy, weak legislative framework and poor budgeting culture have largely been responsible. Although several ideas have been generated domestically to address the scourge but the persistence of poverty in large scale

explains the inherent limitations in government interventionist measures. Consequent upon this, the inauguration of the MDGs, which represents an attempt at combating poverty through global partnership for development, appears to constitute the key to Nigeria's escape from poverty trap. Worrisomely however, the current progress towards the attainment of the goals is approximately at a snail's pace (Oshewolo, 2011).

With the recognition of poverty as a common denominator in the global community, The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were adopted in September 2000. The overall goal of the Millennium Declaration which gave birth to the MDGs was a reinstatement of commitment to free all men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty by the year 2015. With reference to sub-Saharan Africa including Nigeria, the inauguration of the MDGs more or less represents an exit strategy from poverty trap.

Millenium development goals and poverty: Conceptual clarifications

The MDGs came into existence in September 2000 at the United Nations Millennium Summit held in New York. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) according to the Socialist International (2005) is part of the social democratic approach to governance in a global society. At the 2000 UN millennium summit, 189 heads of state and government committed on behalf of their people in the millennium declaration to free their fellow citizens from the abject dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty. The declaration reaffirms universal values of equality, mutual respect and shared responsibilities for the conditions of all peoples and seeks to redress the lopsided benefits of globalization. At the heart of the declaration are human rights, peace, gender equity, environment and the pressing priorities of the least developed countries and Africa. Eight millennium development goals emerged from this declaration, firmly committing governments to an ambitious set of goals and targets by a deadline of 2015 (Socialist International, 2005).

MDG is aimed at reducing the number of people who lived on less than a dollar in year 2015 by pursuing the following eight objectives; Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; Achieve universal primary education; Promote equality and empower women; Reduce child mortality; Improve maternal health; Combat HIV/AIDs, Malaria and other diseases; Ensure environmental sustainability; and Develop a global partnership for development (FRN, 2006).

The millennium development goals explicitly recognize in its goals – that eradicating poverty and its underlying causes requires a global partnership for development. In the goal, rich and poor country leaders recognized their shared role and responsibilities to eradicate poverty worldwide (Chukwuemeka, 2009).

Poverty may be difficult to define. This is because many people see it in different perspectives. Quite a number of works have been done on the concept of poverty but rather than reaching a consensus on its meaning, scholarly works have proliferated alternative poverty concepts and indicators. This condition explains the complexity involved in the conceptual analysis and dissection of poverty (Oshewolo, 2011).

Poverty is not new but at each mention, it stirs a lot of misgiving. This is because it has a very devastating influence on its victims. It reduces the social and psychological prestige of its victims. In the view of Anger (2010), poverty is a condition of being poor. This could be evidenced even amidst plenty because there could be reeking poverty as a result of lack of knowledge to translate potentiality into practical

creative benefits to actuate well being. In other words, if there is a poverty of something, it therefore means that there is a lack of it or the quality of it is extremely low. Galbraith (1969) defines poverty as a condition in which when the incomes of a people, even adequate for survival, fall radically behind that of the community and as such the people live outside the grades or categories which the community regards as acceptable.

Ravallion and Bidani (1994) see poverty as a condition where there is lack of command over basic needs, that is, a situation of inadequate level of consumption; giving rise to insufficient food, clothing and shelter. This means that poverty incapacitates the victim by placing him below a minimum standard of living. According to Gore (2002:6), poverty is all-pervasive where the majority of the population lives at or below income levels sufficient to meet their basic needs, and the available resources even where equally distributed, are barely sufficient to meet the basic needs of the population. Gore (2002) reiterates further that pervasive poverty leads to environmental degradation, as people have to eat into the environmental capital stock to survive. When this happens, the productivity of key assets on which livelihood depends is greatly undermined. Sen (1987) sees poverty as the lack of certain capabilities that make it difficult for them to participate with dignity.

Corbett (2009) defines poverty as a condition of having insufficient resources or income. In its extreme form, it is characterized by lack of basic human needs such as adequate and nutritious food, clothing, clean water, and health services. To Adejo (2006) poverty can be manifested in poverty of history, poverty of intellect and poverty of ideology. In any case the deprived are usually the poor. These are people of insufficient income, inadequate food intake, lack basic healthcare, lack shelter and safe drinking water, poor environmental cleanliness, lack access to basic education and skills, ignorant of fundamental human rights, and access to information. These according to Anger (2010) however constituted the challenge and focus of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Friedman (1966) viewed poverty as a form of disempowerment that can be viewed from three dimensions: socio-economic, political and psychological. To him, socioeconomic disempowerment refers to relative lack of access to the resources essential for livelihood; political disempowerment refers to lack of clear political agenda and voice; while psychological disempowerment relates to people's internalized sense of worthlessness and passive submission to authority. Poverty is caused by a number of factors such as overpopulation, unequal or poor distribution of income or resources, lack of education, natural disaster, corruption, etc.

Poverty profile and the failure of government's interventions

Poverty is a crisis that is habitual and it conveys message of hardship difficult to deny. It speaks publicly through visible misery, persisting destitution, endemic hunger and visible malnutrition (Akanmidu, 2004:3). Nigeria as noted by World Bank (2005) has the third largest number of the poor in the world after China and India. Consequent upon this is the fact that poverty has become more than before a serious social problem and tops the country's list of policy priorities.

Despite Africa's tangible achievements on the economic growth front for the past few years, there is consensus that this positive economic performance has not yet had a demonstrably meaningful impact on poverty eradication. Furthermore, the progress in reducing poverty is complicated by highly skewed

income distribution that limits the prospects for translating any gains from economic growth into shared prosperity and meaningful poverty reduction (ECA, 2007).

The poverty situation in Nigeria is galloping. Abiola and Olaopa (2008) state that the scourge of poverty in Nigeria is an incontrovertible fact, which results in hunger, ignorance, malnutrition, disease, unemployment, poor access to credit facilities, and low life expectancy as well as a general level of human hopelessness. Official statistics show that in 1980 the national (average) poverty incidence was 28.1 per cent of the population. The distribution of the incidence across the states of the federation showed a maximum of 49.5 per cent recorded for Plateau (and Nassarawa which was excised from Plateau). This meant that every state had a poverty incidence below 50 per cent. By 1985, the national (average) poverty incidence had risen to 46.3 per cent, with the maximum of 68.9 per cent recorded in Bauchi (and Gombe which was carved out of Bauchi). As at 1996, the national average stood at 65.6 per cent with Sokoto, Kebbi and Zamfara (all old Sokoto State) recording the highest incidence of 83.6 per cent; followed by Bauchi and Gombe with 83.5 per cent. As at 2000, the incidence of poverty was believed to have risen to 70 per cent at the national level (Obadan, 2008).

As noted by Aigbokhan (2000), poverty is higher in the rural areas than in urban areas. In 2004, the urban population with access to water was 67 percent, while it was 31 per cent in the rural areas. In terms of sanitation services, 53 per cent of the urban population had access to sanitation services and 36 per cent in the rural areas. This is worse than the situation in Cameroon, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe (World Bank, 2008). The description of Nigeria as a paradox by the World Bank (1996) has continued to be confirmed by events and official statistics in the country. The paradox is that the poverty level in Nigeria contradicts the country's immense wealth.

Poverty in Nigeria, a country with over 140 million people is all encompassing (Anger, 2010). The scourge has also shown a rising tendency in the past couple of decades accounting for the nations low development indicators and its ranking alongside the poorest nations in the world (United Nations, 2001). Poverty is very real in Nigeria, over the last twelve years; the quality of life of the average Nigerian citizen has progressively nose-dived. It is so endemic that people have started seeing it as part of their lot in life (Anger, 2010). The country is rich but the people are poor. Given this condition, Nigeria should rank among the richest countries that should not suffer poverty entrapment. However, the monumental increase in the level of poverty has made the socio-economic landscape frail and fragile. Today, Nigeria is ranked among the poorest countries in the world (United Nations, 2007).

Nigeria remains a poor country with an annual per capital income of barely \$300. This figure is below the sub-Saharan average of \$450. At the dawn of the third millennium, approximately 70 per cent of the population still lived on less than US \$1 a day, an indication of extreme poverty. Real GDP growth has remained sluggish averaging 3.5 per cent per annum since 2000. Nigeria is among the 20 countries in the world with the widest gap between the rich and the poor. The total income earned by the richest 20 per cent of the population is 55.7 per cent while the total income earned by the poorest 20 percent is 4.4 percent. In terms of human development index, Nigeria is ranked 158th of the 159 countries surveyed in 2005 (Igbuzor, 2006).

Based on the above, Nigeria has been classified as a poor nation; a situation which can be described as a bewildering paradox given the vast resource base of the country. In Nigeria, as observed by Nwaobi (2003), the problem of poverty has, for a fairly long time, been a cause of concern to the government. As a result, the government's efforts at combating the menace actually started immediately after the attainment of independence in 1960 (Omotola, 2008).

The pervasive poverty situation in Nigeria clearly betrays the high hopes at independence that the country would emerge as a major industrial haven in the world. The high hopes were hinged on the availability of abundant natural and material resources in the country. Today, Nigeria is ranked among the poorest economies in the world; a situation described in Nigeria's political lexicon as a 'bewildering paradox.

Despite several attempts by successive governments to ameliorate the scourge, the level of poverty is geometrically increasing. As noted by Okonjo-Iweala, Soludo and Muhtar (2003), poverty is deep and pervasive, with about 70 percent of the population living in absolute poverty. No wonder, Nwaobi (2003) asserts that Nigeria presents a paradox.

According to Garba (2006), all the poverty alleviation initiatives in Nigeria since independence have yielded very little fruit. He claims that the programmes were mostly not designed to alleviate poverty, they lacked clearly defined policy frameworks with proper guidelines for poverty alleviation, they suffered from political instability, interference, policy, and macroeconomic dislocations, they lacked continuity, and they are riddled with corruption, political deception, outright kleptomania, and distasteful looting. The failure to effectively combat the problem has largely been blamed on infrastructural decay, endemic corruption, and poor governance and accountability (Okonjo-Iweala, Soludo and Muhtar, 2003).

The fight against poverty has been a central plank of development planning since independence in 1960 and about fifteen ministries, fourteen specialized agencies, and nineteen donor agencies and non-governmental organizations have been involved in the decades of this crusade but about 70 percent of Nigerians still live in poverty (Soludo, 2003).

In the light of the government's concern for poverty reduction, numerous policies and programmes have been designed at one time or another, if not to meet the special needs of the poor, at least to reach them. The advent of the Structural Adjustment Programme in 1986 brought out more forcefully the need for policies and programmes to alleviate poverty and provide safety-net for the poor. This emphasis arose from an awareness of the unintended negative effects of structural adjustment policies on the vulnerable groups in the society. While structural adjustment had its salutary effects on economic growth, it lacked emphasis on development and also accentuated socio-economic problems of income inequality, unequal access to food, shelter, education, health and other necessities of life. It indeed, aggravated the incidence of poverty among many vulnerable groups in the society (Obadan, 2008).

Until the inauguration of a Poverty Alleviation Programme Development Committee (PAPDC) by the Nigerian government in 1994, all efforts at poverty alleviation were essentially ad-hoc. It was generally the case that poverty alleviation programmes and strategies were not crystallised and consolidated within the nation's overall development objectives. This view is borne out of a perusal of the various National Development Plans over 1962-85 period, and National Rolling Plans from 1990 (Obadan, 2008).

The government of Obasanjo introduced the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) in 1999 as an interim antipoverty measure (Nwaobi, 2003). PAP specifically seeks to provide jobs for 200,000 unemployed people; create a credit delivery system from which farmers would have access to credit facilities; increase the adult literacy rate from 51 per cent to 70 per cent by the year 2003; shoot up the healthcare delivery system from 40 per cent to 70 per cent by the year 2003; increase the immunization of children from 40 per cent to 100 per cent raise the rural water supply and rural electrification from 30 per cent to 60 per cent; embark on training and settlement of at least 60 per cent of tertiary institution's graduates; and develop simple processes and small-scale industries. This interventionist programme, notwithstanding poverty, incidence remained unprecedented in Nigeria (Oshewolo, 2010).

The target of NAPEP was to completely wipe out poverty from Nigeria by the year 2010. Three stages to the attainment of this objective was identified as: the restoration of hope in the mass of poor people in Nigeria, which involves providing basic necessities to hitherto neglected people, particularly in the rural areas; the restoration of economic independence and confidence; and wealth creation (Elumilade, Asaolu, and Adereti, 2006). Although NAPEP appears to be well crafted, the prevalence of poverty in Nigeria and the various dimensions it has taken, place the activities of NAPEP in the realm of prospective analysis (Omotola, 2008).

Obasanjo poverty eradication programme centered on youth empowerment, rural infrastructure development, provision of social welfare services and natural resource development and conservation. The increasing incidence of poverty, both within and among locations, was in spite of various resources and efforts exerted on poverty-related programmes and schemes in the country, thus suggesting that the programmes and schemes were ineffective and ineffectual. Not only has the failure to ensure the successful implementation of the various programmes and policies made the incidence of poverty to loom large, the phenomenon has continued to spread and deepen. And very many factors have tended to compound the poverty situation, among which are: slow economic growth, economic mismanagement, infrastructural deficiencies, weak political commitment to poverty alleviation programmes and measures, and a host of macroeconomic and sectoral problems such as inflation, rising unemployment, exchange rate depreciation, external debt overhang, etc (CBN, 1999:68-73).

In addition to the above, the management of Poverty Eradication Programme (PEP) was worsened by the adoption of a top-bottom approach in the implementation of the policy. The target groups, who are the poor in the society who are predominantly in the countryside, were hardly reached due to the fact that the programme existed at the state and local government headquarters, but failed to have linkage with the traditional and community leaders for effective penetration of the grassroots (Eze, 2003).

The dismal performance and achievements of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) gave impetus to holistic and elaborate conception of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) at the federal level. At the state level, it was tagged "State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) while at the local level, it was coined as Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS). The programme was holistic and elaborative in the sense that it was designed to address a wide range of socio-economic and political issues in the country most especially in the rural areas by reforming governmental institutions, developing

the private sectors, implementation of social charters and value orientation (Yakubu and Aderonmu, 2010).

These poverty reduction measures notwithstanding, poverty has consistently been on the increase in Nigeria, showing the ineffectiveness of the strategies and programmes. The failure of these measures has been attributed to lack of targeting mechanisms for the poor; political and policy instability; inadequate coordination of various programmes; several budgetary, management, and governance problems; lack of accountability and transparency; and lack of mechanisms for the sustainability of the programs (Obadan, 2001). The policies of the pre-SAP and SAP eras obviously failed to eradicate poverty in Nigeria.

Presently, the poverty situation in the country point to the fact that the various attempts made over the years to eradicate poverty have not yielded practical outcome that have alleviated poverty. Lack of commitment and continuity, policy inconsistency, corruption, weak institutional support among others hindered the efforts of government at reducing poverty. This evidence points to the fact that Nigeria is not prepared to and cannot win the war against poverty within the target line of 2015.

The juxtaposition of the conceptual analysis above and the practical reality in Nigeria reveal that there is high-level mass and pervasive poverty in the country. This explains why the attainment of the MDGs and poverty reduction in Nigeria require massive efforts from governments at all levels and other stakeholders including the international donors.

Eradicating poverty in Nigeria within the framework of Millennium Development Goals

It is so pathetic in the sense that the country that is potentially rich in oil and gas and other natural and agricultural resources cannot boast of putting foods on the tables of its citizens. In fact, an average Nigerian is said to be living below one dollar. Findings revealed that the foundation of most social vices and corrupt practices both in high and low places is this scourge called poverty. Nigerian is rated as one of the poorest country of the world; a country with abundant resources both in human and mineral replication (Anger, 2010). But in the present democratic dispensation, poverty level in Nigeria is reducing as a result of poverty reduction programmes embarked upon by the administration.

Poverty reduction is one and first among a set of eight strategic development goals globally packaged to fast track sustainable development in all especially developing nations of the world. The onerous task of accomplishing the goals especially that of poverty reduction has captured the attention and agitated the interest of Nigeria. This growing interest and concern is envisaged, considering the global consciousness to address extreme poverty with its correlates of hunger, disease, inadequate shelter, high child and maternal mortality, high illiteracy level among others.

The poverty profile in Nigeria over the years has consistently assumed an evolutionary trajectory. This indicates that a significant number of people in Nigeria are living below the poverty line (Ikhariale 2007). It is as a result of this and others maladies that are experienced by the citizens of the world especially the Third World countries, that the United Nations in year 2000 in a meeting popularly referred to as Millennium Summit in the United States of America and arrived at the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). According to UN, the 189 members of this organization, by 2015 are supposed to have met

these goals. The nine goals have the 'eradication of extreme poverty and hunger' as the first goal to be met in the stipulated year.

It is probably no coincidence that the eradication of poverty and hunger figures as the first Goal of the MDG agenda. In the words of Haslegrave and Bernstein (2005), it is the lynchpin of the goal framework. Although there is substantial agreement that poverty is a multi-dimensional phenomenon that refers to the lack of options with respect to a number of dimensions of the quality of life (Sen, 1982, 1985), MDG Target 1 (i.e, eradication of poverty and extreme hunger), is formulated in conventional monetary terms. One possible way to read the MDG agenda is that the reduction of poverty – in the wider sense – is the central objective to which the other MDGs must contribute in one way or another. In this case, one should consider all the Targets as dimensions of poverty reduction, of which the reduction of monetary poverty and hunger are a central, but by no means the only component. At the same time, the realisation of the other Goals will benefit importantly from the achievement of Target 1.

Just like other countries at the UN Millennium Summit that gave birth to the MDGs, Nigeria launched her own version of the MDGs poverty reduction or eradication programme. This and other programmes targeted at achieving MDGs are contained in the NEEDS document. In fact, NEEDS has 'poverty reduction' as its third actionable goal (Anger, 2010).

In view of the practical impact of the MDGs on the different dimensions of poverty in Nigeria, the MDGs have been fully domesticated through the creation of MDGs office. Despite the implementation of the MDGs in Nigeria and the activities of other poverty alleviation agencies, the scourge still remains widespread. With the present State of affairs, the attainment of the MDGs benchmarked for 2015 remains a daunting challenge. If the challenges are therefore not addressed, Nigerian may remain in the doldrums for a long time to come. However, it is worth remarking that certain feats have been achieved but the current rate of progress is approximately at a snail's pace.

A major strategy for the implementation of MGDs in Nigeria as earlier noted is the NEEDs. The targets are to half by 2015 the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day. The second target is half by 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger (MDG, 2006). Findings in 2004 indicated that poverty was more acute in rural areas in Nigeria and that some geo-political zones were particularly harder hit than others by the phenomenon while unemployment kept souring with the worst affected age bracket being 13-25 years (MDG, 2006).

It is disheartening to discover that the Nigerian government did not meet these targets as contained in the policy document. Statistics reveal that Nigerians (especially the common man on the street) do not have access to safe drinking water, primary health care and the rate of unemployment is increasing on a daily basis. This paints an abnormal picture of the failure of NEEDS as a poverty reduction policy (Anger, 2010).

By and large, the poverty reduction or alleviation programme of the government via the instrumentality of the MDGs and NEEDS has failed because of corruption and misappropriation of funds that are meant to carry out the programme. So MDGs have not successfully tackled the challenges of poverty in the country.

What need to be done?

The poverty situation in Nigeria is complex and therefore requires a complex intervention process. This process must necessarily involve the state, market and civil society institutions. Poverty in Nigeria is multi-faceted and deeply rooted. As such, an effective poverty reduction strategy in Nigeria must reflect its multidimensional nature, incorporating economic, social, cultural and political dimensions. Consequently, achieving the MDGs and hence unsustainable development through poverty reduction would require the decisive commitment of all stakeholders involved –individuals, communities, governments, non-governmental organizations and relevant international agencies.

Given the huge development needs of the Nigerian populace, the intervention of the State, through the formulation of welfarist policies, is still a necessary political action. Therefore, to reposition the state, a substantial reform of the sector is necessary to deal with the social maladies associated with its activities. From a normative standpoint, according to Cimadamore, Dean, and Siqueira (2005), such reform should aim for a sustainable creation of wealth as well as its equitable distribution. This kind of reform, in the long run, will both contribute to poverty alleviation and reduction in inequality.

For Nigeria to win the war against poverty and by extension achieve the Millennium Development Goals within the targeted time frame, it must take certain bold steps. Nigeria must formulate and implement policies that can curb corruption, and create employment opportunities for the ever bloated labour force. Leaders must develop strong political will to promote transparency and accountability in governance. This no doubt will help to break the constraints that militate against the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals anchored on sustainable eradication of poverty in Nigeria. Corruption is generally acknowledged as having adversely affected previous poverty alleviation efforts in Nigeria. Corruption is one of the aspects of bad governance. The anti-corruption crusade of the present administration is expected to have favourable implications for poverty alleviation if successfully carried through.

Similarly, a vibrant private sector can contribute to economic growth and poverty reduction. The private sector can contribute to poverty reduction in two major ways. First, it can be the engine of growth with strong contributions to employment and higher incomes. Secondly, the sector can contribute to the development of infrastructure and efficient delivery of social services, including education, health, water, and energy.

There is the need to fully integrate the MGDs in the national development strategy and enhance monitoring thereof. There should be periodic and consistent reporting of the MDGs.

CONCLUSION

That poverty exists in Nigeria is not an exaggeration. It is also a fact that the country harbours most of the poor people in the world. The embarrassing paradox of poverty in the midst of plenty in Nigeria suggests the compelling need for a single-minded pursuit of the objective of poverty reduction and its eventual elimination (Obadan, 2008).

The paper sufficiently reveals that there exists an evolutionary trajectory of poverty in Nigeria. Nigeria has endemic poverty statistics. Among the committee of nations, Nigeria has been described as poor. Even on the continent of Africa, using selected world development indicators, Nigeria is poorly ranked.

As the research findings suggest, the eradication of poverty and inequality has been a continuing concern in Nigeria's governance process and thinking, leading to the implementation of several policies, projects, and programs. These interventions, notwithstanding the poverty situation in Nigeria is still galloping (Oshewolo, 2010).

A significant of the population still lives below the poverty line. The trend shows that Nigeria over the years has been experiencing a rising poverty profile. This unprecedented nature of poverty becomes more disturbing when view against the background of her enormous human and natural resources. Although, various regimes have responded through numerous interventionist programmes to eradicate poverty but with no desired results. In other words, the more Nigeria tries to tackle it, the more it persists (Omadjohwoefe, 2011).

Though the MDGs provide a platform for addressing the poverty issue once again, the situation from the Nigerian perspective indicates that there are still glaring constraints and challenges such as corruption, infrastructural inadequacies and others. The problem of development is a global challenge and the MDGs is a response by world leaders. There are limitations to utilizing the MDGs as a framework for delivering or measuring development. But they provide a platform to engage the development process. The situation in Nigeria indicates that there are challenges in meeting the goals by 2015. The MDGs remain a valuable framework for development action to 2015, but should be seen as a broad initiative to reduce poverty, not a detailed blueprint for separate interventions. There is no need to add more goals or targets. Instead, the MDGs need to be part of a coherent policy framework to support growth with equity, and well-designed sectoral policies.

References

- Abiola, A. G. and Olaopa, O. R. (2008). "Economic Development And Democratic Sustenance in Nigeria". In Ojo, E.O. (ed). *Challenges of Sustainable Democracy in Nigeria*. Ibadan: John Archers Publishers Limited. pp. 25-34.
- Adejo, A.M. (2006). "Poverty in the Land of Plenty". *NUBESS Journal of Contemporary Issues*, Vol. 1, No.2.
- Aigbokhan, B.E. (2000). "Poverty, Growth and Inequality in Nigeria: A Case Study". *African Economic Research Consortium (AERC)*. Nairobi, Kenya.
- Akanmidu, R. A. (2004). "Poverty Alleviation Programmes and the Politics of Ethical Despair in Nigeria". *The Seventieth Inaugural Lecture*, Ilorin: University of Ilorin.
- Anger, B. (2010). "Poverty Eradication, Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development in Nigeria". *Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol. 3, No. 4; Decmber, pp 138-144
- Central Bank of Nigeria, Research Department (1999) Nigeria's development

Prospects: Poverty Assessment and Alleviation Study (Abuja: CBN).

Chukwuemeka, E.E.O (2009). "Poverty and the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria: The Nexus". *Educational Research and Review*, Vol. 4, No. 9, pp. 405-410, September,

Cimadamore, A., Dean, H., & Siqueira, J. (2005). "Introduction". In A.

Cimadamore, H. Dean, and J. Siqueira (Eds.). *The Poverty of the Stat.: Reconsidering the Role of the State in the Struggle against Global Poverty*. Clacso: Buenos Aires.

Corbett, T. J. (2009). *Poverty*. Microsoft Encarta Premium DVD.

ECA. (2007). "Accelerating Africa's Growth and Development to meet the MDGs: Emerging Challenges and the way forward: An Issues". *Paper for the Conference of African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development/Fortieth session of the Commission Twenty-sixth Meeting of the Committee of Experts held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 29 March – 1 April 2007*.

Elumilade, D.O., Asaolu, T.O., & Adereti, S.A. (2006). "Appraising the Institutional Framework for Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria". *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics*, Vol. 3, 66-77.

Eriki, P.O and Okafor, C (2005). "An Evaluation of Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria". *Abuja Management Review*, Vol. 3, Issue No 1, December, pp64 - 79.

Eze, P. (2003). "Sustainable Environments: A neglect Strategy for Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria". In Onkalam. *et al.* (Eds.). *Environment and Poverty in Nigeria*. Enugu: Jamoe.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. (2006). Millennium development Goals (MDGs Information Kit.

Friedman, J. (1996). "Rethinking Poverty: Empowerment and Citizens Rights". *International Social Science Journal*, No,148

Galbraith, K. (1969). *The Affluent Society*. New York: The American Library

Garba, A. (2006). "Alleviating Poverty in Northern Nigeria". *A paper presented at the annual convention of Zumunta Association, Minneapolis, MN, USA. July 28-29*.

Gore, C. (2002). "Globalization, the International Poverty Trap and Chronic Poverty in the Least Developed Countries". *CPRC Working Paper No. 30*.

Igbuzor, O. (2006). "The Millennium Development Goals: Can Nigeria Meet the Goals in 2015?". *A Paper Presented at a Symposium on the Millennium Development Goals and Nigeria: Issues, Challenges and Prospects*. Organized by the institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN), Abuja District on 27th July at Sheraton Hotel and Towers, Abuja.

Nwaobi, G.C. (2003). *Solving the Poverty Crisis in Nigeria. An Applied General Equilibrium Approach*, Gwagwalada. Abuja: Quantitative Economic Research Bureau.

Nwaobi, G.C. (2003). "Solving the Poverty Crisis in Nigeria: An Applied General Equilibrium Approach". *Quantitative Economic Research Bureau*. Gwagwalada, Abuja.

Obadan, M.I. (2008). "Poverty Reduction in Nigeria: The Way Forward", *CBN Economic & Financial Review*, Vol. 39, NO. 4, pp 159-188.

Okonjo-Iweala, N. Soludo, C. C., Muhtar, M. (2003). "Introduction". in N.Okonjo-Iweala, C. C. Soludo, M. Muhtar (eds). *The Debt Trap in Nigeria: Towards a Sustainable Debt Strategy*. Trenton: Africa World Press, Inc.

Omadjohwoefe, O.S (2011). "Evolving Poverty Profile and the Millennium DevelopmentGoals in Nigeria". *Journal of Research in National Development*, Vol. 9, No.1. pp 177-185

Omotola, J.S. (2008). "Combating Poverty for Sustainable Human Development in Nigeria: The Continuing Struggle". *Journal of Poverty*, Vol. 12, No. 4, pp 496-517.

Oshewolo, S. (2010). "Galloping Poverty in Nigeria: An Appraisal of the Government's Interventionist Policies". *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, Vol. 12, No.6, pp 264-274

Oshewolo, S (2011). "Poverty Reduction and the attainment of the MDGS in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects". *International Journal of Politics and Good Governance*, Vol. 2, No. 2.3, pp 1-22

Ravallion, M. and Bidani B. (1994). "How Robust is a Poverty Profile?" *The World Bank EconomicReview*, Vol. 8, No. 1, January.

Sen, A.K (1987). *Poverty and Famine: An Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation*. London: Clarendon Press.

Socialist International (2005) “Declaration on Millennium Development Goals” Council Meeting of the Socialist International Tel Aviv and Ramallah pp. 2-4

Soludo, C. C. (2003). “Debt, Poverty and Inequality: Toward an Exit Strategy for Nigeria and Africa”. in N. Okonjo-Iweala, C. C. Soludo, and M. Muhtar (eds). *The Debt Trap in Nigeria: Towards a Sustainable Debt Strategy*. Trenton, Africa World Press, Inc. pp. 23-74

UNDP. (2001). *Nigerian Human Development Report* (Millennium edition).

World Bank (1996). *Nigeria, Poverty in the Midst of Plenty: The Challenge of Growth with Inclusion*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

World Bank (2005). “Country Partnership Strategy for the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2005-2009)”. *WorldBank Report, Number 32412-NG, June 2005*.

World Bank. (2008). *World Development Report 2009*.

Yakubu, O.D and Aderonmu, J.A (2010). “Rural Poverty Alleviation and Democracy in Nigeria’s Fourth Republic (1999-2009)”. *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 2, No. 3, pp 191-195,

POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGIES AND THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS PROGRAMMES IN NIGERIA

BY

AKUANDNA, I. Felix

Department of Political Science

University of Jos, Nigeria.

BULUS, I. Kwopnan

Department of Political Science

University of Jos, Nigeria.

Abstract

This paper examines the character and efforts of the Nigerian state towards poverty reduction since the take-off of democracy in 1999. It argues that although the state has over the years demonstrated efforts towards poverty reduction, incidences of monumental crises of poverty still remains persistent in Nigeria under review. Given the nature and character of the Neo-liberal economic reform in collaboration with the political class, the fight against poverty suffered a great setback. Empirical evidences reveal that poverty eradication was not vigorously fought. There should be concerted actions in the identified sector of the economy. The fight on poverty has been hijacked by the political class as a development agenda and the Millennium Development Goals programme is seen as an avenue to empower their political patronages. This explains the view that although poverty reduction was generally acceptable, the result has not impacted on the populace. It is thus the submission of the paper that in order to eradicate poverty in Nigeria, the MDGs programme must be strengthened and frantic efforts must be made to achieve its target.

Introduction

One of the greatest challenges facing developing countries in the world today is the reduction of poverty. Poverty as it is a global phenomenon but it is more pervasive and monumental among developing countries especially African countries where on the average majority of the population is considered poor. Various reports of the World Bank reveal that poverty is threatening the survival of mankind.

The Nigerian state has pursued various programmes and policies towards Poverty Reduction. Since the post-independence history, various programmes and efforts have been put in place by various governments aimed at reducing the poverty level of Nigerians. It is necessary to state at this point that the efforts have not been able to bring about any significant change in the living standard of the people. For instance, available data indicates that the rate of poverty in Nigeria rose from 28% in 1980 to about 70% in 2003; the nation's per capital income reduced from \$698 in 1980 to \$290 in 2003; and the nation's ranking in Human Development Index (HDI) was 158 in 2002, dropping from 129 in 1990. Furthermore, Nigeria was ranked the 142 poorest nation in the world (UNDP, 2002).

In 2002, the United Nation (UN) recognized that the elimination of poverty and hunger were the most important issues facing the world. The UN Millennium Development Goal (MDGs) on poverty is to halve the proportion of people living in absolute poverty by the year 2015. It was on this premise that the Nigerian government adopted her economic recovery programme, the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) in 2001. This was done to meet the requirement to be part of the global partnership for development through the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) on the reduction of poverty.

It is within this context that this paper seeks to examine the efforts of the Nigerian state through the Poverty Alleviation Programmes aimed at the reduction of poverty within a time frame. It is a complete paradox that while these programmes are ongoing, there is also corresponding growth in the poverty level in Nigeria. Poverty reduction within the framework of the neo-liberal economy is almost as the process of aggravating poverty. The process is driven by state executives who pave themselves into the corridors of power and the use of state power as political chiefdom.

The concept of poverty

The concept of Poverty has no universally acceptable definition and description. However, base on its relativity; poverty is seen from various contexts and with different understanding of the issue under study. However, no precise definition is really needed for one to understand what poverty is all about. The Webster New Twentieth Century Dictionary depicts Poverty as the condition or quality of being poor, in need, in want and in lack of means of substance. This description is based on well being of individuals.

Since the essence of human existence has to do with material well being, Burkey (1993); Edozien (1975) see Poverty with reference to basic human needs which individuals must have to survive. It also means that as long as an individual is not able to meet his basic needs, the individual could be said to be living in poverty. The Needs theory is concerned with food, clothing and shelter. It may also include clean air, water and adequate balance diet, emotional and physical security (Burkey, 1993:3).

As opined by Narayan (2000:3), Poverty is also seen as humiliating dependence; Aluko (1975) and Nuhu (2002) both see it as the lack of basic necessities of life and to Aliyu (2003), it is the inability to satisfy the basic requirements of human survival. The above emphasizes the persuasive value of poverty in Nigeria. It stresses the state of being extremely poor and lacking the means to exist decently. Poverty is itself a crisis of habitual and it conveys the message of hardship, persistent destitution, visible mystery, endemic hunger, starvation and malnutrition. The basic needs approach includes clear identification and indication of poverty in a society.

Recent studies by the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) advocates for the use of HDI in discussing the concept of poverty. This approach to the concept of poverty is rooted in the model of sustainable human development. According to the UNDP (1998), HDI combines three components in the measurement of poverty:

- i. Life expectancy at birth (longevity)
- ii. Educational attainment
- iii. Improved standard of living determined by per capita income.

The approach is people driven where the economic growth is regarded as necessary but not a sufficient condition for poverty reduction. Poverty is considered as lack of capabilities in terms of income and fulfilment of basic needs which according to Adeyinka (2005: 90) is “a function of the reaction of the ‘poor’ to their circumstance in the society.” It is within this context that poverty relates from one circumstance to another.

Poverty has various dimensions which includes among others lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihood, hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increase mortality from health; homelessness and unsafe and degraded environment; and social discrimination and exclusion. It is characterized by lack of participation in decision making in civil, social and cultural life (UN, 1995; World Bank, 2001).

Aliyu (2001) also attributes the causes of poverty in Nigeria to the following factors:

- i) Poor micro-economic and monetary policies resulting in low economic growth rate and continuous slide in the value of the Naira which depreciated from #1.00 to #140.00 to \$1.00 between June 2006 and March 2007 in the parallel market.
- ii) Dwindling performance of the manufacturing sector which has the capacity to employ about 20 million Nigerians.
- iii) Increasing foreign debt overhang of almost \$30 billion, requiring \$3.5 billion annually for resettlement from an economy earning just about \$10 to \$15 billion per annum.
- iv) Poor management of the nation’s resources coupled with large scale of fraud and corruption, most of which has been siphoned out of the country in hard currencies. The nation has been endowed with abundant resources in which between 1970 and now, the nation has earned over \$300 billion from oil revenue alone. By 1970, Nigeria was among the fifty richest nations in the world but by 1999, Nigeria was among the twenty five poorest countries of the world.
- v) Poor execution of government programmes and projects especially those projects aimed at the provision of social welfare services such as education and health and those aimed at the provision of economic infrastructure.
- vi)

Deriving from consequences of poverty by Von Hauff and Kruse (1994), mass poverty tends to preserve or re-enforce the existing power structures and also the privileges of minority of the population. That in some cases involves the corrupt elites. It could be seen that this privilege few in the population are not generally interested in structural changes that will be benefitting to the poor population. The consequence is the mass poverty which tends to inhibit the development of democratic structures.

Nature and character of the Nigerian state

The evolution and character of the Nigerian state is quite an important consideration in understanding the nature and behaviour of Nigerians and political leadership (Adejumobi, 1991). Bayart (1993) noted that the state in Africa is determined by the heterogeneous character of its society that was influenced by the logic of European imperialism to determine the emergence of the modern state system in Africa. Ake (1981) saw the states in Africa from the perspective of their inherent socio-economic and political relations as dependent and reintering. Ibeanu (1998:8) argued that the character of Nigeria state should be understood in terms of the global capital accumulation. Hence the state became a tool in the grip of capital (Okolie, 2001:196). The state regardless of any transformation maintains and performs similar

character. According to Ibeanu (1998:8) “the Nigerian state has never been a popular- national state and has never represented the interest of the masses. The practice led to what Ibeanu (2006:7) called “machine politics”. This involves the parcelling out of parts of the under the leadership of one or two family who maintain their prebend. They appoint individuals who are loyal to fill government positions.

The integral state logic was soon to degenerate into the prebendal state logic in which office becomes a personal favour of the leader from which the occupant is expected to secure a living (Joseph, 1991). Prebendalism which became the dominant form of governance in Africa until recently, is a system of power exercise; propelled by the ambition of incumbents to ensure the permanence of their rule (Young, 1994:38). Miqdal, (1988:38) and Sklar (1979:54) agree that the monstrous patronage system made subsistence and wealth formation in Nigeria revolve around the activities of the state. The state development programmes and activities reflect individual interest. It therefore means that the institutions of the state and state programmes become tools in private hands for achieving personal interest; making politics an end (Leftwich, 2000:94)

History of combating poverty in Nigeria

The Nigeria state has identified poverty eradication as state policy that needs urgent tackling as the menace of poverty in the country has reached an alarming stage. The state after independence in response to the challenges of the ravaging level of poverty initiated laudable programmes and policies to cushion the effect of poverty.

Maduagwu (2006) and Ajakaiye, Adeyeye (2001) identified thirty five (35) poverty reduction programmes embarked upon by the state at different time. The programmes ranges from Gowon’s National Accelerated Food Production and Nigerian Agricultural and co-operative Bank in 1972; Operation Feed the Nation in 1976; Green Revolution Programme in 1979; Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) in 1986. In 1986, the then Government came up with the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP); the Family Support Programme and Family Economic Advancement Program in 1993; Vision 2010 in (1993) among others. Empirical evidences show that the dimension and manifestation of poverty and their consequential socio-political and economic crises have increased in geometric progression. Incidences of poverty increased from 28.1% in 1980 through 65.6% in 1996 (Onyesanmi et al, 2005). In 2007, 70% was recorded by the World Bank (World Bank, 2005) and Nigeria was later ranked among the 142 poorest nations in the world (UNDP, 2000).

The above history shows that these efforts towards poverty reduction and raising the living standard of Nigerians were conceive by the military regimes. It is worth noting that poverty level has failed to decline in the pursuit towards prosperity in Nigeria. The reason seems obvious that the framework at which these programmes were formulated and executed was the brain child of neo-liberal economic policy.

After 25 years of military rule which inspired neo-liberal economic packages, the living standards of Nigerians was in the decline. Nigerians witnessed a new form of governance under liberal democracy the return of civil rule in May, 1999. The ushering in of civil rule in Nigeria was heralded by Nigerians as they saw it as a dawn of a good beginning. Most importantly, the civil rule embarked on programmes that might alleviate the suffering of her citizens.

Since the inception in May 1999, Obasanjo's government expressed deep concern about the rising incidence of poverty in Nigeria. The government realized that if the worsening poverty situation is not checked, the future of the nation would be doomed. In sight of this, the government has introduced a number of programmes and measures aimed at reducing poverty. This also considers with the MDGs target by 2015. Among these programmes includes: Universal Basic Education (UBE); the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) and the constitution of the Ahmed Joda panel in 1999. In 2000, the Anglo Abdullahi committee was constituted. By 2001, PAP programme was phased out and fused into the newly National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) (Obadan, 2001).

Also among the programmes includes: the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) at the National level and State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) at the state level and the Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS) at the Local level. Under the broad conception of NEEDS as a development plan, it integrates economic development efforts at the federal, state and local government levels.

However, these programmes have largely failed to overcome persistent poverty, income inequality, ethnic conflicts and political instability. This is because of the challenges of implementation. Virtually all the programmes were only declarative with only little or no effort put in the implementation and evaluation stages.

Poverty in Nigeria remains significant despite economic growth rates, averaging 7.4% over the decade, a well developed economy and plenty of natural resources such as oil. However, it retain a high level of poverty with 63% living below \$1 daily (World Bank Report, 2005).

Available evidence on the economic reforms as it relates to poverty reduction seems to suggest the claims by Obasanjo that his administration has carried out 'fundamental' economic reforms which have increased the rate of economic growth and have positively improved the living standards of majority of Nigerians. According to the NEEDS document, when the government came into office in 1999, over 70% Nigerians lived below poverty line, life expectancy was 54 years; infant mortality stood at 77 per 1000 births; close to 30% of children under 5 years were under weighed and access to safe drinking water was limited to about 50% of the population. Far from improving the living conditions of Nigerian have worsened. The plan for prosperity must address a startling paradox; about two-thirds of the Nigerian people are poor, despite living with vast potential wealth. Although revenues from crude oil have been increasing over the past decades, Nigerians have been falling promptly into poverty traps.

The Nigerian state and the MDGs target on poverty reduction

The Nigerian Government following the UN Millennium Declaration at the Millennium summit in 2000, adopted wholistic economic packages under the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). These goals were targets for making measurable improvement in the lives of Nigeria's poor citizens which provides the benchmark for the national development targets to be achieved by 2015. The NEEDS document also described the financial, implementation and monitoring the implementation of the programme. It is within this framework of implementation that Nigeria would gradually moved away from high poverty incidences to a situation where majority of the people will enjoy an improved quality of life and self esteem (Nigeria MDGs Report, 2004:3).

The prevalence of extreme poverty is known in Nigeria. Several Scholarly works points to the negative correlation between the several economic programmes and poverty reduction efforts to basically; political and policy instabilities (Adamu, 2006); neo-colonial influences and the millennium economic policies of liberalisation (Mojubaolu, 2000); Military regimes and the economic mismanagement (Okonjo-Iweala and Osafo-Kwaako, 2007). Nwafor (2008:8) identified policy reversals, non-transparent programme administration and occasional lack of funds. It is Kankwenda et al (2000:16) who succinctly captures it as;

“where there is programme inconsistency, poor implementation, corruption of government officials and public servants, poor targeting mechanisms and failure to focus directly on the poor”.

The above literatures identify possible reasons why Nigeria has not been able to achieve its target of economic development and the reduction of poverty. Given the nature and character of the Nigerian state, the fight to achieve the MDG’s goal on the reduction of poverty will face a daunting challenge. In fact, the 2005 MDG report in Nigeria emphasizes that if the current efforts at poverty reduction in Nigeria are maintained (without global financial crisis), the poverty incidence in Nigeria would reduce to 43% as opposed to 21.4% by 2015. This poses grave danger for Nigeria to be among the “global partnership for development”.

Conclusion

The greatest challenge facing developing countries in the world still remains the reduction of poverty. Empirical evidences in Nigeria have proven that the number of those in poverty has continued to increase. However going through the implementation of policies and efforts by several regimes to reduce poverty in Nigeria, it has been noted that the policies and various efforts fail to achieve the desired results of reducing poverty. This is because most of the policies and efforts were only formulated in the sense that they were only declarative without intensive efforts to implement and monitor them. Needless to say, most of the policies and efforts overtime lack the required political will among several other reasons to be successfully implemented.

However, the problem of development is a global challenge and in order to address the problems of global poverty and promote sustainable development, the Nigerian government made the millennium declaration and the MDGs is a response to the millennium summit. The question that comes to mind is; can Nigeria meet the poverty reduction goal by 2015? The situation in Nigeria indicates that there are challenges in meeting the goals by 2015. Generally, for Nigeria to meet the goals in 2015; there is the need to formulate and implement policies that will promote transparency and accountability; overcome institutional constraints; promote pro-poor growth; bring about structural change and enhance distributive equity. Also, there is a need to strengthen the anti-corruption agencies to checkmate corrupt public officers and flush away all the factors hindering sustainable development.

References

- Adeyinka B. (2005), "Child Trafficking, Ethics of Economic Reforms and the Anatomy of Poverty". In University of Jos Journal of Political Science Vol III, No 1 and 2 editions.
- Ajakaiye, O. & Adeyeye F. (2001), "The Nature of Poverty in Nigeria". NISER Monograph Series Number 13.
- Ajetumobi, S. (1991), "Political Leadership and Political Decay- A synopsis of Post-Independent Nigeria". In Tyoden S.G. (ed), "Leadership, Democracy and the Poor". Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Nigeria Political Science Association, held at Bwari, Abuja FCT, August, 1991. Pp 26-29.
- Aliyu, A. (2001), "National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP): Conception, Implementation, Coordination and monitoring". Abuja: NAPEP.
- Bayart, J.F. (1993), "The State of Africa: the Politics of the Belly". London, Orient Longman.
- Burkey, S. (1993), "People First: a guide to self-reliant Participatory rural development". London: Zed Books.
- Edozien, C. (1975), "Poverty: Some issues in concepts and theory". Proceedings of 1975 conference of the Nigerian Economic Society.
- Ibeanu O. (2006), Breaking the Promethean Chain: Protecting Popular Electoral mandate in the South East Zone of Nigeria, Awka; NPSA Kalu Ezera Lecture Series, Number 1.
- Ibeanu, O. (1998), "The Nigerian State and Politics of Democratisation". A paper presented at a conference for Book Project on Comparative Democratisation in Africa: Nigeria and South Africa, Cape Town, May 31-June, 1998.
- Joseph R. (1991), "Class, State and Prebendal Politics in Nigeria". Journal of Comparative and Commonwealth Politics, Vol. 21(3).
- Leftwich A. (2000), "States of Development". Malden, Blackwell Publishers.
- Maduagwu A. (2005), "Alleviating Poverty in Nigeria: African Economic Analysis."
- MDG Report (2004). Nigeria Millennium Development Goals 2005 Report. United Nations New York.
- MDG Report (2005). Nigeria Millennium Development Goals 2005 Report. United Nations. New York.

Obadan, M. (2001), "Poverty Reduction in Nigeria: the way forward". CBN Economic and Financial Review, Vol. 39, No. 4: 159-188.

United Nations, (1995), The Report of the World Summit for Social Development and Programme of Action Copenhagen, 16-12 March.

Von Hauff, M. & Kruse, B. (1994), "Conceptual Bases for a Consisted Poverty-Oriented Policy". Economic Vol 49/50: pp 41-45.

World Bank, (2001), "Attacking Poverty". World Development Report 2000/2001, New York: Oxford University Press.

MDGs AND SECURITY IN THE NIGER DELTA: INTERROGATING THE AMNESTY PROGRAMME AS A PANACEA FOR DEVELOPMENT.

By

¹NWAODIKE CHIBUZOR A.

²EBIENFA KIMIEBI I.

³ANABIRI EMMANUEL C.

¹DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, BABCOCK UNIVERSITY, ILISHAN REMO, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA ^{2,3}DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, OYO STATE, NIGERIA

Abstract

The oil rich Niger Delta has been engulfed in crisis in recent times due to local resistance activities by militant groups. Militant insurgency in the region which sustains the nation's economy rides on the groundswell of popular anger linked to decades of marginalization, repression, environmental degradation, hand-scrabble poverty and relative deprivation, occasioned by the actions of the Nigerian state and international petro-business operating in the area. The MDGs is a global initiative aimed at reducing poverty and improving the standard of living of man, among others in society. The paper adopted documentary method and secondary data to source information. The secondary data was obtained through published and unpublished sources such as textbooks, newspapers, journals, magazines, internet source among others. This paper argues that, the drive to actualize the MDGs in the Niger Delta has suffered various setbacks due to security hiccups and low implementation of programmes occupying the front burner. The paper concludes that, though the amnesty programme for militants is designed to herald security of lives and property in the volatile region, the politicization of the implementation process will invariably continue to frustrate the actualization of the MDG goals in the area and Nigeria at large.

Keywords: Militant, Security, Development and Amnesty

Introduction

The Niger Delta occupies a very strategic position in oil and gas exploration in Nigeria because it harbors majority of Nigerian oil reserve. The region is quantitatively blessed with the 'almighty' black gold which waters the 80% of Nigeria revenue. However, the issue of developing the region that gives the bulk of the county's revenue has been seriously politicized since Nigeria had its independence. Successive governments both military and civilian have paid lip service to the development agenda of the region. The politicization of the development of this region has led to a struggle which started since independence. The founding fathers of the struggle were first seen as individuals trying to advance their selfish interest and as such the military government and the civilian ones that followed ignorantly mismanaged the struggle through the adoption of militarism as a solution. Thus, the execution of seven Ogoni Indigenes who were MOSOP faithful was the height of this mismanagement. Thus, Ebienna (2010) submitted that

all the agitations hardly resulted to any positive response on the side of the central government but rather was met with state violence that resulted to the militants approach by the youths in the region.

The struggle gathered momentum at the re-birth of democracy in 1999, thus several groups such as Movement for the Emancipation of Niger Delta (MEND) Niger Delta People Volunteer Force (NDPVF) NDV, COMA to mention but a few domesticated the struggle. The implication of their struggle is that the peace of the region and the country at large was seen to be at stake because of the nefarious activities of these groups ranging from kidnapping, assassination, destruction and vandalization of the oil pipe line and other activities which are inimical to the growth and development of Nigerian economy. The Obasanjo regime tried to tackle the problem eye ball to eye ball with detrimental collateral damage. The country degenerated during this period towards the status of a weak state that some political scientists were opting for the classification of Nigeria as a failed state.

Put differently, Tuschl (2007), maintained that the oil rich Niger Delta region of Nigeria got embroiled in crisis between the government forces and some militant elements that are aggrieved over certain fundamental issues affecting the region. Since the last few years, militants have fought with government forces, sabotaged oil installations, taken foreign oil workers hostage and carried out lethal car bombings. At the root of the problem is a crisis of underdevelopment. The crisis has been exacerbated by emergent issues of a gross distortion of Nigerian federalism in respect to resource control; citizenship rights and environmental degradation. Unfortunately, the external manifestation has been mainly that of violent agitations and criminal activities of some elements taking advantage of the bad situation.

The crisis portends a very grave danger for the Niger Delta Region in particular and the Nigerian State in general. It is a truism that the militants are not only confronting the Nigerian State, they are also at war with an extension of global capitalism represented in the region by the Multinational Oil Companies. To curtail the crisis, amnesty was extended to the militants. It can be argued that the basis for the gesture is to maintain peace and tranquility and by extension meet the security challenges in order to develop the region. However, government policies and Millennium Development Goals should complement each other to be able to attain this objective. The theme of the paper, therefore, is to adopt modalities on how the Nigerian government can expedite action on its policy programs and that of Millennium Development Goals concurrently and actualize the needed development and at the same time sustain them so as to bring succor to the sufferings of the people of Niger Delta and by extension the Nigerian masses.

This paper adopted documentary methods and secondary sources of data collection. These include; textbooks, newspapers, journals, magazines, internet sources. However, the body of the paper is divided into seven parts which include; abstract; introduction; theoretical framework; MDGs and sustainable development in Nigeria; oil insurgence, security and MDG programme in Niger Delta; politics of amnesty, security and MDGs agenda in the Niger Delta; and concluding remarks respectively.

Theoretical Framework- System and Frustration-Aggression Theories

The **system theory** takes political or social system as the proper unit of analysis and was introduced to sociology and politics principally by Talcott Parsons (The Structure of Social Action, 1937) and later by David Easton (The Political System, 1953). Parson viewed social system as containing four subsystems devoted to 'adaptivity', 'good seeking', 'integration' and 'latency' which relate respectively to the

economy, politics, sociology and family. Both Parson and Easton were influenced by biologists' models of ecological systems (McLean and McMillan, 2003). The theory, however, stress that taking only the individual as unit of analysis misses interactions which can only be explained by reference to society. It is also not out of place to pitch this research work on the psychological tenets of **Frustration-Aggression Theory**. The theory is derived from psychology and evident in the work of such scholars like McDougall Freud, etc. Its tenets remain the assumption that frustration leads to aggression. Thus, aggression in its effect is as a result of frustration. It is of moment to argue that plight of a politically and economically oppressed and dominated Niger Delta could be the recourse to use of arm.

Buying into these theories, it is conclusive to state that the security challenges in this region can be safely explained within the premise of prolonged oppression of one form or the other and has resulted to a halt to the economic means of the entire country and non implementation of governmental policies and the Millennium Development Goals and by extension led to underdevelopment, abject poverty, insecurity of lives and poverty across the entire system. Having adopted political and diplomatic resolutions, it is expected that the federal government will expedite actions towards massive and aggressive implementation of these policy programs so that these scenario do not repeat itself.

MDGs and sustainable development in Nigeria

The purpose of development in any given society is to improve the lives of the masses through expansion of their choices, freedom and dignity. Thus, development is a normative concept referring to a multidimensional process and must be relative over time, place and circumstance (McLean and McMillan, 2003). The physical necessities of life such as food, clothing and shelter must be provided in addition to quality employment, equality, political and economic independence, gender equality, participation in governance among others. However, reverse is the case in most developing countries. It is on this note that the United Nations Millennium Declaration was adopted in September 2000 to address some of these challenges and in particular the problems of poverty and at the same time promote sustainable development.

In spite of this laudable project, many countries that embrace the declaration still wonder in abject poverty and squalor. Of course, Nigeria is not far fetch in this category. The 2004 report by the National Planning Commission indicates that poverty is about 54.4% (Igbuzor, 2007). The Human Development Index for 2010 on the other hand ranked Nigeria 142 out of 169 countries (UNDP, 2010). The statistics therefore suggest that Nigeria is rated very low in all development indices, thus, poverty in the country is in the midst of plenty. The scenario stipulates that about less than 5 years to the 2015 date, it is doubtful whether Nigeria will achieve these feet. Reasons been that the Nigerian state is characterized with political and economic instability, corrupt practices in high and low places, lack of political will to implement some of the programmes among others.

This nonchalance and insensitiveness of the Nigerian government to address the needs and aspirations of the citizenry necessitated the various militant approaches by various groups, thus, resulting to insecurity of lives and property. Of course, Niger Delta is the most affected in terms of neglect and underdevelopment but paradoxically the heart of the nation's economy. That is, Nigeria is a mono-cultural economy and depends mainly on oil and gas which is the fulcrum of its economy. It is on this

premise that the youths in the region decided to bring oil production to a stalemate in an attempt to press their demand.

However, the introduction of amnesty by the government of late president Yar'adua was seen as a block buster towards arresting the ugly situation in the region and was commended both in the academic and leadership community, locally and internationally. The amnesty programme offered diplomatic answer to the problem arising from the agitation of the Niger delta people. The militants embraced the programme and helped in bringing temporary peace to the region. Thus available statistics shows that the barrel of crude oil produced in the region has improved since the amnesty programme got on the way. The amnesty programme was designed to equip the youths of the region with technical knowledge to participate in the development effort. Several youths are sent abroad to acquire all kinds of skill in all human endeavor which is a welcome development but the raging question still bothers on if the central government can provide the enabling environment for these trained youths to practice the skill they acquire by establishing infrastructures, job creation, reduce inequality, absolute and disproportionate poverty. The paper therefore argue that it is not enough to send these youths abroad to acquire skills but should address some pertinent internal issues which could hamper the progress of the program, such as addressing the problems of bad leadership, corruption, infrastructural decay, provision of employment, reduction of inequality to mention but a few.

Oil Insurgence, Security and MDG Programmes in Niger Delta

By oil insurgence we mean “a technology of military conflict characterized by small, lightly armed bands practicing guerilla warfare from rural base areas”. Of late of course the delta militants are not simply lightly armed and operate in some way from urban bases (Fearon and Latin, 2003) The rise of Nigeria as a strategic player in the world of oil geopolitics has been dramatic and has occurred in the wake of a bloody civil war that ended in 1970 and in which several million were killed. In the late 1950's petroleum products were trivial, amounting to less than 2% of total exports. Between 1960 and 1973 oil output exploded from just over 5 million barrels to over 600 million barrels. Government oil revenues in turn accelerated from 66 million naira (N) in 1970 to over N10 billion in 1980. Over the last two years oil and gas revenues have averaged roughly \$50 billion and nominal GDP is in excess of \$100 billion (Nigeria Oil and Gas 2007). A multi-billion dollar oil sector has, however, and a set of expectations driven by the aura of ‘black gold’ proven to be a little more than a nightmare. Accordingly, the discovery of oil in Nigeria especially within the Niger Delta region was seen as a blessing both to the region and Nigeria at large. The euphoria that beclouded this discovery is likened to that experienced in Alasaka, Texas and United States at large. But the happiness later turned to a source of discomfort and problem. Oil which has served as a unifying factor to other heterogeneous societies later became a source of disunity to Nigeria. Oil has created a great security threat to the Nigerian political and economic system. Thus, the Niger Delta has been described as a death zone by the United States Intelligence report. Admonishing its citizens to flee from the area for their safety. Kidnapping, Abduction, Assassination, Armed Robbery, destruction of life and properties were seen to be the order of the day in this region and the federal government was in most cases found wanting in providing security to the inhabitants of the region and from the stand point of political theorists, the only feature that differentiates a state from any other organization is the provision of security but when a state fails to live up to this responsibility, it becomes a weak state. Hence, the activities of the militant groups was seen to be of great threat to the existence of Nigeria, the efforts made by federal government to arrest the situation of insecurity in the region have

been very deficiently before the introduction of the diplomatic solution christened amnesty which is contemporarily becoming a political affair and as such posing more threat to the unity of the country hence the activities of a religious extremist like Boko Haram seeking for negotiation and granting of amnesty from the federal government. The security dilemma remains that if the federal government offers amnesty to the Boko Haram, there is also a possibility that other ethnic militias or religious factions like Odua People's Congress (OPC), Movement for the Actualization of Sovereign States of Biafra (MASOB) to mention but a few would want to involve in activities that will put the peace and security of the country into jeopardy.

In the light of the above, the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) was designed to bring development to countries of underdevelopment through the institutionalization of programs and policies to reduce poverty, inequality, employment, provide quality good health care to mention but a few. These programs have been introduced in Niger delta area of Nigeria as one of the most impoverished region in Nigeria irrespective of their enormous blessing from nature. The World Health Organization (WHO) and other United Nations Agencies have since 2001 involved in programs and policies that are aimed towards fighting abject and disproportionate poverty, reduction of inequality through the creation of a viable middle class and qualitative medical care to reduce adult and child mortality. These programs were underpinned by the physical and environmental security of the region. Put differently, the essence of all the MDG programs is to provide programs and policies to address some physical and environmental security such as

- What is happening to the people's ability to carry out their day-to-day activities without fear of harm or the unknown?
 - What is happening to the air that people breath?
 - What is happening to the water people drink?
 - What is happening to the rivers people fish?
 - What is happening to the farm people cultivate and harvest.etc?

These pertinent questions were aimed to be answered through the programs and policies of MDG but irrespective of all these laudable promises of these programs, the security situation in the area had been described to be in a deplorable condition. However, scholars have argued that the reason for the inability of these MDG programs to achieve its desired purpose is hospitable to some external and internal reasons which include corruption, bad leadership and the selfish interest of western imperialist who are benefiting from the instability of the region.

Politics of Amnesty, Security & the MDGs Agenda in the Niger Delta

Security has become so central to the growth and development of nations and their citizens so much so that nations have over the years allotted a sizeable percentage of their budget to security (Odoma, 2009). Security is the state of being secured, freedom from apprehension, confident of safety and freedom from danger or risk (Udofia, 2010). In ideal situations, the fundamental objective of any government is the maintenance of peace and tranquility. For instance, section 14 (2) (b) of the Nigerian 1999 Constitution buttress this fact when it clearly states that "the security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government", However, how true is this declaration in practice in contemporary Nigeria?

The oil rich Niger Delta in recent times epitomizes a centre of frustrated expectations and deed rooted mistrust, unprecedented restiveness, observable neglect, dearth of social infrastructures and services, high

mortality rate, chronic poverty and general insecurity. The area has been engulfed in security crisis since the closing years of the last millennium when oil agitations turn violent, due to the inability of peaceful agitations to achieve desired results, hence the violent militant agitations (Ebienfa and Paki, 2011). Due to the mono-dependant character of the Nigerian economy, disruptions in oil and gas production attributed to the activities of militants create adverse effect to the nation and security of lives and property in the Niger Delta in particular, and equally threaten the realization of the Millennium Development Goals. And to actualize the lofty objective of the MDGs in the oil rich but backward region necessitate massive infrastructural development and human capacity development.

The MDGs no doubt are situated in the context of human cum infrastructural development, and cannot be attained in an atmosphere of insecurity. The implementation of MDG projects in the Niger Delta suffers serious setback when militancy was at its peak in the area characterized by hostage-taking, kidnapping, attacks and destruction of oil installations etc. In fact, most contractors abandoned their jobs due to the high level of insecurity in the roads and waterways. Some of such projects include the East-West road, dredging of the River Niger, Electrical Power stations, Gbarain-Ubie gas gathering project, and the construction of numerous schools, markets, toilets facilities, pipe-borne water and hospitals as the case may be, aimed at improving the living standard of the people. That is, the spate of militancy led to the swelling of the data of uncompleted and abandoned projects spread around the region due to the violent activities of frustrated youth groups, militating against their timely completion.

For instance, the number of persons reportedly kidnapped or held hostage increased from 353 persons in 2008 to 512 persons in the first four months of 2009 (Eseduwo, 2009). More so, over 400 billion naira was budgeted for security in the region in 2008, but despite the suppression and repression tactics of the Federal Government which culminate in the militarization of the region, militant activities continued unabated geometrically (Harcourt, 2009). From the foregoing, it became imperative that, something drastic ought to be done to save the vulnerable economy from imminent collapse and the stagnation of development projects in the area. Therefore, the declaration of the Presidential Amnesty on the 25th of June 2009, to all militants in the Niger Delta that willingly surrender their guns on or before October 4th 2009, ushered in a new dimension to the lingering oil violence in the region. The Amnesty offer was succeeded by a 60-Day window period, requesting all militants who choose to embrace the amnesty programme to surrender their arms and ammunitions on or before 4th October, 2009. To achieve the policy objectives, a Presidential Amnesty Committee was set up, headed by the then Minister of Defense, Godwin Abbe. Arms collections and mobilization centers were also set up in strategic locations across the region and the initial sum of 50 billion naira was released to execute the programme.

The leadership of the militants initially rejected the amnesty offer outright, claiming that it was simply one of the insincere and deceptive policies of the federal government to perpetuate the unbridled exploitation of the region. However, after serious persuasions and politicking, all the known militants except Asari Dokubo and the faceless members of MEND embraced the Amnesty Programme. The position of MEND was that, it allowed its commanders to accept the amnesty because their identities have been known, but promise to replace them with a new set of dedicated faceless commanders to continue with the struggle. The general acceptance of the amnesty offer was followed with the massive surrendering of different typologies of arms and ammunitions, including sophisticated Anti-Aircraft guns, Rocket Propelled Grenades and Multi-Purpose Gun-Boats. A visit to the Arms Collection Centers and the number of arms and ammunitions submitted by the repentant militants was reminiscent of countries

plagued by years of civil war. From Okitipupa to Warri, Yenagoa to Port Harcourt and Benin to Eket, the story was the same.

While surrendering his weapons at the Isaac Boro Peace Park, Yenagoa, amidst fanfare, one of the repentant militants, Commander Lagos Jackson, spoke the mind of many of the militants when he asserted that, the decision to surrender his arms and disband his camp in the creeks was based on the proclamation of an unconditional amnesty to all militants by President Yar'Adua, which will allow them the opportunity to return to normal life in the cities unmolested (The Nation, March 21, 2010). The second vital reason why the amnesty programme was embraced by the militants was to give peace a chance and watch keenly what the Federal Government has up his sleeves. To demonstrate to the world that the ethnic minorities were peace loving people, but only became violent as a result of decades of victimization, suppression and brutalization, the militants decided to lay down their arms and give government the opportunity it has been yawing for to reverse the development deficit in the region. This was against the lame excuses often advanced by government that militant activities frustrate the development agenda of the region.

As a panacea of achieving peace, amnesty for militants in the Niger Delta is a good idea. However, the Federal Government must demonstrate the political will to muster resources for the development of the region. The reason has been that, Government so easily finds funds for peripheral matters on the Niger Delta, and not for core issues begging for attention. The above kind of sentiment completely betrays a deep misunderstanding, or covering up, of the working of capitalism in general and especially short sighted kleptomaniac characteristic of the Nigerian State. More so, the unfettered implementation of MDG projects will go a long way to resolve the lingering crisis of development deficit in the area, but government has failed to demonstrate the capacity to do so.

We wish to state unequivocally that, the popularized amnesty programme was not adequately planned, and the implementation process is also highly monetized and politicized. To achieve sustainable and dependable outcome, the pioneer step on the part of Nigerian government basically ought to have been a comprehensive militants and arms audit in the region. The argument is that, carrying out a comprehensive audit of the rank and file of the militant population in the region would have afforded the government the opportunity to ascertain the strength of the various militant camps and arms capacity in the region. But since that was not done before the hasty amnesty proclamation, it is difficult to ascertain whether the arms surrendered by the militants at the various arms collection centers across the region actually represent the genuine arms and ammunition capacities of such groups. The grim reality is that, due to the thick fog of insincerity that cloud the relationship between the people of the Niger Delta and the Government, most militants especially the Resource Agitators-Militancy category, surrendered only part of their armory, hence throwing up serious security concerns. In other instances, it was alleged that even the arms and ammunitions submitted by the militants were bought for them for submission by some top government officials simply to demonstrate the acceptance of amnesty in those States. Bayelsa and Delta State are reference points where such allegations held sway (Ebienfa, 2010).

Furthermore, there was no concrete post-amnesty plan, and the government's amorphous amnesty menu, which offers tripartite rehabilitation jobs, skills acquisition (including education), and private business- does not suit all the targeted beneficiaries (Agbo, 2009).. The amnesty programme was designed to pay

monthly allowances to the repentant militants. But it was observed that, due to the monthly meager allowances paid to the repentant militants for their up keep, some militants were even excluded from the registration process. Some militant leaders claim that the Amnesty Co-ordination Committee members told them to bring in only a specified numbers of repentant militants for registration from a particular camp. The fundamental question that begs for an answer is that, where will the remaining militants go to and what would become of them? That is, after earning about three hundred to six hundred thousand naira per month as militants, and being discriminated or segregated in a process where they are to earn an insignificant amount of sixty thousand naira, actually leave them with no option than to go back to the trade they have mastered.

Corruption has also been identified as a major bottleneck in the implementation process of the amnesty programme. Evidently, there have been persistent cases of non-payment of allowances to militants, coupled with the inflation of payment vouchers with ghost names. This means, non-militants are receiving the allowances of ex-militants, which clearly pictures the massive corruption that engulfed the amnesty programme. The demonstration by ex-militants at Benin, Warri, Yenagoa and Port-Harcourt were reactions against the high degree of corruption in the programme, coupled with the assassination of former militant leaders, Soboma George, General Ebi etc by their lieutenants due to high-handedness and financial impropriety.

Again, several months after the inception of the amnesty programme, majority of the repentant militants are yet to undergo the demobilization programme at Obubra, Cross Rivers State, and subsequently trained in trades that will sustain them. Therefore the absence of an effective and acceptable post-amnesty plan is gradually eroding the halcyon days in the Niger Delta, with the recent resumption of attacks by the militants. Though militant agitations seized in October 2009 and led to increase in the oil production output, Nigerians were taken aback when militants blew up an oil pipeline at the Abonemma area of Rivers State, late in December 2009. This has been followed with similar attacks in 2010 at the Shell Petroleum Development Company oil pipeline in Kokori, Delta State, Shell Trunk Line in Obunoma, Rivers State, Car bomb attacks in Warri, Delta State and the recent attack on oil facilities by John Togo (Samuel, 2011). These attacks send a dangerous signal as regards the purported peace ushered in by the amnesty window.

Concluding Remarks

There is no denying the fact that absence of a workable post-amnesty programme has led to a vicious circle of conferences without tangible results. The argument in essence is, the present existential condition authenticate and corroborate the perception that, the amnesty policy was formulated and implemented to safeguard the uninterrupted flow of oil and gas production in the region. Again, focusing on the militants rather than implementing the numerous development programmes that have been recommended over time by plethora of committees set up to under study the Niger Delta question, will not yield sustainable results. The amnesty programme is failing gradually simply because, with the ever increasing consciousness of exploitation in the region, peace will be elusive if the agitations of the people are not adequately addressed. And of course the grim reality is the infamous vicious cycle of poverty-relative deprivation-frustration-violent agitations and insecurity in the region. The implication therefore is that, the spate of insecurity in the oil-rich region and the ever increasing Boko Haram bombing in northern Nigeria will adversely hinder the realization of the MDGs agenda as 2015 draws nigh. More so, all corrupt practices that characterized the amnesty process must be checkmated and due process must be

followed to build confidence among stakeholders. Again, there must be political will on the part of the federal and state governments to implement all the policy programs and by extension massively develop the region.

References

Agbo, A.(2009), “The Gains of Amnesty” *TELL*, *November 2*.

Briggs, J. (2002), “Guide to Armed Groups in the Niger Delta”, *Terrorism Monitor*, *Volume 7, 1-2*

Collier, P. (2003), “The Bottom Billion” Oxford University Press.

Ebienfa, K (2010), Oil, Militancy and Political Opportunities in the Niger Delta, *M.Sc Thesis, Department of Political Science, University of Ibadan*

Ebienfa, K and Paki, F (2011), “Militant Oil Agitations in Nigeria’s Niger Delta and the Economy”, *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, *Volume 1, No. 5*

Eseduwo, F (2008), “Petroleum Prospecting, State Violence and Hostage Taking in Nigeria: A Study of the Niger Delta region (1966-2007)”. *Conference Proceedings, International Conference on the Nigerian State, Oil and the Niger Delta, Organized* by the Department of Political Science, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, March 11-13.

Harcourt, W (2009), “The Nigerian State and Repression Tactics in the Oil Delta”, *Studies in Environment and Justice*, *Volume 3, No. 1*

Ibeanu, O. J. Unbounded; Petro-Business and Petro-Politics in Niger Delta.

Igbuzor, O. (2006), “Review of Nigeria Millennium Development Goals-2005 Report” <http://www.dawodu.com/igbuzor11.htm>

McLean, I. and McMillan, A. (2003), “Oxford Concise Dictionary of Politics”, New York. Oxford University Press.

Obi, C. (2004), “The Oil Paradox” *ULPA 73 University of Leipzig Papers in Politics and Economics*.

Odoma, S (2009), “Security and Crime Management Imperative for Sustainable Democracy in Nigeria” being a paper presented at the First Annual Learned Conference of College of Business and Social Sciences, Crawford University, Igbesa, Nigeria

Samuel, E (2011), “Amnesty in the Niger Delta: Challenges and Prospects”, *Journal of Niger Delta Studies*, *Volume 4, No. 2*

The Nation, March 21, 2010.

Udofia, D (2010), “The Role of Religion in the Anti-Corruption War and the Management of National Security in Nigeria” in Albert and Olarinde (eds) Trends and Tensions in Managing Conflicts, Society for Peace Studies and Practice, Abuja.

UNDP (2010), “The Human Development Index (HDI) - 2010 Ranking
<http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/> Retrieved 17/3/2011 by 3:27pm

SECURITY, CONFLICT AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS IN AFRICA: THE ISSUES

By

TUNDE AGARA, Ph.D

CENTRE FOR STRATEGIC AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES (CSDS)

AMBROSE ALLI UNIVERSITY, EKPOMA, EDO STATE

FELIX OMOH OKOKHERE

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE

AMBROSE ALLI UNIVERSITY, EKPOMA, EDO STATE, NIGERIA.

Abstract

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as an instrument for development in Africa is a laudable conception. However Africa's deepening poverty and lack of global influence stems from its weak technologies and economic development occasioned by its pervasive insecurity and continental conflict. The paper argues that if the millennium development goal is to be realised in Africa, the issues of insecurity and conflict must be addressed first. Second, the paper posits that African governments hold the key towards the realisation of a secure and conflict free African continent which in turn can guarantee the success of the MDGs and governments' quest towards social economic development through the provision of adequate security and conflict free continental Africa.

Introduction

The division of the globe into "zones of peace and war" (Kacowicz 1995) serves as an indication or acknowledgment of the widespread of conflicts across the globe. As Wallenstein and Axell (1995:345) have reported, a new pattern of conflict is now emerging in which the prime emphasis is on challenges to the existing state structure and authority including secessionist movements which threaten the territorial integrity of the state. Scholars have attempted to distinguish between types of conflict. Some differentiated in terms of parties involved in the conflict (Chazan et al 1992:189-210), others in terms of issues that generated the conflict (Holsti 1991:306-34) and others in terms of their causes (Furley 1995:3-4). For instance, Chazan et al (1992:189-210) have come up with a list of "types of domestic political conflict" in Africa denoting whether such conflicts are elite, factional, communal, mass or popular. However, as Singer (1996:40.48) has noted, it is impossible to find a typology which is "logically exhaustive, mutually exclusive, operationally explicit, semantically consistent and substantively comparable".

The existence of conflicts and their effects has led to the need for security at both global and local levels. This need has been compounded by the inclusion of such factors as the environment, economic crime and

migration, areas that were outside the purview of security consideration but whose salience now threatens the security of states and therefore suggests their inclusion in any consideration of global and state security. In any discussion of security, three issues are pertinent; should the referent point for security be states, peoples or individuals; what range of threats should be considered and finally, whether insecurity and war can play any useful role in international relations. While the first two are relevant to this paper, the last is outside of our consideration but suffice to say that these three considerations have made a one-sentence definition of the term impossible.

According to the Realist, the state is the main referent point in any discussion or definition of security. Buzan (1991:65) has therefore defines threat to states in three senses; to the idea of the state (that is, nationalism), to the physical base of the state (that is, population and resources), and to the institutional expression of the state (that is, the political system). Further contention has arisen whether one definition can suffice to explain the nature of security in both developed and underdeveloped worlds. A school of thought, the neo-realists, are agreed that security anywhere is the same as it is derived from the system's anarchic nature. The other school of thought contends that third world states are different from the developed nations and therefore different notion of security must be applied. Within this school is the contention that the state still remains a referent point but it is compounded by its fragility and comparative infancy when compared to the states in the developed world. Ayooob (1995:9) has, however, pointed to the "vulnerabilities – both internal and external – that threaten or have the potential to bring down or weaken state structures, both territorial and institutional, and governing process."

The developmental needs of the new states just emerging from the grips of colonialism into neo-colonialism put tremendous demands on the state and its institutional machinery such that most of the states are unable to cope or handle these demands effectively. The post-colonial status of the third world states makes them unable to have effective control over their international environment and therefore unable to insulate their state-making process from international systemic pressures. This inability constitutes security problems for third world. In most states, these security problems translate into internal political problem manifesting as crisis of legitimacy and lack of social cohesion. This, therefore, introduces a new dimension to the issue of security in third world nations even as recent events in the Arab world have shown which is not making the citizens secure but instead the safeguarding of the elites' grip on power.

Waeber (1993:17-40) defines societal security as "the sustainability, within acceptable conditions for evolution, of traditional patterns of language, culture, association, and religious and national identity and custom." Waeber's definition has widened the referent point from both the state and elite considerations. Kolodziej (1992:12) further widened the consideration by defining security policy as "the pursuit by groups and states to influence and determine the overall structure of the international security system or the component parts in preferred ways." In pursuing the referent point approach, scholars have argued that security should be people-centred and accordingly, Booth (1991:324) has suggested that "feminist perspectives are integral to any people-centred subject." Thus, the feminist would deny that the issue of gendered insecurities is separable from those describable in military, economic and ecological terms. They would further argued that security problems cannot be resolved without also resolving the domination and exploitation of women that takes place in each of these domains. They would aver that a truly embracing conception of social security and justice must equally take cognisance of gender justice (Tickner

1992:92). Finally, some scholars of the referent point school have emphasised on the individual as a focal point. This view takes seriously the numerous threats the individual faces in terms of starvation, diseases, disablement and “all sorts of other hazards – from bankruptcy to unemployment” (Strange 1988:45-61). Booth (1991:319) had strongly advocated that “emancipation is the freeing of people (as individuals and groups) from the physical and human constraints which stop them carrying out what they would freely choose to do.... Emancipation, not power and order, produces true security. Emancipation, theoretically, is security.”

Other scholars have looked security issues from the threat perspective, although there are contentions over what constitutes threats. In spite of the contentions, any threat analysis of security must begin from a threat of war. According to the Hobbesian view, there are three principal causes of quarrel (or war). The first is due to competition (which makes man invade for gain), secondly, diffidence (which makes man go to war to secure his safety) and thirdly glory (for reputation). The issue of war as a threat has generated an intense debate among realists. War as a threat opens the possibility of being forcibly subject to others and therefore generates a security problem for the less powerful. Other scholars have identified areas of possible threats. For instance, Gilpin (1992:52) has identified uneven growth, economic inequality and the functioning of the world economy as a major factor “that make some states secure while it increases the insecurity of some others.” A number of other threats have been identified. For instance, Buzan (1991:19) has suggested that “the security of human collectivities is affected by factors in five major sectors; military, political, economic, societal and environmental” with each sectors presenting its own unique form of security problems. Developing on this, Ullman (1983:133) has assumed that

A threat to national security is an action or sequence of events that

- (1) threatens drastically and over a relatively brief span of time to degrade the quality of life for the inhabitants of the state, or (2) threatens significantly to narrow the range of policy choices available to the government of a state or to private nongovernmental entities (persons, groups, corporations) within the state.

Moving beyond threats emanating from the military spheres, Thomas (1987:1) has suggested that in relation to Third World countries, possibly threat areas must include “nation-building, the search for secure systems of food, health, money and trade, as well as the search for security through nuclear weapons.” This throws up, for the Third World nations, the issues of poverty, sicknesses and diseases and education as security matters. The importance of these issues as both threats to the state system in the Third World and the continued legitimate rule of the political elites have always made them to draw up development policy that seeks to focus on these issues as targets or goals. The bane of the development plans (or Millennium Development Goals) is not the absence of ideas for development but their implementation basically because they are based on faulty philosophy and theory of development. This paper, therefore, seeks to examine the substance of the philosophy guiding Nigeria’s MDGs and the relevance of the theories in the planning models adopted by Nigeria in its economic planning policy. The rest of the paper is divided into three sections. The next section looks at the theoretical framework adopted in this paper. Thereafter, we shall examine the various developments, rolling and MDGs plans in Nigeria. Finally we shall undertake an examination of the informing philosophies and theories that have guided the drafting and hence the failure of the plans. In concluding, we shall examine how the failure of

these plans has heightened the feeling of insecurity and alienation that have made the Nigerian federalism an endangered and fragile one.

Theoretical groundings

The theoretical grounding that informs this paper is located within the Marxist paradigm and specifically, it is informed by the Marxist structural theory of dialectical materialism with its emphasis on negation and transformation of quantity into quality. The formulation of the issues involved in dialectical materialism is that;

Without the negation of the old there could be no birth of maturing of the higher and fuller forces of the new and, therefore no process of development, no progress. The new arises in the womb of the old and achieves a level incompatible with the old, and the latter is then negated.

Dialectical negation is primarily a creative and conserving negation. The old is not simply thrown aside but is “subsumed”, preserved in the new.

Development moves in circles; consists of three stages: the initial moment of development; the transformation of phenomena into opposites, that is to say, negation; the transformation of the new opposite into its opposite, that is to say, the negation of negation (Spirikin 1983:137-138).

Within this framework is the critical but integral part that explains the connection and interpretation of principles of development as a struggle of opposites; between movement and inertia, the negation of the old and inoperable order, its transformation, replacement, and eventual manifestation of the new order. This is captured as the interplay between thesis, antithesis and synthesis, a process that represents a constant struggle between opposites and on which anvil human societies are shaped. Every struggle is resolvable for within it inheres the inevitable prospect of success or collapse between the old order and the new one, and change and adaptation on the other hand. Dialectics, therefore, opines that every country necessarily grapples with forces of growth and development or their polar opposites of stagnation and decline. That a section of the globe is seen as developed implies that they have overcome inertia and have attained a decisive achieved a transformation from quantity to quality. This implies that their development has been guided by the right philosophy and is explicated by a theory. This, therefore, means that Nigeria’s lack of decisive transformation of her productive forces can only argue for a faulty philosophy and theory.

Liberal scholars have argued that development, as transformation, is driven and motivated by technological change. Leading the pack is Chen (1977) who using the “Asian Case” has argued that “available evidence typically indicates that technological change is the major source of growth The contribution of total factor productivity growth therefore increases over time”. However, Collins and Bosworth (1997) have cautioned against this wholesome importation and imitation of technology by stating that “a significant potential for productivity growth through borrowing and use of technology may be possible only when a country has crossed a development threshold”. They, however, emphasised that “growth in the early stages of development may be primarily associated with physical and human capital accumulation.” In counterpoint the Liberal perspective of borrowed technology, Marxist scholars have argued that “a country’s wealth is formed by its productive forces, the accumulated products of its people’s activity and to a lesser extent, its natural resources” (Volkov et al, 1990:15). Put differently, the development of the productive forces of a country is the truth path to development. This therefore

dismisses the muddled arguments about methods, patterns and stages of growth as professed by Liberal thinkers.

Suffice it to be stated therefore that without the conscientious transformation of the productive forces; the labourer, object of his labour, the conditions of labour etc; the totality of the mode of production, society will generally stagnates and eventually decline. This best captures the Nigerian development trajectory; spurts of growth and development, sporadic growth hedged by deteriorating education and health indicators, increase in crime etc. By deduction therefore, we conclude that the non-existence of fundamental development of Nigeria can only be attributable to a lack of decisive transformation of the mode of production.

Brief Survey of Nigeria's Development Plans

Nigeria's attempt at planning development predates its existence as an independent and sovereign state. After all from the days of the colonial period, there has always been a development plan drawn up to be implemented as a blueprint for moving the country forward. As Obioma (1999:104) has noted,

A national development plan relates to the country as a whole.
It consists of program of actions for the utilization of national resources to realize the national preference within a definite time period. It provides a basis by which the government can influence, direct and control changes in the principal economic variables over time in order to achieve some set objectives. ...planning is a means of achieving some purpose, and is not an end in itself.

Zuvekas (1979) has defined development planning as the use by government of a coordinated set of policy instruments to achieve national or regional economic objectives. Put differently, planning entails the making of certain decisions in accordance with pre-laid down goals or objectives, policies and strategies, intended to influence the future course of events of state. Planning therefore refers to the conscious coordination of economic policies and administrative interventions to achieve specific and agreed goals of economic, social and political development, usually as embodied in the development plan. In terms of scope, the planning could be comprehensive, sectoral, and regional or project planning, while in terms of time it could be short, medium, or long-time. The economic aspect of the development plan is usually contained in the budget. Thus, the budget acts as a tool of planning and includes within its framework, the determination and proposal for the financial resources required to implement and bring the development plan into fruition. Thus, there is a close link between the budget and the plan for development and both therefore, share similar objectives.

Till date, Nigeria has had over five decades of national development planning which started during the colonial period into the post-colonial time. The spectrum of development planning in Nigeria has been grouped into four distinct phases by Obioma (1999:107) thus; the first phase is the pre-independence planning era (1946-1962), the second phase coincides with the fixed medium-term plans (1962-1985), the third phase is the structural adjustment program period (July, 1986-June, 1988) and the last phase is the period starting from 1990 till date, when the rolling plan approach was introduced. However, development planning in Nigeria has not always been futuristic but reactive to market forces in its

approach although it may reflect some element of futuristic in its content. As Ukpanah (1993) had noted, development planning in Nigeria has taken place in response to the ‘market failure argument’ prevalent in most developing countries where there still exist structural and institutional rigidities inhibiting the operation of the ‘invisible hand’ of the market. The market failures argument rests on the premise that capital commodity and factor markets in the developing countries are basically characterized by several imperfections and distortions, and consequently, cannot be relied upon for efficient resource allocation without conscious government intervention. Put differently, government intervention and assurance is required because of poor infrastructural facilities which restrict mobility and communication, acute dearth of specialized manpower in very critical areas of the economy, unstable political environment because of frequent changes in government and consequently its policies, and mass illiteracy and low level of awareness among the populace. Thus, rather than move the nation forward, development planning in Nigeria, at least those of the first and second phases, were designed, principally, as mechanism for identifying appropriate programs and policies for government intervention in order to take care of the areas of market failure and to provide appropriate signals for private sector operators. The concentration and success of the First, Second and Third National Development Plans in the provision of these infrastructural facilities and social amenities bore testimony to this fact

One of the reasons that acted as impetus and motivation for drawing up development plans in Nigeria was to attract external aids and funding for some of the programs which the government hoped to implement. This form of inducement to draw up a plan can be traced to the first ten year “Plan of Development and Welfare for Nigeria (1946-1956)” which was drawn up for Nigeria by the colonial government with hardly any input from Nigerians themselves. However, this was done in response to the British Development and Welfare Act of 1940 that requested all British colonies to prepare development plans to assist in the disbursement of colonial Development and Welfare Funds (Obioma, 1999:108). Since then, all Nigeria’s development plans have been drawn up with the purpose of attracting external donors’ sympathy than actually doing something worthwhile such as developing the resource base of the country.

The post-independent First National Development Plan (1962-68) appropriates in conformity, the definition of planning in that it was drawn up by a national institution deliberately set up for that purpose – the Economic Planning Unit of the Federal Ministry of Economic Development in conjunction with the National Economic Council. It was with the Second (1970-74), Third (1975-80) and Fourth (1981-85) National Development Plans that the country was able to lay an enduring institutional framework for development planning through the establishment of a Central Planning Office to coordinate the planning efforts of the federal and state governments. Between 1986 and 1987, the Development Plans were replaced by a policy plan that led to the adoption of the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP). The three-year Rolling Plan strategy was instituted in 1990 to replace the previous five-year development plans. The Rolling Plan was adopted to enable a quick review and adjustments in the revenue projections and program on an annual basis. Since then, there have been several rolling plans to date – 1990-92, 1991-93, 1992-94, 1994-96 and 1995-97. In 1997, a fifteen-year Perspective Plan approach was adopted, together with a Vision 2010 document which mapped out a long term trajectory for the economy

A close scrutiny of the various development plans and the government initiating them reveals certain things. Although the series of development plans that existed from 1945-60 made a number of concrete achievements in terms of provision of infrastructural and social facilities such as roads, portable water,

electricity, health care delivery services, telecommunications and educational facilities, they could not be regarded as development planning in the real sense of the word because they were not based on clearly articulated identified national objectives and priorities. It was not until 1962-68 that anything that can be regarded as National Planning took off. This was mainly because the plan was consciously tied to lay down national objectives and goals, hence it was known as the First National Development Plan. A major factor in either the success or failure of the development plans was the nature of the leadership or the regime under whose authority the plans were initiated. Persistently, it has been identified that Nigeria lacks transformative leadership and that this is a major dearth in the country's economic and social transformation process. Since independence and as observed by Feridun and Akindele (2005:30), Nigeria's leadership group has always been made up for the most part by petit-bourgeois nationalists who on the whole were more interested in replacing the Europeans in the leading position of power and privilege than in effecting a radical transformation of the state and the society around it.

The First and the Second National Development Plans fell under the leadership tenure of Gen. Gowon. The First Plan was intended to lay an enduring foundation for national development with a long-term goal plan to achieve a "take-off" toward sustainable growth of the economy through the provision of necessary infrastructure and social facilities, which it was believed will constitute the basis for motivating private investors. As Adeyemi (2001:10) reported, W.E. Stolper who coordinated the preparation of the plan was ill-disposed to the inclusion of any long term gestation projects such as employment generation and foreign exchange conservation into the plan. Thus, it was not an accident that the plan could not meet its objectives and targets partly because of over reliance on foreign and external financing and technical assistance and partly because of the political eruption that culminated in the civil war in 1967. However, the Plan was not without its merit which included the fact that for the first time the various regional governments recognized and accepted the need to have common objectives and economic targets, while some Nigerians and the private sector were involved.

The Second National Development Plan (1970-74) was launched, shortly after the civil war, informed by the experiences acquired during the implementation of the First Plan with the objectives to achieve and establish the following;

- united strong and self reliant nation
- a great and dynamic economy
- a just and egalitarian society
- a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens
- a free and democratic society

Fortified by the oil-enhanced economic fortunes, the plan was geared towards post civil war reconstruction efforts through rehabilitation and expansion of existing socio-economic infrastructures, enhanced participation of government in agricultural production and the promotion of domestic industries through an import substitution strategy. In contrast to the First Plan, the Second and even the Third and Fourth Plans were significant in that they were prepared by the National Planning Office and therefore projects that would use more local resources, but with lower levels of commercial profitability and a longer gestation period were admitted. This plan was therefore, in all seriousness geared towards developing the productive forces of the economy without reliance on external financing. Two major constraints scuttled the plan. These were the inadequate absorptive capacity due to shortage of skilled

manpower, rather than lack of funds as this period coincided with the oil boom era (Obioma, 1999:109) and the profligate spending, corruption, looting of the treasury and conspicuous living of both the military and political elites. It was as if both have agreed to upstage each other in terms of spending on unprofitable things. It was no wonder therefore that on July 29, 1975, the then Brig. Murtala Mohammed had to intervene through a coup with the complaint that; "Nigeria has been left to drift. The situation if not arrested would inevitably have resulted in chaos and bloodshed".

The Third National Development Plan (1975-80) fell into the leadership of Gen. Murtala and later, Gen. Obasanjo. The strategy was to rely on and utilize the expected enhanced revenues from oil to boost the standards of living of the populace and to provide for the much needed expansion and improved services in the health care delivery sector, education, potable water, electricity and telecommunication, among the essential ones. Thus the plan was built on a huge capital investment of N30 billion which was later upped to N43 billion. The Indegenisation Act which started in 1972 was later revised during this period and coupled with the import liberalization measures for consumer goods and the emphasis on national value-added industries, that is, industries that use more local resources, determine the direction of the plan. Specifically, seven objectives were earmarked for the plan to achieve, and these were;

- increase in per capita income
- more even distribution of income
- reduction in the level of unemployment
- increase in the supply of high level manpower
- diversification of the economy
- balanced development
- indigenization of economic activities

Although the implementation of the plan was adversely affected by the collapse of the oil market and the subsequent economic depression of 1978, the crusading reforming orientation and the ascetic living standard introduced by the Murtala administration enabled it to conclude several agricultural and public sector industrial projects such as the World Bank-assisted Agricultural Development Programs (ADPs), the National Accelerated Food Production Program (NAFPP), the Ajaokuta and Aladja Steel Plants and the Oku-Iboku Paper Mills among others. The welfare strategy of the plan imposed on it a heavy reliance on imports to the detriment of the local production capacity.

The Fourth National Development Plan (1981-85) fell into the second democratic republic of Shagari. Despite the depression being experienced in the world oil market, the plan programmed a capital expenditure of about N82 billion, the bulk of which was expected to come from oil earnings. As a result of the sharp drop in the price of oil and the subsequent drop in the expected foreign exchange earnings expected from the sale of oil, most of the plan projects could not be implemented and thus, the government resorted to external borrowing to make up for the short fall. This was bad in itself, but worse still was the fact that the loans were contracted on a commercial, short-term basis while the programs for which the loans were incurred had long term gestation periods and so were not in any position to pay their way. Further still, the government reacted to this situation by promulgating the Economic Stabilisation (Emergency) Act of April 1982, later amended in November, 1982, which was popularly known as the austerity measures. The measure which was geared towards conserving foreign exchange and reducing the general level of domestic expenditures did not seem to affect the politicians who continued their

corrupt practices, stealing and the looting of the treasury. Their conspicuous living standards contrasted sharply with that of the masses to which it would seem the sacrifices demanded by the austerity measures were aimed. If nothing else, this period heralded the genesis of the external debt problem which to date has become a major obstacle to achieving macro-economic stability and self-sustaining growth and development in Nigeria.

Given these circumstances, it became understandable why successive development and rolling plans failed to meet the expectations of the society. Life expectancy dropped with growing graduate unemployment, grave social crisis illustrated by high rate of armed robbery and all forms of juvenile delinquency, coupled with other problems posed by escalating domestic and external debts and the undervaluing of the Naira have remained with us till today. The Buhari administration seemed not to have found any answer to the myriads of problem it inherited from the Shagari civilian government. This was alluded to by Gen. Abacha when he announced Babaginda's coup on August 27, 1985. Thus, rather than adopt a Fifth Development Plan which would have been expected to run from 1985-90, Babaginda opted for a policy plan known as the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) which was put in place in September, 1986, and geared towards redressing policy lapses of the past and more importantly to meet the conditions of the international financial institutions for a review of the country's growing external debt burden. Specifically, the objectives of SAP were the;

- restructuring and diversification of the productive base of the economy in order to reduce dependence on the oil sector and on imports,
- achieving fiscal and balance of payments viability
- laying the basis for sustainable, non-inflationary or minimal inflationary growth, and
- lessening the dominance of unproductive investment in the public sector, improving the sector's efficiency and intensifying the growth potential of the private sector.

The key instruments for attaining these objectives were;

- strengthening the existing demand-management policies,
- progressive trade and payments liberalization
- adoption of a realistic exchange rate policy through the establishment of a Second-tier Foreign Exchange Market (SFEM), and
- adoption of appropriate pricing policies and rationalization of public sector enterprises through commercialization and privatization.

Given the benefit of a hindsight now and the fact that over twenty years have elapsed since the adoption of SAP, it is safe to come to a conclusion as to its efficacy as a development orientation and planning strategy. Virtually all expectations that informed its adoption have failed to materialize. It failed to deliver a non-inflationary growth pattern, a pre-requisite for macro-economic stability. It failed to deliver enhanced efficiency in resource mobilization and also, the expected boost in non-oil export and the earning to be derived from it did not materialize.

The adoption of the three-year Rolling Plan Approach also started during the Babaginda's administration and it has been operative till date. The shift in strategy was occasioned by the realization that the five-year plan period could no longer be relied upon especially when the economy is constantly exposed to the vagaries of the international oil market. Thus the first three-year Rolling Plan was for 1990-92. With its introduction and subsequent adoption, planning has become more flexible compared with the fixed five-

year period. To date it can be safely said that the performance of the economy has not shown any remarkable leap forward. As Obioma (1999:113) has concluded, “the economy is still plagued with numerous socio-economic problems including growing inequality in income distribution, rising unemployment rate, high inflationary pressures, rapid depreciation of the naira and high rate of social insecurity”.

The frustration caused by the failure of the various Development Plans, SAP and the three-year Rolling Plans to achieve objectives of rapid but sustained development, equitable distribution of income, technological advancement and economic self-reliance, led to the adoption of a new approach – the Perspective Plan Approach. Based on this therefore, the Perspective Plan (1997-2010) and the Vision 2010 Document have the following five broad objectives;

- attainment of rapid economic growth and a balanced development
- alleviation of poverty
- achievement of economic self-reliance
- regeneration and improvement of environmental quality, and
- full employment for all Nigerians

The Vision 2010 Document was prepared in 1997 in an effort to enlist the collaboration and support of the private sector in mapping out an appropriate developmental vision and direction for the country. This, in itself, was a radical departure from the other plans prepared by the National Planning Commission in collaboration with other government agencies. The broad objectives of the Vision go beyond the traditional concern with purely economic matters to include socio-cultural, ecological and environmental dimensions of development. The Vision’s position is that economic success factors would have to be predicated on the following principles as Adeyemi (2001:20-21) has enumerated;

- government would need to focus on creating an enabling environment that can stimulate private sector savings and investments. This can be achieved through the provision of infrastructure, building human capital through education, health care and technological know-how, political stability and the diversification of the country towards export-orientation and exploring other areas where the country has competitive edge or advantage
- reliance on the private sector as the engine of growth of the national economy through (i) undertaking a significantly higher level of investment than before, (ii) concentration on the best global practices and equality standards, (iii) penetration of the West African and global markets, and (iv) the utilization of domestic natural resources, local skills and inherent competitive advantage.
- the provision of a macro-economic framework and economic institutions which would be similarly outward-oriented, based on the free market and global competition principle, and fostering high domestic savings and investment. This strategy would be supported by stable and consistent economic policies geared towards achieving low inflation rates and a strong fiscal/monetary discipline

It can be said now, that the policy direction of the civilian government did not in any way have the masses in mind. Both the Perspective Plan and the Vision 2010 seemed to agree on favouring the middle-class, the petit bourgeoisie class to the detriment of the masses. This is not surprising as it points to the fact that Nigeria is totally committed to seeking economic development through the capitalist option. Again, it should be pointed out that the un-discriminatory pursuit of the programs of privatization and commercialization is at the detriment of the masses and the few public corporations that have been either

privatized or commercialized have not shown any difference in terms of consistence and quality of their service delivery. The government failed to do anything concerning provisions of basic amenities such as roads or their repairs in some cases, health care delivery services and electricity. The preoccupation was to quickly sell off as many public enterprises as they could possibly buy while certain aspects of the agricultural sector, steel development, oil refineries, power generation, distribution and transmission and the railway system among others, which, if developed, could appropriately position the country for the globalization drive, are criminally either neglected or forgotten.

The development oscillation from National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS) to Vision 20:2020 have shifted the focus from development planning to development strategies. NEEDS as a strategy focus on national self-rediscovery based on the strong values of;

- enterprise, competition and efficiency at all levels,
- equity and care for the weak and vulnerable
- moral rectitude, respect for traditional values and extolling of our culture
- value system for public service that makes for efficient and effective service delivery to the citizens, and
- discipline at all levels of leadership

The Vision 20:2020 defines its national aspiration that by 2020, Nigeria will have a large, strong, diversified, sustainable and competitive economy that effectively harnesses the talents and energies of its people and responsibly exploits its natural endowments to guarantee a high standard of living and quality of life to its citizens. According to the document, all these are hoped to be achieved through;

- correcting the weaknesses in revenue allocation
- intensifying the war against corruption
- entrenchment of merit as a fundamental principle and core value,
- fostering private sector-powered non-oil growth to build the foundation of economic diversification
- expansion of investment in critical infrastructure,
- investing in human capacity development to enhance national competitiveness, and
- addressing subsisting threats to national security.

The issue of development cannot be considered without recourse to the influence and the part played by the elites. As Palmer (1980:11) puts it, “most decision relating to modernization is made by the dominant elite or regime of a state. Thus, one of the most crucial variables in the analysis of modernization would certainly be the position of a country’s ruling elite vis-à-vis political and economic development”. Palmer (1980:11) has also raised some useful questions in this regard that need reiterating here because of their pungency;

- Does the dominant elite desire economic modernization at all costs, including the imposition of a rigidly authoritarian regime and the destruction of traditional social and religious values?
- Do the dominant political leaders of a state desire modernization only under specific conditions such as the preservation of democratic institutions or the concentration of a preponderance of a nation’s wealth in the hands of a small aristocracy?
- Or, does the dominant elite oppose progress toward modernization as a threat to the stability of the regime?

A Critical Look at the Nigeria's Philosophy of Development: The Issues.

The issues we shall be raising is that right from the colonial to post-colonial periods, Nigeria's plans, rolling and strategies for development lack a workable economic theory, show rather clearly, uncertainty of vision and absence of a clear philosophy of development or a concise and consistent ideology. The tendency from the colonial days till date has always been to define the country's interests from the angle of outside visioners, transforming colonial heritage into not normative templates for future development.

A critical look at both the colonial crafted and the post-independence plans for development will reveal a mismatch and muddled philosophies which informed incompatible methods, and theories, the legacy of neo-liberal ideology. A more fundamental one is that there has always been a lack of professional in the leadership helm of Nigerian economy. For example, the colonial ten-year plan was founded on the principle of autarky, that is, the colony was expected to produce self-sufficient goods and services for its internal needs. This was in contrast to the domestic policy and philosophy of the colonial power. As Falola (1996:151) has explained; although "the Colonial Development and Welfare Act (CDWA) of 1940 supported the notion of economic planning in Nigeria, the outcomes were inadequate to tackle the existing problems." The colonial governors then, Hugh Clifford and later Donald Cameron, were not interested in economic planning and so to support its administrative cost, Nigeria had to resort to external borrowing and spent a substantive part of its income in servicing debt. As Falola (1996:151) has pointed out, Nigeria's debt problem has its historical root in the pre-independence period. This shows very clearly that the colonial government and its operatives were interested in furthering the philosophy of mercantilism than in developing and assisting the colonies to be self-sustained. This faulty philosophy and its practice confirmed Nigeria as a primary producer geared to feed the metropolitan's industries.

The post-independent plans were based on the philosophy and revealed the interplay of a federation as bequeathed to Nigeria as they reflected the need to develop first the regions, later the twelve and nineteen states, on one hand, and of the federal government on the other hand. Okigbo (1985:87-89) had noted this as part of the cause of the failure of the first plan. He argued that;

The planning in 1962 ran counter to the national utilisation of
resources that could be dictated by a truly national planning...

the procedure could not have been otherwise given the environment of the time. The centre had remained relatively too weak to impose its will on the politically powerful regions. There were in fact, in 1962, four plans, one for the federal and one for each of the three regions.

The political rivalry between the heads of the regional governments descended into the arena of economics which retarded the possibility of developing a truly national economy.

Apart from this inter-regional competition, another issue was that Nigeria's economic performance was a reflection of its role as an adjunct to foreign economies. The centre-periphery relations did not agree to the periphery's independent action at development outside of the control and guidance of the centre. Thus, for Nigeria to develop, it must need go outside of the centre-periphery framework and carve for itself a separate existence which will de-link it from dependency. But this would not be without some difficulties noting that Nigeria's economic structure has been conceptually peripheralised to overseas economies, its raw materials designed to feed the industries of the metropolises and the country's is starved of ideas geared towards viable plans for domestic economic take-off.

Even the latest development strategy, the Vision 20:2020 suffers from this same muddled philosophy, false consciousness and lack of ability to truly transform based on fundamental inadequacies. For instance, the Vision seems to mix up economic objectives with strategies and compound this with management priorities. Second, the Vision subsumes social indicators such as employment, poor education and inadequate health care system as economic ends without paying attention to the development of technology except, perhaps, to mention expansion in investment in critical infrastructure. Human capacity accumulation is ranked sixth in the eight point objectives thereby relegating the most critical asset of national development to the periphery. Even production is equally relegated to secondary attribute of distribution resources. The Vision is underpinned by a mixed economy model that weighs heavily against the public sector participation. This is as curious as it is symptomatic of unclear thinking and muddled philosophy because it is the public sector that generates the revenue the Vision aspires to allocate more responsibly.

Nigeria's inability to pursue any development theory to its logical conclusion is exhibited in the constant shift and turns in its economic focus. Neither the choice of primary agriculture production instead of secondary goods, nor the import substitution strategies instead of independent production base is a substitute for independent development. The wholesale privatisation of the national economy envisaged in the Vision 20:2020 may have worked elsewhere, especially in countries where there is a modernising bourgeoisie, but will definitely be bankrupt in Nigeria basically because of the undeveloped productive forces, non-modernising elite who are at the helm of the political and decision making ships and the location of economic decisions at structures antagonistic to theoretical integrity. The twin issues of nonprofessional leadership of the economic decision making apparatus and corruption are so grave as to be sufficiently salient to disrupt any economic development policy. We can safely conclude this section by saying that Nigeria is in dire need of a viable, relevant and concise philosophy and theory of economic development.

Conclusion

The muddled philosophy and the failure of the development plans to achieve their stated goals have manifested in two respects. The first is in the lopsided development of the country, where one part of the country boasts of more infrastructural development than the other parts of the country. The second is that the ethnic groups from the undeveloped parts of the country feel marginalised and alienated. These, in part, have led to palpable feelings of insecurity and exclusion from the federal arrangement thereby leading to the emergence and proliferation of ethnic militias, the call into question the present arrangement of the federal structure in form of the National Question, the agitation of a Sovereign National Conference (SNC) and the movement from seeking federal accommodation by the ethnic minorities in the Niger Delta to agitation for self-determination nationalism. All these represent the various manifestations of insecurity fuelled by feeling of alienation and marginalisation. Coupled to these are the rising incidences of crimes, armed robbery and even now religious terrorism.

The failure of the various economic development plans and strategies have not only discredit neoliberal path to development, it has also signifies the poverty and a crisis in the Keynesian economic model which premised on stimulus packages from the developing world. Nigeria's development visions therefore suffer from major crises both in the accepted neoclassical theoretical framework and also in the neglect of alternative economic development paradigms. The result of this is the heightening of insecurity among

every contributing ethnic in the Nigerian federation. It would seem therefore that despite the much trumpeted compatibility between democracy and development, Nigeria is yet to experience it. This perhaps suggests a re-thinking about and the adoption of alternative development platform.

Bibliography

Adeyemi, O. (2001): *Moving Nigeria Forward: The Development Planning Approach*, Ibadan, Ibadan Univ. Press

Akindele, S.T., Chijioke, U. And Feridun, M. (2005). The Nature of the Nigerian State and its Economy, in M. Feridun and S.T. Akindele (eds), *Nigerian Economy: Essays on Economic Development*. Morrisville, North Carolina, Lulu Press.

Ayoob, M. (1995). *The Third World Security Predicament: State Making, Regional Conflict, and the International System*. Boulder, CO. Lynne Rienner

Buzan, B. (1991). *People, States and Fear: An Agenda for International Security Studies in the Post-Cold War Era*, (2nd ed.). Boulder, CO. Lynne Rienner

Booth, K. (1991). Security and Emancipation, *Review of International Studies*, 17, 4 October

Chazan, N., Mortimer, R., Ravenhill, J., and Rothchild, D. (1992). *Politics and Society in Contemporary Africa*. Boulder, Col. Lynne Rienner.

Chen, E.K.Y. (1977). Factor Inputs, Total Factor Productivity and Economic Growth: The Asian Case. *The Developing Economies*, XV, 1, March.

Collins, S. and Bosworth, B.P. (1997). Economic Growth in East Asia: Accumulation versus

Assimilation, in W.C. Brainard and G.L. Perry (eds), *Brookings Papers in Economic Activity*, 2.

Falola, T. (1996). *Development Planning and Decolonisation in Nigeria*. Gainesville, FM. Univ. Of Florida Press.

Furley, O. (ed.) (1995). *Conflict in Africa*. London, I.B. Tauris.

Gilpin, R. (1992). The Economic Dimension of International Security, in Henry Bienen (ed)

Power, Economic and Security, Boulder CO. Westview Press

Holsti, K. (1991). *Peace and War: Armed Conflicts and International Order 1648-1989*.

Cambridge, Cambridge Univ. Press.

Kacowicz, A. (1995). Explaining Zones of Peace: Democracies as Satisfied Powers? *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 32,(3).

Kolodziej, E.A. (1992). What is Security and Security Studies? *Arms Control*, 13, 1, April.

Obioma, E.C. (1999): "Overview of Development Planning Experience in Nigeria" in A. Fajingbesi, M. Hiley and H. Jalilian (eds): *Resources Mobilisation and Management for Development*, Ibadan, National Centre for Economic Management and Administration.

Okigbo, P.N.C. (1985). Economic Planning in Nigeria since 1960, in *The Economic and Social Development in Nigeria*. Zaria, Proceedings of National Conference on Nigeria Since Independence, vol. II, March.

Palmer, M. (1980): *Dilemmas of Political Development: An Introduction to the Politics of the Developing Areas*, (2nd. Ed.), Itasca, Illinois, Peacock Publishers

Singer, D. (1996). Armed Conflict in the Former Colonial Regions: From Classification to Explanation, in van de Goor, L., Rupesinghe, K. And Sciarone, P. (eds) *Between Development and Destruction: An Enquiry into the Causes of Conflict in Post-Colonial States*. New York, St. Martin's Press.

Spirikin, (1983). *Dialectical Materialism*, Moscow, Progress Publisher

Strange, S. (1988). *States and Markets*, London, Pinter

Thomas, C. (1987). *In Search of Security: The Third World in International Relations*, Boulder CO. Lynne Rienner.

Tickner, J.A. (1992). *Gender in International relations: Feminist Perspectives on Achieving Global Security*. New York, Columbia University Press

Ukpanah, S. (1993): "The Prologue and Prospects in Economic

Transformation Through National Planning in Nigeria" Abuja, *National Planning Commission Ullman*, R.H. (1983). Redefining Security, *International Security*, 8, Summer.

Volkov, M., Jecchinis, C. and Klochkovsky, L. (1990). *The Economies of Rich and Poor Countries*, Moscow, Progress Publishers.

Waever, O. (1993). Societal Security: The Concept, in Ole Waever, Barry Buzan, Morten Kelstrup and Pierre Lemaitre, *Identity, Migration and the New Security Agenda in Europe*, Centre for Peace and Conflict research Copenhagen, London, Pinter

Wallenstein, P. And Axell, K. (1995). Armed Conflict at the end of the Cold War, 1989-1993 *Journal of Peace research*, 30(3)

Zuvekas, C. (1979): *Economic Development: An Introduction*, London, Macmillan

**YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY:
CHALLENGES FOR THE ACHIEVEMENT OF MILLENNIUM
DEVELOPMENT GOALS
IN NIGERIA**

BY

ATERE Clement, OSAH Goodnews, AYIM Oluchi, and CHIOMA Patience

Ph.D candidates in the Post Graduate School, Babcock University, Ilishan –Remo Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract

Though Nigeria is abundantly blessed with natural and human resources, the potentials have been inadequately tapped and even mismanaged in the past 50 years. Development has remained insignificant as majority of the youths are unemployed and wallow in poverty. Despite measures by the government to reduce their prevalence the effects of the twin evils still slow down economic growth. The major concern of this paper is on reducing the prevalence and eventual success of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria and to illuminate the factors that are responsible for them. In achieving this, the paper relied on descriptive approach and unstructured interview. It concludes that the problems of unemployment and poverty are multifarious in nature and the solutions for them should be adequate and practical in order to implement the policy proposals as outlined in the policy of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS) with a focus on four key objectives- poverty reduction, employment generation, wealth creation and value re-orientation. The government should create level playing ground for both public and the private entrepreneurs and ensure that the necessary infrastructure such as power is in place.

Key words: Poverty, Unemployment, Development, Corruption, MDGs

Introduction

Though Nigeria is the leading producer of oil in Africa and 8th largest oil producer and has the 6th largest deposit of gas with over 34 solid minerals, 44 exportable commodities and vast arable land, about two-third of the people are poor and unemployed. The problems confronting Nigeria are enormous ranging from hunger and infrastructural deficits to conflicts mostly ethnic, religious and resource related. The people do not have good transportation networks, and equipped hospitals, no portable water, social infrastructural decay everywhere, foreign debt increasing yearly, corruption in high places. All these pose serious challenges to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria (Adelegan, 2009, Soludo, 2006; Oyeshola, 2008, NPC, 2005).

The extant literature situates unemployment as constituting a vicious circle that explains the endemic nature of poverty in developing countries that keeps the poor in a state of destitution and utter disillusionment. This is also categorized as one of the serious impediments to social progress of Nigeria (Umo, 1990; Onah, 2010; Adelegan, 2009; Soludo, 2006).

Poverty, the twin brother of unemployment has wide-ranging and often devastating effects. Many of its effects, such as poor nutrition and physical health problems, result directly from having too little income or too few resources. As a result of poor nutrition and health problems, infant mortality rates among the poor are higher than average, and life expectancies are lower than average (Microsoft Encarta, 2009).

The need to avert the negative effects of unemployment and poverty globally has made the tackling of these problems to feature very prominently in the development objectives of many developing countries. It is in tandem that the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which are a set of eight goals with twenty one (21) targets and over fifty-four (54) quantifiable indicators came into existence in September 2000 at the United Nations Millennium Summit held in New York by 189 countries who signed the Millennium Declaration that aimed to confront the scourge of poverty and hunger by 2015 following the report of the then Secretary General Kofi Annan titled *'We the people: The Role of the United Nations in the 21st Century'* (UNMDG, 2011).

At that Summit it was agreed to:

'Spare no effort to free our fellow men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty to which more than a billion of them are currently subjected'

The MDGs aim to encourage development by improving social and economic conditions in the world's poorest countries. The eight goals are to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDs, Malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; develop a global partnership for development (FRN, 2006). While each goal is important, they are better viewed together as they are mutually connected. Nigeria as a member of the United Nations keyed into the implementation of the framework by formulating amongst other strategies the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) (FRN, 2006; NPC, 2005).

In view of the unfolding reality coupled with the protracted debates, the focus of this paper is to examine the linkage between poverty and unemployment and the challenges to achieve the global initiative of MDGs by Nigeria in 2015 and to proffer solutions on how to reduce their prevalence.

The paper adopted descriptive method and content analysis. The data utilized were gathered from relevant scholarly secondary materials in textbooks, journals, newspapers, magazines, government publications and internet sources. The presiding sessions of the paper is structured as follows: part II looked at the theoretical basis for the study; part III discussed the profile of poverty and unemployment in Nigeria, while part IV the final part contained the conclusion and recommendations.

Theoretical Framework

The essence of the theoretical framework is to review some already propounded theories. There are many relative theories of poverty; but for the purpose of this work, the paper utilized the theories of culture of poverty and structural theory of poverty.

Culture of Poverty Theory: This is the theory developed by Oscar Lewis an anthropologist in 1959. The theory suggests that poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated but individually held. That individual is not necessarily to blame

because they are victims of their dysfunctional subculture or culture. They become apathetic, violent and lack self-control, which reinforces with position (Bradshaw, 2006).

According to Lewis the culture of poverty perpetuates poverty: individuals feel marginalized, helpless and inferior, and adopt an attitude of living for the present. In order to survive the poor have to develop their own institutions and agencies because the larger society tends to ignore and bypass them.

Structural Theory of Poverty: This theory holds that poverty is caused by the structure of the larger socio-economic order. It is the macro structure of society that produces inequality and consequently poverty. It holds that the economic system is structured in such a way that the poor people fall behind regardless of how competent they may be.

The problem of the working poor is increasingly seen as a wage problem linked to structural barriers preventing poor families from getting better jobs, complicated by numbers of jobs near workers and lack of growth in sector (Tobin, 1994)

Unemployment and Poverty in Nigeria: A General Discourse

The genesis of unemployment in Nigeria dates back to the 1980s when the price of oil and its subsequent revenue started to depreciate drastically. Until the beginning of the decades of the 80's, unemployment was not a formidable problem in Nigeria. The average rates of unemployment for the decades of the 60's and 70's were under 2% and 4% respectively. But with the onset of global recession and domestic economic difficulties in the 80's, the structure and growth rate of unemployment has changed fundamentally (Umo, 1980).

The crunch came in mid-1981 with the collapse of international oil market. Oil export fell from 2.2 million barrels per day to around 1.0 million per day in 1980. The oil crisis of the 1980s aggravated problems rooted in the ill-conceived economic policies of the 1970s, leading to a widening gap between falling foreign exchange revenue and mounting disbursements. Between June and December 1981 alone, the country's external reserves dropped from 5734.2 million naira to N2424.8 million (Nwaodike, 2004).

Nwaodike, (2004) says in 1985, for instance, the national unemployment rates, in not less than ten states of the federation, ranged between 10% and 16%. The average rate of rural unemployment exceeded that of the urban areas in not less than five states and its distribution amongst women grew significantly.

The Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was adopted in 1986 to correct some of the policy distortions and structural imbalances. But the economic reform further increased production costs and living costs, thus aggravating the incidence of poverty among the vulnerable groups (Obadan, 1997).

In Nigeria, the economy had contended since the late 1970s with adverse economic environment created by oil shocks, world economic recession, deteriorating terms of trade, excessive importation depending and debt overhang.

The present official unemployment rate in Nigeria is 21%. This is very high compared to the conventionally acceptable rate of between 4-5% (Tell, August 1, 2011). Unemployment breeds poverty and retards development which eventually leads to low levels of consumption and income. This twin evil

deprive tens of millions African able bodied persons of their rights and privileges of the good medium of survival.

Soludo (2006) say with a population estimated at about 140 million, Nigeria is the largest country in Africa. With over 100 tertiary institutions producing more than 200,000 graduates per annum, the basic human capital for progress is there. It is estimated that about 17 million Nigerians live outside the country, with tens of thousands as world class medical doctors and other professionals. In the midst of these resources, Nigeria stagnated over the period up to 1999 and the poverty situation worsened consistently.

The Central Bank of Nigeria reports indicate that the country has 2.8% GDP growth in 1990's, 70% poverty in 1999, power oscillates between only 1700 MWH and 3000MWH against 50,000 needed. But, since 1999 the federal government has made efforts to reverse the trend and lay the foundation for Nigeria to realise its potentials and join the first world economy. Real wages declined since the 1970's until the wage increase in 2000 and the trend began to be reversed but not recovered to the mid-1970's levels in real terms (Soludo, 2006; Adelegan, 2009; NPC, 2005).

After the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen in 1995, 117 countries adopted a declaration and programme of action which included commitments to eradicate absolute and reduce overall poverty.

The African nations should be ready to address their problems holistically. In line with this, the national crusade for a new economy was formulated and embodied in president Obasanjo's socio economic transformation agenda, the "National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy" (NEEDS) with focus on four key objectives: poverty reduction, employment generation, wealth creation and value re-orientation. Some of the problems NEEDS intends to address include poverty and inequality, weak and inappropriate public sector, poor economic management and hostile environment for private sector growth (NPC, 2005; Soludo, 2006).

The Federal government has also assisted the states to develop State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS). NEEDS was to raise the standard of living through a variety of reforms including macroeconomic stability, deregulation, liberalization, privatization, transparency and accountability. So far, NEEDS have laid a solid foundation for continuing transformation (NPC, 2005).

The National Population Commission put the rate of urbanization in Nigeria at about 5.3% a year- one of the fastest in the world. Urban unemployment is estimated at about 10.8% if the manufacturing and services sectors do not grow sufficiently to absorb the surge of labor to urban areas and if rural areas are not transformed to stem the growth in migration to urban areas, the rate of urban unemployment could become unmanageable (NPC, 2005).

It is evident that Nigeria is not only grossly underdeveloped; it is poverty ridden and increasingly becoming among the poorest in the world even in the mist of plenty. This is supported by the worrisome 2004 Human Development Report that placed Nigeria in the 151 out of the 177 ranked in order of poverty. Recently the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) confirmed that the north has the highest rate of poverty in Nigeria, with about 9.5 million miscreants (al majiris) roaming the streets of the north. The

national poverty index put the north at 64.8% as against 42.8% in the south and higher than the national average of 54.7% (Sanusi, 2011).

The vision 2010 Committee report showed that:

- 50% of Nigerians live below the poverty line
- Only about 40% have access to safe drinking water
- About 85% of the urban population live in single houses with more than 7 occupants on the average
- Only about 62% have access to primary health care
- Most of Nigerians take less than one third of the minimum required protein and vitamins (Vision 2010 Committee; Anger, 2010).

To reduce poverty, hunger and unemployment, Nigeria through the instrument of NEEDS sought to achieve the following broad targets by 2007 (NPC, 2005):

- Increase average per capital consumption by at least 2% a year.
- Create about 7 million jobs.
- Increase immunization coverage to 60%.
- Increase access to safe drinking water to at least 70%.
- Increase school enrollment especially the girl child and adult literacy rate to 65%
- Improved access to sanitation.

However, from available data from the National Bureau of Statistics in Nigeria, it was revealed that the percentage of population living in extreme poverty declined from 65.6% in 1996 to 54.4% in 2004. Unemployment declined from 14.8% in 2003 to 1.8 in 2004 and Percentage of underweight children fell marginally from 35.7% in 1990 to 30.7% in 2004 (Oyeshola, 2008).

The Millennium Development Goal one is to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger between 1990 and 2015 with the following targets: 1A: To halve the proportion of people living on less than \$1 a day. 1B: Achieve Decent Employment for Women, Men, and Young People. 1C: Halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

The Global Monitoring Report 2004 highlighted areas for particular attention for developing countries. The areas identified are:

- Improving the enabling climate for private sector activity.
- Strengthening capacity in the public sector and improving the quality of governance.
- Scaling up investment in infrastructure and ensuring its effectiveness.
- Enhancing the effectiveness of service delivery in human development.

In order to achieve these a total of twenty eight interventionist programmes have been sponsored by the federal government in the past to alleviate the problems of unemployment, lack of access to credit and rural and gender dimensions of poverty. These includes the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFP), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) Green Revolution, Better Life for Rural Women, Family Support Programme, Economic Advancement Programme, Youth Empowerment

Scheme (YES), Seven Point Agenda of the Yar'dua and the most recent total Transformation programme of the Goodluck Jonathan administration.

All these have failed due to their ad hoc and uncoordinated nature and a lack of lasting sustainable positive effect. With these strategies in place, Nigeria is still poorer as it is ranked one of the twenty five poorest countries in the world and occupies the 157th position in the world Human Development Index (HDI) (UNDP, 2006).

Despite the huge resources plunged into developmental programmes of the country all past programmes have not achieved the desired goals because they did not focus on rising incomes, productivity and investment. The inflation rate remained in the double digits and interest rate was over 20%. The core vibrant textile industry, the highest employer of labour was almost closed down completely as only 10 out of 170 textile industries were operating (The News, June 4, 2007; Oyeshola, 2008).

Poverty reduction is the most difficult challenge facing Nigeria and its people and the greatest obstacle to pursuit of sustainable socioeconomic growth. The poverty rate in Nigeria increased from 27% in 1980 to 66% by 1996; by 1999 it was estimated that more than 70% of Nigerians live in poverty, life expectancy is a mere 54 years and infant mortality (77 per 1,000) and maternal mortality (74 per 100,000 live birth) are among the highest in the world (NPC, 2005).

Causes of Unemployment and poverty in Nigeria

According to UNDP (2008) the proportion of the Nigerian population which live on less than a dollar a day is at least 50%. The fundamental cause of poverty in Nigeria is the economic stagnation that the country has experienced for almost two decades. Persistent low productivity in agriculture has meant that the rural population have had limited opportunities to increase income, in addition, stagnation in the non-agricultural economy has meant no growth in the formal employment and limited demand for informal activity.

Inadequate growth in the economy is one major cause of poverty and unemployment in Nigeria. The lack of growth is compounded by the volatility of the oil sector, which affects a range of activities in the economy. High and growing unemployment increases in number of poor people.

Another major cause of unemployment and poverty is the problem in the productive sector, widening income inequality, weak governance, social conflict, and gender, intersectoral and environmental issues. The limited growth of investment and technological innovation has constrained the labour absorption capacity of the non-agriculture sector especially manufacturing. The lack of capacity has exacerbated poverty, especially in urban areas (NPC, 2005).

Yet another major cause of poverty and unemployment in Nigeria is inadequate power supply which cripples the socio-economic life of Nigerians. Several business plans has been destabilised and truncated due to inadequate power supply. This situation forces many to seek alternative sources of power even as government continues to dance around the problem (Tell, March 29, 2010). Besides the negative economic impact, the use of power supply in Nigeria, the National Electricity Regulatory Commission (NERC), disclosed that while N541 billion is spent on disesel, N256 billion is expended on petrol annually to power generators. This has consequently led many manufacturing companies to scale down

production and lay off workers with negative impact on the economy. Many of them have even relocated to other countries such as Ghana and Angola where they are assured of regular power supply. The power issue has been the bane of the manufacturing industry and was a major blow on economic growth. Successive governments in Nigeria have pointed out that improving power infrastructure was a top priority however, this is unachievable given the situation that there is no political will to drive the decision coupled with wide spread corruption in the sector.

Other factors causing poverty and unemployment is the political and economy instability, insincerity in governance, policy inconsistency, lack of adequate data base, high levels of corruption (Anger, 2010). Inflow of foreign investments cannot materialise in the environment of political and economic instability. Nigerian is politically an unstable country expect for the democracy that has endured since 1999 while on the economic front successive governments have come up with different inconsistent policies.

The fundamental causes of poverty domestically include slow development of human resources, minimum wage and productivity in the informal sector, sluggish economic growth, inappropriate macro-economic policies and imperfection in labour market leading to unemployment. Other determinants of poverty that have led to reduction in living standards are crime and violence, inadequate education, environmental degradation, retrenchment of workers, changes in family structures, economic and demographic trends.

At the inception of democracy in the present republic, the privatization of public enterprise was proposed as another way to create jobs and reduce unemployment, however, the reverse has been case as it has not only increased the incidence of unemployment and poverty but also have transferred the commonwealth of Nigerians to a few privileged individuals. There has been a critical loss of jobs in both the private and public sectors and very few new jobs were created to absorb graduates of Nigerian tertiary institutions. Over 15,000 bank employees lost their jobs due to the economic and financial reforms. It was also feared that over 33,000 workers would lose their jobs at the federal civil service (The News, June 4, 2007; Oyeshola, 2008).

The militant activities of the Niger Delta youths and acts of terrorism exhibited by the, Boko Haram Muslim Sect in Northern Nigeria, and several other rebellious movements in the country have deepened the problems of poverty and unemployment, forcing innocent citizens to leave their sources of livelihood in escape for their lives in tension ridden communities.

Bad governance depicted by exploitation and suffering among the people while those in position used the opportunity to accumulate insatiable wealth especially during the military regimes which institutionalized corruption, nepotism and gradually succeeded in looting the country's treasury abroad.

In 2005 the National Population Commission was not shy to say, despite the great natural wealth, Nigeria is poor and social development limited and that if present trends continue, the country is not likely to meet the MDGs. Three main problems hamper process of the achievement of the MDGs namely: inequality, failure of past governments and challenges for private enterprise (NPC, 2005).

Shetty (2007) while assessing the country's overall commitment to the MDGs say Nigeria is very committed to the achievement of the goals. The government has continued to allocate part of her annual budget to MDGs related programmes in relevant ministries, departments and agencies as a way of sharing the responsibility of achieving the goals. The allocation of MDGs projects in 2005 increased to 100 billion Naira and in 2006 it further increased to 156 billion Naira (Oluwalaiye & Awolaja, 2009) but Poverty reduction is the most difficult challenge facing Nigeria and the greatest obstacle to pursuit of sustainable socioeconomic growth.

Way Forward

Nwaodike (2004) suggested that agriculture has higher direct and total employment generating potentials and with the agricultural sector technologically advanced, more hands would be needed to increase production. The same view Soludo (2006) corroborated when he stated that Nigeria has the potentials to feed much of Africa.

Another way for government to tackle the tide of poverty and unemployment is to establish programmes to help the unemployed youths acquire skills that would help them become self employed rather than wait for jobs that are not there. Youth entrepreneurship should be encouraged through a variety of means, including special programmes that facilitate access to credit. Self employment can therefore be considered part of an integrated youth strategy to curb unemployment problem with government loans that is made available on friendly terms to those who want to establish genuine businesses of their own.

Presently, there is no data base of the unemployed. This problem inhibits the relevant agencies of government that are saddled with the responsibility of creating jobs to address the menace. There is an urgent need for the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) and the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) to make an accurate record of those unemployed for proper planning purposes. There is also need for the establishment of job creation centres in the 36 states of the federation and the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja and at the 774 local government council areas.

All Nigerians should rise against corrupt leaders and demand for their stewardship. The fight against corruption should be tackled without recourse to sacred cows and no sentiments.

The government should provide level playing ground for small and medium scale enterprise in terms of policy formulation and make credit facilities available to the private sector and also provide necessary infrastructure such as power, security and good road.

A deliberate step should be undertaken by government to overhaul the entire Nigerian economy through the provision of social infrastructural facilities such as transportation, adequate power supply, portable drinking water, health care facilities.

Government should provide a workable national security scheme that will take care of the old, unemployed and those not gainfully engaged.

Conclusion

The paper showcased the paradox of poverty and unemployment in the midst of plenty in Nigeria. It revealed with the aid of data that poverty and unemployment have stubbornly persisted in Nigeria despite the huge investments aimed at reducing their incidence. Corruption and the lack of political will to address the twin faces of our economy have adversely affected previous poverty alleviation efforts which have constituted a major hindrance to the national development. However, from available documents, the fight to eradicate poverty and unemployment through the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015 is definitely going to be an uphill task. But the paper gave hope to the gradual achievement of the MDGs especially through the faithful implementation of the policy instrument of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS).

References

- Adelegan, F. (2009) *Governance: An Insider's Reflections on the Nigerian Polity*. Ibadan: Terrific Publishers
- Aluko, S. (2005) *Poverty: It remedies in Poverty in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Economic Society
- Bradshaw, T. (2006) Theories of Poverty and Anti-Poverty Programmes in community Development Rural Poverty Research Center available on line at www.rproconline.org
- Brown, P. and Ashton, D. N. (1987) *Education Unemployment and Labour Market*. New York: The Palmer Press.
- CBN/World Bank (1999) Nigeria's Development Prospect. Poverty Assessment and Alleviation Study. Research department, Central Bank of Nigeria in collaboration with the World Bank, Washington DC.
- CBN Economic and Financial Review Vol. 39 No 4.
- Effiong, E. (1990) *Nigeria Under Structural Adjustment*. Ibadan: Fountain Publication.
- Federal Republic of Nigeria (2006) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Information Kit.
- Gordon, D. (2005) 'Indicators of Poverty & Hunger' Expert Group Meeting on Youth Development Indicators United Nations Headquarters, New York 12th – 14th December.
- Gronlund, A, Rebekiah, H. & Sasaki, D, H., Al-aqaf, W (2010) *Increasing Transparency and Fighting Corruption through ICT: Empowering People and Communities*. SPIDER ICT4D Series No3
- Kenneth, W. (1987) *Long –term Unemployment: An International Perspective*. London: The Macmillan Press
- Lipset, S. M. & Gabriel S. L. *Corruption, Culture, and Markets, in Culture Matters*, Lawrence E. Harrison, and Samuel P. Huntington, eds., (New York: Basic Books, 2000)
- Maduagwu, A. (2000) 'Alleviating Poverty in Nigeria' in Africa Economic Analysis available online at http://www.afbis.com/anaysis/alleviati\ng_poverty.htm
- Matza, D. (1996) The Disreputable Poor in Class Status and Power: Social Stratification in Comparative Perspective (ed) by R Bendix and SM Lipset. New York: Free Press.
- Microsoft ® Encarta premium Suite 2009

- National Planning Commission (2005) *National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS)*. Abuja: Central Bank of Nigeria
- Nwaobi, G. C. (2008) 'Solving the Poverty Crisis in Nigeria: An Applied general Equilibrium Approach' Abuja: Quantitative Economic Research Bureau
- Nwaodike, O. E. (2004) 'Unemployment as a problem of Development in Nigerian Economy' in Babcock Journal of Management and Social Sciences, Vol. No 2
- Obadan, M.I. (1997) 'Analytical Frameworks for Poverty Reduction: Issue of Economic Growth verses other Strategies' Proceedings of the 1997 Annual Conference of the Nigerian Economic Society. Ibadan
- Onah, E. (2010) *Politics and Government in Africa*. Lagos: Concept Publications
- Olawole, O. & Olukayode, B. (2010) 'Political Corruption and Accountability in Nigeria: Bane of Democratic Consolidation and Sustainability' in Babcock Journal of Management and Social Sciences. No 1&2 Vol. 8.
- Oluwalaiye, O.B. & Awolaja, G.O. (2009) 'Dynamics of NEEDS and the Issue of poverty reduction in Nigeria' in Babcock Journal of Economics, Banking and Finance. Maiden edition
- Oyeshola, D.O.P. (2008) *Sustainable Development: Issues and Challenges for Nigeria*. Ibadan: Daily Graphics Nigeria ltd.
- Sach, T. (2005) 'The Year of Development. Global Future: A World Vision'. Journal of Human Development. Second Quarter
- Sanusi, L. (2011) 'Mobilizing Capital for the Economic Transformation of Northern Nigeria' paper presented at the Special Economic Summit in Kaduna, March 16-17.
- Shetty, S. (2007) Press Briefing on the United Nations Millennium Campaign. Abuja. July 4
- Soludo, C. C. (2006) *Can Nigeria be the China of Africa?* Lecture delivered at the Founder's Day of the University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria on November 23
- Tobin, S. (1994) Poverty in Relation to microeconomic Trends, Cycles, Policies in SH Danzinder, GD Sandefur (eds). *Confronting Poverty: Prescription for Change*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press
- United Nations Development Programme (2006) Human Development Report. New York United Nations Development Programme (2008) Strategic Conflict Assessment of Nigeria: Consolidated and Zonal Report. Abuja: Institute for Peace and Conflict Resolution. United Nations Millennium Development Goals (2011) website: background page. Retrieved May 30
- UN Statement, June 1998 – signed by the heads of all UN agencies
- Umo, J. U. (1990) *Employment Generation in Nigeria: Issues and Strategies*. Lagos: National Directorate of Employment

World Bank (2006). *The State of the Changing World*. World Development Report. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

World Bank (2007). *The Nigeria Country Report*
The News June 4, 2007

Tell, August 1, 2011

Tell. March 27, 2010

Tell, May 2011

The Guardian, Wednesday, July 20, 2011

The Guardian, Thursday, July 28, 2011

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_in_Africa assessed May 10, 2011
<http://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/mancy/isr/2000/00000025/00000004/art0000>
accessed 5/10/2007

<http://styluspub.com/Books/BookDetail.aspx?productID=73767> accessed 5/10/2007
http://www.un.org/social_summit/speeches/29nig.htm accessed 5/10/2007

<http://www.freedomfromhunger.org/landing/endhunger.php?origin=14> accessed 5/10/2007
<http://go.worldbank.org/K7LWQUT9L> accessed 12/06/2011

ENSURING RURAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH THE EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NIGERIAN COMMUNICATION POLICY

BY

ADEKOYA, HELEN ODUNOLA

DEPARTMENT OF MASS COMMUNICATION BABCOCK UNIVERSITY, ILISHAN-REMO, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA.

Abstract

Rural development is an aspect of community development targeted at residents of rural communities like villages, country sides, or non-urban communities. Rural development activities are geared towards empowering and improving the lots of the people living in these communities. In order to achieve a laudable and sustainable development, various programs and strategies are usually employed by developers. However the strength of these strategies, development programs are usually unlikely to succeed where the community or beneficiaries of the development programs do not participates in the identification of community needs, planning and implementation of the development programs. All these are anchored on the availability of information which is the harmonizing component in any development exercise. In the light of the importance of communication in the achievement of sustainable development, this paper reviewed the Nigerian communication policy, pinpointing some of the factors inhibiting the effective implementation of the policy. At the end, suggestions were made on how rural development can be achieved based on the implementation of the existing communication policy which was adjudged adequate but lacking in effective implementation.

Introduction

National development in most African countries is synonymous with rural development. This premise is based on the fact that the bulk of the population of most developing countries in Africa resides in rural areas. Rural development, according to *Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia*, is used to denote the actions and initiatives taken to improve the standard of living of people living in non urban neighborhood, country sides and remote villages. These actions are usually focused on the socio and economic development of residents in rural areas. By implication development in this regard would mean not only a process of increasing productivity, but a planned program of actions that will take into consideration the well-being, growth and advancement of the people living in these areas.

For development to be achieved, various programs and strategies are usually put in place. The effectiveness of these various strategies however depends on the effective use of communication and availability of information without which mobilization for development may be an ordinary illusion or fantasy. Communication is an integral part of development because when people are provided with adequate information, they are able to understand the significance of the development project to their lives, and this helps them to take an informed decision on whether or not to participate in the development effort. Communication has over the years been proven over and over again to be the carrier of

development effort because it is an exercise that enables the transmission of ideas, and attitude. In nature it is transactional. Communication enables the exchange of ideas or opinions between two or more people. More and beyond this, the “Report on Means of Enabling Active Participation in the Communication Process and Analysis of the Right to Communicate”, presented at the nineteenth UNESCO General Conference in Nairobi in 1976, cited in Adesanoye (1990: 95) says

In the past the role of communication in human society was seen essentially as to inform and influence people. It is now being proposed that communication should be understood as a process of social intercourse through a balanced exchange of information and experience.....this shift in perception implies the predominance of dialogue over monologues. The aim is to achieve a system of horizontal communication based upon equitable distribution of resources and facilities enabling all persons to send as well as to receive messages.

The above assertion is imperative to this discourse as it emphasizes not only the importance of communication, but the inherent need to inform and encourage active participation of the people living in rural areas whom Adesanoye (1990 :95) again referred to as ‘animators’.

Development is enhanced when people have access to information that will help them to take informed decision. It is only then that positive attitude and behavioral change that will induce favorable cooperation and mobilization can be guaranteed

In order to advance the course of national cum rural development in Nigeria, various communication policies have been put in place. These policies stipulate the roles as well as ownership pattern of the various media and how these media are to be used towards national development.

Methodology and Objective of the Study

Using the descriptive and content analysis method, the major objective of this study is to reexamine the national communication policy and its effective implementation towards rural and national development.

KEY TERMS; The following terms are germane and would be discussed in relation to the discourse; rural community, rural community development, Nigerian development plans, communication policy, the Nigerian communication policy, national communication policy and rural development.

Rural Community

The term rural has become a very controversial phenomenon especially in definition. Many scholars have given it different conflicting definitions which have generated a lot of arguments. From these various conflicting definitions however many common features have emerged to give us an idea of what a rural community is. Rural areas in Nigeria are usually characterized with poverty, insufficient or absolute lack of basic technology, and social welfare amenities like health facilities, portable water supply, good transportation and road networks e.t.c. For these various reasons most people living in these areas in most African countries are low income earners as the mainstay of rural economy is agriculture. Most people in these areas are engaged in subsistent farming for which they are pathetically ill equipped for their livelihood and this accounts for the low income and the abject poverty experienced in some of these communities. Whenever there is opportunity to do so, young productive youths living in these areas prefer to migrate to urban areas and big cities where they believe there are better opportunities to improve their lots and this again may account for low human population in some of these rural communities especially those that absolutely lack social and welfare amenities. . Most national development efforts are usually targeted at people living in these areas in most developing African countries as according to Mabogunje (1980), they constitute more than 70% of the total population in these countries.

Rural Community Development

Rural community development is an aspect of community development that is targeted at people living in the non urban areas, villages and country sides. Rural community development according to Wikipedia the free encyclopedia encompassed a wide range of activities that aim to improve the welfare and livelihood of people living in rural areas. Some of the development task undertaken in these areas are sometimes initiated and carried out by experts, government, nongovernmental organization and agencies as well as community initiatives. Empowerment for individuals living in these communities basically is through the provisions of skills that will ultimately constitute the major tool toward the assurance of the rural community development. In summary Anaeto and Solo-Anaeto (2010;5), citing Todaro and Smith (2003), identified the objectives of development as:

1. To increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health and protection.
2. To raise the level of living in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and human, values, all of which will serve not only to enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem.
3. To expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence, not only in relation to other people and nation-states, but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery.

From the above one can then see reason in the millennium development goals that was put in place at the turn of the century in year 2000. The goals that were stipulated by the United Nations are: eradication of poverty, provision of at least basic formal education, promotion of gender equality, improvement in infant and maternal health and the control and eventual eradication of diseases and sickness like HIV/AIDS, malaria etc, ensuring environmental stability and development of a global partnership for development.

Development according to Maboguje (1978:28) “is a process of moving the whole social system upward so as to enhance the capacity of each member of the society to realize his inherent potentials and to effectively cope with the changing circumstances of his life”. In its true form then, development should be a continuous and sustainable exercise. For this reason development is observed to be a noticeable growth from one state or stage to another which is higher, desirable, or more advanced than the previous. As earlier stated this kind of development can only be guaranteed where effective communication and information is available.

It is imperative at this juncture to draw a line between communication and information. Communication is an interactive activity aimed at creating enlightenment, understanding and education through discussion while information provides the facts and figures necessary for intelligent communication. This again bring to the fore the importance of democratic participation in the development process. For the initiators of the development programs, it is imperative to have a good understanding of socio-cultural background as well as knowledge of the needs of a beneficiary community in order of preference before a development task is embarked upon in order to achieve a goal that is of common concern.

Development activities in rural areas covers a wide range of activities like capacity building, provision of skills and basic amenities, political participatory development, asset based community development (cooperatives), community mobilization, education etc.

Nigerian Development Plans

After the end of colonial rule in Nigeria, there has been series of development plans put in place for the socio-economic advancement of the country. These development plans are mainly focused on the rural areas which according to Olatunbosun cited in Olayiwola and Adeleye (2005:92), referred to as the major sources of capital formation for the country and a principal market for domestic manufacturers. According to these two scholars, solving rural problems had been the concern of the government over the years. Some of the development programs that have been tried in Nigeria include; Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), National Accelerated Food Production Program (NAFPP). In order to also facilitate rapid development and empowerment agencies like The Directorate for Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), Better Life for rural women, an initiative of late Mrs. Mariam Babangida, which is a catalyst for subsequent initiative programs by first ladies both at the federal and state levels, aimed at improving and empowering women in Nigeria.

The first national development plan was done and implemented between the years 1962 to 1968 shortly after the exit of the British colonial masters in 1960. This development project according to Olayiwola and Adeleye (2005:94) has a federal allocation i.e. budget of one million, three hundred and fifty three thousand naira. Although no clear statement was made, agriculture however constituted the major thrust of the development plan.

The second development plan was launched shortly after the civil war (1975-1985). The development efforts in the country at this period were focused on economic rehabilitations activities especially in the war affected parts of the country. According to Olayiwola and Adeleye (2005:92), an amount close to 3million was allocated to achieve this task. Although there was no clear indication or statement about infrastructural development, these scholars claimed that five hundred thousand naira (#500,000) was however allocated for village regrouping.

The third development plan emphasized the need to reduce regional disparities. This plan spanned the period between 1980 to 1985. The major thrust of the development plan at this period was on fostering national unity through the adoption of integrated rural development. This marked the first time that there will be serious consideration for rural development. For the implementation of this plan, the federal government at the period allocated 32 billion naira. This development plan was between 1980 to 1985.

The fourth national development plan in Nigeria marks the first time that local government tier was permitted to participate in the implementation of development plans. This plan was carried out between 1985 to 1990. According to Olayiwola and Adeleye (2005:92), the plan emphasized the importance of rural infrastructural development as a vehicle for enhancing the quality of rural life.

Communication Policy

From the etymology of policy there is an indication that it shares the same origin and functions with police – “monitoring”. Policy has been defined from various scholarly perspectives. Yagboyaju (2008) defines it as the outcome of decisions taken by government at various levels, on serious and sensitive

issues of general interest. *Encarta dictionary* (2008) corroborated this assertion by affirming that policy is a course of action, or a program of actions adopted by a person, group or government, or the set of principle on which they are based.

Development hinges predominantly on human force to drive it hence the need for communication and information. Since communication is imperative to development, communication policy has been put in place in Nigeria to check information pattern by the various media of mass communication media and their methods of information dissemination to the public. For this purpose Momoh cited in Anaeto and Solo-Anaeto (2010:28), posits that;

A national communication policy is a coherent set of principles and norms established to guide a nations total communication system, in organization, content and Objective. The national communication policy is designed to give structure and consistency to the overall communication of a country.

In principle and practice a standard communication policy must express the national ideals and character of a country. Lending credence to this assertion Anaeto and Solo-Anaeto (2010:28) says:

The national communication policy is reflective of the fundamental objectivesand principles of the country as well as the human values that the country wishes to project in the comity of nations.... It is based on the needs, resources and ability of a nation and it is relevant to the socio, political and cultural conditionsof the country.

Historically, communications policies have direct consequences on national or rural development plans of a nation. The future of the various media and their implementation in the development plans are largely dependent on the path that legislation takes. As earlier stated policy for whatever purpose it is created must guarantee access and participation especially of people who apparently would be the beneficiary of the development task. According to Food and Agriculture organization (FAO) policy can be written in ways that are conducive to the strengthening of these democratic principle while also, conversely being enacted as barriers to the enhancement of civil society.

The Nigerian Communication Policy and Its Objectives

The Nigerian communication policy came into being after a seminar organized by the federal ministry of information and culture on the 7th of February 1987. The seminar had in attendance a highly dedicated interdisciplinary group of university lecturers and researchers appointed by the ministry and assisted by the Nigerian Institute of Journalism (NIJ) and eminent mass communicators in Nigeria. The participants in this seminar according to Nigeria Radio Coalition (2010) were 250. During the event which lasted for six days, 12 seminar sessions were conducted and 52 papers were commissioned in addition to 24 others that were done by the panel of expert committee.

A week after this meeting, another session was organized at Durbah Hotel in Lagos to further examine the papers presented at the ASCON meeting at both the committee and plenary sessions after which the final report of members of this coordinating panel was then edited, and put together in a logical whole by a few members of the panel and the document became "Report of the National Communication Policy Seminar". This report was again between 17th to 20th of March, 1987, tendered and considered by the conference of the National council on Information and Culture held in Zaranda Hotel, Bauchi. The report of the national communication policy seminar and an extract of the minute of the Bauchi conference of

the National Council on Information and Culture on the subject were again “milled and processed by another 12 man committee also empanelled by the ministry of culture to produce the final draft of the Nigerian Communication Policy Document.

To facilitate effective communication in Nigeria the national communication policy document enunciated 10 cardinal objectives which are:

1. to identify critical or central organs, media mechanism or institutions of the Nigerian society that are involved in the development of the Nigerian communication system, both internally and externally.
2. to provide guidelines for the mobilization and development of those institutionalized mechanism in (1) above to achieve national objective and aspirations.
3. to mobilize all structures in society in a chain system relationship for the propagation of the national goals and objectives.
4. to evolve a rational and systemic parking of all communication media and resources for national goals.
5. to establish operational boundaries for the media industry.
6. to promote and consolidate national interest.
7. to ensure better management of communication resources to facilitate development and nation building.
8. to harness Nigeria’s immeasurable cultural wealth to develop an authentic Nigerian culture, to cultivate a deep sense of patriotism in the Nigerian people and propagate world- wide distinctive national identity.
9. to further at home and abroad those cardinal principles upon which our nation and constitution are founded and which protect and enhance Nigeria’s national interest and security in the international system.
10. to encourage creativity and promote indigenously rooted innovations for the collective good rather than for individual expression.

In line with the objectives listed above, boundaries of operation were allotted to the various media of communication then in existence in the country. These media are the broadcast media-which included only television and radio (as the GSM and internet at the time are either not in existence(GSM), or uncommon (internet)), the print media e.g. newspaper, magazine, books, posters, bill boards, and hand bills.

Theoretical Framework

For better understanding of this discuss, the study has been hinged on the democratic participant theory and the participatory model. The participatory model is from the socialization dimension, while the democratic participant theory is a theory of the press which has a bearing on communication for development.

The democratic- participant media theory was propounded by Dennis McQuail in 1987. The theory came into existence as a response to the elitist nature of the press. The theory according to Folarin (1998:29), insists that the existing bureaucracy as well as commercial hegemony in media system be broken down so as to guarantee media access for all potential users and consumers.

The democratic participant is important in empowering national development. The relevance of this theory lies in the general shift by most countries undergoing development towards participatory actions facilitated by participatory development communication. To participate effectively in the national development process the tenets of this theory especially the one advocating the ownership of media by

group, organization, and local communities becomes imperative. Public participation may be regarded as a way of creating empowerment and again as vital part of democratic governance.

The participatory model was developed by Paulo Freire in 1983. The model stressed the importance of cultural identity of local communities and democratization and participation at all levels- international, national, local and individual. This was referred to by Paulo, as the right of all people to individually and collectively speak their word.

The relevance of this model to the present discuss is rooted in the explanation of the model given by Anaeto et al (2008:166):

Participation is necessary in order to share information, knowledge, trust, commitment and a right attitude in development planning and implementation...development efforts must be based on faith on people's capacity to contribute and participate actively in the task of transforming society.

Generally public participation seeks and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected by or interested in a decision. The principle of public participation holds that those who are affected by a decision have a right to be involved in the decision-making process. Public participation implies that the public's contribution will influence the decision.

Rural Development and Communication Policy

Rural development is an aspect of national development that takes into consideration the welfare of the people living in the rural areas. The major consideration in this plan should be targeted toward improving their conditions of living. True development as stipulated in the third national development plan of 1980 states that; "Development hardly can be realizable if information is not made available for the beneficiaries of the development project are not given the privilege of participating". *Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia* in asserting this claim says:

Public participation is part of "people centered" or "human centric" principles, which have emerged in western culture over the last thirty years, and has had some bearings in education, business and public policy and international relief and development programs. Public participation is advanced by humanist movements and in the context of post-modernism. Public participation may be advanced as part of a "people first" paradigm shift. In this respect public participation may challenge the concept that "big is better" and the logic of centralized hierarchies, advancing alternative concepts of "more heads are better than one" and arguing that public participation can sustain productive and durable change.

The role of public participation in economic and human development was enshrined in the 1990 African Charter for Popular Participation in Development. In furtherance, this participation also guarantees empowerment which is the increase of the spiritual, political, socio and economic strength of individuals and communities. The resultant effect is that the empowered individuals will have confidence in their own capabilities.

The Nigerian communication policy gave clear operational boundaries and spelt out in clear terms the duties of the various media of communication in Nigeria. In evaluation these various stipulations and mapped out functions can be seen to be adequate in the advancement of laudable national development program for a country like Nigeria. The communication policy mandates all the various media of mass communication in the country to disseminate information that will guaranty development, unity and

national excellence. The Nigerian radio coalition vividly capture the roles assigned to the broadcast media as follows;

1. to disseminate information to enhance the welfare of the people in all aspects of life- health, culture, , and the promotion of other values of national excellence
2. to provide professional and comprehensive coverage of Nigerian culture in support of cultural development and growth, through constructive result oriented research, the result of which will be publicized for the benefit of the people.
3. provide efficient broadcasting service based on national objectives and aspirations to the people.
4. in programming, it shall be a vehicle of mobilization towards the achievement of national development and improving the quality of life especially those of the rural communities.
5. the broadcast media must ensure the promotion of national unity and integration through balanced presentations of views from all parts of the country.
6. it must ensure the regular presentation and delivery of accurate information to the people.
7. provide opportunity for healthy discussions on important national issues to enlighten and mobilize the people.
8. it must provide a channel of communication between government and people.
9. it must be a tool for promoting the virtues of national consciousness and the emergence of a just, humane and self reliant society.
10. it must emphasize at all times excellence, moral and ethical standards of program service that will meet people's expectations and needs.
11. ensure that the development in the field shall be in line with our national interest and an ongoing concern.
12. it must ensure effective coverage and reach of the entire nation.
13. ensure the broadcast of news and program in indigenous languages to ensure relevance to local communities
14. support program for the youth to inculcate indigenous cultures and virtues in them
15. in programming support to course of education.

These roles are also similar to those assigned to the print media. Probably to ensure better result, the policy also recognized the importance of our traditional structures and the need to inculcate them in the realization of the individual goals and the achievement of national development. According to the Nigerian Communication Policy Document, the existence of traditional structures and means of mass communication side by side with modern communication structures require the interface at the two for effective communication. Although the objective of policy is not to idealize the traditional thought forms and mode of communication, it is also neither to render them completely irrelevant in the modern social organization and communication order. The combined use of the traditional and modern means of mass communication and the use of indigenous forms and modes to communicate new realities and new possibilities especially to the rural more tradition- oriented masses of the population shall be encouraged. The policy makers in recognition of the fact that rural development is pertinent to national development also made the following provisions in the communication policy to actualize the effective usage of the traditional mode of communication so especially for it to meet the needs of the rural populace;

(a)The Federal and State Government shall allocate a reasonable proportion of their rural development funds to the establishment of community-based media of mass communication;

(b)The language, idiom, and style of programmes and content presentation of programmes the community newspapers, magazines, and broadcast media shall as much as possible reflect local culture able value of our indigenous cultures in their respective localities;

From the roles and functional perspectives, the communication policy can be said to be adequate to meet the development needs of the country. The problems negating against the success of the communication policy in Nigeria are deeply rooted in the implementation of the policy goals and objectives. These problems can be traced to the following factors: corruption, poverty, illiteracy, spatial inequality, patterns of ownership vs. principle and practice, minority languages vs. dominant media language, political instability, inadequate use of the traditional media etc.

FACTORS NEGATING THE SUCCESSFUL IMPLIMENTATION OF THE NIGERIAN COMMUNICATION POLICY

Poverty

Poverty is a prominent feature or characteristics of most people residing in most rural parts of Africa as most of these people are low income earners whose main source of income is derived from subsistent farming. Because of poverty millions of homes do not enjoy the benefit of the modern mass media equipment, and so the effects of some of these media are not felt by them for obvious reasons of poverty- they do not have the means of acquiring the hardware that makes possible the reception of electronic messages.

Corruption

This is another unfortunate problem negating against the successful implementation of the communication policy for development. This issue of corruption has unfortunately permeated virtually all sections of our national life. The mandate that federal and state government shall allocate a reasonable proportion of their rural development funds towards the establishment of community based media of mass communication has not been faithfully kept. The issue of community radio is just beginning to get serious attention 24 years after the policy formulation. This is just an evidence that most rural development funds are being misappropriated as there is little or no development at all in most of these rural communities to justify these allocations for rural development which should help in improving the lot of rural dwellers

Illiteracy

This is a major problem that may constitute a major impediment to any development plan and even the effective use of the community based media of mass communication –radio and community news paper “when and if” they are eventually put in place in these rural communities. This may be what the united nations envisaged, and the reason why basic formal education has been recommended in the five major millennium development goals. corroborating the need for literacy Adesanoye (1990:105) says;

For it to be meaningful at all, a national communication policy requires a high level of literacy among the citizens of the country. There seems to be no point, for instance, in establishing rural newspapers all over the country or publishing books in the indigenous languages when most of the people for whom they are intended cannot read them”.

Spatial Imbalance

In content, there seems to be a lot of imbalance in the programming and news content in favour of the urban areas. It is a common knowledge that most of the major news organizations in Nigeria are based in the big cities. For this reason most of the news worthy events in the hinterlands rarely gets media attention unless it involves notable personalities or politicians. This is an aberrant to development especially if one considers the fact that the rural populace are over 70% of the total national population, and again a negation to three of the fundamental functions and roles of the media stipulated in the Nigerian communication policy which says that, it is the duty of the media to:

1. provide professional and comprehensive coverage of Nigerian culture in support of cultural development and growth, through constructive result oriented research, the result of which will be publicized for the benefit of the people.
2. Provide efficient broadcasting service based on national objectives and aspirations to the people.(rural inclusive) and,
3. In programming, it shall be a vehicle of mobilization towards the achievement of national development and improving the quality of life especially those of the rural communities.

Pattern of Ownership vs. Principle and Practice

From observation and outcome of various researches, there are indications that ownership has an impact on the practice of media workers as well as the content of their messages. This is adduced to the fact that whoever is financing has a way of dictating or influencing the content in delivery. If there is financial autonomy there probably will be effective participation from all sectors of the society, more objectivity in news contents and probably albeit not absolutely, reduction of spatial imbalances in the news programs and news contents. Through this, there can be room for the right practice of true development journalism.

Minority Vs. Dominant Media Language

Because of the multilingual situation of the Nigerian state, it is very difficult to choose an indigenous language out of the so many available ones to function in the capacity of a national and official language. Fishman, (1968) as cited in Bangbose (1994:2), drew attention to some of the strategies employed by the new world to foster national identity. The predominant of these strategies is the choice of a national language which is often invoked as a unifying symbol. Desirable as one language model may be in fostering national unity and development; this is a luxury that may be elusive in a multilingual state like Nigeria especially if the speculated national language choice is an indigenous language. This is so because language is associated with ethnicity, and in a politically volatile country like Nigeria the choice of an indigenous national language may warrant suspicion by other groups whose languages are not chosen or superiority on the part of those whose language is chosen. Language is not only a communication tool but a phenomenon that has socio-cultural and political undertones.

This same problem generated by multilingualism is the excuse most media organization based their argument on especially in the choice of English language as the dominant media language. This choice however will fall short in meeting a major ideal in the national communication policy which advocates the promotion of cultural values and indigenous languages. The issue of media language choice is also pertinent to development because it constitutes the major vehicle of communication and information

dissemination. Considering the fact that development in its true sense must involve the people in the rural areas most of whom are illiterates and are not proficient in English language which is still an elitist language in Nigeria it then becomes imperative that something should be done to improve and standardize some of the local Nigerian languages at least for use as media languages if not administrative for the above mentioned reasons, so that understanding of the media messages can be guaranteed as well as participation in the development activities by all and sundry.

Political Instability

This is another area that has prevented growth and proper plan and implementation of not only communication, but other laudable policies that would have launched the country into greatness. Since her independence in 1960, Nigeria has witnessed series of changes in government and inadvertently this has affected proper implementation of the various development plans and policy as different government in the past have abandon predecessors plan to start their own which often gets truncated midway as a result of new takeover by another government. These constitutes a major barrier especially as development plans of previous government were put aside by the incumbents normally would put a new one in place to serve particular interest. As usual these new plans usually get aborted before they are fully implemented again as a result of power change.

Inadequate Use of the Traditional Media

It is obvious from the Nigerian communication policy document that the indigenous media has a role to play in communication for development. Government policies in most third world countries meet with little success or fail out rightly because traditional systems of communication has been ignored or relegated to the background in favor of the modern technologies. Of course there is a need for us as a nation to flow with the current trend but not at the expense of our traditional modes of communication system that a lot of people in the rural areas depend on as a credible and authoritative source of information. The provisions of these trado-media are not effectively utilized because they are unfortunately regarded as obsolete. In lending credence to this assertion, Wilson (1988:210) says:

The traditional media system is a dynamic multi-media, multi-channels system which is authoritative, credible definitive, time-honored, transactional, customary and ubiquitous, as well as integrative, low-cost, non-alienating, adaptive and popular .Regrettably, not all policy makers realize the vast opportunities they lose when they ignore this system.

The importance of this system is not relegated in our policy document which says; The existence of traditional structures and means of mass communication side by side with modern communication structures require the interface at the two for effective communication. Although the objective of policy is not to idealize the traditional thought forms and mode of communication it is also neither to render them completely irrelevant in the modern social organization and communication order.

Advocating for a better communication for development policy in Africa, Balit and Ilboudou (2010) says communication for development must be systematically planned, implemented and coordinated. According to these scholars, national communication for development policy requires a socio-political and development environment that is conducive to participatory development and should be formulated in accordance with the development priorities of each country. Again, national development communication policies should complement other sectoral development policies and promote and support their objectives.

All of these may be an ordinary illusion however if there is no political support at the highest level, therefore when formulated the policy is to be approved by the relevant Government bodies and made operational.

Research is an essential component that plays a great role in determining whether this policy implementation will succeed or not therefore, a series of preliminary studies are essential to provide the basic data and background information. These should include: identification of communication needs and priorities with the various stakeholders and in accordance with development priorities. These scholars finally suggests preparatory meetings at regional or local level within the country, to validate the communication needs and priorities of different stakeholders, including farmers associations, NGOs, field workers, and to crown everything, a national workshop, to define the development communication policy, as well as an action plan for its implementation.

Conclusion and Recomendations

From the fore going, it is glaring that the communication policy is adequate to meet our communication needs as nation however the effective and proper implementation of our good communication policy for development is anchored on determination by the government to without bias, fear or favour implement the principle therein. Implementation itself may be an elusive fantasy without information and people's participation. If the masses who are the direct beneficiaries of the development projects are allowed to participate, a productive and sustained durable change will be guaranteed as these people's opinions also count in the planning and implementation stage. Development in this sense will be an all inclusive activity rather than an imposition of a stranger's will. To this end the following recommendation are made to the identified problems:

1. communication which is the carrier of any social system is imperative if effective development will be guaranteed. for these reasons it is imperative to communicate and give information to people in a way and languages they understand. This is not to say that the media on ground are not trying especially in the use of local languages however the issues of polysemics and semantic misconstructions can be avoided through community owned media which like democracy will be for the people, by the people, and run by the owner communities. This again will go a long way in ensuring participation towards the desired development ends. This is imperative as it is a bond of assurance for the people that they are recognized and also a medium through which they receive information conveniently without interpreters and other associated problems.

In addressing the problem of continuity of development plans, it may be imperative to put laws in place to ensure that development plans on ground are fully implemented and not discarded before new ones are adopted or implemented by a new government. This will go a long way in checking corruption and avoidance of abandoned projects can be guaranteed.

Ignorance caused by illiteracy is another factor that must be addressed if any communication policy or development program will succeed. Over the years there has been various moved for community media to facilitate easy communication and information flow. For this reason, the radio and community newspaper were strongly advised for this reason. Taking the newspaper to the rural areas for example in the current situation we are in Nigeria may not yield a favorable result as there is limited literate audience. For this reason it will be a great empowerment for the people if the obstacle of ignorance and illiteracy are

removed and basic formal education will be made available for all in line with one of the major millennium development goals as laid down by the United Nations at the turn of the century.

The root cause of most of the identified problems is poverty which is the harbinger of ignorance. Information on poverty alleviation should be made available to the masses through electronic media especially radio which has been identified as the most effective because it is accessible affordable for many people. An hungry man is an angry man. Government should put in more effort to eradicate poverty. It is only after this that people can have the zeal, listening ears and a loud voice to participate in nation building and development.

References

Adesanoye, Festus (1990), “*Structural Balance of Information: Communication Engineering through policy*”. Philosophy and Dimensions vol. 2

Anaeto, S.G and Anaeto, M (2010), “*Development Communication Principle and Practice*”. Ibadan, Sterling- Holden Ltd. Ibadan

Anaeto, S.G, Onabajo, O.S and Osifeso, J.B (2008), “*Models and Theories of Communication*”. Bowie, Maryland, African Renaissance Books Incorporated.

Balit, S. and Ilboudo, J. (2010). “*Towards National Communication-for-Development Policies in Africa*”. Retived on 12/2/2011.

Bamgbose, A. (1994), “*Language and Nation Building*”. In Language and Polity: Essays on Language and Society in Africa.

FAO (1989), “*Guidelines for Rural Development: a Brief for Development Planners and Project Formulators*”. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/t797e01.htm#/>. Retrived on 8/2/11.

Folarin, B.A (1989), “*Theories of Mass Communication; An Introductory Text*”. Ibadan, Steling- Holden Ltd.

Harande, Y.I (2009), “*Library Philosophy and Practice*”.
<http://www.webpages.uidaho.edu/~mbolin/harand>

Mabogunje, A.L (1980), “*The Development Process: A Spatial Perspective*”. London. Hutchin Ltd.

Momoh, P.T.(1989), “ *A Framework for National Communication Policy*”. In Nneamaka, T., Uvieghara, E., Uyo, D. (eds). Philosophy and Dimentions. Vol 1.

Nigeria Radio Coalition (2010). http://nigeriacommunityradio.org/mascompolicy_pg5.php

Olayiwola, L.M and Adeleye, O.A (2005), “*Rural Infrastructural Development in Nigeria between 1960 and 1990- Problems and Challenges*”. J. soc.sci.,(ii). <http://www.krepublisher.com/02-journals/jss/j...>
Retrived on 08/2/11

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000)

Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia. Rural Development. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rural_development. Retrieved on Feb. 11, 2011.

Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia. Public Participation. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Public_participation. Retrieved on Feb. 11, 2011.

Yagboyaju, D.A (2008), "*Attaining the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) in a Weak State: The Nigerian Example*" in Politics and Development, vol 6. Numbers 1 & 2.

THE ROLE OF THE MEDIA IN THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

BY

OLUSESAN S. ASEKUN-OLARINMOYE, PhD.

AND ADEKOYA H. ODUNOLA

DEPARTMENT OF MASS COMMUNICATION, BABCOCK UNIVERSITY, ILISHAN REMO, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA.

Abstract

In recognition of the fact that there is an urgent need for the eradication of poverty which more or less is the harbinger of low development pace and all other associated problems, the United Nation at the turn of the new millennium in the year 2000, put a program in place known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The stipulated plans in these goals which was adopted by about one hundred and eighty nine countries (189), including Nigeria are; to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability, and develop a global partnership for development. For these to be possible in Africa, using Nigeria as a point of reference, the media has important role to play as it is a major tool of mass mobilization. This paper examines the special roles of the mass media in the achievement of the millennium development goals giving recommendations and suggestions where there are noticed short falls.

Keywords/phrases: MDGs, poverty, media types and messages, media functions, media roles towards achievement of MDGs.

Introduction

If evaluated using such parameters as, provision of basic amenities, infrastructures, good health care, stable political system, assurance of good quality of life, exercise of human rights and political freedom, Nigeria in its present situation will fall short and this is why it has earned along with most other African countries the tag “third world or developing country”, as it is still on the path of struggle to attain the internationally acceptable level of development.

Development includes the socio-cultural, political and economic well being of a state, the proceeds of which include; assurance of good quality of life, eradication of poverty, provision of basic health facilities, exercise of human rights and freedom to participate in the democratic process and stability in the political system,

In order to have any creditable development in any human society, there is a need to keep people adequately informed as development in this context is not a lone endeavour but an all-people embracing concept. Information is important to development, as a vital tool of mobilization towards the achievement of desired growth and advancement. Invariably the main duty of the media is information dissemination.

Lasswell (1948) identified four major functions of the media as surveillance, correlation, transmission of cultural heritage and entertainment. Aside these, other primordial functions include Persuasion, Education, News, Information, Interpretation, Selling, and Entertainment (PENIISE). Daramola (2003) took a broader applicatory look at the functions of the media in the following ways; information function, influencing readers, entertainment and instruction, protecting public interest, socialization and mobilization

Properly harnessed, these functions of the press are catalysts towards the achievement of the millennium development goals of the United Nations.

Statement of the Problem

The plan of the United Nations was that nations who adopted the millennium development goals must have achieved remarkable positive result by the year 2015.

However from the UNDP reports obtained in the year 2010, there are obvious evidences showing that there is an increase in the number of poverty-stricken people especially in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. Rapid reduction again in poverty has been identified as not necessarily addressing gender equality and environmental sustainability.

There is also little or no progress at all in the reduction of the HIV/AIDS pandemic nor is there improvement in the reduction of infant and maternal mortality. There are clear evidences that the expansions of health and education services are not being matched equally, with the year 2015 just around the corner.

The big question is, in lieu of the present development pace in the country, would the Nigerian state be able to achieve the millennium development goal which it committed to at the year 2000 United Nations (UN) summit? This question brings to the fore the role of the media and their primary roles of information, surveillance, persuasion of the masses towards development oriented attitudes and behavior, education etc. No sustainable development can be achieved without adequate information by the planners and implementation agents to the beneficiaries. For proper implementation of development programs to be achieved the beneficiaries must be persuaded and convinced of the good such programs can bring to them and their community at large. In the light of this, the study using observation and descriptive method evaluates the performance and short comings of the press in making available information that are pertinent to development available to the masses.

Millennium Development Goals

The eight (8) MDG goals are targeted to be achieved in all 189 countries that have adopted these goals by the year 2015. The goals were designed basically to meet the challenges facing development in the world, especially threat posed by poverty. To this end the objectives of the millennium development goals are:

1. *To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger;*
2. *achieve universalprimary education;*
3. *promote gender equality and empower women;*
4. *reduce child mortality;*
5. *improve maternal health;*
6. *combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases;*

7. *ensure environmental sustainability;*
8. *and develop a global partnership for development (UN, 2000)*

The millennium development goals based on the last point in its goal, provides a framework for the entire international community to work together in the achievement of a common end. The millennium development goal is solely concerned with people's welfare and its intention is to ensure that development in all its forms reaches everyone and everywhere. It is then believed that if poverty which is speculated to be the root of most problems negating development could be nipped in the bud at least by half, tens of millions of lives would be saved and billion more people will have the opportunity to benefit from the global economy.

Media Types and Functions

The most common media of mass communication in Nigeria are the television, radio and news papers. Each of these media of mass communication has individual advantage and peculiarities. The news paper for instance is a medium that is limited to the literate audience, and an advantage of preservation of a longer period of time than the other two identified. In its use for information, the newspaper employs the use of editorials, news, features and cartoons. All of these cover a wide range of story and events like politics, life styles, crimes, inventions, sports, etc.

Television on its own part above other media of communication, has an audio-visual advantage, however because of its non portability, and high cost of purchase, this medium is accessible to only a little fraction of the population especially in developing countries whose major feature is poverty. Some of the programs employed on this medium to meet information needs of the audience include; news, documentaries, drama, sport, interview programs etc.

The radio is about the most popular medium of mass communication that people in the rural and urban areas subscribe to largely. The inherent advantage lies in its portability, low cost, breaking barriers of space and language, requires less attention and literates and non literate audience can depend on it for their information needs. In meeting the information needs of people there are programs on news, documentaries, drama, docudrama, commentaries, interview programs etc on the radio medium.

All the above mentioned media and programs if effectively packaged can help the media to achieve or actualize their primary roles of surveillance, correlation, transmission of cultural heritage and entertainment as identified by Lasswell (1948). The act of surveillance according to the *Encarta Dictionary*, (2009) involves monitoring or recording of information, natural phenomenon or activity under cover or from a distance. This is a primary function of the media. The press performs this duty by ensuring that information are made available to the masses about governance and issues that are pertinent to their welfare and those that relates to the sustainability of their environment. This information extends beyond the receivers immediate environments to states and even other nations around it as all these places may also have an impact on the achievement of sustainable growth and development of the community.

Correlation can be described as a mutual or complementary relationship in which two or more things are complementary, or one thing is caused by another (*Encarta Dictionary*, 2009). From this perspective, the media must see it as a primary duty to harness as a single whole, all the different units of the society. This process involves education, socialization and acculturation of the different parts of the society e.g.

children, youths, adults, old people, males and females, with the intent of building and instilling the same value system which indeed should be the bedrock of a people's socio-cultural traditions.

Transmission of socio-cultural heritage is another important function of the media. According to Daramola (2003), "transmission of cultural heritage focuses on the communication of knowledge, values and social norms from one generation to another or, from members of a social group to newcomers". This aspect combines both the educative and information functions of the media, as it avails the mass media audience the opportunities of sharing common values and having an agreement on what constitute acceptable and unacceptable behavior within the community. This helps in the attainment of social order in the society.

Entertainment is also a basic function of the media. This is created in the media to meet the recreational and amusement needs of the masses. Looking at it from this angle, one might be tempted to believe that entertainment does not have anything to do with development. This may be wrong as programs like drama, sport and even the use of cartoon if properly structured can constitute sensitization mediums through which the masses can be mobilized towards the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

Other media functions of the press which are expansions of the four main ones discussed and ingrained in them include; persuasion, news, education, interpretations, selling (adverts), and mobilization.

Theoretical Framework

For a better appreciation and understanding, the present discourse has been hinged on two theories: Development media theory and Participatory media theory.

Development media theory

Development media theory, propounded in 1987 by Dennis McQuail, is based on the following assumptions, as enunciated by Folarin (1998):

1. Media should accept to carry out development task in line with nationally established policies without prejudice to their traditional functions of education, entertainment and information.
2. Media should carefully identify and give attention to in their foreign news link to countries with similar socio-economic orientations, and or political and economic aspirations.
3. Freedom of the media should be open to economic priority and development needs of the society
4. Journalist and media workers have responsibility as well as freedom in their information gathering and dissemination task
5. In the interest of development, the state has the right to intervene in, or restrict media operation; and devise of censorship, subsidy and direct control can be justified.

The relevance of this theory to the present discourse lies mainly in the fact that it is development oriented. In defining development, the Nigerian third national development plan of 1980 says;

True development must mean the development of man, the unfolding and realization of his creative potentials, enabling him to improve his material conditions of living through the use of resources available to him. It is a process by which man's personality is enhanced, and it is that enhanced

personality- creative, organized and disciplined-which is the moving force behind the socio-economic transformation of any society.

If properly implemented the development media theory can be used in the realization of the millennium development goals especially when one considers the responsibility assigned to the press in numbers one and three above.

Participatory media theory

The participatory theory is an evolution that came into existence in the bid to replace the modernization approach. According to Anaeto, Onabajo and Osifeso (2008), the theory places its highest value not on transfer of knowledge from outside developing societies but rather on reliance on local knowledge and local capability. Rather than encourage residents of developing societies to participate in the development initiatives planned by outsiders, it encourages residents to make their own plans. This theory which began to gain ground in the 1970's is based on empowerment and self determination.

This theory is relevant because it espouses participation and involvement of the people whom development programs will affect directly. This is very important in the planning and implementation of the development plans as these are the people who are directly involved and know where the shoe pinches. Effective mobilization towards the achievement of the millennium development goals would be near, if not absolutely impossible if these people's plight and their opinions are not made to count in the development efforts.

Looking at the Nigerian situation there are many factors that are impeding the achievement of the millennium development goals especially as it concerns the use of mass media as a tool of mobilization. Chief among these factors are; poverty, lack of basic media infrastructures and technical know-how, choice of dominant media language and medium, communication for development strategies and right principles but wrong practice of development journalism in Nigeria.

Factors Militating Against Media Roles Success in Achieving Mdgs in Nigeria

Looking at the situation in Nigeria today there are various evidences indicating that media performance is negated by many hinderances which extend from in-house/ management problems to external influences chief among which are poverty, lack of basic media infrastructures and technical know-how, choice of dominant media language, adopted communication strategies, principle versus practice of development journalism and many more.

Poverty

Poverty which was the initial reason why the millennium development goal was initiated in the year 2000, is still a major factor militating against the realization of the millennium development goals. Acute poverty cannot be captured vividly until one goes into the rural areas of Nigeria where people suffer from malnutrition, sickness and ignorance induced by poverty. The people classified as rich in these settings are not necessarily those that could afford luxurious mansions, but basic accommodation, food (nutritious or not) and clothing. For this reason many of these people could not afford the luxury of basic formal education as they have to be on the farm for their sustenance. Lending credence to this assertion, the UNDP in its 2000/2001 report on Nigeria human development cited in Yagboyaju (2008), says;

Nigerian human development index (HDI) valued at the dawn of the twenty-first century puts it among the lowest of the low. All the twenty-three countries whose HDI values are lower has been classified as least developed countries. It is only the paradox of Nigeria being a major oil producer and exporter while at the same time one of the most backward economy that prevents its classification as a least developed country. It is the only OPEC member that has fared so devastatingly poor

Poverty is a major contender in the effective information flow of information from the media. Not everybody can afford or maintain even the radio which has been acclaimed as the most effective and affordable. This situation is compounded by the poor electricity supply. Since most people especially the rural dwellers live below the poverty line, the maintenance of the radio by batteries is an additional burden that a lot of people would rather do without therefore, even if information are available, it may not effectively reach the target audience. This also applies to the print medium which may not even thrive in the rural areas of the country whose major feature is illiteracy which also is poverty induced. Pathetically, these rural communities constitute about 70% of the total population of most third world countries according to Mabogunje (1980).

Lack of Basic Media Infrastructures and Technical Know-How

Because of our corruption induced level of poverty in Nigeria there is a general lack of basic media infrastructures especially in the rural areas that most of these development target or goal should be directed considering the number of people in these areas. As earlier stated, radio is about the most effective medium of mass communication that should ordinarily be available to everybody; however as a consequence of poverty it is still not a medium for all. Again people are finding this medium more and more difficult to maintain due to erratic power supply. Because of poverty people in these poor settings would rather expend their meager resources on their basic priorities rather than expending it in the purchase of batteries for their transistor radios.

The world is moving from analogue technology to digital. This is another area where Nigeria media is still lagging behind as professionals are limited with the few ones still being invited from developed countries to render professional services at a very expensive cost.

Choice of dominant media language

The popular medium of mass communication listed above are in operation and use in Nigeria, however the choice of dominant media language which is English is a major factor that is negating its use as a medium of mobilization for development. The excuse for this has been based on the multilingualism in the Nigerian state. The choice of English then becomes an acceptable mode as the national official language and apparently the dominant media language as it cuts across linguistic boundaries because its speakers are well-spread all over Nigeria. The second reason for its choice is that no ethnic group can lay claim to it as their native language hence, it relegates to the background the problems of ethnicity and political rivalry in the already politically volatile Nigerian state.

In spite of all these qualities of the English language is still not the best media choice in Nigeria, based on the consideration for the bulk of the nation's population residing in the rural areas that are not vast in the language as a result of lack of formal education. Indeed, development in its true sense must be all

inclusive and information should be at people's disposal for them to participate in the effort, hence effective communication with these people will mean the use of not only the appropriate medium, but appropriate language which they understand and through a medium they are familiar with.

Adopted communication strategies

Looking at the trend of development in Nigeria, it is obvious that there is a need to focus more on the rural areas. There is however spatial imbalance especially when one considers the actual development task and information that is made available by the media, much of which are targeted towards the already developed urban areas and audience. These in many ways constitute a negation to the principles and practice of participation where it could have been better to focus more on the rural areas where more attention is needed in the achievement of the millennium development goals.

Principle versus practice of development journalism

In principle, the major function of development journalism which media practitioners should adhere to, is to give priority to development issues in information gathering and dissemination with special focus to the rural areas. This is relatively small and limited when compared with information targeted towards urban audience and areas. This contravenes the ideals of the development journalism principles, and it may constitute a major barrier to the realization of the millennium development goals in Nigeria.

This problem is aggravated more because of the government control of most of the media in Nigeria. This has made these media and journalist working in them dance to the tunes of the government paying or financing the media organizations. The resultant effect of course is that, the media becomes a tool of propaganda that is used to foster the political ambition of the people in power. This issue can also be affiliated with corruption and selfish ambition of journalists whose basic priority should be the interest in the welfare of the masses. Evidences are in the brown envelope syndrome which is an indirect payment for not telling the truth, as major stories which should serve as eye opener for the masses are being swept under the carpet in exchange for money. In principle the journalists are supposed to be partners in progress with the government and people, however in practice they are partnering with government in perpetuating propaganda at the expense of the masses whose interests should be their primary priority.

Media Roles In The Achievement Of The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) In Nigeria: The Way Forward

Beyond generation and transmission of messages, communication must effectively guarantee the extraction of relevant information for development which in turn would propel the masses towards participation and positive attitudinal changes that will enhance the achievement of the millennium development goals in the country. To this end, the media as well as practitioners working in them have vital roles to play. Some of these roles include; conceptualization and implementation of communication strategies, mobilization of the masses through participation, creation of development programs in the media to inform, encourage and inspire the masses for development.

Communication strategies for development

Communication is central to all human activities, development inclusive. For any development project to be planned effectively there must effective communication. This involves the effective sending of

message from a source and the ability of the receiver to properly decode and give appropriate feedback to the message received. For this to be possible, it is imperative that both the source and the receiver have a level ground for knowledge sharing. It is thus that the issue of media language choice becomes important. Essentially therefore, media operators in line with one of the major tenets of the development theory must create development programs in the indigenous languages as this will enhance proper decoding and participation, especially in the rural areas whose major feature is illiteracy.

There is also the need for media practitioners to mingle with people for whom these development programs are being designed for. This is important as it helps in no small measures in the message conceptualization strategy that is highly needed by the journalist in anticipation of the masses needs and development of messages that would meet the needs of the receivers.

Furthermore, it is the responsibility of the media practitioner to create or device appropriate message and message delivery strategies. These are vital ingredients of effective development mobilization, as appropriate message development involves structuring of message and message content so that it can make meaningful impact on the receiver, and elicit appropriate response or desired change. Message delivery is key in conveyance to the audience to achieve maximum impact. This strongly suggests involvement of various vehicle of transmission that the different media of mass communication offers, as these in different ways aid meaning as well as provides more clarity of the communication content.

For example cartoons and pictures in newspapers, audio effects in radio and the audio visual qualities of the television. Looking at these various strategies of communication for development, better understanding of the various traditional milieu of the masses towards whom communication are directed becomes imperative as this helps in reducing offensive friction that may be generated as a result of message decoding or miscoding by the receivers.

Mobilization through participation

Based on the tenets of the participatory media theory, there should be more reliance on local knowledge and ability, as well as involvement of the direct beneficiaries in a development plan. It is also much easier to achieve development if beneficiaries are incorporated into the development plans right from inception. The media can aid by giving clarifications in news and other development program on the benefits that the people will enjoy from adopting and participating in development programs. The media can aid development by giving prominence in content to development programs and various self help projects hoping that other communities would read, see or hear about these on the media, and will be spurred to actions that will bring about similar development to their communities. This also helps in pointing out or identifying other social needs, thereby provoking government, non-government and other donor group or individual into action.

For active participation, people should be allowed to decide for themselves their immediate and social needs, hence participants brainstorm, identify their needs, prioritize the various needs, create awareness through communication (media), and finally development project are jointly and effectively promoted and implemented, using the genres of news, drama, documentaries etc. To ensure these especially in the rural areas where many poverty induced problems have been identified, there is the need for community newspapers for the literates, and local radio listening and television viewing centers could be established

to inform, train and mobilize community members towards the achievement of their development aspirations.

Creation of development programs

Although development news and programs feature in most media of mass communication more of such programs should be made available in line with the stipulations in the development media theory adopted for this discourse.

Conclusion

For the aspirations and achievement of the Millennium Development Goals to come into fruition by 2015, the media in alliance with the people should work as a team, to conceptualize, plan and implement development activities. Development plan initiators always reach an impasse when they fail to incorporate direct stake holders or beneficiaries of the development program from the inception i.e conceptual and planning stage of development.

Finally the role of the media cannot be undermined in the process of development, as it constitute information channel through which people can obtain information towards development end, and if properly harnessed, can constitute an indispensable tool of mobilizing the populace towards the achievement of the Millennium Development goals. Because of these pertinent roles of the media, it is imperative that the government, if sincerely committed to the achievement of the Millennium development goals would make available necessary equipment, facilities and enabling environment for media practitioners to carry out their duties.

All said and done, the traditional media should not be relegated as obsolete as more than half of the total populace especially in developing African countries still relies on it as a credible information source. Also in line with the recent paradigm shift in favour of participatory development communication, there should be a strong link between the masses and the media that will guarantee free and constant flow of information, which is the strongest launch board for development.

Refrennces

Adaja, T.A (2006), *“Communication Strategies for Community Mobilization and Participation for Sustainable Development”*. Vol.1 no 1

Anaeto, S.G and Anaeto, M (2010), *“Development Communication Principle and Practice”*. Ibadan, Sterling- Holden Ltd. Ibadan

Anaeto, S.G, Onabajo, O.S and Osifeso, J.B (2008), *“Models and Theories of Communication”*. Bowie, Maryland, African Renaissance Books Incorporated.

Daramola, I. (2003), *“Introduction to Mass Communication”*. Second ed. Lagos , Owonike Rainbow Press.

Encarta dictionary (2009)

Folarin, B.A (1989), *“Theories of Mass Communication; An Introductory Text”*. Ibadan, Steling- Holden Ltd.

Harande, Y.I (2009), “*Library Philosophy and Practice*”. <http://www.webpages.uidaho.edu/~mbolin/harand>

Jacob Scrampical (2007), “*Understanding Development Communication*”. Delhi, Media House Delhi

Mabogunje, A.L (1980), *The Development Process: A Spatial Perspective*. London. Hutchin Ltd

McQuail (2000), “*McQuail’s Mass Communication Theory*”.5th ed. New Delhi, Sage Publication.

Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2000)

Thirlwall, A.P (2003), “*Growth and Development with Special Reference to Developing Economy*”. New York, Palgrave Macmillan.

White, S.A (1994), “*The Concept of Participation: transforming Rhetorics into Reality*”. New Delhi, Sage Publications.

Yagboyaju, D.A (2008),”*Attaining the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) in a Weak State: The Nigerian Example*” in International Review of Politics and DevelopmentParticipation. Vol. 6 Numbers 1 & 2.

**Measles Immunization Coverage to Identify the Impact of Millennium Development Goals In Ikenne Local Government Areas, Ogun State, Nigeria, West Africa.
A Seven –Year Review**

By

Sotunsa, J.O., & Babalola, R. A.

Department of Public & Allied Health, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo Ogun State, Nigeria.

Abstract

Vaccine preventable diseases are rampant in the developing countries. They are major contributors to the under 5 mortality. A review of the immunization of children in Ikenne Local Government Areas is done with an assessment of diseases from 2004 to 2010. Though measles vaccination increased by 29.25% in 2005 to 36%, the initial reduction in the incidence of measles between 2004 and 2008, witnessed a resurgence in both 2009 (21) AND 2010 (24). This might not be unconnected with the shortage in power supply which may affect the viability of the vaccines despite increased vaccination. To guarantee immunization, the preservation of the vaccines, adequate funding and transportation, proper handling and administration of the vaccination program must be ensured to achieve Millennium Development Goals.

Keywords: *measles Immunization, coverage, Ikenne LGA*

Background

The (Nigeria) national immunization policy revised in 2009 in the National Primary Health Care Development Agency stated that “It is the policy of the Federal Government to provide immunization services and potent vaccines free to all population (including Ikenne Local Government Area Population) at-risk of vaccine preventable diseases”, National Immunization Policy (2009).

Objective

This study is to review measles vaccination in Ikenne Local Government from 2004-2010 with the view to identifying the impact of the millennium development program on measles incidence in the local government over the same period. This would be in view of the objective to promote, to develop and to achieve the immunization programme geared towards reduction of childhood morbidity and mortality through immunization.

The Study Area

Ikenne Local Government Area is in Ogun State, Nigeria. Nigeria is the largest country in West Africa. It lies along the equator, having two seasons, the dry and raining seasons. The country produces crops such as cotton, cocoa, palm products and can fairly boast of thickly sources of petroleum product. Ogun State is one of the thirty-six states in Nigeria, which lies in the South-West, South Zone of the country. It lies in the tropical area where rubber, cocoa, coffee and palm product serves as cash products. Ogun is

blessed with many primary, secondary and tertiary institutions and immunization services being rendered in Teaching Hospitals, Medical Centers and Health Posts including Community Health Centers.

Ogun State is made up of four major divisions:

1. Remo land
2. Ijebu land
3. Egba land, and
4. Egbado land, now headquartered at Ishara.

Ikenne Local Government Area has major towns such as Ikenne, Ilishan, Irolu, Iperu, Ogere and others. Each town used to have pipe borne-water, electricity supply, tarred road, schools, Primary Health Care centers and postal agencies, while banking facilities is in most of the towns. The people are major farmers and petty traders with big-time kola nut traders. The people are very accommodating. They cherish their indigenous religions. There is relative peace throughout the Ikenne Local Government Area. Ikenne would ever be known as the home and the Local Government Area of Chief Obafemi Awolowo, the first Premier of Western Region of Nigeria who introduced Free-Primary-Education. Babalola, (2006).

The progress towards the Millennium Development Goals Goal 4-reduce child mortality

The fourth MDG is to reduce child mortality by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate. Immunization against measles, is one indicator of progress even though there was availability of a safe, effective and relatively expensive vaccine, measles remain a major cause of childhood mortalities; so immunization against measles an effective way to reduce child deaths. According to statistics division measles immunization coverage had shown slight improvements, between 1999 and 2003 rising from 73 percent to 77 percent globally. Statistics Division, (2003).

In 2005, Report on Nigeria Millennium Development Goals reported that there is high potential to attain some of the MDGs targets. However, there is the need for the improvement in the current policy environment and deployment of strong political will before the MDGs could be met by the year 2015, (through immunization) – the goal 4 in MDGs. The report also stated that one of the problems is the challenge of accurate, reliable, credible and believable statistics. There is the need to monitor the achievements of the MDG so far in Nigeria, monitor the budget and track the available resources to ensure its commitment to achievement of the set goals as well as retrieval of \$6.4 Billion paid by Nigeria to the rich countries in spite of challenges that it faces in meeting the MDGs. (Igbuzor, O, 2005).

Literature review on Millennium Development Goals

The Literature Review on Millennium Development Goals with Emphasis on Immunizations (**GOAL 4 – Reduce child mortality**) with focus on Ikenne Local Government Area, Ogun State, Nigeria. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are eight international development goals that all 192 United Nations member states and at least 23 international organizations have agreed to achieve by the year 2015. They include eradicating extreme poverty, reducing child mortality rates, fighting disease epidemics such as AIDS, and developing a global partnership for development. Back ground page UNMDs (2009).

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

- Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education
- Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women
- Goal 4: Reduce child mortality rates
- Goal 5: Improve maternal health
- Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases
- Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability
- Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development

The aim of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is to encourage development by improving social and economic conditions in the world's poorest countries. They derive from earlier international development targets, (The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development(OECD) 2011) and were officially established following the [Millennium Summit](#) in 2000, where all world leaders present adopted the [United Nations Millennium Declaration](#), OECD (2011).

The Millenium Development Goals: Can Nigeria meet the goals in 2015?

The question of whether Nigeria can or cannot meet the MDGs is a crucial one that should agitate the minds of politicians, government bureaucrats, civil society activists and development workers. In our view, there is no straightforward answer. It can be answered either in the negative or the affirmative. The NEEDS document clearly states that “if present trend continues, the country is not likely to meet the Millenium Development Goals.” On the other hand, the 2005 report gives the conditions for meeting the goals: strong political will and sustained efforts. Perhaps, a better way to frame the question is what can Nigeria do to meet the MDGs in 2015?. In our view, Nigeria has sufficient resources to meet the MDGs in 2015. But for this to happen, as argued above, the country will have to change course in the conceptualization and implementation of policies and programmes to achieve the MDGs.

The problem of development is a global challenge and the MDGs is a response by world leaders. There are limitations to utilizing the MDGs as a framework for delivering or measuring development. But they provide a platform to engage the development process. The situation in Nigeria indicates that there are challenges in meeting the goals by 2015. For Nigeria to meet the goals in 2015, there is the need to formulate and implement policies that will promote transparency and accountability; overcome institutional constraints; promote pro-poor growth; bring about structural change; enhance distributive equity; engender social and cultural re-orientation; engineer political transformation; promote human development; practice inclusive urban development; generate employment and transform power relations,by Igbuzor, O (2005).

NATIONAL IMMUNIZATION POLICY (REVISED 2009)

Introduction

The Nigeria's declaration on the survival, protection and development of children, which was articulated at the 49th World Health Assembly in 1988. This was further reinforced by the World summit for children held in New York in 1990. This declaration established challenges for global immunization. The Federal Government of Nigeria through the Federal Ministry of Health has pursued an active immunization programme, and has given priority to its immunization programme. The Expanded

Programme on Immunization (EPI) was initiated and restructured in 1979. It was renamed National Programme on Immunization (NPI) and established as Parastatal of the Federal Ministry of Health by decree 12 of 1997. Following the Federal Government Health Sector Reform, NPI was merged with the National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) in May 2007, The NPHCDA is now charged with the responsibility of effectively controlling, through provision of vaccines and immunization guidelines, the occurrence of the following diseases: Tuberculosis, Poliomyelitis, Diphtheria, Pertussis, Neonatal Tetanus, Measles, Yellow Fever, Hepatitis B, Haemophilus influenzae type b, Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis (CSM), and others. In Nigeria, all three levels of government (Federal, State and Local) are important partners, committed to the formulation of strategies and support for the implementation of an effective immunization programmes, according to Prof. Babatunde Osotimehin (OON) Hon. Minister of Health Federal Republic of Nigeria.

It is the policy of the Federal Government of Nigeria to provide immunization services and potent vaccines free to all population at risk of vaccine preventable diseases. This is achieved through the NPHCDA, other tiers of government and stakeholders by pursuing the following goals and objectives:

Goal/Objectives

The main goal and objective is to develop and promote immunization programmes geared towards reduction of childhood morbidity and mortality through adequate immunization coverage of all at-risk populations. The Federal Government shall pursue all strategies in conjunction with all tiers of Government to:

- i. Improve and sustain routine immunization coverage of all antigens to 90% by the year 2020 in line with the National Vision.
- ii. Achieve through quality supplemental activities, interruption of polio transmission by the end of 2009 and total eradication by the end of 2013)
- iii. Eliminate maternal and neo-natal tetanus by the end of 2010

Target groups/eligibility for immunization

- i. Eligible children 0–11 months
- ii. Eligible children 0-59 months
- iii. Women of child bearing age 15–49 years
- iv. Other at-risk groups especially in out-break situations and those traveling to endemic areas.
- iv. International travelers

No eligible person shall be denied immunization unless there are medical contraindications as stated in the standard of practice.

The following vaccines are included in the EPI schedule of vaccinations.

Traditional routine immunization vaccines

- i. Bacille-Calmette Guérin (BCG)
- ii. Oral Poliomyelitis Vaccine (OPV)
- iii. Diphtheria, Pertussis, Tetanus (DPT) Vaccine

- iv. Measles Vaccine
- v. Tetanus Toxoid
- vi. Yellow Fever Vaccine
- vii. Hepatitis B Vaccine
- viii. *Cerebrospinal Meningitis (CSM) Vaccine
- ix. **Vitamin A

Immunization schedule

The schedule is designed to include all children 0-1 years who shall receive one dose of BCG, one dose of Yellow Fever vaccine, 3 doses of DPT, 3 doses of Hib vaccines, 3 doses of Hep.B vaccines 4 doses of OPV and one dose of Measles vaccine before the age of one. There shall also be a separate schedule for women of childbearing age (WCBA).

Injection safety

The safety of injections, including the proper disposal of used injection equipment, is of primary concern in ensuring the well being of people receiving therapeutic injections, immunization injections, or injections for other purposes. Injection safety must be a concern for both public and private health institutions.

Policy statement

The federal ministry of health through the national primary health care development agency (NPHCDA) shall pursue the policy that vaccinations, which require injections, given in public and private health institutions should be by qualified health personnel and must be safe. it means that every injection be given using a single sterile syringe and needle combination, which is then safely disposed of after use.

Auto-disable disposable syringes (plastic)

- These syringes are the safest and easiest injection equipment. All inject table vaccines should continue to be administered using Auto-disable syringes.

- The Federal government shall ensure the provision and availability of acceptable equipment for injection.(AD syringes and safety boxes)

The provision of safety boxes for disposal of used syringes shall be mandatory.

DISPOSAL AND DESTRUCTION OF USED INJECTION EQUIPMENT

Safe disposal of injection equipment

- All used injection equipment must be safely disposed off.
- All disposable syringes and needles, including auto-disable equipment, should be disposed of immediately following use in a designated safety box or sharps puncture-proof container.
- The needle should not be recapped or removed from the syringe; the whole combination should be inserted into the safety box directly after use.

- A system for tracking the distribution, utilization and destruction of injection equipment should be introduced.
- Additional waste from injections (cap, syringe packaging, cotton wool) should be disposed of appropriately away from harm.

Methods of disposal

- The method of choice for destruction of filled safety boxes is incineration, preferably in an appropriate high-temperature incinerator ($> 800^{\circ}\text{C}$).
If such an incinerator is unavailable, a low-temperature incinerator ($300\text{--}400^{\circ}\text{C}$) may be used.
- Alternatively, appropriate burn and bury method should be used to destroy filled safety boxes
- Residue from incineration (oxidized needles, vials, etc.) should be safely removed and properly buried in an appropriate pit.

Storage:

Storage of vaccines requires that the cold chain be maintained and the vaccines kept at correct temperature.

Distribution:

Government shall ensure that vaccines reach the desired point of application with adequate logistics, which include cold chain facilities.

Acceptable equipment for injections

The following equipment types are acceptable for injections:

Auto-disable disposable syringes (plastic)

- These syringes are the safest and easiest injection equipment. All injectable vaccines should continue to be administered using Auto-disable syringes.
- The Federal government shall ensure the provision and availability of acceptable equipment for injection. (AD syringes and safety boxes)
The provision of safety boxes for disposal of used syringes shall be mandatory.

Training

Training on waste disposal shall form part of the training and continuing education of all immunization Service providers.

Monitoring and Supervision

Monitoring and supervision should be a major component of immunization service delivery and an appropriate personnel will be trained, (by review committee members.)

Nigeria achieves 98 per cent polio eradication

The Minister of Health, Prof. C.O. Onyebuchi Chukwu has said that Nigeria has achieved 98 per cent polio eradication indicating that Nigeria is right on its way to eradicate polio disease to meet the Millennium Development Goals target by 2015. Also that the visit of the Rotary Club would reinforce the collaboration between the Ministry and the organization which will help in bridging the gap in routine immunization and by extension eradicating polio in Nigeria.

Earlier, the leader of the delegation, Sir Gabriel Toby said that Rotary International would not rest on its oars to making sure that polio was eradicated from Nigeria adding that Rotary International has been working closely with WHO, Centre for Disease Control(CDC), United States Government and the Federal Ministry of Health to see that Nigeria is polio free. He said that from 1985 to date, Rotary International has immunized about 2 billion children under-five globally and has prevented 500,000 new cases of polio, News (2010).

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

Since the Millennium Declaration in 2000, the MDGs have become important tools of monitoring human progress across nations. The eight time-bound goals are aimed at achieving the following by 2015: eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV&AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; and develop a global partnership for development.

UNDP has been given the role of Global MDG Monitor for the UN System, a role that UNDP Nigeria takes very seriously. On a global level and in collaboration with other development partners, the UNDP has transformed the MDGs into an actionable instrument of development management, UNDP in Nigeria (2009).

Global Measles and Polio Initiative

The international Federation's global measles and Polio initiative planned for 2010-2011 aimed to enable Red cross crescent National Societies to work as key social mobilization partners in the measles initiative (MI) and global polio Eradication Initiative (GPES). Funds and technical support was provided through the global measles and polio Initiative which allowed the National Societies to respond to the Ministry of Health requests to provide community level social mobilization before, during and after mass immunization campaigns, especially to goal 4(reduce under five mortality by two-thirds between 1990-2015) and global Agenda goal 2. *Annual Report (2009).*

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS 1990-2005

Goal 4-Reduce Child Mortality

The fourth MDG is to reduce child mortality by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate.

Immunization against measles, is one indicator of progress even though there was availability of a safe, effective and relatively in expensive vaccine, measles remain a major cause of childhood mortalities; so immunization against measles an effective way to reduce child deaths. According to statistics division

measles immunization coverage had shown slight improvements, between 1999 and 2003 rising from 73 percent to 77 percent globally. Statistics Division (2003).

IMMUNIZATION COVERAGE OF ANTENATAL AND IMMUNIZATION CLINICS

Attendees in the Niger Delta University Teaching Hospital

The purpose of Kunle- Olowu at al was to determine the coverage for immunization in the first year of life and administration of tetanus Toxoid in the Niger Delta. According to Kunle-Olowu (2010); a total of 528 were surveyed retrospectively using the immunization register, 521 (98.7%) had BCG, 512 (97.0%) had OPVO, 372 had (70.5%) had OPV, /DPT/ HEPBV, 313 (59.3%) had OPV₂/ HEPBV₂, while only 251 (47.5%) had OPV₃/ DPT₃. Only 94 (17.8%) had measles/yellow fever vaccines. Though 144% of the surveyed children had the complete disease of vaccine. A total of 601 mothers were surveyed using the antenatal and immunization registers. 151 (25.2%) and 82 (13.6%) had TT1 and TT2, while 368 (61.2%) had both TT1 and TT2 in pregnancy 123.

National Immunization Policy

The objective and main goal of NIP is to develop and promote immunization programmes towards reduction of childhood morbidity and mortality through adequate immunization coverage of all at risk populations. So it is the policy of the Federal Government of Nigeria to provide immunization services and potent vaccines free to all population at risk of vaccine preventable diseases. This would be achieved through the National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) other tiers of government and stakeholders by pursuing the goals and objectives. NIP REVISED (2009)

United Nations Foundation-Measles

Since 2001, the measles initiative a partnership led by the American Red Cross, the United Matrons Foundation, the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, UNICEF and the World Health Organization had helped to reduce measles deaths by 78% globally and 92% in Africa (Compared to 2000). They worked closely with national government and local communities. UNF, measles initiative(2010).

First Opportunity Measles Vaccination

Routine measles immunization is in line where the African Regional recommended Schedule for measles vaccination of one measles vaccination given subcutaneously at or shortly after 9 months of age. Up till now the African Region Nigeria has not had any policies for second measles doses in routine immunization (in Nigeria) while since My 2008, the Regional Measles Technical Advisory Group (TAG) recommended the introduction criteria. The proportion of children below one 1 hear of age immunized against measles is one of the key indicators used to ensure the progress towards reducing child mortality in the millennium Development Goals (MDGs). First opportunity measles vaccination, (2009).

Who expanded programme on immunization

The World Health Organization (WHO), through the implementation of various World Health Assembly and Regional Committee resolutions, has encouraged countries, including Nigeria, to improve and intensify effort to address the goal of routine immunization within the context of strengthened national immunization programmes. Routine immunization remains a concern for Nigeria Government who has put it high on the agenda, and it is anticipated that this effort would significantly contribute towards achieving the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of halving mortality by 2015. WHO, (2011).

WHO/WHO and UNICEF Immunization coverage

WHO recommends that all children receive one dose of vaccine BCG, three doses of vaccine DTP, three doses of either oral polio vaccine (OPV) or inactivated polio vaccine (IPV), three doses of hepatitis B vaccine, and one dose of a measles virus-containing vaccine (MVCV), either anti-measles alone or in combination with other antigens. It also recommends three doses of vaccine against infection with *Haemophilus influenza* type b (Hib). To boost immunity at older ages, additional immunizations are recommended for healthcare workers, travelers, high-risk groups and people in areas where the risk of specific vaccine-preventable diseases is high. Immunization coverage levels and trends are used (i) to monitor the performance of immunization services locally, nationally and internationally; (ii) to guide strategies for the eradication, elimination and control of vaccine-preventable diseases; (iii) to identify areas of immunization systems that may require additional resources and focused attention; and (iv) to assess the need to introduce new vaccines into national and local immunization systems. Models of vaccine-preventable disease burden frequently include immunization coverage levels among their components. Coverage levels for measles vaccine and DTP are indicators of health system performance frequently considered by funding agencies when reviewing applications for financial and technical support. **Measles immunization coverage is one of the indicators for tracking progress towards Millennium Development Goal 4, to reduce child mortality.**

Furthermore, trends in immunization coverage are used to establish the link between immunization service delivery and disease occurrence and to provide a framework for setting future coverage goals.

Millennium Development Goals (MDGS)

MDGS are eight international development goals that all 192 United Nations member states with 23 international organizations have agreed to achieve by the year 2015. The goals include eradication of extreme poverty, reducing child mortality rates, fighting disease epidemics such as AIDS, developing a global partnership for development, (Wikipedia) 2010.

Millennium Development Goals (MDGS) and Health Targets

The Millennium Development Goals were endorsed by all United Nations member states at the 2000 Millennium Summit and provide 18 targets, while eight of the 18 targets and 18 of the 48 indicators are health-related. Then, even though the MDGS do not provide a comprehensive list of health targets, they are an important milestone in progress towards health for all. MDGS (2003), **RE: (NIP) REVISED (2009).**

UNDP's Support to Achievement of the MDGS

UNDP has been given the role of Global MDG Monitor for the UN System, a role that UNDP Nigeria takes very seriously. On a global level and in collaboration with other development partners, the UNDP has transformed the MDGs into an actionable instrument of development management by turning the eight goals into 18 targets and 48 indicators that can be used to monitor human progress across nations. Nigeria amongst other nations has signed up to these goals, targets and indicators.

In Nigeria, evidence from the 2006 MDGR shows that there is a likelihood of achieving three of the eight goals in Nigeria; achieving universal basic education; ensuring environmental sustainability; and developing global partnership for development while the health MDGs remain daunting challenges for Nigeria. A critical barrier to planning for achievement of the MDGS continues to be the availability of up to date data on most of the indicators. This is compounded by the limited funding available for data generation and management, (Annual Report).

Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) activities in Ecuador for Goal 4

PAHO promotes and coordinates technical cooperation and partnerships with the public and private sectors and the international community to **reduce child mortality**. These activities are implemented through its Area of Family and Community Health and its Immunization unit. These activities support countries' efforts to achieve sustainable and equitable reduction of morbidity and mortality of vaccine – preventable diseases through elimination and control strategies.

PAHO provides technical assistance to countries in improving the performance of vaccination and surveillance programs. It works to enhance country laboratory diagnostic capabilities and regional laboratory networks, promote the political priority and sustainability of immunization programs through policy and legislation, and ensure the timely supply of quality vaccines through the **PAHO Revolving Fund for Vaccine Procurement**.

Material and methods

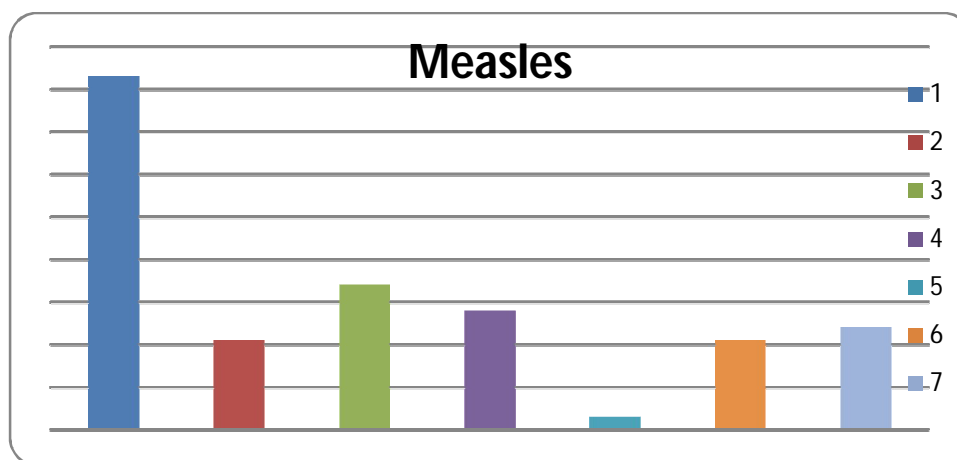
A retrospective descriptive study of measles incidence and measles vaccination covering a period of seven years, from year 2004 to 2010. The data was collected from the record of Ikenne Local Government Areas Health Team Government Immunization Officer. The information obtained included the measles case and measles vaccinations. The data was collected and analyzed using Excel package.

RESULT

Measles incidence Table 1

In the year 2004, eighty three, (83) children suffered measles. By 2005 it reduced to twenty one, (21). Surprisingly, there was an increase to thirty four (43) in the year 2006. It also came down to twenty eight (28) the following year 2007. The Local government put smiles on its face when only three (3) cases were recorded on the year 2008. By 2009 it drastically jumped to twenty one (21); and increased to twenty four by 2010.

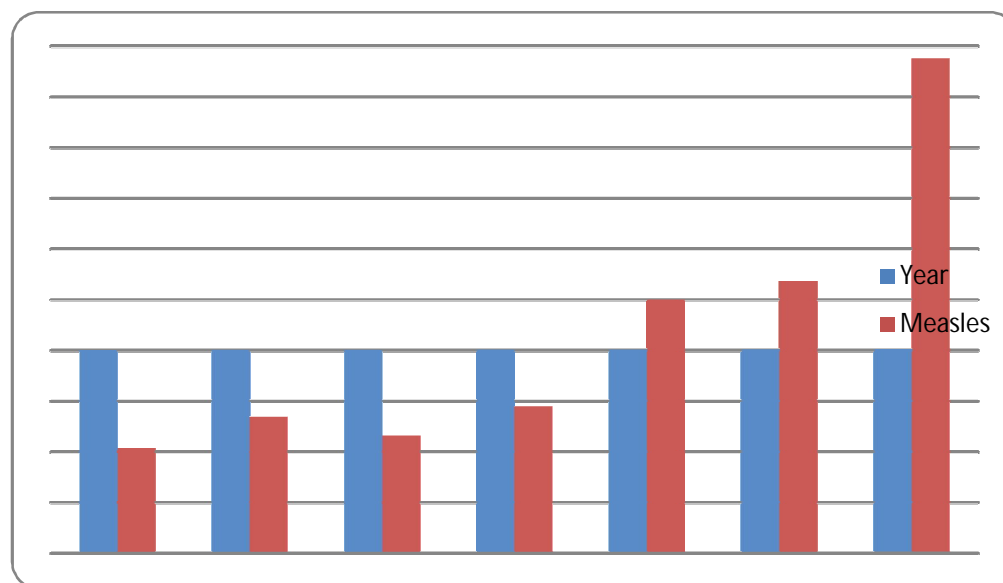
Table 1The incidence of measles



Incidence Year (2004-2010)

The incidence of measles in the local government was highest in the year 2004 with 80 cases reported and lowest in 2008 with 3 cases reported. This gain however was dwarfed by the gradual increase in the year 2009 and 2010 reporting 21 and 24 cases which revealed 700 to 800% increase over the lowest incidence in 2008.ss

Table 2 Measles vaccination Year 2004-2010



Measles vaccination

Year (2004 – 2010)

Measles Vaccination Table 2

In 2004, one thousand and thirty nine (1039) children, received vaccinations, it increased to one thousand and forty three (1043) in 2005. The children received reduced to one thousand one hundred and fifty five (1155) in the year 2006. The reason it went up in 2007 to one thousand four hundred and forty seven (1447). There was an increase again in the year 2008 to two thousand and five hundred; It increased to two thousand eight hundred and eighty two (2882) by the year 2009 and year 2010 recorded the highest vaccination of four thousand eight hundred and seventy three (4873).

Discussions

The vaccination against measles is a key intervention in reducing child morbidity and mortality. The exact population of the under-fives in Ikenne Local Government is not known. For this reason the immunization is compared with the year of the start of the study. Over the seven years, there had been a gradual increase in the vaccination of children in the local government – 0.38% increase in 2005, 11.16% in 2006, 39.26 in 2007, 140.61% in 2008, 177.38% in 2009 and 369% in 2010. This progressive increase may be due to aggressive immunization days launched in response to the undesirable increase in the incidence of measles despite the successive increase in vaccination against measles. Similar increase had been noted in many local government areas in Nigeria (Measles Initiative, 2010).

Conclusions

The gradual decline in the incidence of measles from 2004 to 2008 is quiet commendable but the surge from 2009 is worrisome. This means some factors that affects the efficacy of the vaccination, immigration and introduction of wild strains into the community needs to be taken care of. The maintenance of the cold chain and proficiency of the personnel administering the vaccines are important factors that need evaluation so as to enhance immunization from the vaccination. (Kunle-Olowu, 2011).

Recommendation

All hand should be on desk to achieve the MDGs in 2015, if only the 2008 activities are revisited. Which made the result of measles cases came down to all most the eradication of the disease in Ikenne LGA, Ogun State, Nigeria.

References

Annual Report (2007) UNDP's Support to Achievement of the MDGs in Nigeria. Retrieved on 14/6/2011 from www.ng.undgp.org

Babalola, D. O. (2002), The Compass, G. Olarotayo & co. Ikenne, Ogun State, Nigeria.

[Background page](#), United Nations Millennium Development Goals website, retrieved 16 June 2009.

Burton, A., Monasch R., Lautenbach, B., Gacic-Dobo, M., Neill, M., Karmov, R., Wolfson, L., Jones, C., & Birmingham, M., WHO (2011); WHO & UNICEF estimates of National Infant Immunization Coverage: WHO 2011.

First Opportunity measles Vaccination – routine measles immunization. Retrieved from <http://www.afro.who.int>

Global Elimination of Measles. Retrieved June 2011 from www.measlesinitiative.org/ Reported by Secretariat (2011)

Global measles & Polio initiative plan 2010-2011 by International Federation of Red Cross & Red Crescent Societies

Goal 4 (2005), Reduced child mortality Retrieved on 24/6/2011 from source <http://millenniumindicators.un.org>

Goldhaber, Fiebert, J.D, (2011), Qualifying Child Mortality Reductions Related to Measles Vaccination, <http://www.plosone.org>

Kunle-Olowu, A (2011) Immunization coverage of antenatal and immunization clinics attendees in Niger-Delta. Retrieved from www.academicjournals.org/, Journal of Public Health and Epidemiology vol 3 (3) pp 90-93, March 2011.

Millennium Dev. Goals, WHO Health in the Millennium Dev. Goals Retrieved 2/4/2006 from filr: //A:lara%202.htm

MDG: Can Nigeria meet the goal in 2015? Retrieved from, MDG for CAN (Read only)

Millennium Dev. Goals: Nigeria. United Nations Statistics Division (2007)

National Immunization Policy Revived (2009)

PAHO Activities in Ecuador for Goal 4, Millennium Dev. Goals Retrieved on 24/6/2011 from, www.paho.org.

Population Reports (1986), Issues on World Health, Series L. Number 5, J.H.U Maryland

Rebecca F., Kathryn, P., Alberti PA, Lisa AK, Maria-Eve B (1996), Delivery Quantity Immunization Services. BASICS Q. Newslett.3(1): 3

[The OECD and the Millennium Development Goals](#), OECD Development Co-operation Directorate website, retrieved 11 June 2011.

WHO Expanded Immunization Programme United Nations Foundation – Measles (2010) □

BIBLICAL MANDATES FOR SUSTAINABLE SANITATION

By

Afolarin Olutunde Ojewole, Ph.D.

Babcock University, Nigeria

Abstract

In September 2000, world leaders at the United Nations unanimously signed the Millennium Declaration and agreed to meet eight (8) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the year 2015 that would improve the lives of the world's poorest people. The seventh MDG which targets halving, by 2015, the proportion of the population without sustainable access to basic sanitation, is badly off track in most countries thus affecting all the other MDGs. Currently, more than 2.6 billion people (about 40% of the world's population and about half the population of the developing world) do not have access to basic sanitation; 1.1 billion of whom defecate in the open, the bush, back yards, ditches, or buckets or at best in leaky privies. Subsequently, about 1.5 million children under the age of five die yearly because of water- and sanitation-related diseases. Hundreds of millions suffer with Ascaris worms, hookworm, schistosomiasis and liver fluke. Others have dysentery, hepatitis, [giardia](#), [tapeworms](#), [typhoid](#), [polio](#), [trachoma](#), [tropical enteropathy](#). Hepatitis A, B and C, typhoid fever, poliomyelitis and other enteroviruses, neurocysticercosis and other zoonoses. All these can be dealt with through safe disposal of excreta and safe hygienic behavior. This paper will examine the strong and clear biblical mandates for sanitation and hygienic behavior in order to better educate the populace. The social responsibility of leadership concerning sanitation as mandated by scriptures will be enumerated. The religious and spiritual implications of sanitation would be discussed with the view of encouraging houses of worship to push for hygienic behaviors.

KEYWORDS: Sanitation, open defecation, excrement, hygiene, cleanliness.

Introduction

In September 2000, world leaders at the United Nations unanimously signed the Millennium Declaration and agreed to meet eight (8) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the year 2015 that would improve the lives of the world's poorest people. These include ending poverty and hunger; universal education; gender equality; child health; maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS; environmental sustainability; and global partnership. The seventh MDG which includes halving, by 2015, the proportion of the population without sustainable access to basic sanitation, is badly off track in most countries thus affecting all the other MDGs.

On the 28th of July, 2010, the United Nation adopted a resolution stating that: "Safe and clean drinking water and sanitation is a human right essential to the full enjoyment of life and all other human rights." In September 2010, the Human Rights Council reiterated that the right to water and sanitation is an integral part of the right to an adequate standard of living, which is contained in several existing human rights

treaties such as the “International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights” and the “Convention on the Rights of the Child.”

Sanitation is a sensitive issue. It is an unpopular and “dirty” subject. It is not fun to talk about and it makes people uncomfortable. It is unglamorous, yet vital. Insufficient efforts have been made on adequate sanitation by many governments, communities, and people generally. The disposal of human waste is not a fun subject (The Morung Express, May 23, 2011). Effective sanitation depends on factors such as education, behavioral changes, access to clean water, waste management, and the safe disposition of human excreta (Orlando, 2001).

This paper seeks to address this problem: the noble seventh MDG goal of halving, by 2015, the proportion of the population without sustainable access to basic sanitation falls far too short. Even if the goal were on target, by 2015, some 1.3 billion people would still be defecating in the open (Lenton, 2005; WHO/UNICEF, 2004). The goal for any human right should be universal coverage as soon as practicable. The number of the world’s population without access to improved sanitation facilities is double the number without access to improved water supply (Lenton, 2005; WHO/UNICEF, 2004). Sanitation is vital for health, brings dignity, equality and safety, represents a good economic investment, and sustains clean environments.

It is said that “cleanliness is next to godliness.” However, the Bible makes cleanliness a part of godliness. Sanitation is sacred (Deut 23:9-14). “Denouncing dirt” is a “religious duty” (Alexander, 1985, p. 374). This paper looks at the sanitation problem of open defecation and other wrongful disposals of human excrement from the biblical standpoint with a view to proffering solutions. “A clean environment is a reflection of a God-friendly place” (Ahiamadu, 2011, p. 3). The inadequacies of certain sanitation programs would be mentioned.

Documentary methodology and library method will be employed as this paper examines literature, reports, and statistics on this subject to suggest the way forward.

Minimal inter-disciplinary approach would be needed in pursuing sustainable solutions to the sanitation debacle should be interlinked and inter-connected. The scope of this work is limited to the seventh MDG on access to adequate disposal of human excreta. It adopts a “close reading” of the Bible in its present “final form” and applies it to this MDG. It is limited exclusively to the biblical view on this matter while respecting and recognizing other religious persuasions.

Open Defecation

As at today, more than 2.6 billion people do not have access to basic sanitation, 1.1 billion of whom defecate in the open. Much of the global populations defecate, not in toilets, but behind their houses, in the bush, back yards, ditches, or buckets or at best in leaky privies. It is estimated that about 33 million Nigerians defecate in the open, depositing about 1.7m tonnes of faeces into the environment annually. Buadi advocates that the cities of West-Africa must be kept clean to ensure God’s “visitation and presence” and disease prevention (2011, p. 16).

Open defecation is the most dangerous sanitation practice for public health. Children’s feces can be seen in common alleyways or drainage ditches. Unfortunately, other children run into this as they play around and thereby contact diseases (Shordt, 2006; Yeager, et al., 1999; Ahmed, 2005; Allan, 2003; Hanchett, et al., 2003).

Poor Sewage Disposal and Treatment

A sewerage system consists of facilities for the “collection, conveyance, and treatment of wastewater and the disposal of treated effluents. It collects rainwater and industrial, domestic, and human wastes through drains, pipes, and sewers” (Cheremisinoff, 1994, p. 17: 222). The treatment of sewage and wastewater involves the removal of those “characteristics and constituents that are objectionable and present a threat to public health, safety, and the environment” (Cheremisinoff, 1994, p. 17: 222).

In rich countries where sewers and sewage treatment systems are considered signs of progress, these present the problems of toxic sludge. The mixture of undifferentiated industrial and household wastes that goes through the treatment process leaves nasty sludge that is bad for the environment because of careless disposal (Orlando, 2001). People have been exposed to airborne contaminants from land-applied sewage sludge and those who inhale these irritant gases and pathogen-contaminated, limed sludge dust are prone to infections of respiratory and gastrointestinal systems and serious, life-threatening complications (Orlando, 2001).

The Evil Effects of Poor Sanitation in General and Open Defecation in Particular

Cleanliness is the gateway to healthy living. Decency, cleanliness, and effective sanitation promote health, and prevent many diseases, hence, cleanliness is considered indispensably necessary. The improper management of human excreta wreaks havoc on people's health in both rich and poor countries. Half the world's people are enduring a medieval level of sanitation and suffering from medieval level of disease (Orlando, 2001).

About 1.5 million children under the age of five die yearly because of water and sanitation related diseases. The guts of 1.5 billion people host greedy, parasitic, [ascaris](#) worms, about 740 million have [hookworm](#) voraciously devouring their blood, 200 million with debilitating [schistosomiasis](#) and up to 70 million with [liver fluke](#). Others have dysentery, [giardia](#), [tapeworms](#), [typhoid](#), [polio](#), and [trachoma](#) and such like.

Millions more are affected by [tropical enteropathy](#), where the gut wall is damaged and nutrient absorption is reduced – in effect, wasting food. Others include Hepatitis A, B, and C, typhoid fever, poliomyelitis, neurocysticercosis, intestinal helminth infections (which impedes growth and cognitive development of children), dracunculiasis, and trachoma (the leading cause of preventable blindness). More than half the hospital beds in the world are occupied by people who have these diseases. The trauma of watching children die from such preventable diseases often has lasting impacts on the psychological and emotional health of surviving parents, siblings, and relatives (Lenton, 2005; WHO/UNICEF, 2004; Curtis, 2000; Mara, 2001).

Inadequate sanitation remains a leading cause of diarrheal disease and mortality among children in developing countries, particularly in urban slums. The Global Burden of Disease Study undertaken by the World Bank (Lopez, et al., 2006) indicates that 15% of all the deaths in children under 5 years in low- and middle-income countries are directly attributable to diarrheal disease. Eighty-eight percent (87%) of the diarrheal disease burden is caused by unsafe sanitation, water, and hygiene (Bartram, et al., 2005).

Unsanitary disposal of human excreta coupled with inadequate refuse and drainage facilities cause untold havoc for millions in Nigeria (Hodges, 2001). “Poor people typically face greater environmental health risks in their surroundings because they live in unhealthy locations such as low-lying and marginal lands and lack basic infrastructural facilities, like clean water and sanitation” (Oguntoyinbo-Atere, 2008, p. 184). Health effects of safe excreta disposal are greater in more densely crowded areas where diseases easily move from one person to the next. (Orlando, 2001; Esrey, 1996; Bateman, 1991).

Buttenheim (2008) argues that children toileting matters more than adult toileting behavior in creating a safe, hygienic environment. In many cultures, the excreta of young children are regarded as benign, and are not treated with the same hygienic concern as the excreta of adults. Fecal contamination of breast, infant food, drinking water, utensils, toys, and child caretakers’ hands cause untold sufferings. It is the safe disposal of children’s feces and thorough hand washing habit that will produce maximum health gains.

When excreta disposal is improved, literature demonstrates significant reduction in the incidence of diarrhea (Hill, 2004; Curtis, 2000); helminth (Khanom, 1989; Nokes et al, 1992); ascariasis; Trichuris; and Ancylostomiasis/Necator (Norhayati, 2003). The significant health benefits of safe excreta disposal have been shown in various studies to bring tangible health benefits in Africa, Asia, South America other parts of the world (Esrey, 1991; Esrey, 1996; Aulia, *et al.*, 1994; Traore, 1994; Mertens, 1992; Rahman, *et al.*,1985; Daniels, *et al.*,1990).

Good sanitation and hygiene will reduce diseases and thus missing school days while increasing school performance and promoting universal primary education. In the long run, this will contribute to the empowerment, equality, dignity, safety, and privacy of human beings, especially for girls and women (Shordt, 2006). Good sanitation can also boost our efforts to combat HIV-AIDS and malaria, simply because people living in hygienic conditions are better prepared to fight off other diseases. In short, improved sanitation can contribute to all the eight (8) Millennium Development Goals.

Biblical Mandates for Sustainable Sanitation

When God pronounced all creation as “very good,” (Gen 1:31), He mandated that the human tenants and caretakers should maintain it in that condition (Gen 1:28; 2:15). Throughout the Old Testament, one can see numerous divine mandates to keep this eco-balance through humans’ responsibilities to their environment (See Gen 9:3-6; Lev 11; Deut 14; 20:19-20; 22:6-7, 9; Lev 19:19; 20:15:22; 25:18, to mention but a few). This paper will focus on the biblical mandates for sustainable sanitation in general and the prevention of open defecation in particular, as found in Deuteronomy 23:9-14: 9.

When the army goes out against your enemies, then keep yourself from every wicked thing. 10. If there is any man among you who becomes unclean by some occurrence in the night, then he shall go outside the camp; he shall not come inside the camp. 11. But it shall be, when evening comes, that he shall wash with water; and when the sun sets, he may come into the camp. 12. Also you shall have a place outside the camp, where you may go out; 13. and you shall have an implement among your equipment, and when you sit down outside, you shall dig with it and turn and cover your refuse. 14. For the LORD your God walks in the midst of your camp, to deliver you and give your enemies over to you; therefore your camp shall be holy, that He may see no unclean thing among you, and turn away from you.

The laws in this passage are connected to those in Deut 20 and other sections which discuss the soldiers and the camp in holy war. Often, in the Law of Moses, duties of the “lowest, humblest, and most common order are urged on the people by the highest and noblest sanctions” (Alexander, 1985, p. 370). This passage is summarized: “be clean, be holy.” “Holiness is at the center of God’s being, distinguishing him from everything on earth and in heaven” (Hartley, 2003, p. 430).

In their dwelling places as well as their encampment during war times, they must take care to keep themselves and their camp pure from moral, ceremonial, and natural physical pollution. In a military camp composed of a large body of men, cut off from normal social relations, there are too frequent temptations to lower standards of conduct. This is inexcusable. Usually, public opinion favors or overlooks immoralities among soldiers and sailors which may not be tolerated in ordinary society, as if these are justifiable necessities of their situation (Alexander, 1985). These obligations were to be strictly observed even in time of war when “movements were irregular, uncertain, and attended with much excitement, that there would be the strongest tendency to fail in their observance. But no amount of war pressure would be any excuse for uncleanness” (Alexander, 1985, p. 370). The Bible presents this extreme war condition to prove that in no home or accommodation should uncleanness and inadequate disposal of human excrement be allowed or practiced.

Decency and strict adherence to sanitary rules, physical cleanliness and purity of life are here admonished. “The condition of Israel before God was much more important than her military preparations for meeting the enemy. God could not consistently lead a faithless, unclean people to victory” (SDACOM, 1:1034).

Moral pollution is treated in Deut 23:9. They were to *keep themselves from every evil thing*. The verb in this verse is “an interesting case of the reflexive” (Thompson, 1978, p. 240). Sin must be avoided at all costs because it dampens valour and one’s peace with God. Ceremonial pollution, conscious or unconscious, is inferred in Deut 23:10-11. One so polluted was mandated to wash his flesh in water, and look upon himself as *unclean until the evening*, Lev. 15:16. The law seems to be “motivated by the religious significance attaching to life and reproduction” (Thompson, 1978, p. 240). This instilled in them a very great dread of all fleshly lusts. Military service or emergency situation was no excuse for carelessness, uncleanness, and unsanitary behavior.

Natural physical pollution is highlighted in Deut 23:12-14. This divine law was to teach modesty, neatness, cleanliness, and decorum as it distinguishes humans from beasts who know no shame. Filthiness is offensive to the senses, unhealthy, discomforting to human life, and an evidence of a careless slothful temper of mind. A sanitary environment is reverence of the divine majesty and a regard one to another. It is a law against nuisances and being offensive and grievous to others.

The injunction in Deut 23:12-14 are anti-pollution laws (Abodunrin, 2008). The reason given is that Israel had the privilege of God walking among them and His presence called for their “purity of conduct and refined delicacy in their personal and domestic habits!” (Abodunrin, 2008, pp. 137-138, 144). Pollution includes the introduction by human beings into the environment, substances that can cause hazard to health of fellow human beings, other living things, and to the eco-system (Abodunrin, 2008). Environmental pollution could be land or surface area; aquatic or water; and air or atmospheric because

the environment is closely knit. The prohibition on open defecation in Deut 23:12-14 touches each part of these.

Atowaju and Berekiah (2008) see the principles of the “covenant” as part of the prohibition in Deut 23:12-14. Fecal pollution would nullify the covenant between God and his people causing their protection, peace and prosperity to be withdrawn. God was in their midst to “work for their deliverance and for the confusion of their enemies” (Alexander, 1985, p. 372). Theirs was to be a “pure camp for a pure King.” All-seeing One, the Inspector of all our ways, walks through the camp. “The experience among Orientals and Occidentals is that something more than sanitary reason is needed to overcome man’s indolence and keep him clean!” (Alexander, 1985, p. 374).

Religion here comes to the aid of the civil power in achieving sustainable sanitation. People are painfully slow in accepting the sacredness of sanitation because they have been taught that “matter” is essentially unholy, and could not be made sacred. Biblical religion makes no such dichotomy between the body and the soul (Alexander, 1985, p. 374).

Certain words and phrases need to be emphasized in this passage: “paddle” in verse 13—“A sharp instrument of various uses. It was used as a pin, or tent peg (Exod 27:19; Judges 4:21-22), a tool used in weaving (Judges 16:13, 14); a stake, figuratively used of protection under God’s hand (Isa 33:20). The RSV reads, ‘a stick with your weapons’” (SDACOM, 1:1034). They were to carry with them along with their implements of war a tool for digging in the earth. Their feces must be totally buried/covered in the soil, never exposed.

“God walketh” (Deut 23:14) in the camp, thus making the camp a holy ground. The ark was in the camp as a token of Jehovah’s presence (See Num 10:33-36). The form of the verb ‘to walk’ here used suggests walking up and down, going to and from, going about in the camp; accompanying the camp wherever it went (See Gen 3:8; 13:17; 2 Sam 7:6-7). Apostle Paul in 2 Cor 6:16 to 7:1 made allusion to these as he described God walking among His people who must cleanse themselves of all filthiness (SDACOM, 1:1034; Driver, 1973, pp. 263-264).

“No unclean thing” mentioned in Deut 23:14, means literally, “any nakedness or shamefulness of anything,” referring to indecent exposure or anything one would be ashamed of. The same word occurs in Gen 9:22-23; Exod 28:42; Lev 18:6-7; etc. “Turn away” mentioned in Deut 23:14 is comparable to Jer. 32:40. “Nothing shameful, unclean, indecent, should be allowed to go unchecked, or God would not remain in the camp—meaning that He would allow them to be defeated by their enemies” (Alexander, 1985, p. 368).

“The holy purity of God is the motive for cleanliness in the camp.” (Buttrick, 1989, 2:469). “Man’s finer sensibilities lift him above the animal level, and it is natural to conceive common decency as the expression of God’s will. Everywhere the Hebrew-Christian religion has lifted the standards of the care of the person” (Buttrick, 1989, 2:470).

The text insists that God’s presence is everywhere and especially in the ‘camp’ of the people as their special Light and Guard. Hence, every Christian home/residence/tent/room may be regarded as a “temple

of God, the palace of the Great King.” It is divinely elevated “by having it so beautifully clean that, on every piece of furniture, on every wall, on every floor, it seems as if the words were graven, ‘*Holiness to the Lord*’” (Alexander, 1985, p. 370).

God is the “Captain” for the pure only. The pure are the powerful. “It is the state of the camp of Israel, not the state of their enemies, that is all important. If Israel is impure, it will soon prove impotent. . . God is on the side, not of the heaviest, but of the purest battalions” (Alexander, 1985, pp. 374-375). “A hygienic environment creates an alliance with the God of victory.” This had national and personal implications since anything dirty or unclean in their camp puts all of their lives in jeopardy (Ahiamadu, 2011, p. 4).

Role of the Church in Preventing Open Defecation

In the 1st century of its existence, the Christian Church patterned its services after synagogues which basically were centers of education for everyone (Miller & Miller, 1973). The centrality of biblical education continued in the subsequent centuries of the history of Christianity till date. “Education and learning were centered on religious and moral precepts” (Gwamna, 2008, p. 141). This was true of churches in the mission fields too. The Church started as the repository of biblical laws which affect all aspects of the society (Ward, 1987).

Each local Church should be a beacon of light in its community. The church is looked upon by the common people as a place of refuge, truth and moral authority. Each church should be a center of wisdom, training in life skills, and an example of every aspect of godliness. The church is a “vehicle for behavioral change” (Oguntoyinbo-Atere, 2008, p. 186). Each church is a training school. “The Church is a reservoir of volunteers, local leadership, existing groups, and youth activities, and as such it is ready-made for interventions” (Chadibe, 2006, p. 211). The call to “love our neighbors,” be our “brother’s keeper” and not be selfish, is an internal drive and motivation in each faith-based institution. Hence, churches should teach proper handling of human wastes and teach parishioners to strictly avoid open defecation (Deut 23:9-14).

Africans still respect their places of worship and their religious leaders as speaking God’s mind on any subject. The church leaders command people’s respect and trust on community issues because they are perceived custodians of goodwill. Churches in Africa reach the populace farther and faster than any other institutions in Africa (World Council of Churches Plan of Action, 2001; United Church of Canada, 2001). The African Churches should tap into their ecumenical strength and government recognition to push for sustainable sanitation policies, total eradication of open defecation, and funding as well as community compliance.

Ahiamadu observed how much attention is paid to orderliness and cleanliness in several Christian camps in Nigeria. He believes the site for the tents are carefully chosen and neatly arranged; and the latrines set up down-wind and at a distance in apparent compliance with Deut 23:12-14 sanitation stipulation (p. 11).

Teaching of hygienic behavior must always accompany sanitation facilities and construction interventions, otherwise they would be futile projects, as demonstrated in various locations in Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Malawi, Peru, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, and Vietnam (Hill, 2004; Curtis, 2000,

Bateman, 1995, Cairncross et al, 2004; Robinson, 2005; Varley, 1998; Murray, 2005). These must include but not limited to the consistent use of the toilet by each member of the household; safe disposal of the young child's feces; and hand washing with soap (or ash) after defecation (Shordt, 2006; Han et al, 1986; WHO, 2002).

"Among others, church facilities were the first to respond to the challenges of HIV/AIDS. Ever since, churches have been deeply involved, with the Roman Catholic Church alone supporting around 25% of all HIV/AIDS care worldwide" (Chadibe, 2006, p. 209). Similarly, the church has a significant part to play in educating its members and community and promoting sanitary behavior and eradication of open defecation through the following means:

1. Training of Parents: Many parents did not learn good hygiene and sanitary behavior in their youth and may not be practicing it properly. Deuteronomy 4:9 reiterates that parents should be the primary and premier trainer of their children while the schools and other aspects of the society are secondary. In this measure too, mothers are champions and models for behavioral change. The church must teach, train, equip, and encourage parents on sustainable personal, home, and community sanitation. Free posters, brochures, documentary, pamphlets, and resources, and film shows promoting sustainable sanitations should be discussed and made available to members of the church and the community. This would be achieved through the media of seminars, Bible studies, drama, and concerts.
2. Building self-esteem of our children and youth: open defecation is anti-dignity; what is private should be kept secret and not a public nuisance.
3. Modeling proper sanitation in the church premises: It is duty of the Church to serve as a place of beauty and cleanliness, representing and reflecting the beauty and holiness of God to all. What the young people see, they will understand, appreciate, emulate.
4. Church should seek to partner with NGOs on eradication of open defecation.
5. Environmental education, personal hygiene, proper disposal of human waste, and other sanitation issues must remain integrated into all formal school curricula everywhere, from kindergarten to university level, including theological institutions.
6. The church's liturgy can be used as a means of educating members on sanitation, along with other creative ideas.
7. Social networking circles that are natural and usual for various age groups, as people choose themselves, should be used by churches as vehicles to teach sanitary behavioral change with multiple channels, activities, and partnerships (Bateman, 1995; Hill, 2004; Galway, 2000).
8. For more effective and grass root sanitation and hygiene promotion, the church should partner with other community-based institutions and groups such as: local government, health institutions, schools, savings groups, women groups, youth groups, sports groups, retailers, contractors, suppliers, plumbers, masons, neighborhood committees, and NGOs (Favin, 2004; Bateman, 1995, Kurup, 1996; Robinson, 2005; WSSCC/WHO, 2005).

Mandate for Government and Leaders: Sustainable Sanitation Policies

The biblical mandates from Deut 23:12-14 on proper disposal of human feces has leadership implications. What one person does or does not do has effects of national proportions. It is difficult to change people's behavior, especially the centuries-old practice of open defecation. The onus of ensuring enforcement rests partly on the government officials and leaders of the people. The following should be noted for sustainable sanitation policies:

1. There is need to resuscitate the Health inspectors who used to go from neighborhood to neighborhood and house to house to enforce sanitation and proper fecal disposal with heavy fines. Rewards, special cash prizes, and honorable mentions should be given regularly to neighborhoods and villages that are declared “open defecation free” for that year. This yielded some results in India (The Morung Express, May 23, 2011).
2. The monthly environmental sanitation days should be better organized with enough infrastructural support.
3. Ensure easier access by those who want sustainable sanitation technologies to those who can deliver, install, and maintain them. Cut out bureaucratic barriers to obtaining program funding and approval and technical assistance (Ratner, 2004; Pena & Cordova, 2001; Pineda, 2006; Tortajada, 2003).
4. Government must provide accessible clean water to every neighborhood and the poor should not have to be forced to purchase water from private vendors at exorbitant prices. Dirty toilets have forced many to open defecation. Special attention should be given to poor neighborhoods rather than the rich and influential in well-off urban areas with high-tech sanitation equipment (Orlando, 2001).
5. Public information signs educating against open defecation should be placed by the roadside on billboards and other conspicuous spots. Radio and television stations to give air time to this propaganda. A successful policy example is the “Rural Kenya Open Defecation Free by 2013” campaign.
6. Improve maintenance culture in the third world countries to ensure sustainable toilets.
7. Local community involvement and effective collaborative strategy with end-users during the needs assessment, conceptual and detailed design, and construction of the sanitation systems would position them as the leaders and owners of the project (Robles-Morua, et al, 2009).
8. Government should explore sustainable sanitation programs such as composting toilets which were successful in central Mexico (Orlando, 2001) and the “Community-Led Total Sanitation” (CLTS) with record success in Bangladesh, India, and Indonesia.

Conclusion

Provision of sustainable sanitation for all may well be the most neglected human right of all ages. It is the MDG that lags behind the most and consequently affects all the other MDGs. Its attainment will still be unacceptable if it leaves 1.3 billion without access to sustainable sanitation by 2015, as planned. This paper has shown how this goal is a biblical standard and a sacred responsibility. Open defecation must be eradicated. Ineffective sewage disposal must be stopped forthwith. Our religious duty demands it. The need for human dignity, equality, safety, optimum health mandates it. There must be universal coverage of sustainable sanitation as soon as practicable.

The biblical mandate challenges every home, community and government to act promptly and sincerely, marshalling all its resources. Behavioral changes must sweep across the land from home to the public arena. House of worship and religious organizations should educate the people and collaborate with NGO's and governmental authorities. There is no time for paying lip service to sanitation issues. Lives are at stake. Many innocent children are going to their untimely graves because of water-and sanitation-related diseases which are entirely preventable with good hygienic practices. If there was ever a time to act, it is now. Prosperity needs it. God mandates it. Sanitation is sacred. Cleanliness is part of godliness.

References

Abodunrin, A. O. (2008). Anti-pollution laws according to Deut 23:13-14. In Chris U. Manus (Ed.), *Biblical Studies and environmental issues in Africa* (pp. 137-145). Ibadan: Nigeria Association of Biblical Studies Western Zone.

Ahiamadu, Amadi. (2011). "Hermeneutical indices for a postcolonial critical assessment of the hygienic law in Deuteronomy 23:9, 12-14." An unpublished paper presented at the 24th Annual Conference of the Nigerian Association of Biblical Studies (NABIS) at Nassarawa State University, Keffi, on July 5th-8th.

Ahmed, R. (2005). Shifting millions from open defecation to hygienic practices. Retrieved June 13, 2006 from Water Aid Bangladesh.

Alexander, W. L. & Clemance, C. (1985). *Deuteronomy*. In H. D. M. Spence & Joseph S. Exell (Eds.). *The Pulpit Commentary*. New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

Allan, S. (2003). The WaterAid Bangladesh/VERC 100% sanitation approach: Cost, motivation, sustainability. Retrieved July 25, 2011 from London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, http://www.livelihoods.org/hot_topics/docs/CLTS_Allan.pdf.

Alvarez-Vigil, J. (1982). Principales problemas que limitan la participation comunitaria en los proyectos de abastecimiento de agua y saneamiento. *Revista de Educacion, Medicina y Salud*, 16(3), 404–417.

Atowoju, A. A. & Berekiah O. O. (2008). Covenant as a means of regulating human actions detrimental to ecological and environmental balance in Ancient Israel. In Chris U. Manus et al (Eds.), *Biblical Studies and environmental issues in Africa* (pp. 146-162). Ibadan: Nigeria Association of Biblical Studies Western Zone.

Aulia H et al. (1994). Personal and domestic hygiene and its relationship to the incidence of diarrhoea in south Sumatra. *Journal of Diarrhoeal Diseases Research*, 12(1), 428.

Bateman, O. Massee and Shelley Smith. (December 1991). A Comparison of the Health Effects of Water Supply and Sanitation in Urban and Rural Guatemala. WASH Field Report No. 352.

Bateman MO et al. (1995). Prevention of diarrhea through improving hygiene behaviours: the sanitation and family education(SAFE) pilot

project experience. Bangladesh, International Centre for Diarrhoeal Research/CARE Bangladesh/Environmental Health Project, USAID.

http://www.ehproject.org/PDF/Joint_Publications/JP004SAFEr.pdf

Broad, R. (1994). The poor and the environment: Friends or foes? *World Development*, 22(6), 811–822.

Buadi, Joseph Y. (2011). “Waste disposal in the major cities of West Africa as a prerequisite for disease prevention in the light of Deut. 23:9-14.” An unpublished paper presented at the 24th Annual Conference of the Nigerian Association of Biblical Studies (NABIS) at Nassarawa State University, Keffi, on July 5th-8th.

Buttenheim, Alison M. (2008). The sanitation environment in urban slums: implications for child health. *Population and Environment* 30, 26–47.

Buttrick, George A., et al, eds. (1989). *The Interpreter's Bible* (Vol. 2). Nashville, TN: Abingdon.

Cairncross, Sandy and Kathleen Shordt (2004) It does last! Some findings from the multi-country study of hygiene sustainability. *Waterlines* 22(3). <http://www.irc.nl/page/9971>

Cairncross, Sandy, & Valdamis, V. (2006). Water supply, sanitation and hygiene promotion. In D. T. Jamison, J. G. Breman, A. R. Measham, G. Alleyne, M. Claeson, D. B. Evans, P. Jha, A. Mills, & P. Musgrove (Eds.), *Disease control priorities in developing countries* (2nd ed., pp. 771–792). New York: Oxford University Press.

Carter, R. C., Tyrrel, S. F., & Howsam, P. (1999). Impact and sustainability of community water supply and sanitation programmes in developing countries. *Journal of the Chartered Institution of Water and Environmental Management*, 13, 292–296.

Chadibe, Irene Ellen. (2006). The role of the church in combating HIV/AIDS. In Sharan B. Merriam, B. C. Courtenay, & R. M. Cervero (Eds.), *Global issues and adult education: Perspectives from Latin America, Southern Africa, and the United States*, 209-218.

Cheremisinoff, Paul. (1994). Sewerage system. In *Academic American Encyclopedia*. Danbury, CT: Grolier, (Vol. 17: 222).

Curtis, Valerie and Bernadette Kanki, Simon Cousens, Ibrahim Diallo, Alphonse Kpozehouen, Morike Sangare´ & Michel Nikiema (2001)

Evidence of behaviour change following a hygiene promotion programme in Burkina Faso. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 79 (6), 518-527.

Daniels DL et al. (1990). A case-control study of the impact of improved sanitation on diarrhea morbidity in Lesotho. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 68(4), 455–463.

Driver, S. R. (1973). *A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on Deuteronomy*. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark.

Esrey Steven A., J.B. Potash, L. Roberts, and C. Shiff. (1991). “Effects of Improved Water Supply and Sanitation on Ascariasis, Diarrhoea, Dracunculiasis, Hookworm Infection, Schistosomiasis, and Trachoma” *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 69(5), 609-621.

Esrey, Steven A. (1996). Water, waste, and well-being: a multi-country study. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 143, 608-623.

Favin, Michael, Naimoli, Gail, & Sherburne, Lisa. (2004). Improving health through behavior change: A process guide on hygiene promotion. EHP Environmental Health Project, Washington, DC.

Foster, M. (2000). New approaches to development co-operation: What can we learn from the experience of sector wide approaches. Working paper # 140. Center for Aid and Public Expenditure. Overseas Development Institute. London, United Kingdom.

Galway, Michael. (2000). Field Note New Approaches to Promoting Sanitation in Rural Bangladesh. Water and Sanitation Program- South Asia. March 2000. http://www.wsp.org/publications/sa_approach.pdf

Gil, A., Lanata, C. F., Kleinau, E., & Penny, M. (2004). Children’s feces disposal practices in developing countries and interventions to prevent diarrheal diseases: A literature review (Strategic Report 11). Washington, DC: Environmental Health Project, USAID.

Gwamna, Je’adayibe Dogara (2008). *Perspectives in African Theology*. Bukuru, Plateau State, Nigeria: Africa Christian Textbooks.

Han AM, Khin DN, Hlaing T (1986). Personal toilet after defecation and the degree of hand contamination according to different methods used. *Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 89(5), 237–241.

Hanchett, S., Akhter, S., Khan, M. H., Mezulianik, S., & Blagborough, V. (2003). Water, sanitation and hygiene in Bangladeshi slums: An evaluation of the WaterAid-Bangladesh urban programme. *Environment and Urbanization*, 15, 43–55.

J. E. Hartley, J. E. (2003). Holy and holiness, clean and unclean. In T. Desmond Alexander & David W. Baker (Eds.), *Dictionary of the Old Testament: Pentateuch* (pp. 420-431). Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity.

Hill, Zelee, Kirkwood, Betty, & Edmond, Karen. (2004). Family and community practices that promote child survival, growth and development : a review of the evidence. World Health Organization.

Hodges, Anthony (ed.). (2001). *Children's rights in Nigeria: A wake-up call situation assessment and analysis*. Lagos: The National Planning Commission and UNICEF.

Khanom, K. & Leonard, R. C. (Summer 1989). A hygiene experiment in rural Bangladesh. *Sociological Perspective* 32(2), 245-255.

Kurup, K. B. (1996). The community-managed sanitation programme in Kerala: learning from experience. IRC International Water and sanitation centre, Netherlands/SEU Foundation, Kerala.

Lenton, Roberto, Wright, Albert, & Lewis, Kristin. (2005). Health, dignity and development. What will it take? UN Millennium Development Task Force on Water and Sanitation. New York.

<http://www.unmillenniumproject.org/documents/WaterPart1-lowres.pdf>

Lopez, A. D., Mathers, C. D., Ezzati, M., Jamison, D. T., & Murray, C. J. L. (Eds.). (2006). *Global burden of disease and risk factors*. New York: Oxford University Press and the World Bank.

Mackintosh, G., & Colvin, C. (2003). Failure of rural schemes in South Africa to provide portable water. *Environmental Geology*, 44, 101–105.

Mara, Duncan, Sleight, Andrew, & Tayler, Kevin. (2001). Simplified Sewerage: Condominial systems. University of Leeds, UK.
<http://www.efm.leeds.ac.uk/CIVE/Sewerage/articles/condominial2.pdf>

Mertens, T. E. (1992). Excreta disposal and latrine ownership in relation to child diarrhoea in Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 21, 1157–1164.

Miller, M. S. & Miller, J. (Eds.; 1973). *Black's Bible Dictionary* (8th ed.).

London: Adam Charles Black.

Murray, B., Walter, G., & Kolkma, W. (2005). Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Sector Project (Loan 1352-INO) in Indonesia. (Project performance audit reports). Manila, Philippines, Operations Evaluation Department, Asian Development Bank.

Nokes, C., Grantham-McGregor, S. M., Sawyer, A.W., Cooper, E. S., Robinson, B. A., & Bundy, D. A. P. (1992). Moderate to heavy infections of *Trichuris trichiura* affect cognitive function in Jamaican school children. *Parasitology*, 104, 539-547.

Norhayati, M., Fatmah, M. S., Yusof, S., & Edariah, A. B. (June 2003). Intestinal parasitic infections in man: A review. *Medical Journal of Malaysia* 58(2), 296-305.

Oguntoyinbo-Atere, M. I. (2008). Ritual cleansing according to Heb 10:19-25: Challenges for personal hygiene and sanitation in the Nigerian context. In Chris U. Manus (Ed.), *Biblical Studies and environmental issues in Africa* (pp. 176-188). Ibadan: Nigeria Association of Biblical Studies Western Zone.

Orlando, Laura. (2001). Sustainable sanitation. *Dollars & Sense*, 235, 28-31.

Pena, S., & Cordova, G. (2001). Public participation and water supply. The case of two communities on the USA–Mexico Border. *Water International*, 26(3).

Pineda, N. (2006). La Búsqueda de la Tarifa Justa. El cobro de agua potable y alcantarillado en México. Hermosillo, Sonora, Mexico. El Colegio de Sonora. Instituto Mexicano de Tecnología del Agua.

Rahman, M., Rahaman, M. M., Wojtyniak, B., & Aziz, K. M. (July 1985). Impact of environmental sanitation and crowding on infant mortality in rural Bangladesh. *Lancet*, 2(8445), 28-31.

Ratner, B., & Rivera, A. (2004). Reasserting community: The social challenge of wastewater management in Panajachel, Guatemala. *Human Organization Journal*, 63(1), 47–57.

Ravnborg, H. M. (2003). Poverty and environmental degradation in the Nicaraguan Hillsides. *World Development*, 31(11), 1933–1946.

Reents, N. W. (2003). Design of potable water supply in rural Honduras.

Houghton, Michigan: MS Thesis, Michigan Technological University.

Robinson, A. J. (2005). Lessons Learned from Bangladesh, India, and Pakistan: Scaling-Up Rural Sanitation in South Asia. Water and Sanitation Program-South Asia.

http://www.wsp.org/publications/SANITATION%20STUDY_PRESS.pdf

Robles-Morua, Agustin, Mayer, Alex S. & Durfee, Mary H. (2009). Community partnered projects: A case study of a collaborative effort to improve sanitation in a marginalized community in northwest Mexico. *Environment, Development, and Sustainability*, 11, 197–213.

Shordt, K. (2006). Review of safe disposal of feces. Retrieved July 27, 2011, from <http://www.irc.nl/content/download/28340/298243/file/Sanitation%20AED%20draft%208Jan06.pdf>

Swinton, S. M., Escobar, G., & Reardon, T. (2003). Poverty and environment in Latin America: Concepts, evidence, and policy implications. *World Development*, 31(11), 1865–1872.

The Morung Express (2011, May 23). Making sanitation as popular as cricket.

Thompson, J. A. (1978). *Deuteronomy: An Introduction and Commentary*, Tyndale Old Testament Commentaries, ed. D. J. Wiseman. Leicester, England: InterVarsity.

Tortajada, C. (2003). Policy failures prevent water quality progress in Mexico. *International Journal of Water and Wastewater*, 18, 25–26.

Traore, E. et al. (1994). Child defecation behavior, stool disposal practices and childhood diarrhoea in Burkina Faso: Results from a case-control study. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, 48, 270–275.

United Church of Canada. (2001). *To seek justice and resist evil—Towards a global economy for all God's people: Guide for study, action and reflection*. Retrieved April 15, 2005, from <http://www.think-again.ca>

Varley, R. C. G., Tarvid, J., & Chao, D. N. W. (1998). A reassessment of the cost-effectiveness of water and sanitation interventions in programmes for controlling childhood diarrhoea. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 76(6):617-631.

Ward, Kaari. (1987). *Jesus and His Times*. New York: Readers' Digest Association.

WHO. (2002). Improving child health in the community. Geneva, World Health Organization (WHO/FCH/CAH/02.12).

WHO/UNICEF. (2004). Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation; Meeting the MDG drinking water and sanitation target: a mid-term assessment of progress.

World Council of Churches. (2001, November). *The ecumenical response to HIV/AIDS in Africa: Global consultation on the ecumenical response to the challenge of HIV/AIDS in Africa*. Nairobi, Kenya.

WSSCC (Water Supply and Sanitation Collaborative Council) and WHO (World Health Organization). (2005). Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion: Programming Guidance. Geneva.

MDGs AND THE CHALLENGES OF DEVELOPMENT IN THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN NIGERIA

By

Jones Oluwole Aluko, Michael Abiodun Oni, Chibuzor A. Nwaodike and Abidemi A. Ishola
*DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, BABCOCK
UNIVERSITY, ILISHAN-REMO, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA.*

Abstract

With the desire to ensure development in all ramifications of both rich and poor countries of the world, the United Nations came up with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) on the 8th of September 2000. The declaration outlines within a single framework the challenges facing humanity at the threshold of the new millennium and how to go about overcoming such challenges by the year 2015. Generally in Nigeria, progress towards reaching the goals has been very slow. However, in some local governments of the federation, attempts have been initiated towards the attainment of some of the goals, and such areas include; universal primary education, health which both fall under the concurrent list of the functions of the local government. Nevertheless, it should be noted that most local governments in Nigeria have been unable to attain these goals. The paper adopted documentary methodology with the use of secondary data. Thus, data is collected through published and unpublished sources such as text books, newspapers, seminar papers, journals, magazine etc. The finding of this paper shows that the hinderance to the attainment of the MDGs goals is as a result of some major problems like corruption, limited autonomy, bad leadership, unqualified staff, and lack of accountability, just to mention a few which have weakened the grass root which is supposed to be the basic foundation for development. This paper recommends that for these Millennium Development Goals to be achieved and bring about development at the local level in Nigeria, there is the need for a value reorientation and enlightenment of the people at the grassroots level to know their right as citizens.

Introduction

The primary duty of a meaningful government is to protect the lives and property of the citizenry and in addition to these provides the three basic necessities of life which are food, shelter and clothing. It is worthy of note that most of the developing countries can hardly formulate policy programmes that can affect the lives of their citizens and as such bring succor to the millions of their citizens living in abject poverty. Due to lack of initiatives of these governments in this regard, they lack impetus to drive developmental programmes. Though it is generally agreed that development is relative, it is also a general opinion that it will lead to good change that will manifest and increase the capacity of the citizenry to acquire material assets, intellectual resources which will enable them to seek and obtain better employment, participation in governance, political and economic independence and as such lead to sustainable development in the society.

The reality is that Nigeria suffers same fate despite the enormous human and material resources at her disposal which indisputably made her one of the most richly endowed countries in African continent (Oyakorotu, 2008); thus, should provide opportunity for national development. But using the Human Development Index for 2010, Nigeria was ranked 142 out of 169 countries (UNDP, 2010). The statistics therefore suggest that indices for development are lacking and she is among the poorest countries in the world.

On the other hand, this development should evolve the local communities and as such the local government being the driving seat of grassroots development should engineer these objectives. This is the more reason why most countries of the world had deemed it fit to establish local government so as to bring the impact of government to the local people. But unfortunately, most of the local governments are shadows of themselves, because no developmental project is carried out in these localities and as such the essence of local government is defeated.

It is because of the foregoing shortcomings among others that the leaders of the world agreed to take proactive measures to tackle the underdevelopment especially in the developing countries. With the adoption of the Millennium Declaration by the United Nations General Assembly, on September 8 2000, the leaders felt a high sense of responsibility to meet the needs of the people of the world. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which is a developmental goal to be accomplished by the year 2015 is to ensure freedom of men, women and child across the globe from extreme poverty, squalor and diseases.

Having observed that local government functions in the fourth schedule of Nigeria's 1999 Constitution involve keeping laws and order, basic sanitation, construction and maintenance of local roads, administering local schools, providing skilled training and employment for the inhabitant among others, it can also be argued that these functions are administrable with Millennium Development Goals. This fact does not rule out the fact that some challenges are observed at this level of government and these include lack of autonomy, corruption, bad leadership just to mention a few, which had hampered developmental process. It is the opinion of the paper that these obstacles are surmountable provided adequate measures are put in place. Thus, the focus of attention is to view some of these challenges and as well as adopt practical and theoretical solutions thereto. The paper is divided into six major parts. Abstract is in part one, part two deals with the introduction and methodology, conceptual clarification and theoretical framework are in part three, while parts four and five involve Millennium Development Goals and local government development in Nigeria, and the challenges of MDGs and local development in Nigeria respectively, and part six is on concluding remarks.

Methodology

The paper adopted documentary method and secondary sources of data respectively. The former is useful especially in analyzing documented fact that is available so as to achieve the objective of the paper. However, the secondary sources of data collection is through relevant scholarly materials such as official bulletin, textbooks, journals, newspapers, magazines and internet source relevant to the study.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Millennium Development Goals

The Millennium Development Goals are policy programmes of the United Nations. These are developmental goals to eradicate extreme poverty and ensure all round development for the nations of the world by 2015, and its main objective is to foster development by improving social and economic condition in the poorest countries of the world. It was established immediately after the Millennium summit in 2000, where the world leaders adopted United Nations Millennium Declaration (Oluwole, 2007). The Declaration was all about every individual knowing his or/her rights which includes rights to dignity, freedom, equality, basic standard of living among others. Thus, other institutions such as Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund are co-partners and have since aligned to achieve the project.

Thus, eight goals were established to ensure empowerment of social and economic conditions of the world's poorest countries which include:

1. To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
2. To achieve universal primary education
3. To promote gender equality and empower women
4. To reduce child mortality rates
5. To improve maternal health
6. To combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria, and other diseases
7. To ensure environmental sustainability
8. To develop a global partnership for development (UN, 2000)

Having looked at these goals, there is no denying the fact that they tally with some functions of local government especially in the Nigerian context and therefore such developments that will bring succor to the hardship of the masses can as well be dealt with in this regard.

Local Government

The concept of local government appears quite dynamic and fragile; this is attributed to the role it performs which differs from one country to another. However, the operational definition becomes clearer when analyses of the function attributed to it in a given environment is made. In the light of this, local government is that level of government closer to the grass roots and provides for the needs of the people.

Oyediran (2001) sees it as government with popular participation both in the choice of decision making process and is conducted by local bodies which while recognizing the supremacy of the central government is able and willing to accept responsibility for its decision. Whereas, Bello-Imam (1996) averred that it is that unit of administration with defined territory and powers, as well as administrative authority with relative autonomy. This is indicative of powers to perform its functions as ascribed in the fourth schedule of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria.

On the other hand, the United Nations Office for Public Administration gave what could be referred to as 'optimum' working definition. It conceptualizes local government as a

"political sub-division of a nation or (in a federal system) state, which is constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs, including the powers to impose taxes or exact labour for progenised

purposes. The governing body of which an entity is elected or otherwise locally selected” (Ola and Tonwe, 2003).

Thus, local government is government at the grassroots (territorial unit) with powers to elect its local representatives and saddled with the responsibility to provide social welfare for the local people.

Development

Development is a normative concept and as such relative depending on the measure adopted. Therefore, its relativity depends on time, place and circumstances. However, it is generally agreed that it increases economic efficiency, expansion of national economic capacity and technological advancement. Additional ingredients to developments include changes in social structure, attitudes, and motivation leading to economic improvement as well as increase in Gross National Product (GNP) and average real income (McLean and Mcmillan, 2003).

Put differently, it is the increasing satisfaction of basic needs such as food, shelter and cloth. Thus, improvements in certain social indicators that must raise the status of citizens, this includes freedom to participate in decision making in the society especially as it affects their lives. In this regard, local citizens are expected to appoint or elect their representatives at the local government and in return these representatives must be accountable to the society. Issues that affect or elevate the burdens of these citizens should be paramount for a meaningful government at any level. Thus, local government functions and Millennium Development Goals cannot be diffused from each other in realizing the 2015 target.

Development (Modernization) Theory

The paper is anchored on development theory which is a conglomeration of many theories on how best to achieve social change in the society. More importantly, an analysis of the modernization theory which is an aspect of development theory will be the focus of attention. The major proponents of modernization theory includes Walt Rostow, A. F. K. Organski, Samuel Huntington, Talcott Parsons, among others. They posit that development can be achieved through the processes adopted by developed countries, and in pursuance of this laudable project the state is considered as a central actor and major instruments include education and technology. More so, development in the developing countries requires the assistance of developed countries (Cowen and Shenton, 1996; Preston, 1996).

Millennium Development Goal is not an indigenous policy but is meant to assist the developing countries to attain the level that is obtainable in the developed nations by 2015. To meet this target, all levels of government including the local government must each play a key role and as such public enlightenment (education) and technology i.e. medical equipment, HIV/AIDS and anti-malaria drugs, massive infrastructural facilities which are product of the western world remain basic tools for development.

MDGs and Local Government Development in Nigeria

As noted earlier, Millennium Development Goals and local government functions are administrable concurrently. The reason is that some of them are interwoven and if well managed will add value to the lives of the local inhabitants as well as propel national development so as to meet the 2015 target. Thus, these goals are eight as already listed above under conceptual clarification.

Although, local government functions in Nigeria are contained in the fourth schedule of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as well as other assigned duties allocated to it by the various state assemblies. However, the underlining question that needs to be answered is 'how can these programmes be effectively implemented and actualize the desired goal?' It is on this premise that these goals will be analyzed in the context of the Nigerian local government.

First, eradication of poverty and hunger is one of the essence of government, and as such the duty of all the levels of government. It is also worthy of note that this primary responsibility should commence at the local government level thereby creating a conducive environment to empower the young people. From experience, one of the major reasons for the migration of young people to the urban centers is the fact that infrastructural facilities are lacking at the rural areas, more so, the quest for a greener pasture. The worrisome aspect of these movements is that these rural migrants end up constituting social miscreants when they cannot meet up with expectations and this has partly led to social disorder currently experienced in Niger Delta (militancy) and the northern parts of the country by the Boko Haram respectively. Added to these is the fact that there is no plan for rural electrification, borehole among other infrastructural developments at the local government level and this phenomena have propelled artisans to engage in bicycle-riding business, popularly known as 'Okada' in Nigeria. Thus, the paper argued in strong terms that there are enormous arable land that should be developed and utilized through mechanized farming for enough production for local consumption and for export to acquire foreign exchange for the nation.

In addition, corruption is one of the major hindrances to effective implementation of Section 7(1) of the 1999 constitution which is in the concurrent list. Having fallen within the jurisdiction of state and local government, it is expected that 5% of the total 20% (a quarter of the statutory allocation from the federation account) should be devoted to primary education. Regrettably, the money is deducted directly from source (federal statutory allocation) by the state government. Thus, rendering the local government handicapped to carry out its oversight function through the Inspectorate Division of the Councils at various primary schools. Beyond this, primary education should be made compulsory for every Nigerian child, with this; the Almajiris in the northern part of Nigeria can have access to basic education and in effect curb the intolerant behaviour currently visible in some parts of the country.

On the other hand, a quarter of the local government revenue is expected to be devoted to the Primary Health Care Delivery Services to embark on preventive rather than curative measures. The reason is that primary health care is an enlightenment programme and should help to bring to the notice of the local people the danger of various diseases. This task is also shared by the Community Development Department of local governments and it is expected to collaborate with the traditional leaders, religious bodies among other groups to curb the danger of HIV/AIDS.

Similar to the above is keeping the society in good order, such as stopping the people from dumping refuse on drainage system. this particular problem have rendered a lot of people within Lagos State and its environs homeless in the past few days (July 2011) and have prompted the Lagos State government to take a drastic measure to reduce future occurrence. More so, it will reduce the vulnerability of citizens to malaria and other diseases. One other measure of sustaining the environment is planting of trees to minimize the risk of climate change.

It is often said that children are the future leaders and as such their future must be secured. On this premise, education and enlightenment are the key weapons that would be used towards reducing child mortality rate. It then stipulates that local government should have the capacity to employ medical experts as well as acquire sophisticated and modern equipments. These medical experts should also be subjected to training to get acquainted to modern developments and reality on medical issues.

Again, no country or state exist in a vacuum, therefore, efforts should be made to collaborate with other states and investors to attain development. In this regard, one of the primary duties of states is to promote development especially at the federal level, but at the same time other levels of government especially local government cannot devoid of this laudable project. Thus, maintenance of law and order is the duty of all and as such a panacea for external investors to come on board and assist in the development process. To attain this, local security network (vigilante) are stationed across the local communities to complement the efforts of security agencies to secure life and property and at the same time promote coexistence at the local level.

Besides, gender equality should be promoted at all levels of government. These should include giving equal right to gender education, protection of women and girl child from sexual harassment and abuse, participation in decision making at governmental level among others. The Beijing Conference of 1995 that advocated 30% of women involvement in government should be respected so as to give women and the girl child the sense of belonging in the society and at the same time contribute to local and national goal.

Challenges of Local Government Development In Nigeria

The hindrance to the attainment of MDGs goals can be attributed to some major problems like corruption, limited autonomy, bad leadership, unqualified staff and lack of accountability among others. Before analysis is made on the evidences available on corrupt practices in local government, it is imperative to examine the forms of corruption at this level of government. These forms of corrupt practices are products of collusion. According to Yakubu and Oyewo (2000) collusion is defined as the “conspiracy to fraud” and quoting Section 422 of the Criminal Code, it states *inter alia*, that: “any person who conspires with another by deceit or any fraudulent means to affect the market price of anything publicly sold, or to defraud the public, or any person, whether a particular person or not, or to extort any property from any person, is guilty of a felony”. Hornby (2000) sees collusion as “a secret agreement, especially in order to do something dishonest or to deceive people” Whereas Aluko (2007) defines it as “a secret or illegal activity undertaken by two or more people (or two or more groups) in a formal organization for the purpose of fraud”. Furthermore, Aluko (2006) highlighted forms of collusion visible in the local government system. These include:

- i. funding of political parties
- ii. inflated contract prices or quotations
- iii. collusion between external auditors and government functionaries
- iv. collusion between supervisory ministries/bureau and local government chairmen
- v. collusion with citizens who benefit from thieving public officers.

Besides the aforementioned forms of corrupt practices, others come in the form of fake projects as part of the ongoing developmental projects the councils claim to have embarked on. These unidentified projects include drainage systems, lockup shops, construction of new and renovation of the existing ones respectively, agricultural projects like poultry farms, health centers for their staffs, etc. the council normally add these projects as part of their achievement for the year but in real sense, such hardly exist (Nwaodike, 2010). Hence, allocations meant for the budgeted projects are distributed among the local government official to the detriment of the local people.

Improper accountability is also a major challenge. In this regard, local representatives are not answerable to the citizens on their activities in governance. This is visible in the manner resources of the councils are spent. Normally, every tier of government is entitled to additional allocations especially when there is increase in the price of crude oil in a given month through the excess crude account. From the Ikenne local government approved estimates of 2010 consulted, it was discovered that, such funds did not reflect, hence one begins to ask what happens to such polls. The simple and obvious answer is that the local government officials divert such funds for private use. Besides these, most councils have the habit of disbursing illegal funds to party leaders within the local government, most atimes, they claim to pay less than the actual amount they said to have made (Nwaodike, 2010). In addition, apathy is one of the evidences that all is not going well at the councils, reason been that the local citizens who should ask questions most atimes feel reluctant to do so. To worsen the situation, some do not even know that it is their right to attend legislative sittings of the councils and ask questions on pertinent issues that affect the local government.

Again, the 1999 constitution of Nigeria, precisely section 7(1) guaranteed the system of local government by democratically elected local government councils. More so, state governments are vested with the power to legislate to ensure the existence of a democratically elected local government. Thus, the provision empowered the state government on the existence of local government and how this power can be exercised. Paradoxically, local government since inception has suffered from the continued whittling down of their powers which made the state government to continue to encroach upon the powder of these councils (Nwaodike, 2010). Consequently, there has been a divorce between the people and government at the grassroots level.

Furthermore, elections in most local governments are not held triennially and in some cases elections have not been held for more than ten years especially in Anambra State where care-taker committees have been appointed by the state governor at one time or the other. On this premise, elected cum appointed officials are agents of the state government and are only responsible to the “god father”. The implication therefore is that there is a disconnect between the people and the elected representatives, hence there is no effective means by which local residents can ensure responsiveness and responsibility of the elected or appointed representatives since there is no lay down procedure of recall through which local inhabitants could recall an elected chairman or councilor adjudged to be serving interest other than those mandated by the local inhabitants.

The issue of revenue allocation and financial crises is also a major challenge facing the local government and have affected the implementation of MDGs goal as well as its functions. Nigeria operates a mono economy and the revenue generated from these proceeds is centrally collected by the federal government

and distributed on the basis of given principles or criteria among the different levels of government. The questions one may ask is “what percentage of the revenue should be allocated to each of the three tiers of government and what set of criteria should be applicable in the sharing formula”? An attempt to answer these questions led to series of committee reports from various commissions in the past and the current Section 162(2) of the 1999 constitution that says:

“and in determining the formula, the national assembly shall take into account, the allocation principles especially, those of population, equality of states, internal revenue generation, land mass, terrain as well as population density: provided that the principle of derivation shall be constantly reflected in any approved formula as being not less than thirteen percent of the revenue accruing to the federal account directly from any natural resources”.

Hence, the section guaranteed each level of government to have a percentage from the national pool which is often referred to as “Federation Account” to run its affairs without undue interference. In spite of this and other sources of revenue, local governments have found themselves in acute financial crises. It has resulted to inability to regularly pay staff salaries and finance basic infrastructural and development projects. Evidence has shown that a number of factors can be attributed to these deplorable situations. These among others are the several deductions by the state in the revenue entitlement of the local government through the existence of the State Joint Local Government Account that permits a free access of local government fund to state governments, and the questionable occasional direct deductions by the federal government from the allocated revenue of the councils. It must also be stated that local governments have failed in the area of internally generated revenue. Thus, most of them cannot take proactive steps in capitalizing on the enormous resources available to them and turn it into assets that can generate revenue for the councils. These are attributed to bad leadership without the necessary political will and unqualified staffs that can propel and utilize the resources at their disposal and in effect have continued to whittle down the actual value of the councils.

Concluding Remarks and Recommendations

The observations identified in this paper has indicated that Millennium Development Goals and local government functions are administrable concurrently in Nigeria’s local councils and are panacea to local development. But unfortunately, these programmes have faced enormous challenges ranging from corruption, limited autonomy, unqualified personnel, bad leadership, lack of accountability by local representatives. In effect, local citizens have over the years paid the ultimate price of underdevelopment and abject poverty.

Amidst this, local government in Nigeria can overcome these obstacles and be at the driving seat of national development. It is the recommendation of the paper that:

- All corrupt cases should be treated as criminal offences and perpetrators should face the full weight of the law.
- Recruitment of qualified personnel at the local government level who can engineer development. These should include administrators and professionals among others.
- Accountability remains the watchword in governance, therefore, political leaders should be good stewards in governmental affairs. To attain this, the process at which these leaders emerge becomes important. Thus, inter party and intra party democracy should be advocated in all the political parties so that

emerging leaders will be accountable to the people that voted them into office rather than the party executives.

- Local government should be more viable in generating revenue to be able to address some of these goals. Thus, all possible measures should be deployed in awakening and utilizing the internal recourses at its disposal.
- Local government should have relative autonomy to implement its programmes. These should include political and financial autonomy, thus, unnecessary deductions by the state governments from the Federal Joint Account should stop.
- Massive infrastructural development should be extended to the rural areas. These should include rural electrification, good road network, health facilities among others.

References

Aluko, J. O. (2006), *"Corruption in the Local Government System in Nigeria"*. Ibadan, OLUBEN Printers.

_____ (2007), *"The Dynamics of Local Government Administration"*. Abuja, Bluesland Communication Limited.

Bello-Imam, I.B. (1996), *"Local Government in Nigeria: Evolving a Third-Tier of Government"*. Ibadan, Heinemann Educational Books (Nigeria) PLC.

Cowen, M. P. and Shenton, R. W. (1996), *"Doctrines of Development"*. Routledge, ISBN978-0415125161

Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 Constitution (Federal Government Press, Lagos, Nigeria).

Hornby, A. S. / (2000) ed, *"Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, 6th Edition"*. S. Wehmeier, Oxford University Press.

Ikenne Local Government (2010), *"An Approved Estimates for 2010"*.

McLean, I. and Mcmillan, A. (2003), *"Concise Dictionary of Politics"*, United States, Oxford University Press Inc.

Nwaodike, C. A. (2010), *"Democracy and Crisis of Autonomy in Nigeria: A Study of Ikenne Local Government"*. A Research Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Award of Masters of Science (M.Sc) in the Department of Political Science, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

Ola, R. O. F. and Tonwe, D. A. (2003), *"Local Administration in Nigeria"*. Lagos, Trust Publishers.

Oluwole, D. (2007), "MDGs: Beyond Paying Lip Service", The Punch, Tuesday, October 30, 2007

Oyediran et al (2001)

Preston, P. W. (1996), "*Development Theory: An Introduction to the Analysis of Complex Change*". Wiley-Blackwell, ISBN978-0631195559.

UNDP (2010), *Human Development Index(HDI)- 2010 Rankings*.
Hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/ Retrieved 17/3/2011 by 3:27pm.

United Nations Millennium Development goals (2011), website: Background Page, Retrieved May 30.

United Nations (2000), Millennium Summit Report

Yakubu, J. A. and Oyewo, A. T. (2000), "*Criminal Laws and Procedure in Nigeria*". Lagos, Malthouse Press

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND THE CHALLENGES OF EPILEPTIC POWER SUPPLY TO DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

By

ADEWUMI EYITAYO F. (Mrs)

*Department of Political Sci. & Pub. Admin
Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State.*

Abstract

One of the main catalysts of development is power supply (electricity); an effective, stable power supply is an essential ingredient for development of any country since no industrial machine can run without electricity. It is needed to bring about development in virtually all spheres and sectors of a nation, be it economic (industrial), technological and social. Electricity cuts across the need of virtually everybody in the society and an inadequate supply will truncate all the desires of bringing about an improvement in the condition of living of people, and development of a state at large. Relying on descriptive, qualitative method of data collection and analysis, the paper takes on inadequate and epileptic power supply in Nigeria by subjecting the nexus between power supply and attainment of MDG goals to critical discourse. It is on this note that the paper examined the challenges of power supply in Nigeria and the possible effects on the achievement of the millennium goals. The paper examined the challenges of energy generation, its distribution and its effectiveness in Nigeria with a view to discovering whether or not MDG goals are attainable in the Nigeria's present energy condition. The paper concluded on the argument that adequate energy supply is paramount to the attainment of MDG goals; and thus recommended means of improving on energy supply in Nigeria based on its findings.

Introduction

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are the most broadly supported, comprehensive development initiatives worldwide. It was an agreement entered into by at least 192 United Nations member states (now 193 with Southern Sudan) in conjunction with about 23 International Organizations with a view to bringing about total development to some countries of the world especially on poverty alleviation by 2015.

These development initiatives adopted by world leaders in the year 2000 include goals and targets on income, hunger, maternal death and child mortality, disease, inadequate shelter, gender inequality, environmental degradation and the global partnership for development. The action plan was that each country was to tailor these goals to meet specific development needs in their various countries to bring about rapid positive change in the standard of living come 2015. To this end the world government provided a framework for the entire international community to work together towards a common goal and ensuring that development reaches everyone, everywhere.

It is no gain say that Nigeria is a blessed country enriched with many resources be it raw materials, mineral resources, agricultural endowments etc yet the country lacks in the mist of plenty. There are evidences of impoverishment in every sphere of living. The case of Nigeria is very much like a country

that has so much yet lacks. It is on this note that this paper seeks to find the correlations between effective power supply and the realization of the millennium goals come 2015 which is around the corner, adequate power supply is crucial because it is common to all the eight millennium goals. It is as a result of this that democratic leaders in Nigeria since 2000 has consistently been committed towards promoting and improving electricity supply in the country and huge sums of money (over \$16 billion) purportedly have been expended towards this end by various administrations yet the desired improvement in energy is still a mirage. (Quadry 2008; Effiong 2011).

Electricity plays a very important role in the socio-economic and technological development of every nation. Electricity demand in Nigeria has been discovered to outweigh the supply of same as such the supply is epileptic. (Effiong, 2011). It is no wonder then that the country is faced with acute electricity problems which have inadvertently hindered her development and growth even in the mist of plenty. According to one of the distribution manager (2011), Victoria Island unit of PHCN energy requirement is put at about 15,000MW while only about 4,000MW is available.

The history of electricity in Nigeria dates back to 1896 when it was first produced in Lagos sequel to its production and introduction in England. In 1950, a central body was established by the legislative council which transferred electricity supply and development to the care of the central body known as the Electricity Corporations of Nigeria, now defunct. In its wake other bodies such as the Native Authorities and Nigeria Electricity Supply Company (NESCO) emerged with licenses to produce electricity in some parts of the country. Another one known as the Niger Dams Authority (NDA) was established with responsibility of overseeing the construction and maintenance of dams and other works on the River Niger as well as other places where electricity was generated by means of water power (Sambo, 2008). The energy produced by NDA was in turn sold to the Electricity Corporation of Nigeria for distribution and sales at utility voltages.

Despite the fact that the existence of electricity in the country is over a century, its development has been at a slow rate. The commission has undergone several osmotic stages of changes; the Energy Commission of Nigeria (ECN) was established in 1979 with an operational mandate to oversee all strategic planning and coordination of national policies in the field of energy in its entire ramification. These mandates further went through several amendments of various Acts creating National Electric Power Authority (Act no.32, 1988: Act no.19, 1989) and in 1999/2000 under the democratic dispensation Power Holding Cooperation of Nigeria (PHCN) was born. (Sambo, 2008).

However, it is disheartening to note that for over twenty years prior to the rebranding of NEPA to PHCN the power sector did not witness substantial investment in infrastructural development, no new plants were constructed and the existing ones were not upgraded neither were they properly maintained, the result is the current deplorable state of the power sector predominant in Nigeria today. The advent of year 2001 saw Nigeria's increasingly downward trend in energy supply. Generation went down from the installed capacity of about 5,600MW to an average of about 1,750MW, as compared to a load demand of 6,000MW (Sambo, 2008) also the generating units were in deplorable state whereby only nineteen out of the seventy-nine units installed were actually in good working condition. (Ayodele, 2001).

Aims and Objectives

The aims and objectives of this paper is too find out the reasons why power supply is epileptic in Nigeria despite the fact that the country has all the necessary resources to generate and improve energy supply. It is also aimed at finding out why things work out in other countries but in Nigeria it fails especially the fact that lesser countries have celebrated uninterrupted power supply whereas Nigeria popularly acclaimed to be the giant of Africa is wallowing in darkness and unable to meet the fundamental needs of the citizenry. The paper is targeted towards highlighting the un-forestalled increase in the poverty level of Nigerians due to the closure of several industries because of bankruptcy due to high cost of generating electricity by alternative means for their industrial usage. The paper also aimed to show the relevance and importance of electricity towards the attainment of the millennium goals in Nigeria.

Significance of Study

It is no gainsaying that Nigeria has all it takes to bring about and ensure development by the reason of the resources at its disposal, however, the ability to optimally develop and efficiently manage such resources require putting into adequate perspective the importance of equitable allocation and effective utility of the resources, which should be channeled towards modern operational technologies in factors of production, allocation and utilization across board in order to achieve development. The study is also significant in the sense that the attainment of an uninterrupted power supply in Nigeria is paramount to the achievement of the millennium goals in all ramifications, be it in eradicating poverty, improving education, health facilities and even sustaining the environment since the usage of electricity is universal. It is therefore not an overstatement to affirm that the success of the MDGs is dependent on an adequate supply and distribution of energy particularly electricity which is the nucleus of operation and subsequently the 'engine of growth' for all sectors in a country and Nigeria is no exception.

Literature Review

It has been observed that various writers and philosophers have written extensively on the issue of development especially from the economic perspective and its implication to a nation. From such economic development orientation, development is seen as major changes in the social structure, popular attitude, and national institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of poverty (Todaro & Smith, 2004). It is believed to be a process in which diverse needs of the society is realized and steps are taken to bring about total change of a society from an unsatisfactory state to one of improved standard of living.

Todaro and Smith further identified the three main objectives of development to include a desire to increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life sustaining goods that are the basic needs of man. To raise levels of living through opportunities of higher incomes, provision of more jobs, better education and improved cultural and human values all of which is the preoccupation of the MDG's. Lastly, to expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations that will free them from dependency and servitude.

Herbert Spencer cited by Ujo (1999) was one of the ancient scholars who saw development of society as a process of evolution, a pattern of growth, increasing complexity, increasing differentiation of structure and functions that bring about interdependency among the various parts. In essence the concept of national development in the real sense of it should be man oriented and not institution oriented, that is, it should be individually in collectiveness and not individual solely.

To Elugbe, (1994), 'national development refers among other things, to the growth of the nation in terms of unity, education, economic well-being and mass participation in government. Jhingan (2005) further examines the various views of scholars who proffered various approaches toward a better understanding of what development is and the indices determining such changes.

Development has been said to be moderated by various natural and environmental conditions. The Nigerian State has her own fair share of the factors that has made her disadvantaged in her pursuit of the millennium goals (Yagboyaju, 2008) and it is from this critical perspective that energy is been seen as one of such environmental conditions that has militated against desired development in Nigeria. Several scholars have also examined this view.

Ayodele (2001) wrote extensively on how to improve and sustain power supply to bring about socio-economic development. From his opinion adequate supply and distribution of electricity constitute a central development issue that cannot be over-emphasized. He also affirms that the grossly inadequate supply of electricity and its distribution is one of the most frustrating and disturbing economic development issues that Nigerian economy and society has been grappling with since the 1990's.

Still commenting on the deplorable level of electricity supply Ekpo (2009) noted that in a bid to survive and make ends meet alternative sources of energy supply has been adopted by various individuals, artisan, industries and various multinational companies which has resulted in Nigeria running a generator economy more or less with an adverse effect on cost of production.

It has also been noted that due to these epileptic power supply most of the industrial areas around the country suffered an average of 14.5 hours of power outage per day as against 9.5 hours of supply, and the cost of generating power supply by firms for production constitute about 36% of total cost of production, so many firms had incurred huge debts as a result of this. (Adegbamigbe, 2007; Udaejah, 2006)

Sambo (2008) presented a paper on matching electricity with demand in Nigeria, in this paper he highlighted the collaborative efforts of International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) in a regional project for Sub-Saharan Africa to bring about sustainable energy. In this project models were computed on the Nigeria energy demand and supply projections covering 2005-2030. His write up was based extensively on the IAEA energy modeling tools for energy demand projections(MAED) and Energy supply projections (MESSAGE) which he used to analyze electricity supply and demand in Nigeria. The findings of his analysis confirm that Nigeria is not able to match supply with electricity demand especially because of the high cost involved to realize this, which according to him the federal government cannot shoulder alone. He further identifies other available resources for electricity generation in Nigeria.

Still on the deplorable state of electricity supply and its consequences for Nigeria various commentators have contributed robustly to same issues in various newspapers and magazines.

At the 50th celebration of Nigeria, Casmir Igbokwe lamented on the status of Nigeria “ at 50, what we have to show the world are dilapidated infrastructure, dwindling electric power supply and inability to rule ourselves”.(Sunday Punch, 2010) under the caption of Yar'Adua and the Underdevelopment of a Nation.

Fagbenle in a graphic exposition describes the pathetic situation of Nigeria thus: “Hunger is on the face of the people, the taps, where they exist, have run dry; electricity supply is at its lowest ebb.”(Sunday Punch, 2010)

Nzekwe commenting on the gloomy picture of Nigeria’s economy characterized by massive unemployment and other negative indices of poverty decries the unattractiveness of the country to foreign investors in the face of non functional infrastructures, epileptic electricity and an environment that cannot guarantee the security of life and property. (Sunday Punch, 2010).

Theoretical Framework

There are various theories postulated in respect of development and growth from the perspective of various theorists. The paper has adopted development theory and will explore the numerous development theories as applicable to the research work.

Development is said to be generic in nature meaning that the process of development is determined by various natural forces and modified by environmental conditions of which it can be deduced that energy (electricity) is very appropriate in this sense (Ujo, 1999)

Development is seen as a multidimensional process that involves major changes in social structure. The societal development theory belief that, society develops in an evolutionary way, beginning from the primitive and simple to a more complex and industrial society.

Furthermore, the development theory propounds that the society develops in circles that is to say there is no end to the development process rather it is like a ripple of which the status of one is directly linked to the other.

There are many proponents of the theories of development which includes Adam Smith’s, the Ricardian theory, Malthusian theory, Mills theory, the Marxian theory etc. all of which underlines the fact that development is determined by the economic structure of a state.

It is at the backdrop of this that the paper views electricity as the foundation or the bedrock that can bring about such structural changes be it economical, educational, health facilities etc that are necessary for development and which are central to the attainment of the millennium goals especially if poverty is to be alleviated.

Importance of Electricity Towards the Attainment of MDG’S

Development is the socio-cultural, political, economic and the spiritual well being of a society. When there is development there is assurance of good quality of life. Development implies enhanced quality of life, equity and justice, as it takes into consideration the wellbeing, growth and advancement of individuals within the society.

Development also entails the provision of all the necessary materials and equipment that guarantee that man in every society make a living and essence out of life and from this premise electricity plays a major role. In defining the concept, the third national development plan of 1980 says;

True development must mean the development of man, the unfolding and realization of his creative potentials, enabling him to improve his material conditions of living through the use of resources available to him. It is a process by which mans personality is enhanced, and it is that enhanced personality- creative, organized and disciplined-which is the moving force behind the socio-economic transformation of any society.

The relevance of electricity towards the attainment of the millennium goals cannot be over emphasized; this is because energy is very paramount to effective realization of all the eight goals. An uninterrupted electricity (ENERGY) supply is needed for;

- A. **INDUSTRIAL GROWTH:** Growth is one of the major indices of development. Multinational Corporations and Transnational Corporations need maximum supply of electricity to function optimally. National industries and manufacturing companies also requires electricity for their daily operations. Private individuals in their homes and small scale businesses, also needs electricity. A condition in which power supply is not reliable frustrates the operations of these industries as a result most of them had to rely heavily on other means of electricity supply such as heavy duty generators, which has subsequently increased their overhead cost of production and maintenance. These prevailing situations have made Nigeria unattractive to foreign investors, some industries had relocated to other West African Countries like Ghana where electricity is more stable and these has affected the economic growth of the country. The implications for MDG goals are quite obvious.
- B. **EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES:** the presence of Multinational Companies and Transnational Corporations as well as indigenous Nigerian companies provides employment opportunities for the populace. Artisans are also gainfully employed in one trade, vocation or the other, when such companies declare bankrupt or are relocated due to inadequate energy for sustenance, workers are disengaged and thrown back into the labor market, to make ends meet becomes difficult for majority of the people and the MDG goal to improve the condition of living and alleviate poverty becomes a difficult task.
- C. **EDUCATION:** The relevance and importance of education to a society cannot be overstated; it is in fact the catalyst for change. An enlightened society is a developed society because education brings about development in all spheres. The poverty level in Nigeria is quite high because the literacy level is very low, until the recent years when the new educational plan mandating that children of school age should be encouraged to go to school was introduced. Private initiatives at both the primary and secondary educational levels have also brought new innovations into the Nigerian educational system which has brought dynamic growth. The sustenance of a dynamic educational system needs an adequate supply of energy. Electronic educational equipments both at elementary, secondary and tertiary institutions must be powered through electricity i.e visual aids/slides, instructional videos, teaching aids, projectors/electronic white boards, internet accessibility, E-libraries etc are all essential for educational development of which an effective usage is dependent on adequate supply of electricity.
- D. **COMMUNICATION:** This is another very important aspect that facilitates development but often overlooked. The efficiency and effectiveness of good communication is dependent on a stable supply of electricity. Good communication system is needed to disseminate information to all and sundry both at the rural community and the urban centers. Nigeria has many media houses, television stations, radio

houses newspaper companies etc privately or government owned. For effective broadcasting, their electronic gadgets and equipments needs electricity to be powered. The importance of telecommunications even at remote regions needs to be emphasized. All these are electricity dependent. Information dissemination to all and especially to the rural communities is very important if the MDGs are to be achieved.

- E. **HEALTH:** Health is wealth. A healthy community is a developed society. The health sector is very important if poverty is to be eradicated, if mortality rate of mother and child is to be reduced, if the transmission and infection of HIV/AIDS is to be arrested and managed, all these are electricity dependent especially in creating awareness. Sophisticated heavy duty medical equipments for diagnosis, treatment, laboratory, dialysis, surgery etc needs an un interrupted supply of energy for optimal usage and service to people, unfortunately this sector has virtually been paralyzed due to broken down equipment as a result of power fluctuations, accessibility to affordable health care has become almost impossible for the masses. The deplorable state of health in Nigeria is one of the major concerns of MDG's and achieving this has proved a herculean task. Improvement in the energy sector will go a long way in providing a more conducive environment in meeting health challenges in Nigeria.
- F. **THE ENVIRONMENT:** One may wonder the relevance of electricity to the environment. There are correlations between some environmental issues experienced in Nigeria today. Erosion, deforestation, depletion of ozone layer etc are all environmental challenges that could be minimized or eradicated if electricity is not epileptic or totally denied as the case may be. The non availability of cooking elements such as gas, kerosene, electricity that will facilitate cooking for the masses has militate them into finding alternatives that are not really environment friendly. These alternatives are crude and obsolete methods of generating fire for cooking that is not in line with the concept of development. These alternatives also expose the terrain to environmental hazards that have had negative implications not only in Nigeria but in other countries too.

Herein lies the importance of uninterrupted electricity towards the attainment of MDG's

Nigeria's Generating Capabilities and Estimated Energy Requirement For Attainment Of MDG's

For over two decades Nigeria has experienced problems in the areas of electricity generation, transmission and distribution, and it goes without saying that electricity represents a pivotal sector of any nation's socio-economic growth, to this end Nigeria has not been able to meet up with both the industrial and domestic energy needs of consumers.

Over the years various governments tried to address the energy shortage problems through various governmental initiatives. For instance, in 1992 attempts made to corporatize the then NEPA failed, 1998 witnessed attempts to break the monopoly of NEPA and privatize, so far this has not yielded positive result. At the backdrop of this the Obasanjo's administration in 1999 embarked on an extensive review of the industry and came up with some findings that made critical restructuring in all areas of the sector imperative. These findings have lead to various reforms in the sector and it subsequently became the foundation stone upon which president Jonathan's initiatives for improvement in the power sector reforms has been based.

The various reviews and findings revealed that since inception ECN, NEPA/PHCN has never generated more than 2500MW of electricity and that the national grid itself cannot support a generating output more than 2500MW(Imoke, 2006). This implies that the problem did not start just today but that Nigerian leaders did not have the foresight to prepare for the future inevitable growth and energy needs. As at date, Nigeria has six generating companies alongside with Independent Power Producers (IPPs), one Transmission Company and eleven geographically based distribution companies, all of which were expected to assist the Nigeria electricity industries to function effectively to meet energy requirements of the state.

However, to date the generated power available from the combined efforts of both PHCN and the Independent Power Producers (IPPs) are incapable of still meeting the nation's electricity demands. Records showed that the total available power generated in the country stands in the neighborhood of 3,400 – 3,700MW (NERC documents) while the total amount of energy delivered at the transmission company is about 90% of the above, whereas the total estimated energy needs of consumers is about 5000MW to 7000MW daily,(Road Map for Power Sector Reform, 2010). The populace is left to bear the brunt of the difference in the MW generated and actual MW energy requirement which is a shortfall of about 4000MW and this is responsible for the frequent power outages and fluctuations (Road Map for Power Sector Reform, 2010). There is no doubt that Nigeria is still far from generating electric power to support meaningful developmental growth.

The vision 2020 ambition of the present democratic government is to increase power generation in Nigeria to about 40,000MW relatively comparable to other countries in Africa. The expectation is that by 2013 a marginal increase in PHCN power stations is put at about 4,500MW, and from the NIPP plants 4,775MW, inputs from IPPs to increase to 3,300MW. These expected increases are on the condition that the reforms are effective and that by 2013 the total estimated increase of approximately 14,000MW is anticipated to improve the countries generation supply (Road Map to Power Sector Reform, 2010). The following tables indicate the ways and means (strategies) anticipated to bring about these desired increase in generation, transmission and distribution over a period of four years.

Table 1: Targeted Increases in capacity in each section of the electricity value chain between July 2010 and April 2011

Fuel-to-Power Availability					Available Generation Capacity					Transmission Capacity			Distribution Capacity	
NGC/Direct	Total mm scfd	PP mm scfd	Other mm scfd	MWE	July 2010					July 2010			July 2010	
W.A.	785	595	190	2142	FGN	NIPP	IPP	All		KV	330	132	MVA	7398
E.A.	52	24	27	86	Hydro	1230	0	0	1230	MVA	6444	8346	MW	5758
Direct	212	212	0	1100	Thermal	1862	0	1520	3382	MW	5155	6677		
Hydro	0	0	0	1230	Total	3092	0	1520	4612					
Total	1049	831	217	4558										
NGC/Direct	Total mm scfd	PP mm scfd	Other mm scfd	MWE	Dec 2010					Dec 2010			Dec 2010	
W.A.	1085	825	260	2970	FGN	NIPP	IPP	All		KV	330	132	MVA	7917
E.A.	150	84	66	302	Hydro	1230	0	0	1230	MVA	6894	9160	MW	6334
Direct	212	212	0	1100	Thermal	2278	351	1520	4149	MW	5515	7328		
Hydro	0	0	0	1255	Total	3508	351	1520	5379					
Total	1447	1121	326	5627										
NGC/Direct	Total mm scfd	PP mm scfd	Other mm scfd	MWE	April 2011					April 2011			April 2011	
W.A.	1085	825	260	2970	FGN	NIPP	IPP	All		KV	330	132	MVA	8625
E.A.	275	209	66	752	Hydro	1380	0	0	1380	MVA	7494	9160	MW	6900
Direct	602	602	0	2504	Thermal	2867	1266	1520	5653	MW	5995	7328		
Hydro	0	0	0	1485	Total	4247	1266	1520	7033					
Total	1962	1636	326	7711										

Note: As at July 2010, 831 mmscfd was available to power plants but only 687 mmscfd was actually used.

SOURCE: Road Map for Power Sector Reform. 2010

Table 2: Targeted Increases in capacity in each section of the electricity value chain between April 2011 and December 2013

Fuel-to-Power Availability					Available Generation Capacity					Transmission Capacity			Distribution Capacity	
NGC/Direct	Total mm scfd	PP mm scfd	Other mm scfd	MWE	Dec 2011					Dec 2011			Dec 2011	
W.A.	1180	880	300	3168	FGN	NIPP	IPP	All		KV	330	132	MVA	9357
E.A.	550	500	50	1800	Hydro	1575	0	0	1575	MVA	8194	9360	MW	7485
Direct	640	640	0	2641	Thermal	2867	3095	2230	8192	MW	6555	7488		
Hydro	0	0	0	1575	Total	4442	3095	2230	9767					
Total	2370	2020	350	9184										
NGC/Direct	Total mm scfd	PP mm scfd	Other mm scfd	MWE	Dec 2012					Dec 2012			Dec 2012	
W.A.	1300	1000	300	3600	FGN	NIPP	IPP	All		KV	330	132	MVA	10077
E.A.	1004	924	80	3326	Hydro	1695	0	0	1695	MVA	9833	11232	MW	8061
Direct	762	762	0	3080	Thermal	2867	4775	2542	10184	MW	7866	8986		
Hydro	0	0	0	1695	Total	4562	4775	2542	11879					
Total	3066	2686	380	11701										
NGC/Direct	Total mm scfd	PP mm scfd	Other mm scfd	MWE	Dec 2013					Dec 2013			Dec 2013	
W.A.	2401	2051	350	7383	FGN	NIPP	IPP	All		KV	330	132	MVA	11322
E.A.	1619	1539	80	5540	Hydro	1775	0	0	1775	MVA	10815	12355	MW	9057
Direct	762	762	0	3080	Thermal	2867	4775	4801	12443	MW	8653	9885		
Hydro	0	0	0	1775	Total	4642	4775	4801	14218					
Total	6833	6403	430	17780										

SOURCE: Road Map for Power Sector Reform. 2010

The above table reflects that;

- A large component of the total expected increase in power generation capacity by 2013 is expected from the IPPs.

-To evacuate same, the FGN anticipated a 30% increase in the true deliverable transformation capacity of the country, especially in upgrading the current 330KV network above its present limit of about

4,500MW. This upgrading and increase in transformation capacity is expected to increase transmission up to about 5000MW.

- Between 2010-2013 distribution is expected to have increased to about 9,057MW though actual deliverables is 5,758MW, giving rise to a total distribution gap of over 3,000MW obvious in the epileptic supply (this accounts for the anticipated 30% increase and upgrading)

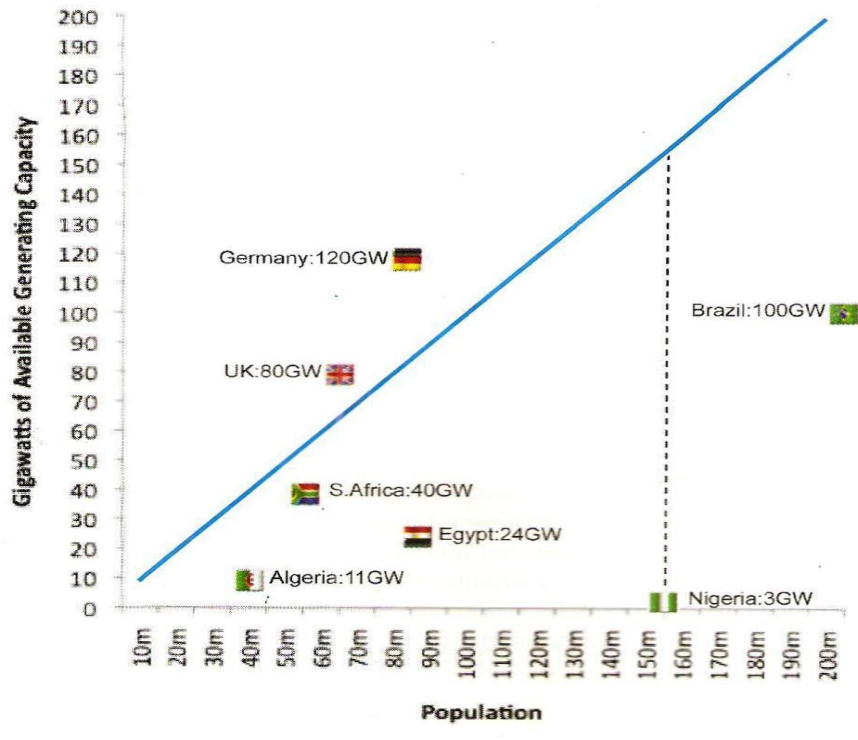
The tables also presented the current status of energy generation, transmission and distribution of the country as against the actual energy requirements. The supply gap between generation and transmission continues to widen as estimated growth are not a par with each other and this has been one of the major reasons why Nigeria has not recorded remarkable success in the achievement of the millennium goals.

In most industrialized nations, there is an acceptable norm to measure or determine the adequacy of power (energy) generation in relation to consumption and this is put at about 1 gig watt (1000MW) of electricity generated for every 1 million head of the population. This implies that Nigeria been a highly populous country of over 150 million people is expected to produce 1000MW multiplied by 150, the product of which is about 150,000MW of energy.

A survey carried out in some selected countries of the world adopting this measurement to see if the energy generated is commensurate with consumption in terms of the population showed that Nigeria is seriously below the landmark in energy generated and transmitted in relation with its population, hence the inadequate and epileptic power supply and the inadequacies of the nation to meet the individual needs and industrial energy needs of the country that is expected to bring about meaningful developmental growth.

Analyzing the graph below shows that;

- Nigeria's per capita electricity consumption is amongst the lowest in the world even lower than any other African countries.
- Nigeria's per capita electricity consumption is about 7% of Brazil's and 3% of that of South Africa.
- Some African Countries like Brazil and South Africa generates relatively adequate electricity commensurate with their population.
- Nigeria as at 2010 was able to generate only about 3 – 5 MW for a population of over 150 million people.



SOURCE: Road Map for Power Sector Reform. 2010

This in effect shows that Nigeria does not meet with the norm of 1 gig watt per 1 million head of the population, hence the herculean task of meeting the energy demands of the country which has resulted in stunted developmental growth in all its ramifications.

Factors Militating Against Effective Supply Of Energy And Its Effect On MDG's

The factors responsible for the inadequacies of energy generation and supply in Nigeria have been highlighted to be both man made and mechanical and they include the following

- Leadership inadequacies and massive corruption
- Lack of adequate generation
- Obsolete equipments in the industry
- Customers apathy to payment of tariff and culture of energy conservation
- Lack of credible investment on generation, distribution and transmission of electricity
- Inappropriate tariff
- Theft and vandalization of electricity equipments.

The effects of these factors on the capability of PHCN to deliver adequate energy are enormous. They have to operate under extremely difficult situations especially due to vandalization of their equipments, or as a result of obsolete equipment that no longer operates optimally. The existing transformers in some substations are either overloaded or damaged, diversion of funds and necessary equipments to private use, revenue loss etc, constitute the milieu that characterized the operating system of PHCN. Corruption has actually rendered them handicapped to deliver adequately. It goes without saying that for as long as such conditions exist in generation, transmission and distribution of energy, the dreams of Nigeria to attain meaningful developmental growth in the energy sector is utopian. The rippling effect of course is that

once there is no economical and industrial growth the country remains in abject poverty and the realization of the millennium development goals becomes a mirage.

These challenges became the bases of the various reform initiatives with the commissioning of various committees and regulatory bodies with the view to encourage private sectors participation, attract capital to fund the sector, provide/ensure level playing ground for all investors, provision of conducive environments for long term development of the sector etc.

Conclusion

Provision of electricity is a universal basic need of life that cannot be compromised or denied. It is needed to bring about improvement in the standard of living of the populace, succor to the less privileged, alleviation of suffering, enhancement of revenue generation, in totality the self esteem of a country is tied to adequate supply of electricity. The findings of this paper revealed that electricity generated has not grown or increased a par with Nigeria's explosive population growth and as such the generated capacity and the distribution of electricity has not been able to meet the need and demand of the populace. This has further truncated the activities of companies that could bring about stable economic development.

Leadership patterns over the years cannot also be absolved of some of the blames because they lacked the appropriate foresight of planning and management that will develop the various arms of production in the sector at the same time not making judicious and credible investment in the sector. Corruption, obsolete equipment and lack of maintenance culture has stagnated growth and these have not made the task of attaining the MDG's quite viable. Nigeria did not attain this pathetic situation in one day neither can the ills and anomalies of many years be addressed in a day, much still remains to be done. The seemingly unrealizable dreams of the MDGS cannot be achieved by the federal government alone but we all as stakeholders should contribute to make the system work effectively to eradicate the scourge of epileptic power supply in our nation.

Recommendations

The following suggestions are been proffered for improvement to create better conditions of operation for the energy sector that would further promote the success and effectiveness of the millennium objectives.

1. There is the need to uphold transparency and accountability in the sector.
2. The constraints of obsolete equipment must be addressed optimally and necessary upgrading and maintenance measures put in place.
3. The Federal Government needs to step up processes to encourage foreign and private investors in to the industry.
4. The billing or tariff system should be revisited to promote viability of the system
5. There is the need to make the sector more viable to allow effective privatization. Mechanisms should be put in place that will ensure service delivery and consumer's satisfaction.
6. It is highly recommended that the country and sector should explore maximally other natural alternatives of energy generation that we have been endowed with such as gas, solar energy, wind, ocean waves (including rain water) biomass etc.
7. In order to curb theft and vandalization branding of PHCN materials and equipment is likely to serve as deterrence.

8. Adequate remunerations, incentives and appreciative environment should be accorded to staff of the industry for exemplary and effective performance.
9. Foreign investors should be wooed back into the country and assured of safety.
10. Infrastructures should be put in place and maintained to ensure economic stability and growth.

References

Ayodele A. O. (2001). "Improving and Sustaining Power (Electricity) Supply for Socio-Economic Development in Nigeria". NISER, Ibadan.

Ekpo, A. H. (2009). "The Global Economic Crisis and the Crisis in the Nigerian Economy", Presidential address at the 50th Conference of the Nigerian Economic Society.

Elugbe B. O. (1994). "National Language and national Development in Language and Polity", 70 in Encarta Dictionary (2008).

Jhingan, M. L. (2005). *The Economics of Development and Planning 38th ed.* Vrinda Publications Ltd Delhi, India

Sambo A. S. (2008). "Matching Electricity Supply with Demand in Nigeria", a paper presented at the National Workshop on the Participation of State Governments in the Power Sector. Abuja.

Todaro, M. P. & Smith S.C. (2004). *Economic Development 8th ed.* Pearson Education, Singapore. India

Ujo, A. A. (1999). *Understanding Development Administration in Nigeria.* Joyce Graphic Printers & Publishers Ltd, Nassarawa, Kaduna.

Yagboyaju, D. A. (2008). "Attaining the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in a Weak State: the Nigerian Example" in Politics and Development Vol.6, nos. 1 & 2

Newspapers/Magazine

Adegbamigbe, A. The News, Vol. 28, 2007. "Obasanjo's Legacies".

Fagbenle, B. Sunday Punch, Feb. 28, 2010. "In this Time of Want and Despair, I cry for Nigeria"

Igbokwe, C. Sunday Punch, Mar. 7, 2010. "Yar'adua and the Underdevelopment of a Nation"

Imoke, L. Nigerian Electricity Magazine, 2006. "Getting Set for Power Breakthrough"

Nzekwe, S. Sunday Punch, Feb. 7, 2010. "Nigeria's Economy is Adrift"

Official Document of Nigerian Electricity Regulatory Commission (NERC)

Udaejah, G. Guardian, Aug. 29, 2006 "Industrial Firms lose #38 billion to Power Outage"

Road Map for Power Sector Reform, 2010: The Presidency Federal Republic of Nigeria.

On-Line Materials

Road Map to Power Sector Reform, 2010; www.nigeriapowerreform.org/download

Effiong ,Paul (2011) 'Challenges of power supply' in National Accord Newspaper, October 17th;
<http://nationalaccord.disqus.com/?url=ref>

Quadry, Wasiu(2008). "Solution to Nigeria Power outage"
<http://www.booksie.com/library/toc.html/toc/39824>

Interviews

Business Manager, Victoria Island District of PHCN (interviewed on June 16th,2011).

Senior Manager, Distribution Victoria Island District of PHCN (interviewed on June 16th,2011).

Linking the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Democratic Consolidation in Nigeria: Vistas and Limits

By

Olajumoke Yacob-Haliso and Michael Ogu

Department of Political Science and Public Administration

Babcock University, Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract

When the United Nations General Assembly concluded the Millennium Summit in 2000, it was with a view to positively transforming development options of the less developed world. The vision was for a world in which conditions of living for the ordinary person would be qualitatively improved in terms of reduced poverty, access to opportunities and better partnerships among nations to achieve these aims. Undoubtedly, the above are the very aspirations of democratic transition in Nigeria. Therefore, this paper aims fundamentally to link these two concepts, bringing into relief the vistas of opportunity possible by this, and the conceptual and operational limits of such a coupling.

Specifically, we ask, what are the local parameters for the engagement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria? How can an externally imposed agenda and deadline provide internal progress? What are the limits to the process of democratic consolidation in Nigeria in the current era? How do these limits translate into further constraining the objectives of the MDGs? Conversely, how might the lessons learnt from the implementation of the MDGs elsewhere provide a more optimistic future for the Nigerian citizen in terms of poverty reduction, gender equality and women's empowerment, and global partnerships for development? Analyzed within a human security framework, this research will contribute to the growing literature on the role of the United Nations and other development partners in enhancing the capacity and the possibility of contemporary Nigerian governments promoting democratic consolidation.

Key Words: *Millennium Development Goals, Democratic Consolidation, United Nations, Nigeria*

Introduction

On September 6th, 2000, 189 world leaders gathered in New York at the United Nations General Assembly to consider and make commitments on matters of grave importance that indeed are age old aspirations of humans irrespective of age, gender, race or creed. The occasion was the Millennium Summit, and the cry was: "We are the generation that can end poverty." When the Millennium Summit concluded on the 8th of September in 2000, world leaders were confident of positively transforming development options of the less developed world by halving poverty, improving quality of life in terms of education, health, environmental sustainability and women empowerment – all in fifteen calendar years. The vision was for a world in which conditions of living for the ordinary person would be qualitatively improved in terms of reduced poverty, access to opportunities and better partnerships among nations to achieve these aims. Undoubtedly, the above are the very aspirations of democratic transition in Nigeria.

Therefore, this paper aims fundamentally to link these two concepts, bringing into relief the vistas of opportunity possible by this, and the conceptual and operational limits of such a coupling.

Nigerian democracy has been challenged by a number of factors in its bid to develop. The democracy in Nigeria, since its inception in 1999, has suffered from a lot of ills in the society, and this has hampered the consolidation of democracy in the country. Several leaders have abused the system with a high level of corruption, deceit, maladministration among many other societal ills. These issues have gone a long way to affect the levels of trust the citizens have in the democratic process in Nigeria.

Various institutions have been put in place in addition to existing ones to ensure the continuous pursuit of a consolidated democracy in Nigeria. The Judiciary is one such institution already in existence, striving to ensure a consolidated democracy in Nigeria. Other institutions that have been established with the same objective include the Economic and Financial Crimes Commissions (EFCC), Independent Corrupt and other Practices Commission (ICPC), among others. However there is still a lot to be done in consolidating democracy in Nigeria.

This paper will analyze the relationship between the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of the United Nations and the goals of democratic consolidation in Nigeria. The intent of this study, however, is to discover if the pursuit of the MDGs in Nigeria are in any way resulting in the achievement of a consolidation of Nigeria's democracy. The specific research questions guiding this paper are:

- What are the local parameters for the engagement of the MDGs in Nigeria?
- How can an externally imposed agenda and deadline provide internal progress?
- What are the limits to the process of democratic consolidation in Nigeria in the current era?
- How do these limits translate into further constraining the objectives of the MDGs?
- Conversely, how might the lessons learnt from the implementation of the MDGs elsewhere provide a more optimistic future for the Nigerian citizen particularly in terms of poverty reduction, gender equality and women's empowerment, and global partnerships for development?

The methodology of the paper is decidedly analytical, engaging both literature review and empirical data from tertiary sources to refine its analysis.

The analysis in this paper finds particularly useful the human security framework as enunciated by the United Nations Development Program and various scholars over the years since the 1990s. *The Human Development Report 1994* sought to expand the definition of security, going beyond the traditional to encompass threats in seven other areas namely: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security. This view of security is people-centered and not state-focused and bestrides the traditional gap between human rights and state security.

For the purposes of this paper, we find relevant the human security framework because it approaches human progress from the standpoint of human beings, and provides a dynamic frame for assessing development. Importantly also, it is useful for highlighting the interconnected of the human experience, emphasizing that political progress is not possible without socio-economic, psychological, communal progress. These are also the emphases of this paper.

To this end, this paper is discussed in five major parts: the first section provides the parameters for the paper, including the guiding questions and theory; the second section gives the background to the MDGs as well as the literature on democratization that guides the analysis in the paper; the third section describes Nigeria's democratic experience and culminates in a review of her progress with the MDGs and how one is linked to the other; the fourth section brings into relief the vistas of opportunity possible by linking the MDGs to democratization processes in Nigeria, as well as the possible limits of such an endeavour; and the final section concludes the paper.

United Nations Objectives and the MDGs

Emerging from the rubbles of the Second World War, the United Nations was established as a major means of proffering solution to a world that had been torn by wars, anarchy, aggressive and self-centred international politics. The 20th century was a period characterized by so much chaos and anarchy in the international arena. Hence the UN was created to engender international peace and forestall another war among nations of the world. Owing to these developments, it was imperative to come up with an organization that would promote peace and security, as well as lead to political, economic and social development among countries of the world. After several years of negotiations and planning, the United Nations was eventually established in 1945 with 51 member nations, signalling the official demise of its predecessor the League of Nations.

The United Nations was borne out of liberal internationalist visions of a world that could be made better by international cooperation. The organisation was founded on the principle of collective security, that is, that security is indivisible in the international system, and a threat to one is considered a threat to all. Thus one of the stated aims in the Preamble to the UN Charter was to "promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom." This enunciates *ab initio* recognition of a nexus between social progress and political objectives of "larger freedom." These aspirations were further elaborated in the statement of purposes. Article 1 of the UN Charter gives the third purpose of the United Nations as to "achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character and promote respect for fundamental freedoms and human rights." Once more we may observe here the explicit association of cooperation on non-political matters (economic, social, cultural, humanitarian matters) to the achievement of political ends (human rights).

The immediate past Secretary-General of the United Nations, Mr Kofi Annan, fittingly tied up this aspiration for socio cum political progress in his 2005 Report titled *In Larger Freedom*, thereby bringing the decades old principles of the UN Charter to modern relevance and prominence. To quote Kofi Annan (United Nations 2005: 5) quite extensively:

I have named the present report "In larger freedom" to stress the enduring relevance of the Charter of the United Nations and to emphasize that its purposes must be advanced in the lives of individual men and women. The notion of larger freedom also encapsulates the idea that development, security and human rights go hand in hand.... Larger freedom implies that men and women everywhere have the right to be governed by their own consent, under law, in a society where all individuals can, without discrimination or retribution, speak, worship and associate freely. They must also be free from want — so that the death sentences of extreme poverty and infectious disease are lifted from their lives — and free from fear — so that their lives and livelihoods are not ripped apart by violence and war. Indeed, all people have the right to security and to development. Not only are development, security and human rights all imperative; they also reinforce each other.

For over six decades now, the United Nations has worked tirelessly to ensure collective security as well as development of her 192 member-nations and most essentially has prevented the occurrence of another World War. There have been programs embarked upon by the UN that have been directed at addressing certain issues relating to health, commerce, economy, politics, among other pressing issues of state life. Some of the programs embarked upon by the UN in pursuit of development include, but are not limited to: United Nations Environment Program (UNEP), United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Development Program (UNDP), World Food Program (WFP), United Nations University (UNU), amongst others.

Suffice to say that the United Nations has achieved a lot in the pursuit of development on the world stage, especially in the last decade; following the Millennium Declaration and development goals – eradicating extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; develop a global partnership for development. Several states as well as governments have done a lot to make these goals materialize within their territories and even beyond.

From inception, the member-nations of the United Nations, those that signed the treaty in 1945 and others that joined later have remained focused on the key goals of the organization, which according to Osazuwa (2011) include:

- Building of conditions that would allow for peaceful and friendly relations among peoples though increased recognition of the dignity and work of the human being.
- Seeking to provide formal machinery for the adjustment of international tensions when the normal processes of diplomacy fail.
- Establishing a program of collective security under which all the member states must come to the support of any member victimized by aggression.

In contrast to popular opinion on the growing irrelevance of the United Nations, several other scholars see the United Nations as a vital tool for maintaining world peace and development. Also, the United Nations programs in various parts of the world have continued to emphasize the continued relevance of the international organization. Several efforts have been made in peace keeping among conflicting members of the United Nations, as well as, negotiation, mediation, peace building among others.

Most pertinent for our consideration is the increasing assertion of relevance by the General Assembly occasioned by the perception of member needs and opportunities for the organisation to make a difference. The MDGs are a result of this kind of thinking and they represent an ambitious plan by all member states to directly, qualitatively improve the quality of life of citizens of the various states represented.

These goals, in the words of Alston (2005),

were intended not only to mark the coming of the second millennium, but also set out a strategic vision for the United Nations to pursue for the first part of the twenty-first century and to breathe life into efforts to realize a number of fundamental goals that had been endorsed by a series of world conferences over the preceding decade or more. For all the time and effort invested in those conferences, too little had been achieved in concrete terms for the poorest members of society and the MDGs were designed to remedy that failure.

Four features have also been highlighted to distinguish the Millennium Development Goals from other global development programs that have been practiced. These features, listed by Alston (2005) include that:

- a. The goals are limited and selective and thus prioritize certain objectives over the many others endorsed every year by the international community.
- b. They are deliberately designed to be measured and thus to provide a basis for accountability.
- c. They are time-bound (2000-2015), thereby bringing greater precision to goals that might otherwise be said only to be subject to “progressive realization”.
- d. An extensive institutional apparatus has been set up to promote them. These apparatus include:
 - The Millennium Project, a large network of policymakers, practitioners and experts led by Professor Jeffrey Sachs as Special Adviser to the Secretary General.
 - The Millennium Campaign which seeks to mobilize a wide range of civil society actors.
 - Efforts to produce National Millennium Development Goal reports in every developing country, and
 - Highly focused efforts by virtually every major international development agency.
- e. Under the relatively innocuous heading of developing ‘a global partnership’, the Millennium Development Goals hold out the incentive that the industrialized countries will provide significant additional resources to developing countries in return for concerted efforts by the latter to meet the Millennium Development Goals within their own countries.

The specific development targets agreed by states at the Millennium Summit are as follows:

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger.

Target 1: Halve between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day.

Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education.

Target 3: ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women

Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and to all levels of education no later than 2015.

Goal 4: Reduce child mortality

Target 5: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate.

Goal 5: Improve maternal health

Target 6: Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio

Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases.

Target 7: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS

Target 8: Have halted by 2015 and began to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.

Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability

Target 9: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources.

Target 10: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water

Target 11: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.

Goal 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development

Target 12: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system.

Target 13: Address the special Needs of the Least Developed Countries.

Target 14: Address the Special Needs of landlocked countries and small island developing states.

Target 15: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term.

Target 16: In co-operation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth.

Target 17: In co-operation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable, essential drugs in developing countries.

Target 18: In co-operation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications.

Assessing the relevance of the Millennium Development Goals, Alston (2005) quoted the former United Nations Secretary General; General Kofi Annan as asserting that the MDGs have “transformed the face of global development cooperation” and have “generated unprecedented, coordinated action” on the part of the United Nations, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, the major donors of international development assistance, and the developing countries at which the goals are targeted.

Conceptualising Democratic Consolidation

The literature on democratic consolidation is replete with debate about what the concept really means and what it should mean, and this is due in no little measure to the nebulousness today associated with the concept of democracy itself. As O'Donnell (1996) puts it, democracies used to be few in number and thus were easily identified and defined, but in the past couple of decades or so the entire globe has witnessed the transition of many authoritarian regimes to democratic rule. This phenomenal rise in the acceptability of democracy the world over is what Francis Fukuyama (1992) referred to as the “End of History” in his seminal and highly controversial work titled *The End of History and the Last Man*. Fukuyama wrote of the rise of democracy in the post cold war era as the ultimate and final and triumphant form of human government: “What we may be witnessing is not just the end of the Cold War, or the passing of a particular period of post-war history, but the end of history as such: that is, the end point of mankind's ideological evolution and the universalization of Western liberal democracy as the final form of human government.”

Samuel P. Huntington (1991) also wrote about the same time as Fukuyama of the concept of global democratic change, characterising the appearance of democracy as occurring in series of ebbs and flows. Huntington's seminal contribution to the literature, *The Third Wave of Democratisation*, classified about sixty countries of the world that democratised after Portugal's Revolution of 1974 as constituting the Third Wave of democracy, including many African countries in this periodization.

The variety of post-authoritarian rule that have thus presented itself the world over has complicated the theoretical conceptualisation of democracy, and by extension, democratic consolidation. Early

authoritative definitions of democratic consolidation included those provided by Diamond (1996), Linz (1990), Linz and Stepan (1996), Schmitter (1988) among an array of sometimes conflicting definitions, leading some scholars to doubt the relevance of the concept altogether.

Andreas Schedler (1997) points out that a semantic exploration could help us begin to unravel the various meanings attributed to democratic consolidation in the literature. Thus:

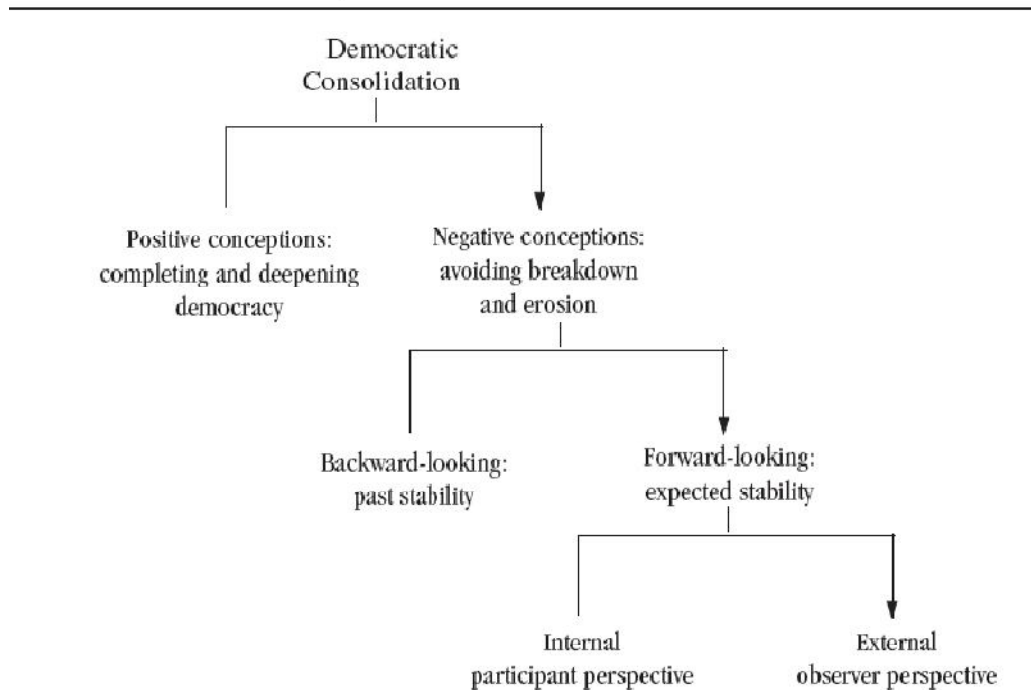
First of all, any talk about democratic consolidation presupposes that a democratic regime exists from the beginning to the end of the process. Democracy is at the same time the indispensable starting point of DC (in form of a “consolidating democracy”) and its hopeful outcome (in form of a “consolidated democracy”). It does not make any sense to speak of the “democratic consolidation” of an authoritarian regime. This sounds trivial. But it is not. It assumes, for instance, that democratic consolidation cannot set in before a democratic transition has been successfully completed.... Then, “consolidation” – the term that denotes both movement and arrival, both progress and achievement, and that accounts for the teleological nature of DC. Its express goal is solidity (Schedler, 1997: 6, emphasis in original).

It is apparent therefore, that democratic consolidation may be distinguished from democratic transition and from democratisation. The concept of democratic transition usually refers to that point at which a regime sheds explicitly authoritarian referents and assumes elements of democracy; whilst democratisation is often conceived as the process by which a regime acquires progressively over time certain referents of modern liberal democracy that ensures the stability of democratic institutions and processes. When used synonymically with the term “democratic transition”, democratisation implies a transition from a previously authoritarian political system to one that is democratic.

What is “democratic” may for the purposes of this paper be defined in terms of Robert Dahl’s concept of polyarchy which provides seven referents of a fully institutionalised (or consolidated) democracy, operationalised as polyarchy in Dahl’s classic text, *Democracy and its Critics* (Dahl 1989). These include elected officials, free and fair elections, inclusive suffrage, the right to run for office, freedom of expression, alternative information, and associational autonomy (Dahl 1989: 221). Another useful description is given by Merkel (2004) who produces five constitutive partial regimes of democracy: elections, political liberties, civil rights, horizontal accountability and effective power to govern (Merkel 2004: 38-42, in Moller and Skaaning 2010: 263).

Andreas Schedler (2001, 1997) further notes that there is a “positive” and a “negative” conception of democratic consolidation, based on the normative expectations that particular definitions confer on the concept. The “negative” conception sees democratic consolidation as concerned with democratic stability and tries to avoid a regression to either non-democratic or semi-democratic regimes. The “positive” conception focuses on notions of democratic consolidation concerned with making democratic advances and attaining progress towards minimal or high-quality democracy (Schedler 1997: 10-11).

Figure 1
Conceptions of Democratic Consolidation



Source: Andreas Schedler (2001: 68) "Measuring Democratic Consolidation".

A final interpretation of the concept of democratic consolidation sees it as the institutionalisation of democracy, according to Schedler (1997: 11), "the establishment of democratic micro and meso rules." This may be related to Juan Linz's (1990: 156) definition of democratic consolidation as the establishment of such an entrenched democratic system that democracy is seen as "the only game in town" (cf O'Donnell 1996: 37).

Today, the most influential indicators of democratisation and democratic consolidation are those developed by Freedom House, a think-tank formed in 1941, that collects information on, and categorises every country in the world into Free, Partly Free or Not Free based on these indicators. Its periodic report, *Freedom in the World*, is the researcher's guide to democracy's development around the world from a comparative perspective.

Nigeria's Challenges of Democratization

Nigeria has existed for almost a century now since amalgamation in 1914 but still with a very nascent democracy. Suberu and Diamond (2004) opine however that from independence till date, three particular concerns have vexed every one of the country's governments. These are: national unity, socio-economic development and democratic stability. These universal objectives of government have repeatedly eluded Nigerian governments over the years, necessitating probing analysis of Nigeria's peculiar and not-so-peculiar challenges in achieving these aims.

Proclaimed by *Time Magazine* (1960) at independence as 'a giant among Lilliputians', by most indicators Nigeria is definitely more of a Crippled Giant today (Osaghae 1998). The 'mistake of 1914', according to

the Late Sardauna of Sokoto, Sir Ahmadu Bello, continues to persist. Sixty years after independence, democratic consolidation remains a challenge occasioned by the experience of decades of military and civilian (mis-)rule.

Table 1. Chronology of regimes in Nigeria since 1 October 1960

Name of Head of Government	Period	Regime Type
Abubakar Tafawa Balewa	1 October- 15 January 1966	Elected Civilian
General Aguiyi J. T. Ironsi	15 January 1966- 29 July 1966	Military
General Yakubu Jack Gowon	29 July 1966- 29 July 1975	Military
General Murtala Muhammed	July 1975- 13 February 1976	Military
General Olusegun Obasanjo	13 February 1976- 1 October 1979	Military
Shehu Usman Aliyu Shagari	1 October 1979- 31 December 1983	Elected Civilian
General Muhammadu Buhari	31 December 1983- 27 August 1985	Military
General Ibrahim Babangida	27 August 1985- 27 August 1993	Military
Ernest Oladeinde Shonekan	27 August 1993- 17 November 1993	Unelected Civilian
General Sani Abacha	17 November 1993- 8 June 1998	Military
General Abdulsalam Abubakar	8 June 1998- 29 May 1999	Military
Olusegun Obasanjo	29 May 1999- 29 May 2007	Elected Civilian
Umaru Musa Yar'Adua	29 May 2007- 5 May 2010	Elected Civilian
Goodluck Ebele Jonathan	5 May 2010 -	Elected Civilian

Source: W. Adebawo and E. Obadare (2010:382) "Introducing Nigeria at fifty: the nation in narration."

Today, a lack of congruence between stated democratic ideals and actual ethos of democratic practice (Ojo 2006) are symptomatic of democratic consolidation troubles. Other symptoms of the debilitating inability to entrench democracy in Nigeria are evident in the lack of respect for the rule of law; weakness of democratic institutions such as the courts of law and law enforcement agencies; attempts to muffle the official and unofficial opposition at all levels; political assassinations; entrenched corruption, nepotism and sectarianism; militancy in the Niger Delta occasioned by failed policies; leadership failure; inordinately widespread poverty; and, very importantly, persistently controversial and contested elections. In the words of Osaghae (2010: 413):

The correlates...of leadership failure include the low levels of national cohesion (Nigeria remains one of the world's best examples of deeply divided societies where conflict tends to be endemic and intractable), economic development and human security (this in spite of being one of the world's leading oil-producing countries), and bad governance, political instability and state fragility.

According to Tinubu (2009), "democracy may be a process not an event, but it is a myth to assume any country can develop without democracy. Democracy therefore is a desirable ideal to which every country should aim". Henderson (2000:5), describing colonialism says "the practice of European and American colonizers left a destructive legacy that had a deleterious impact on African State building and nation building initiatives". This goes to emphasize the level of damage done on the African State by colonial rule, especially in the case of Nigeria where the geo-political territorial division of the colony; for ease in the British administration, was maintained by independent Nigeria, and has been a major source of the challenging practice of democracy in the state.

The violence that has characterized elections in Nigerian politics as well as political behaviour of most elected representatives for decades is also a major challenge to democratization. According to Ake (1981:

62 - 63), in Onu and Momoh (2005) the crux of the problem is the ‘overpoliticisation’ of social life. Onu and Momoh (2005) have also described elections as an indispensable part of the democratic process. To them, there can be no democracy without an election. As such, the conduct of an election is crucial to the survival of any democracy because the freedom of choice, which is a key principle of democratic culture, is hereby exercised. However, the challenge here is in the conduct of a free and fair election. Nigeria has witnessed four general elections beginning with that of 1999, and only the just concluded 2011 general elections has been widely adjourned as being free and fair.

Widespread poverty is another major challenge impeding democratization in Nigeria. In his summation, Adejumobi (2002:157) posits that “non-democratic polities have found it quite difficult to reduce the incidence of poverty, and hence recorded negative GNP, implying that democratic polities are more likely to reduce the incidence of poverty, most of Africa lacks the space of innovative changes that give rise to consolidation of democracy.

There are two dominant explanations in the literature for the persistence of the flawed democratisation and development projects in Nigeria. Amuwo (2010: 430) articulates these two “mutually reinforcing perspectives” thus:

The first perspective – structuralist in essence – contends that the state is a product of Western colonialism and traces the harsh, arbitrary and predatory predilection of the state to its colonial origins. The second insight – essentially agential – argues that African political elite and governments have been involved in adapting, indigenising, tropicalising, appropriating and re-inventing the postcolonial state and are, to that extent, partly responsible for the state’s pathologies and malfeasance.

Thus it would seem that “whilst [Nigerians] have arguably ended up with the type of state they did not bargain for, it is one whose transformation appears to continually elude them” (Obadare and Adebaniwi 2009: 508).

It is in light of all these that Freedom House, the democratisation think-tank, rates Nigeria as only Partly Free in the year 2010 (Freedom House 2010). This rating is based on measures of four indices: accountability and public voice, civil liberties, rule of law, and anti-corruption and transparency. The question that all the above begs thus is, how do the limits imposed by the democratisation agenda translate to the (non-)achievement of the Millennium Development Goals? What opportunities, what constraints may be expected in this vein? The following section addresses this.

Linking the MDGs and democratic consolidation in Nigeria: vistas and limits

The previous sections have enunciated the international, national and conceptual context for the application and actualisation of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria. It is not at all difficult to see that the MDGs are also goals of democratic government in Nigeria. In fact, more directly, the Millennium Declaration (UNGA 2000: 7) asserts in its paragraphs 27 and 28, in a section devoted to ‘Meeting the Special Needs of Africa’ that:

27. We will support the consolidation of democracy in Africa and assist Africans in their struggle for lasting peace, poverty eradication and sustainable development, thereby bringing Africa into the mainstream of the world economy.

28. We resolve therefore...To give full support to the political and institutional structures of emerging democracies in Africa.

Therefore, this paper submits that achieving the MDGs in Nigeria would immensely contribute to democratic consolidation and the vistas of opportunity are clearly visible. Specifically, the nexus can be seen in the following areas of congruence:

Reducing poverty: A largely poor population is never truly free, and can hardly be fully involved in participating in political decision making that would empower them.

Achieving universal primary education: Illiteracy is tagged by Freedom House (2010) as one of the challenges to further democratic consolidation in Nigeria as less than 60% of school-age children are currently enrolled in school.

Promoting gender equality and empowering women: True democracy must involve women who constitute 50% of the population in decision making. Beyond numerical representation, strategic gender interests must be conscientiously represented in policy making, and socio-economic and cultural obstacles to their wellbeing must be removed.

Reducing child mortality, improving maternal health and combating problem diseases: The right to life is basic to all humans and remains a non-derogable right under international convention. A truly democratic regime would privilege the elimination of the various barriers to enjoying this right.

Ensuring environmental sustainability: The fourth generation of rights include holding governments accountable for the responsible use of collective goods such as the environment in order not to jeopardise the freedom of future generations.

Cultivating global partnerships for development, in terms of lobbying for debt reduction, sharing of technological know-how, and opening up the global financial system: These efforts would signal most of all that a government exists not to serve the selfish interests of its elite, but to procure 'the good life' for the majority of its citizens.

However, there are many challenges to the realisation of these aims, especially within the Nigerian context. In other words, whereas the benefits of a coupling of the MDGs and the democratic consolidation project in Nigeria are apparent, there are certain limits – or challenges – to the extension of this idea in Nigeria.

Paramount here would be the environment within which these development goals are expected to be achieved, a socio-political and economic environment that remains highly un-sustaining of positive growth. Table 2 below, sourced from the 2010 MDG report for Nigeria depicts clearly the potentials of the environment to seriously constrain or propel the achievement of the development targets of the MDGs

Table 2. Potentials of Achieving the MDGs and Supporting Environment in Nigeria

MDGs status at a glance

Will target be met?		Supportive environment	
■ Good potential	■ Average potential	■ Strong	■ Weak potential
■ Good/Fair	■ Weak but improving		
		Will target be met?	Supportive environment
MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger			
Target 1.A: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day.		■	■
Target 1.C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.		■	■
MDG 2: Achieve universal primary education			
Target 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.		■	■
MDG 3: Promote gender equality and empower women			
Target 3.A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015.		■	■
MDG 4: Reduce child mortality			
Target 4.A: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate.		■	■
MDG 5: Improve maternal health			
Target 5.A: Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio.		■	■
Target 5.B: Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health.		■	■
MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases			
Target 6.A: Have halted, by 2015, and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS.		■	■
Target 6.C: Have halted, by 2015, and begun to reverse, the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.		■	■
MDG 7: Ensure environmental sustainability			
Target 7.A: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources.		■	■
Target 7.C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of the population without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.		■	■
Target 7.D: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.		Insufficient data	■
MDG 8: Develop a global partnership for development			
Target 8.D: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems.		■	■
Target 8.F: In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communication technology.		■	■

Source: Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2010: 12) "Nigeria Millennium Development Goals Report 2010."

From Table 2 above it is evident that only in a very few cases do the authors of the MDG report indicate a confidence in a "strong" supportive environment that would create "good potential" for the achievement of the MDGs. On the majority of MDG targets, the projection is cautious and the environment gauged to be an average "good" in supporting the targets.

Incidentally, this has been one of the challenges to the democratic project in Nigeria: the constant tension between the requirements of democratic dictate and the opposing dysfunctional social and political forces. This dysfunction has been patently theorized in studies of Nigerian politics and society such as that by Richard Joseph (1987) who diagnosed 'prebendalism' as the principal ailment, and by Patrick Chabal and

Jean-Pascal Daloz (1999) who pinpointed ‘disorder as political instrument’ in Africa generally. These ailments undeniably provide infertile ground for the consolidation of democracy in Nigeria as elsewhere on the African continent and provide a limiting environment for the attainment of the MDG targets.

Given this socio-political and economic environment, other issues arise that may limit both the attainment of the MDGs and democratic consolidation as potentially conjoined projects. In a pervasively corrupt and prebendal context like Nigeria described above, the MDG mechanisms and processes at the national and state levels may be perceived as intentionally designed for a minuscule minority to once again enrich themselves by providing consultancy and contract services to the government in the name of supplying expertise and services towards the achievement of the MDGs. It is also in this light that many Nigerians would doubt that the rewards reaped from the global partnerships component of the MDGs will trickle down to the grassroots when the commanding heights of the economy, political system, and society are manned by one small, selfish and vampiric elite class.

Conclusions

This paper sought to establish the parameters for the engagement of the MDGs in Nigeria as well as explore some of the referents of democratic consolidation, with a view to applying these to Nigeria. Further, the specific links between the MDGs project and democratic consolidation were reviewed, bringing into relief how limitations in the democratic consolidation project translate to limits in the MDGs project in Nigeria.

In light of all the above, we conclude therefore that whereas the achievement of the MDGs have the potential to enhance the democratic experience in Nigeria, the innate nature of the Nigerian political system raise doubt as to the qualitative or lasting impact of these achievements for the ordinary Nigerian. In a UNDP report titled ‘What will it take to achieve the MDGs?’, the development agency asserts unequivocally that:

The MDGs continue to provide the road map for reducing poverty and hunger, saving children and mothers from premature death, providing sustainable and decent livelihoods, and preserving the environment for future generations. Meeting that commitment is not only a moral imperative, but reflects a mutual interest to live in a stable and prosperous world (UNDP 2010: 8).

References

- Adebanwi, Wale and Ebenezer Obadare (2010) “Introducing Nigeria at Fifty: The Nation in Narration”, *Journal of Contemporary African Studies*, Vol 24, No 4, pp. 379-405.
- Ake, Claude (1981) *The Political Economy of Africa*. London: Longman.
- Alston, Philip (2005) “Ships Passing in the Night: The Current State of the Human Rights and Development Debate seen through the lens of the Millennium Development Goals,” *Human Rights Quarterly*, Vol 27, No 3.
- Amuwo, Adekunle (2010) “Between Elite Protectionism and Popular Resistance: The Political Economy of Nigeria’s Fractured State since Juridical Independence” *Journal of Contemporary African Studies*, Vol 28, No 4, pp. 423- 442.
- Chabal, Patrick and Jean-Pascal Daloz (1999) *Africa Works: Disorder as Political Instrument*. London: James Currey.

Dahl, Robert (1989) *Democracy and Its Critics*. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Diamond, Larry (1996) "Democracy in Latin America: Degrees, Illusions and Directions for Consolidation" in Tom Farer (ed), *Beyond Sovereignty: Collectively Defending Democracy in the Americas*. Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press. Pp. 52-104.

Freedom House (2010) Country Report – Nigeria. From: <http://freedomhouse.org/modules/publications/ccr/modPrintVersion.cfm?edition=9&ccrpage=43&ccrcountry=195>. Accessed 29 August 2011.

Fukuyama, Francis (1992) *The End of History and the Last Man*. New York: Free Press.

Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2010) Nigeria Millennium Development Goals Report 2010.

Henderson, Errol (2000) "When States Implode: The Correlates of Africa's Civil Wars, 1950-92" *Studies in Comparative International Development*, Vol. 35 Issue 2.

Huntington, Samuel P. (1991) *The Third Wave: Democratization in the Late Twentieth Century*. Norman and London: University of Oklahoma Press.

Joseph, Richard (1987) *Democracy and Prebendal Politics in Nigeria: The Rise and Fall of the Second Republic*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Linz, Juan J. (1990) "Transitions to Democracy", *Washington Quarterly*, Vol 13, No 3, pp. 143-164.

Linz, Juan J. and Alfred Stepan (1996) *Problems of Democratic Transition and Consolidation: Southern Europe, South America, and Post-Communist Europe*. Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Markel, Wolfgang (2004) "Embedded and Defective Democracies", *Democratization*, Vol 11, No 1, pp 35-58.

Moller, Jurgen and Svend-Erik Skaaning (2010) "Beyond the Radial Delusion: Conceptualising and Measuring Democracy and Non-Democracy" *International Political Science Review*, Vol 31. No 3, pp 261-283.

O'Donnell, Guillermo (1996) "Illusions About Consolidation", *Journal of Democracy*. Vol 7, No 2, pp. 34- 51.

Obadare, Ebenezer and Wale Adebawale (2009) "Transnational Resource Flows and the Paradoxes of Belonging: Redirecting the Debate on Transnationalism, Remittances, State and Citizenship in Africa", *Review of African Political Economy*, Vol 36, No 122, pp. 499-517.

Ojo, Emmanuel O. (2006) *Challenges of Sustainable Democracy in Nigeria*. Ibadan: John Archers Publishers Ltd.

Onu, Godwin, and Abubakar Momoh (eds.) (2005) *Elections and Democratic Consolidation in Nigeria*, Lagos: Nigerian Political Science Association.

Osaghae, Eghosa E. (1998) *Crippled Giant: Nigeria Since Independence*. London: C. Hurst.

Osaghae, Eghosa E. (2010) "The Limits of Charismatic Authority and the Challenges of Leadership in Nigeria", *Journal of Contemporary African Studies*, Vol 28, No 4, pp. 407-422.

Osazuwa, Charles N. (2011) "The United Nations and the 21st Century Development Challenges: Surviving Global Criticisms, Four Years to 2015," Paper presented at Distinguished Postgraduate Seminar, Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Babcock University, Nigeria. 22 March.

Schedler, Andreas (1997) "Concepts of Democracy", Paper presented at the 1997 meeting of the Latin American Studies Association (LASA), Guadalajara, Mexico, 17 – 19 April.

Schedler, Andreas (2001) "Measuring Democratic Consolidation", *Studies in Comparative International Development*, Vol 36, No 1, pp 66-92.

Schmitter, Philippe C. (1988) *The Consolidation of Political Democracy in Southern Europe*. Stanford and Florence: Stanford University and European University Institute.

Suberu, Rotimi and Larry Diamond (2004) "Nigeria: The Challenges and Travails of Governance," in Arthur Shively (ed) *Comparative Governance*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Time (1960) "Nigeria: The Black Rock". 5 December. Pp 20-23, 25-26.

inubu, Bola A. (2009) "Democratic Consolidation in Nigeria: Issues, Challenges and Prospects", Public Speech delivered May 30.

United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (2010) What will it take to achieve the Millennium Development Goals? An International Assessment. New York: UNDP.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) (2000) United Nations Millennium Declaration. Ref A/Res/55/2.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) (2005) In Larger Freedom: Towards Development, Security and Human Rights for All. Report of the Secretary-General to the 59th Session of the UNGA, 21 March. Ref A/59/2005.

Proposing Social Entrepreneurship Initiatives as Key Ingredient in Promoting Socio-Economic Development in Ghana

By

Josephine Ganu¹, PhD Opoku Ababio Kwaku², MBA and Peter Agyekum Boateng³, MBA

¹Adventist University of Africa, ²Department of Banking and Finance, Valley View University and

³Department of Management, Valley View University

Abstract

The paper defines social entrepreneurship, reviews Ghana's progress of the MDGs, examines a number of high-flying issues from relevant literature, reflect upon current developments and initiatives, portray a number of best practices elsewhere as cases and uses them as basis for a set of conclusions about social entrepreneurship in Ghana's effort towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The study concludes that efforts at promoting entrepreneurship should not down play the social side of it since the balance between social and economic motivation for entrepreneurship will better result in sustainable approach of reaching the most vulnerable.

Introduction

The United Nations Millennium Declaration, adopted by the world's leaders at the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in 2000, captured the aspirations of the international community for the new century. It spoke of a world united by common values and striving with renewed determination to achieve peace and decent standards of living for every man, woman and child. On the 7th of July, 2011 the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) Report 2011 was launched in Geneva by the United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki- Moon. The report, which presents the yearly assessment of global progress towards the MDGs, showed that although significant strides have been made, reaching all the MDGs by 2015 remains challenging because progress has failed to reach the most vulnerable. This implies that despite progress towards achievement of some of the targets, some goals and targets are likely to be missed unless additional, strengthened or corrective action is taken urgently.

Since Ghana's independence, there have been several development plans and programs designed and implemented with the express aim of charting a path for Ghana's development. These have included the *Accelerated Development Plans* of the 1950s, and the *Structural Adjustment Programs* (SAPs) – the *Economic Recovery Programs* (ERPs) - supported by the *Bretton Woods Institutions* (BWIs) of the 1980s. After Ghana's return to constitutional rule in January 1993, a process was initiated, aimed at formulating a National Development Policy Framework (later renamed *Ghana Vision 2020*) that would serve as a guide to policy making and resource allocation over a twenty-five year period. The result was an agreed national goal of improving the quality of life of all Ghanaians by reducing poverty, raising living standards through a sustained increase in national wealth and a more equitable distribution of the benefits. However, these plans have had only limited successes in alleviating poverty and accelerating growth. Again, since the change of government in the December 2000, Ghana has since mainstreamed

the MDGs into the country's successive medium term national development policy framework, the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I), 2003 –2005, and the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II), 2006 - 2009. While the GPRS I focused on the macroeconomic stability, production and gainful employment, human resource development and provision of basic services, vulnerable and excluded, and good governance; GPRS II emphasizes continued macroeconomic stability, human resource development, private sector competitiveness, and good governance and civic responsibility.

Despite the above poverty reduction strategies, Ghana's economy remains vulnerable and serious inequalities persist. Research provides that "State-owned enterprises or subsidized private firms have generally failed to deliver sustainable productivity growth" (Klein & Hadjimichael, 2003:17). At the same time, merely investing money into a developmental project has not proven to alleviate poverty. Furthermore, helping the poor people through donation or services such as free basic education does not change the system that produced poverty in the first place. "The potentially biggest hope for poverty reduction and improved standards of living come from mechanisms that transmit best practice to areas where the poor live and work. Therefore, the role of entrepreneurs and markets is critical for poverty reduction, because the key to rapid poverty reduction lies in transmitting advances in technology or organizational improvements across the world" (p. 167). This is because the eradication of poverty is a macroeconomic challenge and necessitates the cooperation of many moving parts from both the public and private sectors influencing the social, political, and economic environment and it is the private sector that can indeed eradicate poverty and increase the quality of life of the poor. The private sector through social entrepreneurs initiatives are consequently needed to employ entrepreneurial capacities that really focus on the problems of the poor and marginalized populations in Ghana and Africa in general in order to transform the lives of thousands of Africans.

This paper views and admits social entrepreneurship as a process that catalyses social change and addresses important social needs in a way that is not dominated by direct financial benefits for the entrepreneurs. It proposes social entrepreneurship as a major additional catalyst to government and traditional social programs for helping the poor and disadvantaged in Ghana and Africa as a whole, since the said programs generally failed to deliver sustainable results.

The central purpose of this paper therefore is to stimulate local businesses, public policies, and academic deliberations about the role of social entrepreneurship as a mechanism through which the MDGs could be achieved particularly in Ghana and Africa as a whole. Consequently, this paper explains social entrepreneurship, reviews Ghana's progress of the MDGs, discusses social entrepreneurship developments and initiatives, portrays a number of best practices elsewhere as cases and uses them as basis for Ghana's effort towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Ghana's Progress towards the Achievement of the Millennium Development Goals:

Ghana's progress is mixed. Out of the eight millennium goals, two goals have been achieved well ahead of the 2015 set target. Ghana was the first country in Sub-Saharan Africa to have achieved the target of halving the proportion of population in extreme poverty since 2006 (Ghana report on MDG, 2010). The decline in poverty had occurred due to the significant improvements in economic growth over the past decade with accompanied social and economic policies on poverty reduction as spelt out in the GPRS II. These include the capitation grant, school feeding programme and the Livelihoods Empowerment against Poverty Programme

(LEAP). On the other hand, the 2009 Human Development Report showed that Ghana's Human Development Index rank had declined and inequality remains high. Thus, despite the significant decline in poverty at the national level, some regions did not record improvements in poverty, particularly the three Northern regions where high levels of poverty persist (Ghana report on MDG, 2010).

Also, the 2010 Ghana report on MDG 1 target 3 shows that, Ghana is on course to achieving two out of three child malnutrition indicators ahead of 2015. The indicator of reducing by half the proportion of children who are underweight has already been achieved ahead of 2015. While the target on reducing by half the prevalence of wasting is on course and may be met ahead of 2015 if current trend continues. On the indicator of reducing the prevalence of stunting, extra effort is required in order to achieve the target by 2015.

More so, available data and trend analysis on MDG 2 of achieving Universal primary education show that Ghana is on track to achieving both the gross and net enrolment targets by 2015. The number of schools and enrolment rates has increased tremendously over the years due to various reforms and new policy measures instituted by the government. For instance, the number of kindergartens (KG) has increased following government's policy of mandating each primary school to have a kindergarten attached to it. Others included construction/ rehabilitation of classrooms, strengthening the capitation grant initiative and expanding coverage of the school feeding programme, enforcing laws that support the implementation of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE), expanding non-formal education in partnership with community groups, NGOs and private providers. The area that challenges exist is survival rate which has stagnated.

On MDG 3 target of ensuring gender parity especially at the school (JHS) levels, trends show that primary level parity has stagnated at 0.96 since 2006/07, while the parity at the JHS increased slightly from 0.91 in 2006/07 to 0.92 in 2007/08. More so, progress towards increasing the number of women in public life suffered a setback with the reduction of the number of women elected into Parliament during the 2008 elections declining from 25 to 20. This had reduced the proportion to below 10%, and puts Ghana under the international average of 13%.

Although evidence shows that there has been reduction in both infant and under-five mortality rates in Ghana, it is unlikely that the 2015 target of reducing the child mortality rates will be met unless coverage of effective child survival interventions is increased. Key challenges that beset the target of reducing under-five mortality in Ghana include: Socio-economic and socio-cultural factors - low female literacy rate; low level of women's empowerment; inadequate human resources and skills within the health system to improve on the poor quality of care; less awareness on the use of non-medical preventive health care; inadequate human resources within the health system to improve on the poor quality of care and poor health-seeking behaviours.

Though maternal health care has improved over the past years, the pace has been slow and extra effort is required for Ghana to achieve the MDG 5 target of reducing maternal mortality rate by three quarters by 2015. Maternal mortality rate has reduced from 740 per 100,000 live births in 1990 to 503 per 100,000 live births in 2005, and then to 451 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2008. However, if the current trends continue maternal mortality will reduced to only 340 per 100,000 live births by 2015 instead of the MDG target of 185 per 100,000 live births by 2015. Antenatal care from health professionals increased from 92% in 2003 to 95% as at 2008, however, geographical differences in the components of antenatal care persist. In the Northern region, for example, only 47% of the women were provided with information on signs of pregnancy complications compared to 90% in Western region. The proportion of women who receive two or more tetanus injections during last pregnancy increased from 50% in 2003 to 56% in 2008. Even though progress has been made with

access to professional assistance during child birth, there is still need for improvement. Assistance by skilled providers during childbirth increased from 43% in 2003 to 59% in 2008 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2009).

After a decline from a high of 3.2% in 2006 to low of 2.2% in 2008, evidence from the 2009 Sentinel surveillance report suggest an increase in HIV/AIDS prevalence rate in Ghana to 2.9% in 2009. With this trend, it is unlikely that the country will achieve the 2015 target of halting and reversing the spread of the epidemic. This calls for swift policy action particularly in the area of educational campaign and other HIV/AIDS programmes to promote significant behavioural change. Besides, malaria remains an immense public health concern especially for the government. It is regarded as a leading cause of mortality and morbidity particularly among pregnant women and children under-five years, consequently a leading cause of miscarriage and low birth weight.

On MDG 7 of ensuring environmental sustainability, Ghana is on track of achieving the target on halving the proportion without access to safe water, however critical challenges exist in achieving the targets of reversing the loss of environmental resources, reducing the proportion of people without access to improved sanitation, and achieving significant improvement in the lives of people living in slum areas.

Although up-to-date data on the rate of forest depletion is unavailable, evidence suggest that the country is depleting its forest cover at an alarming rate. Between 1990 and 2005, the forest cover has declined from 32.7% to 24.2%. Ghana is not on course to achieve MDG 7 target 7A in full partly because the forest cover is continuously depleting, and the consequence on global warming is likely to be very high. Several factors, including livelihood activities explain why the country's forest is being depleted at such an alarming rate. Population pressures, poor sanitation and solid waste management, low level of investment in water and sanitation delivery, air and water pollution, forest depletion, land degradation, climate change and fast growing unplanned expansion of cities pose major health, water, sanitation, and environmental concerns.

On the other hand, while access to safe water services in rural areas has improved considerably, there has been slow progress with access to safe water within urban areas. Even though Ghana has made progress in reducing the proportion of the population without access to improved sanitation, the target may not be achieved by 2015 if the current trends continue. At the current trend the proportion of the population with access to improved sanitation will reach 21.2% by 2015 instead of 52%, while the proportion of urban population with access to improved sanitation will be 23.4% instead of 55% by 2015. In the rural areas, only 20.6% would have access to improved sanitation instead of 50.5%. Although the proportion of urban population living slums shows a decline, if the current pattern continues, a significant proportion (about 14%) of the population will still be living in slum areas by 2020.

In terms of Global Partnerships for development, many developed countries have not met the 0.7% GNP target for aid, but aid inflows to Ghana appear to have increased in nominal terms from US\$578.96 million in 2001 to US\$1,433.23 million in 2008. However, the current concerns, is the level of increases in real terms and the quality of the aid the country receives.

Theories of Entrepreneurship

The term "entrepreneur" originated in French economics as early as the 17th and 18th centuries. In French, it means someone who "undertakes" a significant project or activity. More specifically, it came to be used to identify the venturesome individuals who stimulated economic progress by finding new and better ways of doing things. The French economist most commonly credited with giving the term this particular meaning is Jean Baptiste Say. According to Say, "The entrepreneur shifts economic resources

out of an area of lower and into an area of higher productivity and greater yield.” Entrepreneurs create value. In the 20th century, the economist most closely associated with the term was Joseph Schumpeter. He described entrepreneurs as the innovators who drive the “creative-destructive” process of capitalism. In his words, “the function of entrepreneurs is to reform or revolutionize the pattern of production.” They can do this in many ways: “by exploiting an invention or, more generally, an untried technological possibility for producing a new commodity or producing an old one in a new way, by opening up a new source of supply of materials or a new outlet for products, by reorganizing an industry and so on.” Schumpeter’s entrepreneurs are the change agents in the economy. By serving new markets or creating new ways of doing things, they move the economy forward. Both Say and Schumpeter identify entrepreneurs as the catalysts and innovators behind economic progress and this served as the foundation for the contemporary use of this concept.

Contemporary writers in management and business have presented a wide range of theories of entrepreneurship. Drucker (1985) starts with Say’s definition, but amplifies it to focus on opportunity. Drucker does not require entrepreneurs to cause change, but sees them as exploiting the opportunities that change (in technology, consumer preferences, social norms, etc.) creates. Accordingly, change defines entrepreneur and entrepreneurship—the entrepreneur always searches for change, responds to it, and exploits it as an opportunity.” The notion of “opportunity” has come to be central to many current definitions of entrepreneurship. An opportunity, presumably, means an opportunity to create value. Entrepreneurs have a mind-set that sees the possibilities rather than the problems created by change. For Drucker, starting a business is neither necessary nor sufficient for entrepreneurship. He explicitly comments that “not every new small business is entrepreneurial or represents entrepreneurship.” Drucker also makes it clear that entrepreneurship does not require a profit motive. Early in his book on Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Drucker asserts, “No better text for a History of Entrepreneurship could be found than the creation of the modern university, and especially the modern American university.” He then explains what a major innovation this was at the time. Later in the book, he devotes a chapter to entrepreneurship in public service institutions.

Stevenson (1999) added an element of resourcefulness to the opportunity-oriented definition based on research he conducted to determine what distinguishes entrepreneurial management from more common forms of “administrative” management. After identifying several dimensions of difference, he suggests defining the heart of entrepreneurial management as the pursuit of opportunity without regard to resources currently controlled. He found that entrepreneurs not only see and pursue opportunities that elude administrative managers; entrepreneurs do not allow their own initial resource endowments to limit their options. Entrepreneurs mobilize the resources of others to achieve their entrepreneurial objectives. Administrators allow their existing resources and their job descriptions to constrain their visions and actions. Therefore, one may conclude that the definition of entrepreneurship is not limited to business start-ups.

Defining Social Entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship means different things to different people. Many associate social entrepreneurship exclusively with not-for-profit organizations starting for-profit or earned-income ventures. Others use it to describe anyone who starts a not-for-profit organization. Still others use it to refer to business owners who integrate social responsibility into their operations.

Definitions of social entrepreneurship range from broad to narrow. In the former, social entrepreneurship refers to innovative activity with a social objective in either the for-profit sector, such as in social-purpose commercial ventures (Dees & Anderson, 2003; Emerson & Twersky, 1996) or in corporate social entrepreneurship (Austin, Leonard, Reficco, & Wei-Skillern, 2004); or in the nonprofit sector, or across sectors, such as hybrid structural forms which mix for-profit and nonprofit approaches (Dees, 1998). Under the narrow definition, social entrepreneurship typically refers to the phenomenon of applying business expertise and market-based skills in the nonprofit sector such as when nonprofit organizations develop innovative approaches to earn income (Reis, 1999). Common across all definitions of social entrepreneurship is the fact that the underlying drive for social entrepreneurship is to create social value, rather than personal and shareholder wealth (Zadek & Thake, 1997), and that the activity is characterized by innovation, or the creation of something new rather than simply the replication of existing enterprises or practices. The central driver for social entrepreneurship is the social problem being addressed, and the particular organizational form a social enterprise takes should be a decision based on which format would most effectively mobilize the resources needed to address that problem.

The Schwab Foundation defines social entrepreneurs as:

- The application of practical, innovative and sustainable approaches to benefit society in general, with an emphasis on those who are marginalized and poor.
- A term that captures a unique approach to economic and social problems, an approach that cuts across sectors and disciplines. Grounded in certain values and processes that are common to each social entrepreneur, independent of whether his/ her area of focus has been education, health, welfare reform, human rights, workers' rights, environment, economic development, agriculture, etc., or whether the organizations they set up are non-profit or for-profit entities.
- An approach that sets the social entrepreneur apart from the rest of the crowd of well-meaning people and organizations who dedicate their lives to social improvement.

Thus, social entrepreneurs drive social innovation and transformation in various fields including education, health, environment and enterprise development. They pursue poverty alleviation goals with entrepreneurial zeal, business methods and the courage to innovate and overcome traditional practices. A social entrepreneur, similar to a business entrepreneur, builds strong and sustainable organizations, which are either set up as not-for-profit or for-profit companies.

According to Dees (2001), “social entrepreneurship” combines the passion of a social mission with an image of business-like discipline, innovation, and determination commonly associated with successful businesses. In other words, social entrepreneurship utilizes entrepreneurial approaches to unravel social problems. Social entrepreneurs are the reformers and revolutionaries in the private sector with a social mission. Mair and Marti (2005) researched the issue and found several definitions. However, while there is not a common term, the definitions share some similarities in a few key points:

1. Social entrepreneurship organizations are not necessarily not-for-profit organizations. They are more focused on solving social problems than generating a profit; however that goal does not preclude them from attaining profitability. The possibility of wealth is a means to an end and not an end unto itself (Dees, Emerson, and Economy 2002).

2. Social entrepreneurship organizations may be involved in business type activities, e.g. running a bank or selling a product or service, but the goal is social change rather than profit alone.
3. Social entrepreneurship organizations attempt to generate all, or at least a portion, of their revenue from earned income rather than relying primarily on contributions, fund-raisers, or grants as traditional social agencies do. Thus, they often provide products or services.
4. While they attempt to be business-like, the success of such organizations is more difficult to measure than traditional businesses that use profitability as a common criterion of success.

Social entrepreneurs play the role of change agents in the social sector, by:

1. Adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value). This is the core of what distinguishes social entrepreneurs from business entrepreneurs even from socially responsible businesses. For a social entrepreneur, the social mission is fundamental. This is a mission of social improvement that cannot be reduced to creating private benefits (financial returns or consumption benefits) for individuals. Making a profit, creating wealth, or serving the desires of customers may be part of the model, but these are means to a social end, not the end in itself. Profit is not the gauge of value creation; nor is customer satisfaction; social impact is the gauge. Social entrepreneurs look for a long-term social return on investment. Social entrepreneurs want more than a quick hit; they want to create lasting improvements. They think about sustaining the impact.
2. Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that mission. Where others see problems, entrepreneurs see opportunity. Social entrepreneurs are not simply driven by the perception of a social need or by their compassion, rather they have a vision of how to achieve improvement and they are determined to make their vision work. They are persistent. The models they develop and the approaches they take can, and often does, change, as the entrepreneurs learn about what works and what does not work. The key element is persistence combined with a willingness to make adjustments as one goes.
3. Engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning. Entrepreneurs are innovative. They break new ground; develop new models, and pioneer new approaches. This does not require inventing something wholly new; it can simply involve applying an existing idea in a new way or to a new situation. Thus, entrepreneurs need not be inventors. They simply need to be creative in applying what others have invented.
4. Acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand. Social entrepreneurs do not let their own limited resources keep them from pursuing their visions. They are skilled at doing more with less and at attracting resources from others. They use scarce resources efficiently, and they leverage their limited resources by drawing in partners and collaborating with others. They explore all resource options, from pure philanthropy to the commercial methods of the business sector. They are not bound by sector norms or traditions. They develop resource strategies that are likely to support and reinforce their social missions. They take calculated risks and manage the downside, so as to reduce the harm that will result from failure. They understand the risk tolerances of their stakeholders and use this to spread the risk to those who are better prepared to accept it.

5. Exhibiting a heightened sense of accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created. Because market discipline does not automatically weed out inefficient or ineffective social ventures, social entrepreneurs take steps to assure they are creating value. This means that they seek a sound understanding of the constituencies they are serving. They make sure they have correctly assessed the needs and values of the people they intend to serve and the communities in which they operate. In some cases, this requires close connections with those communities. They understand the expectations and values of their “investors,” including anyone who invests money, time, and/or expertise to help them. They seek to provide real social improvements to their beneficiaries and their communities, as well as attractive (social and/or financial) return to their investors. Creating a fit between investor values and community needs is an important part of the challenge. When feasible, social entrepreneurs create market-like feedback mechanisms to reinforce this accountability. They assess their progress in terms of social, financial, and managerial outcomes, not simply in terms of their size, outputs, or processes. They use this information to make course corrections as needed.

Contrasting Social & Profit seeking Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is an activity that involves the discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new goods and services, ways of organizing, markets, processes, and raw materials through organizing efforts that previously had not existed (Shane, 2003). This definition of entrepreneurship is broad enough to include social entrepreneurship. Within the genus of entrepreneur, social entrepreneurship is another species (Dees, 2001). Unlike the conventional entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs tag social responsibility as their highest mission. This can affect how social entrepreneurs perceive and assess opportunities.

The central criterion is the impact of the social mission. Therefore, creation of wealth is not the primary aim of social entrepreneurship. Wealth is simply a “means to an end” for social entrepreneurs. For example, social entrepreneurs are not content just to give a fish or teach how to fish (Drayton cited in Davis, 2002). They will not pause until they have revolutionised the fishing industry.

In other words, social entrepreneurs identify potential resources and attempt to solve social problems. Just as business entrepreneurs create and transform industries, social entrepreneurs act as the change agents for society, seizing opportunities others miss in order to improve social systems, invent and disseminate innovative approaches and advance sustainable solutions that create social value, rather than profits. And, unlike the majority of non-profit organizations, social entrepreneurs target both immediate, small-scale effects and comprehensive long-term change. Where others tend to see numerous problems, social entrepreneurs attempt to generate social transformation through entrepreneurial initiatives. Social entrepreneurs seek to alter the “status quo” of the marginalized, disadvantaged and hardcore poor citizens. Poor villagers are viewed as a solution; they are not passive beneficiaries. The key distinguishing feature of social entrepreneurship is that the entrepreneur’s focus is the “pursuit of opportunities to catalyze social change and/or address social needs” (Mair & Marti, 2005).

Success for profit-seeking entrepreneurs requires that they are able to effectively appropriate the entrepreneurial profit for their own benefit. For profit-seeking entrepreneurs social value, when it is created, is a by- product of the creation of economic value (Venkataraman, 1997). The main focus of

social entrepreneurs, on the other hand, is social value creation (Mair & Marti, 2005). Social entrepreneurs create entrepreneurial profit for the benefit of society. While, social entrepreneurs may in fact appropriate a portion of their entrepreneurial profit to fund their operations and growth, this is not their primary focus and it is done to support the accomplishment of their social mission. Social entrepreneurs can organize their efforts into for-profit businesses which make explicit contributions to the social good or they can organize as nonprofit organizations with social missions that generate income and social benefits through commercial means (Young, 2001).

Social entrepreneurs are one species in the genus entrepreneur. They are entrepreneurs with a social mission. However, because of this mission, they face some distinctive challenges and any definition ought to reflect this. For social entrepreneurs, the social mission is explicit and central. This obviously affects how social entrepreneurs perceive and assess opportunities. Mission-related impact becomes the central criterion, not wealth creation which is just a means to an end for social entrepreneurs.

Success Stories

Internationally, social entrepreneurship organizations exist in various forms. An example that uses a traditional business structure and the double bottom line is Grameen Bank in Bangladesh. Founded in 1976 by Muhammad Yunus, an economics professor at the University of Chittagong, the goals of this organization were to reduce poverty and provide opportunities for the poor to start their own businesses, many of them home-based. The bank was started with funding from the government of Bangladesh. Today, the government owns 10% of the bank. The other 90% is owned by the rural poor whom it serves. If the borrowers' businesses begin to prosper, the borrowers are encouraged to invest in the bank. Most of the loans are microloans, i.e. loans often deemed too small for traditional banks. The businesses established do not make the borrowers wealthy by Western standards, but the borrowers are freed from begging or government assistance to survive. Grameen Bank now has over 2.6 million borrowers, 95% of whom are women, and it operates almost 1,200 branches throughout Bangladesh. It has expanded its services to provide home loans for the poor and is also a major investor in Grameen Telephone, which is developing telephone service for rural areas. Despite its success, Grameen Bank has been criticized for its unusual method of loaning money (Adri and Sultana, 2004). Borrowers must organize themselves into homogeneous groups of five. Loans are not made to all five initially; they are made to two members. When those two have made payments, the others receive their loans. While encouraging fiscal discipline, such groups also help to reinforce the members' efforts as entrepreneurs and to provide mutual support and shared ideas (Mair and Marti, 2005).

Product driven social entrepreneurship organizations can also be successful. A case in point is the Shri Mahala Griha Usyog Lijjat Papad, a co-operative in India that makes papads (crispy bread). Founded forty years ago by six women as a way to provide a living for poor and often uneducated women (who in many cases were the sole wage earners for their families), the co-operative now has 41,000 women who produce the product and are joint owners. Revenues have grown from a few hundred dollars to over \$65 million annually and now include sales to the United States, United Kingdom, and the Middle East. Women prepare the papads at home and deliver them to 62 distribution centers located throughout India.

Little technology is used in production, since it would replace jobs. The co-operative uses the double bottom line concept, as it believes profits are essential to maintaining its infrastructure (Naik, 2005).

Social entrepreneurship organizations are not unique to developing nations. An example in the United States is Skookum Abatement Services in western Washington State. Skookum's mission is to create employment options for at-risk individuals, principally the mentally and physically retarded, developmentally disabled, but also those on welfare. Asbestos abatement (removal) is a hot and potentially dangerous business requiring workers to be properly trained, have discipline, and be equipped with proper safety equipment. Skookum provides the training, has a strict safety code, work ethic, and provides that necessary safety equipment. Over the years, Skookum has earned a reputation for high quality work, and though a social agency, it earns a profit. Its employees are well paid, many earning more than \$70,000 per year. In addition to providing good incomes, Skookum instils workers with a sense of accomplishment they did not possess previously. Skookum is also the only abatement firm in Washington state to earn ISO 9000 certification for quality standards and ISO 14000 certification for environmental standards, both difficult credentials to achieve (Boschee, 2001).

OneWorld Health was founded by Drs. Victoria Hale and Ahvie Herskowitz in 2000, and received 501(c)(3) tax-exempt status in 2001, becoming the first nonprofit pharmaceutical company in the U.S. Victoria Hale wrote a manifesto targeting five diseases in need of drug development and turned it into a business plan for the first pharmaceutical not-for-profit in the United States. Today, her organization, the Institute for OneWorld Health, is on the verge of proving that its no-profit/no-loss model can work. Its mission is to discover, develop, and deliver safe, effective and affordable new treatments and interventions for people with neglected infectious diseases in the developing countries, with an emphasis on diseases that disproportionately afflict children. The organization aims to serve as a positive agent for change by saving lives, improving health, and fulfilling the promise of medicine for those most in need. It works with partners around the globe to identify potential new medicines for neglected infectious diseases afflicting vulnerable populations in developing countries, assess the safety and effectiveness of investigational medicines, honor international ethical standards for research, collaborate to manufacture and distribute new medicines, and ensure that medicines will be affordable and available for distribution. OneWorld Health has achieved a number of impressive milestones. For instance in 2011, OneWorld Health, in collaboration with its partners, successfully completed the scientific work necessary to enable production of semisynthetic artemisinin - a key component of Artemisinin-based Combination Therapy (ACT), which has been recommended by the World Health Organization as the first line treatment for uncomplicated malaria. In 2010, OneWorld Health received £5,000,000 (approximately \$7,616,033 US) grant from the Department for International Development (DfID) in the United Kingdom to target neglected infectious diseases affecting the world's poorest people. In 2009, they extended kala-azar (visceral leishmaniasis) treatment campaign to Bangladesh and Nepal .

Sekem, an Egyptian multi-business initiative, founded by Ibrahim Abouleish in 1977 in an area of 70 hectares on desert sand and he received the Right Livelihood Award also known as the "Alternative Nobel Prize" for "establishing a business model for the 21st century in which commercial success is integrated with and promotes the social and cultural development of society through economics of love." The SEKEM initiative was founded to realise the vision of sustainable human development. SEKEM aims to contribute to the comprehensive development of the individual, society and environment. A

holistic concept encompassing integrated economic, social and cultural development forms the key SEKEM vision. The SEKEM Initiative aims to meet today's challenge of sustainable human development by contributing towards a comprehensive advancement of the individual, the community and the environment. Cooperation in economic, social and cultural endeavours is cultivated through dedication to the pursuit of science, art and religion.

Ashoka: Innovators for the Public is based in Arlington, VA, supporting the field of social entrepreneurship. It was founded by Bill Drayton in 1981 to identify and support leading social entrepreneurs through a Social Venture Capital approach with the goal of elevating the citizen sector to a competitive level equal to the business sector. The organization currently operates in over 70 countries and supports the work of over 2,000 social entrepreneurs, elected as Ashoka Fellows. Ashoka's initiatives include Changemakers, Youth Venture, and Full Economic Citizenship.

The above examples show how social entrepreneurship, as a field of experimentation and innovation, can contribute insights into discovering new collaborative value creation to meet basic human needs. It exemplifies the empowerment of ordinary citizens to make a remarkable difference in their communities despite encountering numerous problems and challenges and for corporations to exercise social responsibility.

Way Forward

Traditionally, several stakeholders including NGOs, International Aid Providers, Corporate Entities, Social Entrepreneurs and Academics, have been involved in their own separate ways to bring about social change, alleviate poverty and promote economic development. The differences in approach, background and years of experience have resulted in the different sectors often speaking different 'languages' outside, at times contemptuous of each other, and baffling the few who are seeing the linkages. Evidently, if stakeholders can come together and embrace best and effective practices irrespective of the sector label or wherever they could be found, the impact of their efforts may be substantial. The study recommends as follows:

Governments, departments and Agencies must re-orient themselves and perceived social entrepreneurship as a legitimate field of endeavour and a key ingredient in the quest for the socio economic development so that they could find ways to promote it through fiscal and legislative incentives, including the review of tax laws, the elimination of burdensome regulations, arbitrary decision-making and other difficult requirements and inefficient practices that hamper social entrepreneurs.

Stakeholders should take upon themselves the challenge of exploring a more creative, sustainable and self financing avenues for Social Entrepreneurs. Considerable investments in social entrepreneurs are required since a glowing and targeted interest in social entrepreneurship alone is not enough. It is imperative to look at creative funding solutions. In other economies, Social enterprises are getting more resourced by going after funding from all angles, and the more successful ones are blending multiples sources of capital such as Seed funding, impact investments, government grants and social fund raising to create the maximum social impact. A persistent and self sustaining intervention must be explored.

Government and policy makers should make social entrepreneurship a policy issue. We recommend and also reinforce the current calls that social entrepreneurship should be fully incorporated into policies to foster entrepreneurship and enterprise culture (Korosec and Berman, 2006) as focusing on supporting social entrepreneurship will well result in greater inclusiveness in the enterprise culture agenda of populations traditionally marginalised or under-represented.

The businesses community on their part must accept the challenge of working in close partnership with the social entrepreneurs and they must perceive such collaboration as offering them competitive edge over the competition. The linkage with social entrepreneurs with related experience, well designed, implemented and a more innovative ways of reaching the marginalized and previously excluded market, after all, could facilitate reaching a fertile and untapped market while at the same time offering the company additional image of not only profit conscious but socially responsive.

It is about time that businesses discard the notion of setting up separate corporate foundations as the best engine through which to respond to society with their top down programs that compete with social entrepreneurs or probably transfer social work to the corporate foundation and focus on the bottom line activities. Working with social entrepreneurs should be a core business strategy of every company.

Multinational and Bilateral Financial Institutions should perceive risk as a key opportunity for global renewal, and make it a main concern to support social entrepreneurial activities as legitimate. Strong multilateral financial institutions, particularly those responsible for finance, development and trade, have been criticised over the years for not engaging civil society and interest groups in consultations on their policies, a situation which has the tendency of having rendered them less equipped to meet the challenges of the 21st century. Although some are being responsive in recent times, we recommend that they should in addition consider risk as a key opportunity for global renewal, and make it a main concern to spot and legitimize those who have the capacity to imagine and the ability to implement what they imagine through controlled innovation, not forgetting that we are in an interesting phase of new thinking and experimentation, and this is where the institutions have key role to play.

The Academia must also explore and emphasise on best ways of instilling 'social entrepreneurial thinking' in students and provide them with incubator businesses where students can as well have hands on training. As a noted feature, entrepreneurial education though has been emphasised particularly in the Ghana's university education, much is still desired. In countries such as Uganda, the teaching of entrepreneurship cut across almost all stages of the country's education and no wonder that they have high rate of youth entrepreneurs.

Finally, we recommend that social entrepreneurs must consider having a professional association as way of building the field and it should go beyond seeking their own interest and initiatives to a larger common purpose that cut across sectors to create a refurbished institution that meets the increasing global challenges.

Conclusion

Social entrepreneurship describes a set of behaviours that are exceptional. These behaviours should be encouraged and rewarded in those who have the capabilities and temperament for this kind of work. Social entrepreneurs are one special breed of leaders, and they should be recognized as such. Social entrepreneurship organizations are not a cure for all the world's problems. Such organizations cannot prevent corruption in government or the misuse of power. However, as the examples in this paper demonstrate, if administered effectively, they can benefit people at the grass roots level and beyond. The benefits are not always financial. Such organizations can provide personal skills, improve education, and enhance self-worth. Societies grow with the contributions of many, and social entrepreneurship has the potential to make an effective contribution to the achievement of the MDG in Ghana and Africa as a whole.

References

- Adri, N. & Sultana, S. (2003, June). Grameen bank's housing study for rural poor: a case study in Bangladesh. University of North Carolina Working Paper.
- Austin, J.E., Leonard, H., Reficco, E., & Wei-Skillern, J. (2004). Corporate social entrepreneurship: A new vision of CSR. Harvard Business School Working Paper No. 05-021. Boston: Harvard Business School.
- Bornstein, D. (2003). How to change the worlds: Social entrepreneurs and the power of new ideas. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Boschec, J. (2001). The Social Enterprise Sourcebook. New York: Edwards.
- Brinckerhoff, P.C. (2000). Social Entrepreneurship: The Art of Mission-based Venture Development. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Colin C. W. (2007) "De-linking Enterprise Culture from Capitalism and its Public Policy Implications", *Public Policy and Administration*; (22), 461.
- Davis, S. (2002). Social entrepreneurship: Towards an entrepreneurial culture for social and economic development. Paper presented at the Youth Employment Summit, Alexandria, Egypt. September 7-11.
- Dees, J. G. (1998). The Meaning of "Social Entrepreneurship". Stanford University: Draft Report for the Kauffman Centre for Entrepreneurial Leadership.
- Dees, J. G., Anderson, B., & Wei-Skillern, J. (2003). Scaling Social Impact. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, Spring, 2004.
- Dees, J. G., Emerson, J. and Economy, P., Eds. (2002). Strategic Tools for Social Entrepreneurs: Enhancing the Performance of Your Enterprising Nonprofit. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Drucker, P. (1985). Innovation and entrepreneurship: practices and principles. New York: Harper Collins.

Emerson, J. & Twersky, F. (Eds). (1996, September). New social entrepreneurs: The success, challenge and lessons of non-profit enterprise creation. San Francisco: Roberts Foundation, Homeless Economic Development Fund.

Ghana Millenium Development Goals Report (2010 April).National Development Planning Commission, Government of Ghana and United Nationn Development (Ghana) Publication.

Hisrich, R. D., Peters, M. P., & Shepherd, D. A. (2004). Entrepreneurship(6th ed.): McGraw Hill/Irin.

<http://www.schwabfound.org/sf/SocialEntrepreneurs/Whatisasocialentrepreneur/index.htm>

Klein, M.U. & Hadijimicheal, B. (2003). The Private Sector in Development: Entrepreneurship, Regulation, and Competitive Disciplines. World Bank Publications.

Korosec, R.L. and Berman, E.M. (2006) 'Municipal Support for Social Entrepreneurship', *Public Administration Review* 66(3), 448–62.

Mair, J., & Marti, I. (2005). Social Entrepreneurship Research: A Source of Explanation, Prediction, and Delight. IESE Business School - University of Navarra: Barcelona.

Maleki, H., Khanifar, H., Nazari, K., & Emami, M. (2012). The Investigation of the Relation between Entrepreneurship and Globalization, Government, Market Structure, and Market Resources (Case Study in the Tourism Industry of Iran). *Journal of Applied Sciences Research*, 8(2): 1079-1087

Naik, J., (2005, April). The story of lijiit papad . *The Smart Manager*, 45-51.

Reis, T. (1999). Unleashing the new resources and entrepreneurship for the common good: A scan, synthesis and scenario for action. Battle Creek, MI: W.K. Kellogg Foundation.

Schumpeter, J. A. (1934). The Theory of Economic Development: An Inquiry into Profits, Capital Credit, Interest, and the Business Cycle. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Schwab (2011) foundation for social entrepreneurship:
<http://www.schwabfound.org/sf/SocialEntrepreneurs/index.htm>

Seelos, C. & Mair, J. (2004). Social Entrepreneurship: The Contribution of Individual Entrepreneurs to Sustainable Development. IESE Business School, University of Navarra. Working paper 553.

_____ (2005). Social Entrepreneurship: Creating New Business Models to Serve the Poor. *Business Horizons*, 48 (3), 247-252.

Shane, S. (2003). A General Theory of Entrepreneurship: The Individual-OpportunityNexus. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Sherman, D. (2005). Social Entrepreneurship: Scaling Social Impact: 33: Case Western Reserve University.

Stevenson, H.H., Roberts, M., & Grousbeck, H.L. (1999). New business ventures and the entrepreneur: *Instructors manual* 5th, Irwin

Venkataraman, S. (1997). The Distinctive Domain of Entrepreneurship Research: An editor's perspective. In J. K. R. Brockhaus (Ed.), *Advances in entrepreneurship, firm emergence, and growth*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Young, D.R. (2001). "Organizational identity in nonprofit organizations: Strategic and structural implication". *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, (12) 139–57.

Zadek, S. & Thake, S. (1997, June 20). Send in the social entrepreneurs. *New Statesman*, 26, 31.

Millennium Development Goal (MDG) on Education: Challenges to Private Higher Educational Institutions –The role of Valley View University

By

Isaac Owusu-Dankwa, DBA

Department of Banking and Finance

School of Business, Valley View University

Abstract

The significant success attained by the educational sector as a result of the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals has resulted in higher levels of pupils in the basic education. Children of school going age have been given a life-blood to experience the importance of education. The expectation is that such pupils will value education, thereby, choosing to further their education, either in the formal or informal sector, and contribute significantly to the development of the nation instead of being dropouts. The attainment of higher enrolment level in the primary education is expected to have a corresponding higher enrolment level in both the secondary and tertiary (higher) educational levels. Along with such expectation comes other related need that ought to be provided. This paper discusses some of the challenges posed to higher educational institutions as a result of the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals pertaining to education. These challenges pertain to infrastructure, faculty development and improvement, and diversity of programs.

Background to the Study

At the core of the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) concerning education is the ultimate goal of developing and also to better the lot of individuals and nations as a whole. With a goal of ensuring that every child who has reached the school going age should obtain at least primary education; various countries have purposely embarked on this noble social responsibility. The successes achieved so far notwithstanding, there is still the need to ensure that efforts are put in place to reach the ultimate goal of not having a single child missing out on primary education.

The achievement in education has it's carried over responsibilities on both secondary and tertiary educational institutions. It is expected that the increase in enrolment in primary education will have a corresponding increase in enrolment in secondary education and an increment in the number of students seeking for placement in higher educational institutions (Kehm & Odera, 2009). However, with public higher educational institutions incapable of absorbing such potential students, the advent of private higher educational institutions has been gladly welcomed. For these private higher institutions to play their expected role, issues pertaining to higher enrolment levels, inadequate infrastructure, and training of teachers should be appropriately addressed to curb the burden passed on by the achievement of the Millennium Development goals in education.

The interest and great development potential of the primary and secondary level of education give an indication of the high potential of the higher education institutions that still remain untapped. We can see that development of the base that is to feed into the higher education institutions has great potential and a lot of room for improvement. Success of attaining this goal portends greatly for the growth of the higher education system. Indeed the attainment of the goals automatically attributes growth for the higher education sector. (Kehm & Odera, 2009, pg. 8).

This study is aimed at bringing to fore the role played by private higher educational institutions in creating an alternative avenue for students to attain higher education thereby curbing any possible mishap due to achievement of the Millennium Development Goals in education. Challenges faced by these institutions and recommendations on how to overcome these difficulties were addressed.

Literature Review

Millennium Development Goals

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), an initiative of the United Nations, were formulated at the turn of the 21st century to facilitate even development of nations and to improve the global economy and ultimately to enhance the growth of humanity . The main objective of the MDG is human development and to attain this three core areas of development are addressed: human capital, improving infrastructure, and increasing social, economic and political rights. (United Nations, 2006). The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2008) noted that agenda of MDG “represents a new approach to development, which recognizes that development is not exclusively macro-economic, but cover human and social dimensions as well.” (p. 375).

According to Nwonwu (2008) the MDG’s have a special affiliation with less-developed countries especially those on the African continent. He noted thus:

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are seen as the rescue ship for the sinking Africa’s development boat. Launched in 2000 during the United Nations Millennium Declaration and adopted in 2001, the MDGs serve as the blueprint and framework for measuring progress in development among the countries of the world. It is a universal benchmark for measuring advances in development efforts with hunger and poverty as the yardstick and critical point of departure in benchmarking underdevelopment. It is the culmination of several years of deliberations on and search for solution to global poverty. (p.1-2).

Consequently, an eight goal objective was formulated to serve as benchmarks to be achieved with a fifteen year period (from 2000 through 2015). Although these goals are commendable and various countries have embarked on achieving them, there have been evident shortcomings that ought to be addressed to ensure that they are achieved. Some of these shortcomings include the lack of analytical power and justification, lack of strong objectives and indicators for equality, lack of focus on local participation and empowerment, lack of emphasis on sustainability and lack of measurements for some of the goals. (Amir, 2005; Deneulin, 2009; Naila, 2010). Notwithstanding the above mentioned shortcomings, there have been major achievements. These are evident in the various MDG country reports. In particular reference to Ghana, the Ghana MDG 2008 report depicts that there has been significant progress in meeting the eight-goal objectives.

Basic Education in Ghana

The MDG 2 (achieving universal primary education) aims at achieving universal primary education by the year 2015. Primary education is seen as the bedrock of any successful development agenda. Hence the MDG on education, which is targeted at ensuring that children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary education, has been warmly embraced.

Ghana's educational system is divided into three main parts: Basic Education, Secondary Education and Tertiary Education. The basic education in Ghana consists of two (2) years of kindergarten, six (6) years primary education followed by three (3) years Junior Secondary. The Ghana MDG 2008 report indicated significant achievements relating to achieving universal primary education. These were evident in increases in the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER), Net Enrolment ratio (NER) and Survival/Completion Rate. The GER at the kindergarten level "increased from 89% in 2006/7 to 89.9% in 2007/8 while that of primary has also increased 93.7% to 95.2% over the same period." (p.15)

The Net Enrolment Rate (NER) which measures the number of appropriately aged pupils enrolled in school as proportion of total number of children in the relevant age groups also depicted comparable increases. It depicted an increase from 69.2% in 2005/06 to 83.7% in 2007/08. (See Table 2)

Table 1: Trends in Net Enrolment Rates in Basic Schools, 1991/92 – 2008

NATIONAL	1991/92 – 2003/4	2004/5	2005/6	2006/7	2007/8
Primary	46.2 – 55.6%	59.1%	69.20%	81.1%	83.7%
Junior High		70.3%	74.50%	52.40%	53.40%

Adapted from Ministry of Education and Sports, Preliminary Education Sector Performance Report 2005-06; APR, 2008; Ministry of Education and Sports, Education Sector Performance Report 2006-06 as quoted in

www.ndpc.gov.gh/GPRS/2008%20Ghana%20MDG%20Report.pdf

From the table below (Table 2), it can be observed that whilst the Survival/Completion Rate (it measures the proportion of pupils or students who stay and complete school after enrolment) at the primary level has shown proportional increment at the national level and for both sexes, that of the junior high school has seen significant reduction. This indicates that as students' progress towards the secondary level, the survival rates decreases.

Table 2: Trends in Survival Rates (SRs) in Basic Schools by Gender, 2003/04-2007/08

Survival Rates (SRs)	2003/4	2004/5	2005/6	2006/7	2007/8	Target 2015	Achievement	
Primary:								
National	83.20%	82.60%	75.60%	85.40%	88.00%	100.00%	Good Progress	
Male	85.10%	84.70%	78.40%	91.20%	88.90%			

Female	81.10%	80.30%	72.40%	79.60%	82.40%			
Junior High:								
National	86.00%	85.50%	86.60%	64.90%	67.70%	100.00%	Unlikely	
Male	88.00%	88.50%	87.40%	69.60%	72.40%			
Female	83.70%	82.90%	85.60%	60.00%	62.90%			
Source: Ministry of Education and Sports, 2008, NDPC, APR, 2008 as quoted in www.ndpc.gov.gh/GPRS/2008%20Ghana%20MDG%20Report.pdf								

The MDG report for 2010 observed that globally, the level of enrolment “in primary education has continued to rise reaching 89 per cent in the developing world. But the pace of progress is insufficient to ensure that by 2015, all girls and boys complete a full primary schooling. Getting children into school is a vital first step. But to receive the full benefits of education, they must continue to attend classes. In half the countries in sub-Saharan Africa with available data, more than 30 per cent of primary-school students drop out before reaching the final grade.”

Ghana has recorded significant achievement in relation to MDG 2 (achieving universal primary education). The achievement in Ghana has been attributed to specific programs and policies that have been embarked upon by the government as captured in the Ghana MDG 2008 report:

.... chiefly among them are the construction/rehabilitation of classrooms, strengthening the capitation grant initiative and expanding coverage of the school feeding programme. Others included enforcing laws that support the implementation of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE), expanding non-formal education in partnership with community groups, NGOs and private providers, and developing a national policy on distance learning. (p.23)

The main government initiatives has included the Ghana School Feeding Programme, National Health Insurance Scheme, Declaration of Maternal mortality as a national emergency, Capitation Grant, The National Social Protection Strategy (NSPS), National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP), Electricity Lifeline Payments, to mention but a few. Similarly, countries like Burundi, Tanzania, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Zambia have witnessed huge increases in enrolment due to the implementation of such government policies and initiatives. (United Nations MDG Report 2010).

The Role of Private Higher Education in the Economy

The attainment of the MDG on education cannot be the solely responsibility of the government in the midst of its importance to the economy. This calls for consented efforts among all stakeholders. It is in this direction that the advent of private higher education has been greatly welcomed.

Altbach (1999) observes that “Private higher education is one of the most dynamic and fastest-growing segments of postsecondary education at the turn of the 21st century.” (pg.2). This has resulted from two main reasons, he argued. First, there is an unparalleled demand for higher education that has never been seen before. This can be seen in the movement of students across various countries and continents to study in their numbers, especially movement of students from Sub-Saharan Africa and Central Asia.

Secondly, there has been an increase in the number of private higher education that has culminated mostly from various governments incapability to offer adequate and appropriate support (financial and infrastructure) to improving the higher education sector. Consequently, private higher education has made significant inroads even in places where citizens have wholly relied on their governments as the main provider of education.

Although, it appears that private higher education is a recent development, this has not been the case in some parts of the world. In countries like, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Philippines, private higher education has been dominant in their educational system. On the other hand, countries in South America, especially those in Latin America have witnessed a gradual but steady movement towards private education from the otherwise public dominated education. “Private higher education is the fastest-growing sector in many countries in Central and Eastern Europe and in the countries of the former Soviet Union. For the most part, this unprecedented growth in the private sector stems from an inability of the government in many countries to fund expansion.” (Altbach, 1990, pg. 2)

The situation in Ghana is no different from what pertains in other nations around the globe, with increasing number of private higher educational institutions. One of the main reasons for this phenomenon is the inability of public universities to provide the needed opportunities for the numerous persons who seek for higher education. Addae-Mensah (2001) observed as follows:

Every year we are faced with the painful decision of having to reject large number of highly qualified students. We have now reached or probably even surpassed the optimum number of students that our present facilities and staff strength can cope with. Last academic year the total population of the University reached about 14,600. Statistics available to me indicate that our population is over 15,000. In both absolute numbers and percentage increase in enrolment, the University has tried to meet the aspirations of a large number of the qualified student, but the sheer increase in the number of qualified candidates every year is making this a really daunting task. (p. 47).

The advent of private higher educational institutions in Ghana have helped eased the problems as discussed above. Private universities, by the increase in their numbers, have absorbed a higher portion of the qualified students who otherwise would have missed the opportunity for higher education. Lugg et al (2007) observed the direct relationship between the number of private higher educational institutions and enrolment levels in the table below.

Table 2 Enrolment at Private Universities in Ghana, 1999/2000 – 2005/2006 Academic Years

Academic Year	Number of Private Universities offering Degree Programs	Percentage Change (with 1999/2000 as base year)	Total Enrolment	Percentage Change (with 1999/2000 as base year)
1999/2000	2		783	
2000/2001	4	100%	1662	112%
2001/2002	4	100%	1667	113%
2002/2003	7	250%	1901	143%

2003/2004	8	300%	2588	231%
2004/2005	9	350%	3470	343%
2005/2006	13	550%	9497	1113%

Over the years, there have been additional institutions and this has culminated in the information in Table 3.

Table 3 Accredited Tertiary Institutions

Accredited Tertiary Institutions	Number
Public Universities	6
Private Tertiary Institutions offering degree programs	45
Tutorial Colleges	7
Polytechnics	10
Distance Learning Institutions	5
Private Nurses' Training Colleges	5
Public Nurses Training Colleges	15
Public Colleges of Education	38
Private Colleges of Education	3
College of Agriculture	1
Chartered Private Tertiary Institutions	3
Regionally-Owned (West Africa) Tertiary Institution	1
Public Universities/Professional Institutions	9

Source: National Accreditation Board, Ghana, Accredited Tertiary Institutions, <http://www.nab.gov.gh> (Retrieved July 27, 2011).

Challenges posed by MDG on Education

Notwithstanding the significant progress made, there are several challenges that ought to be addressed to ensure that the 2015 goals are met and the program can be sustained. Besides the fundamental challenge of inadequate finance in funding some of the government programs like the school feeding program and free school uniforms, other challenges identified include the following: Teacher posting and retention; Decline in quality of education; Inadequate infrastructure; Low level of teacher commitment; Low accountability to parents and students; Falling quality of Science and Technology education; High cost of education. (United Nations MDG Report 2010).

Similar challenges were noted by a study in Kosovo which is shown in the diagram below:

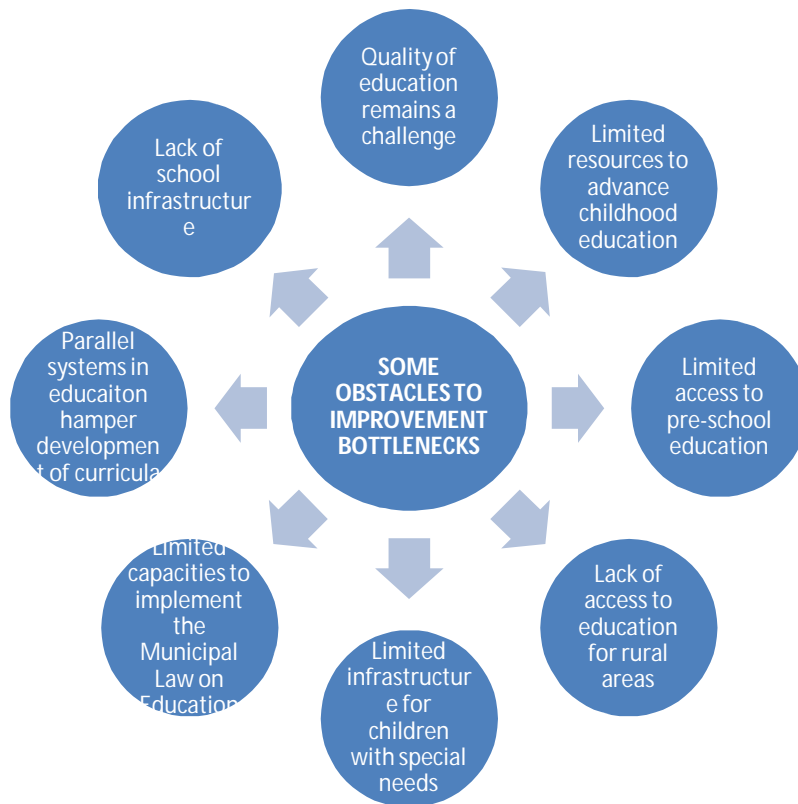


Figure 1 MDG 2 – Some Obstacles to Improvement.Source: UNKT (2010) as quoted by Serhati (2011).

The question to be posed is, how and what consequences or relationship does a higher educational institution have with the attainment of the MDG on education. In a speech read at the Association of Commonwealth Universities in 2010, Kamalesh Sharma observed that the MDG 2 is suited to higher education. He commented further that:

“...UNESCO’s estimate that at least 10 million additional teachers will be needed worldwide by 2015 if Universal Primary Education is to be achieved, and a serious start made on expanding secondary education. This represents another 15% of the current global teaching workforce. It also raises the equally profound need for quality – as well as quantity – in the teachers at hand to meet this mammoth challenge. It is from universities that these extra teachers will come – and indeed it is from universities that trained teachers are already coming, along with national education systems, national curricula, and textbooks. It is also from the universities that distance learning solutions will emerge.”.

In his studies on the relevance of the MDGs to higher education in Kosovo, Serhati (2011) confirmed that “the role of higher education institutions in training and producing professional teachers required for primary and secondary education is imperative and it shows once again the interrelations among all levels of education.”

Methodology

The research was primarily an explanatory research. It sought to determine the implications on private higher educational institutions as a result of the positive results and challenges derived from achieving the MDG on education. The research strategy employed was a case study, hence the selection of Valley View University. This approach was adopted by the researcher because it offered an opportunity to examine and explore the current happening. In addition, this was the organization for which the researcher worked and therefore enhanced the gathering of relevant data.

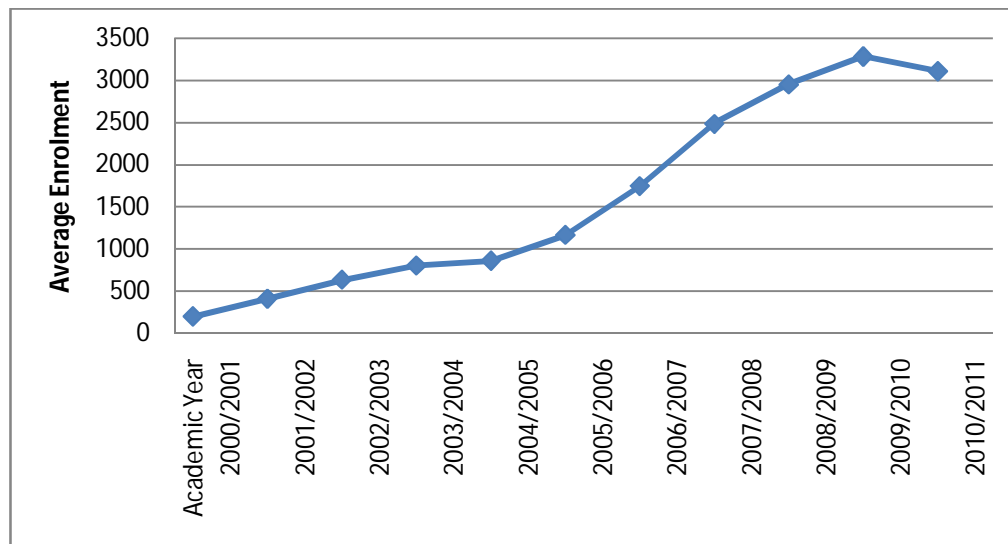
Results

Challenges Posed by Attainment of MDG on Education

The various challenges emanating from the attainment of the MDG on education could be categorized as higher enrolment, inadequate infrastructure, and insufficient teachers.

a. Higher Enrolment

As observed in Table 1 above, the level of enrolment at the basic education has increased significantly. Although, the survival rate has shown a downward trend, the current trend is still noteworthy to higher educational institutions. The statistics for Valley View University show an upward trend in enrolment (Figure 2).



Source: Field Data

Figure 2: Average Enrolment 2000/2001 through 2010/2011 Academic Year

The above trend is consistent with expectations that enrolment increase at the basic education level will have a direct relation with enrolment at the higher educational level.

Another significant feature of the enrolment at the institution is the gender balance. Although the number of male students has dominated the total enrolment, the female students have over the years nearly equaled that of the male in the 2010/2011 academic year. This scenario could be attributable to the fact that the University has put in a policy of increasing the female population of its students and/or there have been a higher level of female applicants who have successfully completed their secondary education and seeking higher education.

Table 4: Average Enrolment 2000/2001 through 2010/2011 Academic Year by Gender

Academic Year	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
2010/2011	1,846	1,262	3,108
2009/2010	2,003	1,280	3,283
2008/2009	1,864	1,088	2,952
2007/2008	1,566	919	2,485
2006/2007	1,947	1,124	3,071
2005/2006	759	406	1,165
2004/2005	581	280	861
2003/2004	538	266	803
2002/2003	427	208	635
2001/2002	280	131	411
2000/2001	136	64	200

Source: Field Data

Inadequate Infrastructure

Inadequate infrastructure has been the bane of many private higher educational institutions. This is as a result of the need to expand and reach their potential in comparison with public educational institutions. On the other hand, this situation is due to the pressure exerted on the current infrastructure as a result of current growth in enrolment. Kehm & Odera (2009) and Serhati (2011) noted that overcrowded lecture halls have been one of the significant strain on the infrastructure of higher educational institutions as a result of achieving the MDG 2.

This calls for the creation of more space for both housing and teaching. During his speech at the 16th Matriculation, the Vice-Chancellor of Valley View University said as follows:

The introduction of the programmes outlined, ‘programme revolution’ will call for massive infrastructure build up. The two must be developed concurrently to meet a confluence of progressive academic aspiration and a watershed of disseminating knowledge. Accordingly, arrangement as far advanced to access a loan facility from our bankers to put up hostels, lecture complexes, a state of the art library and IT Centre. This year, two student hostels, each with a 500-bed capacity, a lecture theatre with a seating capacity of 2,000 (under construction); and a 500-bed capacity student hostel are strategically planned to be built on the Main Campus and Techiman Extension Campus respectively.” (Valley View University Recorder, 2011, p.4).

With the current trend of enrolment at the basic and tertiary educational levels, the need to provide adequate infrastructure is a major financial decision that has burdened university administrators.

Insufficient Teachers

One of the significant challenges that hamper the attainment of the MDG 2 relates to teachers.

Shortage of qualified teachers plays a major part in deepening the inability of the country to provide quality primary education for the growing numbers of the primary school-aged children (6-11years). Available statistics show that teacher availability and deployment remain problematic, especially in rural and deprived areasand staff to match the ever increasing pupil population. In some cases, a teacher was expected to handle as many as 100 or more pupils. Once again, the deprived districts have been the worse off. (Adamu-Issah, et al, 2007)

The Ghana MDG report for 2008, identified the following as major challenges that could potentially upset the achievement of the educational goals: The challenge of teacher posting and retention; Decline in quality of teaching; Low level of teacher commitment; and, falling quality of science and technology education.

With the unique role played by private higher education, it is the expectation that they would address these concerns. Consequently, Valley View University has established the Department of Education. The mission of the department is “to provide a curriculum in which future educators are given opportunities to become competent, caring and highly qualified teachers. The Department of Education provides a foundation for learning that enables future teachers to become instructional leaders.” (Valley View University Academic Bulletin, pg. 180).

The Department of Education offers a degree program in Education with the following major and minor areas of concentration:

- Major areas of concentration – English Language, Mathematics, Study of Religions, Management, Accounting, Information Technology and Social Studies.
- Minor areas of concentration – English Language, Study of Religions, Management, Accounting, and Information Technology.

To further address the need of teachers who may not be able to enroll as full-time students, a sandwich program has been introduced. This programs runs during the normal school holidays so that teachers can teach during the school year and still upgrade their educational knowledge and qualification.

Conclusion

The emergence of private higher education has been greatly welcomed and it has played a significant role in the educational sector within Ghana. This is attributable to the fact that it has contributed to granting opportunity for the higher levels of graduates from the secondary schools to obtain higher level of education and preparing them to play significant roles in the economy.

However, the increasing number of students at both the primary and secondary levels has led to higher enrolment at higher educational institutions and has brought about strain on the inadequate infrastructure. This predicament has brought to fore the need for funding of these private higher educational institutions. Government funding, especially in the area of infrastructure is needed to ensure that these institutions play their role effectively and efficiently to address the carried over problems from achieving the MDG on education. Besides the need for government funding, corporate bodies and institutions need to invest in these institutions in areas of faculty development, research, and provision of facilities for practical training for the students. These notwithstanding, private higher educational institutions are emerging with programs to address the inadequacy of teachers and the improvement of the quality of teachers at the primary and secondary levels.

It is recommended that, for private higher educational institutions to play their expected role in the achievement of MDG on education, governments and corporate institutions should assist financially in the development of private higher educational institutions. This will go a long way to help in achieving the objective of the MDG on education.

References

- Adamu-Issah, M., Elden, L., Forson, M., and Schrofer, T. (2007). *Achieving Universal Primary Education in Ghana by 2015: A Reality or a Dream?* New York: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF).
- Addae-Mensah, I. (2001). 'Matriculation Address', in 'Proceedings of the Matriculation of the University of Ghana.' Accra: University of Ghana Special Reporter No. 699,40, 4.
- Altbach, P.G. (Ed.). (1999). *Private Prometheus: Private Higher Education and Development in the 21st Century*. Westport, CT:Greenwood Press.
- Kehm, B.M. & Odera, R.K. (2009). *Higher Education as a Catalyst in Attaining Millennium Development Goals in Kenya*. Retrieved from [http://7163.ro/emahe/upload/Odera Robert Owino 2009 Millennium Development Goals pdf](http://7163.ro/emahe/upload/Odera%20Robert%20Owino%202009%20Millennium%20Development%20Goals.pdf).
- Lugg, R., Morley, L., & Leach, F. (2007). *Working Paper 3: A Profile of Participation in Higher Education in Ghana and Tanzania. Widening Participation in Higher Education in Ghana and Tanzania: Developing an Equity Scorecard*. An ESRC/DfID Poverty Reduction Programme funded Research Project.
- Sauder, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007). *Research Methods for Business Students* (4th Edition). Harlow: Pearson Educational Limited.

Serhati, J. (2011). *Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) and their relevance to higher education in Kosovo*. Retrieved from <http://www.guni-rmies.net/new/detail.phd?id=1717>

Sharma, K. (2010). Speech read at the Association of Commonwealth Universities – Vice Chancellor Conference, Cape Town, South Africa, 25 April 2010. Retrieved from <http://www.thecommonwealth.org/news/190663/163077/222861/230410sharmaacuhighereducation.htm>

Ghana MDG 2008 Report. Retrieved from www.ndpc.gov.gh/GPRS/2008%20Ghana%20MDG%20Report.pdf.

United Nations. (2006). *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2006*. Retrieved

_____ (2010). *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2010*. Retrieved

Valley View University Academic Bulletin, 2005 – 2009.

_____ Recorder. (2011).

Amir, A. (2005). *An Immeasurable Crisis? A Criticism of the Millennium Development Goals and Why They Cannot Be Measured*. PLoS Medicine, October 2005, Vol. 2, Issue 10, e318.

Naila, K. (2010). *Can the MDGs provide a pathway to social justice?: The challenge of intersecting inequalities*. Institute of Development Studies.

Deneulin, S. & with Lila Shahani. (2009). *An Introduction to the Human Development and Capability Approach: Freedom and Agency*. Sterling, VA: Earthscan. Retrieved from http://www.idrc.ca/en/ev-146686-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html#ch03note8.

Cheng, P. (2005). *Statistics, Knowledge And Policy: Key Indicators to Inform Decision Making*. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.

Nwonwu, F. (Ed.) (2008). *The Millenium Development Goals: Achievements and prospects of meeting the targets in Africa*. Pretoria: Africa Institute of South Africa

LEADERSHIP AS AN INSTRUMENT TO LEVERAGE THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

By

¹EMMANUEL O. AJIKE and

²VICTORIA O. AKPA

^{1,2}*Department of Business Administration and Marketing
Babcock University, Ilisan Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.*

Abstract

This paper examines the leadership skills and techniques that help to achieve the millennium development goals and develop the personal and interpersonal qualities that become a leader's motivational foundation during difficult times. The paper argues that a good leadership is not only important to the company or organization, but is also geared towards the overall development of the nation. The paper argues further that leadership is a human factor, -which builds a group together and motivates them towards goal attainment. The paper states that effective leadership understands human problems and takes them into consideration in directing and managing employees for action. The paper concludes that perhaps the single most important technique for achieving the millennium development goals and motivating the organizational people you supervise is to treat them the same way you wish to be treated: as responsible professionals irrespective of their hierarchical position in the organization as well as the nation.

KEYWORDS: *Leadership, MDGs, Corporate Governance and Sustainable development.*

Background and Theoretical Considerations

There are neither simple definitions of leadership nor easy answers to issues bothering on leadership. However, leadership, according to Kreitner (2007), “is the process of inspiring, influencing, and guiding others to participate in a common effort”. It is also “a process through which a person tries to get organizational members to do something that the person desires” (Vecchio, 2006). Leadership is a complex process by which a person influences others to accomplish a mission, task, or objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. It is the critical factor that helps the individual or a group identify its goals and then motivates and assists in achieving the stated goals. A person carries out this process by applying her leadership attributes (belief, values, ethics, character, knowledge, and skills). From these attempts on definition, it can be asserted that motivation is a function of leadership. Although the position of a manager, supervisor, or team leader gives him the authority to accomplish certain tasks and objectives in the organization, this power does not make him a leader. Instead, it simply makes him the boss.

A leader makes people want to achieve high goals and objectives, while bosses oblige people to accomplish a task or objective. The art of influencing people and making them happily do what they otherwise would not want to do, explains nothing short of motivation in all its ramifications. Otherwise, how does one explain the psychological reason for people's varied behavior at different moments? All these border on

motivation which is the rationale for most human behavior. How does one explain people's persistence and endurance towards the attainment of goals and objectives if it is not motivation? If leadership influences the behaviour of people, leadership invariably motivates. Therefore, there is no dichotomy between leadership and motivation; rather the former makes use of the later.

Ipso facto, there is a dichotomy between leadership and culture. According to Schein (1993), cultural analysis is especially valuable for dealing with aspects of organizations that seem irrational, frustrating, and intractable. He contends that leaders are bound to be controlled or managed by cultures unless they intentionally choose to become conscious of the cultural milieu in which they operate.

To be effective in advancing the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), leadership development programmes need to be designed for local contexts. Furthering the objectives of programme effectiveness and human rights requires local participation and ownership in the processes of programme identification, design, implementation, and accountability. Leadership for engaging politicians, administrators, businesses, and private citizens for participation in these processes needs to be strengthened. Likewise, leadership training and coaching need to be done around political vision, strategies, and management and technical areas, in order for them to carry weight and sustain impact.

Accountability lies at the heart of sound leadership practices (Schein, 1993). Institutions, communities, and nations develop their capacity to articulate goals and realize them only if they accept the responsibility for doing so. Ultimately, it is individuals—authorized or not—who take such responsibility. A capacity development perspective of leadership requires that individuals take personal responsibility for development results and engage others in doing so. Achievement of development goals depends on the ability of individuals at all organizational levels to exercise leadership so as to facilitate and integrate input from diverse players, and establish new governance processes as standard procedure.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) promotes leadership development programmes because the realization of MDGs depends on the quality of leadership and the enabling environment at all levels (Leonard, 2006). Where planning processes are not designed to hear and respond to people's needs, aspirations and initiatives, creativity and committed energy will be discouraged and will not be expressed. The capacity of a system to allow leaders to emerge and assume the responsibilities of clarifying goals, guiding and orchestrating the design and implementation of programmes, may demand changes in governance decision-making processes. Expanding participation in these processes creates new roles and changes existing ones. It also changes the distribution of power.

According to Egbuji (2007) it is well recognized that effective leadership is required for: (1) Developing new processes and creating new roles; (2) Coaching individuals, communities, and institutions to take up their roles; (3) Opening up space for public dialogue, participation, and independent review; (4) Sustaining the commitment to reforms, and improvement in management and service delivery; and (5) Increasing the group's capacity to demand responsible action from their leaders.

In today's environment that is characterized by unpredictability, high risk and complex interpersonal dynamics, the art of leading others often seems like an impossible balancing act. In an ideal situation, it could be a lot easier, if the economy is good, budgets are big, and people are motivated and well paid. But this is a farfetched situation since there is no perfect situation in leadership. People are not factors of production; therefore both the leader and the led must constitute a social unit in order for leadership to be meaningful.

Consequently, leadership must be characterized by relevant skills and techniques vis-à-vis leadership styles that will motivate the people being led and place their confidence on their leader and subsequently provides them with the much desired *locus standi* for excellent performance. Without leadership therefore, an organization would be only a confusion of people and machines (Egbuji, 2007).

Effective leadership moves the nation forward and helps the country attain the goals and objectives, which it has stated for itself. In all its intent and purposes, the primary role of a leader is to influence others to voluntarily seek defined objectives (preferably with enthusiasm). In this capacity, the leader is in his or her best, radiating functionality between the country and the people so that the degree of satisfaction to both is optimal and maximized. Here morale boosting is a critical imperative for excellent performance and goal attainment (Efere, 2005).

The current concern for leadership comes from the realization that the effectiveness of development results and achieving the MDG often depends on local level ownership of the development agenda and budget and ownership implies participation. Hence, participatory systems for decision-making in planning and implementation must be in place. The drive to place development programme ownership and responsibility with the country requires champions playing leadership roles at all levels of society, who can engage and inspire people to reflect on their own future and undertake their own re-organization. Where leadership is constrained by processes that inhibit initiatives, where they make poor provision for local voices, leaders will be required to change processes, roles, attitudes and norms (Ferrel, 2001).

Nurturing effective leadership for transformation is vital for moving forward the new millennium development agenda. New participatory systems may be required, and this takes leadership committed to change that supports reflection, inclusion, open participation, and diversity of perspectives. Leadership development programmes are integral to UNDP efforts to support the development of capacity, both generally and specifically, for the advancement of the Millennium Declaration and the MDGs.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The plan of the United Nations was that nations who adopted the millennium development goals must have achieved remarkable positive result by the year 2015. However from the UNDP reports obtained in the year 2010, there are obvious evidences showing that there is an increase in the number of poverty-stricken people especially in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa which is traced to bad leadership. Rapid reduction again in poverty has been identified as not necessarily addressing gender equality and environmental sustainability. There is also little or no progress at all in the reduction of the HIV/AIDS pandemic nor is there improvement in the reduction of infant and maternal mortality. There are clear evidences that the expansions of health and education services are not being matched equally, with the year 2015 just around the corner. The big question is, in lieu of the present development pace in the country, would the Nation without good leadership role be able to achieve the millennium development goal which it committed to at the year 2000 United Nations (UN) summit? It is therefore evident that with good leadership practice, the nation will achieved the plan of the millennium development goals.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

In September 2000, at the United Nations Millennium Summit, world leaders agreed to eight development goals to be achieved by 2015.

The first seven goals focus on: (i) Eradicating extreme poverty and hunger; (ii) Achieving universal primary education; (iii) Promoting gender equality and empowering women; (iv) Reducing child mortality; (v) Improving maternal health; (vi) Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; and (vii) Ensuring environmental sustainability. The eighth goal calls for the creation of a global partnership for development, with targets for aid, trade, and debt relief.

The United Nations provided an institutional and human resource environment and leadership capacities that enabled the world's leaders to formulate, discuss and agree on the Goals. It can be said in this regard that the International Governance system disposed of sufficient capacity to initiate and legislate the MDGs. The assumption then was that good governance institutional and human resources capacities at national levels in different member States were available in adequate quantities and qualities to integrate the MDGs into national development policies and strategies and successfully implement them. But now, with just less than five years remaining to get to the target of 2015 when the MDGs were expected to be achieved, various evaluations on levels of achievements of MDGs indicate that many countries, especially the least developed ones, those with fragile states, those affected by violent conflict, crisis and or disaster (Ferrel, 2001), will not achieve the MDGs as targeted. It is observed that countries with weak leadership and human resources capacities are the most likely to miss by far the target of 2015 to achieve the MDGs. "We are concerned about achievement of the MDGs in countries affected by poor governance, conflict, armed violence and insecurity, where progress to date has been slowest. The MDG figures speak for themselves. Conflict-affected and fragile states are furthest away from achieving the MDGs. For example, MDG 1 on eradicating extreme poverty and hunger is 90% off course, while MDG 5 on improving maternal health is 86% off course in conflict-affected and fragile settings" INCAF (2010).

While Member States set MDG targets in terms of what is to be achieved there were no targets set regarding the process and capacities that would be necessary to meet the MDGs targets. It is now acknowledged that there are prerequisites for achieving MDGs and one of the prerequisites is a sound capable good governance in terms of both institutional and human resources capacity (Ferrel, 2001). Where good governance institutional, leadership and human resources capacities are inadequate, this has translated into insufficiency or even absence of policies, strategies and weak implementation at national levels that has led to little achievement of MDGs. Therefore putting the achievement of MDGs back on track will entail, among other things, investing heavily in strengthening the institutional, leadership and human resource capacities in the public sector. This calls for investment in strengthening institutional and human capacities of leadership. Central government agencies responsible for planning, policy and strategy formulation, legislatures and local councils that put in place legal frameworks that guide pursuing MDGs including resource allocation, service delivery Ministries and agencies that directly deliver MDG-related services to the population, control agencies that ensure ethical, transparent, accountable, efficient and effective use of resources etc... must all be strengthened in terms of their institutional set up, leadership and capability of human resources to support the efforts of achieving the MDGs (Ferrel, 2001).

Conceptual Framework

Leading is the management function that involves the use of influence to motivate people to achieve the nation goals. Fiedler(2004) states that leading is creating a shared culture and values, communicating goals to people throughout the country, and infusing people with the desire to perform at high level. According to Cole (2002), leadership is intimately connected with actual behavior and attitudes towards oneself and others. Although leadership may involve empowering others, and sharing the leadership burden in many respects, it nevertheless cannot abdicate its final responsibility for a group's result. The implication of this is that the leader at any moment in time is synonymous with the success or failure of the country. Cole (2002) maintains that leadership at work is a dynamic process whereby one individual in a group is not only responsible for the group's results, but actively seeks the collaboration and commitment of all the group members in achieving group goals in a particular context and against the background of a particular national culture. The dynamic process nature of leadership is consistent with the contingency theory that a management technique that is suitable for a particular situation may not necessarily be applied to a similar situation irrespective of same circumstances. This undoubtedly, underscores the basic belief that there is no one best way of managing or leading people. An emerging situation calls for a new approach.

According to Efere, (2005), to develop leadership, the focus must be on the four clusters of characteristics that successful and strong leaders have in common: -

- Vision, perspective and a clear understanding of the big picture
- The ability to organize and empower to achieve results
- Strong interpersonal skills, and the ability to communicate, influence and work with others
- Personal motivation, energy and resilience to be consistently successful

Motivation constitutes the forces within the individual that account for the level, direction, and persistence of effort expended at work. Motivation may also be defined as the goal or incentive, which provides purpose and direction to an activity. Motivation - is the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need. Efere, (2005)

Participatory Leadership

According to Vecchio (2006), participative leadership involves sharing information with subordinates and consulting with them before making decisions. The concept of “participatory leadership” is fundamental to promoting participatory democracy. The focus is on supporting the advance away from non-inclusive processes for decision-making and action. The leader actively involves others in both decisions making and carrying out decisions (Kreitner, 2007; Yalokwu, 2006). Participative leaders clearly decentralize authority. They used inputs from followers and participation by them, in the decision making. This implies that the leader and group are acting as a social unit (Newstrom, 2011).

Followership

No discussion of leadership is complete according to Vecchio (2006) without a consideration of followership. Leadership is very important, but without effective followership, no organization can survive. The challenge is to identify and support those in authority, who hold—or can be encouraged and enabled to hold—new visions and to support new practices in order for the leadership function of the group to be developed and supported. Leadership initiatives may be discouraged or repressed. This calls for “transformational” leadership, a redesign of the system, its processes and its actors, both authority

figures and followers. In practice this means the redesign of “who does what?” in the planning and budgeting process.

UNDP support for leadership development accepts as a premise that the leadership capacity of a group can be informed and guided so that it produces effective, creative responses to the needs and aspirations of the collectivity. In this view, desired action is clarified and effected by processes in which all actors contribute, together committing to their new roles and required behaviors and actions. This expanded view focuses on securing “the wisdom of the whole” (Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B, 2008:63-69), including but not exclusively drawing on individuals with official roles in organizations or government.

Leadership attributes and skills

A skill is an ability to translate knowledge into action that results in desired performance. Many skills are required to master the challenging nature of managerial work and, the most important ones allow managers to help others be highly productive. For Ogbonnia (2007), a skill implies an ability which can be developed not necessarily inborn, and which is manifested in performance, not merely in potential

Specific contexts make specific demands on leaders. Linking leaders to global knowledge (e.g. networks, international think-tanks) is instrumental for facilitating change. The skills needed for leadership development are likely to include personal and interpersonal attitudes and skills—e.g. self-awareness, empathy, and skills such as the ability to lead groups in systems thinking for strategic analysis. Ability to bridge the communications gap between people of different worldviews and cognitive ability is likely to be vital. Coaching in such skills is likely to be a significant leadership role contributed by a UNDP support programme. It will invoke all the below requirements

Leadership skills that can be learned

- *Evoking all contributions*—requires the ability to create an atmosphere of trust and awareness. Inclusion of, and respect for, different values perspectives and legitimate interests may be essential to finding resolution. The ability to generate a productive tension without undue stress is a major leadership skill requirement.
- *Reality testing*—requires the ability to lead people to seek, absorb, and find valid interpretation of facts; using exposure and orchestration of dissonance/conflict as leverage for learning; testing the relationship between means and ends.
- *Bridging cognitive and values gaps*—the ability to communicate to others whose cognitive development and worldviews are significantly different.
- *Leading reflection* on values, worldviews, behavior, and the demands of integrity. Getting people to clarify what matters most. Balancing tradeoffs is a central task.
- *Learning*—requires the ability to formulate significant questions.
- *Strategizing*—requires the ability to lead others in open systems thinking.
- *Understanding and working effectively with projection*—It is impossible for an identified leader to escape projections especially of others’ fears. Leaders must be able not to take things personally and defensively and to manage their ego—using it to serve the task not using the task to serve the ego.

- *Exercising responsibility*—following through on commitments and agreements, and not abusing privilege.
- *Exercising authority*—requires the ability to establish and maintain boundaries that serve the task, as well as the ability to mobilize and direct the use of resources to support and carry out the task. <http://www.capacity.undp.org/index>.

Effective leadership skills and techniques exist at different levels, offering the enabling environment for the placement of the employees and the activities they represent squarely under their leader and thus, providing the basic structural framework for the unified direction of such employees and their activities. The employees are in turn inspired to perform beyond the limits of their expanded capabilities. This is in consonance with Avolio, B. J., Sosik, J. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003) position that leadership exists at different levels, viz:

- > Team Leadership, e.g. teams of about 5 to 20 people.
- > Operational Leadership: a significant must in a business or organization comprising a number of teams whose leaders report to you.
- > Strategic Leadership: A whole business or organization, with overall accountability for the levels of leadership below you.

Avolio (2003) suggests that at whatever level of leadership, task, team and individual needs must be constantly thought about. To achieve a common task, maintain teamwork and satisfy the individuals, certain functions must be performed and these include: Defining the task; Planning; Briefing; Controlling; Evaluating; Motivating; Organizing and, Providing an example. Williams (2005) corroborated the foregoing by deposing that inspirational leadership is so much a matter of striking the right chords with people, at the right time. It involves elements as elusive as "personal chemistry" but at a more practical and fundamental level, it is about relating to people in ways which give them confidence, belief and faith in behaviors which inspire others as being words and actions which help people to exceed limits and past achievements; overcome barriers and obstacles and then transcend the ordinary or expected.

Leadership, policy and strategy: The Impact in achieving MDGs

The tendency has been to blame inadequate achievement of MDGs to inadequacy of resources, especially financial. However, there is evidence that illustrates that without policy and strategy well thought out and sustained in implementation, little can be achieved even when financial resources are available INCAF (2010). This makes public administration as a policy and strategy design sphere of public governance very critical in achieving MDGs. Likewise, there is evidence showing that with resolve from top leadership in a given country on issues of MDGs, a lot can be achieved even in contexts of limited funding. Below are selected cases to illustrate this point.

Rwanda and the Empowerment of Women: MDG 3—Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

Many indicators underline the progress that has been made in the field of gender equality as a result of the different policies that were implemented by the Rwandan government. For examples, within the education field, gender parity in literacy rate and gender enrolment parity at the primary level have been achieved. Within the public/political arena, government set a target of 30% of women among the

representatives of the parliament and among all decision-making levels. As a result, to date, Rwanda women hold 56% of the seats in Rwanda's Parliament, the highest percentage of women lawmakers in the world John-Mary, (2010). Consequently, the number of woman in politics and decision making sharply increased over the last decade. Such achievements are more a consequence of leadership determination; policy and strategic outlook than it is of availability of funding. President Kagame's recent words emphasize this: "I want to challenge us all - as leaders and people of influence - to find new and innovative ways to sustain and accelerate progress towards gender equality and women's empowerment around the world. In doing this, we should harness the potential of our young people, who are not constrained by gender biases, of new technologies for social education and of partnerships across governments, civil society and the private sector," Kagame (2010) In her statement during the "Role of Leadership in Promoting Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment." On 17th May 2010 in Kigali, the Deputy Secretary General of the United Nations emphasized the role of leadership and vision in the achievement of MDGs.

Uganda's Leadership and MDG 6: Combating HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases

The relative success of Uganda in combating HIV/AIDS in the country since 1986 illustrates the importance of leadership resolve, policy and focused strategy in achieving MDGs. What is equally interesting in this case is that the success was a result of a combination of leadership efforts in the government, civil society and private sector. It is a typical example of how successful shared governance can be in confronting complex challenges facing society. Although combating HIV/AIDS requires a lot of funding especially to provide testing, and drugs, the initial fight against the Epidemic was more of a leadership resolve than availability of funds. And the achievements registered were strongly premised on the initial efforts of educating the public, open dialogue, and the ABC approach (abstinence, being faithful to one's partner, and using condoms).

The leadership determination from President Museveni has now translated into policies and strategies which require a lot of funds. The phase of the Ugandan HIV epidemic running from 1992 to 2000 saw a fall in HIV prevalence from the peak of 15% among all adults in 1991 to around 5% in 2001. John-Mary (2010). Free antiretroviral drugs have been available in Uganda since 2004 and this requires big funding which has come from government and donors and development partners including the World Bank. However, without the leadership, policy, and strategy environment provided by Uganda's governance it is doubtful that the country would have witnessed the same levels of success. Clearly the Uganda case illustrates how good governance and leadership should be put at the center of the achievement of MDGs.

Tanzania' Free and compulsory primary education MDG2: achieving universal primary education

There are reports indicating that by 1977, Tanzania had achieved UPE by far well before world leaders declared the MDG2: achieving universal primary education in September 2000. This was not because Tanzania was a rich country but because Tanzania's leadership under Julius Nyerere had realized that they needed to provide education for the country's development and self-reliance. Tanzania is one of the few African countries that can claim to have a

successful education system in its history. The policy of government, the resolve of the leadership of Nyerere and the willingness of the people of Tanzania to break with deprivation (in education) ensured initial success. In the 1970s the government faced a big challenge of how to provide access to primary education for every child. After the Musoma resolution in 1974 the government set out to implement Universal Primary Education (UPE). Even if Tanzania was among the poorest countries in Africa, it managed this when many countries that were relatively richer were claiming to be incapable of financing the universal primary education for their children. Again Tanzania's case illustrates that even if money is important to implement Universal Primary Education, it is the public administration leadership and the policies they decide to implement that are paramount in ensuring success.

President Luiz Inácio's Fome Zero ("Zero Hunger") and MDG1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger: A National Effort to Eliminate Hunger in Brazil

The *Fome Zero*, "Zero Hunger" experience in Brazil is another case that illustrates how critical leadership commitment and governance policy and strategy at national and community levels are critical in the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. Launched by President Luiz Inácio of Brazil in January 2003, the *Fome Zero*, is quite an ambitious program which directly addresses MDG1, "Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger". It is one of the highest priorities of the Government of Brazil (Perspectives in Health, 2004).

The *Fome Zero* program's aim stated simply is to give each Brazilian the opportunity to have at least three meals a day. It is not a simple challenge given that at the time the program was launched about a quarter of Brazil's 170 million people were living below poverty line. Therefore the program had to provide three meals per day for about 11 families. And this is just addressing the immediate needs of those who go hungry. To this one must add long term needs for sustainability and ensuring that the people of Brazil are able to feed themselves without depending on handout from government. Within the Ministry of Social Development the Government put two policy measures: the first one is a policy that aims to increase access to nourishment for those living below the poverty line, and the second is constituted by long term policies addressing structural issues to ensure that the country's population has access to nourishment on a sustainable basis and each family can afford access to food John-Mary, (2010). "Good governance is perhaps the single most important factor in eradicating poverty and promoting development" (Kofi Annan, Secretary General of the United Nations).

The *Fome Zero* has a number of measures including community kitchens to serve the town's residents, especially the children. Civil society organizations including churches have been mobilized to participate in the program by for example operating the community kitchens and volunteering food stuffs and labor. The government contributes some funding. *Fome Zero*'s main emergency component is a monthly income transfer program for poor families, known as *Bolsa Família*, "Family Grant". The program currently covers 3.8 million households and receives the largest chunk of *Fome Zero* resources John-Mary, (2010). The longer-term measures against extreme poverty and hunger in Brazil cover a wide spectrum of social programs including agrarian reform, incentives for family agriculture, a fairer social welfare system, and job creation.

Although there are mixed feelings about the success of the program, consensus is on one critical aspect of it, and that is: it has reduced hunger and if sustained stands chances of

eradicating it. The major questions about its success concern sustainability and long term eradication of poverty John-Mary, (2010). The point here is not to engage in the debate on whether the program is succeeding or not, but to highlight the fact that government leadership and good governance policy came to initiate and galvanize efforts for the achievement of MDG 1. Without the leadership commitment and the policy put in place the efforts of the civil society, however, willing would have been inadequate to address such a huge problem.

Conclusion and Recommendation

As the deadline for achieving the MDGs by 2015 approaches there are efforts trying to speed up the implementation and assess the factors that may explain missing the target. It is becoming clear that many countries in the developing world, especially the least developed ones and those in fragile situations including conflict and post conflict countries, may miss the 2015 target. Most of these are the same countries that have institutional, human and structural weaknesses in their leadership systems which stand in their way to planning and implementation of strategies to achieve MDGs. They are also the same countries that have inadequate financial and material resources to support implementation.

The conclusion of this paper is that with or without financial and material resources, countries that lack the requisite good governance and leadership, human, institutional capacities and committed followership will not achieve the MDGs, even if the deadline is extended. The cases cited above affirm that with good governance—good leadership and committed followership—commitment and determination, plans and strategies will be put in place to implement the MDGs and implementation will be ensured even in situations of inadequate financial and material resources.

There seems to have been a shortfall at the initial stage of planning, discussing and agreeing the MDGs in September 2000. The targets were set in terms of what was to be achieved. They were not set in terms of how or by whom they were to be achieved. For example concerning MDG2 of ensuring that by 2015, children and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling, the indicators include enrolment ratio in primary education, proportion of pupils starting grade one who reach grade five, and literacy rate of 15-24 year olds. These are targets of what is to be achieved. There should have been targets of how it will be achieved which would have included the ratio of pupils per teacher, or distance covered by children going to school, or government policy and strategy on primary education. This would have forced governments to immediately start planning how to achieve the Universal primary education. It would have forced development partners and donors to think of what to do to facilitate the achievement of Universal primary education instead of simply giving money. As it turns out many countries are still figuring out how to achieve MDG 2. Weak governments and uncommitted leaders do not achieve levels of service provision that can ensure the achievement of MDGs. Efforts need to be put on strengthening capacities of governments both human and institutional to enable them plan and implement strategies for the achievement of MDGS. Such strategies would include how to create and operate partnerships with Civil Society and Private Sector organizations in the pursuit of the MDGs.

From the foregoing premise, therefore, it is evident that leadership occurs when one is able to communicate his vision to another party, influences him to such an extent that he sees from the former's perspective and, voluntarily, follows his path. It is very clear that there are different concepts of leadership.

But the issue is not the problem of concepts. The real issue is the style of leadership. This is because it is the leadership style that affects and makes the difference in the lives of the people, in the institutions/organizations and, in the annals of history. Leadership involves communication, influence process, support and motivation. If a leader is able to craft his vision, defines his mission and goals without any element of ambiguities, communicates same to his subordinates, influences them to a dynamic situation, he has done it. The difference is made through communication and influence process towards the attainment of organizational purposes. When people see leadership qualities being demonstrated, they have no option than to respond in consonance with the objectives to be achieved.

References

- Avolio, B. J., Sosik, J. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). "Leadership models, methods, and applications". In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology*, Vol. 12. (pp. 277–307): John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Cole G.A (2002), "Personnel and Human Resource Management", London, Continuum 2002.
- Efere, J. B. (2005). *Organizational Behavior: Behavior 1: Essential Theories of Motivation and Leadership*. Armonk: M.E. Sharpe.
- Egbuji, J.O. [2007], *Leadership Styles and Dynamics: A Holistic Approach*, Nigeria: Babcock Journal Of Management and Social Science, Volume 5, No.2
- Ferrel H (2001), Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective, Sixth Edition (CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group, NW, 2001)*
- Fiedler, F. E. (2004). "A theory of leadership effectiveness". McGraw-Hill: Harper and Row Publishers Inc..
- International Network on Conflict and Fragility (INCAF) OECD: "Accelerating Progress towards the MDGs in Countries affected by poor Governance, Conflict, Armed Violence and Insecurity" (draft 2 April 2010)*
- John-Mary M. K (2010) "Public Administration and the Millennium Development Goals: Leadership and Policy imperatives" Presentation made During the UNDESA / IAS Discussion Panel on the Role of Public Administration in the Achievement of the Millennium Development Goals, during the IAS/IASIA Congress (Bali, 12th July 2010)
- Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B. (2008). Leadership and the Fate of Organizations. American Psychologist, 63(2), 96.*
- Kagame (2010)"Role of Leadership in Promoting Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment." Kigali.

Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (2002). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M. and Barry Z. P (1998) "Credibility: How Leaders Gain and Lose It, Why People Demand It". Jossey-Bass., Publishers, 350 Samsome St., San Francisco, CA 94104.

Kreitner, R. (2007). *Management* (10th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

LEAD, Leadership for Sustainable Development [CD pack]

Leonard. J, Kanni. W, and Rati T. (2006) "Leadership for human development" United Nations Development Programme

Likert, R (1967). *The Human Organisation*. McGraw Hill.

Lussier, R. N. (2004). *Human Relations in Organisations: Applications and Skill-Building* (Paperback). Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Newstrom, J. N. (2011). *Organizational behavior: Human behavior at work* (13th ed). New York: McGraw Hill Companies.

Ogbonnia, SKC. (2007). Political Parties and Effective Leadership: A contingency Approach

Paul Kagame President of the Republic of Rwanda speaking at the International Conference on the "Role of Leadership in Promoting Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment." On 17th May 2010.

Perspectives in Health - The magazine of the Pan American Health Organization Volume 9, Number 2, 2004

Schein E. (1993), *Organisational psychology*. Eaglewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall Inc.

Scott, Foresman, Goble, F., [2008] *Excellence in Leadership*., New York, American Management Association.

Senge, P. M (1993). *The Fifth Discipline and "learning organisations*. Gardners Books.

Storey, J. (1995). (ed) *Human resource management: A William G. (1989) "Team Building: A Microcosm of the Past, Present, and Future of O.D."* Academy of Management OD Newsletter. Winter.

Vecchio, R. P. (2006). *Organizational behavior: Core concept* (6th ed.). Canada: South-Western.

Williams W Jr (2005) "On Becoming a Leader", Addison Wesley, New York, 2005

Yalokwu, P. O. (2006). *Fundamentals of management* (2nd ed.). Ikorodu: African Center for Management and Education.

Developing a Regional Partnership for Economic Development in the ECOWAS Sub Region through Freight Forwarding Activities.

By

**Capt William Amanhyia, PhD
Regional Maritime University**

Abstract

Development of transport infrastructure between nations is one of the main tools for economic development which has been identified as one of the solutions to achieving the Millennium Challenge Goals. Throughout history the movement of goods has underpinned the economy of every nation. This is because such movement serves to relocate goods to centers of demand, enhancing their value in the process through trade and creating wealth which is needed to run an economy. Today's trade can therefore not be successful without solving the many problems and issues connected with transportation, as transportation serves as a major backbone to trade. Consequently, central to any regional partnership effort aimed at boosting ECOWAS intra-regional trade required for economic development must be free, unhindered and uninterrupted flow of goods across borders. The importance of freight forwarding activities in this respect cannot be overemphasized because of the essential role freight forwarders as architects of transport, play in international trade through their proactive involvement in enhancing the management of the various activities of transportation, customs clearing, documentation, third party payments and other elements generally concerned with supply chains. To help achieve the Millennium Challenge Goals therefore, there is the need for a regional freight forwarding network which will enable the collective knowledge and skills of the network to be leveraged through coordination, to ensure the effective application of this collective intellectual capital towards supporting ECOWAS intra/international trade, and to facilitate harmonization of regional transport policies and regulatory environment.

Introduction

Although most African countries have been off-track on most of the Millennium Challenge Goals, Africa has since the mid-1990s, arguably been making the greatest progress towards the goals, a progress that has been attributed to economic growth and improved service delivery (Shanta, 2010). Since then, a major effort for achieving the Millennium Challenge Goals in Africa, has been economic development through implementation of sound economic policies.

The Role of Transportation in Economic Development

Throughout history the movement of goods has underpinned the economy of every nation. This is because such movement or transportation serves to relocate goods to centers of demand, enhancing their value in the process through trade, and creating wealth which is needed to run an economy. Development of transport infrastructure between nations, though a small cog in the wheel that runs a country's

economy, is thus one of the main tools for economic development. Consequently trade can not be successful without solving the many issues associated with transportation as transportation serves as its backbone. (Ibragimov .2008)

In the ECOWAS sub region, development and management of national economic systems such as transport corridors, customs bodies, formation of tariff policy and others have resulted in problems connected with support and development of transport infrastructure. These have led generally to a jump in transport costs and longer transport processes. Some of the problems identified are harmonized integration into the global transportation system and attraction of new technologies that allow easy acceptance and handling of goods flow across national borders. Solving these problems, ECOWAS states have come to a conclusion that transport and communication should serve as key elements in all regional economic recovery programmes and that it is necessary to combine the efforts on promotion of regional trade with further integration to the global economy

The freight forwarder has often been called the architect of transport because of the essential role freight forwarders play in international trade through their proactive involvement in enhancing the management of the various activities of transportation, customs clearing, documentation, third party payments and other elements generally concerned with supply chains. There is therefore a need now for freight forwarders within the region to be used as building blocs to facilitate the developing of a Partnership for Regional Economic Development. This will enable leveraging of the collective knowledge and skills of the network through coordination, to ensure the effective application of this collective intellectual capital towards supporting ECOWAS intra and international trade, and to facilitate harmonization of regional transport policies and regulatory environment.

The concept of Bi-lateral arrangements in network settings is not new but has historically been used to circumvent issues when international agreements particularly in matters pertaining to trade are proving difficult to come by. In several instances organizations from the concerned parties meet together, hammer out agreements to their mutual satisfaction and then present them to their respective governments for approval and official backing. Such a concept has long been used in the maritime sector which has traditionally been characterized by the presence of conferences, alliances and other institutional arrangements designed to manage and control competition in the industry. Because of the dynamic nature of the logistics industry these setups have always included provisions for meeting regularly to analyze market conditions and to assess the impacts of any new developments on operations. This ensures that any cooperation arrangement keeps pace with the changing requirements of industry A very good example of the working of such arrangements has been the gradual movement away from the traditional liner conferences towards global operation alliances, an operational change that has now effectively changed the global competition landscape in liner shipping and has led to improved economic performance of the countries they serve.

In the International Freight Forwarding business, the introduction of Networks apart from managing potential competition also create the opportunity for resources of individuals in a network to be pooled, much like the cargo pooling arrangement available under the old liner conference system. Although freight networks are by nature voluntary cooperation arrangements they are now gradually becoming the standard way of doing freight forwarding business internationally. The movement of freight within the

sub region is an area where this concept could be used to enable pooling of the collective intellectual capital of the regional freight forwarders to enhance economic development of member states.

Today there are several freight forwarders within the region who are all working in diverse ways to solve freight forwarding problems at the international and national levels. However, at this stage in the context of fast globalization growth, freight forwarding companies in the region face several problems because of lack of congruent goals that can serve as cohesive factors. Among these is the fact that there are only two National Freight Forwarding Associations in the region that can effectively work towards addressing national and international issues. There is one association in Ghana and the other in Nigeria and there is not much interaction between them. Without a Regional Association there is no body to effectively address regional freight movement issues. The European Union has CLECAT – The European Association for Forwarding, Transport, Logistics and Customs Services, ALACAT in Latin America and TRASECA-Transport Corridor Europe – Caucasus – Asia-, the regional association for countries in the former Commonwealth of Independent States. These all work to solve freight movement issues in their respective regions. It is worth mentioning that after the disintegration of the Soviet Union the first step taken by the European Union to help the new Commonwealth of Independent States revive their shattered economy was technical aid to improve intra regional flow of goods. The result was the set up of TRASECA, the latest Regional Freight Forwarding Network. The improved economic performance of this region has been attributed to the improved intra regional flow of trade as a result of activities of the regional freight forwarding network. It is also worth mentioning that a similar concept proposed to the ECOWAS Secretariat for the setting up of a Regional Freight Network has not received any significant attention mainly because of the freight forwarding profession's lack of credibility in the eyes of government authorities and other commercial groups. Africa's persistent reluctance and failure to accept and adopt new logistics concepts has been responsible for the high transportation costs that has impacted detrimentally on our economy, examples being our late adoption of Containerization and Multimodal transportation.

Benefits of a Regional Freight Forwarders Network

A Regional Freight Forwarders Network will have the potential to provide guidelines for problem solving, serve as a consulting body for distributing information on current regional legislation and transport news and help create an integrated regional transport and freight forwarding market. It will also help to develop recommendations to responsible authorities that will help decrease obstacles to intra regional cargo movement and create equal conditions to market access.

One of the problems inherent in the implementation of international agreements is the sheer number of interests that must be taken care of. ECOWAS efforts at regional integration has therefore been plagued by problems such as sector self interests. For example despite the success of the efforts of the ECOWAS commission in the facilitation of intra-regional freight movements, the situation appears to be far different in practice. Merchants in the region find that their operations region wise are faced with many obstacles outside the domicile country because of entrenched institutional interests disregarding agreed provisions. A regional network has the potential to contribute to unification and facilitation of documents handling intra regionally and the creation of common conditions for business in transport, freight forwarding and logistic services as well as general rules on these services. This is usually accomplished through the use of

internationally acceptable FIATA documents and other documents used in cargo movement, documents which can only be issued by National Freight Forwarder Associations.

A Regional Freight Network presents the potential for operational experience exchange between freight forwarding associations and members that can facilitate the formation of common initiatives and their implementation to protect transport business. This will enable members to share and address problems with physical movement of consignments (Transport and Transit) with particular reference to regional differences in the transport sector. It will also enable identification of problems with Import and Export Procedures and Requirements, including Customs and Border Crossing, problems with reference to customs irregularities, valuation and documentation requirements and procedures.

Such a Network will provide a direct interface between practical level operators such as freight forwarders, transport and warehouse operators from the different parts of the region and other stakeholder organizations like the Shippers Councils, insurance companies and National chambers of commerce and create possible synergies that could result from working together. This will greatly help address problems with Payments, Insurance and other Financial requirements which affect Cross-Border Movement of Goods in intra regional commerce.

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Human Resource Development issues in the Freight Forwarding Sector.

Among the four resources used in achieving corporate objectives - Physical, Capital, Information and Human, it takes the latter to utilize the other 3 effectively to achieve objectives. If Freight forwarders are to become catalysts for developing a Regional Partnership for Economic Development through improved market access then it is important for all to gain awareness of the important role played by the freight forwarders in intra-regional and international trade. Because successful implementation of policies, practices and plans in any type of activity depends ultimately on investment in the development of human capital, education and training for the freight forwarding profession ought to be given due attention within the region..

Unfortunately our traditional mainstream tertiary institutions have failed to provide the needed professional training and education that will enable the region's freight forwarders to break out of environments of inappropriate practices that inhibit entrepreneurial initiative as well as erosion of responsibility and self-reliance at all levels. Up till now training in this important sector has largely been ignored by the mainstream tertiary institutions. This presentation will therefore use this platform to send a strong signal to the regional academic community to begin consideration to include knowledge acquisition needs of this vital sector in their curriculum.

Conclusion

In concluding I would like to state that in this our modern society, human capital has become important because the world economy has been transformed into a knowledge economy. In such an environment academic research becomes a critical success factor because it is used to generate knowledge that is tapped to benefit society. However to carry out relevant research the academic community needs to invest in human capital as well as infrastructure. The Freight Forwarding sector is a new industry that requires creation of new knowledge and that requires investment in new infrastructure. As members of the academic community it is our duty to provide this knowledge. This is therefore the challenge we face as we deliberate on “Developing a Regional Partnership for Economic Development in the ECOWAS Sub Region through Freight Forwarding Activities”. The saying goes that knowledge is power which means as members of the academic community we have the power to ensure the freight forwarding sector becomes the engine of growth for our region’s economy through vigorous research and publications.. For once let us give lie to the old adage “THAT IF YOU WANT TO HIDE SOMETHING FROM THE BLACKMAN KEEP IT IN A BOOK.”

References

Shantayanan D.(2010) Africa and the Millennium Development Goals, Retrieved 14th June 2011 from <https://blogs.worldbank.org/africacan/team/shanta>

Ibragimov. R, (2008), Role of cooperation between national freight forwarding associations and carriers in promotion of regional trade. Paper presented at the FIATA regional meeting, 1st field meeting Region Europe, International Freight Forwarders day Retrieved 14th June 2011 from <http://www.aare.edu.au/96pap/bochs96018.txt>