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Submission of Articles Guidelines

- Papers should not be more than 18 pages and should be accompanied with an abstract of not more than 250 words.
- The following referencing styles are allowed-APA, MLA and Chicago.
- Articles should be typed in Times New Romans, font size 12 and 1.5 line spacing.

Note: Opinions expressed in the journal are not of the University Press and Editorial Team but are sure that of the authors.

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BUILDING AN INCLUSIVE WORK ENVIRONMENT AND AN ADAPTABLE WORKFORCE AMONG SELECTED ACADEMIC STAFF OF PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

One of the profound challenges bedeviling the effective and efficient activities of modern organisations is gross inequality perceived among employees; which is perceived through the wide gap between young academia and their old counterparts. The dominance of the older ones in the academia makes it more worrisome and dictates caution in the aspect of ensuring adaptability of upcoming generation of lecturers. For this reason, this study examined the pertinence of building an inclusive work environment for the purpose of fostering an adaptable work environment among academic staff of selected private universities in Lagos State, Nigeria. The study was hinged on the Social Identity Theory and Similarity/Attraction Theory. Population for the study from three selected private Universities was eight hundred and eighty six (886) with a sample size of four hundred and ninety two (492) which was obtained using the probability proportional to size measure, at 95% confidence level and 0.5% rate of error. Findings from the study revealed that cultural diversity significantly affects adaptive performance and in the same manner, age diversity affects task performance. The study concluded that inclusion is a fulcrum of development as it allows for exchange of ideas and facilitates comprehensive understanding of people's opinions to work. Therefore, management of the selected institutions should develop supporting structures to facilitate diversity management and use the melting pot concept to strengthen relationships among academic staff.

Key words: Diversity management, Age diversity, Cultural diversity, Inclusion, Adaptive Performance, Task performance

1. Introduction

Employees are the lifeblood of every organisation; and as such their performance contributes significantly and immensely to the growth and otherwise of the organisation. Because the advent of globalisation characterised by the presence of information, communication and technology have made it possible for global economies to bring people closer from all over the globe. As a result of this, educational institutions are now embarking on seeking new avenues in better serving their constituents. This means, ability of organisations to be able to attract and retain workers based on merit across borders. In recent times, focus and attention have drifted from discussions hinged on managing diversity to the process of leveraging on diversity via the usage of practices aimed at making management takes steps towards adopting policies bordering on capitalising on diversity as a tool for attaining optimal performance (Miller & Katz, 2022). According to Daniel (2021) initiative in diversity are being adopted on a daily basis and over 85% of management no longer viewed diversity as a choice but a crucial mechanism necessary for strengthening business operations; all of which are imperative and crucial to employees performance.

The importance of diversity in the workplace became evident in few organisations in Nigeria but overtime, discourse and discussions on diversity management transcend beyond the surface and incorporated the scope of inclusion and equity (Oswick & Noon, 2015; Biggs (2017). This transition became necessary due to the fact that in previous time, the focus of diversity is premised on employees features and characteristics; hence, a need for a stronger construct which birthed the concept of inclusion and equity which on the contrary examines the behaviour of the organisations in the area of its culture, climate and queries if employees coming from different walks of life and background are fully accepted and integrated and rewarded equally by management. From the foregoing, the concept of inclusion and equity in explaining diversity helps in fostering an environment of work where the existence of multi-culturalism exists. Analysing diversity front the viewpoint of inclusion and equity on employees' performance will assist in understanding the nuances guiding the operationalisaton of diversity as well as its attendant responses to issues of equity and inclusion in the workplace (Oswick & Noon, 2015).

The practice of diversity, equity and inclusion will serve as testaments for many organisations as outstanding gestures which are valid enough to ease the pressure of turnover intentions among employees and curbing work alienation among employees as everyone present in the organisation is given same preference in the aspect of setting performance metrics, and standards, rewards and compensations. For organisations to really practice what they preach, equity and inclusion remains potent features that must be well-embedded in the policy of their work system as this will place every employee on the same parameters of measurement; and through this, creating truly diverse environment of work becomes fascinating and summarise practicable guides as towards appropriate allocation of resources (Daniel, 2021). Diversity gives a clear description of the variation range in human which thus reflects the uniqueness of every employee. Diversity does not only investigate individuals' diverse personality trait alone; it also examines what composed a group, team, and organisations. The idea and concept of diversity is associative in nature and it manifests in the revelation of organisations, teams and groups, which are usually, measured using collective whole as basis for evaluation. Based on the above arguments and statements, this study investigated the effects of building an inclusive work environment and adaptable workforce in selected Universities in Lagos State, Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem

There is a commonality and sameness between diversity, inclusion and equity when looking at it from the lens of the culture which breeds high level of productivity. These concepts also represents terms which are found to be associated with assisting organisations become highly successful and competitive in the global market in the 21st century. Just as organisations are saddled with the responsibilities of offering high-quality services to clients and customers; adequate and appropriate operations in this regard will not only place such organisation at the heart of its subscribers; it will also make it relevant and become more globally competitive through the provision of superior products and the promotion of diverse, equitable and inclusive working cultures within the organisation. Just as there has been tremendous improvement and advancement in technology; this has increased prominence among global economies which have necessitated organisations to investing and creating better means of serving customers by providing new statement in the aspect of recruitment and retention of most suitable, best and most qualified employees and managers with high sophisticate skills for embracing change and are virile enough in drawing employees with diverse skills; all of which will help examine and balancing the culture of the organisation in making necessary and up-to-date changes (Gagnon, Paquet, Courcy, & Parker, 2019).

In the submission of Hawkins (2014) from his study which relates to the characteristics and features of a highly effective workforce, revealed that there is a huge dichotomy between a team and a high-performing team; the gap in this regard in what Hawkins referred to as equity which he claimed was primarily centered on the level of inclusion given to employees by the management of any given organisation. Since a team constitutes the collection of people with commitment to a common objective and purpose, and who have skills which are complementary in nature, and have performance scorecards which serves as metrics and indices by which they hold themselves mutually accountable on. Thus, making a team very high in performance requires managerial extraordinary efforts for employees who composed a team to perform extremely well and produce results that are well beyond expectations. Based on the foregoing arguments, this study examined the effect of building an inclusive work environment and adaptable workforce in selected universities in Lagos State, Nigeria from the lens of assessing the effect of cultural diversity on adaptive performance and examining the relationship between age diversity and task performance.

Objectives of the Study

The overall objective of this study was to examine building an inclusive work environment on an adaptable workforce in selected universities in Lagos State, Nigeria. The specific objectives were to:

i. assess the effect of cultural diversity on adaptive performance; and
ii. examine the relationship between age diversity and task performance.

Statement of Hypotheses

$H0_1$: Cultural diversity does not have any significant effect on adaptive performance.

$H0_2$: There is no significant relationship between age diversity and task performance.

Structure of the Paper

The paper is structured as follows, the first phase featured the introduction where components like statement of the problem, objectives of the study and hypotheses of the study reflected. The second phase of the paper had the literature review where the constructs under review were thoroughly explained from the lens of various scholars. The third section featured the methodological aspect of the paper. The fourth phase had the results and discussion of findings and the final phase of the paper gave conclusion and recommended plausible solution on the identified challenges in the paper.

2. Literature Review

Employee Inclusion

Employee inclusion as a concept is far above and transcends the realm of diversity. Diversity which simply accounts for the act and process of valuing; but inclusion is a process for harnessing diversity for effective innovation, well-being and effectiveness; meaning that, inclusion is a bedrock for ensuring and enhancing workplace effectiveness Guillaume, Dawson, Priola, Sacramento, Woods, Higson, &.West, (2019). Multiple channels exist in expounding diversity among a workforce and certain elements have been provided by the literature, such as incorporation of committee on the issues of diversity, having a multicultural workgroup, advocacy group, having language classes, training on intercultural programmes and a constant arrangement of workshop in preaching and strengthening diversity.

Training, development of staff, and formal recruitment during training sessions can as well help in instilling and building the ability required in dealing with diversity (Aytemiz 2016). Organisations that have succeeded in diversity management are of the mind-set that diversity is crucial and germane to their success and competitiveness. According to the submission of some authors like Ely and Thomas, (2015) postulated that attracting a larger client base and boosting their organisation's profitability is a function of huge devotion in the increment of diversity by both management and entrepreneurs that are interested in favourably competing at the global markets (Verheij, Groeneveld & Kuyper, 2017).

Employee Inclusion in the Workplace

Examining inclusion from the workplace can be investigated from the framework of pluralism which provides an atmosphere for respecting all cultures and their cultural orientations among employees of every workplace (Mor Barak & Daya, 2018) and allows group of different entities to see from the same view and support each other in an effort towards being fully engaged at all organisational levels; as by playing complementary roles and serving as support system for one another (Shore, Cleveland, & Sanchez, 2018). Explaining inclusion can be established from two angles and these are the belongingness component of inclusion in a work group which connotes employees' perceptions and opinions which supports a relationship that is centered on individual care and supportive relationships which are formed on the basis of maintaining their work group members and the process involved in the job (Shore, Cleveland, & Sanchez, 2018).

In discussing further on the term "belonginess" as the first element of inclusion, two concepts have been adjudged to having some degree of sameness and these are team/ organisational identification. According to Ashforth and Mael, (2015), organisational identification implies a form of oneness perceived within an organisation and the level of experience of successes and otherwise of that organisation as one's own. Organisational identification can be described as a form of formal and social identity in which individuals pride themselves in the organisation in terms of membership in a particular group, or forum in organisation. Identification is also closely linked with work group and teams whose social identities changes as group aspects are incorporated and ingrained into their self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 2016).

Diversity Management

Diversity management has become a crucial and a significant point of illustration; it is also a very vital topic in discussing what the 2st century is composed of. Management of diverse workforce and group has continuously gained prominent and created interest among both academics and practitioners in the human resource management parlance for more than four decades. But in recent times, interest and focus has drifted from diversity management which over the years implies solving challenges associated and linked with the problems and challenges or difference of individual to inclusion which is the process of promoting and integrating value inherent in diversity (Nishii, 2019). Inclusion creates an appeal for a positive stance whose focus is about the appreciating and valuing individual differences (Ferdman & Deane, 2017), and the group being targeted in this regard is the individuals irrespective of their clan or status.

Diversity as a concept has been categorised onto three folds which are primary, secondary and tertiary diversity. Primary diversity includes constructs such as age, race with variable amount of impact such as language. The profound characteristics inherent in the race, age, ethnicity, gender and disability are among the dimensions of primary compositions. Constructs such as sexual preference, ethnicity, community, status of an economic, family status, experience(s) on the job, political orientation, style of thought/thinking, preference on sexuality and so on all of which represents the secondary dimensions of diversity management. The final dimension known as the tertiary dimension comprised of elements such as Beliefs, assumptions, and perceptions are among the tertiary dimensions (Coats, Goodwin & Bangs, (2018).

Age Diversity

Age group of employees reflects the reason for their behaving differently in a working relationship (Bal & Smit, 2012). The demographic changes have increased the age diversity in the working class, and it is difficult to answer whether age diversity is a positive or negative sign (Ries et al., 2013). Wegge et al. (2012) in their investigation concluded that mixed-age teams have advantages and disadvantages as well. Diversity means the peaceful co-existence between and among people from numerous social, cultural, and racial inclinations working in an organisation (Agbim, 2019). Diversity also means the differences between individuals on their attributes (Carstens & De Kock, 2017).

The workforce diversity creates many benefits as well as challenges because diversity increases the work performance contradictions because of human inconsistency issues (Case, Henkens, Schippers, & Wang, 2015). There are different dimensions of diversity though; age, competition, gender, and national source are often considered to be evaluated. However, this study operationalized the age diversification (old and young employees) in the meanings of diversity. Age diversity reflects the variations among an organization's groups concerning age and can be hypothesized as inconsistencies or disparities based on different characteristics (Hausknecht, Hiller & Vance, 2018). Many recent studies explicitly light on age as a source of diverse processes and their effects on the organisation (Richard, Devinney, Yip & Johnson, (2019).

Cultural Diversity

This refers to the reality of co-existing of systems such as arts, beliefs, customs, morals, diverse knowledge, abilities, religions, languages, genders, ethnicities, races, disabilities, sexual orientation and so forth with an open-ended term. It also typifies the way and manner by which people react or respond to this reality by choosing to co-exist and live together with this reality. It is identified that diversity is a complex concept (Nkomo & Taylor, 2019) which might be difficult to grasp because of its wide definitions. In order to gain more structure to this concept the authors are further going to view diversity through Loden and Rosener's (2018) division of the concept into two categories; primary dimensions and secondary dimensions.

They explain the primary dimensions as the unchangeable differences that are inborn and have an important impact on our development in early socialization as well as for our ongoing life (Loden & Rosener, 2018). These would include age, gender, ethnicity, physical features, race and sexual orientation. The secondary dimensions are explained as things that can be changed, such as education, geographic location, income, marital status and religious beliefs. These authors emphasised that these two dimensions are both very important to how people relate to others and see the world (Loden & Rosener, 2018).

The concept of cultural diversity also generate conflicts in terms of misunderstanding, miscommunication which brings about increased tension and causes lack of cohesion; thus, result into poor commitment; all of which have negative effects on the performance of an organization (Adler and Gundersen, 2018). Hence how organisations perceive the advantages and disadvantages of cultural diversity in their day to day operation differs. Similarly the views on cultural diversity and effective management of an organisation's workforce are dispersed and make it difficult to find a common accepted model of cultural diversity management (Seymen, 2016).

Employee Performance

Employees' performance implies the level and degree of accomplishment of tasks embedded in their job descriptions (Patiraja and Bhau, 2017). Employee performance also referred to the relevant activities of a job which is anticipated from an employee in order to sufficiently examine how well such activities have been executed (Calvin, 2018). In the opinion of Ngozi and Obianju (2015), they bared that employees performance implies the decomposed usage of employees which is measured in the area of their achievement, commitment, meeting deadlines, quality of delivery, responsibility and operational efficiency, attitude to work (positive or negative) and excellent pattern of work. Shahzadi and Javed (2014) also posited that employees' performance involves the quantity, quality of output, work pattern and presence, facilitative mode, nature, usefulness and timely delivery.

Another definition provided by Armstrong (2009), employee performance connotes a form of interaction which exists between building capacity and motivation which is promoted through financial and non-financial rewards and conscious choices. Razak and Ramlan, (2018) described employees performance as the improvement on efficiency towards the pattern of delivery of a said task in abide to achieving organisational objectives. Anyango (2017) affirmed that employee performance is the outcome of action pattern which is carried out to satisfying a set of objectives which are based on certain standards in an organisation; this definition viewed employee performance as rational form of behaviour which consists of employees actions that observable in terms of mental capacity and delivery and directly related to the attainment of goals and objectives. In complementing the above submissions, Siahaan, Gultom, Lumbanraja, (2016), postulated that employee performance as a concept is multi-dimensional and covers all aspects of organisation's activities which leads to its success; activities in this regard ranges from work effectiveness, operational efficiency, production quality, quality of work life innovativeness and degree of profitability.

Task performance

Task performance can be accentuated to imply the effectiveness in which a job serves as an activities that are performed with the aim of contributing to the organisation's overall technical goals either comprehensively or by implementing a part of its technological operations and procedures, or by providing it indirectly with materials which are needed or necessary for services (Pradhan & Jena, 2020). Task performance can be viewed to infer a form of understanding that exists under a contractual employment between the employee and management (employer) towards performing an assigned task (Pravin, 2019). Leung, (2021) defined task performance as the fulfillment of an employee's efficiency in properly discharging of his/her duties and responsibilities of the relevant role ingrained in the description. Furthermore, task performance explains the efficiently and effectiveness of the employees while fulfilling responsibilities for which they are employed for. Task performance signifies the direct and indirect contribution of the employees to all organisational activities including the production process of such organisation. Analytical inference from the perspective of the employees, task performance refers connotes expected, rewarded and evaluated actions (Leung, 2021).

Adaptive Performance

There has been no consensus on the explanations of adaptive performance. Asides being tagged performance adaptation which connotes an adaptive exercise. Scholars such as Jundt, Shoss and Huang, (2019) referred to adaptive performance as behaviour, while others described it as a form of ability and willingness to adapt. According to Heinze and Heinze, (2020) adaptive performance has been comprehensively described as employees' individual and groups' abilities in changing the behaviours and cognitive scope in adapting to changing surroundings or environments of work while Dierdorff and Jensen, (2018) viewed adaptive performance as the modification of behaviour towards meeting the demand of new events and situations of a changing environment.

Gordon *et al* (2018) explained that adaptive performance is always aimed at the maintenance of performance levels while minimising performance decrease resulting from environmental changes. These authors argued further that strengthening adaptive performance requires both changes at interpersonal and organisational levels in achieving set objectives. Adaptive performance from the organisational perspective implies the capabilities of the organisations to adapt to a rapidly changing environment and situations in the area of problem solving arising from uncertainties, learning and incorporating of new tasks, process and procedures as well as physical, cultural and interpersonal adaptability. Adaptive performance has been distinguished from task proficiency and proactivity (Griffin, Parker & Mason, 2019), with the former describing behaviours that are not formalised nor embedded within a social context, and the latter with anticipatory, self-directed behaviours intended to achieving organisational desired outcomes.

Cultural Diversity and Adaptive Performance

Culture is referred to as the total way of life of a people in a given geographical scope. Likewise in the organisation, the organisational culture stems from the model of operation and behavior of the people who make up the structure of that organisation. The sum total of religious, ethnic, racial, linguistic, gender, age and other socioeconomic factors and values that shape an individual are known as cultural background. In other words, cultural background can implies those features of culture that are evident and can be observed in an individual or a group of people (Adler & Gundersen, 2018). Cultural diversity as a component of diversity has received significant recognition both globally and locally in this contemporary moment and it has gained traction in majority of organisational settings. The diverse nature of the organisation has brought about interculturalism by means of interactions that evolve within the organisation structure which undermines the influence of individual interest in being an acquaintance with another person who is from another different cultural background. Given this situation, it becomes significant daily interact with different people from diverse background at work, social or/and educational institutions (Seymen, 2016).

Conceptualising cultural diversity as a 'melting pot' is gradually fading away and multiculturalism is setting in and dominating the front burner, as it has been associated as an essential part of every organisation and society (Parvis, 2019). This go to enunciate that all organisations are increasingly requiring internationally workforce with different cultural setting who has the ability to manage the cultural diversity that account for major success in the future of the organisation (Stewart, 2017). Irrespective of an organisation capability and strength, the potential opportunities and benefits that could be utilized from different cultural presence in the organisation are high. Globalisation and its expansion and growth requires organisation's capability to be more open and accommodative to a heterogeneous working environment. Organisations that are effective in managing the different cultural background and integrating a heterogeneous cultural measure towards its employees succeed with well-deserved competitive edge than those that do not (Stevens & Ogunji, 2019). Differences in people's values, attitudes, and behaviour that are grounded from diverse culture influence how managerial events are viewed in an organisation (Adler and Gundersen, 2018).

Age Diversity and Task Performance

In recent times, many organisations and their management are not utilizing the talents of their old employees in a judicious manner based on the assumptions and stereotypical claims that they are expensive and are prone to having greater health challenges which can pose additional costs on the organisation. Also, claims are made that these old crop of employees cannot adapt to changing and dynamic environmental conditions, cannot comprehend or cope with newly built technologies, and their performance will be below expectations as compared with their younger counterparts and thy won't yield good return on investments (McGregor and Gray, 2018). Studies by Carstensen and Hartel, (2016) and Mata, Josef, Samanez-Larkin, and Hertwig, (2019) submitted that older people are more risk averse as compared to the younger people and while other scholars view is at variance with this submission and do not conform to this result. Peeters and vanEmmerik, (2018) also bared that due to the difficulty of multi-tasking by older employees due to old age, older employees are most likely to have greater autonomy, control and flexibility on the job and won't a subscriber of tight deadlines (Shultz, Crimmins & Fisher, 2019). Thus they will get easily exhausted, if they are not given organisational or managerial support (Peeters and vanEmmerik, 2018).

Theoretical Framework

Social Identity Theory

Social Identity Theory was postulated by Tajfel, (1978); Tajfel & Turner, (1979); the theory assists in predicting certain intergroup behaviours on the basis of perceived group status differences, the perceived legitimacy and stability of those status differences, and the perceived ability to move from one group to another. The philosophy of this theory is that social groups are used by individuals in defining their diverse identities and such identifications aims at protecting and bolstering self-identity. Establishing group identities revolves around both the process of categorising individual's in-group vis-à-vis and out group and the probability or tendency of viewing one's own group with a positive or subjective bias on the out group.

The outcome of this presents a form of identification with identity based on collective, depersonalised group anchored on positivism (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). This theory from another gives a critical analysis and explanation as to why diversity may have a negative outcome if not well coordinated. The theory suggests that when employees first come into contact with other colleagues, such are categorised as belonging to a particular group which is regarded as the in-group e.g., the same group as them or an out-group meaning that such colleague(s) does not belong to our group (Tajfel, 1974); Tajfel & Turner, 1985).

Similarity/Attraction Theory

This theory posited that people are alike and are also attracted to others with similar, rather than dissimilar, to themselves; it validates the assertion which implies that "birds of a feather," the "flock together." Social scientific research has overtime provided considerable support for the significant role played by similarity and attraction of attitudes. According to Berscheid and Walster (1969); Donn (1971) on a general note, people are majorly attracted to other persons who share semblance and similar attitudes. In addition, the tenets of this theory hold that people with similar attitudes which are important have greater tendency of attracting each other than individuals who share less important attitudes and behaviours.

In addition to individual's inclinations in being attracted to those whose attitudes are very similar. People are also attracted to other persons who share the same characteristics with them in the aspect of conscientiousness, self-esteem, shyness, and optimism. Individuals may associate themselves with others who certainly share homogenous features and personalities with them. Whereas, partners in marital contracts and agreement share large amount of opinions and personalities unlike others who are just pairs randomly assigned (Berscheid & Walster, 1969; Byrne 1971).

Empirical Review

Cultural Diversity and Adaptive Performance

Iheriohanma and Ukachukwu (2018) carried out a study entitled: cultural diversity management strategies and organizational adaptive performance in the food and beverage industries in Lagos State, Nigeria. Their specific objective was to find out employee productivity in work organizations in Lagos State. Four hundred (400) employees from top three companies in the food and beverages industries in Lagos was used as the population of the study and the descriptive survey was employed through a structured questionnaire. Correlation analysis and linear regression served as the statistical tools for the study. Findings presented by the study revealed that a significant nexus was fond between the management of cultural diversity and adaptive style of organizational performance with a statistical output of p value (0.926) which was against the (p<.005). This result reflected that adequate management of cultural diversity can enhance the adaptive nature on organisations in relations to their degree of performance.

Study by Ozoigbo and Chukuezi, (2016) evaluated the effect of cultural diversity and organisational performance through adaptive measures into new environment and trends. The study concludes that cultural diversity speaks to both a test and an open door for business and corporate element. In addition a growing number of progressive organizations are realizing the needs for valuing diversity in the organization, so as to ensure strategic utilization of human resources for the accomplishment of strategic goals. The study recommended that Managers need to communicate more to employees, to give the workers the room to confide in them with their challenges. Managers should also be prepared to change some part of their company techniques when the diversity management techniques adopted are not working effectively but before doing so, the vision for the change must be communicated effectively to the employees. Moreover, managers should adopt some change management principles to guide them on the decision making of the change.

Dike and Dein, (2013) conducted a study on the relationship between divestiture and organizational performance among employees of selected steel industries in Finland. The study objective was to examine the relationship which exists among employees in the selected sector. This study involved a population of one thousand and thirty-five (1035) employees and a sample size of one hundred and twenty six (126) was randomly selected. The study adopted a descriptive research design and the statistical tool was used for data analysis in the study was ANOVA. The result showed that a significant relationship was found between divestiture and organizational adaptive performance with ANOVA outputof (p= 0.85) as against p (0.05) level of significant. The investigation found that divestiture is a factor to use in improving diversity management issues in the organisation, because it helps to eliminate discrimination issues in the organisation.

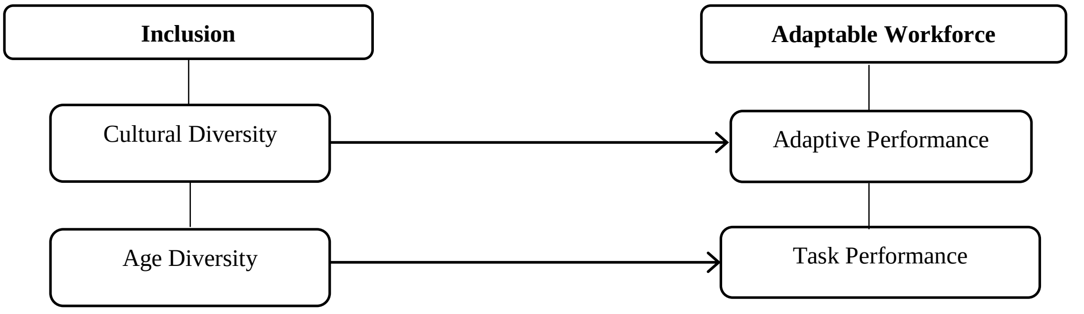
Age Diversity and Task Performance

Study by Darwin (2019) which examined age diversity from the angle of task performance in selected organisations in Los Angeles, finding revealed that diversity in age is vital as provides strategic capabilities which adds value to an organisation and provides greater avenue and flexibility towards competitiveness. It was further stressed that another way in which age diversity affect task performance is that it facilitates creativity of individuals and allows for innovative means for task execution. Findings from this study validated other studies in the eastern part of Asia whose submissions brought to the fore that age diversity associates more with creatively performing tasks.

Study conducted by Rowland and Simons (2017) which through a meta-analysis investigated age diversity and its constituents using different perspectives, knowledge and skills that enhance and how these can be engaged in experimenting the creativity and innovative nature of individuals for organisational performance enhancement among selected Tech Companies in North Cyprus. Findings from this study presented that different age group possess innovative and creative ideas which complement each other and assist in increasing organisational innovativeness; thus, fostering age-heterogeneous organisations.

Felman and Ng (2016) conducted an investigation using bivariate analysis in assessing the relationship between age diversity and task performance with focus on innovations and creativity. Findings from the study revealed that a negative association between age diversity and task performance and age diversity. It was further stressed that other contravening factors such as nature of work, organisation's business strategy as well as type of human resource practices in such that organisation(s).

Conceptual Framework



Source: Researchers' Framework, (2023)

This conceptual framework gave a lucid explanation on the significant effect and the association between workplace inclusion with constructs such as age diversity and cultural diversity on adaptable workforce with constructs such as task performance and adaptive performance; this model demonstrated how these constructs identified affect one another as well as the significant association that exists between and among them. This is with a view to facilitating a comprehensive understanding of workplace inclusion and how much effects it has on workforce adaptability from the viewpoint of organisational performance (Nishii, 2019).

3. Methodology

This section presented a detailed analyses of the approaches upon which the study was carried out; so that future researchers can leverage for strengthening their studies. This section covered areas such as research design, population of the study, sample size, sample size determination, sampling technique, method of data collection, validity and reliability of the study and method of data analysis.

Research Design

For this study, a descriptive survey design was adopted; this design was found appropriate for the study because it assisted the researcher in explicitly explaining the variables under study in a clear and simplistic manner.

Population

The population for this study as obtained from the human resource department of the selected Population for the study from three selected private Universities was Eight Hundred and Eighty Six (886). This study population comprised male, female of the selected institutions; this institutions were selected because they are among the best privates institutions in Lagos State.

Sample Size and Sample Size Determination

From the population for the study which was Eight Hundred and Eighty Six (886) with a sample size of Four Hundred and Ninety Two (492) which was obtained using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination table at 95% confidence level and 0.5% rate of error.

Sampling Techniques

The study employed a multi stage sampling technique which involved non-probability sampling technique (purposive and convenience) and probability sampling technique (stratified and simple random sampling techniques). This method was appropriate because it assisted in obtaining a satisfactory representation of various subgroups within a population. The first stage involved a non-probability sampling technique, purposive sampling technique, was employed in selecting the study areas in Lagos State. The second stage was stratified random sampling technique which this study employed to appropriately ensure adequacy and equal representation of samples from each of the selected firms; in doing this, the population was divided into compatible and homogenous sub-groups, then at the third stage, a simple random sample was employed in selecting respondents for the study.

The main feature of a randomised sampling method is that every employee in the selected organisation has an equal chance of being selected. The simple random system was used in complimenting the stratified sampling for select samples from each level (stratum) and the number of employee selected from a particular level was directly proportional to the stratum's share of the total population. The combination of the methods significantly assisted the researcher to amplify statistical representation; also, to ensure data adequacy for the purpose of analyses of the various sub populations or strata; and finally, it enabled the usage of different research methods and procedures for different strata.

Method of Data Collection

Primary data for this study were obtained through a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided and split up into two sections; while section one sought for the biographical information of the respondents such as age, sex, etc. the second section was designed based on the objectives of the study.

Validity of Research Instrument

Validity connotes the extent and length at which an instrument captures and measures its intended purpose; data must not only show reliability; it ought to be accurate, correct and precise. That is, the instrument to be used must be in tandem with the definition of research; which states that if the items or statements of an instrument are valid, then there is high degree of probability that it is also reliable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Validity of the questionnaire for this study was tested using construct, face and content validity.

Reliability of Research Instrument

Data was obtained via a structured questionnaire by the researchers and was validated by the experts from two selected Universities in Ogun State. The reliability of the questionnaire was determined using the analysis of a pilot study conducted among 60 employees from two pharmaceutical firms which are May & Baker and Topway Pharmaceuticals situated in Ogun State, Nigeria. It was ensured that the reliability test result yielded nothing less than 0.70 co-efficient.

Method of Data Analysis

Data obtained were analysed at both descriptive and inferential level of statistics by engaging the frequency distribution and simple percentage with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26.0. In testing the two stated hypotheses statements for the study, correlation and regression analyses were employed as statistical tools respectively.

Results

Hypothesis One

$H0_1$: Cultural diversity does not have any significant effect on adaptive performance

Table 1: Regression Analysis on the effect of Cultural diversity on adaptive performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.925[a]	.931	.931	.256

a. **Predictors**: (Constant), Cultural Diversity

Table 2: ANOVA of Regression Analysis on Cultural diversity does not have any significant effect on adaptive performance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	415.906	1	415.906	6367.550	.000[b]
	Residual	21.358	327	.065		
	Total	437.264	328			

a. **Dependent Variable**: Adaptive Performance

b. **Predictors**: (Constant), Cultural Diversity

Table 3: Coefficients of Regression Analysis on the effect of Cultural diversity on adaptive performance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.053	.027		1.958	.051
	Cultural Diversity	1.009	.013	.975	79.797	.000

a. **Dependent Variable**: Adaptive Performance

The above tables on regression analysis presented the test of hypothesis investigating the effect of cultural diversity on adaptive performance. The table revealed that there is a high level of fitness at R-value of 0.925a, R^2 of 0.931, and an F-value of 6367.550. The R^2 of 0.931 connotes that about 93.1% of the variation of cultural diversity on adaptive performance while 6.9% remains unexplained by the regression model.

Also, the R-value of 0.925a in the table implied that there exists a significant connection between cultural diversity and adaptive performance. This also helps in authenticating the correlation results of the stated hypothesis. So, since the F-sig. (p-value) of .000 is less than ɑ (0.5), it denotes that cultural diversity positively affect adaptive performance. Therefore, the null hypothesis which previously stated that Cultural diversity does not have any significant effect on adaptive was hereby rejected, while the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Thus, cultural diversity significantly affects adaptive performance.

Hypothesis Two

$H0_2$: There is no significant relationship between age diversity and task performance.

Table 4: Results of Bi-Linear Correlations analysis on the relationship between age and task performance.

		Age Diversity	**Task Performance**
Age Diversity	Pearson Correlation	1	.812**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	84	84
Task Performance	Pearson Correlation	.812**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	84	84

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

The above correlation table reflected that there exists a positive and significant relationship between Age Diversity and task performance with (r^2 = 0.812, p-value < 0.05). This implies that a significant relationship exists between age diversity and task performance. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between age diversity and task performance was rejected because results proved that age diversity have significant relationship with task performance.

4. Discussion of Findings

Result from hypothesis one above reflected that cultural diversity has significant effect on adaptive performance. This implies that when an organisation has employees from diverse cultures it allows for creative and innovative ideas to be shared which will promote organisational cohesion and effectiveness. Findings from this study is in alliance with the position of Iheriohanma and Ukachukwu (2018) who investigated cultural diversity as a management strategies towards enhancing organisational adaptive performance in the food and beverage industries. The study unraveled and revealed that that adequate management of cultural diversity can enhance the adaptive nature on organisations in relations to their degree of performance.

In the same manner, the study is in tandem with the submission of Ozoigbo and Chukuezi, (2016) whose study evaluated the effect of cultural diversity and organisational performance through adaptive measures into new environment and trends. The study concluded that cultural diversity speaks to both a test and an open door for business and corporate element. The study presented further that progressive organisations in this modern dispensation understand the importance of diversity in the organisation as an important avenue for ensuring strategic utilisation of human resources in accomplishing strategic goals.

Result from hypothesis two revealed that there is a significant and positive relationship between age diversity and task performance. This means that employees of different ages and generations working together will presents variety of ideas and innovative mechanisms through experience from the older generations and new knowledge from the newer generations to form a synthesis. This finding is in agreement with the study of Felman and Ng (2016) whose finding presented and submitted that age diversity is an architect of new inventions as it brings employees of different age categories together to achieve something new using innovative measures. This finding also conform with the submission of Darwin (2019), whose finding presented that diversity in age is a fulcrum that provides strategic capabilities for adding value to an organisation and provides greater avenue towards competitiveness.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Inclusion is a fulcrum of development as it allows for exchange of ideas and facilitates comprehensive understanding of people's opinions to life and work; thus making an organisation a small community where asides work, there are also avenues for establishing relationships and promotes cohesion amongst employees irrespective of tribe, culture and clan. Age diversity also allows for sharing of ideas because while the newbies have contemporary knowledge, a lot is still required of them to align and blend with what the organisation truly represents and it is on this note that performance can thrive and be effectively evaluated. Since the practice of diversity in any organisation enhances their relationship with and among employees and also affords them a sound and supportive grounds upon which they can become more aware and are able to improve their creativity on all sides. Based on this, recommendations are proffered accordingly.

i. Management of the selected institutions should come up with motivational programmes to give recognition to youngsters in a team to make them succeed; this is because majority of the team leaders in many instances are the older employees and much of the recognition for team success goes to them which might demoralize the upcoming lecturers from being effective in their performance and delivery.

ii. Management of the selected institutions should develop supporting structures for facilitating diversity management and using the concept of the melting pot to enhance and strengthening relationships among employees within academia in a manner that will assist in driving learning and aligning values among different groups and age grades within the institutions.

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NEXUS BETWEEN GREEN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

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Abstract

Green human resource management is crucial for organizations to build an image, develop an ecofriendly workforce, meet social responsibility, and consequently gain an edge over competitors. Organisations finds it difficult to achieve its goals in terms of its culture and how to engage their employee, which brings about this study in examining how the practices of green human resource management could help fill the gap. The broad objective of this study is to evaluate the nexus between green human resource management and environmental sustainability in Polaris Bank, Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria. The research design adopted for this study is descriptive survey research design. This study considered Polaris bank, Ilorin branch. The target population for the study consisted of all employees of Polaris bank, Ilorin branch. This research was conducted using a population size of 87 Staffs. A simple random sampling technique was adopted to select a total of 50 staffs, the data collected with the structured questionnaire was collated and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The result in table 1 revealed that there was a significant contribution of Green Employee Engagement to Environmental Sustainability ($F_{[1, 50]} = 55.767$, $P<0.05$, $R^2=0.0453$) and table 2 revealed that there was a significant contribution of Green Organisational Culture to Environmental Sustainability ($F_{[3,50]} = 51.238$, $P<0.05$, $R^2=0.0473$). It was recommended that government and other business-related organizations should recognize the importance of Green Human Resource Management and incorporate it into their organizational plans and policies to achieve environmental sustainability.

Key words: Environmental Sustainability, Green Employee Engagement, Green Human Resource Management, Green Organisational Culture.

1. Introduction

There is increasing global concern related to environmental sustainability, which has become a top priority in both developed and developing countries (Khan and Noorizwan Muktar, 2020). Firms of all sizes (small, medium, and large) are monitored for this by stakeholders such as customers, potential employees, and governments. Consequently firms are under pressure to adopt, implement, and integrate green practices in their organizational strategy and policies, which should deal with environmental issues and help reduce and control wastage in business operations (Chaudhary, 2021).

Green human resource management (GHRM) has thus been receiving substantial attention in the environmental management literature. GHRM refers to an understanding of the associations between the activities of a firm that influence the natural environment and the formulation, evaluation, execution, and effect of human resource management (Haldorai *et al.*, 2022). GHRM incorporates many traditional practices such as employee engagement, recruitment, rewards, and training to improve an organization's environmental performance. Such environmental/green human resource processes improve efficiency and decrease costs.

GHRM is thus crucial for organizations to build an image, develop an eco-friendly workforce, meet social responsibility, and consequently gain an edge over competitors. It has been argued that GHRM enables organizations to accomplish their goals by developing employees' attitudes, behaviors (Muisyo *et al.*, 2021), and perceptions regarding the attractiveness and prestige of the organization (Guillot-Soulez *et al.*, 2022). Being attractive to potential applicants improves a firm's ability to compete both globally and locally (Umrani *et al.,* 2022); this ability is likely to offer a competitive advantage to the firm as it enlarges its applicant bank, thus enhancing its ability to seek potential applicants (Chaudhary, 2021). Organsational attractivenss is an area of growing interest to academics and practitioners (Younis and Hammad, 2021) given the substantial costs of selecting, training, and retaining applicants given the downward trend in employee length of tenure, requiring constant hiring. At the same time, employees seek meaning in doing their job (Aboramadan, 2022). For instance, they are more likely to work for firms that support sustainable environment and social agendas (Amjad *et al.*, 2021).

Ali F. *et al*. (2020) reported that most employees desire to work in organizations that contribute to society. Knowing that their companies are socially responsible makes employees more happy and productive. Although employees prefer to work in firms that support society, it has been argued that there is a gap in the understanding of how GHRM activities influence environmental sustanability (Umrani *et al.*, 2022). GHRM has managed to attract considerable attention from business entities considering its concern regarding the planned and systemic arrangement of typical human resource management (HRM) practices with the ecological organization's objectives. The vicissitudes of discernment in environmental sustainability which include the legal obligation and pressing stakeholders are found to be affecting the performance of organizations (Ahmad 2015). Therefore, it is safe to say that coordination among different areas of functional and human resources is critical (Alareeni and Hamdan 2020; Haddock-Millar *et al.* 2016).

The purpose of this research was to identify the influence of GHRM practices on environmental sustainability. The structure of the paper is mentioned next. The following section will present the established studies to outline the concept of GHRM and its relationship with organization performance as well as focusing on the concept of GHRM at a subtler level (Sect. 2). Next, the proposed methodology will be presented (Sect. 3) while section four will delineate the analysis. Conclusion and recommendation will be discussed in section 5.

Objectives of the study

The broad objective of this study is to evaluate the Nexus between green human resource management and environmental sustainability in Polaris Bank, Ilorin, Kwara state, Nigeria.

The specific objectives of this study are to;

i. determine the influence of green employee engagement on environmental sustainability in Polaris Bank, Ilorin, Kwara state, Nigeria.

ii. examine the influence green organisational culture on environmental sustainability in Polaris Bank, Ilorin, Kwara state, Nigeria

Research Hypothesis

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between green employee engagement and environmental sustainability in Polaris Bank, Ilorin, Kwara state, Nigeria.

Ho_2: There is no significant relationship between green organisational culture and environmental sustainability.

2. Review of Literature

Concept of Green Human Resource Management

The concept of Human Resource Management was first defined by Bakke (2016) who said that the general type of activity in any function of management is to use resources effectively for an organisational objective. The function which is related to the understanding, maintenance, development, effective employment and integration of the potential in the resource of people I shall call simply the human resources function. However, HRM emerged fully fledged later when the Michigan matching model (Fombrun, 2019) and what (Boxall 2018) calls the Harvard framework developed by Beer (2017) made statements on the HRM concept revealing the need to take HRM beyond just selection and compensation to broader issues that demand more comprehensive and more strategic perspective to an organisation's human resources. The matching model of HRM held that HR systems and the organisation structure should be managed in a way that is congruent with organisational strategy and further explained that there is a human resource cycle that consists of four generic processes or functions that are performed in all organisations; selection, appraisal, rewards and development. The Harvard framework is based on their belief the problems of historical personnel can only be solved when general managers develop a viewpoint of how they wish to see employees involved in and developed by the enterprise and of what HRM policies and practices may achieve those goals. Without either a central philosophy or a strategic vision which can be provided only by general managers HRM is likely to remain a set of independent activities, each guided by its own practice tradition. This called for the need to have a long-term perspective in managing people and consideration of people as potential assets rather than merely a variable cost.

The term Human Resource Management (HRM) is a strategic, integrated and coherent approach to the employment, development and well-being of the people working in organisations. To Boxall , (2017), it is the management of work and people towards desired ends. Som, (2018) described HRM as carefully designed combinations of such practices geared towards improving organisational effectiveness and hence better performance outcomes. fixed list of generally applicable HR practices or systems of practices that define human resource management. The question of how HRM impacts on employee performance has ignited three perspectives. The universalistic perspective (Boxall and Purcell, 2018) projects a bundle of high performance best practices" that should be adopted by organisations to yield employee performance. this implies that business strategies and HRM policies are mutually independent in determining employee performance (Katou and Budwar, 2017) The contingency perspective proposes that in order to be effective, an organisation's HR policies must be consistent with other aspects of the organisation.

Green Employee Engagement

According to Robinson (2006), employee engagement can be achieved through the creation of an organisational environment where positive emotions such as involvement and pride are encouraged, resulting in improved organisational performance, lower employee turnover and better health. Kahn started a qualitative study on the psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement by interviewing summer camp counsellors and staff at an architecture firm about their moments of engagement and disengagement at work. He defined disengagement as the decoupling of the self within the role, involving the individual withdrawing and 5 defending themselves during role performances (May, 2004). Disengaged employees displayed incomplete role performances and were effortless, automatic or robotic (Kahn 1990). May *et al*. (2004) stated that employee engagement included not only cognition, but also the flexible application of emotions and behaviors. Wellins and Concelman (2005) stated that engagement is a mixture of commitment, loyalty, productivity, and ownership. Saks (2006) defined employee engagement as a "different and unique concept" which is composed of knowledge, emotion and behavior.

Green Organisational Culture

Culture is the habitual way of doing things that is passed on from generation to generation within a society. Culture is manifest in the norms, values, beliefs, and certain expectations around which the society is organised. Organisations also have a culture, that is, a way of doing things with which employees are supposed to identify and also reflect in their work habits. This culture is also known as corporate culture.

However, corporate culture is a set of characteristics that define a business. It involves employee attitudes, standards (policies and procedures), and rites and rituals. The culture of a company is connected to the characteristics found in the surrounding society, but it also has some traits, such as hierarchy system, that are unique to the organization. It can be negative, neutral, or positive and although some businesses portray corporate culture as static, in most cases, it changes over time. This culture encompasses values and behaviours that contribute to the unique social and psychological environment of an organisation. According to Needle (2004), organisational culture represents the collective values, beliefs and principles of organisational members and is a product of such factors as history, product, market, technology, strategy, type of employees, management style, and national culture; culture includes the organisation's vision, values, norms, systems, symbols, language, assumptions, beliefs, and habits.

Environment Sustainability

A sustainability business is a business that uses a triple bottom line (profit, people and planet), where a business will carry out its business model by managing not only finances but also seeing how the social impact and impact on the environment (Rani and Mishra 2014). Environmental sustainability expands our common perception of human activity so as to more clearly connect it with the ecological concept of interdependence, thus delineating the boundaries of this use of "sustainability" to correspond to the overlay of human activity upon the functioning of the supporting ecosystem. Environmental sustainability, then, is limited to and, in fact, becomes a subset of ecological sustainability (Aboramadan, 2022). Broadly speaking, this concept of "environmental sustainability" might be seen as adding depth to a portion of the meaning of the most common definition of sustainable development, i.e., "meeting the needs of the current generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs," by taking on the general definition "meeting the resource and services needs of current and future generations without compromising the health of the ecosystems that provide them, Our Common Future. Ali F. *et al*. (2020) More specifically, environmental sustainability could be defined as a condition of balance, resilience, and interconnectedness that allows human society to satisfy its needs while neither exceeding the capacity of its supporting ecosystems to continue to regenerate the services necessary to meet those needs nor by our actions diminishing biological diversity (Ahmad 2015).

Benefits of Green Human Resource Management

Electronic filing, car sharing, job sharing, teleconferencing and virtual interviews, recycling, telecommuting, online recruitment and training, and energy-efficient office space are examples of green HRM initiatives that result in greater efficiency, lower costs, and better employee engagement and retention, which in turn help organizations reduce employee carbon footprints. It contributes to increased employee work satisfaction and dedication, which leads to increased production and long-term sustainability (Lawson, 2010).

In the sector, Green Human Resource Management plays a significant role in promoting environmental problems. HR policies and practices must be developed, employees must be trained to raise environmental consciousness, and environmental regulations must be implemented. Organizations must perform an environmental audit, resulting in a shift in organizational culture, a shift in how they think about waste management and pollution, and a shift in how they support society and the individuals who are impacted by pollution. It will also raise awareness among workers and society members about how to use natural resources more efficiently and promote the use of environmentally friendly goods. Make it a company culture to care for your coworkers' wellbeing and health.

Green human resource management, according to Diri (2021) also enhanced public image. When a company implements a green project at the workplace, the event may be used to promote favourable public relations. Organizations may use press releases to highlight their environmental efforts to the media in order to get the attention of prospective consumers and generate new sales. It also enhanced the number of business options available. Organizations have great development prospects by becoming green and building a new, more pleasant atmosphere, which helps them save a lot of money by lowering their carbon footprint. Only enterprises that satisfy certain green requirements are allowed to compete on contracts with certain government agencies, commercial corporations, and nonprofit organizations. Some firms additionally require their buying departments to exclusively purchase green items or to utilize items and services from firms that fulfil particular environmental criteria (Bratton & Gold, 2017).

Theoretical Framework

Resource-Based View (RBV)

During the 1990s, the *resource-based view* (also known as the *resource-advantage theory*) of the firm became the dominant paradigm in strategic planning. RBV can be seen as a reaction against the positioning school and its somewhat prescriptive approach which focused managerial attention on external considerations, notably industry structure. The theory states that the organizational resources and capabilities that are rare, valuable, no substitutable, and imperfectly imitable form the basis for a firms sustained competitive advantage. RBV suggests that the firm can secure a sustained competitive advantage through facilitating the development of competencies that are firm specific, produce complex social relationship; are embedded in a firm's history and culture, and generate tacit organizational knowledge (Odhonggr, 2018). This theory recognizes human capital as the most valuable, non-substitutable and imperfectly imitable resource that a firm can successfully utilize to achieve organizational productivity and competitiveness. Resource-based theory is linked to human capital theory in that they both emphasize that investment in people adds to their value to the firm (Baron and Armstrong, 2017).

The RBV was heavily criticized for the following which includes being tautological, Different resource configurations can generate the same value for firms and thus would not be competitive advantage, the role of product markets is underdeveloped in the argument, the theory has limited prescriptive implications, other criticisms include, the failure to consider factors surrounding resources that is, an assumption that they simply exist, rather than a critical investigation of how key capabilities are acquired or developed, It is perhaps difficult (if not impossible) to find a resource which satisfies all of Barney's VRIN criteria, An assumption that a firm can be profitable in a highly competitive market as long as it can exploit advantageous resources does not always hold true. It ignores external factors concerning the industry as a whole; Porter's Industry Structure Analysis ought to also be considered.

Institutional Theory

The institutional theory serves as the foundation for our investigation. Institutional theory, according to (Delmas & Toffel, 2018), is concerned with the impact of external influences on organizational decision-making, emphasizing the significance of social and cultural constraints placed on organizations that shape practices and structures. Institutional theory, according to WCED (2004) is policymaking that stresses the formal and legal aspects of government organizations. Regulatory pressure, according (Krell, Matook & Rohde, 2009), happens when government bodies compel businesses to adjust their strategies, either directly or indirectly. The strength of institutional theory, according to (Glover, Champion, Daniels & Dainty, 2014), is that it explains why some behaviors are adopted despite the lack of a clear economic benefit. Institutional theory is crucial to the adoption of environmental practices, according to (Tate, Dooley & Ellram, 2011) since enterprises function in ways that fulfil societal and legal expectations, and not all company actions are rational economic ones.

External forces may affect organizational activity, according to the institutional theory (Arulrajah & Opatha, 2016). Furthermore, (Arulrajah & Opatha, 2016) claim that when it comes to the natural environment, most institutional research has focused on the impacts of regulatory and social forces on outcomes and how they favour homogeneity. Organizations are often depicted in institutional theory as passive players that react to institutional expectations (Perrow, 1970; Oliver, 2017). Even yet, the institutional approach might help explain why Green HRM is so important for a company. This idea is consistent with the ecosystem's assumptions. The concept of goodness-of-fit, or how well one's objectives, wants, skills, and rights match the characteristics of one's social and physical environment (Germain & Gitterman, 1951) is presented in ecosystems (Greene, 1999). As a result, if there is no fit, measures that can create a good fit must be implemented. As a result, Green HRM in an organization is seen as a long-term endeavor. According to the institutionalization thesis, the institutionalism syndrome is caused by a lack of or non-match of goodness-of-fit between residents and their institutional surroundings. Based on the institutional theory, it is clear that, in today's world, Green HRM is required in every business due to external constraints such as social and regulatory demands (Arulrajah & Opatha, 2016).

Empirical Review

Zaid, Jararon and Talib (2018) carried out a study on green human resource management bundle practices and green supply chain management (i.e. external and internal practices), as well as their impact on the Triple Bottom Lines of sustainability performance (i.e. environmental, social, and economic performance). A quantitative method is applied in which data is collected from a customized survey with 121 firms functioning in the most pollutant manufacturing sectors (i.e. food, chemical, and pharmaceutical sectors) in Palestine. The data analysis was conducted using the partial least squares structural equation modeling. The results from data analysis show that both of green human resource management and green supply chain management practices have a positive effect to sustainable performance in a joint manner. In fact, the results revealed that green human resource management practices have a direct effect on the sustainable performance, with the green supply chain management practices mediating this effect.

3. Methodology

The research design adopted for this study was descriptive survey research design. Descriptive survey research was chosen because the design involves one-time observation of independent and non-manipulated variables (Asika, 1990). This study considered Polaris bank, ilorin branch. The target population for the study consisted of all employee of Polaris bank Ilorin branch. This research was conducted using a population size of 87 Staffs. A simple random sampling technique was adopted to select a total of 50 staffs. Simple random sampling was used to select respondents on the basis of gender, age, ethnic, religion and experience on the job. The information obtained from this sample is the basis on which deduction and conclusion were made.. The data gathering instrument employed for this study was an adapted and structured questionnaire. The reliability analysis of the research instrument was conducted with the aid of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.9 and above is excellent, between 0.7 and 0.9 is good. But the coefficient between 0.6 and 0.7 is considered acceptable. The reliability coefficient was 0.86. The data collected with the structured questionnaire was collated and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), linear regression analysis, was used for measuring the significant relationship among the variables of the study as contained in research questions generated for the study.

4. Results and Discussion

Hypothesis One

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between green employee engagement and environmental sustainability in Polaris Bank, Ilorin, Kwara state, Nigeria.

Table 1: Summary of Linear Regression Analysis on Contribution of Green Employee Engagement and Environmental Sustainability

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Model</td><td>R</td><td>R Square</td><td>Adjusted R Square</td><td colspan="2">Std. Error of the Estimate</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">1</td><td>.338[a]</td><td>.453</td><td>.106</td><td colspan="2">1.09444</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Model</td><td>Sum of Squares</td><td>Df</td><td>Mean Square</td><td>F</td><td>Sig.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">1</td><td>Regression</td><td>11.642</td><td>1</td><td>10.642</td><td>55.767</td><td>.000[b]</td></tr>
<tr><td>Residual</td><td>180. 821</td><td>49</td><td>131.821</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Total</td><td>192.463</td><td>50</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">a. Dependent Variable: Environmental Sustainability</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">b. Predictors: (Constant), Green Employee Engagement</td></tr>
</table>

Predictors: (Constant), Green Employee Engagement

Dependent Variable: Environmental Sustainability

The result in Table 1 revealed that there was a significant contribution of Green Employee Engagement to Environmental Sustainability ($F_{[1, 50]} = 55.767$, $P<0.05$, $R^2=0.0453$). Therefore, hypothesis one was rejected by the result of the study. This implies that Employee development have a significant impact on environmental sustainability.

Hypothesis Two

Ho_2: There is no significant relationship between green organisational culture and environmental sustainability.

Table 2: Summary of Linear Regression Analysis on Contribution of Green Organisational Culture on Environmental Sustainability

Model		R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	
1		.378[a]	.473	.108	1.09448	
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.642	3	18.642	51.238	.000[b]
	Residual	180.821	47	5.675		
	Total	192.463	50			
a. Dependent Variable: Environmental Sustainability						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Green Organisational Culture						

Predictors: (Constant), Green Organisational Culture

Dependent Variable: Environmental Sustainability

The result in Table 2 revealed that there was a significant contribution of Green Organisational Culture on Environmental Sustainability ($F_{[3,50]} = 51.238$, $P<0.05$, $R^2=0.0473$). Therefore, hypothesis two was rejected by the result of the study. This implies that Green Organisational Culture has a significant contribution on profitability of a firm by the respondents.

Discussion of findings

Green human resource management and sustainability both are closely related to HRM. On top of that, the distribution of environmental standards and ideologies through the green human resource management practices may incubate based on environmental management on the employees' engagement and organisational culture which will subsequently create an opportunity for the employees to contribute to the development of the environment of the organization (Cantor. 2012). In fact, a high number of researchers have emphasized that sustainability is an evolutionary part and it is the future of HRM (Jackson, 2014; Renwick, 2016).

More importantly, green human resource management is deemed effective considering that it equips the organizations with environmentally aware, dedicated, and capable employees that will be able to support the organization to reduce its footprints carbon through the effective and efficient use of prevailing resources (Ashraf, 2015). Apart from that, the adoption of green human resource management practices is very beneficial based on the fact that it can create greater efficacies, low cost, an atmosphere with the better engagement of the employee, improved productivity, and other tangible benefits (Ahmad 2015) that are hoped to assist the organizations to work in sustainable environment fashion (Rani and Mishra 2014).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

From the reviewed literature, the study findings show that, Green HRM contributes to environmental sustainability in a positive way. The concept emphasizes the importance of collaboration between organizations and employees in preserving the environment and improving organizational performance. Meanwhile, its practices in Nigerian is not new, therefore, adequate practice of Green HR efforts will drastically reduce the negative impact of the activities. The aim is to reduce the environmental and social impact of activities as much as possible and look for benefits for affected communities through Green HRM practices. It is concluded that rapidly changing environments strongly demand green practices in all aspects of organizations but if human resources are being built on green practices it ultimately affects all the segments of the organization.

This study identifies that green human resources practices have positive and significant effects on all elements of overall environmental sustainability. This study is a contribution to the conceptualisation of GHRM practices, involving green employee engagement, green organisational culture and to provide managers with the tool required to train themselves regarding the GHRM practices. On the concluding note, we would like to add that HRM is the major role player in implementing GHRM practices and policies. Apart from this, they have a crucial role to play in engagement employees who are more responsible toward green business practices thus, indirectly saving the Earth. It is intended to help operationalize the concept of sustainability by providing more clarity of purpose and direction, particularly regarding the importance of valuing ecological services and recognizing our interconnectedness.

Recommendations

1. Government and other business-related organizations notably must recognize the importance of GHRM and incorporate it practices into their organizational plans and policies to achieve environmental sustainability.
2. Building a green culture in which all employees are involved in organizational green management and sustainability efforts should be a top priority for government and organizational leaders.
3. The need for organisation to engage and compensate their employee to reduce the environmental degradation and make their contribution in sustainability of the environment.
4. Public recognition should be given to an individual for their work towards the environmental sustainability which enhances their morale & dedication.

Employee must be involved in the process of decision making as best suggestion could come up with any level of employee. Quality circle concept can also be a part of innovative practices, where people voluntarily sit together & discussing the problem & finding various alternatives to sort out it effectively.

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THREATS TO VULNERABLE ADULTS, GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AND CHILD LABOUR: FOCUS ON HUMAN SECURITY AND HUMAN RIGHTS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Nigeria's elderly population is rapidly growing as it is in every other sub-Saharan African nation. In the same vein, gender-based violence (GBV), known as violence against women has become a significant national issue. Gender-based violence occurrences have been reported in Nigeria over the past twenty years. In a simultaneous manner, millions of children worldwide are forced into child labour, which robs them of their youth, health, and education and consigns them to a life of squalor and deprivation. The paper finds it expedient to unravel the threats posed to vulnerable adults, gender-based violence and child labour, from the perspective of human security and human rights in Nigeria. The methodology adopted is the content analysis approach which employed largely relied on data that were generated from secondary sources. The adopted theoretical framework is the social contract theory of social security. In this contract, people completely relinquish all their rights to the government. The findings revealed that both the government and society give no priority to vulnerable adults. In addition, women are often violently abused while children engaged in unnecessary labour. The paper concludes by summarising the discussed subjects, reinforcing the fact that the government's responsibility in a contemporary nation state is to shield its residents from exposure to threats. It recommends that government should pioneer a program that ensures that every child is compelled to attain quality education, sponsored by the government. This will go a great way in mitigating child labour.

Key words: Vulnerable Adults, Child Labour, Gender-Based Violence, Women, Nigeria, Threats.

INTRODUCTION

The political, economic, and social operations of societies in both industrialized and developing countries have been severely impacted in recent decades by the rapidly increasing population of older persons. The percentage of people 60 years and older in the world's population is 12.3% as of 2015, according to the Population Division of the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA, Citation2015), and by 2050, that percentage will have nearly doubled to 22%. Between 2000 and 2030, it is anticipated that Sub-Saharan Africa, which has the lowest proportion of elderly people and is aging more slowly than developed countries, will witness a 2.3-fold increase in the absolute size of its older population (UNDESA, Citation2015).

Nigeria's elderly population is rapidly as it is in every other Sub-Saharan African nation. There are 191 million people in Nigeria, and those 65 and older make up 3.1% of the population, or 5.9 million people (National Council on Ageing, 2016). Using rough statistics, this means that between 2012 and 2017, there was an increase of 600,000(Population Reference Bureau, 2012; National Council on Ageing, 2016).Among other things, Nigeria's declining crude mortality rate is to blame for the country's growing old population (Adebowale, Atte, & Ayeni, 2012). Despite the increasing number of these vulnerable adults, there are innumerable cases of security and human rights threats posed to them.

In the same vein, globally, gender-based violence (GBV), sometimes known as violence against women, is a significant national issue. The World Bank's Inter-Agency Standing Committee defines GBV as "an umbrella term for any harmful act that is perpetrated against a person's will, and that is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between males and females" (Klugman, 2014).Gender-based violence occurrences have been reported in Nigeria over the past 20 years. Around that time, horrifying accounts of brutality against women came out of several states. Without regard for the worth of the female person, offenders acted with impunity, violated the rights of women, caused serious physical and psychological harm, and put victims' lives in danger of painful demises. Victims were exposed to complex health issues, which made it difficult for them to live independently and increase their chances of survival. As a result, victims' chances of becoming economically viable citizens with the capacity to contribute to national progress are reduced (Okeke, Mumford & Rothman, 2019).

Nigeria's reputation is damaged by violence towards its female inhabitants. Because of how popular it has become, the status of women in our nation appears to be in grave danger. The situation has gotten so severe that some families no longer give their female children the love, care, and attention they deserve. The goal is to downplay their importance in the family and community. Regrettably, the males are engaging in barbaric and exploitative behaviours with the intention of undermining the value and irreplaceability of the females. Ojo and Ayesoro (2014) had to contend that because of this, there is no humanly justified reason for acts of violence against women and girls to be committed in Nigeria and elsewhere.

In the same vein still, according to the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), millions of children worldwide are forced into child labour, which robs them of their youth, health, and education and consigns them to a life of squalor and deprivation (UNICEF, 2015).Domestic work has replaced child labour as the "silent murderer" of children's futures. This is the case since many children in Nigeria nowadays are exposed to various harmful practices. According to this perspective, children are significantly more at danger because of their rights, lack of family support, and reliance on their employment (CRIN, 2016).Parents who give their daughters away for domestic work thus have little understanding of the physical abuse, including rape, of girls who undergo emotional anguish in their employers' homes because to their ignorance of the child rights act. In the circumstances of the aforementioned, this paper finds it expedient to unravel the threats posed to vulnerable adults, gender-based violence and child labour, from the perspective of human security and human rights in Nigeria. In doing so, the paper begins with an introduction which gives an elaborate background of the study, after which it clarifies some of the concepts used. It went ahead to explain the methodology adopted as well as its theoretical underpinning. Discussion of the content follows, after which the paper concludes and provides relevant recommendation.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

- **Vulnerable Adults**

The term "vulnerable adults" is synonymous to other words such as ageing, old people, elderly, and aged. According to Hornby (1995), ageing is basically the process of growing old. Although the United Nations sets the age of sixty as the cut-off for being considered elderly, there is no universally recognized definition of what constitutes old age (Egunyomi, 2012). In Nigeria, vulnerable adults are defined as those who are sixty or sixty-five years of age or older. In the majority of developing nations, retirement age is always set at sixty or sixty-five, leading to the assumption that old age begins at this age.

In the Nigerian traditional setting, the elderly not only appear to be the guardians of culture and custom but are also a true source of wisdom and information for guidance and direction (Judith,2014). The elderlies are highly respected and should be consulted by younger members of the community due to their maturity, experience, and wisdom. To celebrate the shift to the elderly group known as "igoke-agba", for instance, ceremonies and tributes are practiced in Ondo State in South-West Nigeria. With the attendance of traditional rulers and other dignitaries from near and far to ensure seamless transition, it is a chance for children, extended relatives, and well-wishers to play significant roles on the event (Balogun &Eyang, 2020).

In a similar spirit, according to Togonu-Bickersteth and Akinyemi (2014) and Judith (2014), the Owo people of the same state (Ondo) used the Ero celebration to signify the value placed on old age as a period of high esteem and fulfilled obligation. According to them, this emphasizes aging as a period of dignity and the significance of moving on to another stage of life as an older person. The practice of Ori Enya ceremonies for titled aged for both men and women, as well as Amushi for aged males, is common among the Ibo people of South-Eastern Nigeria.

- **Gender-Based Violence**

Gender-Based Violent (GBV) has been defined as violence against minority groups, individuals, and/or communities that is exclusively motivated by a person's gender. This type of violence can either directly or indirectly cause psychological, physical, or sexual trauma or injury, as well as rob someone of their human rights (Joseph, 2015).GBV primarily entails violence against someone based on their gender (that is, both men and women), however, but because of the persistent gender inequities, women experience the majority of the violence (IBRD & World Bank, 2019).

GBV encompasses female genital mutilation, non-partner sexual assault, sexual exploitation and abuse of children, intimate relationship violence, female infanticide, and child marriage (Arango et al., 2014). Gender equality and a number of other development goals are hampered by such violence. Since it restricts their options and capacity to act, women who experience violence are unable to contribute to or gain from development initiatives (UN General Assembly, 2006).

According to Taft and Watson (2008), many negative physical health effects, such as recent injuries, persistent pain, gastrointestinal disorders, gynaecological issues, depression, and substance misuse are associated with intimate partner violence exposure. The economic implications of GBV include costs for providing services, lost income for women and their families, decreased productivity, and detrimental effects on the creation of human capital, all of which are costly for emerging countries. Intimate partner abuse is projected to cost five nations between 1.2 and 3.7 percent of GDP, which is equivalent to what most governments spend on elementary education, according to a new World Bank analysis (Klugman et al., 2014).

- **Child Labour**

Business Insider (02/14/2018) defines child labour as work performed on children that is hazardous to their mental, physical, social, or moral development and deprives them of possibilities for education and growth. Some of the worst types of child labour directly deprive children of their access to play and education. Some types involve flagrant violations of human rights. Furthermore, risky kinds of child labour herald grave international and national insecurity. For instance, human trafficking, kidnapping, child sexual labour, street hawking, street begging, and the use of kids as fraudsters, drug dealers, armed robbers, and terrorists' goon squads are all forms of child labour in Nigeria.

UNICEF (2015:1) further explains that:

> According to recent estimates based on statistics from UNICEF, the ILO, and the World Bank, 168 million children between the ages of 5 and 17 worldwide are working as minors. Almost 120 million of them are children under the age of 14, and an additional 30 million of them—mostly girls—work unpaid home duties for their own families. Millions of children also endure the harshest kind of child labour, such as forced marriage, forced labour, and child soldiers, as well as other forms of exploitation include sexual exploitation and involvement in illegal operations like drug trafficking.

- **Human Security and Human Rights**

The 1999 Constitution of Nigeria (as amended), in Chapter IV, Section 33 to 46, unde r "Fundamental Rights" states in section 33(1) that "every person has a right to life, and no one shall be deprived intentionally of his life, save in execution of the sentence of a court in respect of a criminal offence of which he has been found guilty in Nigeria". Every Nigerian citizen is entitled to the following rights: the right to life, the dignity of the human person, personal liberty, a fair trial, the right to a private and family life, the freedom of one's conscience, religion, expression in the media, movement, and peaceful assembly; and the right against discrimination in the acquisition of property.

The United Nations (2019) defined Human Rights as "rights inherit to all human beings, regardless of race, sex, nationality, ethnicity, language, religion, or any other status". These rights include those that are protected by Nigeria's and the majority of other member countries' constitutions. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which was issued in 1948, and the United Nations Charter on Human Rights, which was ratified by the General Assembly in 1945, are the sources of human rights as universal laws.

In the same vein, human security is enshrined in the concept of national security. According to Adebayo (2011), national security is a measure that supports overall development and peaceful coexistence. The absence of dread, threat, anxiety, tension, and worry over losing one's life, liberty, possessions, ambitions, and ideals, among other things, is considered to be a sign of security.

According to Ani and Onyebukwa (2016), national security is a combination of sufficient and appropriate political, military, human, economic, scientific, and technological resources, all of which must be present at their optimum levels in a given country. It encompasses the capacity to maintain the nation's territorial integrity and physical integrity and to defend it against unwelcome internal and external control. Tedheke (1998) rationalized that a new and larger definition of security that includes a state's ability to protect itself from external dangers using all available means as well as from internal challenges by ensuring the general socioeconomic well-being of its citizens.

METHODOLOGY

Due to the nature of the problem under investigation, qualitative method was used in data collection. Qualitative method mainly depends on secondary source of data like historical documents, books, magazines, journal articles, and websites among others. However, it is the nature of our investigation that defines this method of data collection adopted. The study adopted a content analysis approach whereby data was mainly obtained through extensive literature from books, scholarly journal articles and relevant internet materials. All materials consulted for the study were evaluated and found to have a high degree of reliability and credibility.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Due to the broad nature of this paper, several theories can be adopted to support the subject of discuss. While The "Family Conflict" model seems appropriate, coming from the perspective of gender-based violence, the paper rather focus on a theory that focus on the vulnerable adults and therefore adopts the social contract theory of social security. In this contract, everyone completely relinquishes all of their rights to the government (Ibeanu & Mohammed, 2005).

According to this perspective, people are willing to cede their rights to self-defence to the state, including their rights to public welfare and security, provided that the state offers enough physical and social security (Ibeanu & Mohammed, 2005). As a result, when the state breaks the terms of the social contract, people turn to self-protection and self-care instead of transferring the responsibility for public welfare to the government and its institutions. This is what is referred to as the General Will (Guillemette, 2002).

People entrust the government with the duty of providing for their welfare with the idea that government, as the principal institution of the state, embodies this General Will rather than any possible confluence of Sectional Wills. The phrase "sectional will" refers to all of the individual sectional wills that make up society. The broad breakdown of this social contract is reflected in Nigeria's social security and policy failures. Once the citizens give the government possession, it is upheld insofar as it represents the General Will rather than the Sectional Will. Policies can only be made by the government on behalf of the people and are intended to be an expression of the PublicWill (Tanyi, André & Mbah, 2018).

Theoretically, the neoliberal state's establishment has weakened the social contract and made things worse for the elderly in Nigeria. The elimination of government aid and the privatization of programs weaken the elderly who lack economic means of support. Privatisation, elimination of subsidies, alienation from social assistance and care, this condition puts the elderly at risk for illnesses and death (Mbah, 2014). Essentially, Mbah was basically contending that there is no social program in place to assist the elderly.

Unfortunately, it appears that the Nigerian government has broken its promises and broken this social contract because the majority of the elderly are not protected by any social policies under the new, planned social security system. Instead, the government has chosen to focus on providing job opportunities for the young. Hence, the implementation of neoliberal and neo-economic policies has highlighted the helplessness of the underprivileged and aged in Nigeria (Mbah, 2014).

SECURITY THREATS TO VULNERABLE ADULTS

There is broad agreement that aging is a time of increased vulnerability. As a result, seniors who have less reserve capacity than necessary to adequately handle the obstacles they experience have been referred to as vulnerable adults ((Bowling et al., 2005; Hall, 2015; Levine, 2017).

The security of the elderly is at risk due to many reasons, one of which is as a result of their social vulnerability since poverty and work insecurity are frequently caused by unemployment and job insecurity. Hence, the elderly are put at risk for developing both poverty and dependency later in life. For older people in many developing countries, the labour market is a major source of vulnerability. The rationale is that macroeconomic policies, trade liberalization, and market forces of supply and demand for labour all lead to the elderly being more vulnerable, with disastrous results. This includes fewer jobs and fewer social sector programs, which strains families and negatively impacts the elderly who must continue working to survive (United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America, 2004).

Inadequate care and support as a result of frail social networks and support systems has also been seen as a cause of old age vulnerability. They include having few material and financial resources, living in impoverished conditions, having ongoing chronic illnesses, and having a variety of health conditions.

According to research by Animasahun and Chapman (2017), Nigeria's changing demographics provide a number of issues that could affect how federal laws, health regulations, or social programs that support active aging and promote physical, social, and mental health are changed. Some of the challenges are discussed below:

- **Non-payment of pension:**

Many people often view retirement as a stage of life marked by leisure, trouble-free living, relaxation, and travel. Unfortunately, in Nigeria, this concept of retirement is not very common. Going on retirement in Nigeria presents a number of difficulties. Consequently, many more and more people feel forced to work well past the age of 80 if given the possibility in the current economic climate (Odaman & Ibiezugbe, 2014; Oladeji, 2011).

Pensioners in Nigeria who had high hopes for the execution of the nation's existing pension regulation plans have been let down by the government. These demands resulted from the necessity for retirees to have a sustainable quality of living and get their benefits on time. A variety of issues were created as a result of Nigeria's two different pension systems, defined benefit (DB) and contributory pension plan (CPS), which made it difficult for important players in the country's pension sector to meet retirees' expectations.

Elderly people who have left the economic productive period are most at risk of facing financial trouble because poverty is still a significant problem in Nigeria. The bulk of this group of (elderly) persons are not in a secure social and financial situation because the statutory retirement age in Nigeria is between 60 and 70 years (depending on where you work) (Oladeji, 2011).Older people frequently have to deal with the contradiction of diminishing financial means, heightened health risks, and an astronomically rising cost of healthcare. Elderly people in Nigeria's urban regions, in particular, only use health treatments and other services when they are readily available, easily accessible, and reasonably priced (Odaman & Ibiezugbe, 2014).

- **Ageism:**

Ageism is a problem that comes with being older that seems more obvious than retiring. Ageism primarily refers to prejudice and/or discrimination towards older individuals, while it can affect any age range (Abrams & Swift, 2012). Ageism can either be overt or covert. Negative preconceptions about the elderly are frequently perpetuated; they are seen to be slow, confused, helpless, reluctant to change, and/or generally miserable (Abrams & Swift, 2012). Discrimination can occur when erroneous generalizations like these are formed, just like it can with racism and sexism. Although the stigma does not apply to all older people, age-related bias does, regrettably, exist in some Nigerian contexts.

- **Social Isolation:**

A design that makes it difficult to walk may contribute to older individuals' isolation and consequently have a detrimental influence on their quality of life, according to Partners for Livable Communities' (2007) report. According to research, rural areas have greater rates of poverty and fewer access to community facilities including town halls, grocery stores, and pharmacies (Fochingong, 2014; Hartman & Weierbach, 2013; Snedeka, 2017). The biggest problem faced by older individuals in remote locations is frequently a lack of access to these services. It is challenging to continue living independently and meaningfully without them. But whether isolation is chosen by a person or imposed by their surroundings, its implications are quite concerning for the aging population and need further consideration.

The isolation of the elderly people, both voluntarily and involuntarily, is also influenced by stigma. Without understanding a person's skills, many people focus on ageing stereotypes, or what an older person can and cannot achieve. "You're too old for that" is a statement that is used so frequently that it can be creating a self-fulfilling prophecy. Ageism is a type of discrimination that has long existed in society.

THREATS OF GENDER-BASED VIOLENT ON WOMEN

The culture of male supremacy appears to be widespread throughout the world, especially in developing countries. In these societies, the overuse of patriarchal power and the repression of female voices, rights, and concerns are prevalent. The males oppress their female counterparts by using the tools of religion, culture, and cultural beliefs. Violence against women is typically committed by men in an effort to subjugate them to patriarchal and authoritarian forces. There is hardly a country in the globe where there aren't instances of rape, kidnapping of women, wife beating, physical assault, drug usage, trafficking of women, denial of their rights, ritual killings, child labour, and wrongful exposure to injuries that may have killed them (Onuoha, 2010; Asishana, 2020; Adeoluwa, 2020).

In Nigeria, the status quo is prevalent. One kind of GBV that is reported and routed into conflict dispute processes, which submit cases to the police or other legal authorities, is sexual violence against women and children. Women with disabilities are up to three times more likely to encounter sexual assault by a stranger or acquaintance than other women, and they are twice as likely to experience domestic violence or another type of GBV (NSRP 2015).

In a study carried out by World Bank in 2019 in Northern Nigeria, it was discovered that many Nigerians believe intimate partner violence to be a private matter in which the community should not intervene, in addition to the high prevalence of wife beating, emotional and economic abuse, and marital rape. It has become so common to the point that women have now been conditioned to accept that a man may beat his wife in particular circumstances, such as when she burns the food, quarrels with him, leaves the house without notifying him, neglects the kids, or declines to engage in sexual activity with him (NPC &ICF International 2014).

In the same research carried out in other parts of the country, there are indications that wife beating is widely accepted. Many women say it's OK for a husband to slap or beat his wife if he feels she's disrespectful, of lower social standing, won't have sex with him, or isn't doing her share of the housework. Qualitative research findings also show that GBV, especially intimate partner violence, is accepted at the societal and community levels. This is highly correlated with the unfair gender norms that assign women to domestic roles, with deviation from these roles potentially leading to violence (World Bank, 2019).

One of the lowest rates of help-seeking behaviour is found in Nigeria. Of the women aged 15 to 49 who had experienced physical or sexual abuse, regardless of whether the abuser was an intimate partner or not, 45 percent never sought help or disclosed the experience to anyone. Only 31 percent did so, and 12 percent did so but did not seek help (NPC &ICF International 2014).In Southeast Nigeria, where 37% of female survivors of intimate partner violence have sought help, this behaviour is at its peak, while it is at its lowest in Nigeria's Northeast geographic zone, where 23% of them have. Women who have recently gone through a divorce, a separation, or a widowhood make up 48% of those who have done so, while 32% of those who are still married have asked for assistance. According to NPC and ICF International (2014), the percentage of women in urban and rural areas who seek assistance is 32 percent and 31 percent, respectively.

There are many reasons a woman may feel reluctant to seek help when being violently treated. One of such is the stigma attached to GBV such as fear of family disgrace if the matter is not addressed privately; the notion that a woman is partially to blame for being victimized under the assumption that she must have violated her socially expected role in some way and thus deserves punishment; the lack of and ignorance of specialized GBV services. These viewpoints support the impunity and acceptance of GBV among survivors, their families, and their neighbours who attempt to hide instances. Even the "looking the other way" and ignoring of GBV instances by medical professionals, law enforcement, and security personnel is a typical occurrence (World Bank, 2019).

Another very harmful form of GBV is harmful widowhood practices. In Nigeria, the widespread notion that a widow is "responsible for her husband's death" causes her immense suffering. To demonstrate her innocence, the wife is made to undergo widowhood rites by the husband's family. In traditional communities, women are frequently held responsible or used as a scapegoat for personal or communal issues. They must battle to survive while dealing with severe stigma. Community members find ways to shun and blame widows for their spouses' deaths despite widowhood traditions.

In addition, a widow is typically stripped of all family resources without taking her ability to care for her children into account. In some states, legislation governing land ownership and prevailing customary traditions prohibit women from owning property. As a result, property is held in the man's name and is passed down through the group's patrilineal lineage.

These forms of gender-based violent are indeed great threats, particularly for women, thereby hampering their human rights as well as human security.

THE "NORMALITY" OF CHILD LABOUR

Nigerian children work under the worst possible conditions, mainly engaged in hazardous agricultural activities and household labour. Most kids grow crops like cocoa and cassava as part of their daily labour in rural areas. Child labour almost always has disastrous effects. As observed by UNICEF (2001:1), "there are hundreds of millions of children and young people around the world who are imprisoned, not in physical jails, but in a state of bondage more permanent than locks or bars alone could create…These are children who labour at tasks that harm their bodies and minds, their spirits and future."

There are rumours that children also make tobacco, however the proof for this is limited. Children who work in agriculture may trip on sharp items, sustain injuries to their hands and legs, or become stung by insects. Children who work on cocoa plantations in particular are exposed to pesticides, use chemical fertilizers without safety equipment, and occasionally are subjected to forced labour (Orset, 2008).Boys, in particular, labour as livestock herders as children. Children who are herding livestock run the risk of getting hurt by the animals biting them, goring them, or trampling them. In reality, this form of risky child labour is bad since it will impair the child's social and psychological growth.

Many families in northern Nigeria send children, referred to as almajiri, from rural to urban regions so they can live with Islamic teachers and learn the Quran. Some of these children receive instruction, but their teachers frequently make them begging on the streets and hand over the money they make; as a result, they might not have enough food or housing. Information suggests that some almajiri in Nigeria may purposefully suffer scarring or injuries in order to elicit compassion and, as a result, spur donations, albeit there is still a lack of solid data to support this. The Ministerial Committee on Madrasah Education reported that there were 9.5 million almajiri in Nigeria in December 2010.

The fact that most forms of child labour have now been normalized is indeed a cause for alarm. Some of the consequences of this are indeed grave, and often escalate. Child labour has negative psychological and physical effects. Poor nutrition, stunted growth, and numerous ailments as a result of hard labour, exposure to poisonous substances, and long shifts in dangerous environments are some of the physical effects of child labour. Moreover, adult labour partners sexually assault the children (Togunde & Carter, 2008).

Socially, child labour deprives children of the chance to pursue an education at a formative age. Moreover, these youngsters experience psychological wounds that may never fully heal and may prevent them from assimilating into society as adults. Children who work as laborers may have to spend years away from their families and deal with painful work-related ailments. It should be highlighted that child labour frequently has gender-specific effects, and whether a boy or a girl is subjected to hazardous labour has an impact on the severity of those effects. Sexual assault and rape are two significant side effects of child labour that girls who work as children experience. For instance, Ikechebelu, Udigwe, Ezechukwu, Ndinechi, & Ikechebelu (2008) examined how street hawking exposes young female hawkers to adult sexual exploitation and discovered that 69% of these girls had experienced such abuse.

SALVAGING THE HUMAN RIGHTS AND SECURITY OF VULNERABLE ADULTS, WOMEN AND CHILDREN

In essence, the human rights as well as security of the aforementioned are at great threats. Vulnerable adults are not secured; women aren't protected, and children are being unlawfully used. This is obviously maltreatment of people masquerading itself in different forms. The good thing is that there are several laws in Nigeria that guarantee the preservation of both citizens' human rights and national security. Some of these laws include the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 (CFRN) (as amended), Terrorism (Prevention) Amendment Act 2013,Administration of Criminal Justice Act 2015, Armed Forces Act (AFA) CAP A20, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 2004 (as amended) and Fundamental Rights Enforcement Procedure Rules 2009.

For instance, the Constitution's Chapter Four is entirely devoted to fundamental rights. It initiated with right to life wherein it provided that "every person has a right to life and no one shall be deprived of his life, save in the execution of sentence of a court in respect of a criminal offence of which he has been found guilty in Nigeria." This includes the category of people already discussed in this paper, namely; vulnerable adults, women, and children. The right to human dignity is also protected by the Constitution. Torture, cruel or degrading treatment, slavery, and forced labour are all prohibited by the Constitution.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper has shown that social vulnerability among elderly Nigerians is a fact of old life in the Nigerian society. The government's responsibility in a contemporary nation state is to shield its residents from exposure to threats, but in Nigeria, this has not been the case with regard to the older population segment. The elderly are now more vulnerable as a result of this breakdown in legal protection. This paper also unveiled that gender-based violent is a reality in Nigeria. In fact, it is a common phenomenon. Women are constantly abused despite the fact that Nigeria has in its constitution a segment dedicated to the fundamental human rights. This is an enormous threat to womanhood, and indeed a challenge to the security of the female gender. Furthermore, the paper expresses its concern in the area of child labour. Just like the case of the GBV, child labour too poses huge threat and indeed is laced with grave consequences both to the child being abused, and to the society in general. The paper generally observes that fundamental human rights should be honoured, in order to mitigate or completely eliminate the threats.

Based on the findings uncovered in this paper, the following recommendations are made:

1. The vulnerable adults should be put at the top of priority list by the government especially in the areas of their social care and pension payment. This will further reduce their level of vulnerability.
2. The elderly should be given special treatment by the neighbourhood especially after their retirement age. They could be given social activities at interval in order to give them a sense of belonging.
3. Non-governmental organisations should keep advocating for the rights of women and children, and keep encouraging women whom are being abused to seek help and counsel.

4. Government should pioneer a programme that will ensure that every child, regardless of the region in which he or she lives, attains quality education, sponsored by the government. This will go a long way in mitigating child labour.
5. Children masquerading as almajirion the streets should constantly be rescued by government agencies and their mentality should be recalibrated to the fact that they are meant to add value to the society.

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REGULATIONS AND DEVELOPMENT OF INSURANCE INDUSTRY IN NIGERIA: A NEXUS

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Abstract

This study is on the nexus between of regulations and the development of insurance industry in Nigeria. The main objective of this study is to examine how regulations had contributed to the development of Insurance sector in Nigeria. The study made use of survey research design. A total number of 125 respondents were selected from NAICOM and four insurance companies in Lagos using stratified sampling technique. A research questionnaire was used as research instruments. The result of research question one revealed that poor knowledge of insurance services (X = 2.48, SD = 1.21) is one of the challenges encountered by insurance industry. The result of research question two showed that appropriate and effective precautions put in place by NAICOM in monitoring insurance has helped the development of the sector (X = 3.24, SD = 1.77); regulatory framework has been effective in the development of the Nigerian Insurance sector (X = 3.14, SD = 1.65) and regulation has contributed to the development of insurance sector in Nigeria (X = 3.43, SD = 1.59). Also, result of the hypothesis revealed that the regulatory function and supervision significantly impacted the development of Insurance industry in Nigeria jointly accounting for about 61.5% of the variance observed in the Insurance industry with supervision having the higher magnitude (β = .763).This paper concludes that regulation has helped in the development of in the insurance industry. The study recommended NAICOM should be empowered to stipulate minimum prudential standards ranging from entry requirements, thresholds for illiquidity and insolvency, to failure resolution options.

Keywords: Insurance, Regulation, Regulatory Framework, Development

1. Introduction

The origin of insurance in Nigeria can be traced to the activities of European merchants in the West African coast. This was influenced by two factors. First, the expansion of cash crops production for exports and the upward surge in economic activities in 1890s. Second, the British desire to protect its interest and properties in the protectorate of West Africa. According to Uche and Chikeleze (2001), increased trade in Nigeria led to increased activities in shipping and banking and it soon became necessary for foreign firms to handle some of their risks locally. Insurance business, in its modern practice started in 1921 in Nigeria with the establishment of a branch of the royal exchange assurance.

Historically, some form of social insurance existed in Nigerian society long before the introduction of the modern insurance in Nigeria. These social schemes evolved through the existence of extended family system and social associations such as age grades, and other unions. A well-structured insurance industry, which also functions as a financial intermediary, offers a mechanism for the effective transfer of savings in order to boost the productive sector of the economy. A dditionally, the industry is well renowned for risk transfer, indemnification, and financial intermediaries services (Ben-Dhiab, 2021). Such services support policyholders who regularly engage in hazardous but profitable initiatives that are essential to the overall expansion and the growth of the economy. Insurance industry is responsible for provision of risk transfer, indemnification services and financial intermediation among others to citizens (Cai, 2016).

Regulation is the promulgation of prescriptive rules as well as the monitoring and enforcement of these rules. Regulation as a form of intervention is advanced or designed to prevent the creation of monopoly power and or its abuse, ensure safety and soundness of the regulated activity, and make less likely the occurrence of actions that generate significant negative spillovers, or externalities. Several of the regulatory measures applicable to insurance in Nigeria are contained as statutory provisions while others are prescribed in reliance on powers derived from statutes.

The National Insurance Commission (NAICOM) is the regulatory body in Nigeria. NAICOM was established in 1997 by the National Insurance Commission Act 1997 with responsibility for ensuring the effective administration, supervision, regulation and control of insurance business in Nigeria and protection of insurance policyholders, beneficiaries and third parties. The objective of NAICOM supervision is to protect the interests of holders of Insurance policies, to regulate, promote and ensure orderly growth of the Insurance industry, both Insurance and Reinsurance business.

The necessity for regulation of insurance is rooted in both the legal, sociological and economic importance of insurance. One justification for regulation is the need to ensure financial security by ensuring that insurance companies have a reasonable level of capital to support the business written and enable them to withstand 'shocks' or unforeseen losses arising out of the business. This challenge is met by the prescription of solvency limits which ensure solvency and the insurer's ability to pay claims in the future. Regulation will ensure standardized policy coverage, require minimum coverage, and require fair claims processing. Allied to the foregoing, insurance regulation guarantees protection for policyholders. The consequences of an insurer failing to make good his promises as a result of fraud or commercial failure could be extremely disastrous. Furthermore, both the buying and selling of insurance are unlike many other forms of product purchasing. The structure of this paper include introduction, literature review, research methodology, data analysis, conclusion and recommendations.

Statement of the Problem

In Nigeria, based on the nation's experience of stunted growth in the economy; the insurance sector has not actually contributed meaningfully in its role of effectively mobilizing funds for productive investment which could lead to growth. The financial sector as well as insurance companies had encountered several challenges and the need to regulate in order to solidify and ensure that industry thrives and survive difficult times is highly essential. Therefore, this study examines the impact of regulatory bodies on the development of insurance sector in Nigeria.

Objectives of the Study

The primary aim of this study is to examine the nexus between regulatory bodies and the development of insurance sector in Nigeria. The secondary objectives are as to:

1. examine the challenges encountered by Insurance industry in Nigeria
2. assess if regulation contributed to the development of Insurance sector.
3. examine if the supervisory and regulatory functions of (NAICOM) been effective in curtailing distress in the Insurance industry.

Research Questions

1. What are the challenges encountered by Insurance industry in Nigeria?
2. Has regulation contributed to the development of Insurance sector?
3. Has the supervisory and regulatory functions of NAICOM been effective in curtailing distress in the Insurance industry?

Hypothesis

H_0: There is no significant impact of supervisory and regulatory functions of the NAICOM on the development of Insurance industry in Nigeria.

2. Literature Review

Concept of Insurance

Insurance is often defined as a contract under which the insurer agrees to provide compensation to the insured in the event of a specified occurrence, for example, loss or damage to property in return, the insured pays the insurer a premium usually at fixed intervals. The insurer estimates the probability that the event insured against will actually take place (Onomivibori 2010).

The insurance industry has in the past five years (2017-2022) maintained a steady growth in Gross Premium income (GPI) insisting that the future of the industry has remained bright. The insurance sector in 2017 grew its gross premium income by 14 per cent, "and by 2018 the growth rate stood at14.5 per cent in 2019, it grew by 20.9 percent. In 2020, while other sectors of Nigerian economy contracted including the national GDP which growth contracted by -19 percent, insurance sector maintained a steady growth with its graphical curve showing V shape indicating that unlike other sectors of the economy which growth trajectory plummeted during the period, insurance sector maintained a steady growth despite the pandemic and its associated business lock down" (Emejo & Nwoji, 2022).

The gross premium income is the essential indicator of growth in the Insurance sector and in 2018 it posted a 14.5 percent growth to N426 billion of gross premium income from N372billion posted in 2017. This is rather commendable in relation to the macroeconomic behaviour recorded during the period with growth of the economy being only 1.9 per cent," the commissioner stated. In 2022, the GPI of the sector for the first quarter stood at N223.8 billion showing 6 percent YOY growth .In second quarter, the growth shifted to N 369.2 billion indicating 65 percent QOQ growth and about 20 percent Year over Year (YOY) growth. Outpacing real economic growth of the entire country" (Emejo & Nwoji, 2022).

In 2022, the insurance sector showed 20 percent YOY growth, 59 percent Quarter on Quarter (QOQ) growth, proving resilient in terms of premium generation, capacity to retain business which signifies sound financial stability, and carriage capacities, "he added. This, according to him, is in tandem with the GPI growth, which in 2017 stood at N265.5 billion to N441.2 billion over the period 2017 to 2021 showing 66.2 per cent (Emejo & Nwoji, 2022).

Olotu and Makinwa (2019) claim that the Nigerian insurance market is still one of the least developed in all of Africa, with a penetration rate of only 0.3%, compared to competitors like South Africa, which has a 14.7% rate, Kenya, which has a 2.8% rate, Angola, which has a 0.8% rate, and Egypt, which has a 0.6% rate.

Insurance Regulation

Insurance regulation is the entire framework of national laws, regulations, procedures, people, and institutions designed to superintend and oversee an industry that impacts daily on lives and the entire economy (Klein, 2012). Insurance regulation has developed from basic rules about consumer protection and prevention of externalities (e.g. Motor vehicle third party policy requirements) to concerns about systemic risks that arise during global and regional financial crises, which can negatively impact the economy. One of the major reason for insurance regulation is to prevent using public funds to shore up insurance companies if they become insolvent (Becker, 2017).

Association of Insurance Supervisors (IAIS, 2019, p. 6), states that regulation of the insurance industry is "to develop and maintain fair, safe and stable insurance markets for the benefit and protection of policyholders and contribute to global financial stability". The purpose of insurance regulation, irrespective of the sophistication of the economy, can be grouped into three basic categories (IAIS, 2019):

i. Protection of policyholders (past, present and future);

ii. Promotion of a fair, safe and stable insurance market; and

iii. Enhancement of financial stability

As at 31 January, 2019, there were 13 composite insurance companies, 28 that transact general business, 14 life insurance companies and 2 reinsurers in Nigeria. Other players in the industry include 457 insurance brokers, 34 loss adjusters and many insurance agents.

Regulatory Framework in the Insurance Sector.

The insurance sector is governed by two principal legislations – the NAICOM Act 1997 and the Insurance Act 2003.

The NAICOM ACT 1997

The Act established the sole regulator in the sector, with a mandate in Section 6 of the Act 'to ensure the effective administration, supervision, regulation and control of insurance business in Nigeria'. The act grants further powers to stipulate rates of premiums, commissions and to establish general standards for the conduct of insurance business. The Act in Section 8(f) grants the regulator the power to make further regulations for the purpose achieving it's stated objectives and for giving effect to the powers granted. It establishes in Section 62 that the commission shall take policy instructions from the Minister shall be duty bound to comply therewith.

The Insurance Act 2003

The Act prescribes the classes of insurance business in Nigeria and provides the increased minimum capital requirements for each class of insurance business. In Section 9(4) it grants powers to NAICOM to from time to time increase the minimum capital requirements for players in the industry.

It makes provision for the structure and personnel of Insurance companies and also for other operators like brokers and commission agents (Elebiju & Fatokunbo, 2021). In Section 50, it provides for the place of paid up premium as the validating factor of an insurance contract, introducing the 'No Premium No Cover' Concept.

Regulations, Guidelines, Circulars and Market Rules

Following powers granted both under the NAICOM Act of the Insurance Act, NAICOM from time to time issues regulations, guidelines and circulars as its regulatory interventions in the sector. The code of corporate governance for the insurance industry is an example of a regulation made under this power. Also the Market Conduct and Business Practice Guidelines for Insurance Institutions in Nigeria is another key industry regulation issued by NAICOM under these powers. It covers regulations on trade practices and Customer Treatment, claims processing and procedures, and general market conduct.

A key legal issue to be considered in the issuing of regulation is the doctrine of covering the field, to wit that where the principal legislation has made exhaustive provisions on the subject matter, a subsidiary legislation cannot extend the remit of those provisions (Idhiarhi, 2012). There is however sufficient legal latitude for NAICOM as the regulator to take innovative groundbreaking steps to reposition the industry, deepen its penetration and density, and improve its contribution to GDP and the economy in general. The next section will look at the key regulatory interventions by NAICOM in view of some provisions of the Insurance Act, the success of those interventions, or otherwise the limitations and why despite these interventions, the industry continues to lag behind comparatively in contributions to the economy and in general development.

Impact of Regulation on Industry Development

i. Minimum Capital Requirements

Historically the most outstanding and by far the most impactful regulatory tool in the sector was the introduction of minimum capital requirements. The Act provided for the minimum capital of the classes of business as follow: Companies that transact only general insurance were to recapitalise to N2 billion, life insurance companies to N3 billion and reinsurance companies to N10 billion. These represent the percentage increases in capital bases of 1233%, 1400% and 2750% respectively. On May 20, 2019, the Commission issued a directive on recaptilisation.

ii. Micro Insurance

The introduction of the micro insurance stream by the 2013 NAICOM Guidelines was designed to create insurance products for low income earners. The structure is similar to the conventional insurance but it considers and is marked out by scalability, simplicity, easy understanding, affordability, efficiency, value, and several other principles that make it amenable to people in that income bracket.

iii. Oil and Gas Insurance Guidelines

The import of the guidelines was to provide that no insurance of assets or risks in Nigeria in the oil and gas sector can be entered with any insurance firm outside Nigeria without Approval in Principle (AIP) sought and obtained from the commission. Such approval is only granted upon evidence of exhaustion of the local capacity of all insurance firms in Nigeria.

Agency Theory

Jensen and Meckling developed agency theory (1976). Agency theory assumes that when a firm is originally founded, its owners are also its managers. As a firm grows, its owners hire managers to run it. The owners anticipate the managers to run the company in their best interests; thus, the owners and the managers have an agency relationship. Managers are referred to as agents in agency theory, whereas stockholders are referred to as principals. According to the theory, it is impossible to maximize a firm's value if incentives and supervision are insufficient to prevent managers from acting independently to their personal advantage. The theory is important to insurance in large part because most insurance consumers only communicate directly with the insurance business through an agent or broker, often known as a producer.

Empirical Review

Igbinosa, Ogbeide, and, Babatunde (2017) examines regulation and sector performance of the financial sector in Nigeria. The study indicated that regulation significantly impacts sector performance while regulation has both short-run and long-run dynamic relationships with the performance in the financial sector in Nigeria. It was also found that the four-period lag of capital adequacy negatively affects performance and is not statistically significant.

Obayagbona & Ajao (2022) empirically investigated the impact of monetary policy on the efficiency of Nigeria's insurance business from 1985 to 2021. The short run and long run relationships were estimated using the error correction model (ECM) and the cointegration econometric approach. The results showed that in the short run, all of the hypothesized monetary policy variables (money policy rate, cash reserve ratio, reserve requirement, minimum rediscount rate, money supply, and interest rate) failed the 5% significance level, indicating that they do not significantly affect the performance of the insurance sector in Nigeria. The long run model's findings, on the other hand, show a strong positive association between the performance of the insurance industry and the monetary policy rate, cash reserve ratio, and minimum rediscount rate.

3. Research Methodology

The population of study included insurance companies and regulatory bodies in Lagos State, Nigeria. The study made use of multi-stage sampling which involves both probability and nonprobability sampling techniques. The study utilized a survey research design. The stratified sampling technique was used to select 125 respondents from NAICOM and Four Insurance companies in Lagos namely: AIICO Insurance, Conerstone Insurance Plc, FBN Insurance and Leadway Assurance. The quantitative data was processed, computed and analyse using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25.0. Descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequency tables were used to present the data. The hypothesis was tested using Multiple Regression Analysis.

4. Data Analysis

Research Question One: What are the challenges encountered by Insurance industry in Nigeria?

Table 1: The challenges encountered by Insurance Industry

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	Stand. Dev
1.	Poor knowledge of insurance services by prospective assured	56 (44.8%)	48 (38.4%)	19 (15.2%)	2 (1.6%)	2.48	1.21
2.	Emerging threats amidst macroeconomic uncertainty	56 (44.8%)	35 (28.0%)	34 (27.2%)	-	1.93	0.96
3.	Inadequate access to information technology	62 (49.6%)	-	21 (16.8%)	42 (33.6%)	1.24	0.62
4	Lack of skilled personnel	53(42.4 %)	46 (36.8%)	14 (11.2%)	12 (9.6%)	1.79	0.89

Table 1 showed that 56 (44.8%) of the respondents strongly agree, 48 (38.4%) agree, 19 (15.2%) disagree while 2 (1.6%) strongly disagree that poor knowledge of insurance services by prospective assured is one of the challenges encountered by insurance industry in Nigeria, 56 (44.8%) strongly agree, 35 (28.0%) agree while 34 (27.2%) disagree that emerging threats amidst macroeconomic uncertainty is one of the challenges encountered by insurance industry, 62 (49.6%) of the respondents strongly agree, 42 (33.6%) agree while 21 (16.8%) disagree that inadequate access to information technology, 53(42.4%) of the respondents strongly agree, 46 (36.8%) agree, 14 (11.2%) disagree while 12 (9.6%) strongly disagree that lack of skilled personnel is one of the challenges encountered by insurance industry in Nigeria. Poor knowledge of insurance services by prospective assured has the highest mean score (X = 2.48, SD = 1.21), Emerging threats amidst macroeconomic uncertainty has a mean score (X = 1.93, SD = 0.96) while Lack of skilled personnel has a mean score (X = 1.79, SD = 0.89).

Research Question Two: Has regulation contributed to the development of Insurance sector?

Table 2: Have regulation and supervision by NAICOM contributed to the development of the Insurance sector?

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	Stand. Dev
1.	Appropriate and effective precautions put in place by regulatory bodies in monitoring insurance has helped the development of the sector	53 (42.4%)	65(52.0%)	7(5.6%)	-	3.24	1.77
2.	Regulatory framework had been effective in development of Nigerian Insurance sector	51 (40.8%)	66 (52.8%)	8 (6.4%)	-	3.14	1.65
3.	Regulation has contributed to the development of insurance sector in Nigeria	25 (20.0%)	80 (64.0%)	16 (12.8%)	4 (3.2%)	3.43	1.59

Table 2 shows that 53 (42.4%) strongly agree, 65(52.0%) agree while 7(5.6%) disagree that appropriate and effective precautions put in place by regulatory bodies in monitoring insurance has helped the development of the sector, 51 (40.8%) of the respondents strongly agree, 66 (52.8%) agree while 8 (6.4%) disagree that regulatory framework had been effective in Nigerian Insurance sector. In addition, 25 (20.0%) of the respondents strongly agree, 80 (64.0%) agree, 16 (12.8%) disagree while 4 (3.2%) strongly disagree that Regulation has contributed to the development of insurance sector in Nigeria. Regulation has contributed to the development of insurance sector in Nigeria has the highest mean score value (X = 3.43, SD = 1.59). Appropriate and effective precautions put in place by regulatory bodies in monitoring insurance has helped the development of the sector has a mean score (X = 3.24, SD = 1.77).

Research Question Three: Have the supervisory and regulatory functions of regulatory body, NAICOM been effective in curtailing distress in the Insurance industry?

Table 3: The effect of the supervisory and regulatory functions of the regulatory body, NAICOM, in curtailing distress in the Insurance industry

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	Stand. Dev
1.	The regulatory and supervisory functions of the NAICOM have helped to guarantee safety and promote sound practices in the insurance industry	64 (51.2%)	51 (40.8%)	10 (8.0%)	-	2.93	1.04
2.	Regulations and supervision have helped in guarding against abuses by directors, managers and other officers in the insurance industry	53 (42.4%)	57(45.6%)	12 (9.6%)	3 (2.4%)	2.41	1.24
3.	Effective Regulations encourage quality services and promote an efficient and competitive insurance operations	69 (55.2%)	55(44.0%)	1 (0.8%)	-	1.76	0.83
4	Regulations and supervision have helped in ensuring that only men and women of impeccable character are approved as directors of insurance companies	52 (41.6%)	49 (39.2%)	18 (14.4%)	6 (4.8%)	1.51	0.72

Table 3 shows that 64(51.2%) of the respondents strongly agree, 51 (40.8%) agree while 10 (8.0%) disagree that the regulatory and supervisory functions of the NAICOM have helped to guarantee safety and promote sound practice in insurance industry, 53(42.4%) of the respondents strongly agree, 57(45.6%) agree, 12(9.6%) disagree while 3(2.4%) strongly disagree that regulations and supervision have helped in guarding against abuses by directors, managers and other officers in the insurance industry. In addition, 69(55.2%) of the respondents strongly agree, 55(44.0%) while 1(0.8%) disagree that effective regulations encourages quality services and promotes an efficient and competitive insurance operations, 52(41.6%) of the respondents strongly agree, 49 (39.2%) agree, 18 (14.4%) disagree while 6 (4.8%) strongly disagree that regulations and supervision have helped in ensuring that only men and women of impeccable character are approved as directors of insurance companies.

The regulatory and supervisory functions of the NAICOM have helped to guarantee safety and promote sound practice in insurance industry has the highest mean score value (X = 2.93, SD = 1.04). Regulations and supervision have helped in guarding against abuses by directors, managers and other officers in the insurance industry has a mean score (X = 2.41, SD = 1.24).

Hypothesis Testing

Ho: There is no significant impact of supervisory and regulatory functions of the NAICOM on the development of Insurance industry in Nigeria.

The hypothesis was tested using Multiple Regression Analysis

Table 4: Model Summary

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.784[a]	.615	.609	1.23905

a. Predictors: (Constant), Regulatory function, Supervision

Table 5: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	299.069	2	149.534	97.401	.000[b]
	Residual	187.299	122	1.535		
	Total	486.368	124			

a. Dependent Variable: Insurance Development

b. Predictors: (Constant), Regulatory function, Supervision

Table 6: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.109	.575		1.928	.026
	Regulatory function	.659	.077	.504	8.598	.000
	Supervision	.672	.052	.763	13.007	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Insurance Development

The impact of supervisory and regulatory functions of NAICOM on the development of Insurance industry in Nigeria was tested using Multiple Regression Analysis. The result showed that Regulatory function and Supervision significantly impacted the development of Insurance industry in Nigeria [(R^2 = .615; F (2,124) = 97.401; p < .05)]. This infers that supervisory and regulatory functions of NAICOM jointly accounted for about 61.5% of the variance observable in the development of Insurance industry.

In addition, the result of the coefficients of multiple determination for the model shows that the independent contribution of supervision and regulatory functions were significant ((β = .763; t = 13.007; p< .000) and (β = .504; t = 8.598; p< .000). In terms of magnitude, supervision has the highest magnitude of (β =. 763), followed by regulatory function (β =. 504).

Conclusion

This study is based on the impact of regulatory bodies on the development of insurance industry in Nigeria. The study made use of survey research design. A total number of 125 respondents were administered questionnaire. The result of the first research question revealed that majority of the respondents agree that poor knowledge of insurance services by prospective assured (X = 2.48, SD = 1.21), emerging threats amidst macroeconomic uncertainty (X = 1.93, SD = 0.96), lack of skilled personnel (X = 1.79, SD = 0.89) and Inadequate access to information technology (X = 1.24, SD = 0.62) are some of the challenges encountered by insurance industry in Nigeria.The result of the second research question showed that majority of the respondents agree that appropriate and effective precautions put in place by regulatory bodies in monitoring insurance has helped the development of the sector (X = 3.24, SD = 1.77), regulatory framework had been effective in development of Nigerian Insurance sector (X = 3.14, SD = 1.65) and Regulation has contributed to the development of insurance sector in Nigeria (X = 3.43, SD = 1.59) are some of ways through which regulation and supervision of NAICOM contributed to the development of Insurance sector.

The result of the hypothesis revealed that the regulatory function and supervision significantly impacted the development of Insurance industry in Nigeria jointly accounting for about 61.5% of the variance observable in the development of Insurance industry. This finding supports the study of Igbinosa, Ogbeide and, Babatunde (2017) who reported that regulation significantly impacts sector performance. This study concludes that good regulation and supervision are necessary in order to minimize the adverse impact of moral hazard and relative shocks in the insurance industry, thus decreasing the likelihood of distress in the insurance industry.

Recommendations

i. The regulatory body, National Insurance Commission should be empowered to stipulate minimum prudential standards ranging from entry requirements, thresholds for illiquidity and insolvency, to failure resolution options.

ii. The availability of insurance services is essential for the stability of the economy and can make the business participants accept aggravated risks. By accepting claims, insurance companies also have to pool premiums and form reserve funds. Thus, this study recommends an increased diversification of insurance products.

iii. The regulatory body, NAICOM and other market actors in the insurance industry should form a partnership in order to build and design product and pricing structures that are aimed at people of varying financial levels.

iv. NAICOM as a regulatory body has to find a balance between accomplishing its aims of safeguarding consumers and overregulation.

v. In order to increase insurance penetration in Nigeria, the stakeholders in the insurance market should establish and maintain effective distribution channels and partnership with subsidiary channels, like agent banking system, as a means of expanding the touch points of insurance schemes.

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GROWING BURDEN OF INTRA-AFRICAN MIGRATION AND REFUGEES

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Abstract

The phenomena of migration and refugees are inevitable in an increasingly interconnected world. Africa is a landscape of diverse migrants and refugees trajectory due to constant armed conflicts, political instability, environmental distress and economic challenges to name just a few. The issue of migration and refuges need to be handled expertly by African Leaders in order to foster the desirable development in the region. The inability on the side of the governments and other policy makers had prevented African Continent from experiencing holistic development. Though literature acknowledges the potential of migration and refugees to engender development when properly harnessed, there is some evidence that migration and refugees are associated with adverse social, economic, political, health, environmental and cultural impacts for everyone involved. This paper highlights the drivers, trends and burden of intra-African migration and refugees as they affect regional development. The study concludes that tackling the menace of migration and refuges within the region would prevent economy waste and equally, governments should try to formulate and implement policies that could suppress the growth of migration and refuges.

Key words: Burden, Migration, Refugees, Development, Africa, Intra-Africa

INTRODUCTION

Migration and refugees within the African region are contemporary issues which have received much less attention from governments, scholars and other stakeholders over the past few decades. More focus seems to be on the flow of African migrants and refugees bound for Europe (International Organisation for Migration, 2017). The literature is replete with studies on the potential social, economic and other benefits of migration and refugees while neglecting their burden. Focusing on the burden of migration and refugees will help African governments understand the critical issues regarding cross-border movements to strengthen the existing policy frameworks to make them more effective.

Generally, migration is a term that covers a wide variety of movements and situations involving individuals from all walks of life. According to Mafukidze (2006), migration is the relocation of people within space that involves their permanent or temporary change of residence. Rwamatwara (2005) averred that migration could be voluntary or forced within and outside national borders. The International Organisation for Migration (2003) described migration as a population movement, whatever its length or composition. Migration becomes international when people cross the border. Much of international migration is voluntary and is common among people following economic or social opportunities. By contrast, a person becomes a refugee when leaves his home country due to social and political problems such as constant armed conflicts, wars, violation of human rights and environmental distresses. United Nations (1951) described a refugee as any person who moves out of his country and is unwilling to return home due to well-founded fear of racial or political persecution.

Though migration and refugee, as population mobility, share some similarities in root causes, patterns, and characteristics, they differ in some ways (Adepoju, 2019). First, unlike migration, people in refugee situations are forced to leave their homes against their will without having a place to settle immediately. Secondly, refugees may not want to return home after crossing the national boundary and settling down in a new place but migrants are likely to return home when the conditions prompting their flight no longer exist (Shimeles, 2010).

Africa is a continent at war with itself due to its frequent conflicts and internecine wars. The resultant effect is the mass migration of people from one part of the continent to the other. Most African sub-regions have at one time or the other been places of origin, transit, destination and return for the ever-growing African migrant and refugee population. The trend of mass migration and refugees in the African continent today is increasingly driven by political crisis, economic mismanagement, armed conflicts, insecurity, environmental degradation and poverty. Cross-border migration in Africa may also represent a means of livelihood and strategy for individuals to cope with environmental and economic hardships apart from helping in understanding and forecasting the onset and evolution of humanitarian adversities.

African migration and refugees are intracontinental and have continued to rise (Schoumaker et al., 2015; Sander & Maimbo, 2003; Dick & Schraven, 2018). For instance, 1nternational Organisation for Migration (2019) reported that approximately 18.5 million African migrants lived within the continent in 2015. By 2019, the number had increased to 21 million. Similarly, the International Labour Organisation (2002) estimated that the number of labour migrants in Africa today constitutes one-fifth of the global total, stressing that by 2025, one in ten Africans will live and work outside their countries of origin. South Africa is the popular destination for African migrants averaging 4 million regular and undocumented immigrants, followed by Cote d'Ivoire with 2.5 million migrants. Uganda hosts more than 500,000 refugees from neighbouring countries such as Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo and South Sudan. Like the Horn of Africa, refugee camps are springing up in all other sub-regions, especially in West and South Africa caused by violent conflicts, civil unrest, environmental disasters, oppressive regimes and human rights abuses. Sadly, there are new twists in the tale of Africa's migrant and refugee flows.

Migration and refugees are cross-cutting issues which usually occur in different forms with complex consequences. Migration is, thus, seen as an inherent and desirable part of the developmental process. Despite these reported benefits, there is evidence that migration and refugees are associated with negative consequences. Undoubtedly, these two phenomena are among the reasons for the perpetual underdevelopment of the entire African region. However, the literature focusing on the burden of migration and refugees in the African context is disappointedly sparse. Against this background, this paper highlights the drivers, trends and burden of migration and refugees as they affect African regional development to inform policymakers and proffer solutions.

DRIVERS OF INTRA-AFRICAN MIGRATION AND REFUGEES

The dynamics of African human mobility, like those of the other world regions, are assumed to be triggered by a combination of pull and push factors. On the one hand, push factors include civil conflict, environmental distress, natural disasters and decreasing agricultural yields. On the other hand, pull factors comprise increased opportunities for employment, education and better access to healthcare. It has become apparent over the years that the push-pull model alone does not account for human migration, particularly in the African context. Indeed, other factors that account for people's tendency to migrate away from their homelands are gradually coming into view. Lower costs of migration, improved communication, greater information availability and the need to join relatives, families and friends are among the factors which compound with push-pull factors. De Haas (2011) also noted that the reasons for migration in Africa go beyond the push-pull model. According to him, migration is a function of people's aspirations and capabilities to move. He stated that people only move when they have the ambitions and resources to do so.

Most migrants in Africa, like the rest of the world, move for other reasons such as trade, work, marriage, education, pilgrimage, status, a good place to live and the desire to enjoy the freedom of worship (Schoumaker *et al*., 2015; Bakewell & Jȯnsson, 2011; Bakewell & Bonfiglio, 2013). Nonetheless, aside from the above-stated reasons, violent conflict is the principal reason for the rising incidence of migration and refugees in almost all the African sub-regions. Violent conflict also accounts for many other problems in the continent. It is a fact that Africa has the highest number of armed conflicts in the post-cold war world with 69% of the deaths resulting from these conflicts between 1994 and 2006 coming from sub-Saharan Africa alone (Nana, 2008). In addition, Momodu (2017) noted that the conflicts had displaced many citizens at the rate of 34,000 people per day. Many people believe that every problem in the continent would frizzle out once the continent can deal with its conflict issues and embrace peace (Albert, 2011).

The causes of violent conflict in Africa that result in the displacement of people from their homes are multifarious. One of these is the intransigence, wickedness and ineptitude of most African leaders. Ayittey (2005) opined that African leaders' penchant for neopatrimonialism regularly deprives many citizens of the opportunity to participate in government, making many citizens feel aggrieved and return to their traditional roots of consensual democracy within smaller communities.

This attitude naturally leads to the fanning of the embers of ethnicity and other parochial sentiments which often culminate in political violence as witnessed in different parts of the African continent. In addition, the questionable ways most African leaders usually come into office and remain in power for a long time could be responsible for the persistent armed conflicts in Africa. Other causes of violent conflicts in Africa are ethnic profiling, religious intolerance, war, militancy and insurgency. Constant clashes among rival militant groups have forced thousands to flee their homes in the Central African Republic while over 2 million people have been made homeless in Nigeria as a result of Boko Haram’s violence (Momodu, 2017)

People tend to migrate due to climatic change, leading to a rapid increase in the population of refugees and migrants with its devastating impact ranging from limitation in natural resources, food insecurity, poor nutrition and hygiene to lack of healthcare facilities (UNHCR, 2019). Frequently, refugees and local citizens tend to clash in attempts to access the few available resources, often resulting in the expulsion of the refugees by the authorities in the host communities. People displaced (primary displacement) for other reasons may migrate to areas affected by climate change which may further force them into a secondary migration (UNHCR, 2019). While the migrants and refugees hardly contribute to the generators of climate change, they are affected by its consequences (Ahmed, 2019).

Environmental factors such as drought and scarcity of water are drivers of migration and refugees. Burkina Faso, Lesotho, Mali, Somalia, and Sudan are particularly vulnerable to drought and water scarcity characterized by seasonal migration. Burundi, a war-torn country for many years, has also experienced high water stress (Ohlsson, 1999). As violent conflicts in sub-Saharan Africa are becoming less intense, economic and environmental factors now dominate the causes of migration and refugees. For instance, recent overviews of international migration from Sub-Saharan Africa by scholars such as Lucas (2006), Adepoju (2006) and Akokpari (2000) all emphasized that, apart from conflict, economic and environmental factors are determinants of migration from Sub-Saharan Africa.

Hatton and Williamson (2002) argued that "population pressure on the resource base" is an underlying determinant of migration in Sub-Saharan Africa. Stern (2006) stated that migration due to environmental factors could become even more significant because of climate change. Land degradation is also a concern to 32 countries in Africa; about 65 per cent of the cultivable lands have been washed away by erosion and chemical and physical damage. Deforestation costs more than four million hectares; that is twice the world's average deforestation rate. Over 300 million people in sub-Saharan Africa are already experiencing water scarcity. Areas experiencing water shortages in sub-Saharan Africa are likely to increase by almost one-third by 2050 (UNEP, 2008).

People tend to migrate to countries with historical affinity and linguistic connection. African countries share extensive commonalities along borders, sometimes cutting through four or five countries. Most emigrants from Somalia, Djibouti, Ethiopia and Eritrea share common ethnic, religious and linguistic ties. Likewise, emigrants from Burundi and Rwanda can easily fit into the population in Uganda and Tanzania because of the large ethnic group residing in these countries that speak the same language and share historical ties. In Southern Africa, it is easy for migrants from Lesotho, Swaziland, Mozambique and Botswana to blend into communities in South Africa. Similarly, many citizens from the surrounding West African countries can easily migrate to Cote d'Ivoire based on similar religious and historic bonds.

In some African countries, governments have failed to create jobs for their teeming unemployed citizens. As a result, most citizens often decide to relocate to other countries for income-earning opportunities. Migrants and refugees are recognised to play a major role in filling labour shortages and contributing to social protection systems in destination countries (van Panhuys *et al.*, 2017). The increased demand for domestic workers and other forms of care work within the African continent has similarly expanded opportunities for migration for employment while raising concerns over the quality of working and living conditions in the destination countries. These concerns have prompted several African countries including Ethiopia, Ghana and Uganda to make bilateral labour arrangements with major destination countries to regulate labour migration flows. Demand for highly skilled workers in engineering, information technology, education and finance is especially driving migration within the continent and even beyond. The share of migrants in highly skilled positions is relatively high in South Africa (25.2%), Zimbabwe (16.1%) and Ghana (9.4%) (UNCTAD, 2018).

TRENDS IN INTRA-AFRICAN MIGRATION AND REFUGEES

Africa comprises large, complex, heterogeneous and crisis-driven migratory flows such as regular and irregular migrants, asylum seekers and refugees. Adepoju (2019) opined that the trend of intra-African human mobility is labour migration in West and Central Africa, movement of refugees in Eastern and Southern Africa, and migration of skilled professionals from West and East to Southern Africa. Many surveys and studies have shown that more than 80% of migration takes place within the continent and is characterized mainly by intra-regional and inter-regional migration, that is, from West Africa to Southern Africa, from East/Horn of Africa to Southern Africa (Schoumaker et al., 2015; Sander & Maimbo, 2003; Dick & Schraven, 2018; Adepoju, 2019).

Refugees and migrant movements in Africa share some similarities regarding their root causes, patterns, and characteristics. Both are caused or aggravated by poverty, underdevelopment, poor governance, and conflicts. Some countries that initially were transit of refugees are currently origin and destination countries. Refugees in Africa comprise political refugees, freedom fighters and a large residual group with mixed characteristics. They also include women and youth fleeing from war or racial, religious and cultural conflict or persecution and those escaping from famine, drought and other forms of natural disaster. Between 1990 and 2017, Africa had an estimated 118,374,355 refugees of which Somalia accounted for the highest number.

The Somali two-decades-long civil war, political instability and the severe droughts in the region resulting in a deteriorating humanitarian situation have forced many Somalis to be refugees, seeking help in neighbouring countries (Polonsky *et al.*, 2014). West Africa has been dominating the African continent as a sub-region with the highest mobility rate since the early 1970s, partly due to better coordination of immigration across nation-states, deeper historical roots and relatively better-integrated sub-region even in colonial times. East Africa has been home to a flood of refugees for a long time. South Africa has served as the main destination for emigrants from Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe (Lucas, 2006; Shaw, 2007). The Greater Horn of Africa has been the centre of increased violence intensity potentially fuelled by extreme weather shocks in Somalia as well as in North and South Sudan (O'Loughlin et al. 2012; Maystadt & Ecker, 2014; Maystadt et al. 2015).

Intra-African migration is associated with trade, particularly among countries in the West African sub-region such as Nigeria, Ghana and Cote d'Ivoire (Afolayan et al. 2009b). Trade is a mechanism through which intra-African migration contributes to the continent's economic development, and it is an important element in the African Union's Revised Migration Policy Framework for Africa (2018–2027). Intra-African trade, defined as the average of intra-African exports and imports, hovered at around 15.2 per cent between 2015 and 2017 (UNCTAD, 2019). During the pre-colonial era, people migrated for short and long distance trading, sometimes across the Sahara. The traders crossed the relatively stable kingdoms and empires, which, though ill-defined in territorial boundaries, indicated movements over perceived separate political entities. These traders who were of Yoruba and Hausa extraction, operated across empires in the forested zones, up to the Sahelian belt within and outside present-day Nigeria and even up to the coastal states of North Africa.

The colonial period witnessed the introduction of an export-oriented economic policy with a special focus on cash crops in exchange for manufactured goods. In addition, some migrant traders were not only patronizing markets in the Gold Coast (Ghana), Ivory Coast (Cote d'Ivoire) and Dahomey (Republic of Benin), but they were also settling down in the host countries in sizeable numbers over a longer period. In post-colonial times, international migrant traders comprise more diverse categories of people who transacted business over a large area in more varied goods. As some destination countries have strengthened the requirements for entry into the formal economic sector, many African migrant traders are now moving into the informal sector (Afolayan *et al.,* 2009). Informal traders include both men and women who often cross sub-regional borders to buy and sell products. The cross-border nature of informal trade makes it an important part of the migration–trade–development nexus and deserves consideration for an appropriate policy response. Migrants contribute to the socio-economic development of both countries of origin and destination. As migration is associated with trade, the economic and trade channels through which it passes are particularly important.

African Countries with Largest Reported Number of Emigrants

Country of Origin	Conflict	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020
Egypt	√	1,321,915	1,492,004	1,708,296	1,807,941	2,586,643	3,151,069	3,610,461
Morocco		1,748,116	1,883,924	2,077,010	2,470,656	2,860,702	2,971,770	3,262,222
South Sudan	√	514,943	438,044	342,628	228,537	402,616	1,060,678	2,575,870
Sudan	√	584,935	775,375	885,660	1,277,632	1,235,193	1,842,602	2,104,887
Somalia	√	848,055	968,956	1,006,128	1,060,953	1,595,328	2,008,490	2,034,221
Algeria		921,665	979,641	1,037,985	1,599,647	1,655,264	1,836,502	2,022,337
DRC	√	436,513	559,824	862,039	1,130,872	1,298,544	1,572,222	1,832,069
Nigeria	√	446,753	524,535	610,130	817,392	996,914	1,306,526	1,670,455
Burkina Faso	√	1,021,331	1,215,665	1,279,414	1,352,292	1,434,528	1,518,568	1,599,347
Mali	√	647,426	820,564	772,866	895,360	994,832	1,228,544	1,303,511
Zimbabwe		204,363	287,995	351,985	500,773	754,643	1,167,064	1,243,314
Côte d'Ivoire		366,336	449,498	539,234	731,962	939,795	1,056,380	1,149,298
Ghana		371,157	428,051	495,887	665,731	762,002	892,253	1,004,324
Ethiopia	√	1,689,941	816,420	445,886	524,038	680,290	842,496	946,129
South Africa		308,120	385,988	501,600	601,803	743,807	786,554	914,901
Tunisia		465,549	476,933	486,964	579,009	615,732	774,376	902,268

Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) (Source: 2022)

BURDEN OF CROSS-BORDER MOVEMENT IN AFRICA

The objective of development globally is the satisfaction of human needs and aspirations. Development is a transformational process for a better situation, and it aims at improving individual and collective human conditions. Ajibade (2013) amplified this view when he posited that development is a process that embodies attempts to improve the conditions of human existence in all ramifications through the provision of health care, education, housing and other essential services. Development processes expand people's access to material resources, social networks, education, and media, and boost infrastructure and transportation. Development is therefore critical to the growth of any individual, society or nation.

Sadly, Africa appears to have lagged behind other regions in almost all indices of what development signifies. Many countries in the African region have low levels of human and economic development. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Human Development Index (HDI) ranking from 1990 to 2007, for instance, consistently listed African countries such as Niger, Sierra-Leone, Chad, Burkina Faso, Mali, Ethiopia, Burundi and Guinea–Bissau as worst places to live on earth (Albert, 2011). This situation is partly attributable to the negative impact of migration and refugees engineered by violent conflicts, leadership failure, environmental degradation, economic mismanagement and poverty. It is unlikely that most African countries will achieve the desired development if they fail to find lasting solutions to the above-listed problems. Though some people point to developmental gains whenever migrants and refugees return home with new technologies, skills, trade, investment and social norms, it is doubtful if the so-called developmental gains benefit the home citizens. However, one should note that since the economies are diverse, the effects of migration and refugees are bound to vary from region to region. More so, the development process depends on population, resources, infrastructure, capital formation, trade, political stability, skill level and work ethics. Countries with much lower per capita Gross Domestic Product and lower growth rates tend to suffer most when they host migrants and refugees.

The effects of migration and refugees are usually felt by all those involved including the sending and receiving countries. Migration and refugees have serious negative consequences such as destabilization of regional security and straining of inter-state relations (African Union, 2018). Migration can also give rise to xenophobia, discrimination and other social pathologies. The refugees and migrants encounter serious hardships during flight, the countries of origin experience human capital flight while the destination countries groan under the burden of over-stretched resources. Worse still, the immigrants may abuse the environment by resorting to drug pushing and prostitution to survive. Moreover, migration and refugees adversely impact the social processes of the affected countries, which in turn poses challenges for political leaders at every level.

The phenomena of migration and refugees, thus, influence regional development negatively in various ways. The most noticeable and often cited negative impact of migration and refugee flows is the depletion of scarce and highly skilled human resources otherwise known as brain drain. This phenomenon occurs when a significant number of highly skilled nationals leave their countries of origin to seek livelihoods in other countries. According to United Nations Conference for Trade and Development (UNCTAD) (2018), brain drain is the emigration of trained or qualified persons, resulting in a depletion of skilled labour in a given country. Brain drain can have detrimental effects on the economies of countries of origin by hampering the growth and development of industries and service sectors where highly skilled nationals are needed. Countries with low foreign exchange earnings are particularly vulnerable to human capital flight. Brain drain hits the sectors of health, education and technological development severely. The impact of brain drain is felt mostly in education and health sectors in small countries that face severe shortages of skilled personnel (Docquier *et al.* 2010b).

Moreover, brain drain may result in severe underemployment in the affected countries and deprive them of skills necessary for innovation, technological transfer and entrepreneurial development, thereby hindering their development agenda (Bahgwati & John, 1989; Awases, Gbary, Nyoni, & Chatora, 2004)). In Nigeria, for instance, anecdotal evidence suggests that highly skilled professionals are moving to other countries in large numbers. The outflow has now become a flood and is brought about by a slumping currency, worsening insecurity, spiralling inflation and corruption. Most of the highly skilled Nigerian and other African migrants seem to have found South Africa, Botswana, Kenya and Ghana as better alternatives to Europe (Afolayan et al., 2009). Viewed critically, large-scale emigration by the well-educated could contribute to poor quality of public services and create a vicious circle between development and skilled labour emigration. Such a possibility should inform the need for policy coordination by national governments of both origin and destination countries to determine and manage the size and composition of migrants. Even though some highly skilled migrants may still maintain contact with their home countries through the so-called remittances, one should know that no amount of remittances can compensate for the loss of valuable skills.

The impact of migration and refugees on the economic development of many African nations is devastating. Migration and refugees pose an economic burden in terms of loss of jobs, pressure on public services, social tension and increased criminality (UNDP, 2009). Migrants and refugees increase competition for local resources such as land, fuel and water, and negatively influence host countries' infrastructure. They cause conflict and hamper development. For example, migrants and refugees contributed to population growth and placed undue pressure on urban areas in Gambia, Guinea and Mauritania. They also broke down traditional family structures and promoted crime in Kenya, Malawi, Côte d'Ivoire, and Sierra Leone in addition to spreading diseases such as HIV/AIDS in Burkina Faso, Niger and Sierra Leone. Similarly, they stimulated land degradation in Ethiopia and reinforced rural poverty in Côte d'Ivoire, Gambia, Malawi, Niger and Sierra Leone.

High migration directly affects the availability of places at schools, and inevitably pushes schools towards increasing class sizes and adding classrooms. When an influx of migration occurs, it sometimes becomes necessary to ramp up resources and capacity to deal with it. The lack of such resources poses big issues for governments, undermining efforts to keep class size down and to provide school places for all children. The outflow of migrants and refugees can similarly lead to overcrowding in cities and impact public health, employment, security and economic stability negatively. For instance, the Tanzania government recently blamed the refugees for truncating the nation's economic development by aggravating a scarcity of resources. The government of Tanzania claimed that the quality of national programmes such as welfare and the national poverty reduction strategy was negatively affected by the reallocation of funds from government resources to refugee programmes. The government also lamented that the sharing of common goods and infrastructure strained both resources and relations between refugees and citizens who found themselves competing for those goods.

Some people believe that migrants and refugees are both a cause and a consequence of insecurity. The large number of refugees displaced by conflict and other factors seems to pose existential security threats to governments. Extremist migrants may use the host countries as safe havens for planning assaults and can even recruit followers in their host countries. Migrants may also pose a threat to cultural identity. Some regions in the world have been the subject of attacks linked to international terrorist networks and there is a possibility that they might constitute targets for further assaults. Large spontaneous and unregulated flows hurt national stability and security by hindering countries' ability to control their borders, creating tensions between countries of origin and destination. Some refugees from war-torn zones usually migrate to other countries with their weapons. There is a likelihood that some of them may use those weapons to commit crimes such as armed robbery and poaching in their countries of destination. There is also a wider security concern suggesting that migrants would be more involved in criminal activities than the natives (Mattes et al. 2000; Danso & McDonald 2001; Quirk 2008).

The potential of unregulated human mobility across African sub-regions to create a security challenge is a fall-out of Africa's existing security environment which remains fragile with a wide array of ongoing and emerging threats including non-state threats. Militia factions and armed gangs are deeply involved in the continent's civil wars, fighting both for and against African governments. Threats emerging from terrorist groups such as Al-Shabaab, Boko Haram and the Islamic State in Eastern and Western Africa are especially considered a major security concern.

Human mobility across the continent also takes its toll on family processes, especially in the country of origin (D'Emilio et al. 2007). There is no denying that moving to another country and being separated from one's immediate family takes place at a considerable emotional cost. For instance, temporary circular migration increases the risk of family breakdown, fragmentation of social networks and psychosocial stress (Kahn et al. 2003). The emotional impact is not only limited to the migrants themselves, but it also extends to the family they left behind, especially those families who cannot afford to emigrate together. The longer the separation between the migrating parents and the children they left behind, the more the children lose their parents' reference in managing the household, their authority and their role as providers of love and material care. Other family members may replace the parents or the children themselves may take up the parenting role. The feelings of rejection, abandonment and loss that the children suffer cannot be compensated by the material gifts and remittances sent from abroad. Separation from the parents has long-term consequences in all aspects of the children's lives.

Evidence points to the fact that the offspring from migrant families have lower educational attainment than other children, as the boys of the migrants are more likely to opt for migration themselves while the girls' domestic workload may increase. Children left behind by migrants may adopt risky behaviour; the absence of mothers is associated with the involvement of children in violence. The children may also engage in truancy, drug abuse and alcohol consumption, thereby contributing to societal decadence.

Furthermore, one of the most significant features of migration and refugees is the process of urbanization which African countries are experiencing at a high rate compared to other regions of the world. Urbanization is the shift in population from rural areas to urban settlements. The diverse migrant population in Africa consists of men and women as well as boys and girls who tend to be drawn to cities by social and economic opportunities or by family ties. This situation arises because the distribution of opportunities between urban and rural areas remains uneven across African countries. Urbanization results from complex and interlinked "push" and "pull" factors. Push factors include civil strife, environmental degradation, natural disasters, and declining agricultural yields while pull factors comprise increased opportunities for employment, education and better access to healthcare.

As much as urbanization may be an integral aspect of economic and social development, it can also retard development when not regulated. Rapid urbanization puts pressure on scarce water, energy and food resources, causes uncontrolled waste disposal, and places refugees and migrants in direct competition with local communities. In other words, rapid and unregulated urbanization strains the existing urban infrastructure and services, resulting in higher rates of urban poverty, lack of access to adequate housing, health care, education and environmental problems. This, in turn, can lead to desperate actions by the authorities of the host countries as witnessed in Zimbabwe where the government forcefully ordered the migrants to leave the shanty towns around Harare in 2005 (UNDP 2009).

The association between migration and health concerns has recently become the focus of the international discourse on migration as regards the spread of communicable diseases such as HIV/AIDS. Many migrants across Africa come from communities affected by conflict or economic crisis and undertake long journeys that increase their vulnerability to ill health. They also experience restricted access to health services. Human mobility can amplify the spread of communicable diseases as witnessed in the recent SARS, H1N1, H5N1 and COVID-19 pandemics. Migrants and refugees are often seen as vectors of disease. In today's world, new communicable diseases are emerging at an alarming rate, often with the ability to cross borders rapidly and spread (WHO, 2017).

Population mobility may hinder effective outbreak control and increases the risk of disease spreading across international borders, as seen during the recent outbreak of Ebola epidemics and COVID-19 pandemics which claimed many lives. During the pandemic period, cross-border contact tracing may be difficult and as long as one country experiences intense transmission, other countries remain at risk (WHO, 2015). Besides, seasonal migrant workers moving from low malaria endemic areas to higher malaria endemic areas are susceptible to malaria infections and may have significant barriers to the use of malaria prevention and control measures, risking bringing malaria back to their home communities. Human population movements from higher transmission areas also risk reintroduction and resurgence in malaria-free receptive areas which can undermine elimination efforts (Pindolia, 2013). For example, in the northern South African province of Mpumalanga between 2001 and 2008, almost half of the cases of malaria were acquired in a neighbouring country (Ngomane & DeJager, 2012). Migration increases vulnerability to HIV and has been identified in certain regions in sub-Saharan Africa as an independent risk factor for HIV among men and women (Lurie, et, al.2003)

Above all, the activities of insurgents who sought refuge in most African forest reserves to launch offensives against African governments do much harm to African regional development. Most of these insurgents migrated from other countries as refugees and some became refugees due to conflicts with regular military forces. Once they settle in the forests, the insurgents often engage in illegal and indiscriminate exploitation of forest resources as well as kidnapping and hostage-taking (Albert, 2017). An example of this is the criminal exploitation of forest resources such as diamonds, gold and other precious metals in the forests of Liberia and Sierra Leone between 1992 and 2001.

The insurgents also engage in poaching of endangered animal species such as tigers, elephants and rhinos which they sell to other countries. The profit generated is then chanelled into acquiring arms and ammunition to continue the genocidal conflicts in Africa. For instance, insurgents like Al Shaba and Lord Resistance Army operating in the Eastern African sub-region killed and displaced thousands of people aided by stolen forest resources (Bergenas, Stohl & Adala, 2013; Albert, 2017). All these activities reduce the capability of the affected countries to generate more revenue for development purposes. In Nigeria, *Boko Haram*, formerly based in Maiduguri, now hold sway in the Sambisa forest from where they launch occasional attacks on government forces. This has been the trend since 2009. The insurgents have killed many people including members of the Armed Forces and displaced countless others from their homes. Money meant for development is heavily committed to fighting the insurgents.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusively, it is obvious that African Leaders and policy makers have not deliberately both some measures in place to reduce these teething problems African migrants' and refugees' trajectory is a problem for governments in all the sub-regions. Governments must rise to the challenge to halt the trend through appropriate policy measures. In this connection, the following recommendations are suggested:

i. African leaders need to forge closer ties to tackle the root causes of violent conflicts that often create migrants and refugees in the continent. To this end, Africa's leaders should make a sustained effort to strengthen Africa's protocol on conflict prevention and resolution.
ii. African leaders also need to promote good governance in their domains by imbibing the virtues of justice, fairness, transparency and accountability while performing their onerous duties.
iii. The African Union needs to work on the proposed African Common Passport and the protocol on the free movement of persons that will facilitate regional integration and intraregional migration.
iv. There is a pressing need to create political, social and economic conditions in Africa that would serve as incentives to curb the brain drain and attract the much-needed investment. In this regard, a reliable database on brain drain should be set up to determine the magnitude of the problem and to promote networking and collaboration between experts in the country and those in the diaspora
v. There is a need for effective border management and control through the issuance of travel documents such as passports, visas, temporary passports, laissez-passers and identification cards for border crossing based on specific bilateral agreements.
vi. There is a need for effective and sustainable management of information through public information and education campaigns to promote tolerance and understanding of migrants and to counter anti-immigrant and xenophobic attitudes.
vii. Migrants and refugees need to have unfettered access to healthcare services with particular attention to the needs of the vulnerable groups through the

enhancement of the collaboration with agencies such as the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, International Organization for Migration, World Health Organization, International Committee of the Red Cross, United Nations Fund for Population Activities and the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS

viii. African governments should formulate and implement policies to enable migrants trade across borders with minimum legal control. They should also increase state allocations to support the teeming youth and ensure a paradigm shift towards self-sustainability.

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THOUGHTS ON THE CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF YOUTH INVOLVEMENT IN INTRA/INTER-RELIGIOUS VIOLENCE IN WEST AFRICA

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Abstract

Youth propensity for crime, violence, violent extremism, and other forms of base radicalism is a cause of major concern for world leaders and leaders of thought. Youths in most parts of the world have become ready tools for vengeful assaults on behalf of religious leaders and politicians. They engage in kidnapping, pipeline vandalism, mass weapon assaults, armed robbery and outright terrorism. Efforts of international organizations like the United Nations (UN), The African Union (AU) and regional bodies like the Economic Communities of West African States (ECOWAS) through institutionalization of policies, codes and conventions seem to have yielded little impact as youths, particularly in Africa, get more radicalized by the day. The issue of radicalization of youths in West African States is closely related to religion. Meanwhile, the personality development of the youth is critical to national growth. Therefore, deficiency in their growth inadvertently culminates in national deficiency in the long run. To this end, the paper interrogates the influence of the home, cultural values and norms, traditional education, government policies, and socio-economic imperatives on youth behavior using extant literature and observation. It concludes that the agents of socialization have roles to play in the re-orientation of the youth and recommends practical, traditional peace-building approaches for youth re-orientation.

KEYWORDS: Terrorism, Violent extremism, Religion, Conflict, Youth.

INTRODUCTION

Youth radicalization and violent extremities are global phenomena. Hardly is there any country in the world where its youths are not involved in one form of restiveness or the other. Ansari (2017) declares:

> *For all the talk of global and domestic conflict that continued through 2017, many of the internal social and existential issues faced by both the Western and Muslim worlds in the last year were similar, if not almost identical. Across different societies and civilisations, we share a global culture – particularly an online culture – where atomised, isolated and disaffected youth are vulnerable to radicalisation, whether by Isis or the far right.*

These twin phenomena have become serious challenges to the internal and territorial security of many nations thereby forcing nations to ponder effective strategies to address them. In contemporary African States youth radicalization and violent extremism are closely related to religion although other socio-economic precipitants like ethnicity do play out. A look at the composition of leading terrorists groups in Africa, like the Al Shabbab, Al Qaeda, Boko Haram, Anti-balaka, the Manmasi National Christian Army (MNCA), National Liberation Front of Tipura (NLFT) and Ansar-al-Sharia would reveal their close linkage with religions. Religious sects find most of their youths going overboard in their religious beliefs claiming that old orders be abolished and their new thoughts embraced. It becomes so intense when they declare death sentence on all who reject their new movements and begin to actually kill maim and destroy all that would not accept their new order.

A cursory look at the age bracket of these perpetrators would reveal that most of the perpetrators are youths. Guterres (2018) maintains, "Nearly half the world's population – 46 per cent – is 24 years-old or younger."

"Africa and the Middle East have the highest proportions of young people." This is an alarming figure considering the socio-economic impact it portends. Youths are so brainwashed that they become tools for religious brigandage and slaves to, rather than masters of their religion.

ECOWAS, in Article 3 (d) of the Protocol Relating to the Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management, Resolution, Peacekeeping and Security commits to strengthening cooperation in the areas of conflict prevention, early-warning, peace-keeping operations, the control of cross-border crime, international terrorism and proliferation of small arms and anti-personnel mines. This commitment to preventive diplomacy is evident in the series of peacebuilding projects instituted throughout the West African Region particularly the Early Warning System which is aimed at tracking budding conflicts and taking pro-active actions towards preventing its escalation. Scholars of Peace and Conflict Studies refer to this as preventive diplomacy.

The Significance Quest Theory

A psychologically beleaguered youth has a high propensity for radicalisation as he continues to look for prop ups for his seeming physical, mental, social and psychological deprivations. According to Beelmann (2020), Moskalenko 2011 and Arie Kruglanski's research team formulated a general social psychological model of extremism. He opines that their *Significance Quest Theory* emphasizes the motivational bases of radicalization, such as personal revenge or social grievance. He maintains that these play an important role in explaining why people become involved in the radicalization process.

Significance Quest Theory hinges on the theory that people have basic needs for recognition, significance, and positive self-esteem (Mcleod, 2018; Baumeister and Leary 1995), and where these seem unattainable, there is a propensity for crime, violent extremism and radicalisation. This psychological situation increases the drive to desperately look for alternatives that boost the morale of such an individual. Most of the time, what are available are alternatives of crooked values. Should individual attempts fail due to inadequate personal competencies and social resources or because the causes of loss of significance cannot be compensated individually, totalitarian narratives and ideologies and extremist social groups offer a possible way of regaining it. These assumptions have been confirmed in empirical studies —at least on the attitude level (Webber et al. 2017).

Corroborating the assertions above, Ewi, M. and Salifu, U.(2017) assert:

> *The needs 'to belong and be respected' have become key sociological issues for young people who are in search of a cause, heroism and justice. Such needs may arise as a result of relative deprivation, identity crises or both. Terrorist groups such as Boko Haram seem to provide a platform for such youths.*

This theory provides a strong framework for the propensity of West African youths for crime and other violent extremisms. Youths in West African countries bear the brunt of poor governance often characterized by massive youth unemployment, poor supply of social amenities, lack of basic human needs (Food, Shelter and Clothing), and general lack of hope for the future. Many of them rise from the shackles of child-bread-winners to the despairing status of youths without future; Hence, their vulnerability to the lure of radicalization.

CAUSES & CONSEQUENCES OF YOUTH INVOLVEMENT IN INTRA / INTER RELIGIOUS VIOLENCE

In this section, this paper looks at the variables of causes and consequences of youth involvement in intra and interreligious conflicts. The two variables shall be discussed under each item concurrently. The identified are not exhaustive but they form the major underpinnings of violent extremism and terrorism among youths in contemporary West Africa. Other causes not mentioned include socio-economic factors like, poverty, bad governance and poor leadership. However these are mentioned as integral parts of the highlighted points and were addressed in the recommendations.

Domestic Violence

Domestic Violence is gaining steady grounds among the barrage of global social ills and is fast assuming the status of a norm in some societies. Kaur & Garg believe that 'domestic violence' is a global issue reaching across national boundaries as well as socio-economic, cultural, racial and class distinctions. This problem is not only widely dispersed geographically, but its incidence is also extensive, making it a typical and accepted behaviour. It is a pattern of abusive behaviour through which a person seeks to control and dominate another person. When the aggression ends in death of a spouse, the hitherto happy family ties and togetherness are severed, the present scrubs off all past relationships and kills the hope for the future. This paper now looks at the impact of spousal aggression on the offspring of the spouses and society.

The Children

Domestic violence which sometimes leads to spousal murder creates physical and emotional harm to children and young people. It is so grievous because the offspring of the failed marriage are often witnesses of the dynamics of the conflict from the formation stage right through the crisis level. Thus they take in all the graphic details of the conflict unconsciously for easy access at the point of recall. These images portend serious challenges to the psyche of the children and their eventual developmental well-being. They often become mal-adjusted and exhibit one form of anti-social behaviour or the other in future. The inability of such children to adjust properly to society is in itself a danger to the immediate community and the society at large. Studies show that children who have witnessed spousal violence are more likely to be aggressive, develop symptoms of phobia, anxiety and depression, have diminished self-esteem, demonstrate low academic capability and problem-solving skills. They might also have reduced social competence skills including low level of empathy.

Society

The inability of children exposed to domestic violence to adjust properly to society is in itself a danger to the immediate community and the society at large. In the first instance they are unable to acquire proper education which can guarantee adequate job placement in future. Secondly, they are unable to cultivate and maintain healthy relationships and therefore jeopardise their chances of becoming responsible, committed and patriotic citizens. Society loses such children to cultism, drug abuse, prostitution and other vices and these accounts for productivity deficit at the national level. Their present has successfully deleted all societal confidence, hope and aspiration on them and hope is lost on their productivity and leadership in future. They therefore become vulnerable to the caprices of religious leaders with intention for terrorism.

Unmet Needs

In handling this discourse on the link between struggle for scarce resources and inter religious conflicts, it is pertinent to look at a few theories which are mutually inclusive. In human psychology, there are some basic needs which must be met to a reasonable extent before man could be fulfilled as a human entity. They are natural needs. Practically, the need to prevent or satisfy hunger makes demand for food imperative and concomitant to this are the needs for responding to nature's call for sex, love and social interaction.

In Maslow's hierarchy of needs, all these and others, like, the need for clothing and shelter are summed up at the bottom of the hierarchy as the physiological needs or the need for survival. According to Mcleod (2017), Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a five-tier model of human needs. Maslow discovered that people are motivated to achieve certain needs and that some needs take precedence over others. He regarded the need for physical survival as the primary need and this motivates man's behaviour towards satisfying this need. Maslow's theory has been subjected to several modifications through 1943, 1954,1962, 1970a and 1970b (Mcleod, 2017) and this has brought about an addition of three other steps to the hierarchy. Therefore, the Maslow pyramid being referenced in this discourse is of 1970b, which has eight main steps. This expanded model has appropriately taken care of the cognitive, aesthetic and transcendence needs. Mcleod (2017) presents the analysis thus:

- Biological and physiological needs - air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep, etc.
- Safety needs - protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, etc.
- Love and belongingness needs - friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love. Affiliating, being part of a group (family, friends, work).
- Esteem needs - which Maslow classified into two categories: (i) esteem for oneself (dignity, achievement, mastery, independence) and (ii) the desire for

reputation or respect from others (e.g., status, prestige).

- Cognitive needs - knowledge and understanding, curiosity, exploration, need for meaning and predictability.
- Aesthetic needs - appreciation and search for beauty, balance, form, etc.
- Self-actualization needs - realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.
- Transcendence needs - A person is motivated by values which transcend the personal self (e.g., mystical experiences and certain experiences with nature, aesthetic experiences, sexual experiences, service to others, the pursuit of science, and religious faith).

The eight tiers of the model can be divided into two. The first four tiers of the pyramid from the bottom are the deficiency needs (D-Needs) while the four at the top of the rung are called the Growth or Being needs (B-Needs). Deficiency arises from deprivation. Deprivation of the D-Needs inhibit the realisation of the B-needs and this makes self-realisation almost unachievable. A man, deprived of the opportunity to realise his D- needs, becomes deficient; this condition would motivate frustration and anger, and these would in turn beget conflict. It is in this connection that conflict becomes inevitable where basic human needs are not met. Meeting these needs is often constrained by scarce resources, inequitable distribution of resources, corruption, and insensitivity of leaders to the need of their people. To Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mower, and Sears (1939) aggression is a malicious behaviour or attitude towards someone or something, usually triggered by frustration.

Many West African youths are battling with the challenges of unmet needs. With the spiraling spate of youth unemployment, hunger and warped personality, they become vulnerable to the whims of leaders who hide under religion to achieve selfish political motives.

Eroding Cultural Values: Every society has a set of norms, beliefs values and practices which determine the way of life of its citizens. Nanda & Warms (2004) call these 'culture'- the learned behaviours and symbols that allow people to live in groups; the primary means by which humans adapt to their environments; the way of life, characteristic of a particular human society'. In the same vein, Olaifa (2014) defines culture as 'the total way of life of a group of people cohabiting within a geographical delineated location'. It includes all forms of shared values, customs, beliefs and language of the people in such a society. Culture manifests even in racial characteristics and sometimes in colour pigmentation of the human skin. For example, the extended family system of the black Africans is alien to the whites of other continents of the world. Whereas, the above is a way of life in Africa, it is objectionable among the whites. To this extent, culture differs from place to place according to the embraced norms and social values of the people. Culture is that complex whole, which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.

Man is a product of the culture from which he evolves. He cannot operate in isolation from his culture. His general perception is largely coloured by his cultural background, therefore, he thinks, speaks, behaves and postulates, based on the culture from which he emerges. It is the 'starting point' which orients man in particular ways, pointing towards some things and away from others (Le Baron and Pillay 2006:14). The subject of cultural influence cannot be ignored in understanding conflicts as culture permeates all relationships. Man's interpretation, reaction to and handling of conflicts are hinged upon his cultural perspectives. It forms the fulcrum on which social interaction within 'the group' or outside it is based. It is culture that dictates the level of understanding of relationships within the 'in group' and the 'out group'.

Its omnipresence notwithstanding, culture often operates covertly in conflicts. Apart from conflicts which causes are outright cultural, culture wields covert but potent influence on every conflict. Distortion of perception which is acknowledged by scholars as one of the basic triggers of conflict is firmly rooted in the concept of culture. The Zango- Kattaf conflict of Northern Nigeria was not just a clash of socio-economic values but also a deliberate assertion and rejection of cultural supremacy. Meanwhile, in Rwanda, the world witnessed a brazen example of an ethno-cultural conflict which could not be divorced from the socio- political exigencies of the contemporary world.

Religion cannot be extricated from culture. It forms part of a summed whole. Religion influences mode of behaviour, dressing and general perception which in turn determine the mode and level of social interaction. It is a very potent factor in determining the dynamics and intensity of global conflicts and conflicts in West Africa in particular.

Youths are often caught in the swirl of religious conflicts because they have been cultured to see adherents of other religions as different from them in many social-religious aspects and of course their sparse knowledge of the scriptural prescriptions on peaceful interaction with fellow men increases their propensity to regarding such people as enemies when conflict arises. The learned cultural values of mutual respect, good neighbourliness, social bonding through common beliefs, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society soon give way to religious bigotry and fanaticism.

Exposure to Modern Communication Technology: Needless to say, modern communication technology has opened today's youth to life beyond his geographical scope. This exposure has greatly influenced the perception of the youth who now sees himself as a global entity. Through the various forms of social media, he interacts freely with his peers locally and internationally and updates his knowledge of trends in every sphere of human activities. It is easy for the youth to associate with whatever group that matches his desires. The social media exposes him to a life without borders.

For the reasons stated above, a youth without strong social morals soon finds himself bombarded with unwholesome social choices which ultimately affect his perception and by extension, his general behaviour. Cases abound of youths recruited into violent extremism through the social media. The radicalisation of youths in West Africa is an all-encompassing phenomenon. Youths, male and female alike, often abandon their homes for a perceived new and glossy experiences with religion-linked terrorist groups. Indeed, the spate of the radicalisation of female youths is alarming. When considered globally, Britain has been worse hit by the terror drift pounding hard on its teenage and productive age women. A recent statistics by the security service puts the number of British Muslims who have fled their country to join ISIS in Syria at 60. Webb (2016) posits, 'According to security services, about 600 British Muslims have joined IS in Syria – and about 60 of them are young women. This number might look negligible compared to that of men, but it represents the fast pace at which women are growing in the culture of violence. Girls are being sold a new life fighting for freedom and for Allah'.

Drug use and Abuse: Drug trafficking and abuse are twin menaces gaining prominence among youths in recent times. There is hardly any country in Africa where youth do not engage in some forms of drug abuse or others. The media is replete with news of youths (both men and women) engaging in drug use, abuse and trafficking. In West Africa drugs are easily accessible basically because of the ever-rising spate of drug trafficking which can be attributed to the porosity of the borders. Banon (2016) observes that 'drug trafficking is fast becoming the most serious problem in West Africa. The sub- region has seen an increase in drug trafficking, production and consumption which continues to ruin many lives. Although the prevalence of drug trafficking and abuse cannot denied, there is little data input on the subject. According to International Drug Policy Consortium (IDPC) report, data on the prevalence of illicit drug use and drug trafficking in Sub-Saharan Africa remain vague at best and usually only offer loose estimations.

Meanwhile there are three major international drug control treaties, the Single Convention on narcotic Drugs of 1961 (as amended in 1972), the Convention on Psychotropic Substances of 1971, and the United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988, which are mutually supportive and complementary (UNODC) Many of the African countries are signatories to these convention yet the scourge is endemic.

Prominent among the abused drugs are hard drugs like cocaine, heroin or wee-wee, CSP, Tramadol, Rohypnol and D5, Stopcof, C&C, Cofflin, Totalin, Ezolyn at affordable costs. Sometimes, sniffing septic tanks and getting high on the stench suffices. This is an appalling state of human degeneration.

Youth involvement in narcotics abuse is an upward moving trend in Africa. It is apparent that governments in Africa are applying both international and municipal frameworks to battle the scourge but to little avail. For the menace to have grown to this alarming proportion, it means the home and society have failed in discharging effectively their social responsibility.

Unbridled Access to Small Arms: The proliferation of illicit arms has brought small arm within the reach of youths who could possess their preferred sorts at very reasonable prices. With our porous borders in the West African coasts and the Sahel region, illicit arms flow unbridled to any part of the region. Coupled with this is the case of dearth of personnel to manage the borders. As observed by Olaifa (2017):

> *In Nigeria, the excuses for this porosity have largely been hinged upon dearth of trained personnel to man the borders effectively. All the security agencies deployed to manage Nigerian borders share this gross inadequacy of personnel experience and also inadequate funding which culminate in poorly equipped workforce. Apart from administrative inadequacies like ethnically skewed promotion and lack of functional health facilities, the workforce is generally subjected to dehumanising work environment, frustration, anger, hopelessness, hatred, illusion, occupational risks and hazards, depression due to poor welfare packages.*

The resultant impact of this shortage is ineffectiveness, low productivity and in some extreme cases, death of the low rank officers- those often found in the field. As reported by THISDAY Newspaper of 28th July, 2017, 41 personnel of NDLEA died in a single year i.e. between 2016 and 2017. With a workforce of 5001, it means 0.77% personnel were lost in a year. Meanwhile there is no assurance of their replacement as a residual effect of the recent economic recession. All these have fostered the activities of illicit arms importers who have flooded the West African territory with lethal weapons- ready tools in the hands of aggrieved youths.

Dearth of Scriptural Knowledge: This forms an essential crux of the causes of the propensity of youths to violence. Many youths do not have in-depth knowledge of the scriptures of the faith they profess. They rely mostly on the interpretations of their revered clerics. This forecloses the possibility of their knowledge of the other religions practised in their domain. This seemingly narrow religious perception precipitates youth violence especially when there is mutual distrust among faithful of different religions. Youths fall easy prey to manipulative religious leaders for lack of proper knowledge of their belief.

Structural Perception: This is the situation whereby structural dictates have placed certain groups above others. Whereas the entire system has come to the realisation of the unjust distribution, they are incapable of making necessary adjustments because the favoured group seems to be enjoying the asymmetry. Adekanye (2007) describes this as the legacy of "internal colonialism", including a structure of division of labour that condemns certain sections of given territory, state, or region to the perpetual status of "hewers of wood and drawers of water" while according a privileged political, economic, and social status to others could provide the grounds for the festering of terrorism. Examples of this abound throughout West Africa and have formed formidable basis for violence of all forms including religious terrorism which is fostered by the youth population.

Recommendations for Youth Social Reconstruction

Based on the obvious fact that successive leaders of this region have been unable to deliver terrorism-free systems in which developmental initiatives are successfully implemented and the populace enjoys relative peace in the areas of employment, social security, rule of law and social justice, and economic emancipation, it behoves the citizenry and policy makers to reappraise our value system.

Cognitive Development is an imperative to the re-orientation of the youth. Enlightened individuals exhibit a high-level cognitive acumen which enables them analyse issues independently by evaluating and taking decisions which are consistent with their beliefs and political reality. Cognitive development theorists believe that `as persons cognitively develop, their thought structures become more complex'. According to Charles Andrian and David Apter (1995), as a person's mental structures interact with environmental structures, the individual advances through stages. People become exposed to more diverse political stimuli when opportunites for role-taking increase.In essence, an enlightened individual has a great chance of making objective moral judgement devoid of social or religious sentiments. He is capable of advancing rational reasons for his decisions.

In the light of the above, education becomes imperative for the up-coming West African. An all-round cognitive development that would equip him intellectually for future political roles is highly desirable. Onigu Otite (1999) declares that since self or group development is an expected and legitimate goal, the development of the human capital is an imperative government function. Investment in education is an important means of empowering individuals and groups intellectually to appreciate the symbols of different socio-cultural groups, the evaluation and perception of scarce resources, and the friendly co-existence of their different users in the same territorial region. Enlightened population has the strongest chance of understanding and appreciating the factors generating conflicts, the complex issues involved in their resolution, transformation and management, and restoration of peace in multi-ethnic and diverse institutional settings.

Morality is a crucial element in conscience building. The issue of corruption is a function of a defective conscience and for any meaningful systemic reconstruction to take place, the issue of morality or the lack of it must be tackled. The Yoruba of the South-Western Nigeria believe that there is an intrinsic element, like an instinct called `Omoluabi' which exists in every man's mind (Albert et al 1995:8). This element lies in the mind of man. It is the conscience which can be evoked to effect good behaviour. Therefore, Omoluabi means ` a person of good character...'. An appeal to `Omoluabi' is automatically, an appeal to conscience which the Yoruba call `eri okan'. Awoniyi (1977) believes that to be an `Omoluabi' is to be of good character in all its ramifications. Good character, in the Yoruba sense includes respect for old age loyalty to ones parents and local traditions, honesty in all public and private dealings, devotion to duty, readiness to assist the needy and the infirmed, sympathy, sociability, courage, an itching desire for work and many other desirable elements. These values should be taught both at home and school, and be emphasized as societal norms.

Storytelling is a great character moulder. Folktales and folklores have a way of getting to children's psyche. Based on the large content of songs and practical experiences, children believe they are real and so relate to those experiences as such. Many begin to pick role models from these imaginary characters which sometimes become permanent features of their lives.

STORY 1

An incident occurred in a secondary school in Nigeria in the mid-seventies. It was the period of the terminal examination for secondary school students in West Africa-the West African School Certificate Examinations. The paper on schedule was Bible Knowledge and was to begin at 9am.

Bimbo decided to skip breakfast that morning and headed straight to the examination hall for a last-minute revision of her work. She got to the hall at about 7:10am and expectedly she was the first to arrive. Other students in the boarding house were at breakfast and there was virtually no day-student yet on campus. She still had a lot of time for revision before the examination.

Intuitively, she rose after about twenty minutes of study to walk round the hall picking litters and other items that could incriminate candidates. She passed by a desk and thought the cover of the desk shimmered abnormally. She stepped back to take a proper look and there she faced an interesting spectacle. Someone had scribbled possible answers on the desk cover in pencil! The handwriting was so tiny that only the discerning could see it.

She sensed trouble. If the external supervisor should see it, the school would be penalised with either the particular paper or the entire examination cancelled. What more, a ban could be slammed on the school for the next three years! The implications were too grievous to ignore. She was still pondering on what to do when her friend, Yemisi, arrived. Bimbo told her what she had seen and they deliberated on what to do. Eventually, Yemisi suggested that the locker be exchanged with another one in the class. As if prompted, Bimbo said, 'yes, it shall be replaced with another one, but in the junior block'. Wonderful! They set at work bearing the marked locker down to the junior block exchanging it with another which they brought back as replacement.

The owner of the seat arrived very close to the commencement of the examination. He went round to exchange banters with his classmates before coming to settle down. Having noticed a change of the locker, he rose again and moved round the hall in search of the original one. Bimbo and Yemisi noted the confusion on his face as he settled in his seat awaiting the commencement of the examination. *Tope Olaifa 2014.*

The story above presents an example of preventive diplomacy deployed by two young girls who were quite oblivious of the implications of their role. However, some facts are registered of their action; they perceived danger and did their utmost to avert it. They 'midwifed' peace. On a larger global developmental plane, it might not be this simple, yet the principles of effective preventive diplomacy are constant:

a) Identification of threat.

b) Reportage of threat (Early Warning)

c) Analysis of threat

d) Response to threat

Any youth who imbibes these cultural peace-building elements is bound to be a leader of a high integrity if he finds himself in such an exalted position. Effort should therefore be made by the entire organs of the society to infuse these sterling values into our children and youth so that they become permanent features of their lives.

Youth Development Associations could be formed with a strong focus on social and youth uplift. But in doing so the youth must be careful to draw a line between development and radicalism. Scholars of political science maintain that most of these groups in Nigeria found liberty in the newly acquired democratic status of the nation as opposed to the repressive and unresponsive, autocratic military governments of the past and lost control in the euphoria of the newly acquired liberty. Adekson (2004) reflects that the upsurge in fanatical association's influence followed the liberalisation of the country's erstwhile unresponsive and autocratic polity, which provided an opening for aggrieved ethnic groups to express their `pent up ` anger with successive regimes' policies that engendered economic and social malaise, marginalisation and repression. These social groups have, to a large extent, succeeded in drawing global attention to particular humanitarian needs of their different ethnic formations no doubt, but a moral question still hangs on the means employed to achieve this end.

The youth of West African states must imbibe the principle of **inclusive altruism** in which he operates on universal truth, morality in relationship with others. Inclusive altruism implies that in defining objects of moral concern, the special interests of persons and groups are set aside. Selznick (1995) avers that an impersonal standpoint is adopted and raised to the status of a prime virtue. People are classified according to objective criteria such as age, need, talent or achievement, in the light of general policies or purposes, without kinship or group affiliations. This is the morality of fairness, the familiar logic of the rule of law.

The embrace of universalism by the youth portends his growth into an impartial adult Olaifa (2012). He is able to operate beyond the scope of particularism which tenets encourage nepotism in which all activities are performed within the ambit of personal relationship and interest. The youth is therefore empowered with psyche of neutrality which makes his country his first constituency. He would understand the import of neighbourly love which transcends 'abstractions', to discover and embrace the 'person' as a vividly organic unity. Olaifa (2012) presents an apt illustration of this in a poignant example demonstrated by George Orwell during the Spanish civil war. He (a soldier) encountered an enemy fleeing:

STORY 2

Early one morning, another man and I had gone out to snipe at the Fascists in the trenches outside Huesca.... At this moment, a man...jumped out of the trench and ran along the top of the parapet in full view. He was half-dressed and was holding up his trousers with both hands as he ran. I refrained from shooting him. It is true that I am a poor shot and also that I

> *was thinking chiefly about getting back to our trench.... Still, I did not shoot partly because of that detail about the trousers. I had come here to shoot at 'Fascists'; but a man who is holding up his trousers isn't a Fascist, he is visibly a fellow-creature, similar to yourself, and you don't feel like shooting at him.*
> *George Orwell (1938).*

Selznick (1995) opines that George Orwell's stayed hand is the stuff of which legends are made. It is testimony to his humanity and to the resilience of neighbourly love even under conditions of deprivation, hostility and stress. Olaifa (2012) believes this is the stuff future leaders should be made of: humane, reasonable, responsible and loving. They should possess a natural instinct for the protection of the vulnerable: the aged, women and children should be confident of care and safety under their leadership. This culture is lacking in many of our leaders today and the consequences are obvious in the decrepit security framework that `guards' the average young West African citizen. In the words of the United Nations Secretary General, Antonio Guterres, 'If we are serious about prevention, and particularly about preventing conflict, we need to be serious about engaging with and investing in young women and men'.

Although this paper focuses on the re-orientation of the youth, it does not ignore some salient expectations from adults as their contribution to reworking the social system which debilitation they had innocuously contributed to.

Primarily, government needs to make conscious and concerted effort to pay attention to the youth. This is however possible when it comes to terms with realities of the decadent state in which the nation is and muster enough political will to reconstruct the society. It is an issue requiring collective responsibility but the government holds the machinery to drive the process. With honesty of purpose and the will to effect a positive turn-around in all spheres, the government can mobilize the people effectively towards systemic re-orientation.

Governance should be made participatory. There should be a system whereby communities would be involved in governance. People's representatives must return often to their bases to commune with their people on issues of national policy, fiscal matters and socio-economic development. They should meet to determine, appraise and assess communal activities, projects and issues relating to peace and development of their society. These meetings should aim at bringing all members of the community- men, women, youth, children, the political class and traditional rulers together to fashion out developmental projects and discussing issues germane to the progress of the community. This in essence is to bridge the gap between the political elites and the 'real' people whom they claim to serve. This system is bound to enhance transparency in the system- a situation where the entire population has 'its mouth' in the way it is being governed.

Governments of ECOWAS states need to pay more attention to internal security which is considered primarily as the personal and indeed, the psychological security of the citizenry. Personal security would be assured when an average citizen is convinced of his meals through gainful employment, housing, availability of basic amenities like potable water, electricity, good roads, sound health facilities and a corruption-free environment. The provision of these amenities would forestall internal aggression and enhance adequate social security.

Governments should 'raise the level of non-violent conflict resolution skills' (Gilman, 1997:6). Many countries of the world today still regard litigation as the ultimate mechanism for conflict resolution. However, it is apparent that litigation with its numerous challenges is daily losing its prime position in conflict resolution and attention is being continually drawn to indigenous non-violent means of resolving conflict. The feat of the Gacaca Courts of Rwanda as a judicial intervention in the 1994 genocide has lent a positive force to the drive for the utilization of indigenous methods in resolving conflicts. Nations need to equip their people with non-violent mediation skills that could prevent violent conflict and achieve sustainable peace. Professional peacebuilders and intervenors with expertise in Alternative Dispute Resolution skills should be employed in handling conflicts in the country.

Conclusion

In conclusion, since personal and situational variables dictate the impact of moral attitudes on human actions,it is the quality of man's 'inner man' that would inform his performance in his public and private places. The Nigerian youth therefore needs to be properly positioned to be able to take the mantle of leadership in this country. The youth needs to de-emphasise self in his scheme of operations and release himself to selfless service. West Africa looks up to its youths to salvage its corporate existence from imminent collapse.

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NIGERIA'S POROUS BORDERS AND INSECURITY: A STUDY OF NIGERIA – NIGER REPUBLIC BORDERS

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Abstract

Nigeria's current state of insecurity has been blamed on the nature of her porous borders. The borders are believed to be highly porous to the point that illegal migrants as well as proliferation of Small and Light Weapons (SALWs) go unchecked. Hampered by the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, Residence, and Establishment of the citizens of the community??, Nigeria's borders have made it easily accessible for the people to come in and out at will. The Protocol was aimed at creating a borderless sub-region. However, the porous state of Nigeria's borders has been the undoing of the country's security as it has made Nigeria's state of insecurity a serious burden. The porous Nigerian borders have increased insecurity and subsequently stunted Nigeria's development, especially as it has reduced Gross Domestic Product as well as led to huge expenditure on defence when these funds could have been channeled to other areas. The Regional Security Complex Theory (RSCT) was adopted for the study. The paper engaged a descriptive approach since it blends with a review of relevant literature on the problem of Nigeria's borders with Niger Republic. The RSCT was adopted because of its relevance to the study as it emphasizes on the need for countries within a regional security structure to unite and address common security problems. The study revealed among others that Nigeria's porous borders are ~~is~~ to blame for the high spate of insecurity in the country. It therefore recommended collaboration between Nigeria and her immediate neighbours, especially Niger Republic as one of the measures to curbing the menace of insecurity. The main objective of this study is to examine Nigeria's porous borders with Niger Republic and the role it has played on Nigeria's increasing state of insecurity.

Keywords: Insecurity, Border, Impact, Protocol.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nigeria once boasted itself as being one of the least troubled spots in the world. The country was responsible for restoring peace in many troubled countries in Africa, especially within the other West African sub – region. Countries such as Liberia and Sierra Leone to a very large extent have attributed the peace they currently enjoy to the role Nigeria played over the years in assisting for the restoration of peace when these countries came calling on her. Nigeria's leadership role in the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) also contributed in ensuring that there was relative peace within the West African borders. Since the turn of the twenty-first century, the country has experienced quite a number of insecurity challenges which have threatened the continued existence of the nation. Some of these security challenges include, banditry, ethno – religious conflicts, insurgency, kidnapping, militancy, terrorism in all its forms amongst others.

Insecurity stares Nigerians in the face on a daily basis. It has become the most talked about thing in Nigeria in recent times (Ozoigbo, 2019). It is almost at the point of becoming what Nigeria is known for. With the frequency of attacks and acts perpetrated by non – state actors, Nigeria has been acclaimed to be a ticking time bomb. This has become more noticeable in recent times with the spate of burning of INEC offices across the country amongst other incidents, there are speculations that elections may not hold come February, 2023. These many security challenges have been further exacerbated by the effect of globalization on communities and individuals, especially in respect of their routine activities such as trading, education, provision of critical services. In the contemporary activities of man, the security of life and property plays a significant role to the socio – economic survival of any given society (Zubairu, 2020). These long – existing security challenges have hampered on the economic wellbeing of individuals and the country at large and often times have spread from one part of the country to the other parts. A case in point is the insurgent activities of the Boko Haram group. For example, Nigeria's military and other security agencies have been involved in fierce battles with the group. Between 2010 – 2015, the efforts of these security agencies were literally futile and thus the activities of the group spread to other parts of the country (Akran, 2018).

The causes of this state of insecurity have been placed largely at the doorstep of Nigeria's porous borders. The argument is that the illegal possession of small arms and light weapons (SALWs) is to be blamed. This in turn is also attributable to the vast porous border which makes it easy for the proliferation of illegal activities within the territorial landscape.

Most scholars often discuss on problems arising from Nigeria's borders with Cameroun, Chad and Benin Republic. The Nigeria – Niger Republic border is the least discussed. This is due to the belief that for many years, it has been the least troubled border area. The hitherto Nigeria – Niger Republic border has only been concerned with economic activities in goods such as grains, animal husbandry etc. It has been literally a peaceful area until recently around 2009 when the Boko Haram sect began their terror attack in northern Nigeria. Most weapons employed in these attacks as well as people used to carry out the acts were believed to be foreigners who found the areas easy access to and from Nigeria. The proliferation of SALWs as well as terrorists through these borders made attacks across Nigeria an easy endeavor. The activities of terrorist groups such as Boko Haram, Islamic State of West Africa Province (ISWAP), bandits, kidnappers etc in northern Nigeria has negatively impacted on the socio – economic activities of Nigeria, especially in areas that have come seriously under attack by the sect. the activities of these non – state actors have stunted economic growth, affected the activities of farmers and in most situation affected the education of individuals living in such places as their activities have also prevented students/pupils from going to school. The current security situation in Nigeria has brought to the fore the impact Nigeria's porous borders have in enhancing insecurity.

No country has developed socio – economically in the midst of insecurity. Conflicts, banditry, kidnapping, insurgency amongst other manifestations of insecurity makes people to lose confidence in themselves and the Government. Porous borders have contributed to the myriad of security issues bedeviling the country. The Nigeria – Niger Republic border is alleged to be a major route through which criminals import SALWs as well as illegally bring in mercenaries to carry out their nefarious activities. Akran (2018) revealed that:

> "the close neighbours such as Libya andAlgeria which shared border with Niger and Chad. Libya after the fall of Ghaddaffi in 2011 became the abode of armed groups and the point of connection between Boko Haram group and several terrorist groups such as Al Qaeda in the Islamic Mahgbreb; the Al – Shabab in Kenya and Somalia; the Ansaru-Dine in Mali and the Islamic State (IS). With connection to these terrorist groups, activities of Boko Haram had taken to regional and international levels."

Nigeria's borders with Niger Republic stretch to 1,497km across mostly northwestern Nigerian states. These weapons from Kenya, Somalia, Sudan amongst other Maghrebian states often find their way into Nigeria through Nigeria's loosely manned borders with Niger Republic. This study would therefore educated its readers on some of the activities which go on around Nigeria's borders with Niger Republic and further make some necessary recommendations for policy makers as well as Governments of the concerned countries. The main objective of this study is to discuss on the role Nigeria-Niger Republic porous borders have played in increasing state of insecurity.

This research adopted the descriptive research methodology. This is based on describing and analyzing the issue of Nigeria's porous borders and its impact on insecurity, an assessment of the Nigeria – Niger Republic borders. This paper comprises of seven sections. The first part of the paper would state the theoretical framework, while the second part will treat clarification of concepts followed by a discussion on government's role against insecurity. The fifth part will treat lessons from the European model of border management before conclusion and recommendations.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

[What is rationale for the choice of the theory being applied? Does it have any strength? Is it complemented by any other theory for its weakness, if any?]

The theory adopted for this research is the Regional Security Complex Theory (RSCT). The theory was propounded by Barry Buzan and Ole Waever. In their view, a regional security complex is a group of states whose primary national security concerns are so closely connected in such a way that they cannot be removed or addressed independently of each other (Juma, 2020) observed that countries located in close proximity in terms of geography, culture, language and religion should see the need of clustering together with the goal of tackling economic, political as well as all forms of security concerns that they may have. Stone (2009) pointed out that the proponents of the RSCT looked at security from all areas going from micro and macro and also addressing the social aspects of security and how people or societies construct or securitize threats. The structure of a regional security is often determined by the states within that region (Grabowski, 2009). The theory hypothesizes the existence of regional subsystems in the larger international system. It further states that the interdependence of security is more intense between the states inside such regional security complexes (RCSs) than with states outside (Buzan, 2003). RSCT assumes that security issues can be grouped factoring geographically separated regional complexes (Jarzabek, 2018). In their work, 'Regions and Powers: The Structure of International Security, Buzan & Waever (2003:4) posited that "states become the principal players on the security game board and, as the international system reaches global scale, room is created in which distinct regional security subsystems can emerge."

RSCT was applied in the Euro-Mediterranean RSC (Boening, 2008); the securitization discourse in China's relations with Central Asia and Russia (Reynolds, 2009) and that between the Middle East and North America (Santini, 2017). RSCT was further applied in addressing the security issues in the following places: North America (Kilroy Jr et al, 2017); testing the alliance in Afghanistan (Sunawar, 2018); Uganda and East Africa (Walsh, 2020); Central Asia (Zengin & Topsakal, 2020); the Mediterranean Sea Basin (Stivachtis, 2021); the US retreat from Afghanistan (Elzinga, 2021) and Middle East Regional System (Esmaeili, 2021). The theory is therefore relevant to this research in the sense that unless countries within a regional security complex come together and review the existing policies on cross – border movement of its citizens, it would continue to face the security threats they are presently facing. The primary strength for adopting the theory lays in the fact that insecurity challenges between countries in geographical proximity should address their insecurity challenges jointly by affected countries through the instrument of cooperation.

3. CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATIONS

The end of the Cold War brought to the fore the need for nations to be concerned about their sovereignty. It further made many nations realize the need to ensure that adequate funds are budgeted and properly channeled towards defence. For the purpose of this research, the following concepts will be clarified: the concepts of border and insecurity.

The Concept of Border

Nigeria's relations with her immediate neighbours have been hinged on historically ill – defined and improperly delimitated borders by former European colonialists (Omodele, 2021). These borders which are characterized by the highest form of porosity and easily accessible, coupled with a lack of coordinated and coherent boundary policy by West African states often exposes Nigeria to threats arising from the incursion of nationals of her immediate neighbours who keep having easy access into Nigeria while trying to seek better opportunities. The illegal access into Nigeria often results into an increase in smuggling of contraband items, arms and human trafficking, mercenary activities and the illegal movement of people and goods flow almost freely on a daily basis.

The illegal and easy access into Nigeria by neighbouring West African nationals across Nigeria's porous borders has recently placed Nigeria under serious security risk. A border is a highly important part of a sovereign State's territorial integrity. Weber (2012) in Philip & Uwa (2022) described a border as a line that symbolizes a boundary. Borders are regarded as boundaries between states. They often distinguish a State's territory with another state(s). According to Heigl (1978) in Doukupil & Havlicek (2002) a border is perceived as the legally fixed and/or naturally determined line connecting those homogenous and/or heterogeneous regions providing for administrative and/or economic and/or political caesura. The European Union over the years has emphasized on the need for its members to cooperate in identifying and tackling issues related to border crimes amongst other related issues (Dahou, 2004).

Kolossov & Scott (2013) asserted that in the past issues regarding borders were not primarily surrounding issues of territorial space but have often been defined by a State's allegiance to the church. Lechevalier & Wielgohs (2013) submitted that the existence of borders often result into creating a form of identity for individuals who live in such defined territories. The African Union (2014) defined 'Border Area' as denoting "a geographical area straddling the border of two or more neighbouring states." The issue of border security became a highly pronounced issue in international discourse when international migration became one of the central issues in the twenty – first century. According to Pecoud & Guchteneire (2006), in 2005, the number of migrants worldwide was projected to be between 185 to 192 million globally, representing about 3 percent of the world population at the time.

Realising the cause of security – related issues are related to porous borders. Pecoud & Guchteneire (2006) observed that, "The borders between Western countries and their less – rich neighbours have become fortified, partly through the use of sophisticated methods of control. The most documented case is the U.S. – Mexico border, along which segments of walls have been constructed and where a growing number of patrol agents rely on technologically advanced equipment including high – intensity lighting, high steel fencing, body – heat and motion – detecting sensors and video surveillance." The US – Mexico border is reputed to be one of the most notorious borders in the world and has often been associated with criminal activities as experienced within the Niger – Niger borders. The same trend of border control has also been observed in some parts of Europe, particularly between Gibraltar and the border between Spain and Morocco.

Nigeria's highly porous borders coupled with the attitude and equipment of security operatives detailed to man them has contributed largely in paving way for the proliferation of illegal routes through which illicit activities are often promoted but not limited to smuggling of arms and ammunition, transnational organized crimes along the borders which impedes economic development (Okunade, 2017). The impact people play in a geographical space is what defines a border. The effective management of borders would often lead to the creation of border posts across places referred to as vulnerable points. Barka (2012) in Philip & Uwa (2022) submitted that a border post could be defined as the "location where one country's authority over goods and persons ends and another country's authority begin." Philip & Uwa (2022) went further to explain that it is the location where a multitude of government agencies i.e. revenue and securities agencies such as Customs, Immigration, Police, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health etc are involved in the documentation as well as control of illegal items brought into one's country. Furthermore, the border post should serve as the point where calculation as well as collection of duties, taxes as well as immigration activities takes place. The above submission does not just describe how a border is demarcated but it also suggests the stakeholders involved in the activities carried out at the border.

The European Union for many years has been in the vanguard on the effective control of borders. In the 29th Report of the European Union on the need for the establishment of a European body to guard its borders. In 2003, the report submitted that:

> ….borders are natural points at which to make checks on entry to a country, not only on people but on goods for customs, plant health, health and other purposes and to enforce rules on prohibited and restricted goods. The border is also a natural focus of police activity, as it provides an opportunity to check people arriving and it is also the place where by

definition the act of smuggling takes place. Border control therefore have a role to play in combatting illegal immigration and various forms of cross – border crime ranging from small arms smuggling to organized crime and international terrorism.

There exist a large number of borders within the West African sub-region which have not been fully manned by agencies which have been constitutionally established to do so. In most situations, the funding of these agencies is poor and welfare packages as well as equipping are poor. All these as well as Government corruption have negatively impacted on the capacity of the said agencies to effectively carry out their duties. Borders along the West African region often connect the respective West African countries. They often cut off, delimit, serve as barriers and yet they also serve as bridges, channels of trade and communication (Philip & Uwa, 2022).

Insecurity

Before dwelling on the concept of insecurity, it is also important to have a good grasp of what security means. Following the end of the Cold War, scholars and policy makers believed that the term was often restricted to the national security and when talking about security, military domination was usually what dominated discussion. Politicians and governments often felt that for a sovereign state to fully secure its borders, such a country's military strength should not be compromised in anyway whatsoever.

In the traditional sense, security would often imply the presence (reign) of peace and the absence of fear and chaos. Onoja (2014) submitted that security was "peoples relative feeling of being secure from economic, political, social, cultural and psychological fear." To buttress further, Ozoigbo (2019) pointed out that security entailed a situation in which a person or nation realizes it potentials freely and smoothly.

Insecurity on the other hand is the very opposite of security. It is the absence of safety; danger; hazard; uncertainty; lack of protection and general lack of safety (Okonkwo et al, 2015). According to Beland (2005), insecurity was the state of fear or anxiety arising from a solid or assumed lack of protection. Insecurity is seen from two perspectives: (a) It is the state of being open or subject to danger or threat of danger, in which danger was the condition of being vulnerable to harm or injury and, (b) it was also the condition of being exposed to risk or anxiety (Achumba et al, 2013). For many years, Nigeria just like her neighbouring African countries has experienced countless number of insecurity challenges which have included ethno – religious, militancy, political violence, kidnappings, banditry, insurgency amongst others have often threatened Nigeria's existence as a nation. These insecurity challenges have also stunted the country's economic progress as well. Ajibola (2016); Okonkwo et al(2015); Udoh (2015) and Ozoigbo (2019) amongst many others have identified the following as causes of insecurity problems in Nigeria:

- ✓ The reality of bad governance.
- ✓ Economic imbalance and marginalization.
- ✓ Ethno – religious intolerance.
- ✓ Poor/weak security apparatus.
- ✓ Loss of traditional value and moral system.
- ✓ Porous borders and arms proliferation.
- ✓ Politically motivated insecurity.
- ✓ Unemployment/poverty.
- ✓ Illegal armed groups.
- ✓ Oil bunkering
- ✓ Labour activists
- ✓ Militancy
- ✓ Fear and instruct on Government.
- ✓ Wrong political ambition.
- ✓ Systemic and political corruption.
- ✓ Organised violent groups.
- ✓ Terrorism.
- ✓ Pervasive material inequalities and unfairness.

Insecurity affects every human being. It affects the entire nation and stunts economic growth as well as discourages investment amongst many others.

4. GOVERNMENT'S ROLE AGAINST INSECURITY

The border-related problems being faced by Nigeria and her immediate West African neighbours can be traced to the period of colonialism. These borders are noted to be too porous and thus encouraging all manner of illicit crimes, especially in regards to the proliferation of SALWs. Achumba *et al.* (2013) further stressed that the arms and other weapons which are illegally acquired and thus proliferated across Nigeria can be traced to Nigeria's porous borders. This porosity is the result of banditry, insurgency, herdsmen attacks, kidnappings amongst others (Oladopo *et al*, 2021). The porous borders have contributed largely to Nigeria's issues with her neighbours. They have also contributed to the many trans-border crimes with her neighbours. One of such trans-border crimes is the Boko Haram insurgency, banditry, cattle – rustling. These have lasted longer than expected due to their trans-border nature.

On the part of Nigeria, the Government has established security agencies which have been constitutionally saddled with the responsibility of manning the borders. These agencies include the Nigeria Immigration Service, Nigeria Police, Nigeria Customs Service and the Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps. Despite the Government's efforts in curtailing trans-border criminal activities, they still persist (Sunday & Okechukwu, 2014).

Akpan & Umelo (2020) posited that the problem of trans – border crimes have been worsened with the ideology of globalization which has torn down traditional borders with the advent of technology and transformation of international relations. The authors went further to state that trans-border crimes have manifested owing largely to the evolution of colonialism. It is believed that colonialism regrouped states and communities into new nation – states which subsequently had defined borders and manned by law enforcement agents.

Nigeria has border with Niger Republic and ranking only second at 1,497km to that shared with Cameroun at 1,690km. The border is characterized with either mountainous or thickly forested, thus often making it difficult for effective manning and surveillance by security agencies. To further state the obvious, there are well over 250 illegal paths into Cameroun, Chad and Niger. The paths are mostly unknown to security agencies; unmanned, unprotected and thus serve as leaky routes for arms and ammunitions trafficking into Nigeria. Criminal elements crossing these borders have devised different means through which they easily beat security agents deployed for such purpose. These methods include the use of camels, donkeys and cows to traffic arms, ammunitions, and drugs. Nigeria's informal cross – border trade is believed to be about 20% of its GDP and includes trade with all its neighbours in particular Niger and Cameroun (Akpan & Umelo, 2020).

Abdullahi & Gawi (2021) submitted that the sophisticated ways with which criminals have turned the porous borders to their gain calls for greater cooperation among West African countries. They stressed further that the harsh realities of dangers posed by border porosity has created the urgent need for African countries to put in place adequate measures which they believed would mitigate and minimize border tensions, increase joint enforcement and surveillance efforts, decrease organized criminal activities by syndicates. It should also encourage generation of a common understanding or border insecurities and approaches to addressing them., secure the flow of goods and people in the spirit of regional and continental integration. The Government thus has the responsibility of effectively liaising and cooperating with her immediate neighbours on curbing trans-border criminal activities. it is also believed that the provision of essential infrastructure such as properly constructed walls would enhance effective manner. Most security agencies operating within the Nigeria – Niger Republic border have complained of inadequate manpower and technology. Furthermore, other identified challenges include overburdened security apparatus, poor governance and poverty amongst other issues (Pharook, 2022).

Every national Government has the responsibility of preserving its power, territorial integrity and maintenance of law order within its own territory. This would however be extremely difficult to achieve in the midst of unprotected and penetrable boundaries (Mohammed, 2017). Another challenge being faced by security operatives in the effective manning of borders is the problem of lack of cooperation among security agencies instituted to do so. Most times these agencies operate independent of one another and without networking or exchange of information. Border management or security is a collaborative process between a country and its neighbours (Osimen *et al*, 2017). Nasiri & Ohazurike (2016) argued that the major challenge confronting Nigeria in curtailing the dangers posed by insecurity – related problems. Some of the infrastructure related challenges that have been identified include poor border barracks or substandard offices, lack or insufficient communication or technological gadgets or facilities; inadequate patrol vehicles amongst others.

West Africa's Efforts at Regional Integration

To achieve West Africa's regional integration efforts, in 1979, ECOWAS enacted the Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment of the citizens of the community (Idris, 2022). The establishment of the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods among ECOWAS states is intended to ensure the free movement of persons and citizens of members' states in order to facilitate development within the region.

The establishment of the ECOWAS protocol on free movement of persons and goods among ECOWAS states is intended to ensure the free movement of persons and citizens of member states in order to facilitate development within the region. The Protocol has however been recklessly abused and this abuse has contributed to the infiltration of illegal goods and persons. This has become the major reason why criminals have their way unrestrictedly within the Nigeria – Niger Republic borders. It is worth to also state that the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the united states of America has brought to the fore the implication of migration on security (Adeola & Fayomi, 2012). This unrestricted migration among ECOWAS member countries has not only resulted into trans-border criminal activities but it has also brought about the forceful importation of religious fanaticism and extremism into Nigeria.

Border security governance should be taken serious by every country of the world. This is because globally, security along countries' borders due to the fact that security of every country depends largely on the state of these secured borders (Ejotubu & Jude, 2021). A country will continue to battle with issues related to insecurity for as long as her borders remain unsafe and giving unrestricted access to people from other parts, notably those from her immediate neighbouring countries. The Nigeria Customs Service, Nigeria Immigration Service may not be able to effectively carry out their enormous duties and responsibilities if the inherent challenges besetting their border security operations remain obscure (Olomu *et al.*, 2018). This situation has become more conspicuous considering Nigeria's highly porous borders. The issue of border security has become a huge burden largely due to the problem of border porosity.

5. LESSONS FROM THE EUROPEAN MODEL OF BORDER MANAGEMENT

Any nation that throws caution to the wind in the handling of security is bound to face instabilities and threats to her corporate existence as in the case with Nigeria (Phenson *et al*, 2014). Nigeria's governments have mishandled and paid lip service to all warnings regarding security. These warnings have often revolved around inadequate funding and equipping of the security agents especially the Nigeria Customs Service, Nigeria Immigration Service amongst others. Hokovsky (2016) suggests that in the area of prevention of border security system, the following measures should be taken:

- ✓ Deterrence of the potential flow;
- ✓ Prevention of the attempted flow;
- ✓ Interdiction of the immediate attempted flow at the borders either at border crossing points or in between them.
- ✓ Apprehension of the illegal flow; and
- ✓ Apprehension of the illegal population for the purpose of
- ✓ Removal of these unauthorized immigrants or residents from the protected territory.

The European Union (EU) and most of her member countries have instituted frameworks through which they can effectively achieve border control. One of these is the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. Through Title V: Area of Freedom, Security and Justice, the EU attempted to design a common policy on external border control in order to ensure the absence of internal border controls of persons, regardless of their nationality. The EU has in place an integrated management system for external borders. Additionally, the Treaty further instituted a border security system that would ensure border checks on persons and effective monitoring of cross – border movements.

In Africa, borders are mostly artificial and have remained a bitter and lasting legacy left behind by colonial rule. Unlike most other places, the implementation of the ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement has resulted into the compromise of the security architecture of most member states. There is the usual tendency of cross border migration across these artificial borders from a less developed state to a more developed state. According to the Nigeria Immigration Service (NIS), there are over one thousand four hundred (1,400) routes leading in and out of Nigeria through Niger Republic (George, 2014). This no doubt places Nigeria in a very difficult situation – following measures were suggested for cooperation and security across Europe, especially in regards to border – security related issues. The Nigerian Government should liaise with her Nigerien counterpart as well as the ECOWAS in carrying out the following actions:

- ✓ Without prejudice to international commitments or agreements signed into, in relation to free movement of people, strengthen, to the best way possible, border controls as may be necessary to prevent and detect trafficking in human beings.
- ✓ Consider taking measures that permit in accordance with domestic laws, the denial of entry, the revocation of visas or possibly the temporary detention of persons involved in committing offences as defined by the legislation in force.
- ✓ Nigeria and Niger Republic should construct and erect structures which properly delineate their respective boundaries.
- ✓ Recruit manpower to fill up inadequate manpower gaps in agencies such as the Nigeria Customs Service, Nigeria Immigration Service.
- ✓ The European Union border control has been achieved due to the provision of vehicles, motorbikes and enhanced equipment.
- ✓ Another vital measure is that the governments should consider strengthening cooperation among border control agencies by inter alia, establishing and maintaining direct channels of communication.
- ✓ Prevent corruption at all levels of border control by personnel of instituted agencies by improving on the general welfare of such personnel by way of remuneration, construction of barracks/living accommodation within the borders. European border security agents are among the best paid in the world, especially when compared with those within the ECOWAS sub – region.
- ✓ Employ the services of indigenes living within the border towns in providing information relating to legal and illegal routes into and out of Nigeria since most of these criminals live within the border towns.
- ✓ The need for police forces and customs administrations of member states to enhance their communication in order to strengthen border security within the region.

6. CONCLUSION

Nigeria's existing borders with her neighbours, especially Niger Republic have become major security concerns to Nigeria. The borders have for many years become the easiest way through which SALWs are conveyed into the country as well as easy access points for insurgents and criminals from other neighbouring African countries to infiltrate into Nigeria. It has been the reason why Nigeria has found it hard to fight or tackle most of her insecurity challenges. These challenges have cost Nigeria large sums of funds as well as human lives. ~~The~~ About 1,497km expanse of borderlands which Nigeria shares with Niger Republic have become the avenue through which weapons and mercenaries are transported into Nigeria from other African countries such as Libya, Somalia, Algeria, Mali, Kenya among others. The preponderant criminal activities which have been experienced in Nigeria in recent times includes kidnapping, militancy, oil bunkering, insurgency, terrorism, ethno – religious conflict, religious fanaticism/extremism among others. The Nigerian Government's effective collaboration with her immediate neighbours would go a long way in enhancing the country's security, especially around the border areas. The ECOWAS Protocol should also be reviewed in such a way that it allows West African states to effectively put in place measures that they believe would keep their respective countries safe from proliferation of SALWs as well as criminals.

7. RECOMMENDATIONS

The need for effective collaboration between Nigeria and Niger Republic. The Nigerian border security agencies as well as those of Niger Republic should synchronise their respective efforts through effective sharing of information as well as through training on border security within affected areas bordering the two countries. The lack of synergy between the two countries has only resulted into nothing or little results. It therefore becomes imperative to share intelligence on the routes as well as activities carried out within these borders.

Provision of good governance will reduce the number of unemployed Nigerians who are often engaged in these criminal activities and good governance would ensure that adequate provisions are made by the State for proper manning of the borders by security agencies. Most criminal activities around the borders have been carried out by unemployed individuals who seek alternative sources of livelihood. Some of these citizens often travel to perpetuate insurgent activities, terrorism as well as kidnapping among others and carry out such easily across the two borders.

Provision of adequate ICT facilities or the technological gadgets such as the geographical information system, surveillance drones, biometrics to effectively track down the activities of trans-border criminals such as terrorist, arm dealers etc. The ICT facilities and equipment would help to complement the efforts of physical border control. The effective management of borders would require sophisticated technological equipment such as biometric devices, detectors amongst others.

There is the need for the Federal Government of Nigeria to construct adequate fences, auto – gates or border plazas. These will help to reduce the size of illegal migration, smuggling of arms into the country as well as reduce the number of illegal persons into the country.

Engage members of the community on community policing. Most Nigerians as well as Nigeriens within the border towns understand the general languages spoken and were probably separated during the skewed delimitation and demarcation or African states by the colonial powers. Such people are similar in many ways in terms of culture, language amongst others. They often look alike in appearance and thus it becomes difficult for border security agents to properly identify them, especially those not familiar with the areas. In such situations therefore, community policing would enhance the proper identification of those not from the areas. Community policing would ease the identification of criminal elements and thus reduce the activities of trans-border crimes into Nigeria.

Provision of enhanced welfare and logistics requirement for personnel of security agencies. Border security agents have complained of poor welfare packages in terms of financial remuneration, living conditions etc. such situations would further compel them to collect bribes and circumvent already established border security measures.

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ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: IMPERATIVES FOR NIGERIA'S ECONOMY

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Abstract

The main goal of this study is to use entrepreneurial education as a tool for sustainable development in Nigeria. This goal has been conceptually pursued by examining the various educational strategies of the government and the role that entrepreneurial development plays in those policies. It goes without saying that invention and creativity, which are the distinguishing characteristics of entrepreneurial education, are essential to economic progress and sustainability. Further, as school-aged youngsters are the ones who will inherit the future, entrepreneurial education must be used to define the nation's developmental efforts towards a sustainable future. This paper makes the case that even though some educational policies, such as those for polytechnics, place a strong emphasis on technical and vocational education and skills, there is still a pressing need for real institutional alignment with the development of an entrepreneurial mindset in young people. Theoretical perspectives on entrepreneurial education and development are discussed, and frequently encountered obstacles to entrepreneurial education are addressed along with solutions. Policy implications and suggestions are made in light of the discourse. Among them is a request that the relevant authorities renew their commitment to supporting the growth of entrepreneurship by reorienting education policy toward initiatives that encourage it.

Key words: Economic Development, Entrepreneurial Education, Sustainable Future

Introduction

Despite being rich in oil, Nigeria is plagued by several issues that hinder its progress and possibly put its survival as a sovereign state in jeopardy. Nigeria's sociopolitical and economic situation strongly suggests that many of her problems had their roots in an artificial colonial construct that grouped several issues of diverse people. The nation might fragment if its population cannot be persuaded to embrace a new sense of Nigerian identity that involves a commitment to the survival of the current state as a cohesive entity. All well-intentioned nations around the world now prioritize economic development through entrepreneurship education. People from all walks of life can cultivate an entrepreneurial spirit in these countries because of a variety of programs and policies. Several dynamic forces, such as technological disruption, fluctuating economies or demographical changes, have brought new opportunities and threats for organizations, and transformed societies from all over the world. In order to cope with these shifting forces, governments, public and private organizations, and the public are more and more aware of the significance of entrepreneurship. The role of entrepreneurship in society has become prominent since the end of the last century. Entrepreneurship matters because it is, above all, a human characteristic (Bessant & Tidd, 2011). In modern open economies it has become more important for economic growth and development than it has ever been. In the past decades, there has been a growing interest regarding the concepts of economic development and entrepreneurship. On the one hand, there are several studies in the literature related to these two important notions (Ácset al., 2013; Szirmai et al., 2011; Naudé, 2011; Braunerhjelm, 2010; Caree & Thurik, 2010; Walzer, 2009; Wennekers et al., 2009; Audretsch et al. 2006; van Stel et al., 2005; Harper, 2003; Dejardin, 2000). Researchers have concluded that although "economic development theory can still be argued to lack a 'general theory' of entrepreneurship, one that could encompass a variety of development outcomes, progress has been made in extending the notion and understanding of entrepreneurship in economic development" (Naudé, 2008). On the other hand, international organizations, governments and policy makers have shown a greater attention to the function fulfilled by entrepreneurship in generating economic development. Economic experts have abandoned their traditional approach to economic development based mainly on recruiting large companies with different financial and fiscal inducements. Currently, they are relying more on the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and new ventures than in the past. Entrepreneurship is nowadays recognized by government officials throughout the world not only as "a key mechanism for enhancing economic development, particularly in regions where entrepreneurial activity was once vibrant and is now lagging", but also as "a good solution because it provides a relatively non-controversial way to increase the proverbial pie, creating jobs and enhancing per capita income growth" (Shane, 2005). That is why "entrepreneurs need access to resources and markets to succeed, and this is where national policies play a vital role" (Kressel and Lento, 2012).

This would call for a number of drastic changes, not just in the nation's political and economic system but also in the mentality of its citizens. Nigerians have experienced a number of administrations under various governments, yet the question of whether Nigeria is indeed a nation persists. A critical examination of what the government calls reform reveals a personally instituted concept of governance, which places individuals in positions of power who they believe to be their relatives rather than professionals with the appropriate qualifications. It also reveals a breed of people characterized by their integrity of heart, which is ingrained in the training and qualifications they have acquired while serving the country.

Nigeria must actively participate in the global effort to achieve economic independence in order to address issues like unemployment, poverty, and other related socio-economic concerns. It cannot simply observe as other countries advance in this effort. The fact that Nigeria has remained a developing economy for this long has even made urgent, the need to fully embrace the 'letter and spirit' of entrepreneurship by all individuals and institutions.

Accordingly, poverty eradication and employment generation have been top priorities of many governments and institutions in developing countries (MDGs report in Garba, 2010). As hundreds of thousands of graduates leave the various Nigerian schools of higher learning each year, these issues seem to be becoming worse by the day. The imbalance between the multitude of theoretical skills learned in school and their application in real-world situations seems to be worsening the issue. Education and training in entrepreneurship are crucial because they enable students to unleash their creativity and take on new responsibilities and risks. According to Paul (2005), entrepreneurship education aims at achieving the following objectives; to: offer functional education to the youths that will enable them to be self-employed and self-reliant; provide the youth or graduates with adequate training that will enable them to be creative and innovative in identifying novel business opportunities; serve as a catalyst for economic growth and development; offer tertiary institution graduates adequate training in risk management; reduce high rate of poverty; create employment opportunities; reduce rural-urban drift; provide the young graduates with enough training and support that will enable them to establish careers in small and medium sized businesses; inculcate the spirit of perseverance in the youths and adults which will enable them to persist in any business venture they embark on; and create smooth transition from traditional to a modern industrial economy. This paper highlights the need for the Nigerian educational system to be properly tailored in order to foster the growth of sustainable entrepreneurship. This is covered in the following sections of the paper: introduction, the definition of entrepreneurship, goals of entrepreneurial education, history of entrepreneurship in relation to Nigeria, educational policy and entrepreneurship, different theories of entrepreneurship, efforts to develop entrepreneurship in Nigeria, analysis of obstacles to entrepreneurship education and development, implications for policy, suggestions, and conclusion.

Entrepreneurship Defined

Entrepreneurship has been defined variously by different authors. The concept is seen as the dynamic process of creating wealth by individuals who assume the risks involved in providing value for some products and/or services (Kuratko, 2009); "the process of performing the roles of planning, operating and assuming the risk of a business venture," (Inegbenebor & Igbinomwanhia, 2010); "the pursuit of lucrative opportunities by enterprising individuals… (being) inherently about innovation - creating a new venture where one didn't exist before," (Bateman & Snell, 2011); the process of creating value through the provision of some products or services for the benefit of the society, while learning the skills needed to assume the risk of establishing a business (Ahiauzu, 2009; Inegbenebor, 2006). According to the definitions given above, it is evident that the concept of entrepreneurship development is a process that might be thought of as beginning with the acquisition of information and skills that appropriately prepare the individual learner for entrepreneurial pursuit. Of course, establishing the connection between entrepreneurial education and sustainable development is the main goal of this article.

Meaning of Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurial education is focused on developing youths as well as individuals with passion and multiple skills (Izedonmi & Okafor, 2010). It aims to reduce the risks associated with entrepreneurship thought and guide the enterprise successfully through its initial stage to the maturity stage. According to Brown (2000), entrepreneurial education is designed to communicate and inculcate competencies, skills and values needed to recognize business opportunity, organize and start new business venture. Entrepreneurship education has to do with encouraging, inspiring children, youths and elders on how to be independent both in thinking and creativity in business (Samson, 1999 in Mandara, 2012).

Brief History of Entrepreneurship in Nigeria

The term 'entrepreneur' is said to have been introduced by the early 18th century French economist, Richard Cantillon, who defined the entrepreneur as the agent who buys means of production at certain prices in order to combine them into a new product. Yomere (2009) opined that when the concept of entrepreneurship first appeared, it was understood to have special characteristics and requires exceptional ability of special people. The phase championed by Jean-Baptist Say described an entrepreneur as someone who shifts economic resources out of an area of lower and into an area of higher productivity and greater yield (Say, in Yomere, 2009). Kuratko (2009) has asserted, with respect to America, that from the little beginning of those early days, "academic field of entrepreneurship has evolved dramatically over the last 35years"

Here in Nigeria, entrepreneurial prowess of notable personalities was well recognized early enough. Some pre-colonial commercial heroes and entrepreneurial gurus in the Niger Delta, such as King Jaja of Opobo and Governor Nana Olomu of Itsekiri dictated business tune for that era (Siaka, 2010). It was in reaction to their policies that the African Association was formed in 1889, which was to become the United African Company (UAC) in 1929. Since then, a number of successful entrepreneurs have emerged in Nigeria among who are: Aliko Dangote, Mike Adenuga, Frank Nneji owner of ABC Transport, Isaac Durojaiye founder of DMT, Ekenedili Chukwu, Olorogun Michael Ibru, Chief Obafewo Makun Joseph, Chief F. Edo- Osagie, John Edokpolor and others. However, in the midst of this huge expansion in entrepreneurial principles and practice, there remains the challenge of teaching entrepreneurship more effectively.

Educational Policy in Nigeria and Entrepreneurship

Expectedly, the history of Nigerian education system is traceable to the colonial era. According to Aladekomo in Garba (2010), "the educational policy then was geared towards serving the interest of the colonial masters in terms of supply of manpower for their effective administration of Nigeria Colony" The policy was, undoubtedly, aimed at producing Nigerians who could read and write to become clerks, inspectors and the likes without any entrepreneurial skill to stand on their own or even establish and manage their own ventures. It has been asserted that there was a neglect of entrepreneurial development, especially at the micro level as the education policy of colonial and the immediate post-colonial governments emphasized a fitting for 'white collar' jobs (Garba, 2010). Incidentally, getting these jobs was not a problem then, as numerous job openings awaited the yet-to-graduate Nigerians.

However, as economic realities began to unfold, the Nigerian government decided to encourage the informal industrial sector by establishing institutions like Nigeria Industrial Bank (NIB), Nigeria Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB), and many others. Two of such policies worth-looking at are discussed below: National Policy on Education (1981): No doubt, Nigeria was beginning to grapple with the reality of insufficient placements for the emerging vast army of unemployed youths. Hence, the attempt was made to link the 1981 policy with emphasis on self-employment. However, this policy has been criticized for having a focus only on the primary and post-primary education. What this meant was that Nigerians who could proceed to tertiary institutions were not to be so shaped for self-development. The higher education policy was left to develop both middle and higher levels manpower for the 'supposed' industries. In an attempt to find solution for the lingering problems, technical and vocational studies received a boost from the government in recent times. National Policy on Education (2004): Emphasis was focused on technical and vocational education in this policy. Attention was given to these areas by the Federal and State governments. Garba (2010) observed that this commitment was demonstrated by the establishment of different institutions to offer programmes leading to the acquisition of practical and applied skills. He summarized the aims of technical education as follows: raising people who can apply scientific knowledge to the improvement and solution of environmental problems for the use and convenience of man; providing trained manpower in applied science, technology, and commerce, particularly at sub-professional grades; providing the technical knowledge and vocational skills necessary for agricultural, industrial, commercial, and economic development.

On the basis of this policy, Fakae in Garba (2010) stated that "emphasis is on skill-acquisition and sound scientific knowledge, which gives ability to the use of hand and machine for the purpose of production, maintenance and self-reliant" It is noteworthy that these policies, notwithstanding, the Nigerian problem of unemployment has remained largely unabated. To this end, it appears that emphasis on technical and vocational education may not be the 'glorified' panacea to the problem. Hence, entrepreneurship education, as a way out, has spread rapidly in Universities and Polytechnics across the world and Nigeria is not left behind. In the words of Inegbenebor (2012), "Nigerian Universities have committed themselves to producing entrepreneurial graduates as their contribution to stimulating private sector growth in Nigeria." The summary of objectives pursued by these various institutions, as stated by Inegbenebor (2012) include; to: change the perception of students of entrepreneurship by introducing them to the nature, role and scope of entrepreneurship; show students how to behave entrepreneurially; and build skills in various areas such as negotiation, networking, new products development, creative thinking, sources of ventures capital, entrepreneurial career options and the likes.

This point to the fact that there is a growing role education is expected to play in building entrepreneurial capacity, especially in Nigeria. This is corroborated in Yomere (2009) thus: "there is agreement among scholars that entrepreneurship education is vital in developing entrepreneurial attitudes, abilities and related skills in youths." What is left is tailoring the various curricula to deliver the much needed results.

Entrepreneurial Education and its Consequence in Nigerian Economy

Although the idea of entrepreneurship is not new in Nigeria, it is either badly or poorly implemented regardless of the fact that it is frequently discussed. According to Omolayo (2006), "it is the act of starting a company, arranging business deals and taking risks in order to make a profit through the education skills acquired". In the same vein, Nwangwu (2007) opined that entrepreneurship is a process of bringing together the factors of production, which include land, labour and capital so as to provide a product or service for public consumption. However, the operational definition of entrepreneurship is the willingness and ability of a person or persons to acquire educational skills to explore and exploit investment opportunities, establish and manage a successful business enterprise.

The Concept of Sustainable Development

Two fundamental elements of the concept of sustainable development, i.e. development and sustainability, preceded the creation of the concept itself. According to Sharpley (2000), development and sustainability could be in the juxtaposition, where both could have possible counterproductive effects, while neoclassical economists emphasize that there is no contradiction between sustainability and development (Lele, 1991). Sachs (2010) also suggests how there is no development without sustainability or sustainability without development. The notion of development is related to the past western concept of imperialism and colonialism, and in that period it implied infrastructure development, political power, and economic policy, serving imperialists as an excellent tool for marginalization and diminishing the power of certain countries (Tangi, 2005). Certain authors link the meaning of development to economic development and the term "underdeveloped areas" (later called "Third World Countries"), which US President Harry Truman introduced in the mid-20th century, signifying areas with the significantly lower standard of living than developed areas (Estevo, 2010)

Classical theories of development consider development within the framework of economic growth and development. According to these theories, development is a synonym for the economic growth that every state in a particular stage has to undergo, driven by the transformation of traditional agriculture into modern industrialized production of various products and services, i.e. shifting from the traditional society to the stage of maturity and high consumption. These theories consider developing countries as countries limited by the poor allocation of the resources emerging as a result of the firm hand of government and corruption, inefficient and insufficient economic initiatives, but also political, institutional and economic austerity, whereby being captured in dependence and domination of developed wealthy states (Todaro and Smith, 2003). According to several neoliberal and modern development theories established over the past 60 years (Willis, 2005) and the contemporary understanding, development is a process whose output aims to improve the quality of life and increase the self-sufficient capacity of economies that are technically more complex and depend on global integration (Remeny, 2004). Fundamental purpose of this process is a creation of stimulating environment in which people will enjoy and have long, healthy and creative life (Tangi, 2005). Romer's new or endogenous growth theory suggests that economic growth is a result of the internal state or corporate system, and the crucial role in economic growth is knowledge and ideas (Romer, 1986; Todaro and Smith, 2003). The endogenous growth theory model consists of four basic factors: 1) capital measured in units of consumer goods, 2) labour involving the individual skills, 3) human capital comprising education, learning, development and individual training, and 4) technological development. In accordance with this model, if countries want to stimulate economic growth, they have to encourage investment in research and development and the accumulation of human capital, considering that appropriate level of the state capital stock is the key of economic growth.

Theories of Entrepreneurship

There have been various theories that explain the principles and practice of entrepreneurship. Most of these theories represent the main thrusts of the entrepreneurial views of the proponents.

In all, they represent how entrepreneurship may be considered for teaching, research and practice. As presented in Abdullahi (2009), some of these theories are briefly discussed hereunder:

i. Schumpeter's Theory: This approach, developed by David Schumpeter in 1934, identified innovation as a function specific to all entrepreneurs. This theory opined that economic activities occur through a dynamic process of the business cycle. The supply of entrepreneurship, according to this theory is a function of the rate of profit and the social climate, which is to say that a vibrant profitable economy encourages entrepreneurship while a depressed economy discourages entrepreneurship. Mbaegbu in Abdullahi (2009) considered social climate as comprising educational system, the social values, the class structure, thenature and extent of prestige and other rewards that accompany business success and the attitude of society towards business success. One important thing here is that, if a purposeful and qualitative policy on education is pursued for skill acquisition, Schumpeter's Theory will encourage entrepreneurship.

ii. Inkele's and Smith's Need to Improve Theory: This theory identifies disposition to accept new ideas and try new methods, a time sense that makes a person more interested in the present and future than in the past as altitudes which directly or indirectly affect entrepreneurship development. People with these characteristics are considered more disposed to entrepreneurial activities than those without such characteristics.

iii. Drucker's Creative Imitation Theory: The approach views entrepreneurship differently from the Schumpeterian view. To the creative imitation theorist, entrepreneurs in the less developed countries merely imitate the products and production process that have been invented in the developed countries rather than being truly innovators. The underlining factor in this theory is change - a search for response to and exploitation of it as an opportunity.

iv. The Economic Survival Theory: The theory explains that entrepreneurship is favoured by those affected by certain unpalatable situations of life. This is also in line with the Shapero's life path change model of new venture creation, which considers these situations as push factors. Hence, for survival, such people whose jobs are terminated, are victims of discrimination, are widowed/divorced or are dissatisfied take easily to entrepreneurship.

When the theories are analyzed critically, it becomes clear that the Economic Survival Theory is most applicable in Nigeria, where the government is actively promoting entrepreneurship as a solution to the country's ongoing unemployment issue. Although it is beneficial to use the teaching and practice of entrepreneurship as a tool for combating the issue of unemployment, more effort should be made to instill in people across all economic sectors the spirit of innovation and creativity that is the hallmark of entrepreneurship so that they can perform at their best in all of their endeavors.

Entrepreneurship Development in Nigeria

Entrepreneurial development may be conceived as a programme of activities to enhance the knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes of individuals and groups to assume the role of entrepreneurs as well as efforts to remove all forms of barriers in the path of entrepreneurs. It is anchored on the firm belief that entrepreneurship involves a body of knowledge, skills and attitudes which can be learned and applied by most people who are sufficiently motivated. In contrast to the idea that entrepreneurs are born, entrepreneurship development recognises that many individuals have latent potential to fit into the role of entrepreneurs. Such potentials can be actualised through training programme (Inegbenebor, 1999). Entrepreneurship development assumes that through the process of learning, these characteristics or pattern can be acquired by anyone who is adequately motivated. Similarly, individuals can learn to deal with socio-cultural constraints and inhibitions prevalent in growing economies. Entrepreneurs can be trained also on how to establish and maintain effective relationship with financial institutions, suppliers, government agencies, and other critical institutions upon which they depend for information, guidance and inputs. It is possible to achieve all these through business counselling and by providing relevant information (Inegbenebor, 1999).

Entrepreneurial Development Teaching Focus

The focal point of entrepreneurial education around the world will definitely assume different perspective. However, certain aspects of learning entrepreneurship appear to be favoured everywhere and by virtually all scholars. Yomere (2009) asserted that "entrepreneurship education in higher institutions is based on the formulation of course structures whose learning methods vary considerably from lectures, presentations, hand-outs and case study." He identified teaching and monitoring students on how to write a business plan as one of the firmly entrenched curriculum formats. But the nature of entrepreneurship, particularly the degree of complexity and ambiguity with which entrepreneurial operations are conducted, necessitates a total absorption on the part of the entrepreneur that goes above and beyond the traditional business planning. To that end, elements like: Entrepreneurial development instruction should center on the importance of the entrepreneurial mindset, environmental opportunities, precipitating events, distinctive business concept, support from others, and resource accessibility. Therefore, the emphasis in education should be on encouraging the growth of entrepreneurial traits like imagination, resourcefulness, drive for success, and the capacity for taking measured risks, among others. Priority should be given to scanning the environment for opportunities and being able to obtain and gather the necessary resources. The emphasis is then shifted to developing skills that, when put into use, will allow the aspiring entrepreneur to differentiate between a company idea and a business opportunity. This will minimize the stagnation felt by those who are unable to distinguish between the two in order to judge the success of their activities. However, it appears that the framework of the entrepreneurship teaching program does not provide enough practical training.

Entrepreneurship's Contribution to a Developing Economy: Nigeria as a Case Study

The overriding attribute of a developing economy is poverty and the inability to provide for the basic needs of the population. Other characteristics of such economy are: low average real income and a low growth rate of per capita income, low level of technology, low level of productivity, low life expectancy, inadequate health services among others (Inegbenebor & Igbinomwanhia, 2010). It is extremely difficult in this type of economy to meet the population's fundamental demands in terms of food, shelter, and other necessities.

Economic progress depends heavily on entrepreneurship, which is the process of organizing, running, and accepting the risk of a company enterprise. According to Inegbenebor and Igbinomwanhia (2010), the following is a presentation of the function of entrepreneurship in a developing society:

Employment generation: All countries in the globe are struggling with the serious issue of unemployment, which has spread throughout society. The key strategy for resolving them continues to be entrepreneurship. Those that start their businesses right away are successful in creating jobs for both themselves and others. Many Nigerians are quite tenacious when it comes to starting and running profitable businesses.

Increase in productivity through innovation: Innovation which has been described as a process by which entrepreneur convert opportunities (ideas) into marketable solution (Kuratko, 2009), is crucial in raising productivity. Innovation is a key aspect in entrepreneurship. Because of the resourcefulness and ingenuity of entrepreneurs, they are able to contribute innovatively through productivity. Nigeria can become a producing nation instead of the present situation of being a consuming nation.

Assistance with technical adaption and transfer: Entrepreneurs present opportunities for creating and modifying acceptable technology ways. This makes it easier for talented, semi-skilled, and unskilled workers to be absorbed.

An increase in resource consumption: Resources might be idle in many countries, but entrepreneurs employ these resources, which might otherwise be idle, in productive and profitable ways. They facilitate the utilization of local resources, particularly human resources, and domestic savings.

Reinforcement of large-scale enterprises and public enterprises: For the usage of larger businesses, entrepreneurs mostly create raw materials in the form of semi-processed commodities. The symbiotic relationship that exists between them and large-scale businesses, in terms of the supply of inputs and aid in the distribution of the finished items to the final consumers, is a clear illustration of this.

It improves the effective and efficient use of people's energies and potentials: To order to create riches, independence, and prestige in society, people must employ their talents and energies. Today's most prosperous firms in Nigeria have humble beginnings. Some business owners are can able to concentrate on their initiatives and expand them into large corporations that bring them fulfillment for the growth and ability to create jobs for others as a result of the opportunity to demonstrate potential and independence.

Barriers to Entrepreneurship Education

Majority of the tertiary institutions offer entrepreneurship education with different teaching methods and strategies. There is no consensus on which teaching method(s) is/are to be generally adopted considering the environment. So, different methods and strategies are used in different schools which entails that some might be effective while some might not be very effective. It is worthy to emphasize that ineffective teaching method(s) could cause poor students' performance (Eze, Ezenwafor & Obidile, 2016 cited in Entrepreneurship Education in Nigeria: Challenges and Prospects by Titus. I. Eze & Jacinta Ifeoma Obidile, 2018) even, in entrepreneurship education. Among other factors which could inhibit the desired performance of students in entrepreneurship education include;

i. Poor funding: The graduates have little or nothing on themselves. Accessing fund from external sources is also difficult due to demand for collaterals by these agencies (notably banks). This often denies the prospective Journal of Education and Practice entrepreneur access to the fund required for entrepreneurial activities (Eze, Okoli & Orafu, 2016).

ii. Inadequate equipment: Equipment and facilities provided for the entrepreneurial activities are grossly inadequate. Some of the facilities already provided are obsolete and need to be changed while some equipment needed are yet to be provided by the authority concerned.

iii. Inadequate provision of entrepreneurship education teachers: Entrepreneurship education teachers are not adequately provided in schools. Some schools hire teachers who might not be qualified to teach entrepreneurship education while some schools make do with what they have by using any available teacher to teach entrepreneurship education forgetting that not every teacher could provide effective teaching on entrepreneurship education.

iv. Too much reliance on foreign goods: Relying on foreign goods as being supreme to locally made goods has constituted an obstacle to entrepreneurial development. Goods made in Nigeria are sometimes believed to be inferior by some consumers and they prefer goods produced abroad which they believe are of high quality.

v. Laissez-faire attitude of the students towards the entrepreneurship education: some students see the entrepreneurial activities as tedious tasks, hence do not want to get involved with the activities, forgetting that hard work pays. To this kind of students they are influenced by get wealthy quick syndrome which has ruined some of our youths. All these and more are obstacles to entrepreneurship education and should be eradicated for entrepreneurship education to maximally achieve its objectives.

Strategies that could be adopted to enhance entrepreneurship education

Some strategies which could enhance entrepreneurship education are proposed as follows:

i. Adopting effective teaching methods: Effective teaching methods should be used in the teaching of entrepreneurship education. Most often hands-on learning (experiential) should be employed (Nwaukwa, 2018). Also, adequate practice should be ensured to enhance mastery of skills.

ii. Instituting Entrepreneurship Trust Fund: Here, the government, non-governmental organizations, businesses entities and parents should be implored to support entrepreneurship education by contributing to the entrepreneurship trust fund which would be solely used for promoting entrepreneurship education and its programmes.

iii. Annual lecture and exhibition of entrepreneurship products: Successful entrepreneurs should be invited annually to talk on their journey so far. This would encourage the young ones. Annual exhibition of entrepreneurship products should also be organized by the administrators of entrepreneurship programmes. This will also help to create awareness of the programmes' products.

iv. Instituting entrepreneurship agencies: Entrepreneurship agencies should be instituted in each Local government Area. The number to be instituted should depend on the population of the people in that area. These agencies would be charged with keeping accurate record and data of entrepreneurs and prospective entrepreneurs. These data would help in proper planning, implementation and monitoring of entrepreneurial activities. These agencies should from time to time assemble entrepreneurs and identify their strengths and weaknesses and seek for solution to their constraints. In this way the information gathered would help the administrators and the agencies to strengthen the prospective entrepreneurs so that their predecessors' mistakes might not be repeated.

v. Providing conducive environment for entrepreneurial activities to thrive: Conducive environment should be provided to enhance entrepreneurial activities. Adequate and improved equipment and facilities (constant power, water and good road network) should be provided for entrepreneurial activities to thrive. Power and alternative sources of power should be made available to entrepreneurs. They should be supported with adequate finance to start up their business opportunities. Newly established entrepreneurs should not be allowed to pay tax for two years or more depending on the adequacy and level of establishment. Entrepreneurs who are to begin to pay tax, should pay tax at a reduced rate. This would enable them to have a firm ground to successful entrepreneurship ventures.

Recommendations

There are certain implications of the various fall-outs of this paper, to which attention must be shifted if entrepreneurial thought must be promoted among Nigerians especially, the youths.

To start with, the study has identified the place of entrepreneurship in the growth and development of developing countries, to which Nigeria belongs. Therefore, government at all levels should, as a matter of urgency, make fresh commitment towards entrepreneurial development by refocusing the education policy to be entrepreneurial-oriented to ensure the generation of a ready pool of young men and women who take to entrepreneurship. Moreover, teaching materials and well-equipped capacity building centres should be provided in our institutions. Secondly and very fundamentally too, the way of life of the youths through their basic beliefs and values, should be watched by relevant agencies for re-orientation. In this line, the National Orientation Agency (NOA), with this primary responsibility, should partner with schools at all levels, religious bodies and socio- political organizations to create youth vanguard groups for beliefs and values re-orientation. Dignity of labour, value for locally made products and individual contribution to nation building should be inculcated as virtues to live by. On the other hand, Nigeria is yet to gain sound footing on entrepreneurship by reason of the absence of capacity building centres. Therefore, the study recommends establishing entrepreneurial development centres in each of Nigeria's six geo-political zones with adequate government attention as a necessity.

Government and other education stakeholders should make sure that educational programme at all levels of education are made relevant to provide the youths and graduates with the needed entrepreneurial skills. The same goes for the creation of a friendly political and economic environment by government conscious effort.

Finally, the study proposes a merger of National Directorate of Employment (NDE) and National

Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in order to deliver efficiently. These programmes may have been well-thought of by those who pioneered them but they have probably lost their flavour, having been hijacked by the powers that be and politics. If merged, the new agency should be restructured and reoriented for vigorous development of the informal sector. To do this, there should be partnership with identifiable small scale entrepreneurs to encourage them for more productivity. Instead of clapping down factories which are considered producing sub-standard products, government should key into the ingenuity of the entrepreneurs, bring them out, empower them through capacity building, capital and input and give them the enabling environment to thrive.

Conclusion

The goal of every country in the globe is now to develop their economies through entrepreneurship. The emerging and underdeveloped nations of Africa, which urgently require a shift to a developed economy, are better able to understand this. But with a focus and investment in entrepreneurship education, economic development through entrepreneurship could possibly be sustained. It is now obvious that entrepreneurship is something that can be learned. Entrepreneurs are not "born, not made," as some business instructors and experts now believe. There is no better time to make this sacrifice than right now if future generations' economic success is not further compromised. Certainly, the future belongs to the nations that are prepared to make the necessary sacrifice now for us in Nigeria. With genuine commitment from all interested government, educational institutions, students, and other organizations, the stated issues with entrepreneurship education in Nigeria could be resolved. Given this shared duty, it is hoped that entrepreneurship will take its place and serve as a practical means of promoting economic growth and development in Nigeria.

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ASSESSMENT OF THE AVAILABILITY AND ADEQUACY OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURES FOR THE ATTAINMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION GOALS

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Abstract

This study assessed the availability and adequacy of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals. Survey research design was adopted, and the study was guided by three research questions and three corresponding hypotheses. The population comprised 275 public senior secondary schools in Rivers State, out of which a sample of 163 schools was randomly selected. Checklist and questionnaire instruments titled were used for data collection. Chi-square and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to test hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. Results of data analysis showed that buildings, utilities, furniture, laboratories and security infrastructures were available; while equipment, Information and communication technology, medical and sports infrastructures were not available in the sampled schools. On adequacy analysis revealed that only security infrastructure was adequate in the sampled schools. The test of hypotheses further revealed that there was no significant difference on the availability and adequacy of educational infrastructures among public senior secondary schools in the senatorial districts on the. Hence, it was concluded that educational infrastructures were not available and adequate for the attainment of secondary education goals among public senior secondary schools in Rivers State. The paper therefore recommended among others that government should improve the education budget and ensure that the provision of educational infrastructures is in line with school population.

Keywords: Availability, Adequacy, Education infrastructures, Secondary education, Goals

Introduction

In every organization or institution, certain tools, items, resources are used for the accomplishment of set goals and objectives. Hence for effective educational activities to take place, these resources are relevant in respect of the age of learners, level of education, academic qualification in view, and location among others. Educational resources are a form of school infrastructure, and they are material resources that are used in enhancing education as well as tools for the achievement of educational goals in every country. For the education sector, these tools, items and facilities are described as educational infrastructures; comprising of buildings, equipments, utilities, furniture, information and communication technology, laboratories, medical facilities, sports facilities and security facilities.

Students at the senior secondary level of education are those who have completed basic education and are on their way to tertiary institutions or have decided to take on a vocation that would provide for them. Secondary education in Nigeria is expected to prepare students for useful living in society and for coping with the demand for higher education, in order to achieve all these schools are expected to be equipped with adequate school infrastructure so as to realize educational goals. Educational/school infrastructures serve as pillars of support for teaching and learning thereby making the process meaningful and purposeful for the enjoyment of teachers and students. The use of infrastructures in secondary schools is aimed at increasing school attendance of students, enhance staff motivation and increase academic activities/achievement of the students.

Ojeje and Adodo (2018) assert that the use of infrastructures in secondary schools is aimed at increasing school attendance of students; enhance staff motivation and the improvement of academic achievement of students. In support, Onuoha and Agabi (2021) opine that education infrastructures support educational activities at all levels of education as it makes the process of teaching and learning more practical and exciting. On the other hand, Onunu (2021) views the lack and inadequacy of infrastructural facilities in the educational sector is one of the problems facing the education sector at all levels of education in Nigeria and the reason for the alarming rate of student failure in secondary schools. Onuoha and Owhondah (2021) observed that the physical environment in most secondary schools in Nigeria and many African countries is literacy aggressive due to poor infrastructural and maintenance culture with no facilities as a school library; adding that schools have broken windows and doors, collapsed ceilings, damaged roofs, cracked walls, faded paints, broken furniture, non-functional equipment, electrical fittings and damaged infrastructures.

Oladunni, *et.al*. (2014) in a study concluded that the physical conditions of a place have the ability to leave a positive or negative effect on students' all-inclusive development therefore; the type of infrastructural resource made available in a school has an influence on students and staff performance. This is true because the physical condition of the schools makes impact on students' achievement, teachers' performance as well as between the school and its communities. It connects humans and material resources positively or negatively, hence influencing all aspects of teaching and learning for the achievement of healthy school functioning. Indeed the Nigerian educational curriculum cannot be sound and well operated under poor and badly managed school infrastructure as a lot of research have asserted that adequate provision and proper utilization of infrastructural facilities in schools can be correlated to good academic performance while on the other hand schools with inadequate and poor utilization of infrastructural facilities will yield poor academic performance. Hence the crux of this study is on the availability and adequacy of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools according to senatorial districts in Rivers State.

Statement of the Problem

Adequate physical and spatial infrastructure in schools goes a long way in enhancing teaching and learning, but observations show that the level of insufficiency in infrastructure as well as the very poor state of physical facilities in public schools is alarming most especially at the senior secondary level. This state of infrastructure is lamented by interest groups in both print and electronic media, as it poses a serious threat to students' successfully passing external examinations and the actualization of educational goals. Education infrastructures have been investigated from different perspectives; but this study is very significant as it is aimed at investigating the availability and adequacy of educational infrastructures from the perspective of senatorial districts with a list of specific education infrastructures. This detailed research is done to give stakeholders of the education sector the actual state of educational infrastructures according to senatorial districts among public senior secondary schools in Rivers State; with the sole aim of ensuring that secondary education goals are achieved in schools.

Aim and Objectives

The study was aimed at investigating the adequacy of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers state. Specifically, the study sought to:

i. Investigate the availability of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among senatorial districts in Rivers State.
ii. Investigate the adequacy of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among senatorial districts in Rivers State.
iii. Investigate the resultant impacts of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among senatorial districts in Rivers State.

Research Questions

1. What educational infrastructures are available for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West

and Rivers South East senatorial districts in Rivers State?

2. How adequate are available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts in Rivers State?
3. What are the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts in Rivers State?

Hypotheses

Ho_1: There is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho_2: There is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the adequacy of available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho_3: There is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Literature Review

Conceptual Clarification

The Concept of Education Infrastructure

The term education infrastructure as explained earlier refers to all forms of educational infrastructures within the school environment that enhances effective teaching and learning activities. Akomolafe and Adesua (2016) identified educational infrastructures as any physical structure that contributes directly or indirectly to effective teaching and learning in an educational system. In another view, Gershberg (2014) view education infrastructure as all assets, comprising of physical components, human resources, operational processes and organizational structure made available to facilitate educational outcome. This is true as infrastructure can actually be viewed as human capital and physical infrastructure that is made available to facilitate investment and growth with the sole aim of achieving educational goals. It can thus be concluded that education infrastructures are all forms of resources that support the development and application of educational activities in an educational institution.

Educational infrastructures comprise of buildings (classrooms, libraries, toilets, staffrooms and administrative block), equipments (vehicles and generator), utilities (electricity and water), furniture (class desks, offices tables and chairs, laboratory tables and stools), information and communication technology (desktops, projectors, laptops, wifi network and printers), laboratories (Biology, agric farm, computer, physics, chemistry and home economics), medical facilities (sick bay, first aid box and school nurse), sports facilities (indoor/outdoor games and different sports complex and facilities), security facilities (school fence, school gate, and security staff).

Although education infrastructure varies in their kinds, all levels of education require some form of infrastructure in place to enable quality Education. The provision of education infrastructure brings about a conducive teaching and learning environment for teachers, students and other staff members thereby enhancing effective performance of their duties. This is asserted Onuoha and Owhondah (2021) that education infrastructures support educational activities at all levels of education. Hence a good school environment eventually fosters creativity, harmonious relationship and problem solving skills as well as a comfortable environment among students, staff and visitors thereby attaining desired educational goals.

Availability of Education Infrastructure

On the availability of educational infrastructures, Onyejiemezie in Onuoha and Agabi (2021) explains that availability is a situation where provision is made for satisfactory standard requirement for educational resources in a learning environment; hence the availability of educational infrastructure supports educational activities. Similarly, Ojeje and Adodo (2018) add that infrastructures play significant roles as such their availability in schools should not be the main concern but that they should also be adequate and maintained. Ekpo (2018) further explain that the availability of infrastructures in the school is an important factor in the acquisition of quantitative education in any society. This is true as teaching cannot be separated from learning in that same vein, effective teaching cannot be separated from the availability of teaching resources.

On the relevance of educational infrastructures, Onuru (2021) describe them as pillars of support for teaching and learning thereby making the process meaningful and purposeful for the enjoyment of teachers and students. Ojeje and Adodo (2018) adds that education infrastructures support educational activities at all levels of education, as good school environment eventually fosters creativity, harmonious relationship and problem solving skills as well as a comfortable environment among students, staff and visitors. For teacher effectiveness, infrastructural facilities must be made available for teaching at different educational levels, as a lack of facilities can hinder students' understanding of some basic concepts.

This follows that the successful attainment of secondary education goals are tied to the availability of educational infrastructures as required for the various activities of the school programme and curriculum as well as for extra-curricular activities. Mogaka (2019) asserts that the availability and relevance of educational infrastructures in the educational system contribute to academic achievement as the aesthetic beauty and presence of infrastructures adversely contribute to students' academic performance. This is supported by Akomolafe and Adesua (2016) who laments that students' enrollment and population in schools is not in relation to the available educational infrastructures in schools and has such it has affected students attendance and academic achievement in schools.

Adequacy of Educational Infrastructures

Adequacy is a concept that is used to describe the state of the availability of a resource, which is also used within the required standards. In the view of Onuoha and Owhondah (2021) adequacy is a satisfactory condition of the provision of resources as stipulated in a document for necessary use in by an organization. Similarly, Horny in Oladunni, *et al.* (2014) identifies adequacy of infrastructural facilities as a state where the available infrastructures in a school are in good state with the right quantity to serve the purpose of which it was meant for. With respect to the school, adequacy can therefore mean where educational resources in the form of infrastructures are made available and enough in quantity and quality to meet the educational requirements of the school. Adequate infrastructures in the school is a strategic factor in the effective functioning of the entire school environment, given that the adequacy of school infrastructure influences efficiency and high productivity during teaching and learning activities in the school.

In different studies, Onuru (2021) and Gersberg (2014) observed that the physical environment in most secondary schools in Nigeria and many African countries is literacy aggressive due to poor infrastructural and maintenance culture. Educational curriculum cannot be sound and well operated under poor and badly managed school infrastructure. Ekpoh (2018) asserts that the inadequacy of infrastructure in Nigerian schools is the result of continuous increase in student enrolment in schools without a corresponding increase in the provision of infrastructural facilities. In the view of Onuoha and Agabi (2021), the adequate provision and proper utilization of infrastructural facilities in schools can be correlated to good academic performance while on the other hand schools with inadequate and poor utilization of infrastructural facilities will yield poor academic performance. This is supported by Ojeje and Adodo (2018) who assert that infrastructures have a great influence on teachers and student's outcomes in the class and school; they are positively linked to students' academic performance and educational efficiency

Theoretical Review: Systems Theory

The systems theory was propounded by an Australian biologist called Ludwing Von Bertalanfty in 1968; and the theory asserts that every organisation is an organic and open system, which is composed of interacting and interdependent parts, called subsystems. Systems theory as an approach that is used to explain a unified and purposeful organization, where every organization is a system or "an organised whole" made up of sub- systems integrated, inter-related and interdependent in an organisation. Each system is composed of related and dependent elements which when interacted will form a unitary whole, and this applies to every section of the economy, country, state, local government, nursery schools, primary schools, secondary schools, tertiary institutions, etc.

The Systems theory is very relevant to this study because education is divided into different sub-systems, and each sub systems has different categories which are independent of themselves and aimed towards the national goals of education and national development. The Systems theory is therefore useful to the education sector based on the fact that it aims at achieving the goals and objectives of the sector. Based on this study, infrastructures used in senior secondary sections are depicted in the diagram below.

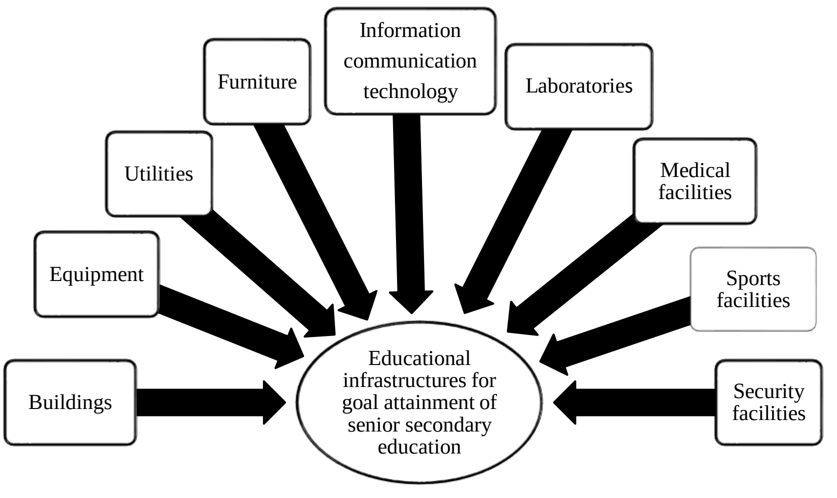

Figure 1: Subsystems of educational infrastructures (Researcher's design)

The figure 1 depicts subsystems of education resources which form as educational infrastructures that are important and should be made available in senior secondary schools for effective teaching and learning. The subsystems as shown above explains that every educational infrastructure have their different individual roles that they play in the working towards the attainment of senior secondary educational goals.

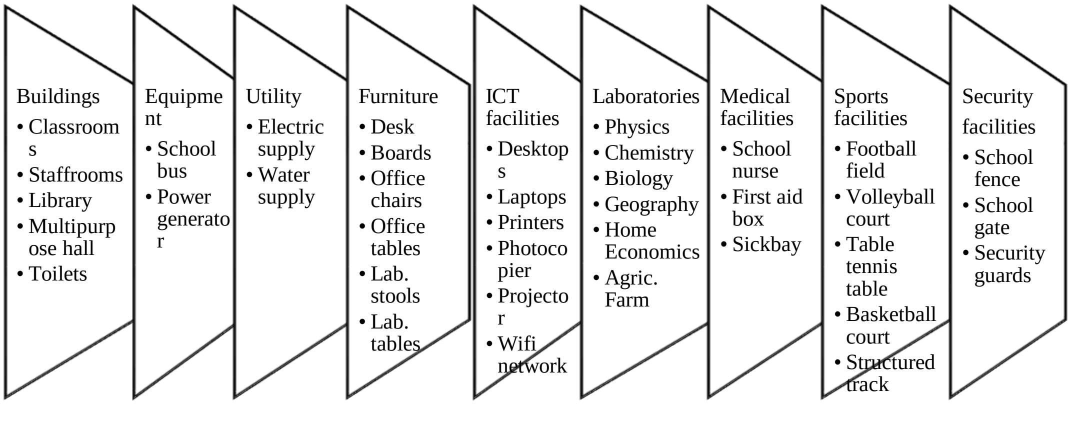

Figure 2: Subsystems of educational infrastructures in their sub-sectors (Researcher's design)

Figure 2 depicts subsystems of educational infrastructures and their different units showing that each educational infrastructure is a system made up of subsystems which also have subsystems of their own that are relevant at the senior secondary education level.

The systems theory is therefore used to explain that different infrastructures are needed in subsystems of themselves and each subsystem functions differently although they are interwoven and one cannot exist on its own without the support of the others. Hence buildings have to be available for learning to take place and they have to be furnished with the appropriate furniture, utilities and equipment in the school site enhances the implementation of effective teaching and learning; there has to also be laboratories where practical lessons of what has been taught theoretically can be practically analysed, the physical and healthy state of staff and students can create a positive or negative atmosphere, ICT enables the school community to connect with the global world and the security state of the school ensures a safe environment for teaching and learning activities.

Empirical Review

Mogaka (2019) in a study investigated the relationship between classroom equipment and students' academic achievement in public day secondary schools in Kisii country, Kenya, with the aim of establishing the level of availability and utilization of classroom equipment as it affects students' academic achievement. Data was collected using "Student Questionnaire" (SQ) and "Teachers Interview Schedule" (TIS). Data was analysed using inferential statistics, Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient analysis and Multiple regression. Results of the study showed that there was a statistically significant positive correlation ($r=144$, $n=33$, $p=0.005$) between availability and utilization of classroom equipment and students' academic achievement with results of a high level of availability and utilization associated with improved academic achievement among students.

Similarly, Ekpoh (2018) examined teachers' satisfaction with physical working condition: Imperative for effective service delivery in secondary schools in Akwa-Ibom State, Nigeria. Two instruments were used for data collection tagged "Physical Working Environment Assessment Questionnaire" (PWEAQ) and "Teachers' Service Delivery Questionnaire" (TSDQ). The results of the study showed that a lot of teachers were unsatisfied with the condition of the library, staffroom, office furniture, teaching aids, toilet facilities, electrical facilities, classrooms, science laboratories and computer facilities in the school. They complained that the state of facilities negatively influence staff activities and students' academic performance. The results also showed that there was a strong relationship between the physical environments of a school and teachers' service delivery.

Akomolafe and Adesua (2016) in a related study investigated the relevance of physical facilities in enhancing the level of motivation and academic performance of senior secondary school students in South West Nigeria. Two self-designed instruments: an inventory and a questionnaire titled "Motivation and Academic Performance of Senior Secondary School Students" (MAPSSS) were used for data collection. The result from the analysis showed that there was a significant relationship between school physical facilities and students' level of motivation and academic performance. It was recommended that more quality physical, human and material resources should be provided for students to motivate them in learning, and importance should be given to school funding and allocations to create a comfortable teaching and learning environment.

Section 3: Methodology

Survey research design was adopted to investigate the availability and adequacy of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers-South East senatorial districts in Rivers State. The design was employed given that the study involved gathering, tabulating, describing, analyzing and interpreting of data on already existing phenomenon in the area of the educational infrastructures. The population comprised two hundred and seventy-five (275) public senior secondary schools spread across Rivers West (96), Rivers East (106) and Rivers South East (73) senatorial districts in Rivers State, with Principals as the respondents, from which a sample of 163 were selected using stratified random sampling technique, where each of the senatorial districts constituted a stratum to form a sample comprising of Rivers West (57), Rivers East (63) and Rivers South

East (43) senatorial districts. Two instruments were used for data collection: "Availability and Adequacy of Educational Infrastructures Checklist" (AAEIC) of nine items expressed as: Available (AV), Not Available (NAV) for availability; and Adequate (A) and Inadequate (IA) for adequacy of educational infrastructures. The second instrument: "Effects of inadequate educational infrastructures Questionnaire" (EIEIQ) of ten items was on a four likert scale of Strongly Disagree (SD)=1, Disagree (D)=2, Agree (A)=3 and Strongly Agree (SA)=4. To establish face and content validity, three research experts from the Faculty of Education, Ignatius Ajuru University of Education validated the instrument. The instruments were also tested using Cronbach Alpha with reliability coefficients of 0.88 (AAEIC) and 0.8 (IIEIQ). Research question 1and 2 were answered using tables, frequencies and bar charts, while research question 3 was answered using mean and standard deviation on a criterion mean score of 2.50. Pearson Chi-square statistical tool was used to test hypothesis 1and 2, while Analysis of Variance (Anova) was used to test hypothesis 3 on the resultant impact of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools at 0.05 significant level.

Analysis and Discussion of Results

Research Question One: What educational infrastructures are available for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts in Rivers State?

Table 2: Adequacy of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals.

		Rivers East (61)					**Rivers West (57)**					**Rivers South East (42)**					**Rivers State – Total (160)**				
	Mean Scores	**AD**		**IAD**			**AD**		**IAD**			**AD**		**IAD**			**AD**		**IAD**		
S/n.						**R**					**R**					**R**					
	Infrastructures	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**		**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**		**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**		**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	
1.	Building	0	0%	**42**	**100%**	**IAD**	0	0%	51	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	25	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	**118**	**100%**	**IAD**
2.	Equipment	0	0%	**21**	**100%**	**IAD**	0	0%	19	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	18	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	**58**	**100%**	**IAD**
3.	Utilities	0	0%	**34**	**100%**	**IAD**	0	0%	45	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	14	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	**93**	**100%**	**IAD**
4.	Furniture	0	0%	**59**	**100%**	**IAD**	0	0%	57	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	40	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	**156**	**100%**	**IAD**
5.	ICT	0	0%	**12**	**100%**	**IAD**	0	0%	5	100%	**IAD**	0	0 %	5	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	**21**	**100%**	**IAD**
6.	Laboratory	0	0%	**33**	**100%**	**IAD**	0	0%	33	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	19	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	**85**	**100%**	**IAD**
7.	Medical	0	0%	**25**	**100%**	**IAD**	0	0%	13	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	11	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	**49**	**100%**	**IAD**
8.	Sports	0	0%	**22**	**100%**	**IAD**	0	0%	13	100%	**IAD**	0	%	12	100%	**IAD**	0	0%	**47**	**100%**	**IAD**
9.	Security	**52**	**94%**	3	6%	**AD**	**22**	**83%**	3	17%	**AD**	**20**	**69%**	9	31%	**AD**	**94**	**85%**	15	15%	**AD**

Decision < 50% = Inadequate (IAD) and > 50% = Adequate (AD).

Table 1 shows data for available (AV) and not available (NAV) educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts in Rivers State. The criteria is based on 50% and above equals Available (AV).and less than 50% equals Not Available (NAV). The mean aggregate, analysis on available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State showed that all the listed educational infrastructures were available in the various schools, but given our criteria decision: Buildings, Utilities, Furniture, Laboratories and Security infrastructures were available; while Equipment, Information and Communication Technology, Medical and Sports infrastructures were not available in the sampled public senior secondary sampled schools among the senatorial districts in Rivers State. The analysis is further explained in the bar charts below.

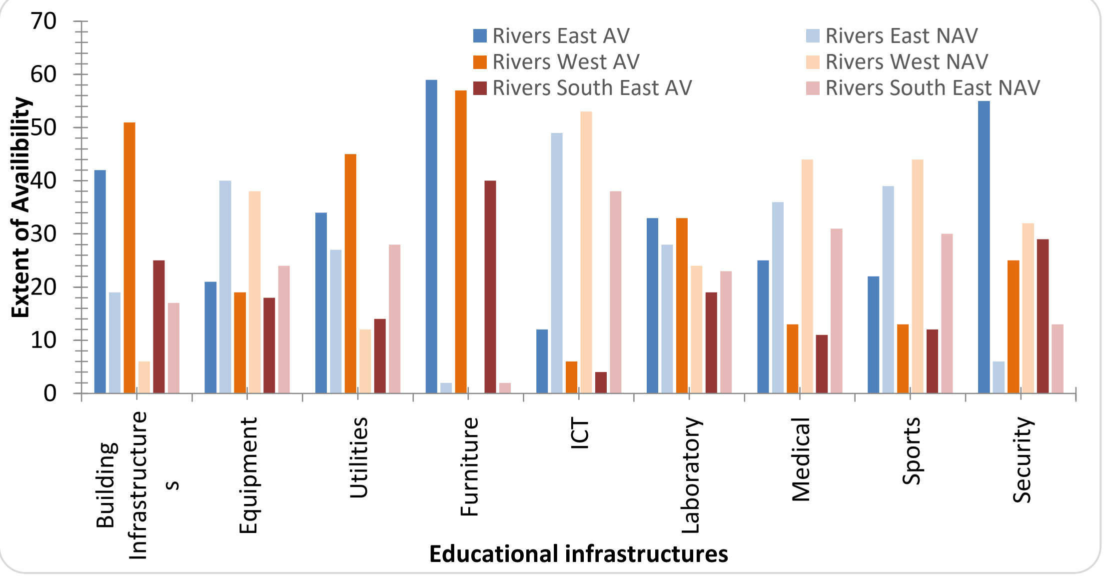

Figure 3: Available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education according to Senatorial Districts.

Research Question Two: How adequate are available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts in Rivers State?

Table 2: Adequacy of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals.

		Rivers East (61)					Rivers West (57)					Rivers South East (42)					Rivers State – Total (160)				
	Mean Scores	AD		IAD			AD		IAD			AD		IAD			AD		IAD		
S/n.	Infrastructures	F	%	F	%	R	F	%	F	%	R	F	%	F	%	R	F	%	F	%	R
1.	Building	0	0%	42	100%	IAD	0	0%	51	100%	IAD	0	0%	25	100%	IAD	0	0%	118	100%	IAD
2.	Equipment	0	0%	21	100%	IAD	0	0%	19	100%	IAD	0	0%	18	100%	IAD	0	0%	58	100%	IAD
3.	Utilities	0	0%	34	100%	IAD	0	0%	45	100%	IAD	0	0%	14	100%	IAD	0	0%	93	100%	IAD
4.	Furniture	0	0%	59	100%	IAD	0	0%	57	100%	IAD	0	0%	40	100%	IAD	0	0%	156	100%	IAD
5.	ICT	0	0%	12	100%	IAD	0	0%	5	100%	IAD	0	0 %	5	100%	IAD	0	0%	21	100%	IAD
6.	Laboratory	0	0%	33	100%	IAD	0	0%	33	100%	IAD	0	0%	19	100%	IAD	0	0%	85	100%	IAD
7.	Medical	0	0%	25	100%	IAD	0	0%	13	100%	IAD	0	0%	11	100%	IAD	0	0%	49	100%	IAD
8.	Sports	0	0%	22	100%	IAD	0	0%	13	100%	IAD	0	%	12	100%	IAD	0	0%	47	100%	IAD
9.	Security	52	94%	3	6%	AD	22	83%	3	17%	AD	20	69%	9	31%	AD	94	85%	15	15%	AD

Decision < 50% = Inadequate (IAD) and > 50% = Adequate (AD).

Table 2 shows data for adequate and inadequate available educational infrastructure for goal attainment in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts in Rivers State. On the mean aggregate, analysis on adequate available educational infrastructures for goal attainment in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State, showed Buildings, Equipment, Utilities, Furniture, ICT, Laboratories, Medical, and Sports were not adequate with only Security being adequate. The adequacy revealed here may be given the fact that most Government senior secondary schools are usually well fenced with some form of security personnel. Therefore only Security was adequate of all the investigated infrastructures in the sampled public senior secondary sampled schools among the senatorial districts in Rivers State. The analysis is further explained in the bar charts below.

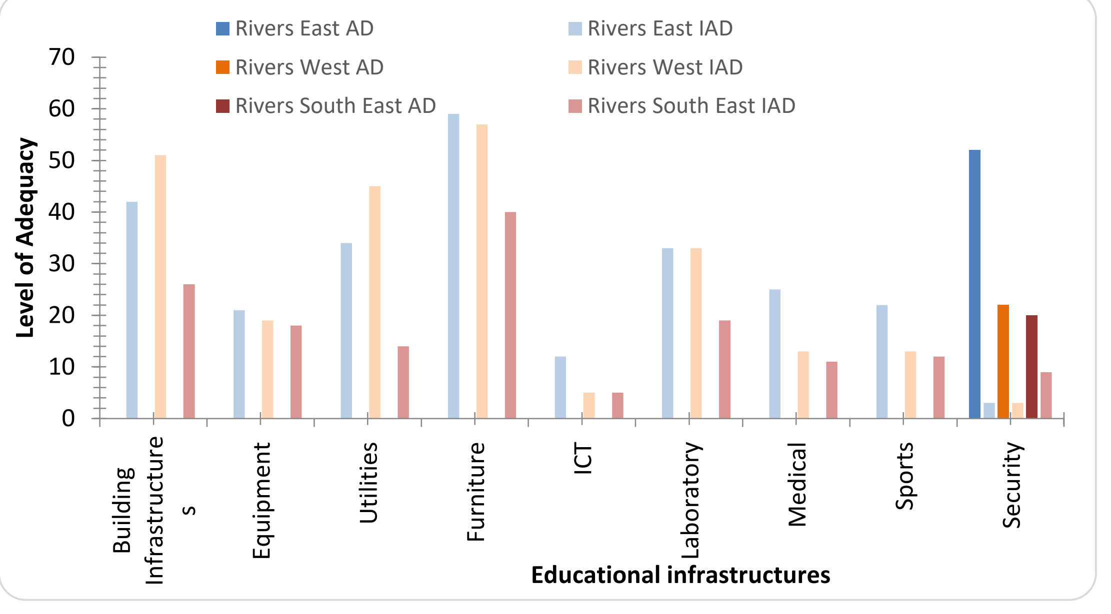

Figure 4: Adequacy of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals according to Senatorial Districts.

Research Question Three: What are the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among senatorial districts in Rivers State?

Table 3: Resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures.

	Senatorial districts in Rivers State											
Items	**Rivers east**				**Rivers west**				**Rivers south east**			
	N	**$\bar{X}$**	**SD**	**R**	**N**	**$\bar{X}$**	**SD**	**R**	**N**	**$\bar{X}$**	**SD**	**R**
Overcrowded classrooms.	61	3.25	.99	A	57	3.02	.69	A	42	2.62	.94	A
Difficulty in class management.	61	3.36	.86	A	57	3.37	.64	A	42	3.10	.85	A
Unstable academic progress.	61	3.51	.87	A	57	3.25	.51	A	42	3.21	.90	A
Decreased opportunity to express creativity	61	3.25	1.01	A	57	3.21	.73	A	42	3.10	1.03	A
Decreased opportunity to develop skills.	61	3.23	.86	A	57	2.93	.94	A	42	2.83	.93	A
Health challenges for staff and students.	61	3.21	.76	A	57	3.35	.61	A	42	3.43	.50	A
Production of half-baked students.	61	3.07	.63	A	57	3.05	.51	A	42	2.98	.52	A
Teacher wastage (high workload, employment of unqualified staff and attrition.	61	3.03	.86	A	57	3.58	.50	A	42	2.98	1.16	A
Student wastage (poor performance, poor attendance to school and dropout	61	3.03	82	A	57	3.56	.68	A	42	3.05	.54	A
Facility wastage (over, under and none utilization.	61	3.05	.72	A	57	3.30	.63	A	42	3.33	.69	A
Aggregate	**61**	**3.20**	**.57**	**A**	**57**	**3.26**	**.41**	**A**	**42**	**3.06**	**.40**	**A**

N - number, $\bar{X}$ - mean, SD – Standard deviation and R – Remark (A-Agree/D-Disagree).

Table 3: shows the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among senatorial districts in Rivers State. The criterion mean score of 2.50 was used to determine the resultant effects from inadequate educational infrastructures. The results show that all the respondents in the senatorial districts agree that: overcrowded classrooms, difficulty in class management, unstable academic progress, decreased opportunities to express creativity, decreased opportunities to develop skills, health challenges for staff and students, production of half-baked students, teacher wastage, student wastage and facility wastage with aggregate mean scores of Rivers East (3.20), Rivers West (3.26) and Rivers South East (3.06) were resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures in public senior secondary schools. It further indicated that the most resultant effect for Rivers east was unstable academic progress (3.51), for Rivers West it was teacher wastage (3.18) and for Rivers South it was health challenges for staff and students (3.52). The aggregate mean score therefore show that all the items listed above are resultant effects of educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among senatorial districts in Rivers State.

Ho₁: There is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the available educational infrastructures for goal attainment in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Table 4: Chi-square test of available educational infrastructures.

Chi-Square Test

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.849[a]	2	.654
Likelihood Ratio	.850	2	.654
Linear by Linear	.717	1	397
N. of Valid Cases	160		

Data on table 4 shows results for Pearson Chi-square (X^2) test analysis on the availability of educational infrastructure, with Chi-square (0.849), degree of freedom 2, and the significance value (0.654) at 0.05 level of significance. Given that the significance value (0.654) is greater than 0.05, we reject the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts 0n the available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education; and retain the null hypotheses that there is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho₂: There is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the adequacy of available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Table 5:Chi-square test of adequate educational infrastructures

Chi-Square Test

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.548[a]	2	.760
Likelihood Ratio	.571	2	.752
Linear by Linear	.091	1	763
N. of Valid Cases	82		

Data on table 5: shows results for Pearson Chi-square (X^2) test analysis on the adequacy of available educational infrastructure, with Chi-square (0.548), degree of freedom 2, and the significance value (0.760) at 0.05 level of significance. Given that the significance value (0.760) is greater than 0.05,we reject the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the adequacy of available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals; and retain the null hypotheses that there is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the adequacy of available educational infrastructures for attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho_3: There is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Table 6: Anova test of the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures.

Anova

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	Fcal.	Sig.
Between Groups	.980	2	.490	2.187	.116
Within Group	35.184	157	.224		
Total	36.164	159			

Table 6 shows results of ANOVA analysis on the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures among public senior secondary schools in Rivers West, Rivers East and Rivers South-East senatorial districts in Rivers State. The results show F-value of 2.187 and significant value of 0.116 at 0.05 level of significance. Given that the Significant value of 0.116 is greater than 0.05, we reject the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals; and retain the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference on the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Discussion

The analysis on available educational infrastructure revealed that in Rivers East out of sixty one (61)sampled schools infrastructures were only available for the attainment of secondary education goals with buildings 42(69%), utilities 34(56%), furniture 59(96%), laboratories 33(55%), and security 55(90%);for Rivers West out of the fifty seven (57) sampled schools the investigated infrastructures available for goal attainment were: buildings 51(89%), utilities 45(80%), furniture 57(100%) and laboratories 33(59%); and for Rivers South East, out of the forty two (42) sample schools the investigated infrastructures available for goal attainment were buildings 25(60%), furniture 40(94) and security 29(68%). On the aggregate analysis it was revealed that only Buildings, Utilities, furniture, laboratories and Security were available whilst equipment, information and Communication Technology, medical and sports were not available for the attainment of secondary education goals. The results of the hypothesis show a significant value of 0.654 which is greater than 0.05, thus the null hypothesis is retained that there is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary school in Rivers State. The results are in agreement with Akomolafe and Adesua (2016) who identified that educational infrastructures were lacking in a lot of secondary schools in spite of school location.

The aggregate analysis from the sampled schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on how adequate the available educational infrastructures for the attainment of secondary education goals revealed that; only security infrastructure was adequate with 94 schools having adequate security and 15 schools having inadequate security. The analysis therefore reveals that buildings, equipment, utilities, furniture, information and communication technology (ICT), laboratories, medical and sports infrastructures were not adequate for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East Senatorial districts in Rivers State. The analysis on the test of hypothesis showed a significant value of 0.760 which is greater than 0.05 therefore the null hypothesis retained that there is no significant difference in the adequacy of available educational infrastructure for the attainment of secondary education goals in public senior secondary schools among senatorial district in Rivers State. This is in line with the study of Ojeje and Adodo (2018) who in a study found out that the state of educational infrastructures is in despair and not adequate for the attainment of educational goals according to the National policy on education. Analysis on the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures show that respondents from the different senatorial districts agree on an aggregate mean score of Rivers East (3.20), Rivers West (3.26) and Rivers South East (3.06) on all the listed factors. The agreed factors include: overcrowded classrooms, difficulty in class management, unstable academic progress, decreased opportunities to express creativity, decreased opportunities to develop skills, health challenges for staff and students, production of half-baked students, teacher wastage, student wastage and facility wastage. The analysis on the test of hypothesis showed a significant value of 0.116 which is greater than 0.05 therefore the null hypothesis is retained that there is no significant difference among Rivers East, Rivers West and Rivers South East senatorial districts on the resultant effects of inadequate educational infrastructures on the attainment of secondary education goals among public senior secondary schools in Rivers State. . The results agree with Onuoha and Agabi (2021) who revealed that when educational infrastructures are not adequately provided educational wastage will occur as such educational goals may not be achievable.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Secondary education is a fundamental level as it is the level where students are exposed to different external examinations that determine their future pursuit, hence the need for educational infrastructures to be available and adequate for effective teaching and learning processes. It further concludes that educational infrastructures are not adequately availability in public senior secondary schools among senatorial districts senatorial districts in Rivers State for the attainment of secondary education goals.Based on the results, the following recommendations are made:

1. The State government through the Ministry of education and the Senior Secondary Schools' Board (SSSB) could adopt this paper as a guide to ascertain the state of infrastructures in senior secondary schools and make the necessary provisions.
2. Schools should be regularly visited to check the state of the infrastructures to enhance academic activities.

Principals should inform educational stakeholders when educational infrastructures are not available or inadequate in their schools.

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IDENTIFYING HINDRANCES TO EFFECTIVE URBAN CHRISTIAN MISSIONS IN SOUTH-SOUTH NIGERIA

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Abstract

Urban centers are strategic for Christian missions to flourish; their importance for economic growth in shaping culture and their impact on the global population is expedient. Although Urban Christian missions face diverse hinders in the cause of evangelizing its environment, most notably in south-South Nigeria, such that there is a need to identify those challenges in the cities. In recent times, missions have gained more influence in the urban centers because of the economic rise and greener pastures it promises. The researcher observed that these had made some Ministers, missionaries, and church leaders take advantage to commercialize the Gospel, leading to unhealthy competition and compromising the biblical truths. This study, therefore, identifies some hindrances responsible for urban Christian missions in South-South Nigeria. In achieving this, the researcher adopted a descriptive method. The work explore the biblical view of urban missions, conceptual clarification of terms, and means of curbing the severe challenges that hinder urban Christian missions South-South Nigeria with a conclusion and copious recommendations.

KEYWORDS: Hindrances, Urban, Christian Missions

Introduction

Christian Missions is the involvement of the Church in the work of redemption. It requires the people of God to cooperate with Him in obtaining salvation for humanity.[1] Due to cultural, religious, and geographical dispositions, Africa strategically engages in missions. Nigeria is a well-known nation in Africa not only because of its large population but because of its involvement in Christian Missions; South-South Nigeria comprises six states in Nigeria. In recent years, the Gospel in the urban centers of South-South Nigeria has advanced in its Christian missions enterprise; as a result, many are migrating to these cities for the greener pastures it promises.

Observably, some ministers, missionaries, and church leaders are taking advantage of the

[1] A. O. Alawode, "Constructing Mission Praxis for Sustainable Socio-Economic Development Amongst the Rural Poor of Oluyole Local Government (Oyo State), Nigeria." *Unpublished Thesis*. Pretoria: The University of South Africa. (2013), 7.

civilization mentioned above to commercialize the Gospel for material gains, leading to unhealthy competition among churches and leaders. It has also led to compromising the biblical truths. It becomes expedient to discover some elements of urban Christian Missions hindrances in this region. Eugene Rubingh affirms that those Christians who are involved in urban missions have a certain zeal with them, it is a zeal they feel is biblically valid. He states that such individuals are "convinced that they possess an authentic instinct as to the biblical validity of an imperative for their work."[2]Agbo avers that it is painful despite the glaring need for discipleship; most teachings flooding Christans community today are centered on materialism, self-projection, self-making, and greediness. These teachings cannot produce the quality of Christians Christ had in mind when he commanded us to go and make disciples of all nations.[3]

Hence, this study seeks to identify hindrances to urban Christian missions in South-South, Nigeria. The paper will also discuss conceptual clarification of key terms and Biblical foundation for urban Christian missions. Possible remedy to solving the challenge of urban Christian missions in South-South Nigeria from missiological perspectives, with brief conclusion coupled with helpful recommendations.

Conceptual Clarification

Hindrances: serves as a blockage, barriers from allowing things accordingly or make it more challenging to witness the Gospel. Meanwhile, this research is used as those elements that hinder Christian missions from achieving God-given tasks or missions more productive in urban centers.

Urban is mostly understood as or about the city most of the time. A city is a moderately great, dense, and permanent settlement of socially heterogeneous individuals.[4] The city is where the greatest attentiveness of persons exists with the most significant ethnic, cultural, and socio-economical diversity. Two related terms are *urbanism and urbanization.* By *urbanization,* individuals submit to the city as an attraction. Urbanization pulls the populace in from local areas. When one refers to *urbanism,* persons submit to the city as a transformer, transmitter, and magnifier of culture.[5]

Palen identifies multiple insightful viewpoints for one perceptive of the term, including economic, cultural, demographic, and geographical definitions.[6] The impressive growth of large cities on this planet represents a tremendous challenge to the Church of Jesus Christ on six continents. In 1900, eight percent of the world's inhabitants lived in cities. By the year 2000, that figure where nearly fifty percent.[7] The United Nations reports urban populations based on each country's definition. For example, in the United States, urban centers are defined by population (2,500 or more persons) and population density (1,000 persons per square mile).

Meanwhile, in Nigerian urban population has expanded rapidly over the past 50 years. It will continue to grow relatively fast in the coming decades, although how fast is a matter of some dispute. Censuses 1952, 1963, 1991, the United Nations, which incorporates data from the 2006 census, and Africa polis, which combines census data with the geospatial investigation.[8] Nigeria recently became the largest economy in Africa; overtaking South Africa, which has roughly a third of Nigeria's estimated 170 million people and a far slower economic growth rate. The country's economic output is outpacing population growth.[9] In South-South Nigeria, its people are economically involved in fishing, farming, lumbering, palm oil mining, etcetera. However, oil and gas exploration and production form the bulk of its economic activity, with the

[2] Eugene Rubingh, *Strategies for Evangelisation in Cities* (Grand Rapids: CRC Pub., 1986), 29.

[3] A.E. Agbo, *Making disciples of all nations*, B-i-Fantest Ltd., Lagos. 2010), 5

[4]Harvie Conn, and Manuel Oritz, *Urban Ministry* (Downers Grove: IVP Academic, 2001), 159.

[5]Harvie.Conn,*The Urban Face of Mission: Ministering the Gospel in a Diverse and Changing World* (Phillipsburg: P&R Publishing, 2002), 30.

[6] J. John Palen, *The Urban World*, 7th ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 2005), 7.

[7]Raymond J. Bakke, *A Theology as Big as the City* Inter Varsity Press, 1997), 12

[8] Bloch R., Fox S., Monroy J., and Ojo A. *Urbanization and Urban Expansion in Nigeria.* Urbanization Research Nigeria (URN) Research Report London: ICF International. Creative Commons Attribution-Non-Commercial-Share Alike CC BY-NC-SA (2015), 8

[9] Bloch, Robin, Naji Makarem, M. Yunusa, Nikolaos Papachristodoulou, and Matthew Crighton. "Economic development in urban Nigeria." *Urbanization Research Nigeria (URN) research report. London: ICF International* (2015).

state accounting for over 30% of Nigeria's oil production.[10]

Christian Missions**:** According to Moreau, Christian Missions is the precise work of the Church asan agent of change to reach people for Christ by crossing cultural boundaries.[11]Alawode opines that the Christian mission aims to bring souls into the kingdom of God. Because the Great Commission includes those in the world's urban regions, there is a need to strategically plan to reach them for Christ.[12] On this research, Christian missions refer to the Church's activity aimed at evangelism, preaching, teaching, and disciple the urban for more efficient work of spreading the Gospel of Christian Missions in the urban more effectively.

Biblical View of Urban Christian Mission

It is important to note that the urban Christian mission is not a new occurrence. It has its roots in the Bible. Roger states that the kind of mission works that gives God joy and can wait for his blessings is done carefully on sound biblical foundations. Meanwhile, one cannot expect lives to be transformed or changed, city neighborhoods improved, and essential churches established if our labors spring from feeble, even distorted, theological roots.[13] Fact from the Bible demonstrates that Jesus' life and ministry were built in the urban towns Luke 9:51, 19:41 because he went concerning all the cities and villages of Galilee, which implicates large settlement areas or meetings.[14] Bakke supports his view of states as the city savior and proves that Jesus reached an urban world by linking Pentecost to Jerusalem Luke 24 and Acts 1 and 2.[15] After the grief of Jesus, the persecution of early apostles and followers of Jesus Christians led to the dispersion of Jews who fled to pagan cities of the world to form Jews in the Diaspora and were accountable for preaching the Christian belief in the city.

Paul is an outstanding example, an apostle who preached in the urban areas. Stark and other historians suggest that the early Church was peculiarly a city movement because the disciples and imitators of Christ first took the news to urban areas of Roman cities. This eventually trickled into the rural areas that had remained un-evangelized.[16]

Green demonstrates in Genesis, the construction of the tower of Babel, a city, was connected to a symbol of their influence, their common language, and showing of the worldwide reach of their communication expertise, even though it did not last.[17] This is still relevant today. Keller suggested that world cities are economically, socially, and scientifically developed to form the culture and principles of cities. These are easily transmitted worldwide to every tongue, tribe, person, and nation. Hence, world cities are increasingly vital in location the way of culture, and life as a whole, building them very important to the Christian missions and growth.[18]Urban towns are a tremendously significant base for spreading Christian tasks. There will be resistance and challenges, but the Church must study how to handle them.

Hindrances to Effective Urban Christian Missions in South-South Nigeria

The most significant task of the missionary is to understand the use of Urban missions[19] because urban is the centrality of every state. It seems overwhelming but does not signify that it cannot be achieved.[20] Effective and adequate programs and methods for urban tasks to succeed in urban contexts are necessary as the city church

[10]https://infoguidenigeria.com/south-south-geopolitical-zone-in-nigeria-its-states-and-their-economic-activities/Accessed Feburary 26, 2023

[11]A. Scott Moreau, Gary R. Corwin, and Gary B. McGee, *Introducing World Missions: A Biblical, Historical, and Practical Survey* (Grand Rapids: Baker Academic, 2004), 17.

[12]Akinyemi O. Alawode, "Leadership development: Effective tool for urban Christian missions in the 21st century in Nigeria."*HTS Teologiese Studies/Theological Studies* 78, no. 4 (2022): 2.

[13] Roger Greenway, and Timothy Monsma, *Cities: Mission's New Frontier* (Grand Rapids: Baker Book Housen, 1989), 1

[14] Harvey M Conn, and Manuel Ortiz. *The Kingdom, the city and the people of God: Urban ministry*. Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity Press. 2000), 122-137

[15]Ray Bakke,*A theology as big as the city* Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity Press. 1984), 127-137.

[16] Rodney. Stark,*The rise of Christianity: How the obscure, marginal Jesus movement became the dominant religious force in the western world in a few centuries*.HarperSan Francisco. 1997) 161-162

[17]Laurie.Green, *Urban ministry: And the kingdom of God*. London: MPG Books. 2003), 18.

[18] Tim.Keller, *What Is God's Global Urban Mission* 2010), 4.

[19]JohnstonePatrick, and Jason Madryk. *Operation World: 21st Century Edition.* (Carlisle, Cumbria: Paternoster Lifestyle, 2001), 711.

[20] Clark AScanlon, "Planning a Holistic Strategy for Urban Witness" In a*n Urban World: Churches Face the Future*, ed. Larry L. Rose and C. Kirk Hadaway, 167-87. (Nashville, TN: Broadman Press, 1984), 9.

struggles with reaching urban people with the good news using old and irrelevant strategies. Today's Church needs to find strategic and creative ways to cope with the current trends of the urban environment. Patrick Johnstone laments that Christians are not effectively reaching the major cities in the same way as elsewhere.[21]Urban missions, despite their demanding difficulties, are highly possible, and urban missions could serve as its indispensable strategy as the following barriers poses.

Lack of Prioritizing Urban Mission

Currently, most of the mission's targets are mostly the poor, marginalized, and underprivileged, mainly in miserable and underdeveloped regions. It is shocking to see many missions organizations and church-funded liberation programs focus their awareness on war-ravaged countries like Afghanistan and East Timor, whose economies depend greatly on rural agriculture. Missions in rural areas are part of the biblical mandate of the Great Commission. But while many mission organizations pour plenty of possessions into economically miserable areas, there seems to be an important abandon on reaching out to the marginalized people in urban areas.

In some cases, urban missions, as a mission structure, seem to control the rural poor at the cost of the urban poor and the marginalized in the big cities around the world.[22] It is thus easy for the contemporary Church to concentrate resources on rural areas at the expense of urban missions. In most cases, the mood of the Christian mission seems to be progress and development, that is, helping rural communities achieve economic prosperity and technological capability rather than evangelizing and transforming persons. The mandate, therefore, to consider seriously urban centers for mission employing social ministry is loaded with practical reasons.[23] It then poses a limitation to urban missions.

Inadequate Strategic Missions in Urban Centers

David Lim affirms that urbanization is the obvious consequence of obedience to God's cultural command.[24] As more rural-based people move to the cities, relevant missions strategies develop and become essential. To continue to maintain effectiveness in the urban has to find original ways and means to meet urban needs. When an urban missions fails to respond to the needs of the urbanites, it risks losing its basis of existence. Of course, urban missions do not serve as the final indicator of the Church's existence in urban centers. Still, the way it responds to urgent social needs is serious to its continued existence, relevance, and growth. Thus in the face of fast-growing urbanization, the power of the Gospel needs to reach every corner and bend of the city through the urban missions of the Church is important.[25]Obviously, the gospel movements as the Church's are involved in effective urban missions; they enter urban centers.

Rapid Growth in Urban

There is rapid growth in urban missions, which hinders missions mostly in our contemporary churches. Some cities in Africa grow at twofold the rate of their nations. So, there is a need to comprehend the explosion cities across the area rather than become unfair against them.[26] An effective urban missions in its commitment to social ministry faces six types of social organizations: cosmopolites, ethnic villagers, singles, socially deprivation or economically oppressed, disassociation, and migrants and immigrants.[27] Financial growth, which is certain by risingself-governing governments and political firmness, results in rapid urbanization. Thus, strategic cities have been urbanized, expanded, and converted into metropolitans across the African areas, with large towns hopefulof becoming cities.

Rose assert, as cities grow, so does the increasing challenge posed by the problems of

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[21] Patrick Johnstone, *Operation World* (Grand Rapids, MI: Zondervan Publishing House, 1993), 618.

[22]Emilio.Nuñez,*heology of Evangelizing the City*. A Paper Presented at the Trinary Consultation on Evangelizing World Class Cities, (Chicago, Illinois, March 14-17, 1986), 1-20

[23] Ervin E.Hastey, "Reaching the Cities First: A Biblical Model of World Evangelization." In *An Urban World: Churches Face the Future*, ed. Larry L. Rose and C. Kirk Hadaway, 147-65. (Nashville, TN: Broadman Press, 1984), 147

[24] David S. Lim, "The City in the Bible." In *Urban Ministry in Asia*, ed. Bong-Rin Ro, 20-41.Taichung, Taiwan: Asia Theological Association, 1989), 22.

[25]Ray S. Anderson, "The Humanity of God and the Soul of a City."*Theology, News and Notes* 38, no. 4 1992), 14-16.

[26]Jun Vencer, "The Nature and Mission of the Urban Church."*Asia Theological News* 14, no. 1 (January-March 1988), 16-17.

[27] Allen Swanson, "The Challenge of Urban Mission." *Chinese Around the World* (September 1991), 2-5

overpopulation, pollution, environmental problems, unemployment, moral and social breakdowns, injustice, abuse of human rights, and housing, among others.[28]In most cases, getting landed properties is very hard and expensive Urban, both old and new, must persistin drawing people from all walks of life. Many people from rural areas know the hardships and expensesoflodging in a city, but they still take the risk. Rural-based people tend to recognize the city as a place of unlimited socio-economic, political, and educational opportunities without knowing the overabundance of problems and difficulties involved in living in the city.

Lack of Theological Knowledge

Ray Bakke, an urban missiologist, noted significant barriers to Christian involvement in the cities. The urban experience is so new that many have not had time to catch up with it in terms of the revelation of God.[29] We struggle from what Alvin Toffler calls future shock, the premature arrival of the future.[30] Many of us ideas of the little brown Church in the wildwood, forgetting that our fastest-growing churches are in the urban according. Bakke states that we need to expand our knowledge of theology until it encompasses God's vision of the city.[31] It becomes a barrier when the Church, missionaries, and leaders do not understand the one who has sent them to reach the world.

Cultural Hindrances

Our churches can no longer be culturally from different religious clubs speaking one language and operating on a rural schedule. The urban setting must celebrate the three angels' messages in a rich diversity of cultures and languages—the cities need solid urban churches with encounter leadership. The custom differentiation between foreign and home missions is a thing of the past.

There are two significant challenges in terms of cultural differences that Urban missions face is. First, cultural shock about differences in food, view of clothes, language, relationships with people and the aged, change in behavior leading to too much freedom, being hard-working, or needing time for members and converts, class system, insecurity, fear, or mistrust others. Secondly, he mentioned privacy or individualism in urban areas, which makes one independent but lonely, selfish, lacking teamwork instead of communal life and a sense of belonging in rural areas.[32] Meanwhile, loneliness, insecurity, and privacy stand to pose a challenge to urban missions. When a leader betrays his or her members' trust, it brings unseriousness to the member's hearts.

Competitiveness in urban missions

Some people have the notion that urban has a challenge in rivalry in who progress and who is not making it in missions; however, successful and effective urban missions exist. Observably, the researcher found that some missionaries and church leaders are not working with one mind in the city; as a result, there will not be fruitiness because many leaders have not understood that success in missions is success for all. Many ministers of envy and jealousy will go extreme to a native doctor for a charm to gain success in urban missions. Most we discover that it does not last because the spirit of God is far from such an enterprise. Many leaders compete in terms of number, not the souls of men that have been transformed; the Scripture vividly states it, that may affect a Kingdom that is a divide of its own, and can never stand. Effective urban missions will never impact lives if their base is competition.

Financial Constraints

Lack of finances hinders providing a standard mission needed in urban areas. Many churches have struggled over these financial constraints that limit the urban tasks they can deliver within and outside their locality, which is a barrier to an effective urban ministry. Therefore, it still needs a permanent structure for the Church, replacing tents already used at some branches and planting many more churches. Thus, small or deficient in finances can hinder effective urban missions.[33] If urban missions must affect

[28]Larry L. Rose, and C. Kirk Hadaway, eds. *An Urban World: Churches Face the Future*. Nashville, TN: Broadman Press, 1984), 27.

[29]Ray Bakke, "Overcoming the Real Barriers to Urban Evangelization," in John Kyle, ed., *Urban Mission* (Downers Grove, HI.: InterVarsity Press, 1988), 76.

[30]TafflerAlvin, *Future Shock* New York: Random House, 1970),

[31]Ray Bakke, "Overcoming the Real Barriers to Urban Evangelization," 76

[32]https://dlibrary.aiu.ac.ke/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/175/Ruth%20Otsyula%20final%20thesis%20for%20binding%20doc.doc?sequence=1=yaccessed 22th October 2021

[33]John Luka Waneye, Interview by Chinedu Evidence, (Ogbomoso: The Nigerian Baptist Theological Seminary, October, 21th 2021).

lives positively, with their needs and through buying of land properties for building the Church, meeting the needs of students through payment of school fees requires money. Meanwhile, churches can go into investment, and it also requires money. For the Church to function effectively, it requires

Location of the Church and Space Land

Through Observation, the researcher discovered that effective urban missions have different means and aims of assembling in the city church. Most times, the locations are not accessible Ehiwarior avers that land and church space could hinder effective urban missions. He observed that people outside the Church could not receive as much comfort or concentration as those inside because they reserved getting abstracted, but the weather most times rainfall on them, including the hotness of the weather.[34] For instance, if there is no land space, it would be demanding to construct youth and Sunday school classes. One would have to put together with their parents in the Church, except the Church provides these at different times, which would be so demanding and costly for parents who would have to bring their kids home and return for their service later on. As a result, Church land space influences the effective urban missions that a church can proffer, which poses a challenge to effective urban missions to some cities.

Lack of Leadership Mobilization of Missions Work

Urban missions strongly require active and great mobilization to achieve the God-given purpose for which it exists, according to Rev. Mrs. Charity Adarigho. Most urban missions leaders lack the skill and Grace to mobilize othersto work together as team workers, raise finance for missions purposes, help out those suffering at the mission field, and mobilize towards new venture of planting Church in other megacities.[35]Meanwhile, based on the above assertion, the researcher believes that despite the teachings and preachings many have received, they need to be mobilized for missions. If one refuses, it becomes a barrier to the growth of effective urban missions their level of commitment level needs to be encouraged.

Lack of Hope in Urban

The hope for jobs, better education, better medical care, and health care drive many to the cities. The African does not yet understand the western anti-urban bias but still looks to the city hopeful. Because white-collar and blue-collar jobs are concentrated in the urban, there are few job opportunities in the rural centers. In the cities one finds factories, schools in their thousands, hotels, airports that need cleaning every day, so many cars that need drivers, roadside materials to sell, and several others.[36]

Indeed, the urban promises many things to African people; on that note, so many Africans move to the cities in their numbers to hope for a better life. But because most people are going to the cities, the hope for jobs and promise of a good living is no longer there or very restricted. The people end up jobless in the cities but cannot even consider returning to their villages.[37] After all, the city still promises some hope. The city becomes crowded with several other accompanying effects. The Church needs to address these effects in her missions enterprise in the city. The researcher discovered that in all of these assets in the urban centers, one still finds out there are many who are living without hope. Meanwhile, some persons live in the street without work; even feeding is a serious issue, the urban missions must strive to care for and support this group of helpless people.

Poverty in Urban

Since, by its nature, the Church is founded to promote Jesus' ministry of providing both the physical and spiritual needs of people. The reality of poverty in the nation is making the major assignments of the Church of Christ, which include the conversion of souls, showing mercy to the needy, and other philanthropic services to the masses to be at stake. As a higher percentage of Nigeria's populace is wallowing in abject poverty. It also affect the South-South region.

[34]Evans C. Ehiwarior, *Interview* by Chinedu Evidence, Online whatsapp, October 22nd 2021.

[35]Charity Adarigho, *Interview* by Chinedu Evidence, (Ogbomoso: The Nigerian Baptist Theological Seminary, October 22th 2021).

[36]Iorkighir. T. Jonathan Theology of urban missionhttps://www.academia.edu/31298188/Theology_of_Urban_Missionaccessed December 10, 2021.

[37]Ibid.

Possible Apporches to Curbing Hindrances to Urban Christian Missions in South-South, Nigeria

The Church is God's appointed agency for the salvation of men. It was organized for service, and its missions are to carry the Gospel to the world. This session will identify five relevant practical urban tasks to fulfill God's mission in urban areas. These principles not only can be applied anywhere in the globe, but they need to be practiced to apply a more comprehensive approach to evangelism in the Urban context

Missional Communities

Suppose urban missions will overcome the barrier encountered through "saying jets of light shining from cities and villages, and from the high places and the little places of the world. The word of God was harked, and as a result, there were memorials for Him in every city and village. His truth was proclaimed throughout the world"[38] A missional community model is concerned with the principles of how to be the Church and how to assimilate new disciples. It is a new paradigm of the church community. It will require creating a third place where people feel comfortable praying and reading the Bible, even if they have no religious background. "We are in the business of human connection and humankind, creating communities in a third place between work and home."[39]

Missional communities, according to Mike, is a group of people about the size of a comprehensive family, doing the mission of God jointly outside the regular confines of the church building.[40] That will enable urban missions to develop several different kinds of community programs, such as food distribution, helping people find jobs, back-to-school parties, Bible studies, and other activities to develop friendships in the community. The group will grow, and later, they start meeting for worship on Sundays, like having house fellowships.

Urban Collaboration for Missions

Collaboration is a crucial principle for successfully impacting urban missions by forming strategic partnerships. No mission agency can provide all the services needed to meet the felt needs within a city. Through formal networking and collaboration, missions efforts can effectively deliver quality services to the people in their urban areas.[41]

Incarnational urban Mission

The incarnation missions of Jesus Christ is the model, the pattern of how our missions of the incarnation should be. In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God, and the Word was God. The Word became flesh and made his dwelling among us. Incarnation begins with presence. "The Word became flesh and made his dwelling among us"(John 1:14).The reason that many well-intentioned urban evangelistic strategies fails is that they have beento the people of the city. Ugbedinma avers, that Incarnation focuses more on taking flesh, Church is placed to be center of the history of the human race as Christ was midst of men, so also the Church.[42] Incarnational missions of evangelism with the people of the city are highly significant.[43] It calls for missionaries to understand the environment operates. Greenway noted Manuel Ortiz, who asserted, "To be incarnational Christians in the urban region, one must know the city and, in particular, that part of the city in which the Lord has placed us".[44]

Funding missions

With the economic recession, resources available to finance urban missions are down. In addition, partner churches are faced with the same problems in urban society. Four principles must be put to check (1) the ownership of God's mission; (2) the provision for God's mission; (3) the sharing of resources for God's mission; and (4) the stewardship of resources for God's

[38] Ellen White,*Testimonies to the Church*. Vol. 9. Mountain View, CA: Pacific Press. 1909), 28

[39]Howard. Schult, 2006.Interview by Daniel Schorn on CBS 60 Minutes. http:// www.cbsnews.com/news/howard-schultz-the-star-of-starbucks/accessed on 21th 2021

[40]Breen, Mike, and Alex Absalom.*Launching Missional Communities: A Field Guide*Pawleys Island, SC: 3D Ministries Publishing (Kindle Edition). 2010), 216

[41]https://nationalurbanministryassociation.org/yahoo_site_admin/assets/docs/Eight_Urban_Ministry_Strategies.150195235.pdf Accessed January 23, 2023

[42]Chinedu. Evidence. Ugbedinma, ‘‘Impacts of Contextualizing the Gospel on African Chriatinity’’ *Journal of Religious and Culture (JORAC Uniport),* Volume 22, No 1 and 2 July 2022): 173. *ISSN: 1595-3971*

[43] Robert Linthicum, *City of God, City of Satan: Biblical Theology for the Urban* (Grand Rapids, MI: Zondervan, 1991), 204.

[44] Roger Greenway, *Discipling the city* (Grand Rapids, MI: Baker Book House, 1979), 89.

mission.[45] Urban missions must look to other sources of revenue for financing programs. An instant, grants are an untapped source of income for many missions, venturing into agricultural production. Some urban missions operate as a local church ministry, having a mother church to care for the young Church, not as a separate nonprofit. There are advantages and disadvantages to both views.

Empowerment of the Holy Spirit

Empowerment in this context applies to urban missions in at least two ways. The Holy Spirit empowers believers to work in the urban center. As a result, Christians work to equip and empower people to find salvation and healing for themselves, rebuild their communities, and redeem the institutions and systems of their urban lives.

Ellul's, asserted that "Man is not to be counted on to transform the problem of the urban. He is no more capable of transforming the environment the devil chose and built for him than changing his own nature. Only God's decisive action is sufficient. Only the death of the very Son of God is sufficient to change the facts of history. Only the resurrection is sufficient to dispossess the demons of their domain".[46]Empowerment by the Holy Spirit begins with the recognition that no person, or Church, has the power, ability, training, or spiritual gifts to reach the city in their own strength. City missions can only be done with the power of the Holy Spirit. Therefore, The critical task of the missions in the urban is to win people to Christ, establish them in their faith, train them for ministry, and deploy them for service.

Greenway avers that "Disciple-making was key to Jesus' strategy for the world's salvation. He made disciples so that they might become apostles. Jesus educated them and disciplined them, that through them the movement of God's Kingdom might pass on to the world with growing power and scope"[47] the researcher supports the idea.

Church Planting

Urban missions should go towards church planting. The Apostle Paul chose to start new congregations in strategic cities. On his second missionary trip, he established a Christian church in Thessalonica, with this Church as a model for others (1 Thess 1:7-8). According to Peter Wagner, Planting new churches is the most effective evangelistic methods known under heaven.[48]DuBose proposed that effective urban missions be both *flexible* and *simple.* Rapid change and complexity inherent to urban contexts require that missionaries and ministers maintain the ability to move quickly. Simplicity often shows in Church planting through house churches, methodology, and practice. [49] Like many urban missiologists, DuBose relied heavily on research and his Scientific Principle's social sciences. While such tools should always remain secondary to theology and Scripture, research can support strategy development and Church planting by giving missionaries a clear view of their context.[50]

Reconciliation

Most government programs in the urban are agencies that address the problems of the city by teaching people how to cope with their problems. Sometimes, these approaches do not work because they only focus on teaching people how to cope with their sin's effects and problems. When people are given answers that do not work, they become resigned to the feeling that their sin and problems are hopeless, leading to despair. The Gospel proclaims the answer to the sin and problems of the city is the reconciling power of Jesus Christ that transforms people and communities.

Neuhaus asserts thus, "Being reconciled to the rule of God is quite the opposite of being resigned to the way things are. The concept of reconciliation must be rescued from notions of passivity and mere adjustment. Reconciliation means transformation. When we are helping people to cope by conforming, when we make smooth the way of accommodation, when we relieve the tension between the actual and the

[45]Kirk Franklin, and NelusNiemandt, "Funding God's mission-towards a missiology of generosity."*Missionalia: Southern African Journal of Mission Studies* 43, no. 3 (2015):401

[46] Jacques Ellul, *The Meaning of th City* (Grand Rapids, MI: Eerdmans, 1970), 170.

[47] Roger Greenway, *Apostles to the City: Biblical Strategies for Urban Mission* (Grand Rapids, MI: Baker Book House, 1978) 47.

[48] Peter C. Wagner, *Strategies for Church Growth*. Ventura, CA: Regal Books. 1989), 168

[49]Francis M. DuBose, "Megalopolis: City and Anti-city—Implications for the Mission of the Church" (Mill Valley, CA: Golden Gate Baptist Theological Seminary, 1968).

[50]Francis M. DuBose, *How Churches Grow in an Urban World: History, Theology, and Strategy of Growth in All Kinds of City Churches* (Nashville: Broadman, 1978). 172

real, then we have become reconcilers who have betrayed Christ's ministry of reconciliation".[51]The message of reconciliation offers hope and transformation to the urban. Only the reconciling power of God ministered by Christians and by the Church can transform the city of man into the City of God.

Leadership Development

There is a need to develop an effective urban Christian Mission as minister or leader; mostly, these new congregations that are being started necessitate a new kind of leadership. To continue to promote the Kingdom's growth and expansion in the cite,Church will need a different approach to leadership. Alawode asserts that urban missions concerning leadership training for efficient Christian missions in urban areas and steps to developing leaders with the mindset of selecting the right people and disciple them.[52] As pastors start giving leadership to a multi-church district, lay leaders will need to take the lead.Mutua, who asserted going through selecting aggressive fit leaders to guide the followers to spiritual growth will help coupled with deeper insight into the variety and difficulty of the urban culture must be the churches center to enable it to make sound decisions on language policy that benefits most, embrace different ethnic cultures.[53]

Discipleship

Discipleship calls for urgency in urban centers. Moreover,the city is increasing and growing daily, and the Gospel easily influences the fresh arrival to the city; if one preaches to them, the opportunity to win an urban majority to Christian discipleship may not be there forever. Therefore, there is a need to register them and train them in a discipleship class. Once the new city inhabitant has become urbanized beyond a certain point, receptivity changes to resistance and the opportunity to win them to Christ is lost.In some parts of the world, more people can be won to Christian discipleship in rural villages than in large cities. But with the movement of masses of people to the urban center's unique opportunities are created to present the claims of Christ.[54]For the period their come to the city, missionaries, particularly, should welcome and accept them, it will help to accept the spiritual truth and the chance for personal fellowship. That is the time when they must be reached with the Gospel.

Conclusion

The article has attempted to discuss urban Christian Missions hindering in reaching urban in South-South Nigeria due to the proliferation of the Gospel among some ministers and unhealthy competition. Indeed, the urban is a piece Contradictory, a center of economic functions, modernity, and social deterioration, where most obvious forms of evil flourish and secularity, where wealth co-exists with high poverty levels simultaneously. However, cities are also places of human achievement and civilization, gains erudite scholars are made, and places of change. Cities are also areas of diverse value systems, various needs, and expectations, which offer opportunities for urban missions to respond in terms of the Great Commission (Matt 28:19-20). If the above solution is applied it will help curb the challenges of Urban Christian missions in South-South Nigeria and beyond.

Recommendations

1. The missionaries, send by God should receive suitable training from theological school for proper interpretation of the Bible and better spreading of the Gospel.
2. Church leaders, missionaries should imitate Christ, whom they claim to have called them and whose priority is to save souls and not make money from the Gospel.
3. The missionaries and ministers should fully depend on the power of the Holy Spirit, the greatest strategizer for missions, even in the urban centers.
4. Missionary church leaders should learn how to partner with others in urban Christian missions and pray to resist the devil in times of temptation constantly.

[51] Richard John Neuhaus, Freedom for Ministry (Grand Rapids, MI: Eerdmans, 1992), 74-77

[52]Akinyemi O. Alawode, "Leadership development: Effective tool for urban Christian missions in the 21st century in Nigeria."*HTS Teologiese Studies/Theological Studies* 78, no. 4 (2022): 4.

[53]Henry. Mutua, "Extended family system in the African city: A response to the question survival or decline" in Stephen Mutuku Sesi, Henry Mutua, Alemayhu Mekonnen, Steven Rassmussen, Mark Shaw, Josephine Mutuku Sesi and Caleb Chul-Soo Kim. *African Missiology: Contribution of contemporary thought*. Nairobi: Uzima Publishing House. 2009), 50-52.

[54]Roger S. Greenway,''Urban Evangelism''https://lausanne.org/content/urban-evangelism accessed December 10, 2021

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STEMMING INSURGENCY IN NIGERIA: A MULTI-PRONGED NON-KINETIC APPROACH

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Abstract

The continuous upsurge of insurgency and terrorism worldwide has become a contemporary global nightmare costing humanity an unquantifiable myriad of hazards and continues to attract the attention of stakeholders and policymakers. The central issue of its complexity and the assumed disturbing dimension of this phenomenon suggests a multi-pronged approach to stem it. Nigeria has continued to encounter this intricate web of insurgency, especially in the country's northeastern part. The country has experienced wanton destruction of lives and property, rendering the situation lugubrious despite the predominant kinetic campaigns. This paper adopts the qualitative data collection method and examines the challenges confronted in stemming the menace. The article argues for a multi-pronged non-kinetic approach that targets infrastructural development, mass education, skills acquisition, gainful employment, and de-radicalization of religion in countering insurgency in Nigeria. The paper recommends that government should explore the revitalization and effective utilization of institutions such as the Lake Chad Basin Authority, the Niger Delta Development Authority, and other national and sub-regional/international institutions in its efforts to counter insurgency in the country.

Key words: Insurgency, Terrorism, Governance, Maitasine Riot, Boko Haram, Niger Delta, Multi-National

Introduction

Terrorism has become one of the serious issues of the 21st century. In the wake of unrest in the Middle East, terrorism has risen worldwide, causing the massive deaths of many innocent citizens. The United States is one of the countries that has suffered immensely as a result of this issue. The threat of terrorism manifested itself properly during the 9/11 attack. To some extent, the implementation of counterterrorism strategies by countries has helped to reduce the acts of terrorism in some countries. It should note that terrorism is a big problem currently, and counterterrorism does not offer definitive help to this problem. The threat of counterterrorism has manifested itself properly in Tanzania and Kenya, where the U.S. embassy was bombed, killing many people. However, it has also led to increased terrorist activities in other areas.

Nigeria's history as a multiethnic and multi-religious nation has led to overpowering power struggles for values, claims to status, and the pursuit of desired values in the face of limited resources. Therefore, many ethnic groups are still engaged in power struggles for a piece of the national pie, despite the clear negative effects these conflicts have on other ethnic groups as well as the welfare of the country. The elite are engaged in a power struggle to control the distribution of revenues provided by the central government due to the neo-patrimonial sub-national entities' zero-sum rivalry (Collord, 2022).

Since its unification in 1914, Nigeria has continued to struggle with the issue of ethnic and religious populism. This mentality explains why Nigeria has regrettably continued through difficult political upheavals and dissension that led to the outbreak of civil war between 1967 and 1970, along with other diverse intra-and inter-ethnic and religious disputes. The failure of successive governments to propose a long-term solution and defuse the tensions brought on by the various agitations makes it all the more troubling that their efforts to end these repeated upheavals have not had the desired impact.

It is important to have an effective and proactive security system to combat insecurity and guarantee the peaceful coexistence of the nation's various ethnic and religious groups. These actions go beyond the typical deployment of the military and police to put down insurrections or create one type of ad hoc commission or another to investigate the reasons behind uprisings whenever they occur. It also goes beyond finding the legal and ethical arguments for the State's right to put down the insurgency or the insurgents' right to use force against the State. The strategy for halting the insurgency's momentum must be comprehensive, proactive, ever-evolving, and all-encompassing. These include effective measures for ending insurgency like infrastructure development, mass education/orientation, skill acquisition, gainful employment, embracing a democratic culture, eliminating ethnic nationalism, halting the spread of small arms and light weapons, and deradicalizing all forms of religious bigotry in the nation.

The massive number of people, time, and material resources dedicated to suppressing insurgency are incalculable. To end one revolt or another, the United Nations (U.N.), other regional and subregional organizations, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have invested significant time and money. In a nutshell, it has made the current security situation for the world community unstable.

According to Falola (2009:6), terrorism is the use of force by the British to conquer or the threat of using force to persuade kings and their subjects to submit voluntarily, which signalled the end of independence for autonomous indigenous nations and tribes. Before and after independence, Nigeria had witnessed numerous terrorism-inspired revolutions. The Maitasine Riot in the 1980s, the insurgency in the Niger Delta, which is still active, and most recently and currently raging *Boko Haram* terrorists have all been challenges the nation has had to address. The circumstance, which also reveals the interaction of innate conflict traditions, defining intergroup social ties, has drawn attention to Nigeria from the international community.

In addition to the many lives lost, terrorism has had terrible economic effects on Nigerian society. The Nigerian economy lost more than US$28.48 billion in 2013, and the recent decline in the country's Global Competitive Index has been largely attributed to the unsettling climate. Nigeria dropped from position 99 to position 127 of the 144 countries evaluated in 2014 and the 133 countries surveyed in 2009, respectively (Onuoha *et al.*, 2015).

This study investigates the use of a multifaceted strategy to quell the insurgency in Nigeria. It examines how the insurgency has changed through time, previous counter-insurgency strategies, and potential cures for the problem. The paper traced the evolution of insurgency in Nigeria and offers sustainable counter insurgency measures to reduce the upsurge of the menace.

Historical Evolution of Insurgency in Nigeria

Terrorism is often attributed to having originated from historical conflicts, economic hardship, ethnic identity, and demands autonomy made by many ethnic groups within the Nigerian federation. Therefore, insurgency in Nigeria is best understood within the context of a pluralistic theoretical explanation. It departs from Marx and Engels' economic theory of social struggle as the only underlying cause by combining it with additional social causes, including unequal treatment of the federating units, dictatorship and the suppression of the people, and religious demagoguery (Erik van Ree, 2019).

In Nigeria, the terrorist phenomenon has been around since the country's various tribal groupings first coexisted. The currently available history reveals that insurgency began to spread when the entity known as Nigeria lost its pre-colonial values of communality, fraternity, and reciprocity. These values helped the pre-colonial people achieve self-sufficiency, emphasizing the production and distribution of necessities of life. The loss fuelled the people's resistance to post-colonial exclusive politics and developmental plans, which worsened poverty.

According to history, the early Muslims participated in jihad to expand Islam in the North, creating terror to overpower their prey. In the 18th century, there were instances of terrorism related to recruiting followers for religious goals. For instance, the Islamist Jihadists used terrorist tactics to seize control of the region of Northern Nigeria, predominantly populated by Muslims. Shehu Usman dan Fodio replaced Hausa leaders with a new caliphate, which the Sokoto Empire ruled until the British invaded the region in 1903 (Olatunde, 2016). In the southern part of Nigeria, the Muslims were more liberal and gently applied moderation in their interactions with other religious groups. That explains why attacks on adherents of other religions, particularly Christians in northern Nigeria, occur often.

Madunagu (2011) opines that Nigeria's conception of terrorism is distinct from that of other countries due to its generic nature. According to him, "Nigerian terrorism" began as a seed planted in Nigeria developed and eventually led to the creation of either a monster or unfavourable security conditions in the nation. Madunagu (2011) argued that the Boko Haram insurgency, the Niger Delta insurgency, kidnapping for ransom, the Middle Belt (Jos) massacres, and armed robbery are the five types of terrorism that stand out in Nigeria. The changes in Nigeria's socio-political, economic, racial and religious intolerance have altered or "enriched," or even completely reshaped, the country's insurgent scenario (Madunagu, 2011).

To begin with, each of these insurgent acts has a long history that dates back to the decade before Nigeria's independence in 1960 or to the period immediately following independence. This period witnessed the rise of Isaac Boro, Tony Engurube, and the militants of the modern Niger Delta. There are also the anti-Southern riots in the North, the crisis of 1966, the civil war, the "Sharia crisis" during the debate over the constituent assembly in 1977–1978, the Sharia debate at the start of the Obasanjo administration (1999–2007), and Boko Haram. We could also think back to the movements for the Actualization of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB) and the Oduduwa People's Congress (OPC), travelling through the First Republic, the Civil War, the Second Republic, the Babangida/Abacha Military dictatorship, "June 12," and the Abiola tribulation (Madunagu, 2011). The country's political trajectory has altered or transformed with the emergence of these terrorist organizations in Nigeria, but their origins and histories are still clear.

Theoretical Framework

It is paramount to provoke a thought process in analyzing insurgency in our clime. However, many theories explain the causes of insurgency; the most significant being the failure of the government to fulfil its part of the social contract that binds the government and its citizens together. This paper is, therefore driven by the social contract theory as the framework of its analysis.

Several philosophers have proposed the Social Contract theory throughout history, but the most notable proponents are Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau.

Thomas Hobbes argued in his book "Leviathan" (1651) that in the state of nature, human beings are in a constant state of war with one another, and life is "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short." To escape this state of nature, Hobbes believed that individuals must surrender their rights and freedoms to a sovereign ruler in exchange for protection and security.

On the other hand, John Locke believed in a more optimistic view of human nature. In his book "Two Treatises of Government" (1689), Locke argued that individuals have natural rights to property, liberty and life and that the purpose of government is to protect these rights. Locke believed that individuals enter into a social contract with the government. And agree to surrender some of their freedoms to protect their natural rights.

In his book "The Social Contract" (1762), Jean-Jacques Rousseau proposed that society was formed when individuals came together to create a general will or a collective decision about what is best for the community. According to Rousseau, individuals must surrender their will to the general will, which is determined by the community as a whole, to achieve the greater good.

The social contract theory is a political theory that suggests that individuals and governments have an implicit agreement or contract in which individuals give up some of their rights to the government in exchange for protection and security (Britannica, (2023). The social contract theory examines the relationship between the government and its citizens in the context of the occurrences that may affect the government or the citizens in future. It is natural to form some agreement to follow certain basic rules and treat each other with respect. This behaviour is shrouded in what we refer to as a form of a social contract to base our lives in general and our moral judgments (Chemhuru, 2017).

Insurgency is often rooted in grievances related to political, economic, or social inequalities, and insurgents may feel that the government has failed to uphold its end of the social contract by not addressing these issues. However, resorting to violence and other illegal means to redress these grievances undermines the legitimacy of the social contract and can ultimately lead to the breakdown of civil society. Furthermore, insurgency often involves attacks on civilians in violating the social contract. The state is solely responsible for protecting its citizens, and when insurgents target civilians, they are undermining this responsibility and betraying the trust that citizens place in their government (Ajil, 2020).

The paper discusses the need for a multi-pronged approach to address the root causes of insurgency in Nigeria, which include poverty, unemployment, and political instability. By analyzing the social contract between the government and its citizens, the paper argues that the Nigerian government has failed to fulfil its end of the contract by not providing adequate protection and security to its citizens. As a result, citizens feel they are not obligated to uphold their end of the contract, such as taking arms against government, paying taxes or supporting government policies.

The paper suggests that a multi-pronged approach should involve civil society organizations, such as NGOs and religious groups, providing education, vocational training, and other social services to vulnerable populations. Additionally, the theory of social contract stands to elucidate the role of civil society in addressing the insurgency in Nigeria. By involving civil society in the provision of social services, the Nigerian government could be seen as upholding its end of the social contract and ensuring that its citizens receive the protection and security they deserve.

Analyzing Governance and National Security

Nigeria's journey toward socio-economic development has been marked by difficulties and turbulence caused by lost chances, the agony of civil war, terrorism, insurgency, and the failure of grand undertakings by visionless and gluttonous leaders. The above predicament that has befallen the country over the years informed the basis of the conceptual analysis of governance and national security in Nigeria. The elites that assumed control of the country shortly after independence did so rashly and brutally by plundering national wealth and unceasingly destabilizing the social lives of the citizens.

The concept of governance is intricate and multifaceted, making it challenging to arrive at an accurate description. Most academic institutions consider governance in the context of courses of study like development studies, international relations, economics, strategic planning, political science, public administration, and sociology, among others. However, the World Bank (1998) defined governance as using one's authority to manage a nation's resources to advance its development and offer its citizens a viable means of subsistence. Also, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP, 1997) considered governance as the capacity to manage a state's affairs by exercising political, economic, and administrative authority.

Bevir (2013:1) considered governance "the art of effective management over social coordination and activities, as well as the difficulties that occur in assuring the growth and development of a country and the well-being of its citizens." He further explained that it entails "all governing processes, whether a government carries them out, a market, or a network; whether they are based on rules, customs, authority, or language; or whether they are applied to a family, a tribe, a company, or a territory." Therefore, governance is a larger term than government since it establishes norms and order in social activities, the State, and its institutions.

Having a cursory view of Bevir's submission clearly explains that governance is dynamic and all-encompassing because it involves the actions of both formal and informal actors, security, and civil society. To help the citizenry, including the private sector, provide social amenities, jobs, and interventional assistance for the masses to make a living a possibility, the government must use all of its apparatus within the bounds of the Constitution to provide enabling environments such as legal, political, security, and sometimes even financial resources.

Nevertheless, he emphasized that there have been major changes in the State and society's interaction. As a result of this evolution, new forms of governance have emerged, placing political players under greater social pressure from organized and motivated groups.

However, as an operational definition, this paper defines governance as a reciprocal interaction between the rulers and the rules that foster understanding, respect for rule law, evolving transparency to remove mistrust among the various groups and institutions, and unassailable development within the context of the resources available.

In modern time, the extent to which globalization impact governance is of greater dimension. As it increased the interdependency of states, it also caused a growing share of government functions with subnational actors like businesses, the media, and volunteer organizations, as well as other international actors like nongovernmental organizations and Intergovernmental Organisations, among others.

While the activities and contributions of other non-state actors to governance remain important, they mostly deal with specialized issues in the areas of climate change, humanitarian crises, natural disasters, and pollution (Ryfman, 2007). For instance, the Human Rights Watch (HRW) over the years has been playing a typical role of the non-state actor by raising alarms whenever there is a deficit in governments' human rights records, including arbitrary detention, social exclusion of minority groups, war crimes, as well as failure to provide democratic dividends. After years of protests against the harsh policies of the Chinese government that deny its citizens basic human rights and undermine democratic principles and the rule of law, there is now a bit of review and policy modification.

Also, international financial institutions have intensified efforts in aiding the growth and development of the countries' economy through an open financial system for the benefit of its citizens. They likewise employed their professional skills as financial institutions, managing and advising governments on budgeting and economic stabilization policies. Governments can, however, ignore the values represented by these global financial organizations at their own risk. That legitimacy to decide perhaps explains why the World Bank in Bevir (2011) defined governance as the exercise of authority in administering a nation's economic and social resources for development.

At this juncture, there is the need to note that the State has a fundamental and preeminent role in fostering an environment of good relations with non-state actors in a bid to complement the services of each other. Guimares (1996), for instance, emphasized that the emergence and involvement of new actors outside of government in governance do not diminish or eliminate the function of the State. Contrarily, it has been acknowledged that despite the ideological dominance of the past, states continue to have important regulatory and articulation responsibilities across the different productive community and social sectors, particularly in education, public safety, and the environment.

Since global advocacy is essentially shifting towards accepting democratic norms and the division of labour, the peasants and commoners are no longer excluded from the government as they take part in choosing their representatives. Understanding the distinctions between good and bad governance and recognizing which of them involves social deprivation that leads to social violence will enable a state and other agencies to successfully carry out their duties in administering a country's affairs.

National Security

The idea of security has expanded beyond physical security to include human security since the end of the Cold War, and it is undergoing various stages of development and evolution. The concept of security has transformed from being state-centric to being more inclusive of personal safety.

While the term "human security" is more inclusive than "national security" as it encompasses not only the security concerns of the State but also all social, economic, and political issues that ensure a life free from fear and risk, which also ensures the rule of law. On the other hand, national security is somewhat restrictive because it mainly deals with defence territory and physical properties of the citizens. Today's strategic approach to security considers the need to foster sustainable human development without undermining efforts to advance local, regional, and international peace.

They serve the consequences of downplaying the importance of human security. In further discussion of security, the Secretary General of the United Nations has called for a "conceptual breakthrough" that extends "beyond armed territorial security" to encompass "the security of people in their homes, jobs, and communities." In the S.G. No. 1A/60/1 Report of 2005, it was stated that:

> Comprehensive and systematic national strategies are still lacking to address the unique issues facing youth

and vulnerable populations, such as indigenous peoples, the elderly, people with disabilities, and internally displaced people. It is important to ensure those policy initiatives consider these vulnerable groups' needs and concerns to accomplish the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) of reducing poverty and hunger.

According to Imobighe (2011), security ensures independence from risk or threat to a nation's capacity to defend and protect itself, promotes its cherished values and legitimate interests, and improves the welfare of its citizens. Measures protecting people, property, and resources against dangers, risk, or danger are considered part of national security (Adebayo, 2011). National security and development are interdependent, and poor management or unsolved issues in one area will appear in another.

In a similar vein, the interaction between human security and good governance will support people-centred policies that offer social amenities to counter the population's vulnerabilities to terrorism and insurgency as a protest against the State's failure to fulfil its. One major issue contributing to a country's slow socioeconomic development is the limited, "regime-driven" idea of security.

The government of Nigeria has been overrun by religious intolerance, racial chauvinism, and a corruptly politicized military hierarchy. The ongoing terrorism, insurgencies, and criminality in Nigeria result from the nation's long-standing inability to demonstrate qualities or carry out the functions of government that benefit all its residents. The governing class's performance and promises fall far short of one another. The root causes of terrorism in Nigeria include economic deprivation, marginalization, annoyance, and desperation felt by sizable portions of the country's people (by-products of poorly crafting and executed policies).

The majority of the youth in Nigeria's Niger Delta region have made the region a place where crime is tolerated due to the region's extreme poverty, brought about by a lack of employment opportunities, deprivation, poor governance, and absence of the rule of law. Nothing could be more heinous than the 12 police officers murdered by insurgents in 1999, which prompted the army to invade Odi town in Bayelsa State. The bombing of Eagle Square before the 2010 Nigerian Independence Day celebration in Abuja was another example of criminal activity. These are signs of poor security measures put in place.

The northern region of Nigeria has no better concerns. Despite producing more than 80% of all Nigerian leaders since the country's independence, this region paradoxically parades the bulk of illiterates in the nation. These large numbers of illiterate individuals are like a stockpile of explosives waiting to explode. The bulk of the recruits of Boko Haram insurgents were from this group of illiterates.

A good administration should prioritized human security to reduce the problems associated with security in the country. The priority of place, respect for the rule of law, provision of social amenities, and security to ensure an enabling climate for business for domestic and foreign companies alike would have benefited Nigerian education. Nigeria's administration has manifestly failed to enforce understanding and coercion among the various ethnic and religious groups in the nation, which has caused it to face terrorism on several occasions since its independence.

Challenges Confronting Counter-insurgency Operations in Nigeria

Ramin (2011) explained that effective conflict management techniques could prevent escalation and significantly reduce the negative effects of conflict on those involved. Such will contribute to establishing a peaceful environment that fosters the improvement and health of intergroup and interpersonal relationships, economic growth, peaceful coexistence, and the advancement of a country. Therefore, the goals of conflict management in a disruptive scenario are to stop it from escalating to the level of violence and devastation. In this regard, the adopted method must be concise and suited to containing the situation to obtain a meaningful and justifiable outcome in the interference. Some of the challenges

Confronting Counterinsurgency are discussed below.

Cruel Military Operations

Insurgencies in Nigeria have been handled by succeeding governments using military power to crush the rebels while forcing them to submit without addressing the root causes of the problem. In the meantime, it is pertinent to remember that a peaceful resolution of a conflict necessitates the identification of the conflict's root causes to appropriately address the issue and give it the attention it needs for a lasting and sustainable resolution.

Although the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria saddled the Nigerian Police Force (NPF) with safeguarding the internal peace and security of the country, they have frequently been unable to handle the intensity of an upswing in insurgencies, and that necessitated the involvement of the military in internal security issues. As a result of military operations in civilian-infected areas, there has been a contentious debate on the excessive use of force in quenching uprisings. The Maitasine Riot of the 1980s is usually brought to mind as the military brutally overpowered the uprising through quick and timely response. That operation today continues to attract the condemnation of certain sections of the population.

Also, the military has been employed by the government to put an end to insurgencies like the Kaduna sectarian riot of 2000; the September 2001 Jos riot; the October 2001 riot in Benue, Taraba and Nasarawa states; the 2002/2003 Tarok farmers versus Fulani herders riots in Jos; the 2004 Telwa Christians/ethnic Tarok versus ethnic Muslim Hausas in Central Plateau state, among others (Omede 2012).

It goes further to the imposition of a military siege on the Niger Delta communities of Odi, Gbaramatu, Umuechen, Ogoniland, Choba, Odioma, and Ikon (Ekumaoko, 2013) to pressure the populace into ending the agitation they had started in response to the government's apparent insensitivity to their plight despite their significant economic contributions to the development of the nation. According to the Punch Newspaper on November 7, 2012, the Niger Delta region has "suffered from neglect, crumbling social infrastructure and services, a high rate of employment, social deprivation, abject poverty, filth and squalor, and endemic conflict."

As noted by Ekumaoko (2013), the military operation in the Niger Delta is characterized by harassment, human rights violations, rape, torture, arrests, detentions, and destruction of lives and property by government security personnel. The conditions in Odi and Ogoniland were the worst. As of 1998, a kangaroo military court was established in Ogoniland by the General Sani Abacha regime to summarily try and brutally hang nine civilians, among whom was the human rights activist Ken Saro-Wiwa (Emiri, 2003). Also, the military operation during the Presidency of Obasanjo did not fare well as they mercilessly marauded, slaughtered thousands of people, and razed Odi village in retaliation for the killing of deployed police officers to the area to restore orderliness (Adebanwi, 2004). All this cannot end insurgency but instead adds to the problem. The military should always be cautious, friendly and minimizes the use of force.

Amnesty Program

The Yar'dua administration in Nigeria introduced the disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) program as part of the amnesty program in 2009 after realizing that the military strategy to resolve the country's insurgency problem had failed. During Yar'dua's administration, and even before the conclusion of the amnesty program, the military had invaded the Gbaramatu Kingdom and killed in numbers (Ogundiya, 2011). All of these imply that, in seeking to exercise their constitutional rights to express their discontent regarding the government's insensitivity to their plights, the people of the Niger Delta suffered these types of assaults, criminality, and violence from government security forces (Ekumaoko, 2013). In itsel, this acts amount to injustice.

Through the DDR, the Niger Delta People's Volunteer Force (NDPVF); the Niger Delta Vigilante (NDV), and other militant groups were persuaded to lay down their weapons by the Yar'dua administration through the Amnesty Programme as their activities led to violence and instability which altered oil production and exports from the Niger Delta region. President Yar'dua informed the country in a broadcast in 2009 that:

> The offer of Amnesty is based on the readiness and willingness of the militants to surrender all illegal arms under their control and completely renounce militancy in all its ramifications. The militants were expected to depose to this undertaking unconditionally. The federal government also fervently hoped that all militants in the Niger Delta would key into this Amnesty and come out to join the quest for the transformation of our dear nation (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2009).

The Amnesty announcement on June 25, 2009, allowed ex-militants to turn up their weapons and ammunition in exchange for a presidential pardon. It also encompassed automatic release and forgiveness from any prosecution. Along with financial rewards, the program offered educational incentives to militants who gave up their guns. The area that had been under siege by government soldiers and terrorists felt relieved after the presidential pardon, warmly received by many people locally and worldwide (Imongan & Ikelegbe 2016).

However, the program's failure to adopt a meaningful and long-lasting reintegration viewpoint was a major flaw. Additionally, it was absent from the region's enduring socioeconomic issues, which needed to be addressed. Road conditions remained poor, the atmosphere was extremely filthy, gas flare-ups continued unabated, and there was no way to monitor corruption in the program's execution, almost causing the program to fail. Retired Brigadier General Peter Boroh, the former presidential adviser on the Amnesty Program, is currently being investigated for culpable corruption. It is important that the root causes of conflicts should be paramount when considering the resolution of the conflict. Human security that engenders good benefits to individuals and the community would be achieved.

Corruption

The fight against terrorism and insurgency also faces other difficulties, including corruption, which has caused the military to perform below expectations. The National Security Advisor (NSA), Air Marshal Baden, and the previous Chief of Defence Staff (CDS) were detained and accused of stealing funds meant to purchase weapons and other military hardwears. Any military entangled in such egregious high-level corruption is highly unlikely to be able to fight formidable terrorist organizations like the Boko Haram insurgency and the militants in the Niger Delta succesfully.

Given the initial analysis, it was decided to implement the amnesty programme because using the military to end insurgencies, particularly in the Niger Delta and against Boko Haram, had failed. Due largely to corruption, Amnesty has thus far been unable to offer the required remedy; hence, the multifaceted strategy proposed in this study. That will undoubtedly serve as a roadmap and a venue for articulating viable methods for combating future insurgencies and acts of militancy in Nigeria.

Additionally, the police have been accused corruption on their jobs. Alemika (2010) noted that the brutality, extortion, and, in some cases, extrajudicial killings perpetrated by security agencies, particularly the Nigeria Police Force (NPF), to obtain information from or force information from innocent citizens under dubious circumstances has become alarming and can hardly produce the desired results in the fight against insurgency. For example, Mohammed (2014) argued that the group Boko Haram turned violent when its leader was persecuted and killed in 2009. They not only targeted their perceived opponents but indiscriminately attacked security officials and politicians associated with the ruling All Nigeria Peoples Party (ANPP) government in Borno State and resorted to bombing high profile targets in Abuja such as the Nigeria Police Headquarters as well as U.N. offices, in June and August 2011 respectively. As the military crackdown intensified, they became desperate and more militant, thereby resorting to more desperate measures, which they had despised in the past, such as the burning of school buildings, attacking telecommunications base stations, killing and kidnapping of foreigners, slaughtering as opposed to the shooting of opponents, and killing of health officials at routine vaccination clinics, as well as the random shooting of pupils and teachers at schools. These are all acts of corruption which should not be allowed to continue.

Background to Insurgency in Nigeria

Chief Obafemi Awolowo, speaking in May 1970 after the civil war, aptly described the horrifying and disastrous insurgencies and terrorism that the Nigerian nation is currently facing. He noted that:

> Yes, indeed. We have won the civil war. However, to win the war for peace, we must recognize the real enemies... Otherwise, all our efforts would be misdirected and dissipated... Nigeria's aggressors against peace and stability are abject poverty, hunger, diseases, squalor, and ignorance. They are more devastating in their ravages, insidious, thorough, and resistant in their operations than any armed rebellion (Awolowo, 1970).

The current terrorism and insurgencies in Nigeria are a result of the Nigerian State's persistent failure to demonstrate qualities or accomplish the goals for governance that benefit the entirety of its populace. In Nigeria, there is a significant discrepancy between promises and actions taken by the ruling class. The root reasons for terrorism in modern Nigeria are the economic hardship, marginalization, dissatisfaction, and despair that the majority of Nigerians feel (as a result of poor governance).

Understanding the State's substance as embodied in the Constitution is necessary to define good governance and evaluate whether it is bad. The Federal Republic of Nigeria's 1999 constitution stipulates in Section 14(1) that the nation "shall be a state based on the principles of democracy and social justice." That is further strengthened in sections 16(1) a, b, c and d, that the State shall, "within the context of the ideals and objectives for which provisions are made in this constitution, harness the resources of the nation and promote national prosperity and an efficient, dynamic, and self-reliant economy; control the national economy in such a manner as to secure the maximum welfare, freedom, and happiness of every citizen based on social justice and equality of status and opportunity without prejudice to its right to operate or participate in areas of the economy, other than the major sectors of the economy" (Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999) Constitution).

Section 16(2) states that:

> The State shall direct its policy towards the promotion of a planned and balanced economic development; that the material resources of the nation are harnessed and distributed as best as possible to serve the common good; that the economic system is not operated in such a manner as to permit the concentration of wealth or the means of production and exchange in the hands of few individuals or a group; and that suitable and adequate shelter, suitable and adequate food, reasonable national minimum living wage. Old age care and pensions, unemployment, sick benefits and welfare of the disabled are provided for all citizens (Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999) Constitution).

Unfortunately, successive governments and personnel have actively disregarded the Federal Republic of Nigeria's Constitution in both action and practice. Since Nigeria's independence, the elites who have controlled it have failed to implement the procedures and systems for distributing values without endangering the notions of equality, justice, and fairness as they are outlined by good governance. Eboh (2003) suggested that the government and elites should not exclude any population segment from participating in community life, even to a modest extent, to eliminate conflicts with the idea of the common good.

When elites steal from the commonwealth with impunity, situations like the one in Nigeria are bound to emerge. The whole budget designated for constructing businesses, educational institutions, medical facilities, and other social infrastructure that can occupy the time and attention of the bulk of the populace, particularly the youth, has been taken from them. Unemployment's social, psychological, and economic effects cause youth to feel frustrated, dejected, rejected, and despairing. Consequently, they are liable to be brainwashed, indoctrinated with false beliefs, and enlisted into unlawful groups. They then turn to violence with a plan to overthrow the government. Therefore, Nigeria's current rise in terrorism results from the country's ongoing inability to provide effective good governance.

We cannot help but recall the flawed amalgamation of Nigeria by the Lord Lugard administration in 1914, which created the groundwork for the country's sputtering federalism in the discourse around the political crisis in Nigeria and, by extension, the multiple insurgencies experienced in the past. Lord Lugard merged the southern and northern parts of Nigeria without giving appropriate consideration to consultation or representation of the diverse Nigerian peoples. Lugard violated the people's right to self-determination by doing it.

According to Choudhry (2005), the spirit of self-determination encompasses more than just a political community's ability to wield its authority within an already-existing, comprehensible legal system. Instead, rights should cover even the most basic issues of institutional architecture, down to the physical structure within which a community exercises its right to self-government. The adage that "the right to self-government is the right of rights" is quintessential of Nigeria’s circumstance.

Since independence, this imposed constitutionalism has pursued the State and posed ongoing threats to post-colonial Nigeria because the union of the two protectorates is still challenged by a significant and intractable conflict between the imposition of constitutional order and the aspirations of the populace for autonomous regions. What a nation is and how the national question develops are two important concerns that need to be answered. By breaking down these inquiries, we can pinpoint the national question's manifestation and source in Nigeria, which continues to be the root of that country's political instability.

The nation of Nigeria is still struggling with this problem today. People from all ethnic groups desire partial independence. The Constitution of Nigeria allowed for this autonomy before the military coup of 1966. Still, once the military took power, it established a unitary government, which has resulted in minority oppression ever since. The central government's whims and fancies determined the budgetary allotment.

The norm has been for various forms of manipulation to enrich government officials at the expense of the larger populace. Relegated to the background were social amenities and education. Religion and government have been grouped, and ethnicity and nepotism have taken centre stage. Unrest, like the militancy in the Niger Delta over concerns of carelessness and resource depletion, is inevitable in this context. While the Nigerian Constitution should be restored to its pre-military era and allow for the people's self-determination, the government should assume its duties.

The Non-Kinetic Approaches for Stemming Insurgency in Nigeria

Insurgency is a complex problem that requires a multifaceted approach to address. Non-kinetic approaches involve non-violent means to address the root causes of the insurgency rather than relying solely on military force. Non-kinetic approaches are critical in stemming insurgency in Nigeria. Education, economic development, community engagement, political reform, and dialogue and reconciliation are all essential tools in addressing the complex insurgency problem. In Nigeria, several non-kinetic approaches can be used to stem insurgency, and some of them are:

Education: Education is a critical tool in addressing the root causes of insurgency. It gives individuals the skills and knowledge they need to become self-sufficient and contribute positively to society. Education can also help to combat extremist ideology by promoting critical thinking and exposing individuals to diverse perspectives.

Economic development: Economic development is another critical tool in addressing the root causes of insurgency. Poverty and unemployment are often cited as significant drivers of insurgency, and addressing these issues through job creation and economic opportunities can help reduce extremist groups' appeal.

Community engagement: Engaging with local communities is essential in addressing insurgency. It is significant to understand the concerns and grievances of these communities and involve them in the decision-making process. This approach can help to build trust and foster a sense of responsibility and ownership among community members.

Political reform: Addressing political grievances is critical in addressing insurgency. This method involves promoting transparency, accountability, and good governance. It also means addressing issues such as corruption, which can undermine the government's legitimacy and provide fertile ground for extremist groups to take root.

Dialogue and reconciliation: Dialogue and reconciliation are essential in resolving conflicts and addressing the root causes of insurgency. This way involves bringing together different groups, engaging them in constructive dialogue and finding common ground. It also means addressing issues such as human rights abuses and providing avenues for redress.

Revitalization of key Institutions in the Country: The revitalization of key institutions in Nigeria can play a crucial role in stemming the insurgency in the country. Key institutions like the Niger Delta Development Authority and the Lake Chad Basin Authority should be revitalized. It will require sustained efforts by the government and other stakeholders, as well as a commitment to addressing the root causes of the insurgency. Here are some ways this can be achieved:

a. Strengthening the security institutions: Nigeria needs to improve its security institutions by providing them with modern equipment and technology. Security agencies need to be well-trained and motivated to combat the insurgency effectively.

b. Improving governance and accountability: The Nigerian government needs to address the issues of corruption, nepotism, and poor governance that have contributed to the insurgency. The government should prioritize transparency and accountability, ensure that public funds are properly managed, and fight against impunity.

c. Investing in education and job creation: High levels of unemployment and poverty are major drivers of the insurgency. Nigeria must invest in education and job creation to provide opportunities for its youth. It can help reduce the appeal of joining extremist groups as a livelihood.

d. Promoting interfaith and interethnic dialogue: Nigeria is a diverse country with many different ethnic and religious groups. Promoting dialogue and understanding between these groups can help to reduce tensions and prevent violence.

e. Strengthening regional cooperation: The insurgency in Nigeria is not limited to the country alone but also affects neighbouring countries. Strengthening regional cooperation and coordination can help address the insurgency's root causes and prevent it from spreading across borders.

Community Policing: Community policing is a proactive method of law enforcement that involves building positive relationships between police officers and the community they serve. This approach can be effective in thwarting the plans of insurgents in several ways:

a. **Increased intelligence gathering:** By building trust and positive relationships with the community, police officers can gain valuable intelligence about potential threats from individuals or groups who may be planning insurgent activities. This information can be used to prevent attacks before they occur.

b. **Improved situational awareness:** Community policing can help police officers understand the dynamics of the community they serve, including social, economic, and political factors that may contribute to instability. With this knowledge, police officers can be better prepared to identify and respond to potential threats.

c. **Strengthened partnerships**: Community policing involves working closely with community leaders and organizations to address local issues and concerns. By building strong partnerships, police officers can gain support and cooperation from the community in preventing insurgent activities.

d. **Enhanced communication:** Effective communication is essential for preventing insurgent activities. Community policing can help build trust and understanding between police officers and community members, leading to more effective communication and collaboration.

Seeing the positive side of community policing, Nigerian lawmakers should stop toying with the idea of state police which, in no small dimension, this paper opines will assist in thwarting the plans of insurgents by nipping their plans in the bud.

Improved Cooperation with Neighbouring Countries: Cooperation with neighbouring countries can play an important role in stemming the insurgency in Nigeria, particularly in areas where the insurgency is fueled by cross-border movements and support from militant groups in neighbouring countries. One of the ways cooperation can help is by sharing intelligence and information about the activities of militant groups. This idea can enable security forces in Nigeria and neighbouring countries to coordinate their efforts and effectively target the militants. Additionally, joint military operations and patrols can be conducted along the borders to prevent militants from crossing into Nigeria or other neighbouring countries. Another important aspect of cooperation is addressing the root causes of the insurgency. Addressing the root causes involves working together to address issues such as poverty, unemployment, and social exclusion that can contribute to recruiting and radicalising individuals into militant groups. By improving economic and social conditions in border communities, cooperation can help to reduce the appeal of militancy and create a more stable and secure environment. Overall, cooperation with neighbouring countries is an important component of any strategy to address the insurgency in Nigeria. By working together to address the root causes and disrupt the activities of militant groups, the countries in the region can create a more secure and stable environment for their citizens.

Borders Policing and Patrol: The Sahel has been the scene of documented transgressions by several terrorist organizations. Within its 4,500 kilometres of borders with Niger and Chad, Nigeria has roughly 480 irregular border crossing locations (Olomojobi, 2013). Terrorists have dominated and benefited from the open borders that Europeans unilaterally erected in 1884-5, disregarding the implications of ethnic and cultural norms. This arbitrary delineation without considering racial and cultural differences is currently a nightmare for the continent in many ways. Border policing and patrol can play a significant role in stemming insurgency by disrupting supply chains, disrupting communication networks, gathering intelligence, controlling the flow of people, and providing a visible security presence. Border policing and patrol can help stem insurgency in several ways:

a. **Preventing the flow of weapons and supplies:** Border policing and patrol can help prevent insurgents from obtaining weapons, ammunition, and other supplies from neighbouring countries. By monitoring and intercepting illegal shipments, border patrols can limit the resources available to insurgents, making it more difficult for them to sustain their operations.

b. **Disrupting communication networks**: Insurgents rely on communication networks to coordinate their activities and plan their attacks. By monitoring the borders and disrupting these networks, border patrols can limit the insurgents' ability to coordinate and carry out attacks.

c. **Gathering intelligence:** Border patrols can also gather intelligence on insurgent activities, including their movements, supply routes, and tactics. This information can be used to anticipate and disrupt insurgent attacks and identify and target key leaders and operatives.

d. **Controlling the flow of people:** Insurgents often rely on sympathetic populations to provide them with support and cover. Border patrols can limit the insurgents' ability to recruit new members and maintain their support base by controlling the flow of people across the border.

e. **Providing a visible security presence:** The presence of border patrols can serve as a deterrent to potential insurgents and other criminals and smugglers. It can help to reduce the overall level of violence and instability in border regions.

National/Cultural Values Reorientation:

Disorientation and societal disorder have tragically resulted from the breakdown of national consciousness, patriotic orientation, and leaders' displays of uncivilized behaviour (Onipe, 2011). This development has revealed the excessive intolerance present in the nation, and immediate action is required to restore the fundamental principles that would rekindle patriotism among the populace. Nigerian citizens would have a new perspective on perceiving their nation by revitalizing the basic principles.

According to Emeh (2012), eighty per cent (80%) of the youth believed that Nigeria's aim of becoming a cohesive, stable, and united country would remain a mirage if the government did not take sufficient measures to secure the citizens' positive social development. According to Agbo et al., (2010), achieving basic national values necessitates an attitudinal transformation in the public and private spheres. Beliefs in negative attitudes must alter to embrace good attitudes and achieve real and unadulterated national integration. Restoring cultural values can help address some of the underlying causes of insurgency by providing a sense of identity, community, conflict resolution, trust, and empowerment. However, it is important to note that cultural values can also be a source of conflict and division, and their restoration must be approached with sensitivity and awareness of a community's diverse perspectives and needs. The restoration of cultural values can potentially have a positive impact on insurgency in a few ways:

a. **Identity and belonging**: Insurgencies often arise when a group feels marginalized or excluded from the larger society. By restoring cultural values and traditions, communities can provide a sense of identity and belong to their members, which can reduce feelings of alienation and the desire to rebel.

b. **Conflict resolution:** Cultural values often provide a framework for conflict resolution, emphasizing negotiation, mediation, and reconciliation. By restoring these values, communities can help resolve disputes peacefully, reducing the likelihood of violence and insurgency.

c. **Trust and cooperation**: Cultural values that emphasize trust, cooperation, and mutual support can foster a sense of community and reduce the likelihood of violence and insurgency. By restoring these values, communities can build stronger social ties and reduce the appeal of violent rebellion.

d. **Empowerment and agency**: When cultural values are suppressed or undermined, individuals may feel powerless and disempowered. By restoring these values, communities can help individuals feel a sense of agency and empowerment, reducing the desire to engage in violent rebellion as a means of asserting their rights and values.

Reforming Nigeria's Justice System: Because it undermines the right to a fair trial, judicial corruption poses a challenge to the independence and impartiality of the system (the court). It stifles civil liberties and rights, endangers the State's rule of law, and hinders economic growth. It would hinder the advancement of democracy and distract foreign investment interests by preventing suspects from receiving a fair trial. A corrupt judiciary completely threatens the rule of law and the fair, effective, and a consistent administration of justice.

The adage, "justice delayed," they say, "is justice denied" applies to corruption in the Nigerian court system and the delay of justice. Several people in custody have passed away without receiving a fair trial. Trials turn the accused into hardened criminals once released from custody rather than reforming them. Many young people who have experienced an unusual circumstance in custody even demand to return back there, especially when there is nothing to keep them occupied. This mentality supports terrorism and crime.

Reforming the Nigerian justice system can help address some of the underlying factors contributing to the insurgency in Nigeria by ensuring accountability, protecting human rights, addressing corruption, enhancing access to justice, and building trust in government. Here are some ways in which it can help:

1. **Ensuring accountability:** A major driver of insurgency in Nigeria is the lack of accountability for human rights violations and other crimes committed by security forces and government officials. By reforming the justice system to ensure that perpetrators are held accountable for their actions, the government can demonstrate its commitment to the rule of law and reduce grievances that fuel the insurgency.

2. **Protecting human rights**: Insurgencies often arise when individuals and communities feel their basic rights are being violated or ignored. By reforming the justice system to prioritize the protection of human rights, the government can help address some of the underlying causes of insurgency.

3. **Addressing corruption:** Corruption is a major challenge in Nigeria and has been identified as a driver of insurgency. By reforming the justice system to ensure that corrupt officials are held accountable and that anti-corruption efforts are effective, the government can help reduce the conditions that contribute to the insurgency.

4. **Enhancing access to justice**: Many communities in Nigeria lack access to justice, particularly those in remote or conflict-affected areas. The government can help address grievances and reduce the likelihood of violence and insurgency by reforming the justice system to improve access to justice for all Nigerians.

5. Building trust in government: Insurgencies often arise when individuals and communities lack trust in their government and institutions. By reforming the justice system to ensure fairness, transparency, and impartiality, the government can help build trust in its institutions and reduce the appeal of violent rebellion.

Conclusion

This paper offered suggestions for how to stop the insurgency in Nigeria. The demographics, current patterns, and underlying reasons for Nigeria's security difficulties are not encouraging. The assessments show that Nigeria's biggest security issue right now is terrorism. The brutality and arrogance of terrorist strikes have continued to harm Nigeria's security agencies' reputation. Notably, on November 13, 2013, the U.S. government designated Boko Haram as a foreign terrorist organization, which says much about the group's atrocities.

In contrast, the Boko Haram insurgency was attributed to the willful neglect of development in the North, particularly in education and social amenities. The paper observed the escalation and continuation of the Niger Delta militancy due to the government and multinational oil corporations in the country. Attacks on oil infrastructure, pipeline destruction, and oil theft have all been committed by Niger Delta militant groups. The IMB study on piracy and attacks on ships states that piracy and sea robbery have escalated, with Nigeria coming in second place after Indonesia in 2013. In addition to being a policy concern, terrorism is a complex issue that calls for an all-encompassing strategy to be addressed.

Recommendations: In view of the above analysis, this paper recommends that a multi-pronged non-kinetic approach should involve civil society organizations, such as NGOs and religious groups, providing education, vocational training, and other social services to vulnerable populations. Respect for the rule of law, provision of social amenities, and security to ensure an enabling climate for business for domestic and foreign companies alike should be an allotted priority. The military should always be cautious and friendly and minimize the use of force during operations. The root causes of conflicts must be found to enable the right resolution. The paper also suggested that government should be inclusive without a living segment of the population. The Nigerian Constitution should be restored to its pre-military era to allow for people's self-determination. And finally, Nigerian lawmakers should stop toying with the idea of state police which, in no small dimension, could assist in thwarting insurgents' plans by nipping them in the bud. The government should as a matter of priority revive some key institutions in the country.

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AFRICAN CONTINENTAL FREE TRADE AGREEMENT AND PROSPECTS FOR ENERGY SECURITY IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Nigeria is confronted with perennial energy crisis, with about eighty million Nigerians, representing 43% of her population lacking access to electricity. Reforms aimed at addressing the energy problem have remained unsuccessful. Previous studies have not considered that supranational and continental cooperation could influence national policy framework on energy governance, competition and infrastructural development, in sustainably resolving Nigeria's energy needs the study examines how the African Continental Free Trade regime can impact on energy security in Nigeria.. The study relied on classical liberalism theory while the doctrinal methodology was adopted. Both primary and secondary data were utilized. Primary data included International treaties and national laws while secondary data like legal texts and journal articles were also utilized. The evolving trend on regionalism as demonstrated by emergence of the AfCFTA has great potentials for cross sectoral development in Africa, with implication for promoting energy security in Nigeria. This is achievable through mutual commitment by state parties to harmonized market liberalization, economic cooperation and competitiveness as articulated in extant regional treaties with prospects for effective energy governance, institutional collaborations, enhanced access to an African energy market, investment in energy Infrastructure, funding incentives, technology transfer, energy efficiency, diversification of energy sources and ultimately, the attainment of energy security in Nigeria. Barring all constraints like insecurity and other continental dynamics, the study concludes that the AfCFTA framework can change the energy trajectory in Nigeria. The study recommends inter alia, Political commitment to regional treaties, provision of an efferent regional dispute resolution mechanism and safe environment for energy investments in Nigeria.

Key words: African Continental, Free Trade, Agreement, Energy security, Nigeria

Introduction

Regional economic integration has fast become a dominant feature under contemporary international political economy, with the increased convergence of national economies into regional blocs. Erstwhile emphasis placed on absolutism in terms of state sovereignty is being de-emphasized, at least from an economic perspective, as nations are coming together to form economic alliances on mutually beneficial terms. The European Union single market, North American free trade agreement (NAFTA) and the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), stand out as viable models of regional free trade agreements in recent times.[55].

The African continent is not an exception to this emerging global trend with the establishment of the African Continental free trade agreement (AfCFTA)[56]. AfCFTA, by its mandate, is intended

[55] These economic trade blocs have led to the emergence of Regional trade agreements (RTAs) covering subjects like common customs, trade integration, free trade agreements and movement of goods and services across borders

[56] Adopted in March 21, 2018 and entered into force in May 30, 2019; The AfCFTA is an economic pactandconglomerate of all 55 member states of the African Union, with the main objective of

to expand intra-African trade and economic cooperation through an articulated and harmonized process for trade liberalization, expected to enhance competitiveness, with the objective of achieving optimum exploitation of trade opportunities and economies of scale in production, continental market access and better allocation of resources[57]. It has potentials for integrating both global and regional value chain, promoting trade, facilitating higher investment, changing low productivity and reducing poverty within the region[58].

Energy security[59] is critical to modern economic and developmental activities. Therefore, the core motivating factor critical for actualizing the lofty objectives of the AfCFTA is the establishment of a sustainable system for energy governance as precursor to realizing energy security and rapid development in the continent. African continent plays host to the lowest energy access in the world with negative impact on the regional economy. Within the region, about 600 million[60] people lack access to electricity and over 890 million people cooking with traditional fuels. In Nigeria, about 85 million people, representing over 43% of her population cannot access the national grid. This qualifies Nigeria as a country with the largest energy deficit in the world[61]. According to a report by the World Bank, the absence of reliable power is a significant constraint for citizens and businesses, resulting to an annual economic losses estimated at $26.2 billion (₦10.1 trillion), equivalent to about 2 percent of the country's GDP. Nigeria ranks 171 out of 190 countries in the ease of doing business globally, with limited access to electricity constituting a major constraint for the private sector. The World Bank estimates that over one hundred billion dollars is needed to fix the electricity problem in Nigeria within ten years[62]. Reforms aimed at addressing the energy challenge in Nigeria have not solved the problem. Attributable to poor policy framework, dysfunctional institutions and infrastructural deficit, the energy problem is the bane of economic development in Nigeria. Against the backdrop of poor energy governance in Nigeria, the study is aimed at identifying how continental cooperation could influence national policy framework on energy governance in sustainably resolving Nigeria's energy needs.

The role of Regional blocs in promoting energy security has arguably, become very significant. The EU for instance has enunciated policy initiatives that determine energy supply within a liberalized EU energy market[63]. The EU treaty sets out the main objectives of the European community energy policy in the spirit of solidarity between member states to ensure the functioning of the energy market, ensuring security of energy supply within the union; promoting energy efficiency, encouraging development of renewable forms of energy and promoting the interconnection of energy markets.

Drawing inspiration from the EU, AfCFTA can serve as a platform for promoting energy security within the African continent. This can be achieved through a legal and economic framework on regional cooperation that promotes policy harmonization and institutional collaboration between regional and national bodies, aimed at promoting long term investments in energy trade and infrastructure with prospects for achieving energy security in contracting states like Nigeria. The foregoing forms the major objective of the study. The Classical liberalism theory is a spectrum of approaches to the questions of social, economic and political freedom of an individual within the

creating a single continental market for goods and services, with free movement of persons and investments across regional borders

57 Projected to be the world largest single market with an estimated population of approximately 1.2 billion people, including a growing middle class, and a combined gross domestic product (GDP) of more than US$3.4 trillion, the AfCFTA has potentials to be the world's largest free trade area since the formation of the World Trade Organization (WTO)

58 The African Continental Free Trade Agreement: Welfare Gain Estimates from a General Equilibrium Model; International Monetary Fund Working Paper WP/19/124, 2019

59 The concept of energy security has been described as accessibility and availability of energy at affordable prices . The concept has been interpreted beyond mere availability of energy products to encompass policies aimed at securing consistent energy supply and diversification of energy sources with impact on energy supply under a liberalized and competitive market

60 African energy outlook report of November, 2019; see https://www.iea.org/reports/africa-energy-outlook-2019.last visited on June 1, 2022.

61 See World Bank Report. . According to a report lack of reliable power is a significant constraint for citizens and businesses, resulting to an annual economic losses estimated at $26.2 billion(₦10.1 trillion) equivalent to about2percent of GDP. The report further adds that Nigeria ranks 171 out of 190 countries in the ease of doing business globally, with limited access to electricity constituting a major constraint for the private sector.

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63 The Treaty of the European Union (TEU) contains provisions inserted from the EC Treaty in the areas of transport, telecommunication, and energy infrastructure, with an explicit provision on energy in Article 194 of the EU Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU).

state. The underlying philosophy behind the theory is free market economy which encompasses other international trade theories as well as regional integration theory, with emphasis on cross border free market economy, regulated by market forces, based upon mutual cooperation between nations on reciprocal basis.

Relying on the liberalism theory, the doctrinal methodology was adopted by the study. Primary and secondary data were utilized with emphasis placed on International treaties such as the African Continental Free Trade Agreement (AfCFTA) 2018, the Treaty on African Economic Community (AEC) 1994 and the Treaty establishing Economic Communities of West African States. National laws examined included the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999), Electricity Sector Reforms Act (ESRA) 2005 and the Petroleum Industry Act 2021. Journal articles and other scholarly works were also utilized in the study. The aim is to identify the synergy between regional and national laws in the drive towards energy governance within the framework of continental economic cooperation. The study is divided into five sections. Section two of the paper is on the evolution of regional cooperation and energy governance in Africa. Section three appraises the legal framework for energy governance under the African Continental Free Trade Agreement. Prospects of achieving energy security in Nigeria under the African free trade regime forms section four of the study while section five serves as the concluding part with key findings and recommendations.

Evolution of Regional Cooperation and Energy Governance in Africa

The history of regional economic integration in Africa is traced to the establishment of the South African Customs Union (SACU) in 1910[64]. Subsequently, the East African community (EAC) was established in 1919. Influenced by events surrounding the post-colonial era, and motivated by the desire to have a strong continental economic union inspired African leaders to adopt the Lagos plan of Action (LPA) in 1980. The idea of a continental economic framework, supported by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), led to the subsequent adoption of the Abuja treaty in 1991. The Abuja treaty provided a strong foundation for African integration with emphasis on African solidarity, self-reliance and an endogenous development strategy within a proposed framework for continental integration under the aegis of the African Economic Community (AEC)[65]. The AEC served as the umbrella for all the resident economic communities in the continent with a broader vision for a subsequent broad based continental framework. Eventually, this vision saw the light of day in March 2018, when the African Continental Free Trade Agreement (AfCFTA) was established[66]

African cooperation in energy trade and governance is coterminous with regional economic cooperation in the continent. Unarguably, energy cooperation is necessary to facilitate growth in domestic and foreign direct energy investment; competitiveness and access to a common but expanded African energy market; rapid and extensive improvement in energy efficiency, increased incentives for infrastructural development and deployment of new technologies and methods of production alongside rapid innovation towards achieving energy transition in the continent. These have implication for accelerated economic development.

Exhibited through bilateral and multilateral treaties, regional energy governance culminates into cross border energy partnerships, cross-border interconnections and associated electricity exchange. The earliest memory of this cooperation is traced to Algeria and Tunisia electricity linked networks power exchange in the early 1950s and the construction of power line in 1958 to link Nseke in Congo Belge (Democratic Republic of Congo) to Kitwe in Zambia to supply electricity to Zamibia's copper mine[67]. This was followed by a number of interconnections linked mostly to the development of major hydropower projects such as: the interconnection of Kenya and Uganda grids from Owen Falls hydropower

[64] https://studycorgi.com/the-history-of-integration-in-africa-in-the-xx-century/#:~:text=The%20Beginning%20of%20Integration,(Williams%20and%20Hackland%20246).

[65] ibid

[66]

[67]https://www.worldenergy.org/assets/downloads/PUB_Regiona_Energy_Integration_in_Africa_2005_WEC.pdfhttps://www.worldenergy.org/assets/downloads/PUB_Regiona_Energy_Integration_in_Africa_2005_WEC.pdfAngola Democratic Republic of Congo Lesotho Mozambique Namibia Swaziland SwazilTanzania Zambia Zimbabwe; last accessed on June 21, 2022

station[68], the interconnection of Zambia and Zimbabwe grids from Kariba South hydropower station, the interconnection of Ghana to Togo-Benin grid through the Communauté Electrique du Benin (CEB) from Akosombo hydropower station, the interconnection of Democratic Republic of Congo(DRC) from Inga hydropower station, and the interconnection of Côte d'Ivoire to Ghana for electricity supply from Akosombo hydropower station[69].

The Southern African Power Pool (SAPP) was created in August 1995 with the execution of an Inter-Governmental Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) by majority member countries of the Southern African Development Community (SADC)[70] The governance of the SAPP is based on agreements rather than the law[71]. The SAPP is governed by four agreements to wit: the Inter-Governmental Memorandum of Understanding (MOU), which enabled the establishment of SAPP; the Inter-Utility Memorandum of Understanding, which established SAPP's basic management and operating principles; the Agreement between operating members, which established the specific rules of operation and pricing; and the Operating Guidelines, which provide standards and operating guidelines.

Within the SAPP, regional electricity cross-border trading is governed by fixed cooperative bilateral agreements of a long-term duration. Since April 2001, World Energy Council Regional Energy Integration in Africa the Short-Term Energy Market (STEM) was introduced and is designed to work over and above the long-term bilateral contracts. The main features in the STEM for power sharing are that the available resources are shared equally to all qualified bidders of energy. The energy dispatch is bid-based, and will be replaced soon by a cost-based system.

In West Africa, regional cooperation in the energy sector began in the late 1960s following the construction of the Kainji Dam in Northern Nigeria. This era witnessed the establishment of a transmission line between Nigeria and Niger to ensure the supply of power in Niamey[72]. The first electricity interconnections were built between Togo and Ghana at about1972, between Ghana and Benin in 1973, allowing Ghana to export energy from the Akosombo Lake hydroelectric dam on the Volta River to its neighboring communities. This was followed in 1983 by the construction of interconnections between Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire, Côte d'Ivoire and Burkina Faso in 2000, and between Nigeria and Benin in 2003.

In the 1970s Senegal, Mali and Mauritania started developing joint infrastructure under the Senegal basin organization. Over the years, these countries developed a 1,700 km network to connect the Manantali dam in Mali to all three national grids. These early developments illustrate that Ghana, Nigeria and Côte d'Ivoire were in the fore front of energy production as early as the 1970s and 1980s, and the importance of bilateral and trilateral arrangements, including the willingness of certain subgroups of countries to cooperate beyond their narrow national interests.

Building on bilateral connections, the ECOWAS energy agenda and priorities were captured in the 1975 ECOWAS treaty. The ECOWAS Energy Policy 1982 and its 1993 revised version were subsequently introduced.. Over the years, these ambitions have been translated into three key pillars to wit: the creation of the West African Power Pool (WAPP) in 1999, regulated by the 2003 ECOWAS Energy Protocol; the development of the West African Gas Pipeline which was first conceived in 1982, but for which implementation started in 2003 and the creation of the Energy Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency (ECREEE) in 2010.

Legal Framework for Energy Governance under the African Free Trade Regime

Energy trade is at the core of international and regional commercial transactions because of the pivotal role it plays in modern economies. It permeates virtually every aspect of human endeavor and has become critical in the

[68] Ibid

[69] ibid

[70] The Southern African Development commission (SADC) was established under the Lusaka declaration with the primary objective to create a framework for cooperation. This Treaty was later amended in August 2001. The SADC trade agenda is set out in the Protocol on Trade, which was concluded in August 1996. The legal principles underlying SADC that are of relevance to this study are to be found in both the Treaty itself and the Protocol on Trade. The SADC Treaty provides, inter alia, that in order to achieve its objectives, SADC will 'harmonize political and socio-economic policies and plans of Member States. In addition to developing policies aimed at the progressive elimination of obstacles to the free movement of capital and labor, goods and services within the region.

[71] Ibid

[72] See: http://www.afd.fr/home/pays/afrique/geo-afr/ portail-niger/nosprojets/energie-3. Last accessed on June 21, 2022

determination of economic and social policies at the national and regional levels[73]. The transformative structure in energy governance has impacted on regulatory modules in the energy value chain ranging from exploration and production to generation, transmission, distribution and international transport to downstream energy markets. The internationalization of energy markets, with consequences on the regulatory framework has virtually changed the landscape of energy governance with some degree of harmonization between regional and national regulatory regimes[74]. It is in this context that energy governance and trade forms part of the legal framework of multilateral treaties at the continental plane and beyond.

The legal framework on energy governance and trade under the African Continental Free Trade Agreement is conceptually speaking, a harmonized blend of regional and national laws on energy governance trade and investment.. Therefore, our discourse on the legal framework on energy governance encompasses the legal and policy framework on energy trade as provided under the various instruments establishing the RECs, the respective trade protocols under the African continental free trade Agreement as well as the national laws on energy governance and investment in Nigeria. Concomitantly, relevant provisions on thematic areas such as trade liberalization, policy harmonization and economic cooperation between states as provided in the various regional economic instruments, with applicable relevance on energy governance also forms as scope of the study.

The AfCFTA is a key step towards achieving the vision of an African Economic Community (AEC), as set out in the Abuja Treaty, which predated the free trade regime. The AEC was established by Article 3 of the Treaty[75] At the sub regional plane, the treaty based provisions under the RECs provided for trade and investment, market liberalism, harmonization of policies economic cooperation and trade facilitation. These RECs have been adopted and form an integral part of the African Continental Free Trade Agreement[76]., Therefore, the RECs can rightly be described as building blocks for the implementation of the objectives and principles of the AfCFTA.

For instance, the Treaty establishing the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) provides for a harmonized trade liberalization strategy with national policies in order to promote Community activities, particularly in the fields of agriculture, industry, transport and communications, energy, natural resources, trade, money and finance, human resources, education, culture, science and technology[77], through adoption of a common trade policy. The ECOWAS Trade Liberalization Scheme Protocol and Rules is predicated on the consciousness of the over-riding need to encourage, foster and accelerate the economic and social development of States and people within the region based on market liberalism[78]. Similarly, The Treaty of Southern Africa Development Corporation (SADC)[79], Treaty on Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)[80] Treaty of Marrakech establishing Arab Maghreb Union (AMU)[81] and Treaty establishing Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS)[82] also contain similar provisions on market liberalism that are compatible with the continental free trade agreement.

The energy agenda at the West African sub region, is reflected in the Energy Protocol 2003

[73] The role of oil in the industrial world was excellently captured by Daniel Yergin book, D. Yergin, The Prize, Free Press, New York 1991.

[74] Modified from the editorial of T. Wälde, 'Why OGEL – an Oil-Gas- Energy Law Intelligence Service?', 1 OGEL(2003)

[75] Article 3 of the Abuja Treaty provides the objectives of the African Economic Community thus;

To promote economic, social and cultural development and the integration of African economies in order to increase economic self-reliance and promote an endogenous and self-sustained development; establish, on a continental scale, a framework for the development, mobilization and utilization of the human and material resources of Africa in order to achieve self-reliant development; To promote cooperation in all fields of human endeavor in order to raise the standard of living of African peoples, and maintain and enhance economic stability, foster close and peaceful relations among Member States and contribute to the progress, development and the economic integration of the Continent; and To coordinate and harmonize policies among existing and future economic communities in order to foster the gradual establishment of the Community

[76] See the preamble and Article 5 of the AfCFTA

[77] Article 4(2) (e)

[78] Article 1 The ECOWAS Trade Liberalization Scheme Protocol and Rules 2004

[79] Article 5(2)(d)

[80] Articles 3, 4(5)(c-d)

[81] Article 2 and 3

[82] Article 4

which sought to promote long-term cooperation, increase complementarily and attract investments to promote regional energy trade in West Africa[83]. The agenda was further expanded with the establishment of the West African Gas Pipeline (WAGP) in 2005 and the ECOWAS Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency in 2010. The legal and policy framework on energy governance is also encapsulated at the respective legislations and laws of national governments like Nigeria.

The Constitution of Nigeria, for instance, provides that the Nigerian State shall harness the resources of the nation and promote national prosperity and an efficient, dynamic and self-reliant economy; control the national economy in such manner as to secure the maximum welfare, freedom and happiness of every citizen on the basis of social justice and equality of status and opportunity; without prejudice to its right to operate or participate in areas of the economy, other than the major sectors of the economy, manage and operate the major sectors of the economy[84]. Conceptually, an efficient and self-reliant economy is one that is prosperous with defined objectives and commitment towards maximizing wealth creation for the generality of the citizenry is the foundation upon which the interpretation of this constitutional provision should be predicated. Unarguably, this provision is consistent with the classical theory of liberalism and free market economy which has become the torchlight for global economic transactions, and based on the notions of social justice and equality.

The Electric Sector Reforms Act[85] is the current legislation governing reforms of the Nigeria's electricity supply industry. The legislation has introduced market liberalization[86] in the Nigerian electricity sector that has influenced the subsequent unbundling of the sector in 2013. The Petroleum Industry Act (PIA) is an act of the national Assembly that provides legal governance, regulatory and fiscal framework for the Nigerian Petroleum industry. The objectives of the Act include the creation of an efficient and effective governing institution with clear and separate roles for the petroleum industry; establishment of a framework for the creation of a commercially oriented and profit driven national petroleum company; promoting transparency, good governance and accountability in the administration of the petroleum resources in Nigeria and foster a business environment conducive for a liberalized petroleum operations[87].Additionally, there is an extensive policy framework intended to liberalize the Nigerian energy sector and ensure competitive market with a view to ensuring market efficiency and proper allocation of resources. Many of these policies place emphasis on renewable energy. The policies include the Nigerian Energy policy 2001, Renewable Energy Policy 2006, National Energy Master plan (NEMP) 2014, National Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Policy (NREEEP) 20015, etc.

The framework for trade facilitation under the African Free Trade Agreement, acting in concert with the continental energy agenda as reflected in the respective regional and national legal and policy instruments highlighted above is indicative of a harmonized process of national and continental framework on energy governance and investments. The collaborative enforcement of this legal framework on energy related investments at the continental and national planes guarantees the enunciation of a clear energy agenda capable of redefining the energy trajectory within stakeholders under the Africa free trade regime and contracting states like Nigeria.

Prospects for Energy security in Nigeria under the African free Trade Regime

The role of regional organizations in the promotion of energy governance is significantly gaining grounds across the globe. The EU community serves as a model in providing a sustainable and viable policy framework towards providing energy security within the region. Founded on the imperatives of energy security, the EU has consistently and vigorously pursued an energy policy which has liberalized her internal market and ensured an appreciable measure of energy security within the European Union.

[83] Article 2 of the protocol

[84] Section 16 CFRN (1999) as amended.

[85] Cap E. 10, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria(LFN) 2004

[86] See Preamble to the Act.

[87] Section 2 of the Act

With a Projected population of over 1.3 billion people[88], the AfCFTA, can foster intra-African energy trade, drive efficiency and competitiveness, improve regional value chain and attract foreign direct investment (FDI) in the sector.. The expected economic growth would create job opportunities and positively impact on poverty reduction, provide a strong momentum for economic cooperation, industrial development through diversification and regional value chain that would promote energy security in the continent.

Nigeria has a population of over two hundred million people and a rich energy profile that has impacted very little in navigating the country out from energy poverty. The post liberalization era of energy governance has not yielded the desired outcome. The petroleum and electricity subsectors in the Nigerian energy industry are beleaguered with challenges that seem insurmountable. For instance, notwithstanding the liberalization of the sector through the Petroleum Industry Act 2021, the availability of petroleum products for Nigerians at affordable prices remains a mirage. The subsidy regime is a mere sham and conduit for the corrupt elites within the Nigerian political and business class. The implication is that billions of naira that should have been invested in infrastructural development of the Nigerian state is wasted under the subsidy sham. Statistics indicate that over the years, budgeted sums for petrol subsidies amount to trillions of naira, a situation that is not healthy for a fragile and developing economy. The federal government spent a total of N8.94 trillion on oil subsidy between 2006 and 2015. A breakdown of sum indicated that in 2006 a total of N257.36 billion was paid in 2007, N271.51 billion while in 2008 N630.57 billion was paid to marketers In 2009, petroleum marketers were paid N409.31 billion and N667.08 billion in 2010 respectively as subsidy claims. In the year 2011, federal government paid a total of N2, 105.92 trillion naira, in 2012, N1.35 trillion was paid, N1, 316.63 trillion in 2013, N1,217.35 trillion in 2014 and N653.51 billion in 2015 was paid as subsidy claims. In 2022, the sum of 3 Trillion Naira has been spent on fuel subsidies[89].

The Nigerian electricity sector has been partially liberalized with the generation and distribution companies privatized while the transmission sector is under government monopoly. Available data as at January, 2022 shows that only 4224.9 MW of electricity is available. With a grid generation installed capacity standing at 13,014.14MW, actual generation capacity was about 7,652.5MW while transmission wheeling capacity is hovers around 8,100MW[90]. The implication of this data is that the transmission and distribution chain of power production in Nigeria is filled with bottlenecks and constraints that impede the supply chain of electricity.

The Nigerian energy industry is marred by three factors to wit; poor policy, dysfunctional institutions and infrastructural deficit. Considering the inadequacies in the Nigerian energy governance structure, there is need for regional intervention and cooperation that can could influence national policy framework on energy governance, competition and infrastructural development, in sustainably resolving Nigeria's energy needs. The African free Trade Regime can be leveraged upon as a platform to ensure the realization of energy security in Nigeria. This can be achieved in sundry ways to wit; first, the AfCFTA provides a framework for regional cooperation over the supply of energy sources between Nigeria and other nations within the continent. The continental market opens opportunities for energy production, transportation and supply across Africa. This could lead to the creation of the single largest energy market in the world, constituted by over 1.3 billion people[91]. To maximally harness the potentials within the African energy market would lead to the creation of synergy between regional and national governments on one hand as well as the creation of conducive environment for private investors who will make maximum use of the abundant energy resources within the continent for robust investment and trade. The liberalization principle as provided in the free trade agreement will facilitate in the removal of cross border hurdles that would have otherwise constituted constraints on energy investment in the African common market[92].

[88] The African Continental Free Trade Agreement: Welfare Gain Estimates from a General Equilibrium Model; International Monetary Fund Working Paper WP/19/124, 2019

[89] Premium times January 27, 2022

[90] Guardian Newspaper of January 23 2022

[91] See note 35

[92] https://www.energyforgrowth.org/memo/five-ways-the-african-continental-free-trade-agreement-can-de-risk-; the-continents-power-sector/last assessed on the 10th of March 2023.

Secondly, AfCFTA has established institutions at the continental level that will monitor, support improve and synergies with national laws and regulations for the provision of energy services. The African secretariat has a critical role to play in this respect. Working in conjunction with other established organs within the AfCFTA, it would ensure that spotlight is placed on strengthening the structural and institutional platforms that would impact on national energy infrastructure[93]. At this juncture the role of other initiatives at the sub regional level becomes expedient in building the required platform for the free trade regime to consolidate upon. Examples of such institutions include those in the SADC countries and the ECOWAS energy blocs to establish an effective regulatory framework on the energy sector The third way the AfCFTA can facilitate energy security in Nigeria is through the advancement of regional power pools towards a continent wide energy market. Regional power pools involve cooperative partnerships between private and public sectors in the regions of south, west central East Africa and North Africa. These Regional power pools can foster cooperation among African countries in the development of energy infrastructures and markets.

Leveraging on these initiatives means the feasibility of establishing a continental energy market under the framework provided by the AfCFTA, based on a regional partnership and an effective regulatory framework. This regulatory framework has the expected outcome of encouraging the emergence of huge energy investments with prospects this could sustain connection with small scale generation to distribution networks nationally and sub regionally. With appropriate investment strategies, this may also encourage incentives for access to small scale energy networks, investment in renewable generation, provision of investment subsidies on infrastructures, tax incentives or credit for renewable power technologies and other energy related technologies at a continental scale. The expected support from institutions like the African Development Bank (ADB) in partnership with other relevant financial organizations would immensely assist in the expected regional energy cooperation.

The accruable benefits from such continental economic cooperation[94] are enormous and include; enhanced access to a regional energy market; competitiveness; increased investment in energy infrastructure; establishment of a robust private sector; provision of funding incentives; capacity building and technology transfer; optimum exploitation of resources and economies of scale in energy production; diversification of energy resources and energy efficiency. The projected viability of the market has the potentials for improving conditions for integrating both global and regional value chain and allowing consumers in Nigeria have access to cheaper and imported products from other parts of the continent, with the ultimate objective of realizing energy security in Nigeria.

Conclusion

The crux of this paper is on the role of the African free trade agreement in promoting energy security in Nigeria. Against the backdrop of policy failure, infrastructural deficit and dysfunctional institutions, energy poverty remains the bane of economic development in the Nigerian state. Having taken a historic excursion of the evolution of regional energy governance in Africa, the role of supranational bodies in promoting energy governance, vis-à-vis the legal framework on energy governance under the AfCFTA framework, the study advocates the role of regional intervention in complementing national laws and policies as a means of sustainably resolving the policy, infrastructural and institutional challenges associated with energy governance in Nigeria.

The emergence of the African Continental Free Trade Agreement presents a supranational entity with potentials to influence energy governance by providing opportunities for energy cooperation and partnership between states and private sectors with the effect of creating a robust energy trade and investment market within Africa through economic cooperation, policy harmonization, and institutional collaboration between regional and national governments. The benefits of such cooperation are enormous as highlighted in the study. Barring constraints such as the absence of political commitment to regional agreements by contracting states, absence of infrastructure, insecurity, absence of private sector participation, lack of technical capacity, absence of an effective dispute resolution mechanism and other continental dynamics, the African

[93] Ibid

[94] Ibid

continental free trade regime has potentials for changing the energy trajectory in the continent and Nigeria.

Findings

1. The study found that the Nigerian energy sector is preceded by sundry policy reforms which have largely been unsuccessful in resolving the energy problem. Evolving trends on regionalism as demonstrated by the emergence of AfCFTA has shown that regional cooperation has become instrumental for promoting energy governance and investment globally, with implication for promoting energy security. The European Union community (EU) and the North Atlantic Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) are model regional organizations with robust energy policies that have significantly impacted on the energy needs of member states. The African free trade regime, by its mandate of expanding intra-African trade can facilitate energy trade and governance through an articulated regional policy on liberalism and cooperation with national government on energy investments. The prospects of influencing and positively impacting on national energy policy with a view to facilitating the realization of energy security in Nigeria is a key driver, and can be actualized through mutual commitment to institutional collaborations, policy harmonization market liberalization.
2. The benefits of such an economic cooperation are enormous and include; enhanced access to a regional energy market; competitiveness; increased investment in energy infrastructure; establishment of a robust private sector; provision of funding incentives; capacity building and technology transfer; optimum exploitation of resources and economies of scale in production; diversification of energy resources and energy efficiency. The viability of the market has the potentials for improving conditions for integrating both global and regional value chain and allowing consumers in Nigeria have access to cheaper and imported products from other parts of the continent, with the ultimate objective of realizing energy security in Nigeria.
3. The effective coordination and implementation of a regional synergy is predicated on many factors as determinants. These factors include existence of political will to respect international treaties by Nigeria; security an effective dispute resolution mechanism; harmonization of local laws, regulations and policies in alignment with regional provisions; security; private sector participation and existence of conducive environment for investment.
4. There are legal, policy, economic and institutional constraints to achieving energy security in Nigeria under the AfCFTA such as; dysfunctional institutions at the national; poor policy framework; lack of infrastructure; absence of efficient dispute resolution mechanism; weak private sector; lack of investment incentives and absence of competition in the energy sector.

Recommendations

1. One of the challenges to regional cooperation in Africa is the lack of commitment by member states to their treaty obligations. Therefore, for the regional economic cooperation to work in the Nigerian context, the latter must show commitment to her treaty obligations as contained in AfCFTA, based on the principle *of pact sunct servanda.* The principle which states that agreements should be respected has become a norm under international law that can boost political commitment to treaties as well as incentivize economic investments.
2. Against the backdrop of failed policies in sustainably resolving the energy problem in Nigeria, the Nigerian state should harmonize her legal and policy framework in tandem with the provisions of the African Free Trade Agreement. The energy imperatives in Nigeria under the African Free Trade regime are predicated on a harmonized process of trade liberalization that allows for market competition in a continental market. This is anchored on a regional free market economy that is aimed at removing tariff and non-tariff barriers within an expanded African market.
3. The study recommends the introduction of infrastructural subsidy in Nigeria which allows for some form of incentives for the building of energy infrastructures like private refineries in the petroleum sub sector. This scheme can also be extended to the provision of subsidies to investors engaged in the generation, transmission and distribution chain of electricity supply.

Other incentives like credit schemes and technical support can be availed to private investors either from the national governments or under the framework of joint funding from regional bodies.

4. Diversification of energy sources in Nigeria has become very expedient. There is need to harness the huge opportunities in the renewable sector to meet the energy needs in Nigeria. This can be possible through enactment of a legislation to regulate renewable investment in Nigeria. Such legislation, which must work in concert with the renewable energy policy introduced by institutions like ECOWAS, which are aimed at the full liberalization of the renewable sector to allow the agenda or policy on energy diversification successful. The policy should facilitate the needed environment for private sector investment providing access to incentives that can make the procurement of required infrastructure possible additionally; the restrictions placed on the mini grid system should be removed. Finally there is need for review of the ESPRA in view of the current realities in the electricity sector.

5. The need for an efficient dispute mechanism to facilitate the resolution of energy disputes in Nigeria cannot be over emphasized. Against the backdrop of the limitations in the justice delivery system in Nigeria, this study recommends the application of alternative dispute mechanism like Arbitration, mediation or conciliation in the resolution of energy disputes. These methods are not only investor friendly; they facilitate the speedy resolution of disputes for investments like energy investments that are capital intensive. The establishment of regional dispute resolution mechanism to adjudicate on energy investment disputes would further motivate energy investments in Nigeria.

JAPA PHENOMENON: A MODERN-DAY SLAVERY IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Between 2000 and 2010, a significant rise in the number of Nigerians requesting refuge in Europe has been noted. Nigerian migrants often seek asylum abroad. Canada has recently attracted many Nigerian youths from both middle and lower economic class categories. This further reinforces the idea of Nigerian youths wanting to leave their country of birth, in other to find opportunities in developed nation, hence, the term, japa! This study therefore, seek to understand the causes of emigration, and some of the consequences thereof. The methodology employed in conducting this study largely relied on data that were generated from secondary sources. The adopted theoretical framework are the Social Penetration Theory and Political Economy Theory. the Social Penetration Theory describe the dynamics of relational closeness that may or may not have influenced specific youth's decision to emigrate, while the Political Economy Theory of migration and international migration theory are sometimes compared since they have similar characteristics. The findings of the study reveal that the phenomenon of japa is as a result of the dilapidating economy of Nigeria. However, in the process of seeking greener pastures, a lot of Nigerians fall prey of human trafficking. Some of them end up being modern slaves in their country of destination. The study concludes by emphasizing the crust of the paper: the consequences of emigration into unknown territories. It recommends that Government should create equal opportunity for the youth, especially the skilled ones in order to limit the rate of brain drain happening in the country.

Keywords: Japa, migration, Brain drain, Human trafficking, Nigeria, slavery

INTRODUCTION

The history of migration in Nigeria precedes the era of colonialism. As a result, Nigeria is one of the countries that contributed the human resources for the forced transatlantic slave trade that took place in the 15th century. In a similar vein, the emergence of major cities like Lagos, Ibadan, Kaduna, and Port Harcourt signalled the start of internal migration. This connection to the victim diaspora, internal migration from rural areas to these large cities, as well as intra-African migration from Nigeria to Ghana, Senegal, Cotonou, Cote D'Ivoire, Sudan, and other countries in the African continent set the pace for the micro international flow that included Nigerians in the global world of migration and emigration (de Haas, 2006). As a result, Nigerians are now a large component of the present global diaspora of the 21st century, living in places including Asia, the Middle East, Europe, and the United States of America.

However, in the context of global migration, Nigerians are implicated in both the "Victim Diaspora" (Cohen, 1997) and the trans-Atlantic slave trade (Alakija, 2016 & Adeniyi, 2008). This is because many Nigerians seek to migrate abroad, whether legally or illegally. Recent arguments have focused on voluntary enslavement. Many Nigerians, particularly women and children, have been exposed to the realm of trafficking and smuggling because of this desire. Due to some migrants' involvement in human trafficking, prostitution, and other unlawful and criminal acts, a phenomenon has led to the labelling of Nigerians as the "Criminal Diaspora" (Glickman, 2006 cited in Mercer, 2008).

In addition to violating immigration laws by forging passports and other travel documents, Nigerian migrants have also been connected to drug trafficking networks in Ghana and the Somali gang in London, as well as the unlawful transnational commercial activities known as the 419 scam (Mercer, 2008).

Of the nation's projected overall population of 200 million people from roughly 250 ethnic groups, 15 million Nigerians are thought to currently reside in various areas of the world (Alakija, 2016). Although this estimate varies depending on the viewpoints of different immigration countries, i.e., the receiving or destination countries, it may be due to an insufficient number of undocumented migrants, those who cross the Mediterranean Sea, and those who travel through various transit countries that act as irregular migration routes (IOM, 2017) in order to reach Europe and other destination countries. Between 2000 and 2010, a significant rise in the number of Nigerians requesting refuge in Europe has been noted (Alakija, 2016).

Current figures include a mix of Nigerians from different socioeconomic class structures, unlike the elites and colonial students of the 1940s through the 1970s. As a result, from the 1990s to the present, there has been a dramatic rise in the number of Nigerians who have migrated around the world.

In addition to Nigerian migrants seeking asylum abroad and the return of colonial students and their offspring, Canada has recently attracted many Nigerian youths from both middle and lower economic class categories. However, a recent report in the Punch newspapers notes that the majority of migrants to Canada are from the middle class, who can afford a reasonable standard of living in Nigeria. It is against this backdrop that the paper seeks to assess the emigration phenomenon, popularly known as japa. In order to do this, the paper will review other literatures and define the necessary concept as required. It will then observe the method of data collection, as well as the theoretical underpinning, after which the crust of the subject matter would be discussed. Thereafter, the paper would conclude and suggest tangible recommendations.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

- **The Concept of Japa**

The word "japa" is a Nigerian coined word for emigration or irregular migration. The term has been common especially among youths whom desire to go seek greener pastures beyond the shores of their fatherland. In this paper, the term would be used interchangeably with emigration.

As stated by Kenton (2018), emigration is the movement of individuals from one nation to another for residence. Individuals move abroad for a variety of reasons, such as bettering their quality of life or increasing their chances of finding job. The economies of the countries affected by emigration are impacted both favourably and unfavourably.... Kenton analyses the idea of emigration from an economic standpoint. This results from the fact that it entails enhancing people's quality of life and possibilities. One can reasonably agree with him while considering this definition. In a nation like Nigeria, the economy is mostly to blame for the high rate of emigration. Humans desire opportunity and a higher standard of living.

The number of migrants from developing and underdeveloped countries has been enormous. Indeed, one such country of emigration is Nigeria. There have been many reports and discussions of a significant emigration flow. Keeley (2017) maintains that migration is a global phenomenon that affects all nations differently and has both local and global implications. He further points out that "developed countries use immigrants to makeup shortfalls in their own workforces – especially in areas like Information technology, healthcare, catering and agriculture. Migrants fill for more than a third of low-skill jobs in the United States, a share that – as in many other OECD countries – has been rising since the mid-1990s" (Keeley, 2017:12).

Since migration tends to migrate individuals from poorer to richer countries, it is likely that it will continue to draw attention to the imbalance between the developed global North and its equivalents in the less developed or developing global South.

Many academics and decision-makers have criticized the terminology used to describe irregular migration (japa) over the years (Ikuteyijo, 2013). Among the many terms that have been used are illegal migration, undocumented migration, unauthorized migration, and clandestine migration. Ikuteyijo (2013) asserts that discussions regarding various political and ideological stances surrounding these descriptors have taken place. For two reasons, Koser (2005) questioned the classification of migrants as "illegal" when doing so. First off, although most irregular migrants are not criminals, the word "illegal" connotes criminality. This was supported by the UN Special Rapporteur on the Rights of Non-Citizens, who suggested that countries of destination refrain from criminalizing immigrants, even those with legal documentation. Secondly, according to Guild (2010) and Ikuteyijo (2013), labeling irregular migrants as illegal would be tantamount to denying their humanity and the rights to which they are entitled.

Three types of migrants can be classified as irregular migrants: those who enter and remain in the target country illegally (i.e., clandestinely); those who enter the country legally (for example, on the basis of a tourist or student visa); and those whose asylum claims have been denied but who have not left the country (i.e., those who arrive legally but overstay their visa or permit validity) (Ikuteyijo, 2013).

In nations in the Global North, where the twin forces of an aging population and a declining birth rate are at play, the recruitment of foreign labour contributes to migration of youths from developing nations (Akinyemi & Ikuteyijo, 2009). Additional pull factors that influence youth migration, particularly internationally, include the likelihood of obtaining a better education, boosting one's earning potential, and improving one's living circumstances by having access to better infrastructure and public amenities.

- **The Concept of Brain Drain**

The British Royal Society popularized the phrase "brain drain" to describe the emigration of technicians and scientists from the United Kingdom to Canada and the United States in the 1950s and 1960s (Gibson & McKenzie, 2011). The exodus of highly skilled persons is known as brain drain. These migrations are from underdeveloped to developed nations, but it is also common to observe brain drain inside national boundaries from rural to metropolitan areas (Fitzgerald, 2010).

The term "brain drain" refers to the movement of graduates from poor nations to developed nations, which is an international transfer of resources in the form of human capital (Panescu, 2004). Also, it is a circumstance where educated individuals leave one country for another in search of better salary and living conditions (Suciu et al., 2017). As young people and graduates from underdeveloped nations, particularly Nigerians, have given up on finding employment after graduation, they have developed a fixation with traveling abroad (Anetoh & Onwudinjo, 2020).

METHODOLOGY

The methodology adopted for the study includes qualitative data that was gathered from secondary sources, like journals, official websites, and literary works. It uses documentary and newspapers as its instrument of data collection. Every single piece of information gathered for this study is pertinent to it. Content analysis was carried out to review the huge amount of data acquired and evaluate the study's originality.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual discourse above demonstrates that, despite being an independent choice, migration involves relationship interactions. This paper adopts the Social Penetration Theory (SPT) and Political Economy Theory (PET).

- **Social Penetration Theory**

The social penetration theory was developed by psychology professors Irwin Altman and Dalmas Taylor in 1973, to describe the dynamics of relational closeness that may or may not have influenced specific youth's decision to emigrate. The decision to migrate legally or illegally is typically influenced by interpersonal relationships.

The importance of adopting the Social Penetration Theory to explain why relationships that have been formed among the youths must have arguably influenced the dissemination of information about migration among them is further underscored by Altman and Taylor (1973)'s recognition of how relational closeness can progress from superficial to intimate.

This is crucial to the study since the process of relationship growth and development leads to intimacy through self-disclosure, however the degree of this closeness varies depending on elements like rewards against benefits, costs versus vulnerability, contentment, stability, and security. We contend that social penetration theory can account for the connections and message-sharing among young people that may have fuelled their desire to leave their country and seek out better opportunities abroad. Using interpersonal communication, one may explain another's behaviour or predict another's behaviour based on psychological data, which comes from getting to know a person well (Altman & Taylor, 1973). As relationships progress, people disclose more of themselves, progressing from relatively shallow to more intimate disclosures.

Even while self-disclosure is a behavioural aspect of the self-penetration process, the theory goes on to say that it also encompasses any interpersonal behaviour—verbal, non-verbal, or environmental—that influences the growth of relationships. According to the social penetration theory, relationships evolve in a wedge-shaped pattern of disclosure, with high levels of intimacy leading to more disclosure than low levels. As a result, building intimacy and increasing understanding in relationships was facilitated by disclosure readiness. In a relationship, a wide range of subjects are covered since self-disclosure increases as the connection develops. According to the theory, self-disclosure between people is reciprocal and is founded on trust; a person will only accept the risk of giving their identity to a recipient if they believe that person to be trustworthy.

Given this reciprocity in social penetration theory and the supposition that the youths' desire may have been fuelled by their close relationships, migration discourse among Nigerian youths may have been amplified on the basis of rewards versus benefits they and their peers have attributed to moving abroad in order to make up for what Nigeria lacks, among other things, in terms of infrastructure, security, and employment. Similar to how such relational discourse may have overlooked the concerns of illegal immigration outlined above, such discourse may have underestimated the costs compared to vulnerability, satisfaction, stability, and security as proposed by the theory.

- **Political Economy Theory**

The political economy theory of migration covers a wider range of topics than the network theory since it explains how various factors interact to effect migration patterns and is therefore seen as a more comprehensive macro-theory. Political economics theory of migration and international migration theory are sometimes compared since they have similar characteristics (Brown & Bean, 2006). Three main types of international movement—at the micro, meso, and macro levels—are highlighted by the political economy theory of migration. The micro level focuses on the variables influencing individual migration decisions, examining how prospective migrants compare the various costs and benefits of migration (Boswell, 2002).

The meso level of explanation places migration patterns within a complicated web of inter-personal connections. Systems and networks are two ideas that are crucial for meso theories. The assumption that movement takes place within a migration system can be supported by looking at the connections between individuals made through economic, political, and cultural links in addition to migration flows. As a result, rather than a set of objective indicators, the conditions causing movement are seen as the dynamics of relations between two or more people (Brown & Bean, 2006).

The structural, objective conditions that function as push and pull forces for migration are highlighted at the macro level, which is the context in which migration takes place. The economic, political, and cultural contexts could all be used to explain this. Economic difficulties like unemployment, low pay, or a low per capita income in comparison to the country of destination are frequently pull factors in economic migration. Legislation governing immigration and the state of the job market in recipient nations would be pull factors. Involuntary displacement that may result from state repression, the worry of widespread criminal violence, or civil war are examples of macro level push forces (Boswell, 2002; Crisp, 1999; Taylor, 2000; Usher, 2005).

***JAPA* IN POSTCOLONIAL NIGERIA**

Nigerians have been leaving the country on a yearly basis to live in more developed nations; this tendency includes the country's celebrities and other intellectuals who are currently leaving the country (Ahrens et al., 2016). However, this phenomenon isn’t new, it has been happening for a long time. The greatest amount of labour movement from different parts of the country to the major administrative and urban economic centres occurred in Nigeria during the postcolonial migration era, which spanned the years from independence in 1960 to the early 2000s (Adepoju, 2010). In addition, there were more places to go for both domestic and foreign migration than there were in the precolonial and colonial periods.

From the years following independence, considerable quantities of internal movement—mostly from the rural to the urban—as well as emigration have been characteristics of migration in Nigeria (Meagher, 1997). For instance, Nigeria became a popular destination for immigrants from other West African nations during the oil boom years (1970s to early 1980s), and about 2% of the population was made up of immigrants (Shaw, 2007).

The primary indicator of immigration was the influx of unskilled laborers from nearby nations. According to the literature, very few Nigerians would have likely chosen to emigrate in the 1970s and 1980s because domestic employment conditions were desirable and competitive on a global scale (Black et al., 2004). The oil boom's euphoria, however, did discontinue, and in 1983, Nigeria's government deported numerous foreigners under the pretext of "national security." According to Afolayan (1988), one of the justifications offered by the Nigerian government was that most foreigners, particularly Ghanaians, were involved in illegal activities including street begging and prostitution.

Other significant post-war events that impacted the pattern of movement in Nigeria included the development of new states, the federal capital territory of Abuja, and, most significantly, the civil war, which raged for three years from 1967 to 1970. Ikuteyijo (2013) showed that another significant factor that determined migratory patterns in Nigeria was the unbalanced growth in the provision of more economic opportunities and infrastructure facilities in urban centres at the expense of the rural areas. Given that these consequences may still be seen today, this is likely one of the most significant aspects of Nigeria's postcolonial migration history.

Throughout the postcolonial era, youth migration also assumed a new dimension as young people looked for higher education possibilities outside of the nation. The mass exodus of Nigerian students may be explained by a combination of factors, including the nation's deteriorating educational standards (Jumare, 1997) and an increase in cases of people "japa-ing" to the Global North to escape the effects of structural adjustment austerity measures and the ensuing political unrest.

After the 1970s, the majority of young Nigerians who went overseas for further education did not come back. When compared to what was available during the colonial era, this was a stark contrast (Adegbola, 1990; Adepoju, 1991; Afolayan, 1998). In fact, according to Reynolds (2002), there were more Nigerian academics working in the United States than in their native country in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Many of them chose to work as cab drivers, factory workers, or in other unskilled or low-skilled jobs rather than pursuing careers in their fields.

Even so, the postcolonial era migration of Nigerian youth to other nations was not just restricted to the educated class but was instead "very diversified," as has been said (Blench, 2004).

BRAIN DRAIN AND THE NIGERIAN EXPERIENCE

As was already established in this study, the fact that some Nigerian people emigrate to more developed and organized countries is highly evident. Now, the essential inquiry is: Why do so many Nigerians leave their country? What is it about Nigeria that causes so many of its inhabitants to leave every day? There are various reasons why Nigerians leave home. The hunt for better opportunities outside the company is one of these reasons, along with poor leadership, insecurity, unemployment, a weak economy, and others. Throughout the last five years, Nigeria's economic status has deteriorated. Nigeria's economic slump is the first thing that comes to mind. Nigeria's economy is in really horrible shape, and a lot of people find it uncomfortable.

Nigeria's economy, which was once one of the most promising in the world, has struggled under Buhari with sluggish growth, including a 15-month recession. The impacts on ordinary Nigerians' lives have been profound: the unemployment rate has more than doubled, and Nigeria now has more people living in abject poverty than any other country in the world. The president's ambitious ambitions to wean Nigeria off of its reliance on oil have not yet been successful. Furthermore, growing instability in significant areas of the country has dimmed prospects for an economy based on agriculture (Kazeem 2019).

Nigeria's dismal economic position has kept its people depressed, and some people struggle mightily to make ends meet. One may claim that Nigeria's terrible economic status is closely related to its weak administration.

The Economist published a troubling article about Nigeria's economic situation. The Punch (2019) says that the Economist in its study indicated based on the reasoning of the International Monetary Fund, the average income of Nigerians —will not rise for at least another six (years). The Nigerian economy is stalled like a stranded truck, according to a portion of the report. The IMF predicts that average salaries won't rise for at least another six years because they have been declining for the past four (years). According to the most recent data, the unemployment rate is at 23% after increasing for 15 straight quarters.

The rate of crime in Nigeria is rising along with the unemployment rate. This is due to the fact that such unemployed individuals may commit one crime or another in order to put food on their tables. The country is more insecure as a result of rising crime rates.

One is in a better position to pinpoint the causes of brain drain in Nigeria after having studied the economic climate in Nigeria. Many Nigerians are looking for a higher standard of living abroad due to the country's bad economic status and other related issues.

According to Umana (2018), there are a number of reasons why Nigerians are leaving for the developed world in large numbers. The majority of these variables are economic and political in character, but social and psychological elements also play a role in the country's exodus of human capital (brain drain). Every country needs a healthy economy, but Nigeria's is quite weak. As a result, there is very little industry taking place that may create jobs for the general public. Poor pay and working conditions are prevalent. Many workers' household incomes frequently fall below what is considered acceptable. As a result, a sizable section of the populace lives below the poverty line. Nigeria, which was among the 50 richest nations in the world at the beginning of the 1970s, has declined to rank among the 25 poorest nations as we enter the twenty-first century. In addition, after China and India, Nigeria has the third-highest number of poor people worldwide.

Moreover, Umana (2018) identified additional factors that contribute to brain drain, such as the following: mass unemployment, widespread poverty, inadequate national leadership pay and working conditions that are inadequate, crises, lack of progression opportunities, inadequate educational and medical resources, inadequate infrastructure, inadequate leisure offerings, and an inadequate system for rewarding labour force effort.

All of the aforementioned issues cause agony and sadness for Nigerians. Clearly, if the aforementioned issues are not adequately addressed, the Brain Drain problem in Nigeria may not be resolved.

JAPA **PHENOMENON LEADING TO HUMAN TRAFFICKING**

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO, 2003) and the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2011) human trafficking ranks third among the world's most lucrative criminal enterprises, behind only drug trafficking and the sale of illegal weapons. It has also been called the "modern" version of slavery since, like earlier versions, it involves the trade of people as commodities. According to estimates from the UN, 2.5 million individuals are subject to trafficking-related forced labour at any given time, including sexual exploitation (Goldin, Cameron, & Balarajan, 2011).

Despite the fact that human trafficking cases might range in size, they all share the following traits: victims are kidnapped or recruited in their country of origin, transported via transit zones, and then exploited in their country of destination (International Organization on Migration, 2007). Moreover, there are two categories of trafficking based on location and movement: internal trafficking and foreign trafficking. International trafficking involves moving victims outside national borders, whereas internal trafficking occurs within a nation's borders. But, in other instances, domestic trafficking may result in international trafficking, as in the case of young girls and kids who are enlisted from isolated rural areas and transported to urban centres before being sent outside of the nation.

Two things set human trafficking apart from human smuggling. First, whereas people smuggling always involves crossing borders, human trafficking can occur both inside and outside of national borders. Moreover, human smuggling is typically more voluntary, and the participants are frequently aware of the goal and potential legal repercussions of the movement, whereas human trafficking may contain certain aspects of coercion, fraud, or deception. Because to the fact that minors cannot offer consent, the topic of consent has been hotly contested. However, it is common for traffickers to solicit parental approval while making false promises, such as that the children will have access to education or vocational training as well as a better life at the final destination (Ikuteyijo, 2013).

The victims, the principal suppliers of human trafficking, the recipient countries, and even the global society all suffer greatly as a result of human trafficking. The practice of trafficking causes many victims to pass away too soon, and those who do survive face unclear futures because they are unable to pursue healthy mental and physical growth. Also, many children and teenagers who could have made great contributions to the progress and development of their nations were denied this chance. This has a negative indirect impact on the progress of the nations that are the main hubs for human trafficking.

A MODERN-DAY SLAVERY

In a study carried out by Ikuteyijo (2019), the findings revealed that smuggled individuals were free to act however they pleased during the journey. For example, people had to work a variety of menial tasks to exist, and they had access to the money they made. Every time some of them went to the market to make purchases, they had to conceal their identity (by donning veils or the hijab, for example). The men were forced to perform various menial tasks that, in Nigeria, their self-esteem would have prohibited them from performing. One of the interviewees who was questioned claimed that he had to work as a barber and then a shoe cobbler in the destination nation. These were some of the jobs, he insisted, that he would not perform in Nigeria.

Another migrant who had gone to Switzerland claimed that in order to survive, he worked as a drug courier and as a mortuary attendant. Most of the migrants who were deported and returned to their home countries travelled by land, and they all described arduous journeys through the desert.

A lot of people have been reported lost during their japa-ing into the country they perceived holds their greener pasture (Ikuteyijo, 2019). For instance, another respondent in Ikuteyijo's study reported that in the course of the journey they were moving from one place to another and ended up spending hours in the desert in the middle of the night. He reported that several fellow migrants were lost in the desert, while another person reported that some of the girls died at sea in the course of the trip.

However, the majority of young people keep voicing anxiety for the future and saw illegal migration as a means of escaping their lives of destitution and helplessness in Nigeria. Moreover, many people who were eager to migrate overseas had little knowledge of their destinations and frequently demonstrated ignorance of the formal laws, regulations, and processes governing migration. Many more were completely unaware of the employment opportunities, labour laws (such as those governing work permits and terms and conditions of employment), or rights of migrants in their respective countries of departure.

While the majority of Nigerians are willing to leave their country in pursuit of "greener pastures," many lack sufficient knowledge of the labour laws of their intended destinations and rely on speculative information about employment availability. The realities of irregular migration were frequently very different from what migrants had anticipated. To survive at their destination, the majority of migrants turned to 3Ds (dirty, degrading, and dangerous) work (Adepoju, 2003; Wolffers, Verghis, & Marin, 2003).

CONCLUSION

The study examined the phenomenon of emigration out of Nigeria, otherwise known as the term, japa. Some of them left Nigeria through irregular channels, while some of them got trafficked in the process of seeking greener pastures. From the literatures reviewed, a lot of people whom migrated out of Nigeria resorted to doing menial jobs such as taxi driving, laundry, shoe-making, etc just to make a living. This were jobs they wouldn't consider doing in Nigeria. In essence, the phenomenon of the term japa is synonymous to modern slavery, as most of the people don't find the experience as thrilling as they had imagined.

The study also explored how this phenomenon has caused a huge brain drain in Nigeria, as most of Nigerian literates and skilled human resources leaves the country en mass, seeking favourable conditions to work. This goes to explain that Nigeria hasn't been conducive enough for most of the skilled human resources. Most of these people eventually end up doing menial jobs in their country of destination – something far less than their expertise.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The subject of japa phenomenon is paramount, especially to the youths whom are clamouring to leave the country at all cost. Thus, the paper gives the following recommendations:

1. Government should create equal opportunity for the youth, especially the skilled ones in order to limit the rate of brain drain happening in the country.
2. While the idea of travelling abroad isn't bad in itself, it is important to acquire adequate information about the country of destination, in order for the migrants to be relevant while staying in the country.
3. Still, government has a huge role to play in fighting against human trafficking. The industry is booming, while putting the lives of other people at danger.
4. It is important to meet with returnees whom have lived in the countries of destination. Their experience would further reinforce or oppose the idea of emigrating.

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A PARADIGM SHIFT IN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND GENDER IN CAREER CHOICE AMONG SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN POTISKUM LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, YOBE STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The struggle to meet personal and family demands in the present economic situation in Nigeria has subjected adolescents to chaos as a significant number of youths have found themselves selecting educational paths that are not consistent with interest, value, and aptitude. Emotional intelligence and gender variables were considered among factors that determine entry into a career in tertiary institutions as well as value attached to a career in order to meet economic demands. Thus, the study examined a paradigm shift in emotional intelligence and gender in career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum local government area of Yobe State, Nigeria. Two objectives as well as two null hypotheses guided the paper. The study adopted a correlational research design and a sample of 346 SSII students was drawn from the population through multi-stage sampling technique. The instruments used to collect data were adopted one of which is Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ) adopted from Kolo (2006). The study revealed a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area and no significant gender difference in the mean score of career choice among students in Potiskum Local Government Area. Thus, the paper concluded that emotional intelligence has significant relationship with career choice while male and female students do not significantly differ in their choice of career. Based on the findings, it was recommended among others that guidance counsellors and other stakeholders in education should help students understand better their emotions as well as other peoples' emotions through engagement in intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships.

Keywords: Paradigm Shift, Emotional Intelligence, Gender and Career Choice.

Introduction

Emotional intelligence has been defined as capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, for managing emotion well in ourselves and in our relationship (Goleman, 1995; 2003; Adadu: Turbeli & Adeoye, 2007). Emotional intelligence to Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Igiri (2004) refers to a type of social intelligence that involves ability to identify and monitor one's own and other emotions, discriminate among them and use such information (Emotions) to guide one's thinking, actions and relationship with self and others.

To Akinboye (2002), emotional intelligence refers to one's ability to sense, understand and affectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human creativity, innovations, information, intuition, influence and a total of success in human relationship, work and business. Emotional intelligence competencies include good character, integrity, empathy, honesty, maturity impulse control, emotional self, awareness, human dignity, flexibility, reality, testing, trust, mood management, management of setbacks, pro-activity e.t.c. These competencies require skills in introducing feelings, paying attention to feelings, giving significance to feelings, thinking about feelings and taking into account in deciding how to act in life, at work and in the country at large.

The school involves individual that would be relating with one another at any point in time for psychological well-being. Human relation management as a domain of emotional intelligence involves relating with compassion and empathy. Well-developed social skills and adequate use of emotional awareness to direct feeling and behaviors of school members is fundamental for student academic performance. According to Adeoye and Torubeli (2011), the presence of empathy, social skills and perception are very crucial in any human relationship. It also influences communication, conflict management and using the most effective person senses others' reactions and fine-tunes their own responses to make the interactions in the best direction.

Various researchers established the importance of emotional intelligence to success in works, social adjustment and business. For instance, Baron (2002), Goleman (2003), and Akinboye (2003) have all identified that personal component of emotional intelligence such as: self- awareness, self-management, social management are necessary for success in the world of work. Further, Agbe, Gbenda, Ortese and Yusuf (2012) established the relationship between emotional intelligence and the career performance of police in Benue State. Buttressing on these findings, Sjoberg (2009) established significant relationship between emotional intelligence and life adjustment.

Although, the importance of emotional intelligence has been established, however, there are limited studies in academic performance. For instance, Ortese and Tor-Ayiin (2008) reported that emotional intelligence competencies such as emotion management, emotional sensitivity and social relationship skills have significant effects on marital adjustment of couples in Nigeria. Similarly Linville (2008) and Jaeger (2003) revealed that emotional intelligence and academic performance are strongly and positively related. These findings are realistic and factual because emotional intelligence competences have the potential to create warmth, smooth and spontaneous social interaction, business and work (Agbe, Gbenda, Ortese and Yusuf, 2012).

Another independent variable of the study is gender. The concept of gender needs to be understood clearly as a cross-cutting socio-cultural variable. It is an overarching variable in the sense that gender can also be applied to all other cross-cutting variables such as race, class, age ethnic group, etc. Gender systems are established in different socio- cultural contexts which determine what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman/man and girl/boy in these specific contexts. Gender role are learned through socialization processes; they are not fixed but are changeable. Gender systems are institutionalized through education systems, political and economic system, legislation, and culture and traditions. In utilizing a gender approach the focus is not on individual women and men but on the system which determines gender role/responsibilities, access to and control over resources, and decision making potentials. It is also important to emphasize that the concept of gender is not interchangeable with women. Gender refers to both women and men, and the relations between them.

Gender in its narrowest sense means socially constructed sex, be it female or male. It was in the 1970's that the American and English feminists started using the terms gender and gender relations. Hence the transition was made from "study of the difference between the sexes. To relations between the sexes both in sense of social relations and conceptual relations. According to Herr and Crammed (1996) the word gender was to develop at a remarkable pace in the early 1980's (Nairobi Confrence,1985) in English speaking and Latin American countries and also within all international organizations ; its usage would be facilitated by the holding of a succession of important conferences such as the Cairo Conference(1994) and the Beijing Conference (1995) during which the term definitively established itself .A number of reservation need to be made and it should be noted that ,all too often, the word is used simply as a synonym for woman, or the female sex. Such improper usage consists precisely of disgusting or erasing to some extent the word sex.

The current Nigerian system of education process follows the 9-3-4 system of education where the students spends nine years in primary school, three years in senior secondary school and a minimum of four years at the university. At the primary school level, a general curriculum is offered without subject selections. However at the secondary school level, a student may choose to pursue either science based subjects, commercial subjects or art based subjects. This is the first instance when a student is faced with the task of choosing a future career path and this choice are made through their performance in the West African Examination Council (WAEC) National Examination Council (NECO) and National Business and Technical Board (NABTEB). Thus, student's future career is predetermined by the choice of subjects done at secondary school level and the level of achievement at WAEC, NECO, NABTEB and other similar examinations.

Exploration of career choices should therefore be an important exercise for high school students. A thoughtfully constructed career choice process will provide a meaningful, productive, and satisfying career. A career choice process or outline might provide better answers than making life decisions based upon unexplored procedures (Hirsch, 2012). Career choice and selection is one of many important choices students will make in determining their future plans and this decision will impact them throughout their lives (Borchert, 2010).

It is observed that, a career aspiration which is shared with occupational choice is an important precursor for successful career development across the life span and is closely related to adolescence adjustment and well-being (Skorikov, 2010). Equally, the career aspirations of an adolescence have been viewed as significant determinants of both short term educational and long term career choice (Schoan & Parson,2012: Patton& Creed, 2010). Therefore, in the process development, some socialization outlets tend to influence the occupational choice of adolescence during their life span.

It is observed that several factors influenced career choices of secondary school students and identifying these factors would give parents, government, students, educators, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and industry an idea on where students place their trust in the career selection process. These factors include students' emotional intelligence and gender. And of course this is a follow up study from the study conducted by Abdulkadir (2021) on gender, personality and parental expectation as correlates of occupational choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum local government area, Yobe state, Nigeria. Thus, the studies highlighted above is an attempt to bridging the gap and to build on existing literature for future scholars. This paper was hinged on Daniel Golman's emotional intelligence theory. Golman developed a framework of five key components that make up emotional intelligence, plus a range of skills that can be developed and improved, so it's possible for anyone to become more emotionally intelligent. The paper further leverage on the aspect of self-awareness, as it is the ability to recognize and understand ones thoughts, feelings and emotions which can all affect your interactions with others.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to determine the:

1. Relationship between emotional intelligence and career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state; and
2. Gender difference in the mean score of career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state.

Null Hypotheses

Two null hypotheses were formulated for this study and were tested at 0.05 level of significant:

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state.

Ho_2: There is no gender difference in the mean score of career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state.

Methodology

Researcher Design

A correlational research design was adopted in this study. The population for the study consists of all the five public senior secondary school (SSII) students in Potiskum L.G.A with a total population of 4,124 students (Science and Technical Board & Teaching Service Board). The sample of the study was drawn from the population of the study using multi-stage sampling techniques. Firstly, purposive sampling technique was adopted by using public senior secondary schools. A purposive or judgment sampling is a technique used for the study based on the assumption that with good judgment, one can handpick element of cases in a population, which are satisfactory in relation to one's needs. The sample of 346 students comprising of both male and female students was selected with aid of Israel (2013) table for determining sample size to simplify and justify the work. Thereafter, the sample of 346 students was proportionately selected across the five schools. The proportionate sampling technique was used to select corresponding number from the various schools to ensure equal or proportional representation (Creswell in Abdulkadir et al. 2021). With proportionate sampling method, the researcher does not leave the representativeness of the sample entirely to chance.

More so, in selecting students to represent the sample in each school, the researchers used simple random sampling technique by writing 'YES' and 'NO' on folded piece of papers. All those students that picked 'YES' were selected to represent students' sample of the population. The sample size for the study is presented in table 1.

Table 1: Sample Size of the Study

S/N	School	Population	Sample Size
1.	Gov't Girls Sci. Tech. College Potiskum	901	76
2.	Fika Gov't Sec. Sch. Potiskum	885	74
3.	Gov't Day Sec. Sch. Potiskum	1,282	108
4.	Gov't Sec. Sch. Mamudo	480	40
5.	Gov't Sci. Tech. College	576	48
	Total	**4,124**	**346**

Source: Isreal (2013)

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used by the researcher to measure emotional intelligence and career choice of students. The instrument are Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ) adopted from Kolo (2006). The validity of Kolo's EIQ was obtained by its original owner while its reliability was measured through test re-test and a reliability coefficient of 0.78 was obtained. And Adopted version of Bakare's (1977) Motivation for Occupational Preference Scale (MOPS) to measure Students' Career choice. The validity of Bakare's was obtained by its original owner while its reliability was measured through internal consistency measure and a reliability coefficient of 0.88 was obtained.

The data collected was analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) statistics for $Ho_{1.}$ This is because, the tool helps to identify the pattern of relationship that exist between the two variables and measured the strength of the relationship between two variable while Ho_2 was analyzed using independent sample t-test analysis. This is because t-test is a tool that is used to measure difference in samples.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Hypotheses Testing

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state.

Table 2: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance of Senior Secondary School Students in Sokoto metropolis.

Variables	N	Mean	Std Deviation	r-Cal	p-value	Decision
Emotional Intelligence	346	66.48	18.523	.123	.004	Significant
Career Choice	346	2.70	1.916			

Table 2 reveals that the correlation coefficient 'r' between emotional intelligence and career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state was positive and significant, Pearson's r =.004; which was high; p>.05. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected. This implies that there is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state.

Ho$_2$: There is no significant gender difference in the mean score of career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state.

Table 3: t-test Analysis of Mean Score of Career Choice

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	t-crit	t-value	Decision
Male	209	55.22	1.564	344	.166	.169	Not Significant
Female	137	57.78	1.765				

The t-test analysis from Table 3 shows that df 344 with t-value obtained is .169, which is greater than P > 0.05 levels of significance, Hence the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant gender difference in the mean score of career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state was accepted. This means that male and female students do not differ significantly in their career choice. This indicates that there is no significant gender difference in the mean score of career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state because the p-value is greater than .05 level of significance.

Summary of Major Findings

In view of the hypotheses tested and interpreted the following summaries were generated;

1. There is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state.
2. No significant gender difference in the mean score of career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state.

Discussion of Findings

The finding indicated a there is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and career choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum Local Government Area of Yobe state. This is in agreement with similar studies. For instance, Ortese and Tor-Anyiin (2008) established emotional intelligence competences such as emotion management, emotional sensitivity and social relationship skills have significant effects on marital adjustment of couples in Nigeria. Sjoberg (2009) also established a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and life adjustment. Also Linville (2008) and Jaeger (2003) revealed that emotional intelligence and academic performance are strongly and positively related.

These findings are realistic and factual because emotional intelligence competencies according to Agbe, Gbenda, Ortese and Yusuf (2012) have the potential to create warmth, smooth and spontaneous social interaction, preempt conflict and tension in life, organizations, and social interactions, for this is that those who are emotionally intelligent can better excel in their academic performance. Thus, this is not farfetched from the argument of Akinboye (2003) that, to achieve success in work, life and social relationships, everyone must possess or develops his/her emotional intelligence skills and competences. It is in the light of this that one agrees with Adeoye and Torubeli (2011) who posited that most effective person senses others reactions and time-tunes their own responses to make the interaction in the best direction.

Hypothesis two found no significant difference between career choice and gender. The finding affirms the study by Abdulkadir (2022) who examined gender, personality and parental expectation as correlates of occupational choice among senior secondary school students in Potiskum L.G.A. Three research questions, objectives and research hypotheses guided the study. The study adopted a correlational research design and a sample of 346 SSII students was drawn from the population through multi-stage sampling technique with the aid of Isreal (2013) table for determining sample size. The results of the finding indicated no significant difference between occupational choice and gender.

The findings in this study also agree with the study of Stake in Buah (2016) who interviewed 54 male and 54 female students of two Midwestern Universities and one Nursing school the United State of America. The subjects were first of all matched in their occupational goals and through interview; the bases for their subject selection were explored. Results of Stake's study showed that females expressed expectation for greater intrinsic work enjoyment and fewer for financial responsibilities. Males clearly expected greater financial responsibility than did females. Stake explained the results of the study in terms of the subjects' anticipation of a breadwinner. Since most of the males in the study had earlier expressed their anticipation of a breadwinner role, the males' greater need for financial reward was probably influenced by an awareness of their future role. In their process of occupational selection, the males therefore might have been less focused on possibilities of intrinsic work enjoyment than were the females. According to Onwuka in Christopher (2011) the skill that teachers exhibit in teaching influences the students' enrolment in subject area selection. Christopher (2011) postulated that the method of approach is very vital in teaching/learning situation. The way the teacher presents the subject matter on the learner may stimulate a student to like or dislike a subject area. Nwogugwu in Yaro (2013) pointed out the need for blending theoretical and practical work in teaching of subjects so as to stimulate student's interest more especially on vocational and technical subjects.

Conclusion

From the finding of this study, the researchers concluded that emotional intelligence has significant relationship with career choice while male and female students do not significantly differ in their choice of career.

The paradigm shift for emotional intelligence here is that, emotional intelligence is related to career choice of student. Thus, the implication is that, students who understand the emotions of others and manage their own emotions make effective choice of career. For gender, against the common practice of recommending certain jobs to the female gender, the paradigm shift is that, gender should not be a barrier for either male or female students in their choice of career.

Recommendations

1. It is important for guidance counsellors and other stakeholders in education to help student to better understand their emotions and other peoples' emotions through intrapersonal and interpersonal relationship to improve student's career choice. Thus, students need to practice controlling their emotions by having them brainstorm on ways they might react in different situations and then allowing them to role play.
2. Since male and female students do not differ significantly in their occupational choice, therefore it is recommended that both male and female students should be encourage more by the school counsellor by providing them with adequate information on prospective jobs.

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PEACE BUILDING INITIATIVES AND INSECURITY IN NIGERIA: THE NORTH-CENTRAL EXPERIENCE

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Abstract

Nigeria's North-Central geo-political zone is rife with multi-dimensional conflicts that alienate residents from their traditional places of birth. Subsequently, diverse forms of violence have compelled the activation of peace building initiatives in the region. The paper therefore seek to unveil peace building initiatives in this region, and how they can contribute to the strength of national security. The methodology adopted is the content analysis approach. The paper adopted conflict transformation theory. The theory offers a comprehensive framework for resolving conflict through three stages, starting with the early stages when conflict is developing, moving on to the real confrontation or scale direct conflict, and concluding with its resolution methods. It concludes by citing the significance of the region having multiple ethnic groups and recommends that Peace advocacy should constantly be discussed in North Central Nigeria in order to completely eradicate the need for conflicts.

Keywords: Peace building, Insecurity, National Security, North Central, Nigeria.

1. INTRODUCTION

Though, conflicts in general whether religious, political, ethnic or socio-cultural are not novel or unfamiliar to human societies; they are as old as humanity due to incompatible interest. Conflict is an unavoidable attribute of every human society as a normal process of social interaction particularly in complex and multi-ethnic faceted societies like Nigeria and other multi-ethnic states in which resources are usually scarce.

While the majority of media coverage of the Nigerian conflict concentrated on the northeast, where Boko Haram has wreaked havoc on people's lives, the recurring conflict between farmers and herders in the country's Middle Belt has resulted in more deaths (Fulton & Nickels 2017) and costs the economy $13 billion annually (McDougal et al., 2015). In Nigeria's Middle Belt states, conflicts between farmer and pastoralist communities are growing more violent and taking on racial and religious connotations that further alienate these populations.

Also, the Boko Haram insurgency has been severely manifested since 2009, with serious attacks on lives and property in various parts of the nation, including the North West zone in states like Kano and Kaduna and the North Central zone in some areas of Kogi and Abuja. However, the battle became worst in the North East Zone in states like Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa, which has continued to wreak havoc on the people of the Lake Chad Basin. Almost 2.7 million people were forced from their homes during the violence's height in the area (Yahaya, 2019).

Nigeria's recurrent conflict disorders, which continue to imperil development efforts, led to the creation of the need for peace building in the process of development (Chigozie & Ituma, 2015). Because of the susceptibility brought on by social vices, it is well recognized that poverty and underdevelopment aggravate violent conflict. Examples of this in Africa include Somalia, the Great Lakes region, Liberia, Sudan, Sierra Leone, and Liberia, among others. In this dialectical relationship between poverty, underdevelopment, and violent conflict, Nigeria is not an exception; she is not the only one going down this way (Osaretin & Akov, 2013).

These conflicts have had tremendous effects on the Nigerian state, and needs to be mitigated. For instance, according to Harwood (2019) in the Middle Belt, battles between farmers and pastoralists resulted in 1,205 fatalities in 2014, by 2017 the casualty has reduced to 314. In 2018 however, it spiked again to 1,476. In order to address this issue, Mercy Corps implemented the first two years of its USAID-funded Engaging Communities for Peacebuilding in Nigeria (ECPN) project in Benue and Nasarawa, two states in the Middle Belt (now North-Central) of Nigeria, in collaboration with local partner Pastoral Resolve (PARE). The mission of ECPN is to prevent violence and hostilities, and promote peace between pastoralist and farming communities.

Against the backdrop of the examples of conflicts cited above, the paper explores peacebuilding initiatives and insecurity concerns particularly within the North-Central geo-political zone, and relates the incidents therein to the concerns of National security. The paper is structured into four sections. The first section is the introduction. The second section contains the methodology used, while the third section contains the literature. The fourth section concludes the paper, after which relevant recommendations are made.

2. METHODOLOGY

This is a qualitative study which relied on existing published literature around the phenomena under investigation. The study is a combination of conceptual and theoretical review of literature. Much focus is placed on content-analysis and historical review. However, ethical consideration was to the sensitivity of the material in consonance with the subject of discussion.

3. LITERATURE

3.1 Conceptual Clarification

Peace Building

Peace is necessary for peace building; hence it is impossible to achieve peace without peace. In other words, peace is essential or at the centre of peacebuilding since it is only possible to build on peace when it exists. There is no universal agreement among scholars as to what constitutes an accurate definition of "peace," hence the idea has been defined in a variety of ways. The phrase is derived from the Latin word "pax," which denotes a treaty, pact, or agreement to put an end to a war, dispute, or conflict between or among people, groups of people, or states. It is also a process of general tranquillity. In other words, for there to be peace, there must be an environment free from commotion and confusion, with no limitations or impediments to people going about their everyday lives.

Ibeanu (2006) defines peace as efforts to lessen conflict and foster growth in particular societies and the larger international society. Peace is therefore necessary to ensure social, political, and economic progress. According to Ahamefule (2013), a state of peace is one in which there is no war, no one is irritated by others, and there is tranquillity, devoid of worries or anxiety.

According to Brinkmann (2006), peacebuilding is the process of changing a violent state or situation into one that promotes greater political, socioeconomic equality, justice, fairness, and security for all people within a diverse cultural environment. Brinkmann goes one step farther and pinpoints two peacebuilding components. He claims that whereas the second part of peacebuilding focuses on enhancing current peaceful activities or to stimulate new ones, the first aspect of peacebuilding is focused on reducing or changing violence. It should be highlighted that timing is crucial while developing and implementing peacebuilding initiatives because some will have positive outcomes right away while others won't be apparent for some time.

According to Boutros-Ghali (1992), peacebuilding serves as a conduit for the reconstruction of areas or locations damaged by war. To prevent a relapse into conflict, it is a process of identifying and promoting those institutions that will strengthen, bolster, and cement peace. Doyle and Sambanis (1999) state that "the prior achievement of a minimum level of peace" is necessary for peacebuilding. In other words, while maintaining peace is the cornerstone of establishing peace, failing to do so will have the opposite impact, calcifying a conflict over time and making peacebuilding difficult.

Conflicts

Conflict has been defined in a variety of ways by academics. According to Holsti (1983), conflict refers to a certain relationship between states or competing factions inside a state and signifies tension or hostilities that manifest as subjective economic or military conflicts. According to Coser (1998), conflict is a struggle between opposing parties for limited position, power, and resources in which they strive to hurt or eliminate their rivals.

However, conflicts may be peaceful or unmanageable, dominant or recessive, and amenable to resolution or insoluble. This assumes that violence is a possible form of conflict rather than an inherent characteristic (Omotosho, 2004) However, current world events indicate that most conflicts are violent, resulting in life-long injuries to their victims in addition to significant life losses. According to Kunkeler & Peters (2011), the common conception of conflict—and specifically, of armed conflict—is that it involves a struggle between two parties, at least one of which is a state authority, for control of a government or territory.

Conflict is not an isolated occurrence; rather, it occurs on a continuum and is fluid and transformational. According to Sriram and Wermester (2003), it happens in phases, which fits with the continuum concept. A brief examination of wars in Africa reveals that this broader perspective, which abandons a state-centric focus, is significantly more pertinent when analysing the issue.

Insecurity

The concept of insecurity has a variety of connotations, including "absence of safety," "risk," "hazard," "uncertainty," "lack of protection," and "lack of safety." According to Beland (2005), insecurity is a feeling of worry or anxiety brought on by a real or perceived lack of safety. It alludes to a lack of or insufficient freedom from risk.

Insecurity is a state of being vulnerable to harm or danger. Anxiety brought on by a sense of vulnerability and insecurity. According to Ezemonye (2011), insecurity is a state of not feeling comfortable or confident. We now proceed to the definition of the word "insecure," which the Advance English Dictionary defines as not confident in yourself or your connections with other people; not safe or protected. This definition will help us better grasp this concept. This definition expands on the meaning of the phrase by addressing not just its general connotation but also the concept of "not being confidence in oneself."

According to Achumba, Ighomereho and Akpan-Robaro (2013), insecurity is the absence of safety or the presence of danger; a risk; lack of confidence; doubt; being insufficiently guarded or protected; lacking stability; being agitated; and being unsafe.

National Security

In a primordial society, security would unquestionably mean something different from what it does in a contextualist society. In the former, the emphasis is most likely on maintaining the things that unite the people, such as a shared language, tradition, desire for independence, and similar things. Yet, security would be defined in the artificial nation state in terms of joining the citizens into a complex totality (Isaac, 2012).

Ani and Onyebukwa (2016) define national security as a country's mix of adequate and plentiful political, military, human, economic, scientific, and technological resources operating at their peak levels. It comprises the capacity to protect the country from unwelcome internal and external control while maintaining its territorial integrity. When they emphasized the various way security might be compromised, Ani and Onyebukwa expanded the concept of security. They went on to say that security goes beyond merely military security. Lagazio (2012) stated that it also covers a state's protection from criminal activity.

3.2 Theoretical Framework

A theory is a supposition that is used to explain, describe, and forecast a phenomenon. It is a collection of claims that aim to predict or explain a certain characteristic of an event in order to reach a logical conclusion. This research applies Rupesinghe (1995)'s conflict transformation theory in light of the context of this study. As an alternative to the conflict transformation models that dominated the social sciences literature for years, the conflict transformation theory has gained popularity. Conflict transformation, according to Lederach (1995), offers a comprehensive framework for resolving conflict through three stages, starting with the early stages when conflict is developing, moving on to the real confrontation or scale direct conflict, and concluding with its resolution methods.

Since Rupesinghe's study, which was published in 1995 and popularized the concept, scholars have taken a particular interest in the conflict transformation theory's claims. This is due to the theory's attempt to address problems that traditional writers on conflict resolution and peacebuilding mechanisms frequently ignore. In a nutshell, conflict transformation theory promotes a multi-track approach to conflict resolution and peacebuilding by incorporating a variety of actors and stakeholders in an effort to construct a durable peace, as Rupesinghe (1995) correctly observed.

Also, the use of Rupesinghe's conflict transformation theory as the theoretical foundation for this work is deemed appropriate for a number of reasons, including: First off, Rupesinghe's model emphasizes internal conflicts, which makes it more appropriate for developing nations like Nigeria where intra and inter-ethnic and -religious conflicts have become the norm as opposed to other conflict resolution theories, which are frequently referred to as "received or western theory" and a product of western imperialists (Ankrah, 2013).

This is very critical and imperative to the state of affairs in Nigeria where ethno-conflicts often reoccur after a ceasefire because certain basic factors are not taken into account in the course of resolution. This always makes peacebuilding unattainable. Hence, acknowledgment of the significance of these underpinning factors in conflict management by engaging actors in the conflict helps in peacebuilding because the peace process needs to be "owned" by them if it is to be successful and enduring (Ankrah, 2013).

NORTH-CENTRAL NIGERIA

North Central Nigeria is a region of Nigeria. It is also known as Middle Belt, and is composed of the following states: Benue, Kogi, Kwara, Nasarawa, Niger, Plateau, and the Federal Capital Territory. It is one of the six geo-political zones and the fourth largest geo-political zone in Nigeria. It is home to 14.5% of the country's population and consists predominantly of Christians, but has a sizeable Muslim population. The region housed several minority ethnic groups, most of which are farmers. According to www.wikivoyage.org, it is the third poorest zone in Nigeria with an average poverty headcount rate of 42.7%. The six zones were not entirely carved out based on geographic location, but rather states with similar ethnic groups, and/or common political history were classified in the same zone. Some of the popular ethnic groups in this region include Igala, Tiv, Idoma, Berom, Gwari, Mada, Ngas and Hausa. The north central region of Nigeria can be erroneously seen as predominantly Hausa region, probably because of the close proximity to both the North East and North West, which housed majorly the Hausas.

These ethnic groups, as diverse as they are, have their individual culture. In Plateau State, for instance, each ethnic group have a dedicated day for marking their festivals and other important dates. Plateau State was carved out of the old Benue-Plateau back in 1976, and its capital was agreed to be Jos. The state is divided into seventeen local government areas, each of which has mixed ethnic groups. The state is known as Nigeria's tourist haven with its slogan "Home of Peace and Tourism". Because of the serene weather and climate, almost all the ethnic groups in Nigeria converge at this place. The population of Plateau State, as is most of the states in the north central, are heterogenous in nature, with over forty ethno-linguistic groups. Each ethnic group has its own language although Hausa has gained popularity and accepted as a medium of communication even among people of the same ethnic group. Some of the other states in this region didn't adopt Hausa, but rather flow with either English or the Nigerian Pidgin English as the medium of communication. Such states are Benue and Kogi.

The Federal Capital Territory, which is located in the north-central, has its slogan as the "centre of unity". The idea is that the city is a unifier of other states and regions within the country. In a similar context, the entire region, has a way of unifying the entire northern region together, though they consist of several ethnic groups. Some of the culture found herein allow women the flexibility to be included in critical decisions while some do not. In the context of peacebuilding, a vast majority of the culture segregate the women from the men, identifying that the women are, in fact, not to concern themselves with such issues.

COMMUNAL CONFLICTS IN NASARAWA STATE

Historically, the Lower Plateau's land, boundary, and chieftaincy disputes—some of which had colonial roots—were the source of communal conflict in Nasarawa State (Onwurah, 2016). According to Onwurah, the Toto-Umaisha conflict of 1986, which culminated in the Bassa-Egbura crisis, was the State's most prominent instance of a communal crisis. The control of the Bassa people by the Egbura and Hausa-Fulani extraction was cemented as a result of the former's opposition to colonial administration, and it was also highlighted that the crises were rooted in the politics of colonial penetration and indirect authority (Onwurah, 2016).

The Bassa-Egbura conflict is significant because it represents the prime instance of communal disturbances in Nasarawa State (Best, 2004). More significantly, since Nasarawa State's inception, it has been one of the longest-running instances of communal violence (Best, 2004). Notwithstanding claims that this conflict was "a colonial fabrication" (Onwurah, 2016, for example), the real problems at hand were those of land and chieftaincy politics. It is true that colonialism contributed to the conflict's material foundation by generating the enabling circumstances necessary for the politicization of land and chieftaincy issues.

The main causes of communal violence in the state have essentially been concerns about land (including boundaries) and chieftaincy, as well as the competing claims thereto. This view has been supported by Ajo and Upav (2017), who contend that issues related to indigeneity, land ownership and use, and chieftaincy disputes are at the heart of the state's current communal unrest. Yet, recent communal conflict manifestations in Nasarawa State indicate the emergence of fresh conflict triggers. In this regard, Onwurah (2016) correctly asserts that socioeconomic disparities, sectarianism, politics, and personal conflicts are also possible contemporary sources of (communal) violence in Nasarawa State today.

CONFLICTS IN NORTH CENTRAL NIGERIA

Disputes have been with man from the dawn of time. Also, man has developed sophisticated methods for resolving disagreements over the centuries. Despite this, confrontations are still common and acknowledged as one of the consequences of people coexisting. This is especially true of North Central Nigeria, where the dread of insecurity is on the rise and has been made worse by the region's recent upsurge in acts of terrorism (Ali, 2015). Many academics in the area have noted that multiculturalism or plurality is seen as the root of conflict in the area.

The battles between herders and farmers have been an ongoing issue within Nigeria for centuries, but since the restoration of democratic rule in 1999, they have become widespread and terrifying. the intricate nature of the region's violent conflicts between sedentary farmers and cattle breeders. This is due to the fact that the externalization of these issues in the area emphasizes how serious the issue is. Hence, in view of the ongoing hostilities in North Central Nigeria, it is still a mystery to analysts.

According to some academics, the violence is a continuation of ethnic and religious conflicts that existed before Nigeria became a governmental state. Some people's positions are supported by a confluence of factors centred on four significant developments: the ongoing increase in the area under cultivation, the Sahel region of Africa's environmental degradation, the waning of traditional authorities, and the recent emergence of large-scale cattle rustling (Bello, 2013). The mass murder of over 300 persons in Agatu, Benue State, and nearby communities in January 2016 is evidence of how deadly modern conflicts can be. This illustrates how difficult it is for Nigeria's north-central governments to control the level of insecurity brought on by AK-47 fireworks in the area. For instance, according to Olaniyi, Opara, and Akubo's (2018) report, 32 people were killed by Fulani herders in communities in Kogi State's Dekina and Omala Local Government Areas, the threat has escalated proportionally in North Central Nigeria. Also, it was alleged (The Daily Trust, January 3, 2020) that gunmen stormed the Tawari hamlet in Kogi LGA and killed 19 persons there.

North Central Nigeria is frequently regarded as a conflict-prone region, perhaps as a result of ecological issues as well as other variables like religion. This is typical of the Fulani Jihad of the 19th century, which cemented them within the areas they had conquered and considered their pastoralism as a production strategy to gain access to water, pasture, and possibly markets. However, a number of causes, including the conflict between modernization and traditionalism, have come together to put the Fulani way of life in jeopardy. The Fulani economy has also been significantly influenced by environmental elements, which have an impact on the climate and how this affects land use (Azaigba, 2017).

Because of the use of covert weaponry, it is significant to emphasize that while confrontations between herders and farmers over land saw minimal deaths, in terms of human lives. Moreover, conflicts were resolved by means of native conflict resolution techniques. In North Central Nigeria, a sufficient number of Fulani herdsmen were thus allowed to settle in host villages. Yet, the employment of advanced weapons by herders during raids on farming settlements caused the violence of the battles to take on a terrifying dimension. The amount of casualties and infrastructure damage is entirely concerning and reflects the fury of these strikes and the sophistication of the weapons.

The Tiv-Jukun crisis in 2001, the Jos crises in 2004, 2008, and 2010 as well as the Bass-Igbira crisis in June 2012 and a number of other crises (Sule, 2015) showed the persistent nature of the conflicts in the regional balancing equation.

PEACE BUILDING IN NORTH CENTRAL NIGERIA

Peace has been highlighted as the sole element that may foster cooperation, economic development, human growth, and nonviolence in the context of today's security challenges in Central Nigeria. In relationships between people, classes, or groups, peace is the absence of all forms of direct or indirect violence as well as the threat of violence. As a result, it is an absence of all forms of violence rather than a situation of absolute conflict. Hence, according to Khan (2017 as stated in Abeki & Kia, 2019), peace is not just the absence of tension but also the presence of justice and love. This is true because structural integration means peace. It is dependable, accurate, long-lasting, upbeat, and preventative. It calls for an equitable allocation of authority and resources that is free from all types of prejudice, inequity, and violence. Indeed, it is based on respect for one another, cooperation, harmony, and tolerance. Improved communication, peace education, and conflict resolution were at the centre of this, among other things.

The process of achieving a lasting peace, according to Gultung (1975), who originally used the term "Peace Building," includes, among other things, the development of institutions and structures that are built on peace and that are sustained by justice, equity, and cooperation. This indicates, in particular, that peace-building entails a broad variety of coordinated actions, processes, roles, and responsibilities with the goal of converting a social group from one that is engaged in intense and protracted conflict to one that is peaceful (Abeki & Kia, 2019). The goal is to address the underlying causes of conflict through political negotiation and dialogue that are peaceful. Therefore, it is well known that objective criteria for promoting peace should be broad in scope to include and reorient peace, avoid the recurrence of violent conflict, and provide conditions for conciliation and healing.

The socioeconomic makeup, racial and religious diversity, and geographical features of Central Nigeria create enormous problems for establishing peace since they have a profound spatial impact on the kind and location of violent conflict. Violent conflict is based on this justification, both in Central Nigeria and elsewhere. What is evident about recent conflict in the north-central states is that it has typically involved diverse ethnic groups in the area. Even battles that are entirely devoid of racial overtones require, for instance, alliances and groups based on relationships.

Each group believes that it has a unique nationality with established traditions and borders under this situation. In the contest for authority, clout, and resources, competing desires to assert this difference clash with one another. This has been a significant barrier to regional peacebuilding. It is striking how lacking a sense of belonging and a shared sense of fraternity or good neighbours are. Again, the interaction of lack and desperation led people to conclude that the failure of the government to address conventional conflict resolution methods and to include a diverse socioeconomic group in efficient political processes is the dynamic that fuels violence.

This is due to the fact that different ethnic groups view the political system as unfair and exclusive (Abeki & Kia, 2019). The effort to create integrative unity is undermined by the lack of regional peace that is based on widely held values and norms. Everyone looks to be free to do as they deserve as a result, which deflates the potential for peace-building mechanisms and leads to violent conflict.

When people work together to address whatever problems they encounter, a fresh beginning is always possible, as demonstrated by the imperatives of peacebuilding. Hence, peace-building involves taking steps to strengthen peaceful relationships and establish a setting that prevents the emergence or escalation of tensions that could result in violence. Stakeholders now have the chance to make peace advocacy and education a part of their institutional responsibilities. This is true because all community leaders, including monarchs, chiefs, elders, young people, parents, and others, have a part to play in fostering peace. For instance, it would have been impossible for young people to commit acts of mayhem as a means of intergroup relations without taking into account the repercussions and the government's response if the north-central states took peace education seriously at the community level and in families.

Moving on from the aforementioned and in keeping with the idea that community and government leaders must take proactive measures, disregarding the restrictions and limitations of the Nigerian state, in order to safeguard lives and property, which is why government exists. According to him, if this vital role is neglected at the expense of and to the harm of innocent lives and property, the failed government will inevitably spark and promote anarchy because self-help would then become the norm for securing lives. The ruptured Nigerian federalism that abandoned Nigerians' security concerns exclusively to self-help is truly deplorable, and the government's absentee guardianship has caused huge structural harm to Nigerians. This includes, but is not limited to, other factors as well (Onwutuebe, 2021:196). The problem with this approach is that it allows rural armed conflicts to gain control and sow terror in isolated communities, robbing and killing people without access to democratic norms, like peacebuilding, for example.

Some of the peacebuilding initiatives that have been deployed include the following:

- Fostering a culture of peace through education;
- Promoting sustainable economic and social development;
- Promoting respect for all human rights;
- Ensuring equality between women and men;
- Fostering democratic participation;
- Advancing understanding, tolerance and solidarity;
- Supporting participatory communication and the free flow of information and knowledge and;
- Promoting international peace and security (Okafor, 1997).

Peace-building will remain a mental construct unless Nigeria begins to use fresh methods for accommodating ethnic diversity (Okafor, 1997) and under a democratic framework for lasting peaceful coexistence and inclusivity. Because other components of government are not necessarily left to chance, mediocrity, or conflict, the typology of workable federalism can only be understood through this regenerative sense.

4. CONCLUSION

The fact that there are so many different ethnic groups, each with unique traits and interests, makes the north-central region a complex location. Due to the pluralistic geopolitical setup, which on a practical level tended to produce more violent conflict, this region frequently experiences violent conflicts. This does definitely provide an explanation for why the administration has failed to develop a workable peace-building strategy. The fundamental issue is the region's poor handling of the widespread public participation in the proliferation of firearms and the ensuing violence that SALWs generate. Mutual mistrust and this have fuelled strong ethnic and religious nationalism that has fuelled inequity, injustice, discrimination, and favouritism. These factors have made the demand for weapons in Central Nigeria active.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

After considering several literatures and analysing the contents, the following suggestions are made by the paper:

Several other places in North Central Nigeria that are experiencing conflicts should be concentrated on with effective peace building strategies. Places like the North-East are still experiencing the insurgencies of the Boko Haram. The South-East are struggling with Unknown Gunmen, while several other regions are battling with kidnapping and all manner of things. The introduction of peacebuilding initiatives will largely help to reduce these menaces as most of the young people being used to perpetuate these activities would have been adequately engaged.

In order to mitigate the level of national security breaching through incessant crises and conflicts, the government need to partner with more NGOs to foster peace and adopt more peace building strategies. In the same vein, these NGOs need to collaborate with government agencies in order to contribute to the policies being formulated. With this collaboration, the breaching of national security through conflicts would be significantly reduced.

Youths and women should not be left behind in the initiatives of peacebuilding, as they comprise a huge part in the population of

Nigeria. Most often, youths are used as instrument of perpetuating violence, and this is because they lack the adequate knowledge and mostly unemployed. If they can be employed through the initiatives of peace building, and equipped with the appropriate knowledge, they wouldn't be available as tools of instigating violence.

Peace advocacy should constantly be discussed in North Central Nigeria in order to completely eradicate the need for conflicts. The works of the existing NGOs in the region should be encouraged by the people and given broader coverage. In addition, other international NGOs should be encouraged to focus their strategies on the region.

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EXPLOITING THE UNARMED AND UNLAWFUL RECRUITMENT OF CHILD SOLDIERS IN NIGERIA: A STUDY OF UNKNOWN GUNMEN

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Abstract

It is not a recent phenomenon that children join armed forces and other militant organizations. The development is associated with how conflict has changed over time. These minors are enlisted by paramilitary organizations, government forces and armed rebel factions. Some are primarily involved in combat on the front lines, while others serve as spies, messengers, or are coerced into sexual slavery. The paper attempts to unravel the illegality of exploiting the unarmed as well as and unlawful recruitment of child soldiers in Nigeria. The methodology adopted is the content analysis approach. The study is underpinned by Bioecological Systems Theory. Findings of reveal that the unlawful recruitment of child soldiers is predominant in Nigeria, and several reasons compel some children to join rebel groups. It also found out that some parents voluntarily donate their children to these armed groups. The paper concludes that Nigeria faces threats as the recruitment of children soldiers by these unknown gunmen continues unchecked. It recommends that special programmes be develop to rehabilitate children caught up in the conflict.

Key words: Child Soldiers, Children, Unknown Gunmen, Government, Nigeria

1. INTRODUCTION

Save the Children, a global civil society organization devoted to the rights of children, stated in its 2019 report that children in the modern dispensation have a greater chance than ever before to grow up healthy, educated, and protected, with the ability to realize their full potential. However, a number of societal issues that jeopardize the wellbeing and dignity of children continue to exist. Indeed, there are almost 240 million kids who live in conflict-ridden areas as of 2018 (Child Soldiers International, 2018). Surprisingly, the ground-breaking study presented to the United Nations (UN) General Assembly argued that having children present in a conflict area is a violation of "every right of a child – the right to life, the right to be with family and community, the right to health, the right to the development of personality and the right to be nurtured and protected" (Machel, 1996).

Children have traditionally been enlisted in wars; for instance, they served in the Second World War, the American Revolution, and the Sierra Leone Civil War in the 1990s (Rosen, 2015). These minors have been enlisted by paramilitary organizations as well as government forces and armed rebel factions. Their involvement in battles varies greatly; some are primarily involved in combat on the front lines, such as in suicide missions, while others serve as spies, messengers, or are coerced into sexual slavery. Armed groups frequently kidnap children to recruit them, and other kids join armed rebellion out of desperation because they think it's their greatest shot at surviving.

Children joining armed forces or other organizations is not a recent phenomenon; it has developed in tandem with how conflict has changed over time. Significantly, weapons have shrunk, gotten lighter, and easier to use even without the need for specialized skills (Kaplan, 2005). A technological advancement that made it relatively simpler to use youngsters as military agents. The usage of recruited youngsters has increased recently, which has given the phenomenon more international attention. In the 2017 UN Secretary-General's report, Somalia, South Sudan, and Nigeria were among the nations with the highest reported numbers of youngsters associated with armed forces or groups (UN General Assembly Security Council, 2018).

Yet, armed forces do not restrict their recruitment efforts to youngsters within national borders. Rather, as evidenced by the well-known instance of Shamima Begum from the United Kingdom, transnational armed rebel groups, like the self-declared Islamic State in the Middle East, have aggressively recruited juveniles in the Global North (Masters & Regilme, 2020). Notwithstanding this, the use of children in armed conflict represents a significant violation of everyone's right to life, especially the most defenceless ones, like minors. It is against this backdrop that the study unravels the unarmed and unlawful recruitment of children by insurgency groups such as the Unknown Gunmen. The structure of the paper begins with an introduction which provides a background to the study. It then clarifies the concepts of the subject matter, after which the methodology employed is described. The paper proceeds with conclusion after a review of relevant literature, and ends with recommendations.

2. METHODOLOGY

The method employed for this study is content analysis. It combines conceptual evaluation, theme analysis, and theoretical presentation. The approach of this study placed a strong emphasis on qualitative information acquired from secondary sources, such as journals, government websites, and written works. Each and every bit of data acquired for this study is relevant to it. An ethical consideration for the paper was a systematic examination of relevant material to ensure the paper originality, credibility and reliability.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

A child who actively takes part in a violent war by joining a group that uses violence on a regular basis is referred to as a child soldier in this definition. It is not crucial whether or not kids are participating in these organizations' exclusively military operations. The issue of what constitutes a child is another. Most NGOs involved in the advocacy of child soldiers and the majority of the available research on the issue utilize the usual definition of a child as a person under the age of 18 (GoodwinGill & Cohen, 1994; Brett & Specht, 2004). Yet, this definition is overly inclusive in many ways, particularly when it relates to the core idea that children and adults are not the same in terms of physical and psychological composition.

The usual explanation for why relatively young children are now more involved in battle than in the past is that it is much easier to obtain very light, inexpensive, and readily maintained weapons with significant firepower that can have a significant impact without requiring substantial training (Singer, 2006).

This argument is likely true insofar as it goes, but it does not rule out the possibility that children are primarily engaged in routine household chores or may participate in organized killings based on the use of weapons like machetes or spears, albeit most likely only when the enemies or civilians were disorganized. In this sense, the Singer argument for lighter weapons suggests a viewpoint in which children and adults are seen as substitutes for one another, whereby the weight of weapons no longer acts as a physical restriction. Nonetheless, the distinction in job between children and adults suggests that kid and adult labour in a military organization complements one another.

The cheaper cost of recruiting, the tactical advantages, and the simplicity of manipulation are some of the strategic justifications for why children are recruited in armed combat. While it can pose moral quandaries for the other side, using children in battle may also have tactical advantages for rebel forces (Beber & Blattman, 2013; Maclure & Denov, 2006; Singer, 2006).

Even if children's strength and combat skills are inferior to those of adults, Beber and Blattman (2013) acknowledged that kids make attractive recruiters since they are less expensive to control, less expensive to brainwash, and simpler to mislead than adults. Children are easily misled and moulded into new standards of aggressive behaviour when conflict upsets society norms, according to Maclure and Denov's (2006) research. Alcohol, hallucinogenic substances, and the availability of small weaponry all frequently made it easier to manipulate kids.

The distinction between forced and voluntary recruiting is another crucial element of the definition of child army recruitment. In the past, coerced child recruiting has received the majority of attention from the international world, despite the fact that a significant number of kids and teenagers voluntarily join armed groups (Brett & Specht, 2004). Due to a lack of reliable data on the reasons why kids join armed groups, little research has been done on voluntary recruitment (Ames & Fletcher-Watson, 2010).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The amount of academic study on child recruiting is rapidly expanding. The majority of the early work was done by activists, think tanks, and civil society organizations. Only recently have academics from several fields started to look into this issue. These studies typically examine how and why disputants recruit children as well as the broad social, political, and demographic aspects that may contribute to their employment in civil wars (Tynes & Early, 2015).

For the purpose of this study, the Bioecological Systems Theory (BST) is adopted. According to the BST approach, which was developed by Bronfenbrenner, a child's decisions and life course can be influenced by four key ideas: his personality or person, his environmental context, interactions between himself, other people, and items in this environment, and the time frame in which these interactions occur. It is also known as the Process- Person-Context-Time (PPCT) model.

The first P, or proximal process of interaction, is the theory's main point of emphasis. This is referred to by Bronfenbrenner as the main mechanism and engine of development. This component describes the systematic and reciprocal interactions that take place between a developing person and the people, objects, and symbols that are part of his immediate external environment (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). In other words, a child's microsystem structure contains proximal interconnections. The interactions that take place inside this structure involve a child's encounters with objects like books, people like parents or classmates, and symbols like cues, signs, or pictures, as well as the child's reactions to them.

According to Bronfenbrenner, interactions must take place often and over long periods of time in order to be effective in promoting development (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). Bronfenbrenner adds that the context, including both the spatial and temporal elements of the individual, is a combined result of the processes of interactions that affect development, and they alter systematically.

The second P, or person, is a reference to the person's individual traits. According to this hypothesis, kids differ based on their individual traits and are thus differently vulnerable to the outside elements they come into contact with when interacting with their immediate environment. As a result, individuals bring personal traits that motivate and shape interactions into settings of interaction. Bronfenbrenner understood that even if two children have identical access to resource characteristics, their developmental processes may still be different if one of the children is driven and persistent in achieving a goal while the other is not.

The C, or context, is made up of four ecologically layered subsystems and relates to the environment with which a child interacts. The Microsystem is the initial and most crucial component of proximal processes. The environment consists of the family, the neighbourhood, and the school, and the participants are the teachers, the peers, and the family.

The Time is the final element of the PPCT model. This idea takes into account a person's and his environment's changes over time. As a result, there are three different dimensions of time: Micro time (individual instances of proximal interactions), Meso time (the frequency of these instances), and Macro time or Changes in the wider society (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). As a result, over the course of a certain amount of time and through a variety of agents and interactions located at various levels of their environment, children are gradually socialized and influenced. In the choices and decisions that they make, individuals also process these interactions and impacts, remould, reflect on, and recreate them (Bevan & Florquin, 2006).

In their study on the difficulties and opportunities that arise within a child's social ecology during disasters, Noffsinger et al. (2013) applied Bronfenbrenner's model and identified the impact that catastrophes have on a child's bioecological system. They contend that natural or human-caused disasters alter the interactions within and between children's environmental subsystems. A child's response and reactions are subsequently elicited or changed as a result. For instance, a state of war may impair the macrosystem elements of security and economics, reducing the resources available to families to care for and protect their children. As a result, a microsystem aspect of parental care may be impacted. For example, parents who are struggling financially or who are upset by their own insecurities may lash out at their kids rather than cultivating strong relationships with them. Joining an armed group for security, a sense of belonging, or to obtain resources becomes a possibility when youngsters who live in these vulnerable circumstances and are faced with these obstacles are not prepared with adequate coping mechanisms.

This approach makes it possible to study children's reactions to hardship and how armed conflict affects them on a more sophisticated level (Wessells, 2016). This hypothesis has been deemed useful for illuminating the various processes that affect a child's responses and coping mechanisms after experiencing severe trauma. As a result, it has been used in studies to predict resilience in sexually abused adolescents (Williams & Nelson-Gardell, 2012), to examine a child's inherent characteristics and how it influences his reaction to disaster (Bokszczania, 2008), and to examine the variations in the resilience of children affected by war (Ungar, 2011).

In light of the aforementioned, it became apt to adopt the Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological systems model to investigate the significance of close relationships between children and their environment in relation to their unauthorized recruitment as soldiers in the Nigerian context.

UNKNOWN GUNMEN IN SOUTH-EASTERN NIGERIA

Beginning in 2021, there has been a problem with the Unknown Gunmen in the South-East of Nigeria. Two events happened at the same time in Enugu, the capital of Enugu State and the political hub of the South-East. First, the Nigerian Army began a fresh military campaign in the region. According to Lt. General Faruk Yahaya, Chief of Army Staff, the operation will reduce the increasing instances of instability in the region, according to Tunde (2021). It aims to stop wanton killings and the burning of public facilities in the region as well as deal with insurgency, kidnapping, and growing banditry in the South-East.

The second event was a gathering of South-East state governors to discuss political and practical responses to the growing wave of insecurity and uncertainty in the area. The summit, which was attended by four of the zone's five governors with the exception of Willie Obiano of Anambra State, also included influential political figures and traditional leaders. They decided to revive Ebubeagu, a security program resembling, among other things, the Amotekun initiative in the South-West. The South-East region's states will make up the membership of the security organization, which will work in tandem with the region's normal intelligence and security services.

The Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB), led by Nnamdi Kanu, who is being imprisoned by Nigerian security, frequently ordered the South-East people to "sit at home." The meeting also decided to stop this practice.

On each day the annoying "sit at home" order is implemented, workers and company owners in the South-East suffer enormous socioeconomic losses, which were denounced during the sitting. The gathering also reiterated "Ndigbo's" commitment to the Anambra governorship election scheduled for Saturday, November 6, 2021, and made a commitment to assist the conduct of a peaceful election.

A few days later, a gun smoke from the country's South-East generously spread over the world on acts of violence and bloodshed there. This includes the states of Anambra, Imo, and Enugu, where citizens were treated like prey on the streets of well-known state capitals.

Nnamdi Kanu created the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB), which is still going strong today. The Council on Foreign Relations claims that "The Federal Government, together with the majority of the Igbo establishment, fiercely opposes Igbo secession in the wake of the civil war. The government has long tried to discredit the IPOB and muzzle Kanu, occasionally through dubious or sham legal means." The Nigerian government has branded the IPOB as a terrorist group since 2017. The IPOB and the Nigerian government have been engaged in increasingly violent conflict since August 2020. In August 2020, 21 IPOB members were killed by Nigerian police forces during a meeting; two police officers died in the incident, and both sides blamed the other for firing the initial shot.

The level of violence increased, sparking an insurrection across the entire region. Innocent people died suddenly as a result of an advertisement tasked with the unpleasant task of keeping track of the victims of faceless killers and assassins. The Unknown Gunmen carried out this ambush and catastrophe across the states in various occurrences. And that is how they continue to assault people to this day.

Somadina Oforma, a member of the All Progressives Congress (APC), was shot dead on Tuesday, September 28, 2021, while attending a meeting of the party in Uruagu, Nnewi North local government area (LGA), of the state. Dr. Chike Akunyili, the late Professor Dora Akunyili's husband, was also killed by the Unknown Gunmen. He was reportedly shot dead near Nkpor.

RECRUITMENT OF THE GIRL-CHILD

Matfess (2017) noted that Boko Haram helps smoothen marriages for its members. Young girls in Boko Haram recruitment also claim that marriage gives them better treatment and social standing than the majority of Nigerian culture does, including having maids, receiving their dowries in person, and receiving attention from their husbands.

These teenage girls in Boko Haram have positions of authority and influence unmatched in everyday life. One kidnapped and sold off 14-year-old girl later said, "Once I became a commander's wife, I enjoyed freedom... I used to be respected by all the Boko Haram men. I felt like a queen in a palace. The testimony from deradicalization organizations most clearly identifies the advantages that Boko Haram offers. While describing the young ladies participating in deradicalization programs, a humanitarian worker said, "They felt that they were a chosen group. They had lived in relative luxury in the forest … and really felt that there was nothing we could offer them."

In line with members of the Boko Haram getting married to young girls, Boko Haram has prioritized targeting children. According to UN estimates, Boko Haram has recruited over 8,000 kids to fight. They can be used to set bombs, act as human shields to defend Boko Haram fighters from the military, carry out suicide bombings, and spy on other people (UN, n.d).

In a similar line, reports suggest that some of the parents of the children who have been freely donated by the terrorist group are either members of the group themselves or directly receive financial benefits from it. The majority of these helpless children were given to the terrorist group by their heartless and foolish parents and guardians as part of their contribution to the continuation of the Boko Haram terrorists' heinous crimes against Nigerian society and humanity, according to a report released by the military in 2017 (Ibrahim, 2017).

Additionally, Boko Haram views kidnapping as a successful way to exact revenge on the government, secure the release of its members who are detained, and collect astronomical ransom payments to support its activities. Along with the internationally publicized kidnapping of 276 schoolgirls in Chibok, there are several other incidences of kidnapping that go unreported. More than a thousand children have been abducted by the organization since 2013 according to UNICEF's 2018 report (Busari, 2018). The girls who have been abducted by Boko Haram are also used as sex slaves and domestic servants, in addition to being recruited as fighters and suicide bombers. Some of the females are pushed into weddings after being raped.

UNLAWFUL RECRUITMENT OF CHILD SOLDIERS

To say that the Unknown Gunmen are deeply involved in child soldier recruitment would be a gross understatement, considering the high level of child soldier recruitment in Nigeria. Bahgat et al. (2017) observed that in 2016, Nigeria was the country with the highest number of reported child soldiers. According to Rogers (2004), even if recruiting children may violate the law of war, the laws on combatant status apply to both adults and children equally. It is only when children are captured that unique regulations for their treatment apply.

Children who are "enrolled in the armed forces" or who "participate in a mass revolt of the population" are the subjects of the International Human Law's rare cases in which it addresses the issue of minors engaging in hostilities (GoodwinGill & Cohen, 1990).

The unique challenge faced by soldiers who are too young to fight is that their youth negates whatever efforts they may be making to set themselves apart from civilians. They appear to be older than any distinguishing markings or the weapon they are carrying. In other words, a ten-year-old kid recruited into a non-state armed group may not always be able to obtain combatant status.

While it may be generally accepted that insurgents take advantage of the naiveite of these youngsters, certain factors contribute to informing their decisions.

State Vulnerability

Much of available literature blames the Nigerian government’s weakness or fragility for encouraging youth and teenagers’ involvement in violent groups and for the growth of those groups in the nation. Youth-led vigilante groups have become more prevalent across the nation as a result of the inadequate capabilities of the police and security agencies. These organizations now reflect the religious, ethnic, and political components of conflict rather than serving as a means of enforcing the law on the streets and maintaining neighbourhood security (Pratten, 2008). The Bakassi Boys, a predominantly Igbo group in the country's southeast, are arguably the most well-known instance of vigilantism in Nigeria.

The group was formed in response to the growth of criminal gangs in the market city of Aba, but it quickly became a well-known movement with undercurrents of Igbo nationalism, traditional superstition, and political tensions as their actions turned into political thuggery on behalf of political figures (Smith, 2004). Akinwumi (2006) adds that the militarization of Nigerian society, where violence is frequently perceived as the only way to attain riches and power, is a result of two decades of military administration. In retrospect, some of these groups have metamorphosed into bandits and Unknown Gunmen, with major area of recruiting concentration on the youths and children.

Social Change

The convergence of socioeconomic developments in Nigeria has also coincided with the growth of violent organizations. According to Egbue (2006), globalization and Westernization have led to the collapse of traditional social institutions and raised youths and teenagers' expectations of material wealth and materialism. Young men who are looking for alternate ways to demonstrate their masculinity due to a lack of work possibilities and the demands of a highly patriarchal culture are more likely to be recruited by criminal gangs or ethnic militias. Further, these organisations provide young males a form of positive group identification (Matusitz & Repass, 2009).

The nation is also going through a rebirth of traditional ideas, as well as an increase in religiosity, both in the primarily Christian South and Muslim North (Akinwumi 2006). Ifeka (2006) details how young people, in particular, have re-presented political and economic frustrations in terms of religion or through the fetishization of violence, which helps provide meaning in the context of a conflict between traditional kinship-based community structures and the capitalist-driven demand for resources.

Due to these socioeconomic changes, more young people are joining cults, which are predominantly located in the nation's university system. Rotimi (2005) lists the necessity for financial support or security, curiosity, and the need for group involvement as reasons why young people join these organizations in his analysis of the growth of secret cults in Nigerian colleges. Egbue (2006) cites the evolving educational landscape as a contributing factor to youth violence and engagement in organizations like university cults. The use of bribes and grade buying by teachers, along with inadequate and outdated facilities, has contributed to a climate of mistrust and victimization.

The “Ghetto” Factor

The growing urbanization of Nigerian cities is another factor contributing to the growth of gangs and armed groups. Urban gangs' main hub is still Port Harcourt. According to Oruwari (2006), these urban gangs, which are predominantly focused on ethnic identification, have proliferated in low-income and densely inhabited regions, particularly in Port Harcourt's so-called "watersides" squatter camps. Gang size, area, and level of activity differ among them in Port Harcourt. The largest groups, which operate across River State and are loosely affiliated with militant organizations like the Niger Delta Vigilante Group (NDVG) and the Niger Delta Peoples Volunteer Force (NDPVF), have been involved in attacks against oil facilities and declare that they are fighting for resource control. Some are made up of a few neighbourhood boys, while others have ties to cults. Violence has also resulted from the two factions' competition. Some of these boys, in turn, start masquerading around with firearms. Child soldier recruitment is therefore nothing short of easy. They mentor the younger ones in the ghetto, teaching them the art of kidnapping and gun shooting.

Despite their presence in cities, research reveals that economic, political, and social exclusion as well as a lack of security continue to be key factors in why both urban and rural children join armed groups.

- In Lagos and Ibadan in South-western Nigeria, Aderinto (2000) conducted a comparative study of street children and non-street children. According to the study, street kids are typically male, have low levels of education, and typically originate from large homes where the father engages in polyandry. Their parents are typically artisans or traders with little formal education. It also came to the conclusion that parental and familial issues, particularly the parents' failure to care for their children, play a significant role in why youngsters end up on the streets.
- The relationship between poverty and education in Nigeria is examined econometrically by Okpukpara et al. (2006), who also go into great length about street children. They discover that the number of children who do not attend school and instead end up living or working on the streets is mostly caused by a mix of poverty and parental indifference in sending their children to school.
- The problem of child abuse and neglect in Nigeria, which includes forcing kids to work on the streets to help support the family. Ebigbo (2003) looks at a survey that evaluated people's perceptions of child abuse in Nigeria and discovers that most people saw it as a family affair and would not step in or report it to authorities. This includes sending children to work.

4. CONCLUSION

The paper has highlighted several literatures on the target of unlawful recruitment of soldiers in Nigeria. Nigeria faces a higher threat as more kids are exposed to insurgent organizations and Unknown Gunmen. Notwithstanding the situation's apparent humanitarian catastrophe, the war is increasingly breeding a new generation of prospective combatants, which offers a serious security threat. Concerned stakeholders have not come up with a persuasive plan to recognize and address the issue. Researchers may not have paid adequate attention to the issue of children involved in armed conflict since it was seen as a side issue by the government and the media. The goal of this study is to inspire further research into how children get involved with insurgency groups like the Unknown Gunmen. The study also highlighted some of the causes that lure children to identify with insurgency groups.

5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the criticality of the subject of the paper, the following recommendations are made:

1. Concretizing efforts to not only construct preventative measures to assure child security but also to make children more visible in peacebuilding programs is a big task for policymakers and conflict practitioners.
2. Children living in conflict zones need to receive more attention in the rehabilitation and reintegration programs.
3. More specialized programmes are required to address the unique difficulties faced by children caught up in the conflict, as opposed to just including it in general or adult-focused programming.
4. Sports, cultural, and entertainment programs for children should be promoted more because they have been effective in attempts to promote peace. apart from being entertaining, they enrich the social circle of children and often give them a sense of belonging.

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ACCEPTABILITY OF RECOMBINANT VACCINE AGAINST HEPATITIS B VIRUS AMONG HEALTHCARE WORKERS IN SELECTED GOVERNMENT HOSPITALS IN LAGOS

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Abstract

Availability of recombinant HBV vaccines may not translate into its uptake. Although governments may provide the vaccines, their uptake is voluntary. This study is focused on the acceptability of recombinant vaccine against Hepatitis B virus among healthcare workers (HCWs) in government-hospitals in Lagos. Data were obtained primarily from the hospital records of 115 healthcare workers who had received a recombinant HBV vaccination over a seven-year period (2014-2020). The vaccine's acceptability among the HCWs was explored and acceptability defined as the ability of the HCW to complete the three doses regimen. Acceptability ratio of HCWs with a complete HBV vaccination uptake, their age group, job description, gender, marital status and date of vaccination were analyzed using percentage frequency distribution method. Statistical analyses were done using Microsoft Excel and Epi-Info 7.2. The results revealed (49%) of the HCWs investigated were unwilling to complete the vaccination regimen. (30.43%) practitioners in the majority age group (19-25 years); (46.88%) practitioners in the 26-32 years' age group and (68.18%) practitioners in the 33-39 years' age group completed their dosage regimen. All practitioners in the age groups 40-46 years and 47-53 years completed their dosage regimen (100%). Older practitioners, married practitioners and HCWs who stayed longer in training before practicing were more likely to accept and complete the vaccine dosage regimen. This study recommends that HCWs be compulsorily vaccinated early in training in order to reduce the risk of their being infected during training and practice and also to optimize the effectiveness of vaccination.

Keywords: *Recombinant Hepatitis B, Virus vaccine, Healthcare workers, Dosage regimen*

1. INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis B virus (HBV), a DNA virus of the family *Hepadnaviridae* is the causative agent of hepatitis B liver infection. Hepatitis B virus infection is a global health problem responsible for an estimated 820,000 deaths in 2019; for example, from the subsequent development of hepatocellular carcinomas (HCC) (WHO, 2021). An estimated 3.6% of the global population is affected by chronic HBV infection and who continue to spread the virus to others and are themselves at risk causing significant morbidity and mortality (GBD, 2010; 2013). Although viral hepatitis is a significant public health problem globally, it has not been prioritised until recently. In 2016, the World Health Organisation (WHO) adopted the Global health sector strategy on viral hepatitis, which set the goal of eliminating viral hepatitis as a public health problem by 2030, and specifically for 90% of infected persons to be diagnosed by 2030 (WHO, 2016). Similarly, the 67th World Health Assembly of the WHO on viral hepatitis prevention and control recently reaffirmed the importance of monitoring viral hepatitis prevention, diagnosis, and treatment progress both nationally and globally (WHO, 2014).

Viral hepatitis caused by hepatitis B virus is transmitted in adults by transfer of body fluids containing the virus. It is the only virus detected routinely by measuring an antigen linked to an agent in blood. This antigen is known as hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg). In sub-Saharan Africa, the limited studies conducted have demonstrated that healthcare workers are frequently exposed to biological, chemical, and physical occupational hazards (Bekele, Gebremariam, Kaso and Ahmed, 2015). It is a major public health problem in Nigeria as health care workers (HCWs) including general physicians, surgeons, dental surgeons, nurses and other medical staff are at increased risk of acquiring the disease due to occupational exposure to blood and body fluids (Erhabor, Ejele, Nwauche, 2007; Bello, 2000). This high risk groups for HBV infection worldwide are at four times greater risk compared to the general adult population (Liaw, Brunetto, Hadziyannis, 2010). Globally, it is estimated that 1 in 10 health care workers, experience a sharp injury every year (WHO, 2002). In the year 2000, sharps injuries to healthcare workers resulted in 16,000 hepatitis C virus (HCV) infections, 66,000 hepatitis B virus (HBV) infections, and 1,000 human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infections. The impact of these infections is significant. Following acute infection, chronic sequelae may develop leading to chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis and hepatocellular cancer (Guo, Shiao, Chanuang, Huang, 1999). Persistence of viral particles may also occur with individuals developing a carrier status of variable infectivity. Between 2000 and 2030, these infections are estimated to cause 145 premature deaths due to HCV, 261 premature deaths due to HBV, and 736 premature deaths due to HIV (WHO, 2014).

The infection can now be treated by antivirals or interferons and the transmission route can be interrupted. Nevertheless, the most effective means is to immunize all susceptible individuals with safe and efficacious vaccines. The combined efforts of vaccination, effective treatment and interruption of transmission make elimination of the infection plausible and may eventually lead to eradication of the virus. The success of any vaccination programme depends on high vaccine acceptance and uptake, and the main challenge that now lies ahead is building public confidence in an emergency-released vaccine. Without such confidence, vaccine hesitancy is imminent (Rhodes, Hoq, Measey, Danchin, 2020). Despite the fact that 85% of vaccine goes to healthcare workers, only 5-10% of reported cases are accounted for by these workers (Van Damme, Kane, Meheus, 1997). It is of concern to those in occupational health and public health that risks of transmission of disease remain in everyday practice with cases continuing to be reported (Sundvist, Hamilton, Rimmer, Evans, Teo, 1998). Healthcare workers play an important role in immunization program success and research has shown that their knowledge and attitudes in relation to vaccines determine their intentions for vaccine uptake and their recommendation of the vaccine (Hollmeyer, Hayden, Poland, Buchholz, 2009). There is a wealth of literature showing that healthcare workers can themselves be vaccine hesitant and their hesitancy levels can thus impact hesitancy and aversion to receiving the vaccine among the general public (Verger, Fressard, Collange, Gautier, Jestin, Launay, 2015). Additionally, it has been reported that healthcare workers who have negative attitudes, are averted, or are hesitant about vaccinations share these unfavorable attitudes and tend to recommend vaccination to their patients infrequently (Arda, Durusoy, Yamazhan, Sipahi, Taşbakan, Pullukçu, 2011), thereby playing a major role on shaping the general population's decisions to vaccinate (Paterson, Meurice, Stanberry, Glismann, Rosenthal, Larson, 2016).

Acceptability in this study was defined as the ability of the HCW to complete the three dosage regimen while vaccine Hesitancy is defined as "the delay in acceptance or refusal of vaccination despite the availability of vaccination services," and it is a global concern and a crucial factor in under-vaccination (MacDonald SAGE, 2015). Vaccine hesitancy presents a barrier to immunization program success and, in fact, has been identified by the World Health Organization (WHO) as one of the top 10 global health threats in 2019 (WHO, 2020). Despite the global effort to bring an end to the preventable infectious diseases, anti-vaccination sentiments that spread misinformation on the dangers and consequences of vaccination cause hesitancy in immunization against preventable infectious diseases (Dhaliwal, Mannion, 2020).

There is no policy or implementation of any policies that makes uptake of Hepatitis B vaccination and post vaccination serologic testing for antibody to hepatitis B surface antigen (Anti-HBs) recommended 1-2 months after the last vaccine dose compulsory for all HCWs, who are at risk for occupational exposure in Nigeria.

In view of the advantage of decreasing the chronic carrier rate of HBV within the population, this study was carried out to determine the distribution of acceptability and hesitancy of HBV recombinant vaccine among HCWs who serve as an important source for occupational risk, and who would benefit from vaccination, while providing baseline data for future assessment of the impact of HBV vaccination among HCWs in Lagos-Nigeria. The acceptability ratio of HCWs with a complete HBV vaccination uptake, their age group, job description, gender, marital status and date of vaccination were analyzed.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Research studies assessing the uptake of seasonal and/or pandemic influenza vaccines among healthcare workers found that vaccine acceptance among this population is low. Various factors were found to underlie this behaviour, which include low perceived benefits, low perceived risk of infection, fear of side effects and concerns surrounding safety and efficacy (Arda, Durusoy, Yamazhan, Sipahi, Taşbakan, Pullukçu, 2011). Better understanding of the occurrence of occupational hazards among healthcare workers in sub-Saharan Africa especially in Nigeria can inform policies to make the healthcare environment safer for healthcare workers.

2.1. HBV Epidemiology

In Africa, approximately 60 million people live with chronic HBV infection with an estimated prevalence of 6.2% (WHO, 2019). Nigeria is ranked as one of the countries that is hyper-endemic for HBV infection > 8% (Musa, Bussell, Borodo, Samaila and Femi, 2015). Approximately nine in ten Nigerians who live with chronic HBV are unaware of their infection status, and are missing from the global public health statistics due to a lack of resources, awareness, and political will for addressing Nigeria's HBV plight (Nigeria Hepatitis Foundation, 2020; FMH, 2016; WHA, 2018). Consequently, Nigeria has one of the highest rates of HBV-attributable cancer in West Africa, with an age-standardised incidence estimate of 2.6 to < 5.1 cases per 100,000 person-years (IARC, 2018; de Martel, Georges, Bray, Ferlay and Clifford, 2018). HCC is a highly aggressive cancer with limited treatment options, often lacking in resource-constrained settings (Howell, Lemoine and Thursz, 2014). The lack of affordable diagnostics—for example specialised immunoassays and nucleic acid tests, as well as the out-of-pocket cost for vulnerable populations, constitute potential barriers to eliminating viral hepatitis B in Nigeria, thus making HBV a significant threat to public health. There are no up-to-date country-wide systematic reviews reporting HBV prevalence in Nigeria. The first systematic review and meta-analysis of HBV in Nigeria was conducted in 2013 (Musa, Bussell, Borodo, Samaila and Femi, 2015) and included 61% of articles published before 2010. Data for chronic viral hepatitis are not routinely collected by the Integrated Disease Surveillance and Response system, which collects only acute viral hepatitis cases; therefore, hepatitis infection remains largely underreported. Further clinical and epidemiological research on HBV infections in Nigeria are developing, but have not been able to attract appropriate funding and investment.

2.2. HBV Prevention and Control

There are well-established guidelines to prevent exposure to occupational hazards, including blood and bloodborne pathogens. These include educating healthcare workers on safer use of devices, procedures and management of exposures. In many regions of the world, such as Europe, the Americas, and Australia, there has been a downward trend in the prevalence of chronic HBV infection mainly due to immunization against HBV and improved health-care practices, for example, screening of blood and blood products, injection safety, and infection control policies and practices (Ott, Stevens, Groeger and Wiersma, 2012).

Furthermore, the World Health Organization (WHO) has instructed governments to transition to the exclusive use of safety injection devices by 2020 (WHO, 2015). While developed countries have heeded this recommendation, the vast majority of sub-Saharan African countries have failed to enact legislation to protect healthcare workers. Apart from provider behaviours that increase exposure to occupational hazards, system-level barriers increase the risk of exposure to hazards in the healthcare setting. Unsafe conditions in the healthcare environment, lack of personal protective equipment (PPE), and high provider to patient ratio increase the risk of exposure to bloodborne pathogens and cause preventable infections. Healthcare workers in four African countries (Cameroon, South Africa, Uganda and Zimbabwe), have reported that the top four reasons for migrating to developed countries include better remuneration, safer work environment, living conditions and lack of facilities (Awases, Gbary, Nyon and Chatora, 2004). The 2006 World Health Report Working Together for Health drew attention to the severe healthcare worker shortages in 57 countries, most of them in Africa and Asia (WHO, 2006). The influence of occupational hazards on healthcare worker shortages in sub-Saharan Africa has dire implications for patient outcomes, productivity and life expectancy in the continent.

2.3. HBV Vaccine Development

By 1982, the development of vaccines against hepatitis B enabled primary prevention of this disease to become a possibility, but administration of vaccine remains controversial. In 1992, the members of the World Health Organization recommended universal vaccination programmes in areas of high endemic infection. Vaccination with the monovalent HBV vaccine was introduced in Nigeria in 2004 as part of the National Program on Immunization (NPI), to be given at 6, 10, and 14 weeks of age (NPI, 2002). However in 2012, a pentavalent vaccine comprising diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis, HBV, and *Haemophilus influenza* type B was introduced (GAVI, 2015). Because hepatitis B vaccination has a key role in the control of hepatitis B, a profound knowledge of the properties of this vaccine, its effectiveness in pre-exposure and post-exposure settings, duration of protection after vaccination and the need of booster doses are essential tools.

The vaccine is generally administered intramuscularly in the deltoid region at three doses of 0-month, 1-month, and 6-month schedules. Post vaccination serologic testing for antibody to hepatitis B surface antigen (Anti-HBs) is recommended 1–2 months after the last vaccine dose for HCWs who are at risk for occupational exposures (Levine, Vlahov, Nelson, 1994). However, in some HCWs (non-responders), there is vaccine failure. Approximately 5-10% of those vaccinated against HBV fail to respond with the development of antibody and moreover, anti-HBs titres decrease over time. Reasons for non-response to HBV vaccination might be multifactorial including host factors such as age, smoking, obesity, gender, and host genetics; and vaccine and vaccination factors such as vaccine type, vaccination dose, injection site, and the time passed after the last vaccination (Kirk, Lesi, Mendy, Akano, Sam, 2004).

Anti-HBs titre is used to evaluate the efficacy of hepatitis B vaccine and titres of >10 mIU/ml is considered protective (Beasley, Hwang, Stevens, Lin, Hsieh, 1983). Studies have demonstrated that HBV vaccine induced protection persists for at least 11 years and even up to 30 years (Shen, Wang, Wang, Cui, Zhang, 2012). Healthcare workers who have been vaccinated against HBV infection and do not develop immunity remain at a high risk of being infected (Whittle, Inskip, Bradley, McLaughlan, Shenton, 1990) and chances of spread of infection may be increased if infection control measures are not strictly followed. In 2016, Nigeria developed a national guideline for prevention, care and treatment of HBV and hepatitis C virus (HCV) infections, and vaccination of HCWs was included as one of the preventive methods in health care settings.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This was a retrospective cross-sectional study which analyzed 115 case notes of Healthcare workers aged 19-51years over a seven years' period spanning from 2014 to 2020 from four government hospitals across the Lagos Island and the mainland namely: Lagos Island General Hospital, Odan (n= 100), Amuwo Odofin Hospital (n=6), Nigerian Navy Reference Hospital (n=5) and Lagos State Health Center, Satellite Town (n=4). Lagos State is Africa's largest city with an estimated 21 million population (LSMH, 2012). The study population was staff members of the hospitals with a varied HBV vaccination history including Nurses, Doctors, Janitors, Laboratory Technicians, Laboratory Scientists and Laboratory Assistants who regularly had contacts with patients and samples. They are aware of the risks of hepatitis B viral infection associated with their job routine and consented to vaccination. Data were obtained primarily from the hospital file records of the Healthcare workers who had received a HBV vaccination over a period of 7 years. All the Laboratory analyses were carried out in the medical laboratory of the health facilities where vaccination was received.

The subjects were categorized into five distinctive age groups and their vaccination schedules either as completed dosage uptake or uncompleted dosage uptake were examined. Acceptability in the study groups was defined as the ability of the HCW to complete the three doses schedules which is recommended at 0-month, 1-month, and 6-month schedules.

Data were collected from individual case file regarding date of vaccination, number of doses received, whether and when titers were previously checked, titer results, source of the vaccination, sex of the practitioner, job description, marital status and age. Weight, smoking history, and overall health status were not assessed.

The study had received an ethical approval from the ethical review committee at each facility for data retrieval. This research work was analyzed using percentage frequency distribution method. Statistical analysis was conducted using Microsoft Excel and Epi-Info 7.2. Comparisons were assed using mean and Students' T- test. A p-value of less than or equal to 0.05 was considered statistically significant in all statistical comparison.

4. RESULT

The study population was categorized into five distinctive age groupings viz; 19 – 25years (mean age:22.98, median age:23); 26 -32years (mean age:28.45, median age:29), 33 – 39years (mean age:35.75, median age:36) 40 – 46years (mean age:42.8, median age:43) and 47 – 53years (mean age:49.5, median age:49.5). 88% the HCWs under investigation (n=101) took their vaccination from Government health facilities while the remaining 12% (n=14) took theirs in private facilities and none returned for post vaccination serologic testing for antibody to hepatitis B surface antigen (Anti-HBs) recommended 1-2 months after the last vaccine dose. Statistical analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel and Epi-Info 7.2. Various characteristics including vaccination age and date, number of vaccine doses (regimen) received, marital status, gender and job description were analyzed as frequencies, mean, and percentages using descriptive statistics. The study also examined the relationship between the acceptability of the recombinant vaccine among the HCWs (as defined as ability to complete the recommended three dosage regimen) and the vaccination age and date using the student's t-test at the 95% confidence interval.

Table 1: AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE HEALTHCARE WORKERS

Age Grouping	Frequency	Population Percentage
19-25 years	46	40%
26-32 years	32	28%
33-39 years	22	19%
40-46 years	8	7%
47-53 years	7	6%

Source: cross-sectional study 2021- 2022.

From the result Table 1 above, majority, 46 (40%) of the HCWs (n=115) enrolled in the study were in the age range of 19- 25 years. 32 (28%) of the practitioners were in the age range of 26-32 years. A total of 22 (19%) among the HCWs fall into the 33-39years age range while 8 (7%) and 7 (6%) are in the age range of 40-46years and 47-53years respectively (Figure 1).

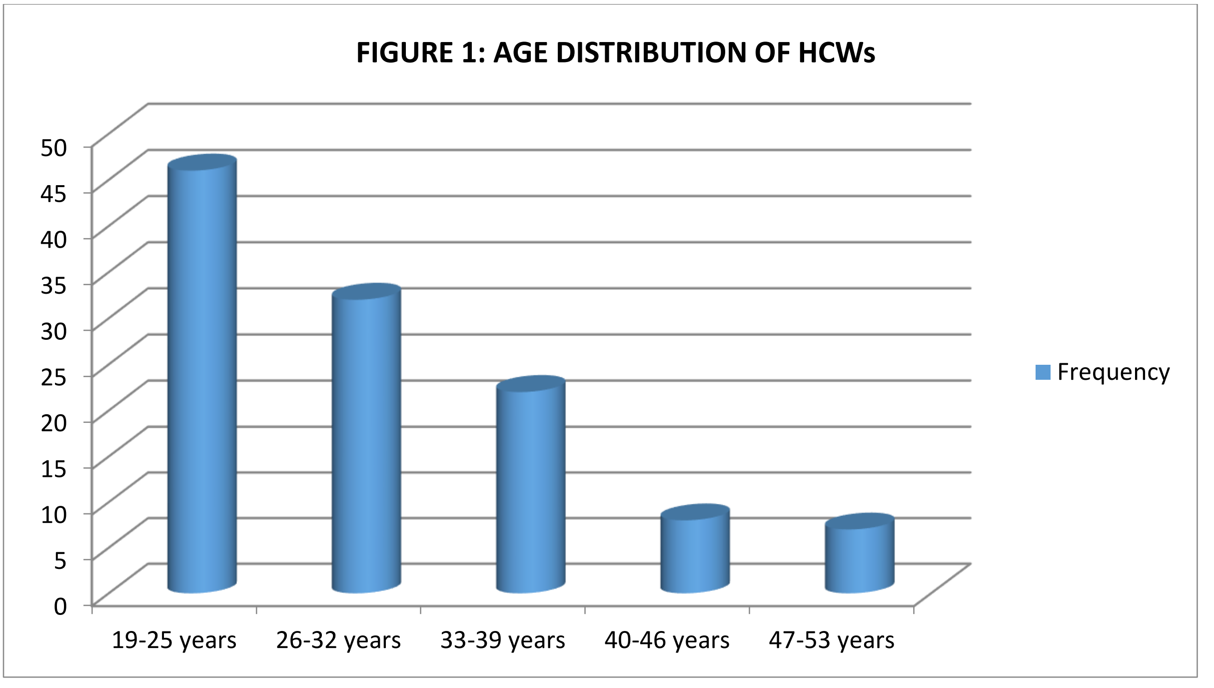

Table 2: ACCEPTABILITY OF VACCINE AS MEASURED BY 3-DOSAGE REGIMEN COMPLETION IN THE STUDY POPULATION

AGE GROUPING	DOSAGE COMPLETED	DOSAGE UNCOMPLETED
19-25 years	14 (30.43%)	32 (69.57%)
26-32 years	15 (46.88%)	17 (53.12%)
33-39 years	15 (68.18%)	7 (31.82%)
40-46 years	8 (100%)	nil
47-53 years	7 (100%)	nil

Source: cross-sectional study 2021- 2022.

Table 2 test result above shows that only 14 (30.43%) practitioners (n=46) in the majority age group (19-25 years) investigated completed their dosage regimen for the HBV recombinant vaccination while 32 (69.57%) of the population are left with uncompleted dosage regimen. Likewise, in the 26-32 years' age group, 15 (46.88%) practitioners completed their dosage regimen while 17 (53.12%) of them left their vaccination regimen uncompleted. 15 (68.18%) practitioners in the 33-39 years' age group completed their vaccination regimen while 7 (31.82%) did not. All practitioners in the age groups 40-46 years and 47-53 years completed their dosage regimen 8 (100%) and 7 (100%) respectively. The study shows that the HBV recombinant vaccine is more readily acceptable among the older practitioners than in the younger ones in the study environment.

Table 3: MARITAL STATUS DISTRIBUTION OF THE HEALTHCARE WORKERS

Marital Status	Completed Dosage regimen	Uncompleted Dosage regimen	Population Percentage Frequency
Single	20 (32%)	42(68%)	62 (54%)
Married	38 (72%)	15 (28%)	53 (46%)

Source: cross-sectional study 2021- 2022.

More than half of the study population (54%) was singles Table 3. The study shows that married practitioners (46%) were more likely to complete their vaccination regimen (72%) than single practitioners (28%). Figure 2

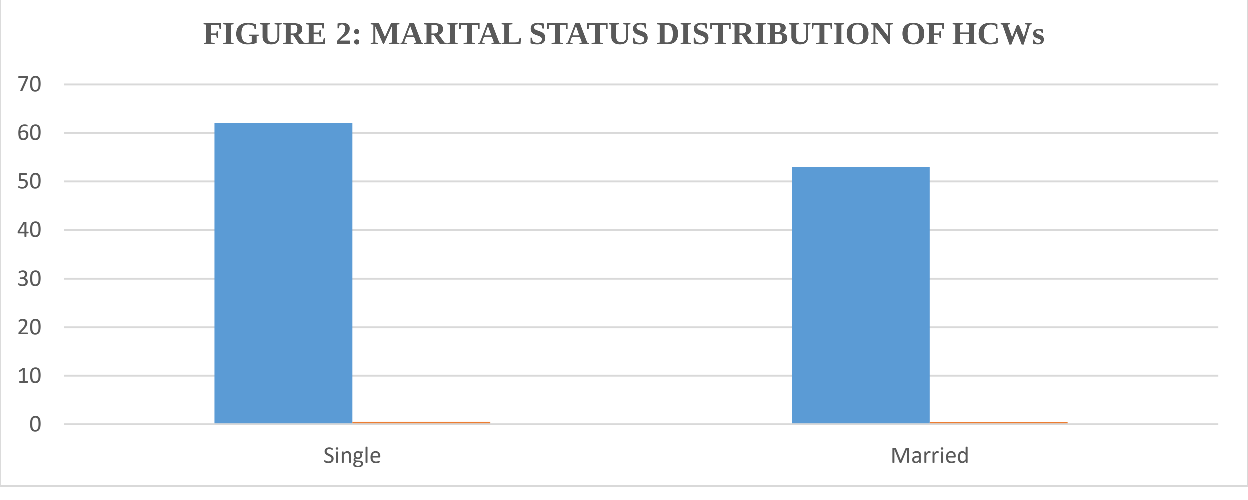

Table 4: GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF THE HEALTHCARE WORKERS

Gender	Completed Dosage regimen	Uncompleted Dosage regimen	Population Percentage Frequency
Male	29 (60%)	19(40%)	48 (42%)
Female	30 (45%)	37 (55%)	67 (58%)

Source: cross-sectional study 2021- 2022.

Majority of the HCWs included in the study where females (Table 4 and Figure 3) however, 55% of them did not completed their recombinant HBV vaccination dosage regimen Table 4. The study shows that male practitioners (60%) were more likely to complete their vaccination regimen than female practitioners (45%) as shown in Table 4

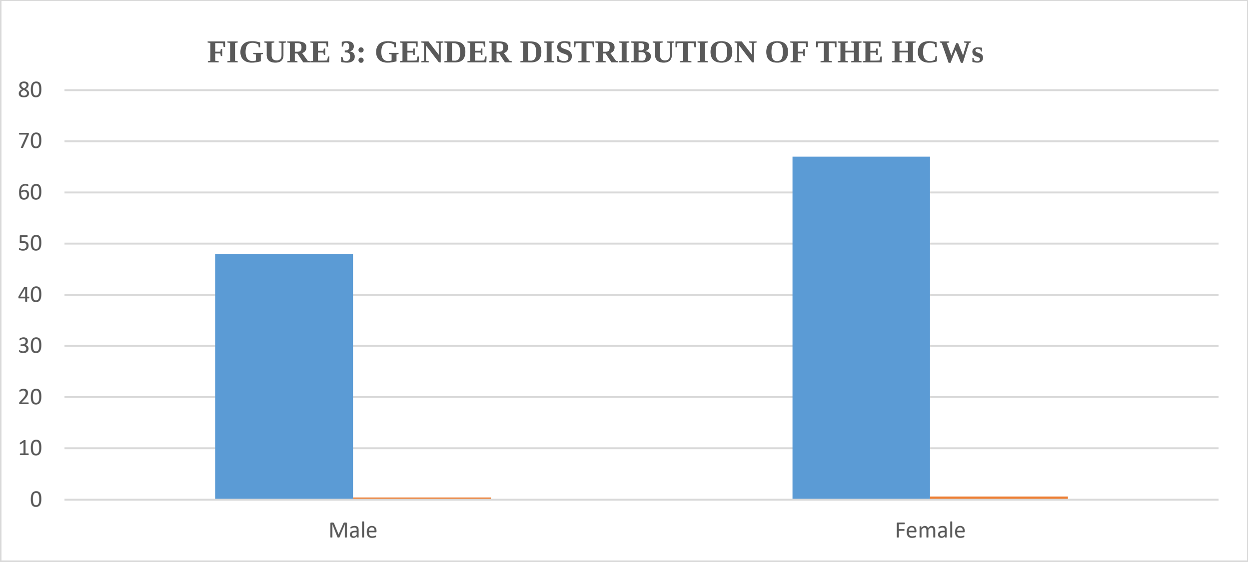

Table 5: JOB DESCRIPTION DISTRIBUTION OF THE HEALTHCARE WORKERS

Job Description	Completed Dosage regimen	Uncompleted Dosage regimen	Population Percentage Frequency
Nurses	27	30	57 (50%)
Doctors	18	3	21 (18%)
Janitors	4	14	18 (16%)
Lab workers	11	8	19 (17%)

Source: cross-sectional study 2021- 2022.

50% of the health care workers investigated were staff nurses.

Furthermore, the study revealed that Healthcare workers who stayed longer in training before practicing (doctors and lab scientists) were more likely to accept and complete the vaccine dosage regimen compared to those whose training years were shorter (nurses and janitors) Table 5.

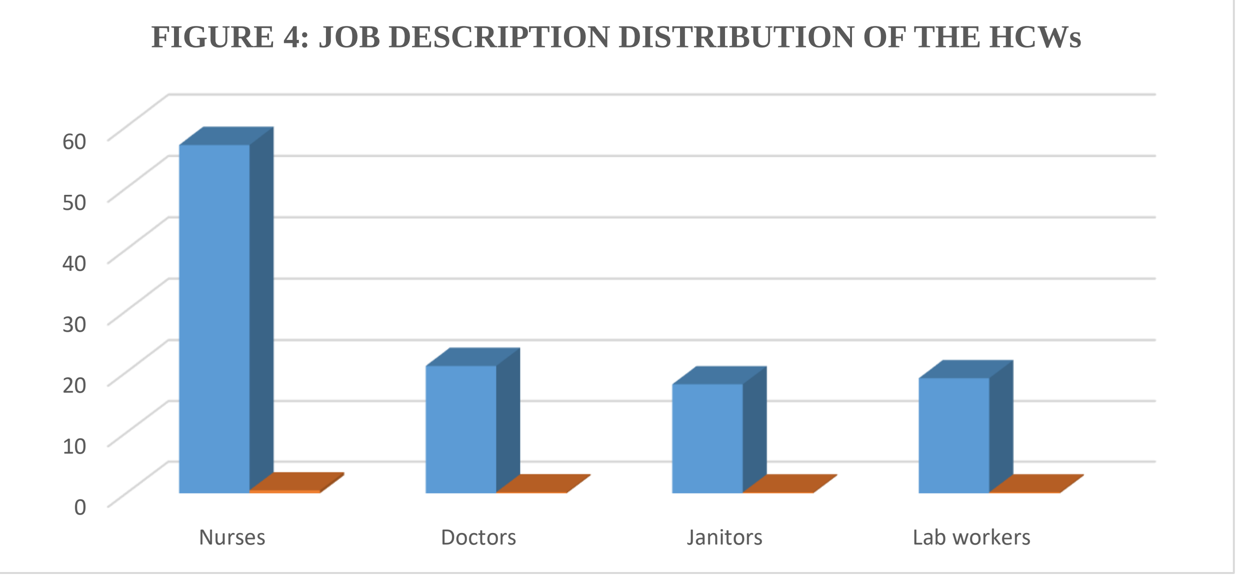

TABLE 6: COMPARING THE MEAN OF COMPLETED AND UNCOMPLETED VACCINATION REGIMEN AMONG THE AGE GROUPS

AGE GROUPING	DOSAGE COMPLETED	DOSAGE UNCOMPLETED
19-25 years	23.143	22.906
26-32 years	28.5	28.412
33-39 years	35.444	36.143
40-46 years	42.8	0
47-53 years	49.5	0
SUM	**179.387**	**87.461**
MEAN	**35.8774**	**17.4922**
STDEV	**10.60985899**	**16.64600346**

Source: cross-sectional study 2021- 2022.

The t-test analysis from Table 6 above shows that there is no statistical difference in the mean age groups of HCWs with completed and uncompleted vaccination regimen in the Hospitals understudied (P>0.05). The calculated t- value of 0.0758 is less than the critical value of 2.3646 at the 0.05 level of significance.

TABLE 7: COMPARING MEAN OF HCWs WITH COMPLETE AND UNCOMPLETED DOSAGE REGIMEN DURING THE YEARS OF STUDY

VACCINATION DATE	DOSAGE COMPLETED	DOSAGE UNCOMPLETED
2014	3	0
2015	3	1.75
2016	3	1.5
2017	3	1.5
2018	3	1.5
2019	3	1.54
2020	3	1.44
SUM	**21**	**9.23**
MEAN	**3**	**1.318571429**
STDEV	**0**	**0.589814337**

Source: cross-sectional study 2021- 2022.

Using the student's t-test to analyze Table 7, the mean vaccination date of HCWs with completed and uncompleted dosage regimen during the years of study is equal (P>0.05). The calculated t- value of 0.0003 is less than the critical value of 2.4469 at the 0.05 level of significance.

5. DISCUSSION

According to the World Health Organisation's criteria for HBV endemicity, (≥ 8%: high, 2–7%: moderate and < 2%: low) (Ott, Stevens, Groeger, Wiersma, 2012), Nigeria's overall pooled prevalence of HBV of 9.5% is high and is similar to that of Cameroon 11.2% (Bigna, Amougou, Asangbeh, Kenne, Noumegni, Ngo-Malabo, et al., 2017).

Applying the 9.5% prevalence to this figure translates into 20.083 million people who had HBV. Until recently when the WHO set the 2030 elimination goal for viral hepatitis, HIV/AIDS which affects an estimated 1.9 million persons in Nigeria (UNAIDS, 2021) had been receiving more public health priority. In Nigeria, the burden of viral hepatitis B requires continued improvement of screening, broader access to treatment and the integration of prevention and care in local healthcare systems. The WHO's ambitious goal to eliminate viral hepatitis by 2030 may not come into fruition if the trends in healthcare system are not realigned towards universal care in the face of this high prevalence. The availability of recombinant HB vaccines may not translate into its uptake. Although governments may provide the vaccines, their uptake is voluntary. In this study, we set out to determine the acceptability of the recombinant HB vaccines among the HCWs population under study. Our analysis shows that majority of the healthcare worker participants' case notes were aged 19-25 (46%) closely followed by age group 26-32 (32%) Table 1 and were mostly female (58%). For all the mean age groups, there were no statistical differences Table 6 (P>0.05) for those who completed their dosage regimen and those who did not except for the 40–46 years old and above categories. They were most likely to get vaccinated and completed their dosage regimen (100%) than those in the 19–25 years old (30%), 26-32 years old (46%) and 33-39 years old (68%) categories Table 2. Findings of this study can be used to guide future projections of vaccine uptake in Lagos state/ Nigeria and serve as a reference for designing and implementing effective public health management programmes towards the 2030 elimination goal.

Promoting the uptake of an emergency-released vaccine across a targeted population can pose significant challenges to public health authorities and failure to address such challenges could impede the country's unprecedented efforts in managing the HBV infections. Thus, identifying the factors that can either be a facilitator or a barrier in influencing intentions to uptake or decline the recombinant HBV vaccine is important. Such factors include high cost of vaccine in private facilities and non availability and or lack of awareness of vaccine availability in government facilities.

The results reveal that close to half of the healthcare worker case files (49%) in this study were unwilling to complete the vaccination regimen.

The vaccination acceptance rate was low and has been fluctuating over the period of years investigated in the study environment. However, the mean vaccination date of the HCWs with complete dosage regimen during the years of study is equal Table 7 (P>0.05).

Two reasons could explain this observed low rate. First, reasons for hesitancy to accept recombinant HB vaccines have been identified to include the extended dosage regimen. Secondly, this study was concluded just after the relief of the global lockdown by the COVID-19 pandemic. During that period, the dissemination of anti-vaccination misinformation on different social media platforms had intensified and this might have caused the creation of doubt about the novel or other vaccines.

Consistent with other previous findings from Turkey (Ozisik, Tanriover, Altinel, Unal, 2017) concerning the acceptance of influenza vaccinations, this study suggests concerns regarding the inadequate education/ awareness of HCWs to the occupational risk of HBV infection and vaccine's safety and efficacy and fear of adverse reactions as the most important predictors of vaccine refusal.

While there is a need to tailor effective outreach strategies aimed at addressing concerns related to vaccine safety and efficacy particularly among healthcare workers, the findings indicate that they need to be supplemented with building trust and ensuring transparency in the process of vaccine approval to achieve confidence and consequently improve vaccine acceptance.

In line with other studies (Brewer, Chapman, Gibbons, Gerrard, McCaul and Weinstein, 2007), the results of this study suggest an association between vaccine intention and healthcare workers' greater perceived risk of HBV infections to themselves in the older practitioners.

Majority, 88% of the HCW under investigation (n=101) took their vaccination from Government health facilities while the remaining 12% (n=14) took theirs in private facilities and none (n=115) of them returned for post vaccination serologic testing for antibody to hepatitis B surface antigen (Anti-HBs) recommended 1-2 months after the last vaccine dose. The lack of comprehensive data regarding sero-conversion after HBV vaccination among the healthcare workers present little evidence of the efficacy of the vaccine, the sero-conversion rate and duration of immunity among vaccinated HCWs in Nigeria. This ominous lack of post vaccination surveillance programs in Nigeria makes the detection and management of vaccine non-responders difficult. However, it is imperative to establish surveillance programmes to detect antibody decline and vaccine failure, particularly, among HCWs who are at a higher risk of infection in view of their heightened exposure and risk to infection.

1. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study provides an insight into the acceptability of the recombinant HBV vaccine among healthcare workers in selected hospitals in Lagos. Given that almost half of the population studied did not completed the dosage regimen for the vaccine, it is worrying that many of the HCWs did not intend to complete their vaccine dosage regimen, even though they are expected to be more knowledgeable and aware of the benefits and risks of vaccination. There is an urgent need, therefore, to design effective and evidence-based strategies to promote the recombinant HBV vaccine's uptake among healthcare workers. Healthcare workers are at great risk of contracting and spreading the infections and, unless wide-acceptance of the vaccine is achieved, the transmission of the virus would continue and recovery strategies would be hard to accomplish. Of particular importance is also the need for more awareness campaign and health-related education among healthcare workers in order to alleviate any fears associated with the vaccine. In the light of observations and findings, recommendations are given in what follows:

Further studies across the LGAs of Lagos state are required to better understand the extent of the acceptability of recombinant HBV vaccines among HCWs and their post vaccination surveillance in order to monitor progress towards HBV elimination. National guidelines should be developed to ensure healthcare workers are vaccinated early in training (as a compulsory requirement) in order to reduce the risk of their being infected during training and practice and also to optimize the effectiveness of vaccination. Rationalising immunization programmes to reducing the number of doses administered to healthy individuals is cost effective. Manufacturers should be supported in view of this since combined hepatitis A and hepatitis B vaccination has been shown to be highly immunogenic with subjects achieving rapid rises in antibody levels following immunization (Thoelen, Van Damme, Leentevaar-Kuypers, LerouxRoels, Bruguera and Frei, 1999). A systematic commitment to early prevention, diagnosis and clinical management represents a key component of the journey towards HBV elimination by 2030.

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ROLE OF THE ELITE IN ENHANCING PEACEFUL REINTEGRATION AND RESETTLEMENT OF TURKEY REFUGEES IN THE POST EARTHQUAKE ERA

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Abstract

The majority of refugees in Turkey are concentrated in the southern part of the nation, notably the Hatay province, which borders Syria. A lot of them, including the internally displaced, were affected either by conflicts or natural disaster, notably, the 1999 earthquake. The post-earthquake era saw hundreds of refugees and internally displaced in Turkey, and as a result, much is expected from both the government and the elites in ensuring their reintegration and peaceful resettlement. The paper therefore assesses the extent to which the elites have responded thus far. In doing so, it explores several literatures from past researchers, and other relevant documents. The methods adopted by the paper is a combination of content, thematic and conceptual analyses. It adopts the elites framework as its theoretical underpinning. The theory, according to Pareto suggests that the most talented and deserving people would make up the elites in a society with truly unrestricted social mobility. The paper discusses the crust of the subject matter by observing the plight of the IDPs and refugees in Turkey, and how they are being integrated back into the society. Furthermore, it views the effect of the earthquake as well as the roles played by both the government and elites in helping the refugees resettle. The conclusion of the paper suggests that if the elites could partner with some of the civil society groups, their roles would be positively spoken of. As a way of recommendation, the paper suggests that the elites in Turkey be advised to reconsider sitting on the fence regarding global issues that affects lots of people.

Keywords: Elites, Earthquake, Turkey, Reintegration, Refugees, Government

INTRODUCTION

Many of the institutions, rules, and customs that characterized Turkey during the 20th century began to come apart starting in the fall of 1999, opening the way for an uncertain future for the nation and its citizens. The long-term, sluggish transition culminated in a rapid phase of change in the last years of the 20th century, which is expected to have an impact on all facets of life in the nation. Many individuals are nervous and afraid during this time of uncertainty, yet some people also feel hopeful and optimistic. Rahmi Koç one of the most influential industrialists in Turkey put it this way: “We are surfing on the crest of a terrific wave... a series of events have cleared our way to the future. We have passed a highly significant turning point” (Kinzer, 2000). Few individuals would deny that Turkey has entered a new stage in its history over the past year, even though the specific interpretation of these developments depends on the perspective from which they are witnessed or experienced.

The Izmit-Golcik earthquake of August 17, 1999, sparked a surge of sympathy in Greece for the victims, and the prompt response to the catastrophe by the Greek government and voluntary aid organizations was widely covered in Turkish media, inspiring a great sense of gratitude throughout Turkey. A little over a month later, the Turkish side reciprocated. After the earthquake that struck Athens on September 7, 1999, the rescue efforts of Turkish relief organizations—particularly the highly skilled volunteer group AKUT—were highly regarded throughout Greece.

Was there really a fundamental shift in how immigrants felt about Turkey and Turks as a result of the earthquakes? Or did the earthquakes merely serve as catalysts to bring about a fundamental transformation that was long overdue? Before the 1999 earthquakes, there had been a big but modest step in the right direction. But it wasn't until after the earthquake tragedies that things really started to improve. Nonetheless, it is still unclear whether the post-1999 rapprochement represents an unstoppable process of change and an improvement in neighbourly ties.

Meanwhile, Turkey has limited its interpretation of the 1951 Convention to only apply to Europeans who are seeking refuge or asylum in Turkey, despite the fact that it has signed the Convention. As a result, providing sanctuary in the area is not based on "rights," but rather is dependent on the institutions and cultural norms of hospitality and altruism. Over time, it has become known that these traditions also foster parallel ideas of enmity and austerity. At either the individual or state level, hospitality is never unlimited (Chatty, 2016).

The UN does not manage any refugee camps in Turkey, but it does offer some assistance through alliances with organizations like UNICEF and the World Food Programme. This has political overtones. In the past, issues in the area have been handled through formal government channels without the need for refugee camps. The majority of refugees in Turkey are concentrated in the southern part of the nation, notably the Hatay province, which borders Syria. A quarter to a third of the Syrian refugees entering Turkey go to camps. There is a waiting list for refugees who want to use the alleged five-star service provided at these Turkish government camps due to the overall management of the facilities.

The background of the paper therefore highlighted the plight of the refugees in Turkey, and how earthquake is a major cause of concern, even among the elite. It is against this backdrop that the paper explores the role of the elite in integrating the refugees in Turkey back into the society. The paper is layered into seven sections. Section one is the introduction and section two focuses on the conceptual discourse. The third section explains the methodology employed, and the fourth section discusses the theoretical framework, after which the next section discusses the subject matter. Section six concludes the paper, and section seven gives relevant recommendations.

CONCEPTUAL DISCOURSE

- **Elites**

Elites are to be defined specifically in reference to the mechanisms of dominance that make them up. Elites are those social groups that rule over a society or a particular sphere of social life. So, in its broadest definition, the term "elite" refers to individuals who hold the most influential positions in hierarchical structures of dominance. These structural positions can be used to identify elites in any culture. Because they belong to a purely formal category, elite members may not create a cohesive, solidaristic social group and need only have a few relationships with one another. Such solidarity can only exist when the members of an elite are bound together in predictable and recurring patterns of connection due to social mobility, leisure time socializing, education, intermarriage, and other social relations.

No matter how closely related social classes and status groupings may be in reality, elites can be analytically separated from them. Yet, the propensity to mix up these ideas and utilize them interchangeably has been one of the persistent issues in elite research. For example, the terms "economic elite" and "capitalist class" can both be used to refer to various privileged, advantageous, or powerful economic groupings. If the elite notion is to retain its analytical potency—the sole foundation that allows for a thorough understanding of the dynamics of power—this inclination must be resisted.

The resources used to acquire and exercise power have an impact on how circumstances of class and status are created. Weber believed that class and status should be viewed as components of the distribution of power because of this. The allocation of resources creates "class conditions" that impact the life prospects of those who live there and serve as the cornerstones of social class formation when access to material resources is structured through property and market interactions (Scott, 1996).

In terms of analysis, privileged status groups and wealthy or propertied classes are very different from elites. Weber, who was quite explicit about the necessity to distinguish them from, in particular, the powers of command that exist in systems of authority, is greatly responsible for the analysis of class and status as components of the distribution of power

(Scott, 1996). Elites are chosen from among the social classes and estates, and as a result, they will display classed, gendered, raced, and other features. As a result, it could be challenging to distinguish between them in actual circumstances. A theoretically informed examination of power must draw the analytical distinction since the underlying principles and the processes of power are substantially different.

These justifications aid in the comprehension of how elite categories is organized into significant social groups. Although Weber did not use the word "elite" in his writings, his student Roberto Michels (1927) brought out the implications and connected them to concepts found in Mosca's (1923) and Pareto (1901; 1916)'s work. Any understanding of the structure and behaviour of elites must start with this work (Scott, 1990; 1994).

- **Refugees**

The most basic definition of a refugee is someone who has fled their home. All refugees have been compelled to leave their homes and find new ones, whether temporarily or permanently. While there are countless differences in social, cultural, and personal history, as well as the circumstances that led to flight, between each story of displacement, it is still true that all refugees have been compelled to flee their homes.

Given that losing one's home is a defining experience for persons who are displaced, migration and refugee studies should give special attention to the idea of home. Yet, it seems that discussions about home were less thorough and varied than may have been anticipated, which may have been influenced at least in part by what Wimmer and Glick-Schiller (2002) refer to as methodological nationalism.

Acccording to Marfleet, (2007), a person must seek shelter in another State because they are no longer able to dwell inside the boundaries of the State in which they were formerly residents, making them refugees. The significance of state membership is still quite clear for those refugees who do not have citizenship. In a time when the criteria for what qualifies as a "valid" cause for claiming asylum are constantly changing, refugees seeking protection are also aware of the inescapability of state power.

- **Peaceful Reintegration of Refugee**

Reintegration may be challenging in post-war society due to a lack of both basic infrastructure and means of subsistence. In this approach, post-conflict difficulties could rekindle violence and armed conflict. We must be aware of the difficulties faced by particular reintegration programs if we are to lessen the potential danger to stability that returnee reintegration poses. Reintegrating refugees who have returned home is viewed by experts in peace and security studies as a component of peace building, which strives to stop war-torn nations from relapsing into violence (Petrin 2002; Harpviken 2008; Jarstad & Sisk 2008; Paris & Sisk 2009). Although the potential contribution of reintegration to peacebuilding is acknowledged, less is known about the characteristics that make return and reintegration successful.

The differences and challenges in how different theoretical perspectives on refugee studies conceptualize refugee repatriation and reintegration are highlighted (Black and Gent 2004). One of them (Anthony 1991; Helman & Ratner 1992; Loescher & Milner 2003; Rotberg 2004; Hammerstad 2005) proposes all-encompassing responses to post-war challenges, including addressing issues of failed states, broken ties between state and society, socio-economic problems, as well as human rights. Additionally, this method acknowledges the relevance of refugee experience to the study of forced migration. The term "refugee experience" refers to "human effects of forced migration—personal, social, economic, cultural, and political" (Ager, 1999: 2). There is no "one-size-fits-all approach" for post-war intervention, which accounts for the differences and challenges in how scholars conceptualize refugee repatriation and reintegration (Black & Gent 2004). Studies analysing reintegration through connections to particular obstacles in particular historical and modern conflict situations are thus required.

METHODOLOGY

The methodology used in this paper is a mixture of content analysis, thematic and conceptual approaches. Due to the nature of the problem under investigation, qualitative method was used in data collection. Qualitative method mainly depends on secondary source of data like historical documents, books, magazines, journal articles, websites, etc. However, it is the nature of our investigation that defines this method of data collection adopted. The study adopted a content analysis approach whereby data was mainly obtained through extensive literature from books, scholarly journal articles and relevant internet materials. Each of the data used to conduct this study is relevant to the study and it enabled the reliability and credibility of the study.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study adopts the Elites Theory as its theoretical underpinning. The writings of Gaetano Mosca (1858–1941), Vilfredo Pareto (1848–1923), Robert Michels (1876–1936), and Max Weber (1876–1936) are where elite theory first appears. Mosca (1939) underlined how small groups may outmanoeuvre and outsmart powerful majorities, and he added that political classes, which he used to refer to political elites, can had "a certain material, intellectual, or even moral superiority" over the people they rule.

The most talented and deserving people, according to Pareto (1916/1935)'s theory, would make up the elites in a society with truly unrestricted social mobility; however, in actual societies, the elites are those who are best at using the two methods of political rule—force and persuasion—and who typically benefit from significant advantages like inherited wealth and family connections. Following Machiavelli, Pareto drew two different types of governing elites and compared them to foxes and lions (Marshall, 2007).

In order for large organizations to function well, Michels (1915/1962) rooted elites in the necessity for leaders and experts; as these people come to control budgets, information flows, promotions, and other organizational functioning factors, power is consolidated in their hands (Linz, 2006).

According to Weber (1978), the principle of small numbers, or more specifically, the superior political shrewdness of small leading groups, always governs political action. This Caesarism aspect is unavoidable in mass states. The best-case scenario is an elite-dominated democracy. It has elected parliaments and other offices, but the people who hold these positions don't truly get to choose who represents them; instead, professional politicians and other power brokers impose themselves or have their cronies impose them.

Democracies, in the opinion of Mosca and Michels, are never more than contests between elites, whose choices are drastically limited and whose interests are blatantly distorted. Weber (1978) wished for the emergence of separate leader democracies characterized by charismatic leaders' dominance over parliamentary professionals, party apparatuses, and state bureaucracy (Körösényi, 2005). Pareto (1901/1968) was less optimistic, stating that the best-case scenario is a "demagogic plutocracy," in which a coalition of fox-like politicians and profit-seeking businessmen dominate by deceit, demagogy, and the bribery of various interests. Pareto, however, contends that such strategies and ploys include distributing money as opposed to creating it, killing the goose that lays the golden egg over time through a demagogic plutocracy.

Many Democrats and social revolutionaries disagree with the "futility thesis," which was advanced by early elite theorists (Femia, 2001). They have aimed to show that certain elites are merely those who have a social advantage in power struggles rather than possessing superior assets or organizational capabilities. According to proponents of this theory, eliminating the social advantages that some people enjoy or the power concentrations that fuel rivalry among them—remedies that frequently go hand in hand—can both end the existence of elites. Yet, there are no examples in history when these treatments have been used effectively in a sizable population for any appreciable period of time.

The idea of elites coming from movements and organizations may lead to a wide variety of elite origins, contradicting the idea of elites as a tiny group, which is why the current definition of elites is frequently questioned (Cammack, 1990). As elite theory recognizes that elites can originate from anywhere as long as they can locate the resources to wield power, this is a significant theoretical issue. Hence, elites might originate from the business and state sectors as well as the guerrilla, union, media, NGOs, and various social movements.

Elite theory, however, restricts elites to a necessary minority. Hence, anyone—though certainly not everyone—could someday join the elite if given the right tools.

The theory is appropriate for this study as it explores the actions and inactions of the elites in Turkey after the earthquake that rendered many homeless. Some of these elites were once desolate, while some were born into affluence. The weakness of this theory in relation to this study is that it categorises only those whom haven't been affected by the earthquake as elites, whereas there were lots of the refugees whom were once elites.

THE PLIGHT OF IDPs AND REFUGEES

A new era marked by the end of the Cold War has seen the emergence of new worldwide problems that call for new international solutions. Although they also happened during the Cold War era, civil conflicts and the difficulties they bring with them currently garner more attention in global public opinion. From the 1990s onward, hundreds of thousands of refugees escaping violent conflicts have crossed borders to seek safety in other nations, compared to the Cold War era, when individual petitions for asylum were more frequent in western countries. As a result, the predicament of refugees and those seeking asylum is more widely known (UNHCR, 2004).

Internal displacement is a critical human rights issue in Turkey, but it also has global implications since when displaced people crossed international borders, they frequently turn into asylum seekers. In the course of the fighting in the 1990s, 12,000 or so Kurds entered Iraq through Turkey. Almost 9,000 of them made their home in the Makhmour Refugee Camp; 2,600 of them left for Turkey in the years that followed (Deng, 2002).

One of Turkey's most pervasive human rights breaches over the past 20 years has been internal displacement, which has impacted the greatest group of individuals. The study issued by the parliamentary research panel appointed in 1997 to analyse internal displacement indicated that the eviction of villagers represented a breach of a number of fundamental rights. As the war ended and Turkey was designated as an EU candidate in 1999, the discussion of internal displacement changed course. The government's acceptance of the UN's knowledge and support in this area was the most significant development during this time. The pivotal moment came in 2002 when Francis Deng, the Envoy, was invited to Turkey by the Turkish government.

Without a coordinated and compassionate global response, this issue will only worsen due to the persistence of the world's refugee-producing conditions, the lack of progress in finding viable and long-term solutions for protracted refugees, and the recurrent appearance of new refugee-producing situations (Nordland, 2015). The developed states' well-honed tactics to restrict access to protection through border externalization, immigration enforcement, onerous procedures, and narrow interpretations that go against the spirit, intent, and frequently the letter of international law are also partly to blame for the global refugee crisis (Schoenholtz, 2015; Hathaway & Gammeltoft-Hansen, 2014). Border externalization techniques put the burden of protecting refugees on less developed countries close to crises (UNGA, 2016).

The worldwide refugee problem can also be attributed to public indifference and inadequate official duty sharing in the form of conventional long-term fixes and authorized refugee movement options (UNHCR 2015d). Similar to other human rights conventions, the Refugee Convention does not outline a "precise balance of responsibility" between states or provide a detailed plan for every scenario, but it does acknowledge that providing for refugees is a shared responsibility that should be handled with generosity and cooperation (GoodwinGill, 2003).

Despite the fact that less than 1% of refugees are finally resettled in third countries (DOS, 2015a), this option supports more long-term fixes including safe repatriation and incorporation into host communities. Although the UNHCR (UNHCR 2014a) estimated that 960,000 refugees would need to be resettled in 2015, it only referred 134,000 cases for resettlement and only 107,100 refugees "departed" to a third country, with 90% of them being resettled in the United States, Canada, and Australia (UNHCR 2016).

PEACEFUL REINTEGRATION AND RESETTLEMENT OF REFUGEES

Conflicts dividing nations along ethnic, linguistic, religious, or racial lines are difficult to heal. It is insufficient to provide the displaced populations with some humanitarian aid and development assistance and to nudge them toward resettling. To bind together communities and create sustainable peace, something much more profound is required.

A national debate is required to address the reasons of the war, the numbers and circumstances of the displaced, and the measures that must be done to ensure effective return or resettlement in order to achieve this restructure. According to a recently developed framework by Walter Kälin, the current UN Secretary-Representative General's on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons, ending displacement is a process that requires the displaced to successfully reintegrate and regain the full exercise of their human rights.

Turkey has worked to show its dedication to democracy and human rights, minority protection, and the effective reintegration of its displaced population ever since it applied to join the EU as a candidate in 1999. Whatever the driving force, however, there has been change in Turkey, with the government appearing to be coming around to the idea that resolving the tensions and divisions that have caused bloodshed and displacement is in Turkey's best interest. Yet it's still unclear how seriously the displacement issue will be taken. There are rifts in the government, the military, and society that could threaten policies that support material aid, protection, reintegration, and development aid for uprooted Kurds as well as policies that are more open and tolerant toward minorities.

Due, for instance, to the inability to guarantee safety in areas where return took place, the lack of assistance for reintegration, the lack of compensation for lost property, and the illegal occupation of land by individuals other than its legitimate owners, the issue of internal displacement could not be deemed resolved for a country. For instance, indigenous communities who were internally displaced in Turkey returned home to no land.

Because some outsiders claimed property rights on these grounds, the natives who held customary rights on agricultural fields suffered. These instances demonstrate that returning alone does not adequately determine whether displacement is no longer an issue in Turkey.

EFFECTS OF THE MARMARA EARTHQUAKE AND THE ROLE OF THE ELITES

Both a natural and political catastrophe, the Marmara earthquake of August 17, 1997 was devastating. The incident not only caused death and ruin, but it also exposed flaws in the Turkish political system (Ozerdem & Barakat, 2000). For a lengthy variety of issues, national and local governments, the Red Crescent, and the military all received harsh condemnation. It was discovered that the State Earthquake Fund only had the equivalent of $2 in it. Government officials were charged with accepting bribes in order to approve poor construction that collapsed with a significant number of fatalities. It took a while for relief teams and supplies to arrive, and Turkish Red Crescent officials were revealed to have embezzled money and sold donated equipment.

If anything good came out of this tragedy, it was the part that Turkish citizens and civic organizations performed. Individuals flocked to the area in an effort to find casualties, provide food and medication, and construct shelters for the displaced. To improve the efficiency of their operations, numerous organizations banded together to create the Civic Coordination Centre (CCC). Some, like Search and Rescue Association (AKUT), rose to fame in the media for their bravery, which was in sharp contrast to the performance of governmental institutions. Civil society's response to natural disasters is a recurrent phenomenon, and experts in disaster relief have remarked that these crises "often bring changes in the structure of community leadership" and offer "potential" for important political and social change (Cuny, 1983).

The state's response to civil society was one of its biggest challenges. Government representatives criticized AKUT immediately after the earthquake, saying that it was seeking to harm the state's reputation while doing little to aid its citizens. The authorities claimed that only the Red Crescent was permitted to conduct humanitarian work, thus several organizations had their bank accounts suspended or materials seized. Islamic organizations claimed the authorities acted arbitrarily and in favouritism, allowing some people to work while harassing others.

In essence, the elites, whom are mostly political, played behind the scene, while obstructing the common man to help one another.

Leaders of organizations like Turkish Education Volunteers, Human Resource Foundation, Human Settlement Foundation, Lions and Rotary Clubs, which have remained among the busiest and wealthiest, are apolitical or steer clear of Turkey's most contentious political problems. There hasn't been a relationship between groups in civil society and overtly political organisations like parties since many people believed that being involved in politics would compromise their relief efforts or result in pressures from above.

In the immediate aftermath of the earthquake, influential elites in Turkish civil society, particularly business groups, mainly remained silent and refrained from openly criticizing the government. While their actions would have created a huge influence, their inaction created rather a disturbing ambience in the entire country. Without much argument, with the common man suffering at this post earthquake period, the refugees and IDPs, particularly those whose houses were ruined, remained greatly affected by the indifference of the elites and the antagonistic nature of the government.

The expectations of the people towards the elites were much more than what was seen. For one, it was expected that other than providing charities to the affected, the elites are in better position to criticize the government and ensure that the affected are peacefully and appropriately integrated back into the society.

CONCLUSION

It has become obvious that that self-settlement is emerging as preferable to encampment of refugees. Encampment was seen as creating conditions for local accommodation, and potentially a return and re-integration into Turkey's many social communities. This is one of the major roles that is expected of both the government and elites of the country. The campers are mostly psychologically affected and needs to be rehabilitated and peacefully integrated back into society. If the elites could partner with some of the civil society groups, their roles would be positively spoken of. In the region of the refugees, there is a demand for neighbourhood drop-in centres that provide chances for informal education and technical training. Practitioners and refugees frequently advised language training, psycho-social support, and skill development as ways to help local residents find housing and give a lost generation of young people a future. Despite multiple studies pointing out gaps, opportunities for young Turkish refugees to pursue an education have not been widely made available. As a result, the UN motto "No lost generation" is little more than that—just a slogan.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The paper considers the roles of the elites in regards to the integration of refugees in Turkey, focusing on the post-earthquake era. After the study of the several literatures discussed in this paper, the following recommendations are given:

1. Government policies and programs should seek to avert further displacement, reintegrate those currently displaced, and isolate those who would use violence. For instance, measures should be put in place to alert people before a natural disaster occur. In that regards, they should be provision for the safety of lives and properties should the disaster eventually occur.
2. Acknowledging the plight of the displaced in both rural and urban areas and developing effective policies.
3. programs to help them reintegrate is therefore critical not only for the lives of the displaced but also for the coherence and stability of the country as a whole.
4. The elites in Turkey are advised to reconsider sitting on the fence regarding global issues, particularly the earthquake which has rendered lots of people desolate

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TOWARDS A NEW AND BETTER FUTURE FOR DEMOCRACY AND DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Democracy and development are two interrelated concepts that have become central to the discourse on good governance in Nigeria. The country has a long history of political instability, economic underdevelopment, and social inequality, which has made the attainment of democratic governance and sustainable development elusive. This paper examines the challenges facing Nigeria's democracy and development and proposes strategies for addressing these challenges. The methodology adopted is the content analysis approach. The paper adopted structuration theory. The goal of the structuration theory is to shed light on the dialectical interaction and dual nature of agency and structure. The paper concludes that a new and better future for democracy and development in Nigeria is possible if the country adopts a participatory and inclusive approach to governance, promotes transparency and accountability, and invests in human capital development. It recommends that Nigeria's democratic institutions, including the judiciary, civil service, and security agencies, should be strengthened to ensure their independence and effectiveness.

Keywords: Democracy, Development, Governance, Nigeria, Economy

INTRODUCTION

There is little doubt that the New World Order that followed the end of the Cold War had a profound impact on the global system. One prominent aspect of its impacts is the global resurgence of democratization; or to borrow the word developed by Huntington (1991), it has brought about the 'third wave' of democratization. Some academics believe that this development—the hegemonic emergence of liberal democracy as the ultimate form of human government—has put an end to the contest over which form of government is ideal (Fukuyama, 1989).

The concepts of democracy and development are intertwined. Many viewpoints on the concepts exist, each affected by history, philosophy, discipline, and experience (Igwe, 2010). A democracy is a form of administration in which all members of a state or polity participate in the selection of representatives to a parliament or other comparable body, usually through popular vote. Democracy is rapidly spreading around the world as a result of its capacity to offer fundamental conditions for effective governance and growth (Ardo, 2000).

The main justification for Nigeria's desire for democracy over military control was that democracy would promote national growth (Omotola, 2007). This optimism was based on the idea that democracy, by its very nature, promotes progress (Pel, 1999; Somolakae, 2007; Jamo, 2013). Also, democracy has gained a lot of acceptance due to the widespread recognition it has among international organizations.

For instance, a democratic nation has the chance to get greater aid because resources are set aside for nations that have abandoned dictatorship and adopted a multi-party political system (Saliu, 2010). A democratic nation can also simply ask for help from other nations to advance her development.

Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa and the largest economy on the continent. However, despite its immense human and natural resources, the country has been plagued by political instability, economic underdevelopment, and social inequality for many decades. Since gaining independence from British colonial rule in 1960, Nigeria has experienced several military coups, civil wars, and political crises that have undermined the development of democratic institutions and hindered progress towards sustainable development.

In recent years, there has been renewed optimism about Nigeria's prospects for democracy and development. The country has made significant strides in democratization, with the peaceful transition of power from one civilian government to another in 2015. However, Nigeria's democracy is still fragile, with persistent challenges such as corruption, political violence, and human rights abuses.

Similarly, Nigeria's economic development has been hampered by structural constraints such as poor infrastructure, inadequate human capital, and an over-reliance on natural resources. Despite these challenges, there are opportunities for Nigeria to build a new and better future for democracy and development. This paper examines the challenges facing Nigeria's democracy and development and proposes strategies for addressing these challenges.

It is against this backdrop that the paper focuses towards a new and better future for democracy and development in Nigeria. The paper is structured into four sections. The first is the introduction, and the second section focuses on the literature. The third section is the methodology, while the fourth section concludes the paper.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

▪ Concept of Democracy

According to Diamond (2004), democracy can be described in terms of four principles: a political system that allows for free and fair elections to choose and replace the government; active citizen participation in politics and civic life; protection of all citizens' human rights; and rule of law, where all citizens are treated equally under the law.

Democracy is the most inclusive form of government in comparison to dictatorships, oligarchies, monarchies, and aristocracies, in which the people have little to no influence over who is elected and how the government is run. Instead, input from those who represent the people is used to determine the country's direction (Kolar, 2005).

According to Musa (2011), democracy is based on the equality of citizens, the freedom of these citizens to collaborate with one another to realize their ideals, the defence and promotion of their interests, and the freedom of these citizens to select between the various political platforms and candidates, and ensure that the platforms they have voted for are actualized, should their choices win. It rejects arbitrary decision-making and authoritarianism. Democracy upholds the will of the governed and defends human dignity and morals (Ake, 2001).

Whether liberal or socialist, democracy is characterized by the fundamental recognition of popular sovereignty, equality of opportunity for all, majority rule, representativeness, minority rights, freedom of choice between alternative programs, public consultation, agreement on fundamental issues, and, most importantly, regular elections (Oke, 2005).

▪ Concept of Democracy in Nigeria

The concept of democracy in Nigeria is one that has evolved over time, with different interpretations and practices in different eras. However, the fundamental principles of democracy, including the rule of law, popular sovereignty, and respect for human rights, have been enshrined in Nigeria's Constitution since the country's transition to civilian rule in 1999. According to Oyewole (2016, p. 18), democracy in Nigeria is "a form of government in which the supreme power is vested in the people and exercised directly or indirectly through a system of representation, usually involving periodic free and fair elections" This definition reflects the basic tenets of democratic governance, which emphasize the importance of popular participation in decision-making processes and the need for accountable and transparent institutions.

In Nigeria, the democratic process is governed by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), which is responsible for organizing and supervising elections at all levels of government. The country's electoral process has been the subject of much scrutiny, with allegations of vote rigging, violence, and other forms of malpractice being common.

Despite these challenges, Nigeria's democratic institutions have shown resilience, with the peaceful transfer of power from one civilian government to another in 2015 being seen as a landmark achievement. However, the country's democracy is still fragile, with persistent challenges such as corruption, political violence, and human rights abuses.

To strengthen Nigeria's democracy, there is a need for greater citizen engagement and participation in governance processes, as well as a commitment to transparency and accountability. As Okereke notes, "a democratic culture must be developed and nurtured through the provision of the necessary enabling environment, such as an independent judiciary, a free press, a vibrant civil society, and a political leadership committed to democratic principles" (Okereke, 2019, p. 22).

- **Concept of Development**

Development is a significant idea and one of the most essential components for maintaining human society. As colonial expansion continued, development gained popularity and underwent a number of changes as the global socio-political landscape evolved (Isham, 2009). Development was viewed during the colonial era as having colonies, structuring European societies and their labour and market forces by destabilizing non-European colonies (Hoogvelt, 2001).

Economic growth and development go hand in hand. Sen (1983) defines economic development as the ongoing, coordinated efforts of communities and policymakers to raise the standard of life and economic health of a given region. Development can also be seen as a process of constructive societal change. Social change can relate to the idea of social advancement or socio-cultural evolution, especially the philosophical view that society advances through dialectical or evolutionary causes.

According to Rostow (1952), structural changes, savings, and investments in an economy all contribute to economic development and growth. However, due to the inability of economic growth in the majority of developing nations in Latin America and Africa to provide corresponding social goods and address issues with unemployment, poverty, disease, hunger, illiteracy, and an increase in crimes and wars, new thinking and a broad human-centred approach to development were required (Nwanegbo & Odigbo, 2013).

Chandler (2007) views development as a more comprehensive idea that acknowledges psychological and material variables for gauging human well-being. (Rodney, 1972; Nnoli, 1981; Ake, 2001) Development must be person-centred, entail the process of empowering individuals to realize their potential, and increase the knowledge capacity to harness nature to meet daily human requirements. Key signs of development include the social landscape changing and the introduction of new social and economic institutions (Nwanegbo & Odigbo, 2013).

Development can be summed up as the observable improvements in human capital, economic development, and social advancement that can increase access to indicators of improved living conditions. Increased labour force, adequate housing, convenient transportation, an effective healthcare system, a high level of social cohesion, and, above all, unrestricted access to wealth-generating activities are some examples of these markers (Saliu, 2010). The goal of development is to improve living standards for everyone in society.

METHODOLOGY

This is a qualitative study which relied on existing published literature around the phenomena under investigation. The study is a combination of conceptual and theoretical review of literature. Much focus is placed on content-analysis and historical review. However, ethical consideration was to the sensitivity of the material in consonance with the subject of discussion.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Anthony Giddens' 1984 structuration theory serves as the foundation for this paper. The idea is one of the best-articulated attempts to combine agency and structure. (Ritzer, 2008). According to Giddens (1984), who was referenced by Ritzer (2008), every study in the social sciences or history involves linking action—often referred to as agency—to structure.

Giddens is not a Marxist, but there is a strong Marxian influence in his work, and he even views the structure of society as an extended reflection on Marx's inherently integrative dictum: Men make history, but they do not make it just as they please; they do not make history under circumstances chosen by themselves, but under circumstances directly encountered, given, and transmitted from the past. According to the idea of structuration, Giddens stated that social activities organized over time and place serve as the fundamental subject of study for the social sciences rather than the experiences of individual actors or the presence of any kind of social whole.

The goal of the structuration theory is to shed light on the dialectical interaction and dual nature of agency and structure. As a result, agency and structure cannot be thought of independently. They actually function as two sides of the same coin. Democracy and development could be seen as two sides of the same coin. Democracy, as a specific tool for governing a state with its guiding principles, could be compared to the agency, while development, as the structure, stands for a set of social practices that have been observed over time in various facets of human society. It was argued by Giddens the human practice which in this case is democracy (agency) must be continually renewed. Agents provide the conditions necessary for the structure (development and livelihood support) by their actions.

Additionally, if those charged with running the state through democratic means (agency) work to rationalize and put democratic principles into practice with a practical consciousness that emphasizes what is done rather than what is said, the result in the social (structure) will be development and improved living conditions. On the other hand, if actors (agency) fail to uphold and implement true democratic ideals like the rule of law, accountability, and openness, then structures may be constricted. Such a scenario will surely result in underdevelopment and poverty-stricken living conditions.

Regrettably, the second circumstance has been reflected in the situation in Nigeria. For example, the majority of Nigerians are unaware of the details of the national budget, such as the predicted revenue sources, recurrent and capital expenditures, and other explanations in detail, which would allow them to hold the leaders responsible. Without thorough stakeholder consultation, the political class in Nigeria (agency) develops such important policies, which has always had a negative impact on stakeholders' quality of life and development.

This element has had a negative impact on Nigerian democracy, restricting its potential for long-term growth and meaningful livelihood. The most thorough critique of Giddens' structuration theory was provided by Craib (1992), which was cited in Ritzer (2008). Giddens' work, in Craib's opinion, lacks "ontological depth" because of his emphasis on social processes. In other words, Giddens misses the social systems that support the social world. The theory can also be criticized for not taking into consideration the Nigerian colonial experience, the nature of democracy being practiced in Nigeria and also the fact that Nigeria is a multi-ethnic nation rather than the assumption that (agency) democracy enhances (structure) development \sand sustained livelihood.

CHALLENGES FACING DEMOCRACY AND DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Nigeria, despite being the largest economy in Africa, faces significant challenges to its development since its independence in 1960. The country has witnessed various democratic experiments, each with its challenges, and development has been slow despite the abundance of natural resources. These challenges are multi-faceted and span several sectors, from infrastructure to governance. In this section, we will discuss some of the key challenges facing development in Nigeria.

1. Corruption: Corruption is a significant challenge facing democracy and development in Nigeria. The country ranks 149 out of 180 countries in the 2020 Corruption Perception Index (CPI), indicating the level of corruption in the country. Corruption affects governance, economic growth, and development (Transparency International, 2021).
2. Insecurity: Insecurity is another significant challenge facing Nigeria. The country has been plagued by terrorism, banditry, kidnapping, and herdsmen-farmers clashes, which have led to loss of lives and property. The insecurity situation has affected social and economic activities, leading to underdevelopment in the affected areas (Nwanolue, 2020).
3. Weak institutions: Nigeria's institutions are weak, and this affects governance and development. The judiciary, police, and electoral commission are not independent, and this has affected democratic processes in the country. The lack of trust in institutions affects governance and economic development (Idris, 2021).
4. Poverty and inequality: Nigeria has a high poverty rate, with over 80 million people living below the poverty line. Inequality is also high, with a few individuals controlling a significant portion of the country's wealth.

Poverty and inequality affect access to education, healthcare, and social services, leading to underdevelopment (World Bank, 2021).

5. Unemployment: Unemployment is a significant challenge in Nigeria, with over 40 million people unemployed or underemployed. Unemployment affects economic development, as it reduces consumer spending and increases social tension. The lack of job opportunities has led to youth restiveness and crime (National Bureau of Statistics, 2021).
6. Weak infrastructure: Nigeria's infrastructure is weak, with inadequate power supply, poor road network, and lack of potable water. The poor state of infrastructure affects economic activities and development, leading to high cost of production and low competitiveness (World Bank, 2021).
7. Ethnic and religious tensions: Nigeria is a multi-ethnic and multi-religious country, and this has led to tensions and conflicts. The conflicts have affected governance and development, leading to underdevelopment in the affected areas. The conflicts have also led to loss of lives and property (Akpan, 2020).
8. Political instability: Nigeria has witnessed political instability since its independence. The frequent military coups and democratic transitions have affected governance and development, leading to a lack of continuity in policies and programmes. Political instability affects investor confidence and economic growth (Olayiwola, 2020).
9. Weak public service: Nigeria's public service is weak, and this affects service delivery and development. The lack of capacity and motivation among civil servants affects governance and development. The public service is also prone to corruption, leading to inefficiency and wastage (World Bank, 2021).
10. Illiteracy: Illiteracy is high in Nigeria, with over 60 million people unable to read and write. Illiteracy affects access to education, healthcare, and social services, leading to underdevelopment. Illiteracy also affects political participation and awareness (UNESCO, 2021).
11. Environmental degradation: Nigeria's environment has been degraded due to oil exploration, deforestation, and pollution. The degradation affects human health and economic activities, leading to underdevelopment. The environmental degradation also affects food security and water supply (Adegoke, 2020).

DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Development in Nigeria has been a topic of concern for decades. Despite the country's vast natural resources and potential for economic growth, several challenges have hindered development. These challenges include weak institutions, insecurity, poverty and inequality, unemployment, ethnic and religious tensions, political instability, illiteracy, and environmental degradation (Adeniran, 2019; Idris, 2021; Osuji & Nwachukwu, 2019).

However, there have also been efforts to promote development in Nigeria. The country has made progress in human development, with improvements in areas such as life expectancy, education, and income (Ezeah & Mbah, 2020). The Nigerian government has also implemented policies and programmes to address development challenges, such as the National Economic Recovery and Growth Plan and the National Social Investment Programme (Onyekuru, 2021; World Bank, 2021).

In recent years, Nigeria has experienced some economic growth, with a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of $432.29 billion in 2020 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2021). However, this growth has been uneven, with some regions and sectors experiencing greater development than others. The COVID-19 pandemic has also had a significant impact on Nigeria's economy and development progress.

To achieve sustainable development in Nigeria, it is crucial to address the underlying challenges and promote inclusive growth. This includes improving governance and strengthening institutions, addressing insecurity and conflict, reducing poverty and inequality, promoting job creation and entrepreneurship, improving education and literacy rates, and addressing environmental degradation (Oluwatosin, 2020; Udeaja & Okeke, 2020).

Furthermore, the following should be given utmost priority:

1. Economic Development: Economic development is a crucial aspect of development in Nigeria, given the country's status as a major oil-producing nation. According to Ogunleye and Ogunleye

(2018), economic development in Nigeria involves the sustainable use of natural resources, the diversification of the economy, and the creation of an enabling environment for businesses to thrive. This can be achieved through the implementation of sound economic policies, investment in infrastructure, and the promotion of entrepreneurship.

2. Human Development: Human development is another critical aspect of development in Nigeria. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) defines human development as the process of enlarging people's choices, promoting their capabilities, and enhancing their opportunities to live a fulfilling life (UNDP, 2020). This involves improving access to basic needs such as education, healthcare, and clean water, as well as promoting gender equality and reducing poverty.
3. Political Development: Political development is also a critical aspect of development in Nigeria, given the country's history of military rule and political instability. According to Adebayo (2018), political development involves the creation of democratic institutions and the promotion of good governance. This includes the rule of law, accountability, transparency, and citizen participation in decision-making processes.
4. Social Development: Social development involves the improvement of social indicators such as health, education, and poverty reduction. According to Ademiluyi, Aremu, and Omoniyi (2021), social development in Nigeria requires the implementation of policies that promote access to quality healthcare, education, and social welfare services. This can be achieved through the provision of social safety nets, health insurance schemes, and the expansion of educational opportunities.
5. Environmental Development: Environmental development is another critical aspect of development in Nigeria, given the country's vulnerability to climate change and environmental degradation. According to Abiodun and Ogbonna (2021), environmental development involves the promotion of sustainable environmental practices, conservation of natural resources, and the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions. This can be achieved through the implementation of policies that promote renewable energy, sustainable agriculture, and environmental conservation.
6. Technological Development: Technological development is another critical aspect of development in Nigeria, given the country's potential for technological innovation. According to Akinwale and Salami (2019), technological development involves the promotion of research and development, the adoption of new technologies, and the creation of an enabling environment for technological innovation. This can be achieved through the establishment of technology parks, research institutions, and the promotion of public-private partnerships.
7. Infrastructure Development: Infrastructure development is a crucial aspect of development in Nigeria, given the country's infrastructure deficit. According to Okafor and Onakoya (2019), infrastructure development involves the provision of basic infrastructure such as roads, water supply, and electricity. This can be achieved through the implementation of policies that promote public-private partnerships, foreign direct investment, and the creation of infrastructure development funds.

TOWARDS A BETTER DEMOCRACY IN NIGERIA

Nigeria has experienced several democratic transitions since its independence in 1960, but the country still faces significant challenges in its democratic journey. Some of these challenges include corruption, insecurity, political violence, voter apathy, and weak institutions. However, there are several steps that Nigeria can take to build a new and better democracy.

Firstly, there is a need for electoral reforms to ensure that the electoral process is transparent, free, and fair. This can be achieved through the introduction of electronic voting, the strengthening of the electoral commission, and the establishment of a mechanism for resolving electoral disputes. According to Adebanwi and Obadare (2019), the introduction of electronic voting can improve the credibility of the electoral process by reducing the incidence of ballot stuffing, voter intimidation, and vote-buying.

Secondly, there is a need for the government to promote political inclusiveness and reduce the marginalization of certain groups. This can be achieved through the promotion of affirmative action policies, the strengthening of the federal system, and the devolution of powers to the states. According to Olaniyi (2020), the devolution of powers to the states can lead to the decentralization of governance and promote greater citizen participation in decision-making processes.

Thirdly, there is a need for the government to promote transparency, accountability, and good governance. This can be achieved through the establishment of anti-corruption agencies, the promotion of media freedom, and the strengthening of the judiciary. According to Uzoechi and Oyibo (2020), the establishment of anti-corruption agencies can help to reduce corruption in public institutions, which can lead to improved service delivery and increased public trust in government.

Fourthly, there is a need for the government to address the issue of insecurity and political violence. This can be achieved through the reform of the security sector, the promotion of community policing, and the establishment of a national peace and reconciliation commission. According to Okoli and Nwankwo (2021), the reform of the security sector can help to improve the capacity of security agencies to respond to security threats, while the promotion of community policing can lead to greater citizen participation in the security process.

Finally, there is a need for the government to promote economic development and reduce poverty. This can be achieved through the diversification of the economy, the promotion of small and medium-sized enterprises, and the creation of employment opportunities. According to Ogunleye and Ogunleye (2018), the diversification of the economy can help to reduce the country's dependence on oil and create new economic opportunities for citizens.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the concept of democracy in Nigeria is one that is evolving, with the country still grappling with the challenges of democratic governance. However, there is optimism that Nigeria can build a more robust and sustainable democratic system, provided there is a commitment to the fundamental principles of democracy and a willingness to address the underlying structural constraints that have hindered progress towards democratic governance and sustainable development. Development in Nigeria is a complex and multifaceted issue that requires sustained effort and collaboration from various stakeholders. While there are challenges to overcome, there are also opportunities for progress and improvement. By addressing these challenges and promoting inclusive growth, Nigeria can achieve sustainable development and improve the quality of life for its citizens. The building of a new and better democracy in Nigeria requires the government to take proactive steps to address the challenges facing the country's democratic process. This includes electoral reforms, political inclusiveness, good governance, security sector reform, and economic development. With the implementation of these steps, Nigeria can build a more vibrant and inclusive democracy that promotes the welfare of its citizens.

RECOMMENDATIONS

While Nigeria has made progress towards a new democracy, there are still significant challenges that need to be addressed. The following are some recommendations for strengthening democratic governance in Nigeria:

1. Constitutional Reform: Nigeria's constitution should be revised to address the challenges facing the country, including strengthening the separation of powers, enhancing political participation, and ensuring greater accountability and transparency.
2. Electoral Reform: There is a need to reform the electoral process to ensure free, fair, and credible elections, including strengthening the independence of the electoral commission and promoting voter education.
3. Anti-Corruption Measures: The Nigerian government should strengthen its anti-corruption measures, including strengthening institutions such as the EFCC, and promoting transparency and accountability in public governance.
4. Strengthening Democratic Institutions: Nigeria's democratic institutions, including the judiciary, civil service, and security agencies, should be strengthened to ensure their independence and effectiveness.
5. Human Rights: The Nigerian government should respect human rights, including protecting the rights of marginalized communities, women, and children, and promoting media freedom.

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