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## GOVERNANCE & PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGEMENT

### **Published by**

Advanced Publishers, Nigeria  
www.internationalpolicybrief.org

© March 2018

**ISBN:** 978-051-074-5

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
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 **Dedication**

**Dedicated to the International Institute for Policy Review & Development Strategies for providing a platform and supporting Institutional and Collaborative Research and Sustainable Development.**

 **Acknowledgment**

**Contributors are greatly acknowledge for supporting the agenda towards achieving sustainable development in developing economies of the world, especially in Africa.**

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## Introduction

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### **Good Governance and Accountable Institutions are Key Elements in Public Sector Management**

**Bassey Anam**  
*Managing Editor*  
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**G**overnance entails two processes: *decision-making* and *implementation of the decision*. In broad terms, decision-making refers the process by which a person or group of persons, guided by socio-political structures, arrive at a decision involving their individual and communal needs and wants. Implementation is the process that logically follows the decision; it entails the actualization or materialization of the plan or decision. Governance is not just decision-making but identifying the best cost effective means of implementing such decision to enhance the welfare of the State and/or the governed.

We can apply our minds to the definition of governance provided by the World Bank in *Governance: The World Banks Experience*, as it has special relevance for the developing world: "Good governance is epitomized by predictable, open and enlightened policy-making, a bureaucracy imbued with a professional ethos acting in furtherance of the public good, the rule of law, transparent processes, and a strong civil society participating in public affairs. Poor governance (on the other hand) is characterized by arbitrary policy making, unaccountable bureaucracies, unenforced or unjust legal

systems, the abuse of executive power, a civil society unengaged in public life, and widespread corruption."

As expectations grow, the relationship between government and citizens is changing. It becomes important that the public sector management system must be improved. Improving public sector management is about developing effective policy processes and systems that enable governments to manage public revenues, expenditures and debt within agreed fiscal targets. It is also about allocating fiscal, administrative and functional authorities across levels of government in a way that ensures cooperative and constructive engagement.

Some of the indicators of good governance captured in this Volume are popular participation, adherence to the Rule of Law, Effective and Efficient Public Service determine by transparency, responsiveness, equitable and inclusive distribution of resources, and accountability. They are inextricably related to each other. These indicators should, however, be understood in the context of good "democratic" governance. Ensuring accountability and transparency in public sector management and building capacity of state and local institutions are critical elements of effective public sector management.

Research contributions in "Governance and Public Sector Management" focus on emerging issues, challenges and prospects of modern government. They reveal that good governance and strong, accountable institutions are key elements in reducing poverty and building effective and sustainable development.

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## **Accountability, Transparency and Corruption in Decentralized Governance**

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### **Introduction**

**I**n its democratic political aspect, decentralization as currently conceived and increasingly practiced in the international development community has two principal components: participation and accountability. Participation is chiefly concerned with increasing the role of citizens in choosing their local leaders and in telling those leaders what to do—in other words, providing inputs into local governance. Accountability constitutes the other side of the process; it is the degree to which local governments have to explain or justify what they have done or failed to do. Improved information about local needs and preferences is one of the theoretical advantages of decentralization, but there is no guarantee that leaders will actually act on these preferences unless they feel some sort of accountability to citizens. Local elections are the most common and powerful form of accountability, but other mechanisms such as citizen councils can have limited influence.

Accountability can be seen as the validation of participation, in that the test of whether attempts to increase participation prove successful is the extent to which people can use participation to hold a local government responsible for its actions.

### **Dimensions of Accountability**

Accountability comes in two dimensions: that of government workers to elected officials; and that of the latter to the citizens who elect them.

#### **1. Government Workers to Local Officials**

The first type can prove difficult to achieve, for civil servants, particularly professionals in such fields as health, education, agriculture --the very sectors that are most often decentralized-- often have considerable incentive to evade control by locally elected officials. Such people generally have university training and sophisticated life-style practices hard to maintain in small towns and villages, career ambitions that transcend the local level and goals for their children's education that local schools cannot meet.

They may well also fear that quality standards for service delivery will suffer if provision is localized. Finally, they often find opportunities for corruption greater if they are supervised by distant managers through long chains of command than if they must report to superiors close at hand. For all these reasons, they tend to have strong urges to maintain ties with their parent ministries in the central government and to resist decentralization initiatives. And understandably, their colleagues at the center have a parallel interest in maintaining these ties, for they are much concerned about preserving national standards in service delivery and often about opportunities for venality as well (many corruption schemes provide for sharing ill-gotten gains upward through bureaucratic channels to the top).

Given all these reasons both good and bad for opposition, it is scarcely surprising that decentralization initiatives so often run into heavy bureaucratic resistance, and designers find themselves pressured to keep significant linkages between the field and the central ministries, especially concerning such issues as postings, promotions, and salaries. Needless to say, such ties tend to undercut the capacity of elected officials to supervise government servants supposedly working for them. Some decentralized governance systems (e.g., Karnataka State in India) appear to have worked through these problems to establish popular control over the bureaucracy, but it has taken many years to do so.

## 2. Elected Leaders to the Citizenry

The second type of accountability is that of elected officials to the citizenry. Elections (provided they are free and fair) provide the most obvious accountability, but this is a rather blunt tool, exercised only at widespread intervals and offering only the broadest citizen control over government. Voters can retain or reject their governors, a decision that can certainly have salutary effects on governance, but these acts are summary judgments, generally not reactions to particular acts or omissions. And when local elections do revolve around a given issue, such as schools, they necessarily leave everything else out of the picture. Citizens need more discriminating instruments to enforce accountability. Fortunately, a number of these are available.

- i. Political parties can be a powerful tool for accountability when they are established and vigorous at the local level, as in many Latin American countries. They have a built-in incentive to uncover and publicize wrongdoing by the party in power and to present continuously an alternative set of public policies to the voters.
- ii. Civil society and its precursor social capital enable citizens to articulate their reaction to local government and to lobby officials to be responsive. These representations generally come through NGOs (though spontaneous protests can also be considered civil society), which, like political parties, often have parent organizations at the provincial or national level.
- iii. If citizens are to hold their government accountable, they must be able to find out what it is doing. At the immediate neighborhood level, word of mouth is perhaps sufficient to transmit such information, but at any higher level some form of media becomes essential. In some countries, print media can perform this function, but generally their coverage is minimal outside larger population centers. A feasible substitute in many settings is low-wattage AM radio, which is highly local, cheap to operate, and can offer news and talk shows addressing local issues.
- iv. Public meetings can be an effective mechanism for encouraging citizens to express their views and obliging public officials to answer

them. The *cabildos abiertos* held in many Latin American countries are a good example. In some settings, such meetings may be little more than briefing sessions, but in others they can be effective in getting public officials to defend their actions.

- v. Formal redress procedures have been included as an accountability mechanism in some decentralization initiatives. Bolivia probably has the most elaborate instrument along these lines with its municipal Vigilance Committees that are based on traditional local social structures and are charged with monitoring elected councils, encouraged to file actionable complaints with higher levels if needed.

In other systems, formal recall procedures are available to citizens dissatisfied with their officials. Opinion surveys have generally been considered too complex and sophisticated to use at the local level, but usable and affordable technologies are being developed in the Philippines enabling local-level NGOs to employ such polls to assess public opinion about service provision.

A recent USAID assessment of democratic local governance in six countries found that each country employed a different mix of these mechanisms, while no country had employed them all. No one instrument proved effective in all six settings, but various combinations offered considerable promise. Some may be able to substitute at least in part for others when weak or absent. Civil society and the media, for example, might together be able to make up for a feeble party system at the local level.

### **Transparency and Corruption**

In theory these two phenomena should be inversely related, such that more transparency in local governance should mean less scope for corruption, in that dishonest behavior would become more easily detectable, punished and discouraged in future. The history of the industrialized countries indicates that this tend to be true in the longer term, but recent experience shows that this relationship is not necessarily true at all in the short run. In the former Soviet countries, for example, local governance institutions have become much more open to public scrutiny in the 1990s, but at the same

time there can be little doubt that corruption at all levels has greatly increased. It is to be hoped that the local mechanisms of accountability discussed above will in tandem with greater probity at the national level improve the degree of honesty at all levels, but at best this will take time. The message for the international development community is to press forward with as many of these accountability mechanisms as is feasible.

A second type of linkage between transparency and corruption has been noted by Manor when he notes that in India, while greater transparency in local governance was not accompanied by increased corruption, it did lead to popular perceptions of greater public malfeasance, simply because citizens became more aware of what was going on. This pattern has surely repeated itself in many other locales. Over time, to the extent that accountability mechanisms begin to become effective and corruption begins to decline, the citizenry should appreciate the improvement.

### **Conclusion**

The democratic local governance initiatives currently under way in many countries hold much promise for developing effective systems of public accountability that will ensure that government servants are responsible to elected officials, and that the latter are in turn responsible to the public that elected them in the first place. In the process these systems of accountability should increase the pressure for more transparent local governance, in which corruption will be easier to bring to light and thus to curtail. But just as it took many decades for such efforts to make much headway in the industrial countries, so too quick results cannot be expected elsewhere.

### **Reference**

Cited with permission from Issues in Program Design  
<https://www.ciesin.columbia.edu/decentralization/English/Issues/Accountability.html>





## **AUTONOMY OF THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE: AN EXPERIENCE OF NIGERIA'S FOURTH REPUBLIC (1999 TO 2014)**

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### **Introduction**

The paper is an X-ray of the autonomy of local government and democratic governance in Nigeria's Fourth Republic. Data collection for this study was through primary and secondary sources. The modern society embraces the idea of decentralization and devolution in order to deliver the dividends of democracy to the citizens. Questionnaire as a tool of data collection was administered in four local government areas of Osun State. It was observed that autonomy of the local government and governance at this level is in disarray. The reasons are attributed to the excessive interference on the activities of local government by the state governments. The paper argues that factors such as the appointment of sole administrator or caretaker committee, arbitrary removal of local government Chairmen by the Governors, Withholding of federal allocation

to local government, abuse of State-Local joint account by the State, and the inability of the state to conduct periodic election among others have made democratic governance unattainable at the grassroots level. The study therefore recommends constitutional provision that clearly spells out the jurisdiction of the levels of government, the supremacy of the judiciary in the polity, and efficient Independent Electoral Commission that is alive to its responsibilities.

Federalism as a system of government recognizes the existence of at least two levels of government where each level is co-ordinate and independent within its sphere. In Nigeria, the federal arrangement provides for three levels of government namely: the federal government, the state government, and the local government. Constitutionally, each level of government has its jurisdiction. For example, the exclusive legislative lists are areas of responsibilities of the central government; the Concurrent lists are areas where the central and the state governments must jointly act on; while the residual lists are areas reserved for the local government. Thus, decentralization and devolution of powers have become a sine qua non for the attainment of democratic governance in the state. According to Kupoluyi (2013), the modern trend in the attainment of good governance and delivery of the dividends of democracy is to decentralize. Decentralization and autonomy bring about sound, efficient and effective public administration.

However, autonomy of local government vis-à-vis democratic governance in Nigeria has suffered a major setback. The reason is not unconnected to the law that created the local government institution. Section 7(1) of the 1999 constitution states that: the system of local government by democratically elected local government councils is under this Constitution guaranteed; and accordingly, the Government of every State shall, subject to section 8 of this Constitution, ensure their existence under a Law which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). The above constitutional provision clearly indicates that local government is under the control of the state government. Similarly, the Fourth Schedule, Section 7 (2) of 1999 Constitution stipulates that: The functions of a local government council shall include participation of such council in the Government of a State as respects the following matters like: the provision and maintenance of

primary, adult and vocational education; the development of agriculture and natural resources, other than the exploitation of minerals; the provision and maintenance of health services; and such other functions as may be conferred on a local government council by the House of Assembly of the State (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999).

A glance at the political history of Nigeria suggests that the autonomy of local government in relation to other tiers of government has been quite complex and sometimes controversial. Kupoluyi (2013) opined that our local councils seem not to bother about their statutory responsibilities as contained in the Fourth Schedule of the 1999 constitution. In his own opinion, Kaita (2012) believed that development at the grassroots can be facilitated when local governments are able to perform their responsibilities. There are 774 local government councils in the country. The questions that come to mind are: (1) How do we ensure that local governments become autonomous for the delivery of dividends of democracy to the populace? (2) What are the factors that inhibit democratic governance at the local government level? The thrust of this paper therefore is to interrogate the degree of autonomy of local government in the Fourth Republic vis-à-vis the democratic governance. The paper is structured into six sections starting with this introductory section. The second section is on the conceptual framework, literature review and theoretical orientation. The section that follows is based on local government autonomy and democratic governance in Nigeria's Fourth Republic as well as state and federal governments' interference on local government. The fourth section focuses on materials and methods. Section five analyses the results and makes discussion of the major findings while the last section forms the conclusion and recommendations.

### **Conceptual Framework, Literature Review and Theoretical Orientation**

There are two concepts that are central to this study. These are local government autonomy and democratic governance.

#### **Local Government Autonomy**

The term autonomy is frequently used in democracy and development debate in Nigeria. Granting autonomy underlines the goals of achieving

participation of people in the governance, institutionalization of the process of equitable development, capacity building for local government to sustain power and responsibility necessary to formulate and carry out plans and programs (Umenzeakor, 2014). Local government autonomy is the exercise of certain basic powers i.e. police power, power of eminent domain and taxing power by local government units so as to best serve the interest and promote the general wellbeing of the inhabitants (Punch, July 30, 2014). The desire for local government autonomy is a policy instrument to strengthen democracy and to consolidate development from the base which requires continuous assertion of people in public policy. Local government autonomy has been held up by the National Assembly and the various states government and therefore requires a focus on rebuilding the country in a new way; a way that is expected to promote an efficient state with widespread and ending social project on local development (Umenzeakor, 2014).

**Democratic Governance.** Central to the concept of democratic governance is the concept of democracy. According to Beetham (1994), democracy is a political concept, concerning the collectivity binding decision about the rules and policies of a group, association or society. It claims that such decision making should be, and it is realized to the extent that such decision making actually is, subject to the control of all the collectivity considered as equal. This definition presupposes that democracy is hinged on the active involvement and participation of the people in governance.

Democratic governance is an effort to make government more responsive to developmental needs. Held (1993) observed that democratic governance has been mired in an unresolved conflict between two meanings. The first conceives democratic governance as some kinds of popular power, a kind of politics in which citizens are engaged in self-government and self-regulation. This perspective holds the view that democratic governance has a basic intent and objectives. These intents such as individual liberty, equality of citizens, fundamental rights can be realized within a variety of processes. Democratic governance must be dedicated to the well-being of the people who should be able to hold leaders accountable and make the people express their wishes and respond to their needs. The second perspective views democratic governance as an aid to decision-making, that

is, a means of conferring authority on those periodically voted into office.

Ninalowo (1999) simply put democratic governance as government that fulfills the terms of its social contract with the people. This kind of governance is prima facie legitimate. The basis of legitimation may be any of the following: Constitutionally-enacted legitimation, extra-constitutional mode of legitimation, and socio-political mode of legitimation. He added that what is important for democratic governance is the welfare equation of the people as the desideratum of governance. In supporting this claim, Adesina (1999) observed that democratic governance can only make meaning when it is characterized by policies that bring about happiness and the good life for the citizenry, accountability of government officials, transparency in government procedures, predictability in government behavior, expectation of rational decisions by government, openness in government transactions, free flow of information, respect for the rule of law, freedom of the press and decentralization of power.

The Human Development Report 2002 defines 'effective governance' as a set of principle and core values that allow poor people to gain power through participation while protecting them from arbitrary, unaccountable actions in their lives by governments, multinational corporations and other forces. The Report highlights the key institutions of democratic governance. First, is a system of representation with well-functioning political parties and interest association. Second, is an electoral system that guarantees free and fair elections as well as universal suffrage. Third, is a system of checks and balances based on the separation of powers, with independent judicial and legislative arms. Fourth, is a vibrant civil society, able to monitor government and private business and provide alternative forms of political participation. Fifth, is an effective civilian control over the military and other security forces (UNDP, 2002:4).

### **Literature Review and Theoretical Orientation**

Federalism lays emphasis on the principle of shared rule where the component units perform different functions. Burns (1994) proposed the political framework that has become the dominant explanation for understanding the formation of local governments. The logic underlying her framework is that people form new governments in order to gain access to

the powers attached to these units and that the choice between a municipal and special district government hinges on whether or not its proponents seek zoning powers. The 1976 local government reform defines local government as government at local level exercised through representative council, established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. These powers should give council substantial control over local affairs as well as the staff, institutional and financial powers to initiate and direct the provision of services (Kaita, 2012).

Under a true federalist structure, the autonomy of local government should be adequately guaranteed, although, Nigerian federalism is associated with problem of autonomy at the local government level which includes administrative autonomy, constitutional autonomy, legal and financial autonomy (Akinboye, 2007).

The fiscal or financial autonomy is essential in every organization because the engine room of every organization is finance. In the words of Meyer (1996), the backbone of local government is financial autonomy. As soon as local governments have to live on income derived primarily from the federal government, the future of local government does not seem bright. Local governments in Nigeria have become an appendage of federal and state governments due to lack of financial autonomy. According to Materu (2002), lack of fiscal autonomy is due to the inadequacy of legal framework and constitutional provisions to guarantee the autonomy of local government. Therefore, for local government to perform the function of service delivery, it must be guaranteed some measures of financial control within its jurisdiction.

The theoretical framework adopted in this paper is democratic-participatory school. The school advocates that local government exists essentially for bringing about democracy to afford opportunities for political participation to the citizens, as well as educate and socialize them politically (Adamolekun, Olowu & Laleye, 1988). This means that local government is to foster representative and participatory democracy at the lower level. Mills (1964) work on Utilitarianism, liberty and representative government has greatly influenced this school of thought. Mills asserts that local government is a prime element of democracy and demonstrates the intrinsic

values of democracy irrespective of the service it produces in it that local government offers the closest thing to widespread consultation and participation. Studies carried out by Keith Lucas revealed that a large number of British members of parliament who had served on local government demonstrated the importance of local government as a recruiting ground for the British parliament. An analysis of the 1964 general election by Davis Butler revealed that 53% of the labour members of parliament and 45% of the defeated labour parliament candidates had been one time Local Government Councillor. Mackenzie (1954) supported this when he produced a data proving that more than half of the deputies and about the same proportion of senators in Italy had political education in the local government. A very important part of this democratic role is the opportunity it creates for political activity and social interaction. Such a forum helps to inculcate the ideal of democracy like election or selection of local committees and boards, public debates, pressure and interest group activities (Afegbua, 2011).

### **Local Government Autonomy and Democratic Governance in Nigeria's Fourth Republic**

The Fourth Republic witnessed all forms of arbitrary rule and assault on the local government by the higher levels of government. This arbitrary rule and assault seriously contended with the autonomy and democratic governance at the grassroots level. The restoration of democratic governance in 1999 was relegated to the background as the executive subverted the rule of law. For example, the federal government disobeyed the orders of the Supreme Court directing that the Lagos State Councils fund be released to the Lagos State government and restraining the Federal government and any functionary of the federal executive branch from withholding the funds. The federal executive has stated that it would not release the funds until Lagos State reverts to the twenty previous existing local government councils (Lagos State Government, 2002). This arbitrary revisionism is an assault on section 235 of the 1999 constitution; which provides for the finality of determination by the Supreme Court. The section states that:

*Without prejudice to the powers of the President or the Governor of a State with respect to prerogative of mercy, no appeal shall lie to any other body or person from any determination of the Supreme Court (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999).*

It should be noted that every administrative act has its financial implications. The dwindling and delaying in financial resources of local government in the Fourth Republic set a limit on administrative capacity. Therefore, the dividends of democracy could not be enjoyed by the populace. The lack of financial autonomy at the local level has made democratic governance a mirage in the Fourth Republic. For example, the 774 local governments have approached the judicial quarters over the lack of financial autonomy. In line with this, Akinboye (2007) states that:

*One of the nagging problems of Nigeria's federalism is the persistent failure to grant fiscal autonomy to local government as a third tier of government. Under the true federalist structure, the autonomy of local government is adequately guaranteed.*

In addition, local governments in the Fourth Republic have been rendered financially impotent by the state government due to abuse and act of gross misconduct by the state government. For example, Section 162, sub-section 6 of the 1999 Nigerian constitution states that each state shall maintain a special account to be called "State Joint Local Government Account" into which shall be paid all allocations to the local government councils of the State from the Federation Account and from the Government of the State. Thus, the state government delays the monthly allocation of local government councils and siphoned their funds for private use. The implication of this as noted by Fatile and Adejuwon (2009) is that local government council cannot exercise the functions allocated to it in the fourth schedule to the constitution until the State House of Assembly has passed law, which empowers the local government councils to perform those functions listed in the fourth schedule to the constitution.

There is a great divergence between the constitutional provision and the actual practice in the mode of choosing the officials at the local government councils in the Fourth Republic. Section 7(1) guarantees the system of local government by democratically elected local government councils. This implies that officials at the local level are to be elected by the electorates. However, this is contrary to what operates in the Fourth Republic as most local representatives are choosing at the whims and caprices of "political god fathers". To support this claim, Thovethin and Adio (2011) observed that



successful candidates are often those who are “sponsored” by wealthy and powerful individuals known in Nigerian parlance as “political godfathers”. These godfathers are not mere financiers of political campaigns rather to deploy violence and corruption to manipulate national, state or local political systems in support of the politicians they sponsor. In return, they demand a substantial degree of control over the governments they help to bring into being not in order to shape government policy, but to exact direct financial “returns”.

Corroborating this stand, Akhere (2005) argues that there is an apparent absence of truly elected local government councils at the grassroots in view of the pervasive electoral fraud, coupled with the overwhelming role of party politics.

### **State and Federal Governments Interference on Local Government Autonomy in the Fourth Republic**

The undue interference by the state and federal governments on the local government affairs has become a major threat to the sustenance of local government autonomy and democratic governance in the Fourth Republic. The interference which is more noticed at the state level especially with the state executive has retarded development at the local level. Therefore, the dividends of democracy could not be attained (Abia, 1991).

Under the 1979 constitution, the creation of local government councils appears to be the prerogative of the state government. For instance, section 7 (1) of the constitution empowers the state to ensure the existence of local government council through state instrument which provides for its establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions (Ajulor&Okewale, 2011). The 1989 constitution that follows allows some degrees of autonomy for local government by reducing the power of the state to exercise control on the local government. With the return to democratic government in 1999, the constitution was silent on the dissolution of the local government. Thus, the Fourth Republic has witnessed arbitrary dissolution or removal or suspension of Local Government officials by the state government in areas where election takes place. For example, the Chairman of Okpe Local Government Area was suspended by the State House of Assembly for mismanagement of fund. In Zamfara state, the

Chairman of Tsafe local government was suspended for allegedly stealing ₦53 million (Aluko, 2006). On March 2010, 12 out of the 23 local government Chairmen in Benue State were recommended for suspension for alleged misappropriation of funds (The News Magazine, 2010).

In the same vein, the governor of Niger State also suspended Chairman of Kontagora local government, Abdulhammed El-Wazir. In Edo and Kwara states, the Chairmen of Egoh local government, Crosby Eribo and Ilorin West local government, Usman BibireAjape were suspended by their respective state governors in manners suggestive of executive excesses. Similarly, some elected council members were suspended in 2000 by the Kaduna state government (Ojo, 2005). It was all these that infuriated the local government Chairmen which made them to sue the 36 governors and their state assemblies (Fadeyi, 2001).

Democratic governance and autonomy at the local level has also been threatened by the undue interference of the federal government. The case of federal government and Lagos state local government councils where the former withheld the statutory allocations from the Federal Account meant for the benefit of the Lagos State Local Government Councils. In spite of the supreme court judgment directing the Federal Government to release the withheld funds, the federal government disobeyed the court orders. This action of the federal government is an act of violation of the rule of law and it is a way of subverting the peace, stability and good governance of the country (Abia, 1991).

Specifically, local government autonomy and democratic governance in Nigeria's fourth republic has been inhibited due to the following factors. First is the Governors excessive control. Governors have assumed the roles of determining the winner of election at the local government level. Governors have no moral justification to conduct free and fair election at the local government because it is only the anointed government candidates with low public rating that wins an election. Second is the introduction of "money bags in politics". Democracy is supposed to be the rule of the majority but the influx of "money bags" in politics has undermined democracy as a game of numbers. Monetary inducements are being introduced by the Governors or the President to convince party supporters

and opposition. Third is the State-Local Joint Account. The constitutional provision that state and local governments should jointly hold an account has made the former to always take advantage of the latter by delaying local government monthly allocation which has made service delivery to be ineffective at the grassroots level.

### **Materials and Methods**

The data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary source of data was through the use of questionnaire while secondary data were obtained from textbooks, internet materials, magazine, newspapers etc. Descriptive method was adopted in analyzing the data collected. The research was carried out in four local governments in Osun state. The selected local governments are Ife Central, Ife South, Ife North and Atakumosa local governments. The choice of the local governments was due to their proximity to one another and the fact that they are found within the same geographical area.

### **Procedure**

A total of 100 questionnaires were self-administered in the four local governments i.e. 25 questionnaires were randomly administered in each of the local government. Out of this, 85 questionnaires were filled and returned which was made up of 23, 21, 20, and 21 in Ife Central, Ife South, Ife North and Atakumosa local governments respectively. The questionnaire sought to find out the nature of local government autonomy and democratic governance in the fourth republic, relationship between local government and other levels of government, the interference of other levels of government on the local government and elections at the local level. Both closed and open ended questions were raised in the questionnaire. The closed ended items were on a 4-Likert scale format of strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree. A descriptive method was used to analyze the closed ended items based on percentages. Also, the data from open ended questions were qualitatively analyzed.

## Results and Discussion/Findings

**Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Sample**

SEX	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE (%)
MALE	55	64.7
FEMALE	30	35.3
TOTAL	85	100

AGE(YEARS)	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE (%)
21-30	17	20
31-40	32	37.6
41-50	20	23.6
51-60	16	18.8
TOTAL	85	100

**Source:** Researcher Field Survey, 2014

Table 1 above indicates the results of the analysis of sex and age characteristics of the sample. It shows that men were in the majority which constitutes 64.7% in the sample and women represented 35.3%. The ages of the respondents varied from 21 years to 60 years with the age category 31-40 years being the highest and 51-60 years being the lowest in the sample.

### Nature of Local Government Autonomy

The first research question was based on whether local government is autonomous in the fourth republic. Table 2 below provides the analysis of the respondents.

**Table 2: Local Government Autonomy**

LOCAL GOVERNMENTS	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	%(SA)	%(A)	%(DISAGREE)	%(STRONGLY DISAGREE)
IFE CENTRAL	6	-	-	17	26.1	-	-	73.9
IFE SOUTH	-	8	-	13	-	38.1	-	61.9
IFE NORTH	-	7	13	-	-	35	65	-
ATAKUMOSA	-	6	-	15	-	28.6	-	71.4
TOTAL	6	21	13	45				

**Source:** Researcher Field Survey, 2014

Table 2 above shows that in all the local governments, a greater percentage of the respondents were of the opinion that local governments in the fourth republic are not autonomous. For example, in Ife Central 73.9% indicated that local governments are not autonomous while 26.1% were of the opinion that local governments are autonomous. In Ife South, 61.9% strongly disagree that local governments are autonomous and 38.1% agreed with the autonomy at the local level. The same is applicable to Ife North where 65% of the respondents indicated that local governments are not autonomous while 35% responded that local governments are autonomous. In Atakumosa, 71.4% responded that local governments are not autonomous while 28.6% responded that local governments are autonomous.

### **Relationship between Local Government and other Levels of Government**

The second research question focused on whether there is a cordial relationship between local government and other levels of government in the fourth republic. The analysis of the result is shown in Table 3 below.

**Table 3: There is a Cordial Relationship between Local Government and other Levels of Government in the Fourth Republic**

LOCAL GOVERNMENTS	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	% (SA)	% (A)	% (DISA)	% (SD)
IFE CENTRAL	-	5	-	18	-	21.7	-	78.3
IFE SOUTH	6	-	15	-	28.6	-	71.4	-
IFE NORTH	-	6	-	14	-	30.0	-	70.0
ATAKUMOSA	-	4	17	-	-	19.0	81.0	-
TOTAL	6	15	32	32				

**Source:** Researcher Field Survey, 2014

The table 3 above indicates that in Ife Central, 78.3% strongly disagree while 21.7% agree with the above statement. In Ife South 71.4% disagree while 28.6% strongly agree. Also, 70% of the respondents strongly disagree while 30% agree in Ife North. In Atakumosa, 81% disagree while 19% agree. The analysis given above implies that there is no cordial relationship between the local government and other levels of government in the fourth republic.

### **The Interference of other Levels of Government on Local Government**

The respondents were asked to state the nature of interference of other levels of government on local government and the results of analysis are presented in the table below.

**Table 4: Nature of Interference**

NATURE OF INTERFERENCE	RESPONSES (%)
Illegal dissolution of local government executives by the state government	70.6
Delaying and withholding of local governments allocation by the state and federal governments	85.5
Appointment of caretaker committee into local governments by the state government instead of election	55
Suspension or removal of local governments Chairmen	45.5
Snatching of revenue areas of local governments by the state government	65.6

**Source:** Researcher Field Survey, 2014

Table 4 above shows that the nature of interference by the federal and state governments on local government ranges from illegal dissolution of local government executives(70.6%), delaying and withholding of local governments allocation by the state and federal governments (85.5%), appointment of caretaker committee into local governments instead of election (55%), suspension or removal of local governments Chairmen (45.5%) to snatching of revenue areas of local government by the state government (65.6%). This is a clear indication that state and federal governments exert too much influence on the local governments. Therefore, democratic governance at the local level is epileptic.

### **Elections at the Local Government**

This study also seeks to find out the frequency at which election is conducted at the local government level and the table 5 below indicates the analysis of results.

**Table 5: Frequency of Election at the Local Level**

ELECTION AT LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEVEL	RESPONSES	PERCENTAGE (%)
Regularly	-	-
Occasionally	5	5.9
Not Regular	80	94.1
Total	85	100

**Source:** Researcher Field Survey, 2014

In the above table, the respondents were of the opinion that elections at the local level were not regular that is 94.1% of the respondents shared the opinion that there is no regular election at the local government level.

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

The study aimed at determining the nature of local government autonomy and democratic governance in Nigeria's Fourth Republic. The study found that autonomy and democratic governance at the local level is questionable. This is because Local Government in the Fourth Republic is still an appendage of state and federal governments. The undue interference by other levels of government on the local government affairs has become a major threat to the sustenance of local government autonomy and democratic governance. Such interference by other levels of government ranges from illegal dissolution of local governments executive, delaying and withholding of local governments allocation, appointment of caretaker committee instead of election, suspension or removal of local government Chairmen to snatching of revenue base of local government. The study also found that democratic governance at the local government has suffered serious setback because elections are not conducted periodically, the appointment of caretaker committees have replaced the system of election. Therefore, favorites of the state governors or party loyalists are imposed as people's representatives at the local level.

Based on the research findings, the following recommendations are made. First is that the power of conducting local government election should be removed from the hands of state chief executives back into the hands of Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC). This will prevent arbitrary appointment by the state governors of their favourites into various

positions at the local level. Second is that there is the need to overhaul the constitution in order to address and curb the excesses of state chief executives over local government administration. In other words, the ambiguities contained in the 1999 constitution which made the third tier of government to lose its autonomy should be removed. Finally, the court of law should be made to prevail over any undue interference on the local government by other levels of government.

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## DEMOGRAPHIC DYNAMICS AND DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN NIGERIA

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### Introduction

The significance of demography lies in its contribution to helping government and society better prepare to deal with the issues and demands of population changes; growth, death, aging, and migration. The analyses derived from demographic studies rely upon a specialized set of models and methods, including population composition studies, life table analysis, simulation and mathematical models, survival analysis and ratios. This paper examines demographic dynamics and its implications for development planning in Nigeria. The method adopted is a historical and descriptive analysis of secondary data. The study identifies lack of reliable data as a key challenge of development planning in Nigeria. It concludes that with reliable data, commitment on the part of the government, the private sector, civil society organizations, multi-national corporations, and the objective of development planning can be achieved and sustained in Nigeria.

### **Meaning of demography**

The word 'Demography' is a combination of two Greek words, 'Demos' meaning people and 'Graphy' meaning science. Thus demography is the science of people. It deals with the scientific study of human populations, primarily with respect to their size, their structure, and their development. Scholars have defined the concept in varying perspectives. Some are examined below,

- i. Hauser and Duncan (1959) defined demography as the study of the size, territorial distribution and composition of the population, changes therein, and the components of such changes, which may be identified as natality, mortality, territorial movement (migration), and social mobility (change of status).
- ii. According to Lorimer (1996), demography includes both demographic analysis and population studies. A broad study of demography studies both qualitative and quantitative aspects of the population."
- iii. Bougue (1998), added that "Demography is a statistical and mathematical study of the size, composition, spatial distribution of human population, and of changes over time in these aspects through the operation of the five processes of fertility, mortality, marriage, migration and social mobility. Although it maintains a continuous descriptive and comparative analysis of trends, in each of these processes and in its net result, its long-run goal is to develop a body of theory to explain the events that it charts and compares."

Demography is primarily concern with the study of the size, structure, and distribution of human populations, and spatial or temporal changes in them in response to birth, migration, aging, and death. These social factors form the subject matter of sociology. Demographers also study geographical variations and historical trends in their effort to develop population forecasts. Thus, demography is the scientific study of population in order to understand the social consequences of the population.

Migration plays an important role in the distribution of population and supply of labour. Demography studies the factors that lead to internal and

external migration of people within a country and between countries, the effects of migration on the migrants and the place where they migrate (Mhende, 2013). Urbanisation is another factor in the distribution of population within the country. The focus in population studies is on factors responsible for urbanization, the problems associated with urbanization and the solutions thereto (Nzira, 2011).

### **Historical development and methods of demography**

The term 'Demography' was first used by a French writer Achille Guillard in his book, "Elements de Statistique Humaine" (1855). He defined it as 'the natural and social history of the human species, or in a narrower sense, the mathematical study of population, their general movements, and their physical, civil, intellectual and moral conditions' (Hauser and Duncan (1959).

Other thinkers have expressed their views on the level of economic development and the size of the population. During the time of Confucius, many Chinese and Greek writers, and following them Aristotle, Plato and Kautilya (around the year 300 B.C.) have expressed their thoughts on the subject of population. Thus, as a subject, population education is as old as human civilization. Writers like William Peterson, Hauser and Duncan consider "Population Studies" and "Demography" to be different. According to them, 'Demography' encompasses limited spheres and it studies only the decisive factors of population growth, whereas in 'Population Studies' beside the social, economic, geographical, political and biological aspects of population, their ensuing relationships are also studied (Hauser and Duncan (1959).

There are two types of data collection. There are direct and indirect methods,

- a. Direct data, also known as primary data comes from vital statistics registries that track all births and deaths and other changes in legal status such as marriage, divorce, and migration (registration of place of residence).
- b. Indirect methods are secondary in nature because they deal with collecting data in countries and periods where full data are not

available, such as is the case in much of the developing world, and most of historical demography. The data may be a projection based on current realities.

### **Importance of demography**

Davis (1949) said, 'demography' is the essential basis for understanding the human society. He mentioned the following as importance of demographic studies,

- (a) To know the population of a particular area;
- (b) To ascertain as to which factors are influencing the population of that particular area;
- (c) To explain the factors relating to changes in population; and
- (d) To study the population trends on the basis of the above three factors.

In addition, demographic data or population studies help development planners to find out the trends in the growth of population between two censuses. They provide estimates of future trends relating to migration at the national and international levels.

### **Scope of Demography**

The study of demography encompasses the following:

i. **Size and Shape of Population:** The size of population means the total number of persons usually residing in a definite area at a definite time. The size and shape of the population of any region, state or nation are changeable (Adedeji, 1989). It is because every country has its own unique customs, specialties, social-economic conditions, cultural atmosphere, moral values, and different standards for acceptance of artificial means of family planning and availability of health facilities, etc.

ii. **Birth Rate and Death Rate:** Birth rate and death rate are the decisive factors that influence the size and shape of the population and therefore their importance in population studies is crucial (Aspinall, 1999). In addition to these, factors like marriage rate, belief regarding social status and marriage, age of marriage, orthodox customs related to marriage, early marriage and its effects on the health of the mother and the child, child infanticide rate, maternal death, stillbirth, resistance power, level of

medical services, availability of nutritious food, purchasing power of the people, etc. also affect the birth and death rate (Aspinall and Song (2013).

iii. **Composition and Density of Population:** According to Bloch (2008), the composition of population include sex ratio, race wise and age-group wise size of population, the ratio of rural and urban population, distribution of population according to religion and language, occupational distribution of population, agricultural and industrial structure and per sq. km. the density of population is very important.

iv. **Socio-Economic Problems:** Out of the many problems relating to population growth, the effects of high density due to industrialization in the urban areas are of more importance as they affect the socio-economic life of the people. Problems like slum areas, polluted air and water, crime, juvenile delinquency, and prostitution, are also important subjects of study in demography (Coleman, 2006).

v. **Quantitative and Qualitative Aspects:** The study of demography includes the availability of physicians in the total population, number of hospitals, the number of beds in hospitals, expectation of life at birth, daily availability of minimum calories, resistance power, advertisement of family planning programme and its development, the changes brought in the attitudes of people regarding childbirth and adequate medical facility for delivery, etc (Coleman, 2010).

### **Demographic Analysis: Methods of Demographic Projection**

Demographic analysis (usually abbreviated as DA) deals with the description of data, showing its implications for use in research and planning. Demographic analysis is a technique used to develop an understanding of the age, sex, and racial composition of a population and how it has changed over time through the basic demographic processes of birth, death, and migration (Coleman, 2010). It explains a specific set of techniques for developing national population estimates by age, sex, and race from administrative records to be used to assess the quality of the decennial census. There are three methods of population projection: Mathematical, Growth Component, and Economic Method. Each has their advantages and disadvantages. These methods are explained by Coleman

and Smith (2005), Demie, Lewis, and McLean (2007), Coleman and Dubuc (2010), below.

(1) **Mathematical Method:**

The mathematical method is the earliest one to be used for population projection. Under the mathematical method, there are the S-shaped curve, Arithmetic method, and Geometric method.

a. The S-shaped logistic curve was developed by Verhulst in 1838 developed (Dubuc, 2009). The S-shaped logistic curve is useful for making population projections. But because of its complicated mathematical formula, it is not used by demographers. Demographers use simple arithmetic and geometric formulas and graphs for population projection.

b. Arithmetic Method: In the arithmetic projection method, it is assumed that the annual change (increase or decrease) in the population remains the same throughout the projection period and the crude birth and death rates are taken. The formula for such linear interpolation is

$$P_p = P_t +$$

where,

$P_p$  = Population projection in the future;

$P_1$  = Present population as per the recent census;

$P_2$  = Size of the population in the previous census;

$n$  = Number of years between the projection year and the previous census; and

$N$  = Total number of years between the recent and previous census.

c. Geometric Method: In the geometric method of projection, the formula is

$$P_p = P_1(1 + r)^n$$

where,

$P_p$  = Projected population;

$P_1$  = Population as per the recent census;

$r$  = Annual rate of increase or decrease of population; and

$n$  = Number of years.

This formula is the basis of Malthus's population projection.



**(2) Growth Component Method:**

This method is more practical than the mathematical method of population projection. The growth component method, also known as the cohort component method, makes separate projections for birth rate, death rate and migration by age-sex groups. In making projections for the birth rate by age-sex groups, the effects of fertility rate in females, marriage and re-marriage rate, sterilization rate of socio-economic factors, of education, of divorce, of net reproduction rate, etc. on the birth rate are taken into account.

For making projections on migration, the past trends of emigration and immigration and changes in the rules of migration by other countries vis-a-vis the home country are used. Thus by calculating separately the effects of birth rate, death rate and migration by the age-sex group in each case, the projected total population is estimated by their summation. The correctness of growth component depends upon the assumptions made about birth rate, death rate, and migration rate. But there is every possibility that the assumptions may not be true and the projections may turn out to be incorrect.

**(3) Economic Method:**

In the Mathematical Method and Growth Component Method of population projections, demographic estimates of future are given on the basis of population growth rate, birth rate, death rate and migration rate (Dubuc, 2009). But the factors really affecting them are not kept in mind due to which the projected statistical information remains changeable. Thus, in the effective economic method of population projection, how and to what extent the birth, death, and migration rates are affected by economic factors are considered (Coleman and Dubuc, 2010). Economic development is important for knowing the effects of migrations.

Due to regional economic development, people migrate from the backward areas to developed areas in search of jobs. In addition, the rural, urban, age and sex-wise number of projected labourers are to be estimated. Such changes, their effects on urbanization and the consequent growth of towns, cities and urban centers and birth rate, death rate and growth rate of population in them are projected. This method is more useful for region-

wise projections rather than for the entire country (Coleman and Dubuc (2010)).

### **The changing nature of Nigerian population**

Nigeria possesses the largest and most diverse human population of any country in Africa. The population has been and still is, growing rapidly. According to the United Nations Estimates (2017), the statistics of the Nigerian population is as follows,

- a. The current population of Nigeria is 194,003,241.
- b. Nigeria ranks number 7 in the list of countries (and dependencies) by population.
- c. The population density in Nigeria is 215 per Km<sup>2</sup> (557 people per mi<sup>2</sup>).
- d. The total land area is 910,770 Km<sup>2</sup> (351,650 sq. miles)
- e. 51.0% of the population is urban (99,967,871 people in 2018)
- f. The median age in Nigeria is 17.9 years.

In 2030, the population of Nigeria will reach 263 million, a huge increase of 44.1% from 2015 making it one of the fastest growing countries in the world. This strong growth is the result of high rises in the number of births every year in 2015-2030 due to increasing numbers of women of childbearing age and high fertility. Nigeria will remain one of the youngest countries in the world in 2030 as a result of its high birth rate and low life expectancy with a median age of just 19.3 years (United Nations Estimates, 2017). This projected population growth leaves much to be desired. Some of the challenges are,

- a. Poverty and unemployment;
- b. Provision of social welfare; education, health, infrastructure, etc;
- c. The growth of slums and informal settlements;
- d. Lack of capacity on the part of government;
- e. Difficulties in accessing housing delivery input;
- f. Prohibitive standards;
- g. Increase in crime rate
- h. Environmental issues including climate change.

These challenges have serious implications for national planning and development.

### **The Nigerian Population Commission (NPC)**

The National Population Commission was established by the Federal Government of Nigeria in 1988 as an independent and autonomous body to conduct regular censuses and also to provide for the composition of the Commission, tenure of office of members and other related matters. The Commission was reconstituted in 2011 with a Chairman and 37 members representing each State of the Federation and the Federal Capital Territory. The Commission has the powers to collect, analyze and disseminate population/demographic data in the country to ascertain the population of the nation as a whole.

Below are some of the key functions and roles of National Population Commission

1. Undertake periodic enumeration of the population through a sample survey, censuses or otherwise.
2. Establish and maintain machinery of continuous and universal registration of births and deaths throughout the federation.
3. Advise the president on population matters.
4. Publish and provide information data on population for the purpose of facilitating economic and development planning and
5. Appointment and train and arrange for the appointment and training of enumerations or staff of the commission.

### **Perspectives on population census in Nigeria**

A census is an organized and systematic process of obtaining and recording information about the members of a given population. A population census is a total count of the country's population, where demographic, social and economic information, as well as information about the housing conditions of the people who live in the country, is gathered. In addition, it is concerned with the regular counting of the number of women, men, children, able and disabled people in a country by an agency of the government for the purpose of national planning and development.

A well-conducted census must have the following four major characteristics:

- a. Individual enumeration;
- b. Universality within a defined territory;
- c. Simultaneity; and

d. Defined periodicity

Censuses are usually taken every 10 years. The importance of population census is determined by the relevance of census data in a country. The census is a periodic activity and must be conducted regularly because it carries a lot of benefits for the country.

**Importance of population census**

The following are some of the importance of population census and use of census information,

1. It provides information on the population density of a country and further helps in comparing different groups of people across the country.
2. Population census helps the government to know the total number of people in the country. This includes the sex, age, geographical and occupational distribution of the population
3. Data obtained from population census are used for national economic planning and development. Among other things, the data can be used for the determination and provision of social amenities to the country or specific sector of the economy.
4. The number of employed people could easily be known by the government through population census and this makes it possible for the government to know the number of employment opportunities to generate and control.
5. Population census data is important in determining the equitable distribution of national income of a country. It provides information regarding parts of the country the government needs to develop policies for, plan and run public services in and allocate funding to.
6. Through population census, the government will be able to know the number of taxable adults and this will help in no small measure in the estimation of the expected revenue for a particular period.

7. The Government would be able to plan an effective educational, housing, transportation, health system, etc for its country based on a good knowledge of the population of the country.
8. National and regional population projections are also crucial to estimating the environmental impact of population growth, allocation of water resources, land use or other factors. The census does not remain the same; it evolves to answer relevant contemporary questions (Ahmed, 2017).

#### **Characteristics of a good population census**

1. It must be conducted by the Government of the state or country where the census is taking place.
2. It must be conducted at the same time (simultaneously) throughout the country.
3. It must involve regular counting at specific time intervals e.g. Nigeria's population taken in 1953, 1963, 1973 etc. i.e. at an interval of 10 years.
4. It must reveal the population of a country at a specific period of time, e.g. Nigeria's population census as of 1963.
5. It must involve the physical counting of people rather than by proxy.

#### **Types of population census**

There are two types of population census. They are:

1. **De facto Population Census:** This is the type of population census which involves the counting of only those who are present physically during the census. In this group, only those that are present physically are seen and counted.
2. **De jure Population Census:** This is the type of population census which involves the counting of people who have been permanent residents of a specific area. It does not matter whether the person is present or not. This is the population census commonly referred to as counting by proxy.

### **History of population censuses in Nigeria**

As reported by the Nigerian Population Commission (2017)<sup>1</sup>, Nigeria has a long history of census takings spanning over a century. The first census was conducted in 1866 and this was followed by Censuses of 1871, 1881, 1891 and 1901. However, all these earlier censuses were restricted to Lagos Colony and its environs. The 1871 census marked the beginning of decennial census taking in Nigeria in line with the British decennial tradition. Following the amalgamation of the Lagos Colony and the Southern Protectorate in 1906, the 1911 census extended to some parts of the Southern Protectorate. It was marred by incomplete enumeration because some parts of the South had not recognized the legitimacy of the Colonial Government.

The amalgamation of the Southern and Northern protectorates in 1914 by Lord Lugard provided the impetus for population census that had wider coverage. Like in other censuses, the results of 1921 census were population estimates based on tax records as the aged, infants and tax evaders were excluded. Similarly, in the then Northern region, during the period mentioned above, the census result was based on population estimates from existing records or vital statistics.

The tax riots in Calabar and Owerri provinces in the then Eastern region prevented enumeration in the major towns of these areas in 1931 while the locust invasion resulted in the diversion of some census staff to anti – locust duties in some parts of the Northern provinces. The outbreak of the Second World War disrupted the conduct of decennial censuses and as such, no population census was conducted in 1941.

The 1952/1953 Population Census was regarded as the first modern, national and carefully planned census in Nigeria. The principle of simultaneity was not complied with as the census enumeration was staggered. The census of Northern Nigeria was conducted between May and July 1952 while that of West and Mid-West were conducted in December 1952 and January 1953 respectively. Census in the East was

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<sup>1</sup> Data on the History of population censuses in Nigeria is adapted with permission from a publication by the National Planning Commission, Nigeria. <http://population.gov.ng/about-us/history-of-population-censuses-in-nigeria>

conducted from May to August 1953. This enumeration strategy made the comparability of data between one region and another difficult. Furthermore, the disruption of the Second World War made people suspicious of the intention of the exercise and therefore many people did not submit themselves for enumeration. This meant that the exercise was characterized by gross under-enumeration.

The 1962 population census covered the whole country and was undertaken simultaneously during the month of May. Although the census was given adequate publicity, the results were not acceptable to the regions on grounds of high politicization.

The refusal of the government to accept population census of 1962 prompted the 1963 population census which critics claimed were arrived at by negotiation rather than enumeration. The result was contested at the Supreme Court which ruled that it lacked jurisdiction over the administrative functions of the Federal Government.

The 1973 Census conducted between November 25 and December 2 was not published on the ground of deliberate falsification of the census figures for political and /or ethnic advantages. The 1991 Census was conducted under Decree 23 of 1989 which set up the National Population Commission. It was conducted all over the country from November 27 to December 2, 1991. This was the most scientific and most acceptable until the 2006 Population and Housing Census. In March 2006, Nigeria, for the first time, conducted a Population and Housing Census. Several stages were involved in the project. For the first time, the use of GPS and Satellite Imagery to carve out Geo-referenced EAs was adopted. Also, Machine readable forms (OMR/OCR/ICR) were used to record information from respondents.

### **Challenges of population census in Nigeria**

According to Bala (2016), the problems associated with population census in Nigeria is the phenomenon of ethnicity and religion brought to Nigeria among other negative impacts includes discrimination, corruption, falsification of population census result, politics of federal character. Record doctoring is also a major problem facing the population census in Nigeria.

Religious bias in remote areas and financial issues are just a few of the reasons behind the alterations. Ethnic consciousness and as well as religious consciousness brings about disunity among the people of Nigeria which always result in internal conflict and thereby hinders the development planning in Nigeria. Such as economic development, social and cultural development which could also be regarded a major problem in Nigeria. Other identifiable specific problems include,

1. High level of Illiteracy: a successful population census process requires a lot of national sensitization of the masses on its importance to national planning. Without this, it becomes quite difficult to conduct a successful population census as these people do not give relevant, accurate and useful statistics.
2. Political problem: Since population census is used in many countries to allocate resources to component states, population figures are usually falsified to enable some state gain more resources than others.
3. The high cost of funding population census: A lot of money is required to conduct population census and this explains why most countries avoid the conduct it in an irregular manner.
4. Geographical barriers: Most communities are inaccessible due to mountains, valleys, hills, and rivers surrounding them. This makes conducting the census difficult.
5. Lack of trained personnel: Trained personnel like demographers are not easily available hence the use of untrained persons who do not really have information on how a population census is conducted and this leads to inaccurate results.
6. Religious beliefs: In Nigeria and other countries with multi-ethnic and religious values, this is a major problem in some areas during the census. Muslim women that are in Purdah are not to be seen by men, such people might not be counted during this process.



### **Prospects of population census in Nigeria**

Okolo (1999) identified the following as means to overcome the problems pertaining to census-taking in Nigeria are proposed. These are as follows:

1. Establishment of a system for collecting vital statistics. Change in the population is the outcome of events like births, deaths, migration, marriages, divorces, and so on, called vital events. Therefore, vital statistics are those data concerned with vital events. Vital statistics can be obtained from census data, while the composition of the population may be derived from vital events (Gupta 1982). Vital statistics enable planners to update census figures in those years when no census is taken.

2. Examination of the revenue allocation formula for the disbursement of funds from the federation account to states and local government councils. The formula gives much emphasis to a large population size. As a result of these financial gains, census figures have in the past been inflated by nearly all segments of the country. In fact, an economic factor that affects the success of policy reforms is the distribution of revenue (Berg and Sachs 1988; Boeninger 1991). It is recommended that emphasis on the distribution of revenue should be shifted from a large population size to specific economic and social programs aimed at improving the quality of life of the people concerned.

### **Demographic dynamics and development planning in Nigeria**

Development is targeted at improving the welfare of the individuals which is usually measured in terms of providing infrastructural facilities that could afford them a chance for better life. Improving the standard of living, education, health and opening out new and equal opportunities for richer and varied life are all important ingredients of development. Hahn-Been (1970) defines development as a process of acquiring a sustained growth of a system's capacity to cope with new continuous changes towards the achievement of progressive political, economic and societal objectives.

According to Cole (1993), planning is an activity which involves decisions about ends as well as means and about conduct as well as result. Planning is deciding what to do, how to do it and who is to do (Koonzt, Donnel, and Wehrich, 2006). Plans must be directed and controlled towards achieving desired objectives.

Development planning is defined as the conscious governmental effort to influence, direct and in some cases, even control changes in the principal economic variables of a country over the course of time in order to achieve predetermined set of objectives (Todaro (1992). From the above, it is obvious that without adequate planning, no meaningful development can take place in any system or State. It is as the long-term programme designed to effect some permanent structural changes in the economy is connected with the involvement of government in the economy whereby it set out objectives about the way it wants the economy to develop in future and then intervenes to try to achieve those objectives (UNPD, 2008). Development planning involves processes which ensure that national policies and strategies are realized and development concerns at all levels are fully integrated into the overall national development thrust (Datta, 2010).

### **National Planning Commission (NPC)**

In Nigeria, national planning is an exclusive function of the National Planning Commission (NPC). The Commission was established by Decree No 12 of 1992 and later amended by Act 71 of 1993. The Commission has the mandate to determine and advise the Government of the Federation on matters relating to National Development and overall management of the national economy. The detailed objectives, functions, powers, and structure of the Commission are outlined under sections 2, 3 and 5 of the Establishment Act.

Some of the functions include,

- (a) To provide policy advice to the President in particular and Nigeria in general on all spheres of national life;
- (b) To set national priorities and goals and engender consensus among Government agencies, as may be contained in guidelines issued by the Commission from time to time;
- (c) To undertake periodic review and appraisal of the human and material resources capabilities of Nigeria with a view to advancing their development, efficiency and effective utilization;
- (d) To formulate and prepare long-term, medium-term and short-term national development plans and to coordinate such plans at the Federal, State, and Local government levels;
- (e) To monitor projects and progress relating to plan implementation;

- (f) To advise on changes and adjustments in institutions and management techniques as well as attitudes necessary for the alignment of actions with plan targets and goals;
- (g) To conduct research into various aspects of national interest and public policy and ensure that the implications and results of the findings in such research are geared towards the enhancement of national, economic, social, technological defence and security capabilities and management;
- (h) To mobilize popular group and institutional consensus in support of Government policies and programmes;
- (I) To manage multilateral and bilateral economic co-operation, including development aid and technical assistance;
- (j) To deal with matters relating to regional economic co-operation, including the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the African Common Market (ACM), the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), and South-South cooperation; and
- (k) To carry out such other duties as are necessary or expedient for the full discharge of all or any of the functions conferred on the Commission under the Act.

Through its efforts, several national development plans have been designed and implemented in the country. These plans are First National Development Plan (1962), Second National Development Plan (1970-74), Third National Development Plan (1975-80), and Fourth National Development Plan 1981-85. From the five years National Development Plans, the Federal Government has also embarked on three-year rolling plans between 1990 and 1998 and long-term perspective planning in her endless efforts to search for appropriate developmental strategy. The federal government introduced another ambitious programme between 2003 and 2007 known as the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). It was a medium-term planning which focused on wealth creation, employment generation, poverty reduction and value orientation. There was also Nigeria's Strategy for attaining the Millennium Development Goals, and the Seven Point Agenda, the transformation agenda (2011-2015), the current Nigeria Vision 20: 2020, among others have been designed and implemented in the country.

Despite the series of development plans and visions introduced by successive Nigerian governments since independence, the country has failed to produce much needed sustainable development. Development plans in Nigeria have failed to achieve their desired objectives due to many challenges. These challenges are:

1. The absence of relevant data. Development planning depends basically on the availability of relevant data.
2. The pervasive social problem of corruption. Development plans and programmes fail in Nigeria because of poor handling by corrupt and poor/hungry politicians and bureaucrats.
3. Lack of political will, commitment, and discipline by Nigerian leaders to implement development plans. Lack of commitment also causes lack continuity of government programmes by succeeding government and this has retarded development plans in Nigeria.
4. Lack of popular consultation. Development plans are often prepared without consulting the people, hence public apathy towards its implementation (Obi, 2006). Since the plan is meant for the people, but they are not even aware of its existence or objectives, they do not feel duty bound to contribute to its success (Obi, 2006).
5. Public service inefficiency. The Nigerian public service, which is responsible to execute development plans, is faced with a lot of challenges. Some of these challenges are inadequate working materials, poor communication system, red-tapism and political instability.

To address these problems, development planning in Nigeria should be proactive and backed by reliable data, political will with strong and viable institutions. Demographic data is useful in development planning and national development. To sustain this Nigeria, the National Population Commission and the National Planning Commission must be alive to their responsibilities. The aim of National Development Plans can be achieved if the government, the private sector, civil society organizations, multi-national corporations, work as a team to ensure its success.

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## INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW AND THE CHALLENGES OF NEW TECHNOLOGIES OF WARFARE

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### Introduction

Undoubtedly, all endeavors made to accomplish worldwide peace through the use of the standards of International Humanitarian Law, violations against mankind which are of extraordinary concern to the entire world have remained unabated. The fall back on war as a method for settling disputes between countries, people, nations and ethnic groups with accompanying toll of deaths and properties destroyed has remained a prominent feature of human's history. Indeed, to control this conduct of warfare and the dehumanization of people, a body of law aimed at moderating the effects of conflicts and threats in the battlefield has turned out to be important. Along these lines, it is to look at the conditions in which International Humanitarian Law will apply and furthermore to decide the degree of the difficulties of new advancements of warfare that this study is embraced. Throughout this study, we embraced doctrinal approach wherein we utilized textbooks, journals, global materials and supposition of law Experts in the field of International Humanitarian Law. This paper shall look



at the different variables responsible for the non-compliance with the standards of International Humanitarian Law and besides, might proffer conceivable arrangements that will address the difficulties of new advancements in technologies of warfare around the globe. Significantly, the fundamental suggestions made in this paper if completely used might go far in guaranteeing an adequate standard in the utilization of the tenets of International Humanitarian Law as it relates to an undeniably increased phenomenon of innovations in warfare which has in recent past made it harder for the best possible usage of the guidelines of International Humanitarian Law. This paper infers that for a reasonable global peace to be accomplished, the principles of International Humanitarian Law as it identifies with the use of New advancements of warfare ought to be entirely clung to and ought to be made a strict liability offence. Also, this paper additionally prescribes the introduction of domestic criminal law punishment of genuine infringement of the tenets of International Humanitarian Law.

### **Background to the study**

There is a general thought that law and war are two parallel lines with no point of contact. This idea was shown by Cicero when he stated "inter arma silent leges", actually implies in the midst of war, the law is silent<sup>1</sup> the contention, in this is law suggests request and limitation while war invalidates their reality. In fact, it is absolutely when the legitimate framework falls flat that contentions turns savage and however law may act to dissuade war. It has no down to earth part once the battling has started. A delegate to International Committee of the Red Cross composed couple of months before he was killed in Sarajero in 1992 that:

*War anyplace is as a matter of first importance, an institutional catastrophe, a breakdown of legitimate framework, a situation in which rights are secured by constrain. Everybody who has encountered war, especially the wars of our opportunity, realizes that released savagery's methods the pulverization of norms of conduct and legitimate frameworks. Humanitarian activity in a war circumstance is in this manner most importantly, a legitimate approach which goes before*

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<sup>1</sup>Harvard International Law Journal: Critical History of the Laws of War (1994) vol. 35, p.54

*and goes with the genuine arrangements of alleviation. Securing casualties mean giving them a status, merchandise and the framework imperative for survival, and setting up checking bodies. All together words, the thought is to convince belligerents to acknowledge an excellent legitimate request the law of war of humanitarian law is uncommonly tailored to such circumstances. This is accurately why humanitarian activity is in possible without close and perpetual discourse with the gatherings to the contentions<sup>2</sup>*

More importantly, before the development of International Humanitarian Law, once there is battling between states, the following situation will frequently be one where the standard laws of individuals existing between the warring states will be that immediately superseded by a condition of confusion, severity and harsh treatment between the gatherings to the contention. Therefore, with a specific end goal to direct such lead or reduce the dehumanization of people, a group of law aimed at managing exercises amid the battlefield ended up plainly fundamental. It was the convincing requirement for such a group of law, to the point that prompted the development of International Humanitarian Law as it is known today. International Humanitarian Law has a widespread work since it applies to all men and nations. In defining and culminating this law, the international committee of the Red Cross has looked for decisively this shared view and set forward tenets adequate to all since they are completely steady to human instinct. This is however, what has ensured the quality and solidness of these tenets. In this manner, when distinctive custom, morals and methods of insight are gathered for examination and their eccentricities are killed, at that point one is left with an unadulterated substance which is the legacy of all humanity<sup>3</sup>.

Humanitarian law as that segment of international law is inspired by an inclination for humankind, security of the person in time of war. It is

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<sup>2</sup>M. Frederick, 'Humanitarian Ambition' in International Review of the Red Cross (1992) vo. 289, p.371

<sup>3</sup>P. Jean, 'Humanitarian Ideas shared by different Schools of Thought and Cultural Tradition', IN International Dimensions of Humanitarian Law, Henry Dunant Institute, 1988.

accurately in light of the fact that this law is so personally bound to mankind that it expects its actual position.

### **Conceptual Perspective**

The idea "International Humanitarian Law" implies such a significant number of things to such a significant number of individuals and its comprehension is reliant on the impression of the writer. As indicated by Jennifer Moore<sup>4</sup>, "International Humanitarian Law entirely speaking is the branch of public International Humanitarian Law" sets up a casing work for the persevering determination of furnished clashes through the development of more solid society. Additionally to the International Committee of the Red Cross, International Humanitarian Law<sup>5</sup> set out various standards targeted at securing certain classes of individuals who are not or never again participating in the hostilities and at limiting the methods and techniques for fighting.

Moreso, Christ (2010) submits that International Humanitarian Law is a group of law that manages the lead and reduces the dehumanization of people amid the battlefield<sup>6</sup>. In a comparative vein, it is additionally characterized as every one of those principles of international law which are intended to control the treatment of the individual-nonmilitary personnel or military, injured or dynamic in international furnished clashes<sup>7</sup>. The idea of International Humanitarian Law is along these lines that piece of open international law that oversees the utilization of equipped power, particularly weapons, means and techniques and the treatment of people throughout the furnished clashes<sup>8</sup>.

Another author Fred (2011) characterizes International Humanitarian Law as the lawful restrictions that exists in the real direct of wars or outfitted clashes<sup>9</sup>. As indicated by Antoine Bouvier and Harvey Langholtz, international law implies international guidelines build up shed by bargain or custom which are particularly proposed to take care of humanitarian

<sup>4</sup>J. Moore, *Humanitarian Law in Action within Africa*(Oxford University Press, 2012)

<sup>5</sup>International Review of the Red Cross, *Handbook for Parliamentarians* (1999) vol. 7 No.1, 9

<sup>6</sup>C. C. Wigwe, *International Humanitarian Law* (Readwide Publishers 2010)

<sup>7</sup>D. Fleck, *The Handbook of International Humanitarian Law*, p.11

<sup>8</sup>R.L. Bledsoe and B.A. Bocrek,, (1987), p.371

<sup>9</sup>F.A. Agwu, *The Law of Armed Conflicts and African War*(Macmillan Publishers, 2011)

issues that emerge specifically from international or non-international furnished clashes<sup>10</sup>. A further definition was proffered by a famous international researcher<sup>11</sup>, who characterizes International Humanitarian Law as that branch of open international law which is centered on the assurance of the people, the lightening of the sufferings of all casualties of equipped clashes whether injured, wiped out, wrecked, detainees of war or regular citizen. While to another researcher Mohammed Lawfia, International Humanitarian Law endorses generally acknowledged requirements on Waging War<sup>12</sup>.

It is against the previous that we made a preparatory comment such that amid peace time, international law represents country states, however once there is an episode of war between maybe a couple countries, the international law or the law of peace stops to work while the International Humanitarian Law comes into full operation.

### **Contemporary Technology and Humanitarian Action**

There is almost certainly that International Humanitarian Law applies to contemporary weapon and to its work in fighting as perceived inter alia in Article 36 of Additional protocol<sup>13</sup> to the Geneva tradition of 12 August 1949 identifying with the security of casualties of international armed conflict which states that:

*In this work, improvement, procurement or appropriation of another weapon, means or strategy for fighting, a high contracting party is under a commitment to decide if its business would, in a few or all conditions be restricted by this convention or by some other lead of international law relevant, to the High contracting party.*<sup>14</sup>

<sup>10</sup>G. Basdeck, 'International Humanitarian Law and the Law of Armed Conflicts' (Peace Operation Training Institute, 2012)

<sup>11</sup>G. Obiozor, 'Technology of International Humanitarian Law in Nigerian Universities', A Seminar Paper presented at the International Committee of the Red Cross Conference, 1997, held at Lagos.

<sup>12</sup>I.E. Sagay, 'Customary Law in the Teaching of International Humanitarian Law in Nigerian Universities', 1998 held in London.

<sup>13</sup>K. Lawand, 'Reviewing the legality of New weapons, means and methods of warfare' in *International Review of the Red Cross*, (2006) vol. 88, No. 864 pp. 925-930.

<sup>14</sup>J. McLand, 'The Review of weapons in Accordance with Article 36 of Additional Protocol I' IRRC (2003) vol. 85 No. 850 pp. 397-415.

In any case, applying prior lawful lead to another innovation brings up the issue on whether the standards are adequately evident in the light of the innovation's particular qualities, and additionally with respect to the foreseeable humanitarian effect it might have. Prominently, as weapons turns out to be mechanically perplexing, the difficulties of following this evidently basic prerequisite of international law turn out to be all the more overwhelming in later past, a wide exhibit of new innovations has entered the contemporary front line.

Contemporary advancements and new weapons have changed the methods and strategies in international or non-international armed conflicts. Along these lines, mechanical headway in the methods and techniques for fighting all has made an unfavorable impact on the earth or human wellbeing. The importation of these new weapons into war zones has prompted a few commissions of genocide and all types of humanitarian violations. The making of an international body accused of directing new advances of fighting or components for reinforcing international limit and coordination is required right now given the level of expansion of arms and weapons of devastation on the planet today.<sup>15</sup>

For example, the exploratory ascent in the utilization of automations amid armed conflicts in Iraq and Afghanistan for focused killings and mark strikes in nations outside the combat areas have been generally denounced by Humanitarian Actors. All the more along these lines, right now, more than fifty states have gained or created military apply autonomy innovation<sup>16</sup>. In a similar vein, nations like US, China, Russia, Israel and the UK have built up their self-sufficient robots that will work together independently to find their objectives and wreck them without human intercession<sup>17</sup>. A noteworthy humanitarian concern in this is that this type of new advances of fighting can't separate amongst soldiers and non-warriors or other safe on-screen characters, for example, benefit laborers, retirees and soldiers that are

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<sup>15</sup>See M. Jacobs on "Modern Weaponry and Warfare: the application of Article 36 of Additional Protocol".

<sup>16</sup>N. Sharkey, "The Automation and Proliferation of Military Drones and the Protection of Civilian", in *Journal of Law, Innovation and Technology*, vol. 3, No. 2, 2001, pp. 229 – 240.

<sup>17</sup>N. Sharkey, "Cassandra or the False Prophet of Doom: All Robots and War", in *IEEE Intelligent System*, vol. 23, NO. 4, 2008, pp. 14-17.

injured, surrendered or are rationally sick in a way that would fulfill the rule of refinement. Quite, these types of innovations of fighting don't have sufficient tangible or vision handling frameworks for isolating soldiers from regular people, especially in extremist fighting, or for perceiving injured or surrendering warriors.

The internet has opened up a possibly new war-battling area. Remote controlled weapons framework, for example, rambles are progressively being utilized by the members to an armed conflict. Correspondingly, robotized weapons frameworks are likewise on the ascent, and certain self-governing frameworks, for example, battle robots are being considered for later use on the fight documented. Therefore, each of these advancements raises a large group of legitimate issues, just some of which will be quickly discussed in this paper as follows:

**(i) Cyber Warfare**

The idea of cyber warfare is another marvel under International Humanitarian Law. It ought to be noticed that since the period of science and innovation, the methods and technique for fighting have turned out to be more advanced and particularly complex one. In addition to other things, the issue of digital fighting has remained a far from being obviously true issue among international law researchers to the extent International Humanitarian Law is concerned.<sup>18</sup> Cyber operations are led by means of programming, equipment or by means of a blend of programming and faculty. The potential impacts of such operations are accordingly of genuine humanitarian concern. For instance, by messing with the supporting PC frameworks, one can control a foe's air movement, control frameworks, oil pipeline stream frameworks or atomic plants and so forth.

From the International Committee of the Red Cross perspective, means or strategies for warfare which turn to cyber innovation are liable to International Humanitarian Law similarly as any new weapon or conveyance framework has been so far when utilized as a part of armed conflict by or for the benefit of a gathering to such conflict.

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<sup>18</sup>Y.E. Ayalaw, 'Cyber war: A New Hulabo under International Humanitarian Law' (2015) Beijing Law Review vol. 6. Pp. 209-223

**ii) Remote Controlled Weapons Systems.**

A noteworthy component of a remote controlled weapon framework is that it enabled soldiers to be physically missing from a zone of battle operations. This new innovation like certain different advances in military innovation can from one perspective, enable belligerents to coordinate their assaults all the more exactly against military destinations and this reduces nonmilitary personnel casualties and harm to regular citizen objects. All the more along these lines, remote controlled automatons are conscious case of a remote controlled weapon framework. Altogether, it has been noticed that difficulties to the dependable operation of such a framework incorporate the constrained limit of an administrator to process an expansive volume of information, including conflicting information at a given time and the supervision of more than one such more than one such framework at any given moment. The inquiry now remains, has the administrator possessed the capacity to consent to the important standards of International Humanitarian Law in those circumstances?

**iii) Autonomous Weapons System**

This is one that can learn or adjust its working in the environment in which it is sent. In this manner, a really self-ruling framework would need to be fit for executing International Humanitarian Law. Likewise the improvement of a genuinely independent weapon framework that can actualize International Humanitarian Law repels a fantastic programming challenge that may well demonstrate inconceivable. On a basic level it might be conceivable to program a self-sufficient weapon framework to act all the more morally and more circumspectly on the combat zone than an individual. It ought to be called attention to in this that new advances does not change a current law, yet rather should comply with it.

**iv. Nanotechnology**

The development of nanotechnology into international or non-international armed conflicts have impacted the utilization of the tenets of International Humanitarian Law and also, has postured extraordinary test to appropriate usage of the standards of International Humanitarian Law in later past. Nanotechnology as per humanitarian performing artists is broadly viewed as a cutting edge transformational innovation with profound ramifications for all parts of present day society.<sup>19</sup>

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<sup>19</sup>See the Centre for International Environmental Law, Addressing Nanomaterials as an issue of Global concern, May 2009, p. 1

In this manner, the difficulties postured to International Humanitarian Law by the utilization of nanotechnology has truly influenced the direct of fighting and military desires which has been delineated by the use of processing and software advancements that have prompted significant changes in the military strategies of created countries.<sup>20</sup> Nanotechnology is an advancing wonder in the field of science cutting crosswise over numerous ranges of building, science, material science, science and optics and for the most part includes control of issue on the nuclear and atomic level in the extent of 1mm-100mm out of at least one outer measurement.<sup>21</sup> Additionally, the wellbeing and ecological perils are not confined in light of the potential long-go transport of nano-particles through the air and water after their discharge into the earth.<sup>22</sup>

It ought to be brought up in this work that as at now, there is no international bargain that particularly manages the utilization of nanotechnology for military purposes or something else. A preventive arms control bargain to manage or boycott the utilization of nanotechnology for military reasons for existing is probably not going to emerge<sup>23</sup> since international arms control settlements have a tendency to be responsive to innovative advancements and are restricted in scope, forbidding or managing just particular weapons characterized by their outline, plan, and attributes.<sup>24</sup>

In a comparable manner, nanotechnology use is confined to the degree that it is connected or used to create weapons that are disallowed by existing arms control bargains, for example, synthetic weapons, non-recognizable sections, touchy leftovers of war, natural weapons, blinding laser weapons, land mines and most recently, cluster munitions.

### **Criticisms on International Humanitarian Law**

An attempt to look at several criticisms on International Humanitarian Law

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<sup>20</sup>P. Dombrowski and E. Gholz, "Buying Military Transformation: Technological Innovation and the Defense Industry", (Columbia University, New York, 2006).

<sup>21</sup>See European Commission on the definition of nanomaterials

<sup>22</sup>Ibid, pp. 11-12

<sup>23</sup>J. Whitman, "The Arms control challenges of Nanotechnology", in contemporary security policy vol. 32 No.1 2011 pp. 99-115.

<sup>24</sup>F. Kalshoven, "The conventional weapons convention: Underlying legal principles", in International Review of the Red Cross, No. 316, 1997, p.90.



always draws ones thoughtfulness regarding a broadly made inquiry on whether International Humanitarian Law is as yet fit for managing the requests of cutting edge fear based oppression. Such a significant number of examiners have credited particular inadequacies to this law. Thus, the response to these criticisms requires familiarity with the substance, as well as with the extent of utilization of humanitarian law in connection to different branches of applicable domestic and international law.

We noted in this study that one of the grievances against International Humanitarian Law is that it has neglected to stay aware of the changing idea of armed conflicts, continually battling the last war as opposed to the following one. In any case, the main Geneva tradition dates from 1864<sup>25</sup> was just in light of the First World War in which monstrous quantities of detainees were subjected to unspeakable a transports that Geneva Convention for the assurance of detainees of war appeared. Likewise it was after Second World War that a tradition for the security of regular folks in armed conflicts appeared in which regular people were the fundamental casualties and were subjected to mass annihilation, in segregate assault, expulsion and prisoner taking and so forth.

Moreso, on the extent of utilization of the standards of International Humanitarian Law, it is both right and great to state that humanitarian law does not oblige fear based oppression and the war out blunder when those wonder does not add up to armed conflict. in other words that when the war on fear does not meet the criteria for an armed conflict it is not that Humanitarian Law is in satisfactory but instead that its application is in fitting. Subsequently, this examination however recommends a development on the extent of utilization of Humanitarian Law past armed conflict.

Moreover, on New Technologies of warfare, it should be noted that the requirement under Article 26 of Additional Protocol 1 that provided for weapons review ought to be more universally applied by states as only 173 States are members to the said Additional Protocol 1 and are required to attempt such surveys.

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<sup>25</sup>The Geneva Convention of 22 August 1864 for the Amelioration of the condition of the wounded in the Armies in the field.

In a similar vein, weak arms exchange arrangement has been seen as main consideration in charge of expansion of new weapons of warfare which specialists have said that has influenced the advancement of human rights, International Humanitarian Law and human security. These impacts of the illegal and poor controlled exchange traditional weapons are truly destroying. The Ministers of Foreign Affairs of France Germany, United Kingdom and the Minister of Trade in Sweden have said that every year a huge number of individuals around the globe endure specifically or by implication because of poor control of New Technologies of warfare<sup>26</sup>, while hundreds of thousands of individuals are murdered or injured through unlawful trafficking of arms.

The council of delegates of the International Committee of the Red Cross has kept up that arms exchange and unregulated multiplication of new advances of warfare is contributory to the expansion and irritation of infringement of the guidelines of International Humanitarian Law in armed conflicts and to the disintegration of the circumstance of civilians.<sup>27</sup>

In the light of the above, we appropriately watched that numerous violators of the standards of International Humanitarian Law have not been captured and indicted by the international criminal court because of the shortcoming of its implementation instruments. Likewise the residential criminal equity system most circumstances is failing on account of International Humanitarian Law infringement. Besides, the standard of universal jurisdiction has remained a scientific fiction.

### **Conclusion**

Having analyzed the status of International Humanitarian Law and the difficulties postured by new innovations of warfare, it will be more secure to keep up that the current execution instrument of International Humanitarian Law is not totally damaged, but rather surely have extraordinary potential and also have suffered from absence of utilization which was connected to absence of political will by states to utilize and apply them when fundamental. Additionally that the current assortment of law that identifies

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<sup>26</sup>W. Hague, 'Why the Arms Trade Treaty is Essential' Guardian, 2 July 2012

<sup>27</sup>See the Draft Resolution of the 26<sup>th</sup> International Conference of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Geneva Switzerland, 1995.

with New Technologies of warfare ought to be extended to cover new types of warfare and ought to be made proactive constantly.

In any case, if a morel innovation ought to develop which raises humanitarian worries that can't without much of a stretch be tended to by the use of existing law, it would be for the international group of state to choose whether new or particular settlement control is required to address such concerns. With regards to new innovations, be that as it may, specific law might be the main course to guaranteeing successful protection.

### **Recommendations**

The perceptions made over the span of this examination work have shaped the reason for the accompanying proposals.

1. That a National Committee on the execution of International Humanitarian Law ought to be introduced in every one of the nations of the world to arrange endeavors and guidance individual governments and other elected Institutions on the usage of humanitarian standards.
2. That all nations of the world regardless of their connection with the Arms Trade Arrangement ought to guarantee that extensive and all around educated hazard appraisals on Human Rights, International Humanitarian Law and Human Security are incorporated into National Transfer control choices making.
3. That to guarantee widespread adherence to the tenets of International Humanitarian Law, the drafters of the Arms Trade Treaty on New Technologies of warfare should assault strict punishments for its infringement.
4. State parties ought to guarantee reliable participation with the international criminal court and furthermore to respond faintly and reliably to occasions of non-collaboration of states which are infringing upon their lawful commitments as to the international criminal court.
5. That there ought to be far reaching and efficient international lawful apparatus that will represent cyber warfare across the globe. For this situation, an order of a different settlement archive to oversee its operations will be fundamental as of right now given its humanitarian results.

6. The United Nations ought to as an issue of critical need address the issue of resistance by the huge number of non-state on-screen characters in consenting to International Humanitarian Law. The reality for this situation is that non-state performing artists are not self-sufficiently or intentionally gatherings to the settlements and traditions under which they are legitimately bound. All the more thus, without their cooperation in the formation of these laws and even as a rule without their insight into them, it will be hard to expect extensive consistence with the tenets of International Humanitarian Law.
7. There ought to be an international arrangement particularly made to direct the utilization of nanotechnology for military purposes or generally since there is none right now.
8. Also there ought to be a different settlement archive administering digital fighting versus a brought together observing system.

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## GLOBALIZATION AND THE THIRD WORLD

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### Introduction

**G**lobalization has become the focus of extensive debate and scholarship regarding the "Third World" that emerged in the context of half a millennium of European expansion. It is a slippery and elusive concept. Although the Third World is increasingly differentiated internally, it has suffered the multiple impacts of colonialism and comparative poverty. A recent intensification of global processes has been marked by technological advances in communication, rapid movement of financial capital, growth of supranational legal and political institutions and advocacy networks; and sometimes extreme destabilization of families, historical identities, and communities. It is a process of global economic, political and cultural integration. It has made the world become a small village; the borders have been broken down between countries. "The history of globalization goes back to the second half of the twentieth century, the development of transport and communication technology led to situation where national borders appeared to be too limiting for economic activity" (Economic Globalization in Developing Countries, 2002).

Despite intensifying interest in the phenomenon of globalization since the 1980s the term is still used to refer, variously, to a process, a policy, a market strategy, a predicament or even an ideology. The problem with globalization is that it is not so much an 'it' as a 'them': it is not a single process but a complex of processes, sometimes overlapping and interlocking processes but also, at times, contradictory and oppositional ones. It is difficult therefore to reduce globalization to a single theme (Heywood 2007). Perhaps the best attempt to do this was in Kenichi Ohmae's (1989) idea of 'borderless world'. This not only refers to the tendency of traditional political borders, based on national and state boundaries, to become permeable; it also implies that divisions between people previously separated by time and space have become less significant and are sometimes entirely irrelevant.

Scholte (2005) argue that globalization is linked to the growth of 'supra-territorial' relations between people, a reconfiguration of social space in which territory matters less because an increasing range of connections have a 'trans-world' or 'trans-border' character. For instance, huge flows of electronic money now surge around the world at the flick of a computer switch, ensuring that currency and other financial markets react almost immediately to economic events anywhere in the world. Similarly, cable and satellite technology allow telephone messages and television programmes to be transmitted around the world almost instantaneously.

The interconnectedness that globalization has spawned is multi-dimensional. The popular image of globalization is that it is a top-down process, the establishment of a single global system that imprints itself on all parts of the world (Heywood, 2007). In this view, globalization is linked to homogenization as cultural, social, economic and political diversity are destroyed in a world in which we all watch the same television programmes, buy the same commodities, eat the same food, support the same sports stars and follow the antics of the same celebrities. Nevertheless, globalization often goes hand in hand with localization, regionalization and multiculturalism (Heywood 2007). This occurs for a variety of reasons. In the first place, the declining capacity of the nation-state to organize economic and political life in a meaningful way allows power to be sucked downwards as well squeezed upwards.

Thus, as allegiances based on the nation and political nationalism fades, they are often replaced by ones linked to local community or region, or religious and ethnic identity. Religious fundamentalism can, for instance, be seen as a response to globalization. Second, the fear of threat of homogenization, especially when it is perceived as a form of imperialism, provokes cultural and political resistance. This can lead to a resurgence of interest in declining languages and minority cultures as well as to a backlash against globalization, most obviously through the emergence of new 'anti-capitalist' and 'anti-free-trade' social movements. Third, rather than simply bringing about a global monoculture, globalization has in some ways fashioned more complex patterns of social and cultural diversity in developing and developed states alike. In developing states western consumer goods and images have absorbed into more tradition cultural practices through a process of indigenization. Developed states, also, have not escaped the wider impact of cultural exchange, being in return for Coca-Cola, McDonalds and MTV, increasingly influenced by non-western religions, medicines and therapeutic practices, and art, music and literature.

### **Conceptualizing the Third World**

The third world is a term originally used to refer to the non-align developing countries, with a common colonial history. These were countries that choose to be neutral in the unfolding events of the cold war struggle between the western capitalist bloc led by the United States and the communist bloc led by the Soviet Union. Thus, this connotes the ideological underpinning of the concept, which overtime had assume different meanings such as to depict the solidarity amongst newly independent countries which during the 1960s emerged as a strong voting bloc in the General Assembly. According to Kegley (2007), the distinguishing features between the developed industrial countries and the developing countries of the south borders on the advanced political system and technological as well as economic prosperity accompanied with zero population growth in the global north. Though he noted that some countries in the south such as: Singapore and China share in one or two of above features, yet they do not possess all four characterizations. However, the term much later became coherent push for a new international economic order to give to fewer developing countries a better stake in the global economic. The third world countries wanted the removal of protectionist policies of develop countries so as allow for access

in their markets and enhance favourable competition. Surech and Dube (nd), quoted ex- president of World Bank, Robert Zoellick, who stated thus; If 1989 saw the end of the "Second World" with Communism's demise, then 2009 saw the end of what was known as the "Third World". We are now in a new, fast evolving multipolar world economy – in which developing countries are emerging as economic powers; others are moving towards additional poles of growth; and some are struggling to attain their potential within this new system – where North and South, East and West, are now points on a compass, not economic destinies.

Therefore, the ideological seal attached to the concept that has in most cases made analytically ambiguous, as argued by Robert Zoellick, has been overtaken by unfolding events in the developing world. The consistent economic growth experienced in these some of the emerging economies have surpassed that of even the developed ones within the same period. Also it is disturbing to note that still maintaining the term, seem to be a smear on liberal "one world myth" Ibeanu (2001). It is in this light of transition we use the term in this study.

### **Forms of Globalization**

The distinctive forms of globalization can be identified as:

- a. Economic Globalization
- b. Cultural Globalization
- c. Political Globalization

Economic globalization is reflected in the idea that no national economy is now an island; all economies have, to a greater or lesser extent, been absorbed into an interlocking global economy. The OECD (1995) thus defined globalization as 'a shift from a world of distinct national economies to a global economy in which production is internationalized and financial capital flows freely and instantly between countries'. The collapse of communism gave powerful impetus to economic globalization, in that it paved the way for the absorption into the global capitalist system of the last significant block of states that had remained outside it. Economic globalization, for that matter, also helped to precipitate the collapse of communism in that lower trade barriers, an end to exchange controls and freer movement of investment capital from the 1980s onwards had helped



to widen the economic gap between the capitalist West and an economically stagnant Communist East. One of the key implications of economic globalization is the reduced capacity of national governments to manage their economies and, in particular, to resist their restructuring along free market lines.

Cultural globalization on the other hand is the process whereby information, commodities and images that have been produced in one part of the world enter into a global flow that tends to 'flatten out' cultural differences between nations, regions and individuals. This has sometimes been portrayed as a process of 'McDonaldization'. Driven in part by the growth of transnational companies and the emergence of global commodities, cultural globalization is also fuelled by the so called information revolution, the spread of satellite communication, telecommunications networks, information technology and the internet, and global media corporations. In addition to the ubiquity of Hollywood movies, Nike running shoes and Starbucks coffee houses, selling goods across the world requires a sensitivity to indigenous cultures and social practices.

Political globalization is evident in the growing importance of international organizations. These are organizations that are transnational in that they exercise jurisdiction not within a single state, but within an international area comprising several states. Most such organizations have emerged in the post 1945 period: examples include the United Nations, NATO, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the European Economic Community and its various successors, the EC and the EU, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the World Trade Organization (WTO). When they conform to the principles of intergovernmentalism, international organizations provide a mechanism that enables states, at least in theory, to take concerted action without sacrificing national sovereignty. Supranational bodies, on the other hand are able to impose their will on nation-states. The inter-state emphasis of political globalization sets it apart from the rival conceptions of economic and cultural globalization, which highlight the role of non-state and market-based actors. More so, in so far as it reflects an idealist commitment to internationalism and some form of world government, political

globalization lags markedly behind economic and cultural globalization. Whereas a global state remains a very distant prospect, global civil society, based on the activities of transnational corporations, non-governmental organizations and international pressure groups, has become very much a reality.

### **Theories and Debates of Globalization**

Globalization has become a deeply controversial issue. While most governments and mainstream political parties are anxious to position themselves to take advantage of the benefits of the new globalized economy, an anti-globalization movement has emerged, most strongly in developed states but also, to some extent, in developing ones. In some respects, division over globalization has replaced more traditional left-right divisions, based upon the ideological struggle between capitalism and socialism. There is nevertheless, a sense in which the pro-versus anti-globalization debate is nothing more than a reworking of the older and more familiar ideological divide. This is because the inter-connectedness that lies at the heart of globalization is, as yet, invariably linked to the extension of market exchange and commercial practices. Globalization thus has a pronounced neoliberal or free-market ideological character. Capitalism, in short, remains the issue. Supporters of globalization, sometimes called globalists; usually argue that capitalism tends towards general prosperity and widening opportunities, in which case global capitalism will allow these benefits to be enjoyed by more people in more countries. Opponents of globalization, on the other hand, tend to associate capitalism with inequality and exploitation, in which case global capitalism will simply generate new forms of misery and injustice.

In one important respect, however, the globalization debate is new: it is conducted within a post-socialist framework that no longer recognizes that there are viable alternatives to market structures and capitalist organizations. The choice is therefore between neoliberal globalization and regulated globalization, rather than between global capitalism and any qualitatively different alternative. Some contemporary social theorists, like Hirsch and Thompson, argue that globalization is largely mythical. They explain that nation states retain the capacities to manage national economies, in which globalization is seen as eroding (Shaw 1996). It represents the triumph of classicism advocated by Smith and Locke. It is the

triumph of democracy, liberalism and capitalism overall other ideology and statecraft" (Gill 1990). The current focus of economic globalization is the elimination of national borders. In the economically advanced countries, however, these structures precisely reined in market capitalism, making it palatable and acceptable (Ruggie 1998). This is, indeed, the final stage of open economy started from privatization and economic liberalization.

A first set of debates is between believers and sceptics over whether globalization is actually happening and, by extension, about the forces that are driving it. The believers, who include both supporters and opponents of the process, argue that globalization draws attention to a profound, even revolutionary, set of economic, cultural technological and political shifts that have intensified since the 1980s. chief amongst these are much higher levels of world trade and, in particular, a dramatic increase in financial and currency transactions; the advent of new information and communication technologies that provide instant access to images and messages across the globe; and the emergence of global commodities that are available almost anywhere in the world. In its most extreme version, hyperglobalism, this view subscribes to a form of technological determinism. Nevertheless, there is evidence of a slowdown in the pace of globalization since the 1990s, which has been further strengthened by the impacts of the events of September 11, 2001 on, for instance, the global economy and inter-state security measures.

On the other hand, the sceptics, often subscribing to a traditional or 'old' left analysis of capitalism, argue either that there is little that is new about globalization or that its impact has been exaggerated for political reasons. Karl Marx, new reborn as a theorist of globalization rather than a proponent of class struggle, drew attention to the international character of capitalist organization as early as the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century. J.A Hobson (1858-1940) and V.I Lenin, each highlighted intrinsic links between capitalism and imperialism in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. Moreover, despite the undoubted growth in the world trade from the late 19<sup>th</sup> century onwards, the sceptics point out that the overwhelming bulk of economic activity still takes place within, not across, national boundaries. National economies, in other words are not as irrelevant as globalization theorists usually suggest. From this perspective, globalization is often seen less as a revolutionary economic or

technological force and more as an ideological device used by politicians and theorists who support neo-liberal economics and wish to advance corporate interests (Hirst and Thompson 1999). The globalization thesis has two major advantages in this respect. First, it portrays certain tendencies; the shift towards labour flexibility and weaker trade unions, controls on public spending and particularly welfare budgets, and a scaling down of business regulation-as inevitable and therefore irresistible. Second it suggests that such shifts are part of an impersonal process, and not linked to an agent, such as big business, whose interests might be seen to drive, and be served by, globalizing tendencies.

The most intense debate about globalization nevertheless concerns its implication for equality and poverty. Critics of globalization have drawn attention to the emergence of new and deeply entrenched patterns of inequality: globalization is thus a game of winners and losers. The winners are invariably identified as multinational corporations and industrially advanced states generally, but particularly the United States; the losers, in contrast, are in the developing world, where wages are low, regulation is weak or non-existent, and where production is increasingly orientated around global markets rather than domestic needs. Whereas the US and other Western economies have grown stronger since the 1980s on the basis of globalization and technological advance, absolute living standards have fallen in the poorest parts of the world, notably in sub-saharan Africa, our focus of discussion, where 40% of people live below the poverty line. Wallerstein (1984), drawing on Marxist view of capitalism as essentially exploitative, highlighted the structural condition of uneven political and economic development that led to growing inequality between 'core' and 'peripheral' parts (Heywood 2007) of the economic world system. Global tensions have come to be seen less in terms of East versus West and more in terms of a North-South divide.

Globalists, however, point out that the rich may have got richer but the poor are now also, in most cases, less poor. From the perspective of liberal pluralism, the emergence of a global economy is to be welcomed because free trade (Heywood 2007) allows each country to specialize in the production of those goods and services that it is best suited to produce. This leads to international specialization and mutual benefits. For instance, the

transfer of production from developed to developing states benefits the former because production cost, and therefore prices, are kept low, but also benefits the latter because wage levels tend to rise, albeit from a low base, which will stimulate the domestic economy and foster enterprise. In this view, the only parts of the world that fail to benefit from globalization are those that remain outside it.

Globalization has also been criticized because of its tendency towards risk, uncertainty and instability. Globalists certainly acknowledge the dynamism that is inherent in any competitive market order, but, following the principle of classical economists, point out that market tend towards long-term equilibrium, supply eventually coming into line with demand. In this view, the uncertainty and insecurity that are associated with emergence of a global economy are likely to decline as more stable patterns of economic activity take shape. Nevertheless, globalization has been associated with increased risk and uncertainty in at least three deeper ways. In the first place, economic decision making is increasingly influenced by global financial markets that are inherently unsuitable. This is because much of their activity is speculative, and they are driving by short-term economic considerations. The fate of companies, industries, national economies and even regions of the world is therefore subject to the whims of financial markets.

A second form of uncertainty is summed up in Ulrich Beck's (1992) idea of a 'risk society'. A risk society is one that is characterized by rising individualism and an associated weakening of tradition, community and established institutions. Uncertainty, in this respect, goes beyond an increase in the pace and a reduction in the predictability of economic and social change, in that it has a personal, even psychic dimension: when all fixed points are undermined, people's basic values and even sense of identity are called into question. As Marx put it in 'Communist Manifesto' (1848) and (1967), 'All that is solid melts into air'. A third form of instability is the alleged tendency of globalization towards environmental crisis and destruction.

The most significant political debate associated with globalization concerns its impact on democracy. Supporters of globalization argue that it is a major factor underpinning the trend towards democratization (Heywood 2007). In its most optimistic version, advanced by Fukuyama (1989, 1992), this view

suggests that globalization will lead to the 'end of history', in that the extension of market capitalism will lead to a universal acceptance of liberal democratic principles and structures. Economic freedom is inevitably associated with political freedom, because the complex and diverse pressures unleashed by market economies can be contained only within open and democratic societies. Globalization can nevertheless be seen to have undermined democracy in two important ways. First, it has concentrated economic power, and therefore political power, in the hands of trans-national corporations (TNCs). TNCs now dominate most of the world's markets; notable examples include General Motors, Ford, Esso, Shell, BP, McDonalds, AT&T and the News Corporation. General Motors, to take just one instance has annual revenue that is almost equal to the combined GDP of Ireland, New Zealand, Uruguay, Srilanka, Kenya, Namibia, Nicaragua and Chad. Such economic and financial power is also allied to the ability to manipulate consumer taste and entrench materialist values through the development of brands (Klein, 2000). However, it is the capacity of TNCs to relocate capital and production elsewhere in the world that gives the decisive advantage over national governments and enables them, effectively, to escape democratic control. Developing world states are particularly vulnerable in this respect, as they provide TNCs with a source of cheap labour and low production cost without been able to oblige them to make long term investments or shift the decision making power from the 'home' country to the 'host' one.

In final analysis, democracy is threatened by the fact that the pace of economic globalization far outstrips that of political globalization. Whereas economic activity increasingly pays little attention to national borders, politics continues to operate largely within them, the international organizations that do exist been too weak to call global capitalism to account. This has led to calls for a cosmopolitan conception of democracy (Held, 1995). The extension of democratic forms of processes across territorial borders will require not mainly the strengthening organizations such as the EU and the UN, but also the reduction of democratic deficits from which these bodies currently suffer. Moreover, the institutions of global economic governance (Heywood 2007) such as the IMF, the World Bank, OECD and G7, need to develop some independence from the interest of MNCs and give greater attention to issues such as human rights, economic

justice and environmental protection.

### **Globalization and the Third World**

Invalidity of Keynesian prescription based on wage-price rigidity for economic adjustment relied mostly on public intervention. This prepared the ground for the rejection of the fixed exchange rate regime in the early 1970s. The rejection of the state assisted capitalism initially in the 1970s and rigorously in the 1980s gradually paved the way for rapid process of globalization. The initial stage of globalization was economic liberalization. It refers specially to trade and market liberalization whereas globalization is related to open economy weakening the border wall; globalization is unrestricted or initiates easy movement of the factors of production, goods, services, information and technology, same treatment of foreign goods, services, technology together with structural changes in production and employment according to the line and preference of multinational companies (MNCs). As a result, globalization makes the role of state diminish, increases cross border economic interdependence, integrates financial market, rapids the movement of information technology, dominates national policy choice and derives a common culture.

Globalization processes ultimately change the economic structure of the countries in general, and that of the low income nations in particular are overwhelmingly put under the umbrella of the MNCs in technologically advanced countries. In this way, the competition prevails only at the level of multinational companies elsewhere, which are equipped with capital intensive production techniques and similar patterns of employment structures. As a result, the formal sector of the economy experiences displacement effect, price effect, capital intensity effect, income inequality effect, lack of social security effect, local governance effect and social effect. In the similar way, the informal sector of the economy experiences delinking effect, capital flight effect and small cottage industries effect.

From an economic perspective, the introduction of the core workers' right is necessary for economic growth and for increasing the efficiency of the concerned national economy. The core workers' rights comprise the ban on forced labor, discrimination, and child labor, and the guarantee of freedom to form associations and the right to collective bargaining between

management and labor. The economic loss of sovereignty and the processes of negative globalization must be overcome by means of positive globalization. This, however, requires the creation of new instruments of regulation. The crucial question, therefore, is: how can global order economically be structured? The answer is not the creation of an ideal, harmonious world republic but rather the 'realistic' intensification of transnational cooperation (Meyer and Breyer 2007).

Globalization issues, in this sense, have brought people and countries closer and increased their mutual interdependence with higher flow of trade, technologies information and investments fuelling economic progress and creating vast opportunities for human progress. But such progress as enlarged opportunities and interdependence has been quite unbalanced, unequal and unmanaged because of lack of shared values, shared benefits and shared concerns towards those who are marginalized and left behind.

Some scholars argue that globalization can create new opportunities, new ideas, and open new markets that an entrepreneur may have not had in their home country. As a result, there are a number of positives associated with globalization:

1. It creates greater opportunities for firms in less industrialized countries to tap into more and larger markets around the world
2. This can lead to more access to capital flows, technology, human capital, cheaper imports and larger export markets
3. It allows businesses in less industrialized countries to become part of international production networks and supply chains that are the main conduits of trade

For example, the experience of the East Asian economies demonstrates the positive effect of globalization on economic growth and shows that at least under some circumstances globalization decreases poverty. The spectacular growth in East Asia, which increased GDP per capita by eightfold and raised millions of people out of poverty, was based largely on globalization-export-led growth and closing the technology gap with industrialized countries (Stiglitz, 2003). Generally, economies that globalize have higher growth rates than non-globalizers (Bhagwati and Srinivasan, 2002).



Also, the role of developing country firms in the value chain is becoming increasingly sophisticated as these firms expand beyond manufacturing into services. For example, it is now commonplace for businesses in industrialized countries to outsource functions such as data processing, customer service and reading x-rays to India and other less industrialized countries (Bhagwati, 2004). Advanced telecommunications and the Internet are facilitating the transfer of these service jobs from industrialized to less industrialized and making it easier and cheaper for less industrialized country firms to enter global markets. In addition to bringing in capital, outsourcing helps prevent "brain drain" because skilled workers may choose to remain in their home country rather than having to migrate to an industrialized country to find work.

Further, some of the allegations made by critics of globalization are very much in dispute—for example, that globalization necessarily leads to growing income inequality or harm to the environment. While there are some countries in which economic integration has led to increased inequality—China, for instance—there is no worldwide trend (Dollar, 2003). With regard to the environment, international trade and foreign direct investment can provide less industrialized countries with the incentive to adopt, and the access to, new technologies that may be more ecologically sound (World Bank Briefing Paper, 2001). Transnational corporations may also help the environment by exporting higher standards and best practices to less industrialized countries.

In brief, globalization seems to be more fruitful to the advanced countries and it is ineffective to solve the fundamental problems of the third world. It is clear that globalization and liberalization are unable to solve the fundamental problems of the developing nations such as massive poverty, increasing unemployment and underemployment, lack of social and economic overheads, widespread and multidimensional human deprivations, hunger, social tension, increasing inequality, dislocations of millions of people and so on. If looked back to 1980s, 90s and the first decade of the twenty-first century, all these problems have been found to be associated with man-made crises and environmental degradations, which have been the major issues of today's third world countries since 1980s.

As Costa and Costa point out:

In the case of Africa, we can note two phases in the primitive accumulation of African labour. The first coincided with the Atlantic slave trade (1650-18000), when Africans were brought as slaves to the Americas after their means of reproduction had been forcibly expropriated by kidnapping, legal punishment, and war. The second coincided with colonialism proper (1880-1930), when the means that were employed to expropriate Africans were taxes, corv'ee and land seizures...The fiscal recolonization of the African countries and the diaspora of African labor that have been activated by the debt crisis represent the third phase of primitive accumulation in Africa, once again introduced to separate Africans from their land and social relations (Costa and Costa, 1995,19).

### **Strategies of Globalization in the Third World**

The great problem of liberalization is that the markets are not economically embedded. This is especially true in financial markets. The existing architecture of the global financial market is largely libertarian, facilitating the rapid acquisition of huge private benefits. Its cost can be catastrophic in terms of prosperity and jobs in isolated or in several affected national economies. As a result, the basic rights of people in these countries are jeopardized (Meyer and Breyer 2007). Similarly, the next problem of economic globalization has been evolved from the lack of political control over extensively spreading transnational companies which are establishing in several countries. The companies partially evade national fiscal jurisdiction by depositing their profits in countries with more favorable tax systems. Often companies decentralize their production processes to such an extent that individual components are manufactured in countries where it is most advantageous to produce them.

This reduces production costs whereas it weakens the position of the company personnel and even of the national governments in individual production locales. In this context, following five measures of transnational economic regulation have been suggested. Firstly, the balance between

political goals and economic action has to be renegotiated at the transnational level. Accordingly, legislation must be enacted to set the limits to market events. Secondly, global actors such as IMF, World Bank, OECD and G-7 should form new economic coordination. For this purpose, an agency must be set up to coordinate economic activities at various regional and global levels.

Similarly, the IMF and the World Bank should totally change their policies and global conducive credit conditions for development must be created. Finally, the democratization of decision-making in transnational institutions and the reform of the World Security Council are important steps. Globalization will empower the convergence of the varieties of capitalism in a liberal model devoid of a welfare state. It ensures protection of basic rights, which does not seem to be valid. It is evident that where institutions for the coordination of markets exist, actors tend to make use of these structures. During the past two decades, coordinated market economies have undergone changes in their structures and mechanisms; they have adapted to the new challenges.

The scope of regulation of the economy has grown significantly since the 1990s because of three general trends. First, the increased in privatization process in many countries with lesser role of the state. Second, the transnational market integration which has increased the gap between the extents to which external effects generated by the markets affect the potential for their political regulation. Third, the increment of unforeseeable civilization and environmental risks resulting from unregulated growth processes (Meyer and Breyer 2007).

### **Globalization and Inequality in Developing Countries**

Since 1980s, globalization has entered the vocabulary of many people but the concept has given a variety of meanings that remains the subject of debate and controversy. There is an argument about whether or not it is primarily a political, technological, cultural or economic or multi-causal phenomenon; whether it 'pulls upwards' or 'pushes down'; whether it destroys political autonomy or creates new pressures for local autonomy; whether it shrinks the public sphere or demands its enlargement; or whether it enhances or reduces our capacities to understand the world we live in

(Mendell 2003). So far to focus on economic globalization such as integration of financial markets and other markets, internationalization of production are concerned, 'from 1914 to 1950, however, the world economy experienced lower rates of growth, a retreat from globalization, and economic divergence.' The world economy reversed its surge toward globalization especially after 1990. A number of recent studies have examined globalization's effect on developing countries (Andersen and Kersbergen 2009).

During the period from 1973 through the 1980s, inequality rose in the North, in part due to globalization forces. Economic theory and a few studies argue that such rise in inequality would be coupled with a more egalitarian South. The recent widening of wage inequalities in the United States occurred simultaneously with a trend toward trade liberalization and the increased immigration of unskilled workers from developing countries. Borjas has estimated that these forces have contributed 15 to 20 percent of the relative decrease in the wages of high school graduates compared with college graduates: trade accounting to one-third, and immigration two third. Have these patterns resulted in stimulating the relative demand for unskilled labor in the developing countries and thus made developing countries more egalitarian? "Adrian wood assertions are consistent with economic theory, recent studies show that the number of countries in Latin America and East Asia have experienced increase, not decline, in wage inequality after trade liberalization" (qtd. in Williamson 2000).

However, globalization of markets has widened economic inequality and inaugurated a competitive 'race to the bottom' as government seek to attract mobile capital by reducing or eliminating perceived impediments to business, such as relatively high business taxes and relatively entrenched labor rights (Tilly 1995). On the other hand, global income and real GDP have risen sevenfold since the end of World War II and threefold in per capita terms, but during that time, the gap in incomes between developed and developing nations continued to widen. In addition, large disparities emerged among developing countries. In this context, Sub-Sahara Africa was the poorest region in the world, where the fundamental issue of human survival remained a grave concern. African nation's real incomes fell or remained stagnant from 1987 to 1994.

The Latin American economies were more unequal relative to other developing regions. Thus, increased inequality in the region was coupled with rising poverty. Economic recovery in the early 1990s boosted the region's growth rates, the real income of the bottom 40 percent remained below the poverty line in most Latin American countries.

In the developing countries, large disparities in inequality and poverty can be attributed to differences in the role of government. Government is associated with the goal of greater equality if income and wealth were coped with the means of redistributive tax and welfare policies (Mendell 2003). However the most successful East Asian nations have placed on emphasis on poverty alleviation rather than on reduction of inequality (Kim 2000).

### **Poverty, Growth and Globalization in Third World Countries**

The majority of the poor people live in rural areas of Africa. Lack of political commitment and public support programs for rural development are major hurdles of poverty reduction in this continent. The rural poor people experience very little access to credit, land and extension services. In Latin America, inequality and poverty reflect the legacy of import substitution strategy. This caused Latin American countries to embrace austerity measures in the 1980s, which quickly increased the numbers of critically poor, low paid underemployment and low-wage workers. In addition, market-led growth does not automatically reduce inequality and poverty.

Obviously, positive economic growth is not sufficient condition for the reduction of poverty. Moreover, inequality has been observed in many countries. Hence a number of studies point to a strong relationship between equality and growth (Kim 2000). This case is not universal that, on average, very little movement toward equality accompanies the process of growth. Moreover, in the 1980s structural adjustment policy gave many countries an additional push toward inequality Adelman and Fuwa (1995).

So far as the development and income distribution are concerned, physical and demographic conditions also affect a country's options for development and its income distribution. In addition, natural resources abundance is often associated with inequality. Likewise, greater population density

implies less arable land and per agricultural worker. Obviously, less arable land and per agricultural worker are associated with more income inequality.

Economic theory suggests that greater openness to world trade in developing countries will reduce wage inequality. Trade liberalization raises the relative demand for unskilled workers and therefore reduces the wage gap between the skilled and the unskilled. The evidence for East Asia during the 1960s and 1970s supports this theory, but the Latin American's experience since the mid-1980s does not. When the ratio of skilled to unskilled labor is lower for export than for imports, then increased openness to trade should raise the demand for unskilled workers.

The conventional wisdom postulates that increased trade liberalization in developing countries increases the demand for the unskilled relative to skilled labor and thus reduces wage inequality. However, the Latin American experience in the mid-1980s and 1990s challenges this wisdom (Wood 2000). Governments of the third world place their faith in macroeconomic management of largely private economies, combined with measures of redistribution, regional policy, various labor market initiatives, provision of educational opportunity, free health care and social service entitlements (Mendell 2003). However, privatization has been a centrepiece of the market-oriented development strategies employed in developing countries over the past three decades. In this framework, the state is an agent of various interest groups, which negotiates the transfer of income and wealth among various factions to the society. Privatization affects the state's ability to control its distributional impact (Cook and Kirkpatrick 1995).

The extent and generosity of welfare provision also varied from one country to another as did the principles upon which it was founded. Employment is a core issue for the future of the welfare state for fundamental reasons of social cohesion and individual self-esteem and for reasons of economic sustainability. However, employment is not sufficient to define the aims of social justice. High employment rates are, no doubt, necessary but not a sufficient condition for fair equality of opportunity in society or social inclusion as is shown by comparative figure on poverty (a good yardstick for social exclusion) in the working age population (Vandenbroucke 1998).

Nevertheless, employment is the major issue in welfare reform, which provides an appropriate route out of poverty. By ignoring the debate for the moment and focusing on the alleged negative consequences of globalization, we can identify interconnected theses that the powers of national governments have been steadily reduced. (Gray 1993). Similarly, Keynesian deficit financing to maintain full employment, which was a central feature of post-war economy, is now inoperable. Growing inequality both within and between nations is, thus, driven by globalization. The rich command internationally determined rates of remuneration; companies seek profits globally; and the unskilled—both low-waged and unemployed—are faced with a growing army of cheap labor across the globe (Mendell 2003).

Critics of global economic integration warn that (Watkins, 2002, Yusuf, 2001):

1. The growth of international trade is exacerbating income inequalities, both between and within industrialized and less industrialized nations
2. Global commerce is increasingly dominated by transnational corporations which seek to maximize profits without regard for the development needs of individual countries or the local populations
3. Protectionist policies in industrialized countries prevent many producers in the Third World from accessing export markets;
4. The volume and volatility of capital flows increases the risks of banking and currency crises, especially in countries with weak financial institutions
5. Competition among developing countries to attract foreign investment leads to a "race to the bottom" in which countries dangerously lower environmental standards
6. Cultural uniqueness is lost in favor of homogenization and a "universal culture" that draws heavily from American culture

Critics of economic integration often point to Latin America as an example where increased openness to international trade had a negative economic effect. Many governments in Latin America (e.g. Peru) liberalized imports far more rapidly than in other regions. In much of Latin America, import liberalization has been credited with increasing the number of people living

below the USD \$1 a day poverty line and has perpetuated already existing inequalities (Watkins, 2002).

### **Balancing Globalization**

Since it is an almost entirely Western- propelled process, it is mostly noticeable for liberal scholars to give the concept a Universalist connotation. The liberal scholars maintain that globalization is a universal process which requires the prominence of the capitalist liberal democratic tenets to ensure positive impacts. Thus, they advocate for a closely almost knitted interdependent system, via reforms to liberalise, deregulate, privatize, democratize and respect for individual rights.

What will therefore follow this guarantee process of change, they argue is the gradual homogenization of social interactions, through information and communication technology, because importance of space will become de-emphasized, Giddens (1990), "time-scape distancing". For instance, various social media platforms such as: Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, WhatsApp etc., are bringing about the transformation.

Generally, the impacts of globalization have made some scholars to define it on cost-benefit basis. For such, globalization represent a Western led project to penetrate and conquer markets, which in turn weakens states role, Anugwom (2006), Jonah (2004), Nwosu (2005), such negative impacts of globalization have led to both economic losses and social dislocation in many developing countries Ogbu (2006).

Jonah (2004) argues that globalization is the last stage of capitalism. And that the neo-liberal economic expansion and policy prescriptions are to structurally accrue benefits to the global North and their Multinational corporations, which will engender prosperity and peace. Though this definition help to depict the structural imbalance, and perhaps the increasing brain drain being experienced in the global South, it did not say whether a global half can enjoy exclusive peace and prosperity without creating global crises such as: global migration crisis, climate change and market shocks. While unrest in the global South may affect the profit margin the Multination corporations of the industrialized countries, for instance the Niger Delta in Nigeria.



Furthermore, he blamed the interpenetration of global entities in the economies of the developing countries on the crises of overproduction and under consumption. This has led to the quest for markets and sources for raw materials. Thus, the present economic structure is the reflection of the profit motive of MNCs in the global North. In the process, the power of the state is sufficiently undermined (Jonah (2004), Ohmae (1995), Olayode (2006); as against the dual effect of globalization identified by Ibeanu (2001). For him, the North (developed countries) is having aggregative/recompositional effect, while the third world countries are experiencing disaggregative/decompositional effect. On the other hand, Held and McGrew (2007), taking the transformationalist view, maintain that the state is still relevant today. We can therefore conclude from the above that;

- a) The third world countries are in a structurally disadvantaged economic position
- b) Denial or lack of developmental resources (Capital and technology)
- c) Developing countries have been dragged into the net of indebtedness
- d) Quasi erosion of state power and sovereignty.
- e) Economic and social dislocation.

Drawing from Jonah's (2004) assertion, capital, technology as well as structures to sustain existing economic system is vital. Nwosu (2005, citing Ahmed, 2001) captures it this way ;

...the current dominant forms of economic and financial globalization In the context of their concomitant processes of liberalization and Integration are clearly of benefit to those with considerable amounts of accumulated capital or certain professional skills to sell or trade in the market place...Those without one or both to sell or trade such as the poor and already marginalized in both industrialized and developing countries are clearly being further disempowered and peripheralized by such globalization process.

From the above, we can see that some third world countries cannot possibly compete favourably in the global economy. One, a major source of foreign direct investment (FDI) comes from the multinational corporations, who

don't re-invest profits in the host countries but rather repatriate to their home countries. Thus creating a dire need of capital required to drive economic growth and development in developing countries. Also, the lack of sufficient skills despite huge population has been a major setback to developing countries to compete with technological verse working force in the industrialized countries. It is well known fact that multinational corporations do not drive the process of technological transfers to enhance skills and expertise in their host countries. This led to disempowerment in the third world countries with the exception to very few emerging economies. It is in this light, that we would depict the core meaning of globalization within the context of third world realities. While the process and description of globalization have received much attention, Ogbu(2006), contends that still it fails to capture the essence of the concept. He thus explains that;

Globalization is basically the challenge of surviving in a global world of unbridled competition, propelled by global capital and trade, and advances in new technologies. This challenge is both to individuals, groups and/or political entities...This rational speaking, requires responses in order to ensure one's survival in the face of globally institutionalized rules of economic and political competition scripted by the powerful nations of the world.

Stating further that the liberalization principles imbedded in the World Trade Organisation negotiation framework continues to maintain inequality. Because these rules, procedures and agreements are not neutral, but rather are to serve the interests of the developed countries. Due to this skewed structures, Nigeria, as in other developing countries, industrialization have been frustrated, because domestic industries cannot compete with the technologically advanced competitors in the North as a result of protectionist policies to give undue advantages. Chidozie and Olanrewaju (2016) noted that;

Neo-economic practices are bringing the world back to the Darwinian jungle of the survival of the fittest in which everything exist in a perpetual state of fierce competition in pursuit of self-interest.

Following immediately after the Second World War, the United States solely carried the responsibility of rebuilding shattered Europe through its Marshall Plan programme. Since it had no equal competitor, she single handedly undertook the setting up of global architectures to drive and sustain the current skewed global economy which is promoted by multilateral institutions such as International Monetary Fund, World Bank, United Nations and the World Trade Organization. Clairmont (1996) cited in Nwosu, 2005) says "what the U.S. imperial master demanded, and still does, was not allies but unctuous client states. What Bretton Woods bequeathed to the world was a lethal totalitarian blueprint for the curve up of the world markets". Further stating that policies by these international agencies are not to redistribute world resources.

Thus, the marginalized and most social dislocations in the third world could be blamed on the dependent nature of the economies. Even the "Partnership for Economic Growth and Opportunities in Africa", is to further still sustain the marginal role of Africa in the world economic system, and its proper integration. As rightly captured, the global economy is pregnant with injustice (Nwosu,2005),structurally skewed (Jonah ,2004), mortgaged economies (Chidozie and Olanrewaju,2016),where some nations dominate, dictate, monopolise wealth and trade and production of certain goods ;while the developing countries wallow in distorted, uneven and dependent economies as well as low-cost labour and primary goods not mainly met for local markets but intricately tied to industrialized countries. It shows that no particular third world country can go it alone, therefore the need to hinge on the present emerging economic blocs to bargain for considerable concessions via multilateral diplomacy. It is within this context that we set out to examine the recently emerged economic blocs and their prospects or model for the developing countries, there are ; the BRICS and the MINT.

### **The New Paradigm and Gap in Literature**

#### **Emerging New Normal: The BRICS and MINT Countries**

In 2001, the acronym BRIC was coined to depict newly emerging markets with bright prospects to a possible replacement of major developed countries. These countries include: Brazil, Russia, India, China and later joined by South Africa in 2010, when it presently assume BRICS. The BRICS

with the last decade of its existence has display remarkable economic improvement, only relatively slowed by the global economic recession For instance as reported, the BRICS combined GDP represent 25% share of world's GDP and 15% of world trade. These increases represent a share in world GDP of about 150% in the last two decades Suresh and Dude (nd). According to Pedro et al (2012), the BRICS have the following characteristics such as the size of their economies, admirable growth rate that has made them increasingly relevant and their strong demand for better representation in the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank (WB), World Trade Organization (WTO), as corresponding to their economic status. However, even though they seek to advocate for reform of these international organizations, in most expedient cases where their political weight would attract compromise, they failed to present a common voice as the last selection of both IMF and World Bank candidates attest to this fact.

According to Durotoye (2014), in 2013, another economic grouping , the MINT , which includes: Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Turkey, started gaining attraction in the world due to their large and growing population that will contribute actively to the economy compared to the declining rate of population growth the developed countries; while their strategically located to take advantage of large markets ; and one may add that the MINT countries exert some considerable level of influence such as Nigeria and Turkey. Below is fig. 1 showing the prospect of the MINT countries.

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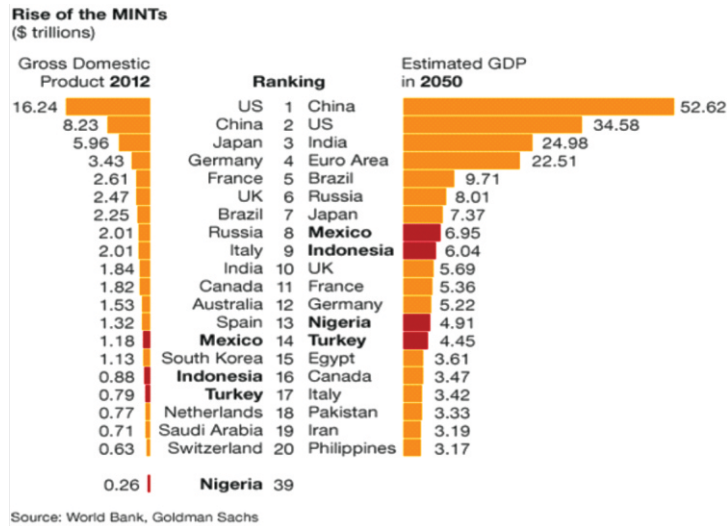


Fig. 1

The above diagram shows the possible movement of the MINT countries to the top twenty economies in the world by 2050. The prominence of this projection has been supported by private international institutions and intergovernmental agencies such as the IMF.

Mexico, which shows more promising prospect with its present position of 14<sup>th</sup>, is moving to the 8<sup>th</sup> in 2050. Though its GDP growth rate slowed in 2013, declining to 1% from 3.8% in 2012 and 5.1% in 2010, which is directly tied to the slowdown in the U.S. Its unemployment rate was 4% in 2013 out of a population of 116 million; while in terms of FDI within the same period was US\$38 billion, with a single digit inflation rate. For Indonesia, which is one of the strong economies in southeast Asia, had a GDP growth rate of 5.6% in 2013, with unemployment rate out of a population of 251 million and single digit inflation rate. Also it is projected that in the next decade, 60 million of low income earners will move to the middle class.

While Nigeria is trying to diversify its mono-economy from oil to other non-oil sector such as: agriculture and mineral resources. Oil has been the mainstay of the economy of Nigeria, contributing over 90% to government's expenditure but, following reforms to boost income; the non-oil sector has

contributed immensely to the rise of the GDP within the period. In 2014, it overtook South Africa to become the largest economy in Africa, with a GDP rate of 6.7% in 2013 from 6.5% in 2012 and also maintaining a single digit inflation rate of 9%. Its present unemployment rate of about 29.3% shows the need to create more jobs. Since the price of oil has far declined from its peak of over a hundred to about 40 dollar per barrel, Nigeria would be forced to further push its reforms of the non-oil sector to boost government's expenditure.

As for Turkey, its relative poor performance has been blamed on the volatile nature of the region. For instance its GDP fell to 3.9% in 2013 from 8.5% in 2011, though it shows a remarkable comeback for the nadir level of 2.22%, thus giving hope of further growth in the future particularly with huge investments coming from American and European companies. While these economies may prove to be major players in the global economy, there is need for synergy to capitalize on increasing inflows of long term capital in providing sustainable infrastructures to aid development. As report that developing and transition economies have increased substantially level of capital inflows. And as proportion of gross national income (GNI), the net external inflows stood at 5% in 2013, with accompanied strong growth and improving current accounts. Moreover, as a group, there has been emergence of external reserve assets (UNCTAD, 2015). For the BRICS countries, within 2006 to 2011, Brazil, China, India got a net inflow compared to outflows. It was only Russia was the case reversing within the same period. While the MINT record are varied.

### **Conclusion**

Globalization is the final stage of open economy for universal market. In the economic term, it is the process of integration of national economies with international market. In fact, economic globalization is the eliminating process of national borders. It represents the triumph of classical economists like Adam Smith and David Ricardo. In a strict sense, globalization is the extension of market capitalism, which begins with the implementation of privatization policies followed by economic liberalization. Globalization reduces government's role in the economy and increases economic interdependency among different nations. This interdependency could be beneficial particularly to the advanced countries, which have sufficient

export-able capacities with comparatively low cost production techniques. Globalization is not seemed to be an effective measure in the third world to address their fundamental economic challenges such as massive poverty, increasing unemployment, multidimensional human deprivations, starvations, inequality and environmental degradations. Even though whatever might be the negative economic impacts of globalization, the third world cannot avoid most of the costs of globalization. Therefore, the best strategy is to minimize or mitigate losses. Globalization also opens some opportunities to all developing nations. So, it is suggested to reduce negative economic impacts of globalization. For this, government of the third world nations should work jointly with private sectors to improve supply constraints.

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## **WOMEN, ENVIRONMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OPTIONS IN NIGERIA: ISSUES AND SOLUTIONS**

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### **Introduction**

In this work, women, environment and sustainable development options in Nigeria, issues and solutions were assessed. Women's roles as managers of natural resources, as farmers, water and energy suppliers and health providers in many communities can then be fully understood. Its objective understands of women's unique relationship with the environment and their pivotal roles in sustainable development are still very much evolving and lacking in this era in Nigeria. There are various environmental and developmental issues that concerned women directly or indirectly. Education and awareness creation are most important as most women are not aware of the problems that surround them; neither do they know how much they contribute to the environmental development or its deterioration and vice versa. This study used both primary and secondary data collection methodology (qualitative and quantitative data), field reports from forest rangers, evaluation staff, farmers /communities interviews on women prone actions to climate change and survey of major literatures to fill the research

gaps. The activities of women indicates that they are always centred on their immediate environment and thus bringing them nearer to nature than men. Such women based activities includes; tilling the land, fetching of water for domestic uses, fetching of wood for fuel, hawking, solid mineral exploration, reproduction and sanitation amongst others. Results of the study shows that, 85% of women in Nigeria are known to be the best exploiters of the environment through agriculture, fishing, fetching of water and wood for fuel, they are able to improve the little land available and conserve soil, improve on agricultural productivity/ food security, provide drinking water and energy for daily cooking. Given this development, whenever the environment is degraded, women and their children are the worst hit by different catastrophes. Thus, degraded environment means hardships to women and shortage of natural resources such as, clean water, fertile soil, good sanitation, fresh air free of diseases, reduction in agricultural productivity and abject poverty. The study concluded and recommended that for sustainable environment management demands that opportunities be created for women to translate their positive knowledge and energies of preserving their surrounding into action while those of destructive activities are totally discouraged. For us achieve the sustainable development goals (SDGs) by 2030 in Nigeria, these harmful environmental practices be curtailed like cutting of trees for domestic cooking, industrial timber, clear felling for agricultural productions, overgrazing of herbs, shrubs and distortion of watershed areas.

The chapter x-rayed and examined the important repercussions which some activities of women brought on the environment and highlighted the problems confronting women and environmental sustainability due to environmental degradation and the poverty it exacerbates. This chapter showcased various scenarios of injuries inflicted on to the environment via the anthropogenic activities (especially rural women) which suggests core policy measures needed to improve the environment and the quality of life of vulnerable women and children in Nigeria.

### **Background to the Study**

The linkages between women, development and the environment have to be clearly understood, so that in the implementation of sustainable development goals (SDGs) would not repeat the past mistakes of millennium development goals (MDGs) due to some gender blindness and

bias of the implementers of the programs. This can be done by examining women's role in the much broader concept of "gender" as a socio-economic variable, in order to analyse the different gender roles and responsibilities (i.e. the roles of men, women and children). In such analysis, a clearer understanding of the different, but significant roles played by women (especially in many productive aspects of the economy like agriculture, forestry will be attained. Women's roles as managers of natural resources, as farmers, water and energy suppliers and health providers in many communities can then be fully understood. The understanding of women's unique relationship with the environment and their pivotal role in sustainable development is still very much evolving in this millennium (Ujih, 2016). There are various environmental and developmental issues that concern women directly or indirectly. Education and awareness creation are most important as most women are not aware of the problems that surround them; neither do they know how much they contribute to the environment.

The activities of women indicates that they are always centred on their immediate environment and thus bringing them nearer to nature than men. Such women based activities includes; tilling the land, fetching of water for domestic uses, fetching of wood for fuel, hawking, solid mineral exploration, reproduction and sanitation among others. Given this development, whenever the environment is degraded, women and their children are the worst hit by different catastrophes. Thus, degraded environment means hardships to women and shortage of natural resources such as, clean water, fertile soil, good sanitation, fresh air free of diseases, reduction in agricultural productivity and abject poverty.

The Nigerian environment faces a lot of challenges and the outlook is poor. The rate at which renewable resources are being exploited is increasing beyond their carrying capacity to regenerate and certain women activities are putting stresses on the ecosystem. Literatures are unanimous that women perform functions in their surroundings, which put them in close proximity and constant link with both its destruction and protection. Women have always relied on the environment for the provision of most of the environmental resources for their socio-economic options. However, an over exploited environment would always spell doom to women, thereby undermining their socio economic growths, which in the long run could lead

to diseases, reduction in agricultural productivity, loss of amenity and poverty etc. The exploitation of the environment by women can lead to either environmental degradation (soil degradation, desertification, deforestation, flooding, water supply depletion and atmospheric depletion) or economic development through the provision of natural resources. This connection indicates that an environment that is well managed and protected would continue to provide the necessary natural resources for women, children and for economic development in general, but when the environment is degraded the welfare of women is reduced by ill health and premature mortality, and an impaired health may lower the productivity of women thus reducing the productivity of many resources used directly or indirectly by women. In addition, an endangered environment would not give clean and quite neighbourhoods. The implication of this is deterioration in the quality of life and poverty which goes further to degrade the environment. Given this relationship, the environment is so important to women that it provides all the natural resources needed for their survival and that of their entire family.

The World Commission on Environment and Development (1987) reiterates that the relationship between women and the environment can be examined at the levels of personal hygiene and the structure and maintenance of the house in terms of its design, capacity and general cleanliness and external habitats of the environment surrounding the house. For instance, at the personal and residential level, women in Nigeria play significant roles in maintaining the quality of the environment. As the custodian of good housekeeping, they see to the basic hygiene of the family, keeping the surrounding clean, which involves bathing the children, clothing and dressing them, sweeping and clearing the surrounding, seeing to the efficient disposal of all generated wastes and cooking in hygienic surroundings toward reducing in and outdoor pollutions. Cleaver and Schreiber (1992) opined that a sustainable environment will increase female productivity capable of translating into increasing the aggregate productivity in the whole economy and thus, reduce the incidence and the negative welfare outcome of poverty, reduce fertility rates and increase household demand for health and education services. However, through sustainable environment, the return to female labour will also increase which in turn will help increase the aggregate female income spent on food,

health care services and other basic needs. Increasing female productivity through sustainable environment will also increase the opportunity cost of child bearing and thereby strengthening the incentives for families to invest in women's health and education. Given the natural resource base of Nigeria the level of environmental concern generally, women stand out as the invisible managers of this abundant resource base because of the crucial role they play in the environment as a whole.

Oladipo (1994) and Mitchell (1995) observe that women in developing countries are managers of the local natural resources surrounding them, hence, to a large extent, the availability of resources is critical in determining the extent of poverty. Good or poor management can sustain or severely damage the resources base and contribute to increased poverty levels of the populace.

Pollution is of major concern in water supply especially in the industrial centres of Abba, Enugu, Lagos, Ibadan, Kano, Onitsha and the oil producing states of Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross Rivers, Delta and Rivers. Women need to be aware of the insensitivities of the oil companies who cause environmental damages, through leakages, corrosion and blow out of oil wells and pipelines leading to destruction of crops/ farmlands, aquatic lives and water sources. Women organisations need to form their opinions about these issues and raise the consciousness of Nigerian women; they should initiate debates and act as agents of change in environmental sustenance.

### **Major Objectives**

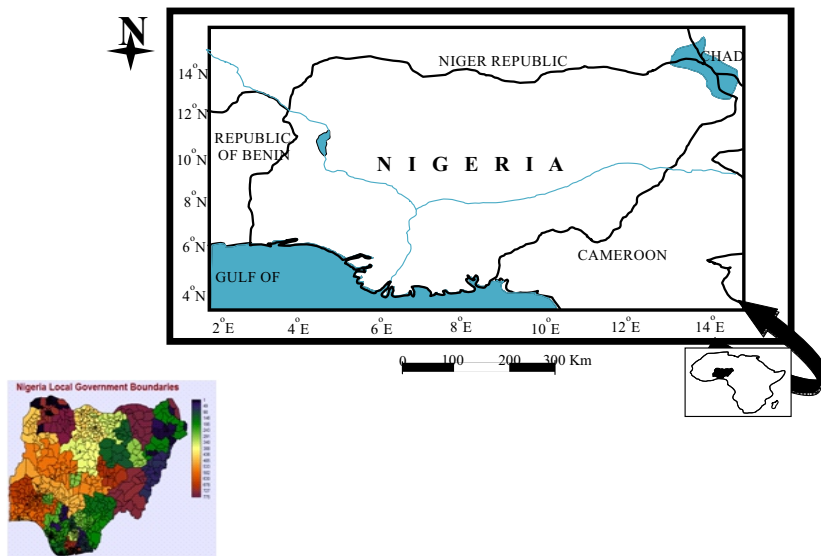
The general objectives of the chapter was to identify and address the major challenges faced by Nigerian women in relation to political powerlessness and marginalisation has made them uninformed of basic economic and political issues affecting the state of our environments. The women must therefore be empowered through better education and decision making. The introduction concludes and buttressed the fact that, societies, governments, donor agencies and all concerned to invest more in women to save our environment and the future of the nation. To guide against the present and future environmental degradation, calls for environmental sustainable policies which seeks to improve environmental stewardship and those that seek to stop environmental damaging and behaviour of women

in land use destruction (Ujih, 2016). Sustainable environmental management demands that opportunities be created for women to translate their positive knowledge and energies of preserving their surrounding into action while those of destructions are discouraged. For us achieve the sustainable development goals (SDGs) by 2030 in Nigeria, these harmful environmental practices should be curtailed like cutting of trees for domestic cooking, industrial timber, clear felling for agricultural productions, overgrazing of herbs, shrubs and distortion of watershed areas.

## Methodology

### Study area

The study area is centered on Nigeria but covers a rectangular area including southern part of Niger Republic, as well as Cameroon and Republic of Benin. The whole area is bounded within Latitude 4.15° to 14.11°N and Longitude 02.6° to 14.71°



### Methods

This study used both primary and secondary data collection methodologies (qualitative and quantitative data), field reports from forest rangers, evaluation staff, farmers and communities interviews on women actions



that are prone to climate change and survey of major literatures to fill the research gaps.

### **Findings**

The nexus of women, environment and sustainable Development options are those roles women impact positively or negatively upon the environment include amongst others: - food production, food preparation, deforestation, mineral extraction to measure but a few.

### **Women and Food Production**

The input of women at various stages of agriculture (subsistence farming) compared to men's inputs, indicates that women contribute more to labour input at all stages of food production, and women's work increases as men leave the rural areas for paid employment (Tanko, 1995 and Gallen, 1993). Nigeria is no exception to the above trend, where Tanko (1995) and Adewale (1994) observe that the women's traditional role of planting, weeding, processing, storage and marketing produce, has increased to include the traditional activities of men, because of the withdrawal of men's labour from agriculture to wage sector and movement into cash crop production. In addition, there is the problem of inadequate agricultural extension services which is supposed to educate the women on innovative agricultural practices and environmental management.

Gallen (1993) and Blumberg (1994) stressed that only 7% of extension time and resources are devoted to African women farmers, compared to 13% worldwide. Similarly, only 7% of extension agents are female and many of these are even home economists. Blumberg (1994) however notices that innovative programmes are beginning to reach women. Another dimension of food production is what Adewale (1994) referred to as the picking of fruits, leaves, roots, nuts and vegetables from the forest, but sometimes only directed by the community or season to avoid over exploitation. These activities of women in agriculture have serious implications for the environment. First, women employ smoking trees and slash and burnt methods in clearing for agriculture, leading to loss of biodiversity/ecology and soil erosion. The more farmlands are cleared using these unsustainable techniques, the more the derived savanna and desertification creep southwards. Conversely, women adopt some sustainable agricultural

practices like ecological farming and agro forestry, thereby embracing biodiversity. Mitchell (1995) argues that many women in developing countries have found creativity and resourcefully conserve soil resources by using traditional fallow techniques, allowing the land to rest between plantings, rotating crops, intercropping and mulching. They form cooperatives or organized traditional meetings to deliver and sustain agricultural extension information and resources, leading to increased number of farmers reached and a reduction in the time and expense incurred in traveling to meet individual farmers. Secondly, in the process of excessive tilling and weeding, women loosen the soil, making it exposed and vulnerable to erosion which is common phenomenon in North central states of Nigeria. In contrast, sustainable practices like contouring, terracing and bullock ploughing preserve soil structures and the environment. In checking erosion, women often pile stones, gravels, sand and rubbish in sacks in the affected area to reduce the velocity of the runoff, rain storms and floods.

### **Women and Food Preparation**

The role of women in nutrition is very vital to the environment. Women's failure therefore to prepare balanced diet may cause health problems in families, with very negative implications for the population. In preparing food, women spend time processing items including grinding of maize, millet and sorghum into flour for household meals which exhaust them physically. They also conserve subsistence food items traditionally, sometimes leading to spoilage, spillage and contamination and rodent between the time of harvest and consumption. Because of poverty, most women in Nigeria use firewood stove for cooking. This often creates dangers of getting children burnt and in some cases burning the whole house. Akinyele (1994) opines that there are links between cooking and indoor air pollution brought about by smoke from coal or firewood, Stoves may cause respiratory infections and many children in Nigeria that are exposed to smoke from fuel wood often develop bronchitis (due to mother carrying children on their laps or backs while cooking and tending fire). Akinyele (1994) also reveals that children exposed to open fires have higher rate of impaired lung infection and chronic respiratory systems, compared to children not exposed to such pollutants. Furthermore, cooking with children crouched close to fire; often make children to sustain heat damage to eyes. In rural Nigeria, the pollutants affect women themselves especially

pregnant ones. In addition, in performing such activities- like grinding of pepper, corn or beans, women use contaminated water, which have negative implications for health via communicability of deadly diseases. Besides, Akinyele (1994) emphasizes that sometimes food contamination can occur during the food preparation, especially when food handling and transportation practices are unsanitary. The situation is worsened by the fact that women take care of mucus, faeces and urine of children and the preparation of food within the same environment. These all can cause outbreaks of communicable diseases leading to high morbidity and mortality rate in the population, which is a major component of the environment as the ecosystem web.

### **Women and Deforestation**

Poverty has a significant linkage with woodlands and forest depletion in Nigeria as majority of the people, particularly poor (mostly women), depend on wood as source of energy for boiling water for bathing and cooking. Poverty has led to an almost total dependence of majority of rural women on the forest for livelihood and economic survival. The search for firewood is one of the major causes for deforestation in developing countries and is threatening agricultural sustainability with serious consequences for the rural poor, and is a female job. World Bank (1993) reports that 15-20 million hectares of forest are being consumed annually in developing countries especially in arid and semi- arid regions of the world and that some 3 billion people rely on firewood for almost all their household energy (World Resources Institute, 1996). Major users of firewood are women. Thus, the wide spread deforestation and the extension of agricultural lands into forest areas have increased the burdens especially of female population. They now spent more time and trek longer distances collecting firewood (World Resources Institute, 1996). This development has forced women to resort to the use of inferior fuel power [more smoke] that is cheaper and easily available such as, cow dung is used in India, millet and stalks in Boukina Faso, sawdust in some parts of Nigeria. This fuel alternate produces indoor air pollution. Women and children in developing countries who spend hours in unventilated structures are exposed to smoke from cooking stoves. Smoky household fire exposes people to significant health risk and facilitates the spread of acute respiratory infections like bronchitis and pneumonia in children and chronic

pulmonary diseases in adults, especially women (Pio and Slandfield, 1987). Also crop residues and even cow dung is burnt instead of being returned to the soil, thus, reducing soil fertility and water holding capacity. The magnitude of fuel wood collection is aggravated by the fact that kerosene, gas and electricity are not easily available and affordable. This situation has continuously resulted in the depletion of forest reserves for fuelwood. Wrong value or pricing of fuel increases the demand for fuel wood because it is collected freely. Forest depletion has increased in areas that fuel wood cost has increased. Yet, fuelwood remains the most affordable option. High fuelwood prices appear also to be responsible for an increase in the illegal extraction and sale of firewood by the rural poor which increases income in the short run but with reduced agricultural productivity and fuel resources. When the surface is stripped bare, it becomes highly vulnerable to erosion by wind and water, it renders soil bare thus increasing the surface albedo and making the atmosphere warmer, the condition which favours cloud dispersal hence low rainfall.

Deforestation accelerates wind speed, which have often resulted in hazards related to settlement and agriculture. Houses and other properties have been lost through such environmental mishaps (Gbadegesin and Oyelaran, 1995). When forest is removed, the surface is exposed to direct heat from sun, destroying shade-loving soil micro and macro organisms. Droughts can become longer while rainfall becomes heavier over short period, consequently storming and floods become more severe and eventually famine might set in leading to death. To conserve forests, women are known to resort (collecting deadwood and involve in tree planting for economic purposes or to either minimize desertification and over exploitation and to prevent soil erosion.

### **Women and Artisanal Mining**

Mining whose activities sometimes produce undesirable effects on the environment is one of the activities performed by women. Women engage in sculpture work, which involves the use of different types of soils. Earthen ware vessels such as pots are produced locally using clay as raw material. Advancement in technology has improved the quality and types of such vessels produced, For instance, ceramic plates, cups, pots and ornamental vessels are manufactured by process of strong heating of clay (Olanrewaju.

2000). Women in rural areas mine sand for various constructional purposes. Erosion of greater magnitude and of geomorphic significance consequent of women activities has been observed in mining sites, which poses threat to man's physical environment. Mining by women and its associated activities are also sources of a considerable damage to surface water, ground water, land and the existence of mining wastelands.

From the results and discussion it shows that 85% of women in Nigeria are known to be the best exploiters of the environment through agriculture, fishing, fetching of water and wood for fuel, they are able to improve the little land available and conserve soil, improve on agricultural productivity, food security, provide drinking water and energy for daily cooking. Thus, it enables them to increase their income and welfare, thereby enabling them to invest more on the land, manages water resources effectively and distances them away from poverty menace.

### **Women and Waste Generation**

There are varieties of wastes emanating from women activities. Their contribution to solid waste generation in the form of yam peeling, maize husks, leaves, cans and polythene bags, some of which are dumped in the gutter and contribute to urban floods. Of significance is the chemicalized waste water found all around hair salon (Segnola, 1998). The women handling children excreta throw the children's faeces into the nearby garbage heap and baby diapers may be washed in basins at stand - pipe in the urban areas. These materials often enter the garbage heaps in the neighbourhoods neatly packed in nylon bags. The indiscriminate disposal of such wastes causes damage to the environment and health of the communities. Thus, environmental damage may occur in the form of ecological disturbance such as pollution and eutrophication of water bodies and deaths of flora and fauna of aquatic or terrestrial systems. It can lead to biodiversity and morbidity or mortality of population. Market purchases by women (corncoobs, vegetable wastes, packaged materials, etc.) bring in a variety of wastes along. These wastes however contain a lot of valuable resources in the form of nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium. Thus, in actual sense it is the management of wastes that is a problem. For instance, when children are asked to carry out cleaning exercise especially by women, proper supervision is not given to where and how it should be disposed of by

the children. Also, indiscriminate dumping of refuse, inefficient collection and disposal of garbage, may contribute to the outbreak of diseases like typhoid, cholera and malaria (Olaore, 1983).

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

Based on the analysis of this survey, the following conclusions and recommendations need to be given priority attention in Nigeria in the area of women, children and environment toward a sustainable development as thus;

- a) There is need to involve women in environmental management such as environmental education and awareness. It is imperative for women at all levels as individuals, groups and associations be involved and incorporated in ramification of land management programs in communities.
- b) There is the need to formulate and enforce comprehensive national policy on environmental related challenges. The focus should be to promote, integrated ecosystem and environmentally sound management for agricultural activities, soil, water conservation and rural development. Reforestation of existing erosion sites needs urgent stabilization to stem the rate of land degradation and loss of land resources in Nigerian ecology.
- c) Policy reforms that alleviate women capital and labour constraints in order to utilize land for increased food production sustainability is advocated.
- d) Researches intensified on how to involve women in environment management and farming that help promote development, especially towards improving the quality of environment and monitoring of environmental.

Sustainable development will only be meaningful if it does not increase a country's vulnerability to environmental impacts. Such development should give due attention to social, economic and technological progress and yet does not sacrifice natural resource productivity to the gallery. The obvious path to make development sustainable in Nigeria is to fully integrate

women and girls in environmental agenda and concerns in socio-economic development and ensure that relevant environmental policies are not only put in place but effectively and efficiently implemented (Ujih, 2016). The relationship between the environment and women is in two ways. The quality of the environment is itself part of the improvement in welfare and productivity of women. Environmental damage can always undermine both the present and future productivity of women. To guide against the present and future environmental degradation, calls for environmental sustainable policies which seeks to improve environmental stewardship and those that seek to stop environmental damaging and behaviour of women in land use destruction. Sustainable environmental management demands that opportunities be created for women to translate their positive knowledge and energies of preserving their surrounding into action while those of destructions are discouraged.

The chapter x-rayed and examined the important repercussions which some activities of women brought on the environment and highlighted the problems confronting women and environmental sustainability due to environmental degradation and the poverty it exacerbates. Various scenarios of injuries inflicted on the environment from anthropogenic activities (especially rural women), these harmful environmental practices should be curtailed like cutting of trees for domestic cooking, industrial timber, clear felling for agricultural productions, overgrazing of herbs, shrubs and distortion of watershed areas by 2030 in Nigeria, suggests core policy measures to improve the environment, quality of life of vulnerable women and children in Nigeria.

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## THE INCIDENCE AND PREVALENCE OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN NIGERIA

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### Introduction

Women both married and unmarried have been subjected to vicious attacks from men, rape, sexual assault, brutalization and victimization have in recent time been on the increase in Nigeria, with victims embarrassed to report such incidence to the right agencies. Therefore this study aim clarify the concept violence, investigate the prevalence of violence, factors responsible for the incidence of violence against women, forms of violence against women and its effects to the victims, the family and the larger society. Suggestions are put forward on how to eradicate the menace of violence against women in the society.

### Background to the Study

The role of women in the development of any nation cannot be overemphasized. For one woman plays a significance role in the family which is regarded as the basic social institution in every society. They not only perform the child bearing and rearing roles necessary for the existence of human social life but also provide emotional and financial support to members of the family. More significantly, women contribute immensely to

the nation's economic activities whether in traditional or modern societies. In Nigeria, women experience violence in the hand of their male counterparts. Incidence like rape, sexual assault, beating, molestation, corporal punishment and these are common occurrence in the Nigerian society. Considering the devastating effects of violence against women, the family and the larger society the issue deserves urgent attention. Violence involves the use of force or action to violate the rights of victims. The World Health Organization defines violence as the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual against oneself, another person or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation (WHO, 2002).

Violence against women in Africa is not a recent phenomenon no the struggles against it. According to UN report in 2006 compiled from a number of different studies conducted in atleast 71 African countries, found violence against women to be the most prevalent in Ethiopia. Considerable attention has been given to the issue of violence against women at both local and international level since the 1990's , perhaps some of the most recent studies are a cross cultural analysis of domestic violence in selected geographical zones in Nigeria by Aina, Aderinto and Alumanah both in (2004) focus on TIV, Idoma and Igede peoples of Kogi and Benue state. Aderinto (2004) study the minority ethnic groups in Edo and Delta states and Alumanah (2004) undertook a study of the Igbos. The studies revealed that domestic violence against women in Nigeria is widespread. Surveys nationwide shows an increase in domestic violence within three years from 21% in 2011 to 30% in 2013 (CLEEN Foundation, 2013).

### **Objective of the Study**

The objective of this study is to examine the incidence and prevalence of violence against women in Nigeria.

### **Literature Review**

#### **Conceptual Clarification of Violence**

In most societies across the world women face a number of abuses resulting from their gender. The abuses range from social discrimination whether at home, workplace, school and many other places. However there are few

instances where discrimination and violence against women were perpetrated by fellow women, in most of the cases men are responsible for the acts. Violence against women includes all forms of abuses whether physical, sexual, psychological or economic. Women are easy victims of male violence because of their physiological nature (Rosen, 1989). Violence act is any assault, sexual assault, sexual battery or any criminal offense resulting in personal injury or death of one family or house hold member by another. Violence act is an ongoing deliberating experience of physical psychological and / or sexual abuse in the home associated with increase isolation from the outside world and limited personal freedom and accessibility to resources. Whenever a woman is placed in physical danger or controlled by the threat or use of physical force, she has been abuse. It may include the following:

- i. Pushing, shoving, slapping, punching, kicking or chocking
- ii. Assault with a weapon
- iii. Holding, tying down or restraining her
- iv. Leaving her in a dangerous place
- v. Refusing to help when she is sick or injured (Aihie, 2009)

According to Oyeshola (2005), violence may be an encounter with life threatening forces that affects millions of persons in their individual and family lives, in the lives of their communities and global economy. According to Mohammed (2006) violence is seen as a physical onslaught meted out on an individual or a group, it may be personal (i.e. violence against women) or biological traits, history and values. Generally there is a cultural bound to perception of violence across societies for instances the definition of what constitute violence act is culturally relative. Societies define differently what constitutes just and unjust reason for violence and those between acceptable and permitted especially those by husband and elders both of whom are given the right to punish a woman for certain demeanors (Meander, 1994).

### **Prevalence of Violence**

Globally, violence takes the lives of more than 1.6 million people annually (WHO, 2014). In Africa, out of every 100,000 people each year an estimated 60.9% die a violent death (Awake, 2003). Violence occurs across the world, in various cultures and affects people across society irrespective of economic

status (Watts, 2002). According to Bureau of Justice statistics in 1995 women reported a six times greater rate of intimate partner violence than men (Bachmann et al., 1995). However, studies have found that men are much less likely to report victimization in these situations (Tonia et al, 2007). According to various national surveys, the percentage of women who were ever physically assaulted by an intimate partner varies substantially by country: Barbados (30%), Canada (29%), New Zealand (35%), Switzerland (21%), United State (33%), Surveys in Philippines and Paraguay report figure as low as (10%) (CDCP, 2011). In India, around 70% of women are victims of violence (BBC, 2006). "A bride burning" occurs every two hours in India because the women had a small dowry or to allow her husband to remarry (Kristof 2009). Statistic published in 2004 show that the rate of violence victimization for indigenous women in Australia may be forty times the rate for non-indigenous women (Domestic violence in Australia, 2009).

Some countries in the black continent such as South Africa is said to have the highest statistics of gender based violence in the world, including rape and domestic violence (Foster 1999, RIN 2002, Jiws 2004) 80% of women surveyed in rural Egypt said that beatings were common and often justified, particularly if the women refused to have sex with her husband (UNFPA, 2012). In Nigeria, statistics showed 63.4% of males and 36.6% females, mostly between ages 20 – 29 (42.1%) were victims of violence where many perpetrators 55% and victims of 63.7% took alcohol, 76.1% were exposed or witness conflict in their homes, families or place of residence at least once a week, the most common reasons for violence act was dispute 49.2% (Ekwebelem, 2010). Up to two-thirds of women in certain communities in Nigeria's Lagos State say they are victims of domestic violence (Afrol news, 2012).

### **Factors Responsible for Violence against Women**

The causes of violence against women are not made clear experts in this field do not agree as to what these causes are but there are several factors that can result in violence (Wolfe et al, 1999). One of the most important is a belief that abuse whether physical or verbal is acceptable related to the growing up in a violent home or living within a culture that accepts violence is a factor (WHO, 2002). There are many reason adduced for violence act against women these may include among others disobedience to husband,

lack of proper care of children, not getting food ready questioning the husband about extra marital affair, going out without husband permission(Davies, 1994).Other factors include substance abuse, unemployment, psychological problems, poor coping skills, lack of legal protection sanctity especially at home, isolation of women in their families and communities (Newman, 2010).

### **Forms of Violence against Women**

Violence act against women is seen in various forms across societies. The broad type include sexual abuse, wife battering, female genital mutilation, physical assault, economic abuse, verbal abuse, psychological abuse, neglect of dependent, spiritual abuse.

### **Sexual Abuse**

This is the exploitation of a girl or women for the sexual and control gratification of another person, this occurred when a woman has no choice in deciding whether to have sex or not and when refusal attracts physical or emotional torture. Little girls and women often fall victims of rape and sexual abuse (Prakash, 2009).

Sexual abuse occurs if a person is unable to understand the nature or condition of the act, un able to decline participation or unable to communicate unwillingness to engage in the sexual act. This could be because of illness, disability, the influence of alcohol or other drugs or due to intimidation or pressure (Kappler, 2011).

### **Wife Battering**

Wife battering can also come inform of psychological abuse beating, humiliation, battering as well as in controlling behavior such as isolation from family and friends and restriction of access to places and opportunities (Kelly, 1988).In recent studies conducted on the incidence of wife battering world-wide it was found about 10 – 50 percent of women indicated that male partner in their lifetime has physically assaulted them. Usually physical violence is accompanied by psychological abuse and sometimes in sexual abuse (UN, 1991, UNPFA, 1999).

### **Female Genital Mutilation**

In several countries of the developing world the practice of female genital mutilation is common. The act is cultural, traditional, religious obligations. Female genital mutilation is meant to reduce the promiscuity of the female children. In many instances the practice is carried out against the wishes of the parents and victims the negative effect of female genital mutilation include severe pains, gynecological problems, lifelong mutilation and even death (Albert, 1996).

### **Physical Assault**

Physical assault is most often classified as the non - accidental injury of a person or individual. These may include beating, shaking, burning, broken bones, internal injuries, human bites, cuts and bruising. Physical violence may or may not result in an injury that requires medical attention (CEDW, 2013). Physical assault may also result in the permanent damage, scarring of death of person.

### **Economic Abuse**

Involves making or attempting to make the victim financially dependent on the abuser, examples of economic abuse include preventing or forbidding an intimate partner from working or gaining an education, controlling the financial resources and withholding access to economic resources (CEDW, 2013). The motive behind preventing a spouse from acquiring resources is to diminish victims capacity to support herself thus forcing her to depend on the perpetrator financially which include preventing the victim from obtaining education, finding employment maintaining and advancing their carriers and acquiring assets (Brewster, 2003; Adams et al, 2008).

### **Verbal Abuse**

Is a form of behaviour involving the use of language which can involve threats, name calling, blaming, ridicule, disrespect and criticism. Less aggressive forms of verbal abuse include statements that may seem benign on the surface that are thinly veiled attempts to humiliate, falsely accuse or manipulate others to submit to undesirable behaviour, make others fell unwanted and unloved threaten others economically or isolate victims from support systems (University of Illinois at Urban – Champaign, 2007).

### **Psychological Abuse**

This can also be referred to as emotional abuse. It is defined as any behaviour that threatens, intimidates, undermines the victim's self - worth and self - esteem or controls the victim's freedom (Fallingstad, 2000). This can include threatening the victim with injury or harm, telling the victim that they will be killed if they ever leave the relationship, isolating them from others and public humiliation, constant criticism, devaluing statements and name calling are psychological statements and name – calling are psychological abuse (NCADV, 2010). It may include conflicting actions or statements which are designed to confuse and create insecurity in the victim. These behaviors also lead the victims to question themselves, causing them to believe that they are making up the abuse or that the abuse is their fault (Arizona Coalition against Domestic Violence, 2010).

### **Neglect of Dependents**

This include failure to provide for dependents food, clothing, shelter, medical care, protection from harm or a sense of being loved and valued (Aihie, 2009).

### **Spiritual Abuse**

This involves preventing a person from engaging in her spiritual or religious practices or using one's religious belief to manipulate, dominate or control (Aihie, 2009).

### **Effects of Violence against Women**

The ramifications of violence act had almost no boundaries. In addition to the obvious physical injuries and deaths that result, violence act against women is often cited in research and clinical studies as contributed to numerous other individual, family and societal problems. In many instances victims of all types of violence share a common experience of denigration of self that resulted in diminished self - esteem, the shame and feeling of worthlessness. Violence against women is viewed to have an indirect negative effect on fetal development and often leads to neonatal deaths. Children learn from an important role model (the parent) that violence toward a loved one is acceptable. Many children suffer low self - esteem, sadness, depression, stress disorders, poor impulsive control and feeling of powerlessness, and they are at high risk for alcohol and drug use, sexual



acting out, running away, isolation, loneliness, fear of insecurity, isolation, suicide etc.(Prakash, 2009).

### **Theoretical Framework**

The cognitive behavior approach is a useful Model to help understand some factors in human violence as well as how one maintains a violent lifestyle. Thinking patterns of violence and violent prone individuals reflect distortions or thinking errors that justify and encourage violence as a coping system, mind reading serve both to legitimize violence act as well as to pretend to be intimate conversations. These complex cognitive behaviors function as coping mechanisms and become part of a relationship lifestyle. Both parties involved resonate to each other's cognitive reasoning such that they form a tradition of threats, through sometimes sided, misunderstanding, accusation and retaliation (Osofsky, 2014).

Psychological theories typically focuses on the internal world of persons, in this regard they are especially useful in examining the way in which a violent character is formed, unlike the cognitive behavioral approach which is largely rooted in learning paradigms, the psychodynamic approach is rooted in drives, instincts and other met – psychological constructs.

System theory offers a look at interpersonal process inform of patterning organization, functionality and adaptation. Here, the emphasis is not upon individuals but rather upon relationships (Osofsky, 2014).

Feminist theory finally brings into focus some critical understanding about power and control. The social sanctioned exploitation of the less powerful by the more powerful which dominates our belief system and legal system (Gearson, 1994).

Human right approach encompasses those rights which are essential to lives as human beings basic standards without which people cannot survive and develop indignity. Human rights are inherent to the human person inalienable and universal and the instruments of international human rights framework are the Universal Declaration of Human Rights UDHR (Mallika, 2007).

### **Conclusion**

The study demonstrates that violence against women is a real problem in the Nigerian society because it affects women physically, socially, psychologically and economically. Therefore considering the devastating effects of violence against women, the family and the larger society the issue would be seen to deserve serious attention towards eradicating the evil phenomenon in our society. Effects must be made to ensure that women leave in stable and responsible homes so that they contribute to the development of their society.

### **Recommendation**

The following suggestions are put forward:

1. There is urgent need to dismantle the patriarchal structures that reinforces power imbalance between men and women.
2. The media should be used to sensitize the public on the physical, social, psychological and economic effects of violence against women.
3. All stakeholders in the social ranging from the government, non-governmental organizations, religions bodies, community leaders must embark on vigorous awareness creation and education on the negative implications of violence against women.
4. There is need for the government and non-governmental organizations to empower the women educationally, economically to make them less vulnerable to domestic violence and reduce their over dependence on men.
5. There is need for the legislators at both state and national level to enact laws to eradicate domestic violence.
6. Perpetrators of domestic violence must be severely punished legally to serve as deterrence to others who may have such tendencies.

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## THE CLASH BETWEEN FARMERS AND FULANI HERDSMEN: A THREAT TO FOOD SECURITY IN SOUTH EAST STATES, NIGERIA

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### Introduction

The clash between farmers and Fulani herdsmen in communities across the South East has become a source of worry to its inhabitants and Nigeria in general. The herdsmen have continued to rob, kill maim and rape women with the security operatives tuning blind eyes on the activities of these herdsmen. The clash between farmers and nomads has displaced thousands of people from their different places of abode in south east states of Abia, Imo, Enugu and Ebonyi states respectively. Consequently, these have added to food insecurity challenges in south east states as population displacement, death, and non-cultivation of farmlands and burning down of farm produce have resulted to dangerous reduction in quality and quantity of food supply in these and other areas in Nigeria that are afflicted in this menace. Following increasing and vociferous cries from the victims of the clashes the federal government is toying with the idea of introducing grazing

bill in the national assembly. One of the major reasons adduced for introducing this bill is that cattle bill in Nigeria must become a sedentary occupation. Thus, removing Fulani herdsmen from the communities and put them in one place with their cattle. Using descriptive analysis the paper examines the causes and consequences of food security in Nigeria and concludes by affirming that food security will persist for a long time if the clash between farmers and herdsmen is not addressed properly with strong legislation.

### **Background to the Study**

The Fulani Herdsmen crisis remains a major issue in Nigeria. So far, thousands have been killed and many more have been expelled from their homes, and the Nigerian government does not appear willing to initiate any forceful action against them. Rather, they are requesting for pieces of land from states in order to provide the rampaging herdsmen with permanent feeding ground (Adetu, 2016). This has assumed very dangerous dimensions with unimaginable consequences for the continued peaceful co-existence of the country. This hostility which had restricted to some parts of the middle belt states has extended to south-east states, Nigeria (Nweze, 2005). The infusion of ethno-religious and political colourations have befuddled our understanding on the underlying character of herds and farmers clash given audacious armed banditry, robbery, kidnapping, and cattle rustling allegedly perpetuated by the arms bearing herdsmen. Instead of framing the herds-farmers violent conflict appropriately as contestation over valuable resource use, there have been growing tendency towards dressing it with ethno-religious uprising (Areola, 1992). Unlike the herds who only care about pasturing see land as a natural endowment like water and oxygen that cannot be owned, the farmers are more sedentary to cultivate land for agriculture over time have developed a strong cultural, ethnic affinity and political attachment to land. As pasturing is a way of life for herdsman, farming serves as occupation to farmers (Ajuwo, 2004). The Fulani's are predominantly pastoral group, arable farmers that are not homogenous but cut across many tribes and regions in the country.

However, the herdsmen contribute to environmental sustenance, food security, economic stability properly harnessed as aid to security agencies in their surveillance duties due to the porosity of our borders. The destruction of farmland and crops by livestock encroachment will always generate altercation between the two agricultural occupational groups. The recent

killings and arrest in Ezinnes Awgu, Ukpabi-Nimbo, Uzo-Uwani and Akegbe-Ugwu, Nkanu West local government area of Enugu state by Fulani herdsmen have continued to dominate the headlines of our national dailies. Also communities live in fear to engage in farming activities as herdsmen forcefully acquired massive farmlands belonging to the people for grazing activities and settlement in Agbakwe, Ette, Akpakumenze, Ebe, Opanda, Ibagwa, Ukana, Oruku, Isi-ogbo nara all in Enugu state Fulani herdsmen engage farmers in feuds that often result in serious casualties on both sides, while farmers accuse the herdsmen of farm land encroachment; they blame farmers and members of their communities for rustling their cattle. In time past, herdsmen and their farmers used to have a symbiotic relationship because cattle served as means of transportation for daily goods and manure to fertilize the fields for farmers; the herdsmen in turn obtained grains and other farm produce from farmers. But the expansion of farming activities invariably led to demand for farmlands, drastically reduced supply of grazing land, flocks of cattle frequently encroached on cultivated fields to chagrin farmers is a major source of unending friction between the two.

The south east voice reports that suspected Fulani herdsmen had maimed and killed villagers in Enugu, Ebonyi, Abia and Imo states in last few months without any arrest of the culprits (Ayo, 2016). It has been revealed that most of these herdsmen carry sophisticated weapons like charms; daggers laced with poison, machetes, AK 47 and pump action double-barreled rifles ever ready to attack the farmers at the least provocation as they moved about with their cattle (Okoli and Igata, 2016). The major cause of this conflict by Haro and Dayo (2005) is that they wonder into the fields during growing season while their herds eat or trample on the crops due to herdsmen's the cattle's stray movement tension rise. In most cases, youths in the affected areas actually decide to kill and eat up the Fulani's cattle as mark of revenge against the destruction of their crops and farmlands (Schama, 1996). Similarly, Tonah (2006) assert that the increasing farmer-herder conflict is movement of pastoral herds to humid and sub-humid zones. The access to grasslands, water spots for animals, rival claims to land and government policies by individuals defined socio-physical environments give rise to clash between farmers-herders in recent times (Gbehe, 2009). In Imo state for instance between 1996 and 2005, 19 people died and 42 injured in farmers-herds clash. The report on clash in Nigeria between 1991 and 2005 found that farmer herdsmen clash accounted for 35% major clashes (Fasona and Omojola, 2005).



Many local farmers suffered severe beating; flogging and molestation from herdsmen called bororos in Abia state reports of deadly clashes in Uzuakoli, Bende, Ebem in Ohafia and Umuchieze in Umunneochi local government council. Many Fulani herdsmen transported to Awka, Nkpor near Onitsha all in Anambra state and disappear in some communities of south east to perfect their nefarious mission. It is pertinent to adopt structure to mitigate this clash between farmers and herdsmen in south-east, Nigeria and this feud has serious implication to food security in Nigeria. The main thrust of the paper is loss of livelihood in South-east due to Fulani intrusion in their land and this has adverse effect on food security.

### **Clarification of Concepts**

#### **Conflict**

Stagner (1967) defined conflict as a situation in which two or more human beings desired goals which they perceive as being obtainable by one or the other but not yet by both; each party mobilizing energy to obtain a goal, desire objective or situation and each party perceive the other as a barrier or threat to such goal. According to Akpaki, (2002) every farming system such as nomadic cattle heading has a boundary which separates it from the larger system, which make up the environment. The boundary represents the limit in the larger system. Farmers compete with nomadic herders for farm land, pasture, water, trees and use of range land in general. A conflict of interest is the adoption of opposing views by different actors which usually take from a non-violent competition for control of resources in a given area. Since farmers and herders have different values, custom, physical and cultural features, dispute between them are frequently characterized as ethnic conflict (Tonah, 2006). The extent group focuses around their economic interest protect the value, culture and power of group (Schwartz, 2006). The Fulani cattle herders is a minority in host communities, they have a unique culture and strong solidarity. In cases of conflict between farmers or host community have an ethnic colour, the implication of clash led to huge loss of human and material resources. The cause and effect of clash between farmers and nomads in host communities is a pre-requisite for realizing goals of socio-economic development committed.

#### **Fulani**

Fulani herdsmen are nomadic or semi nomadic Fulani herders whose primary occupation is raising livestock. The pure Fulani pastoralist engages

in random movement of cattle while the semi-nomadic makes transhumance migration and return to their camps or homes. The Fulani herdsmen are located in the Sahel and semi-arid parts of West Africa but due to changes in climate patterns many herdsmen have moved further south into the savannah and tropical forest belt of West Africa (Iro, 1994). The herdsmen are found in countries such as Nigeria, Niger, Senegal, Guinea, Mauritania, Mali, Burkina Faso, Benin, Cote d'Ivoire and Cameroon. In Senegal they inhabit north-east Ferlo and the south-eastern part of the country. In many of these countries the Fulani constitute a minority group. Fulani pastoralists started migrating into Northern Nigeria from the Senegambia region around the 13<sup>th</sup> or 14<sup>th</sup> century. After the Uthman Dan Fodio jihad, the Fulani became integrated into the Hausa culture of Northern Nigeria. During the dry season when tsetse fly population is reduced, Fulani pastoralists began to drive their cattle in middle belt zone dominated by non-Hausa groups returning to the north at the onset of the rainy season. But while managing the herd and driving cattle, cattle grazing on farm lands occur leading to destruction of crops and becoming a source of conflict. Nigeria's implementation of the land use act of 1978 allowed the state or federal government the right to assign and lease land and also gave indigenes the right to apply and be given a certificate of occupancy to claim ownership of their ancestral lands (Okello, and Mejekodunmi2014):. This placed the pastoral Fulani in a difficult position because most did not apply for lands of occupancy of their grazing routes and recurring transhumance movement will lead to encroachment of the properties of others. The Nigeria government designed some areas as grazing routes but this has not reduced clashes. From 1996 to 2006 about people lost their lives in Bauchi and Gombe states as a result of conflicts between pastoralists and farmers (Tenuche, 2009).

The Fulani conquered a greater part of the area that later became Northern Nigeria between 1804 and 1810 (Horton, 1972). Among the places they did not conquer were mainly north central and some part of north east Nigeria of Plateau, Benue, Taraba, Nasarawa and Kogi states. In many of these places, in the words of Udo, (1980) hill sites provided adequate refugee outposts for people fleeing from the onslaught of mounted Fulani warriors. The frequency and depredations of Fulani slave raids helped to make central Nigeria, despite its vast farming lands, one of the sparsely populated regions of Nigeria. Abbas (2010) points out that climate change and land acquisitions by capitalist farmers are reasons why Fulani herders have

moved southwards in search of grazing lands, and they often come into conflict with farming communities. The clash between farmers and herders recommend accommodation with herds and farmers giving up lands to herders and government protecting this right.

### **Food Security**

Food security is the condition in which all have access to sufficient food to live healthy and productive lives. Food security depend on agricultural production, food imports, employ opportunities and income earnings, intra-household decision-making, resource allocation, health care utilization and caring practices (Maxwell and Frankenberger, 1992). According to World Bank (2001), food security is of three folds, these are food availability, food accessibility and affordability. Food availability for farming household means ensuring sufficient food for the households through production. It should be noted that making food available is not enough to purchase it especially the low income households (Sen, 1981). Food security connotes physical and economic access to adequate food for all household members, without undue risk of losing the access. Food security is inter-connected with agriculture, society, environment, employment and income, marketing, health, nutrition, and public policy (Pottier, 1999).

Food security depends on income; asset, status and low income household suffer food shortages than wealthier household. Food expenditure comprises a share of spending for poor households, making them relatively vulnerable to the impacts of food price inflation. This relationship between a household food security status and its purchasing power changes over time (Aliber, 2009). All other factors remain constant, changes in income alter the quantity and quality of foods purchased and consumed. The price movements of food and non-food items affect the ability to buy food for example to cope with rapid food inflation cut its food purchases and adjust its consumption patterns.

NEPAD (2005) adds that food security requires an available and reliable food supply at all times at the community level and access to food. Insecurity can be temporary or chronic; it varies with age, status, gender income, geographic location and ethnicity. The sustainable progress in poverty reduction improve access to food, individuals need access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food. They need adequate health services and secure environment such as safe water supply, food security is linked to economic and social health of a nation, society and individual.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Theoretical framework for this study is adopted from the Dougherty and Pfaitzgraff (1971) theory of deprivation, frustration and aggression. The theory is anchored on the premise that aggression is a function of frustration and the occurrences of aggressive behavior presuppose the existence of frustration. According to Dougherty and Pfentzgraff (1971) aggression is an action with intent to harm and this can be physical and non-physical. The central theme of the theory is that scarcity is the product of insufficient supply or unequal distribution of resource as a result of deprivation which leads to aggression, conflicts do not occur; rather there must be a reason for such conflict (Miller 2009). For instance, depletion of natural resource can lead to competition for scarce resources and this competition can lead to deprivation of weak and vulnerable access to these resources. On the issue of frustration, it means that one's access to reinforce is being thwarted by another or possibly by particular circumstances and that one's reaction is that of annoyance. Miller argued that frustration is a necessary and sufficient condition for aggression which leads to serious conflict.

Frustration instigates aggression against targets that are to some degree related to that source. In the same vein, climate induced scarcity is the main source of frustration this may be misdirected by the aggressor on wrong target. This misdirection of aggression against the wrong target may be counter-productive. In other words the innocent people are more vulnerable to the effects of aggressive behaviour when it is misdirected. According to Wolf (2001), the war over scarce natural resources is neither strategic nor rational. The mechanism to govern the posited sustenance of instigated forces following frustration equally affects the sustenance after. A practical deduction from this notion is that herds are frustrated due to weather events. The realities starring herds forced them to migrate and as they migrate, series of challenges are encountered which in turn brings frustration.

Gillick (2009) noted that conflict is a struggle over values and claims to scarce resources in which the aims of the opponents neutralize, injure or eliminate their arrivals. The aggressive behaviour of herdsmen is traceable to resource depletion or scarcity which in the long-run affects their economic well-being. If a herdsmen losses his flock to drought and water scarcity, he may be frustrated because of the loss of livelihood. From this, he may be aggressive since he cannot channel it to natural causes; he may channel it to any person or group that obstructs his migration to safe area. Conflict occurs when the

herds feeds on the crops of farmers agricultural products and other essential facilities in the regions. No rational farmer can stand idle and watch his means of livelihood destroyed by herds' cattle as a result of this reality conflict and confrontation is bound to occur.

### **Causes and Consequences of Farmer-Herds Feuds**

**Loss of life and Human Insecurity:** One of the major consequences of the perennial conflict, attacks and counter-attacks between herdsmen and farmers in Northern Nigeria is massive death toll of many innocent lives and actors involved in the conflict. Olayoku (2012) noted that between the year 2006 and 2014, Nigerian Watch database recorded 615 violent deaths related to cattle in the year 2006, 22 deaths were recorded after the herdsmen farmers conflict in 2006, 54 in 2007, 31 in 2008, 83 in 2009, 39 fatalities in 2010 and a massive increase in death toll in 2011 which puts the figure at 116, 128 deaths in 2012, 115 deaths in 2013 and a total of 27 deaths was recorded in 2014. Similarly in the year 2013, Sunday Trust recorded a total of 300 deaths between January 1 and May 20 in the North Central states of Taraba, Nasarawa, Plateau, Nasarawa, Kogi and Benue states respectively.

The Institute of Economics and Peace (2015: 43) which rated the Fulani militant as the fourth most deadly terrorist group in the world as at 2014 Global Terrorism Index report records the dramatic increase in the attacks by Fulani Militants from 2010 to 2013 with 80 deaths recorded to a skyrocketing increase in the death toll to 1,229 in 2014 alone. Unlike deaths from Boko Haram are mainly in the North, majority of the deaths accruable from herdsmen farmers conflict occurred majorly in the North Central and some of the North Western, Eastern and some Southern states in Nigeria.

On the 25th of April, 2016, seven villages in Ukpabi-Nimbo town a border town in Uzo Uwani in Enugu State were attacked by over 500 armed Fulani herdsmen who killed 48 villagers and left many injured (Ikenwa and Adeyemi, 2016). Also, between February 8 and July 17, 604 farmers and locals were killed in Agatu, Guma, Logo and Tarkaa local government area of Benue state. Recently, 11 villagers were killed and two villages bunt down because of what (Binniyat, 2016) calls vengeance mission of the herdsmen on Godogodo chiefdom in Jema'a local government area in Southern part of Kaduna state. Also, in Plateau state, a first class traditional ruler, Sir Lazarus

Agai, his driver and police men were killed on his way back from the farm on 17th of October, 2016 (Bakam and Owuamanam, 2016).

**Loss of Cattles and Farm Crops:** Another severe consequence of this conflict is loss of cattle to conflict and bandits as many herds are lost during the conflict to angry farmers and bandits who take advantage of the conflicts to steal cattle from the pastoralists. On the side of farmers it is not uncommon to read about the destruction of crops on the farms and harvested products by the angry mobs of pastoralist. The negative effect of this is huge loss on both sides for these two actors as a result of loss of income and capital.

**Destruction of Properties:** Another effect of this conflict is destruction of farm properties and farm irrigation equipments, farming tools, houses and cars by angry herders who usually carry out organised violence as retaliatory act on the farming communities.

**Threat to National Unity:** The persistent attack by the herdsmen has called the attention of Nigerians to the threat it poses to Nigerian unity. Nigerian being a very ethnic conscious country that is polarised along ethno-religious lines is a very fragile and delicate union of culturally diverse ethnic groups. There is need to quickly address the forces that spreads division while at the same time promoting the forces of unity. In line with this conception, the Honourable Speaker of the House of Representatives, Yakubu Dogara on the 26 th of April, 2016 clamour for "deliberate and proactive actions to end the incessant farmers and herdsmen clashes spreading across the country, noting that if not properly checked could divide Nigeria"(Ovuakporie and Agbakwuru, 2016).

**Displacement:** Another lethal effect of this conflict is the displacement of people from their homes and community for safety reasons. This has become the persistent effect of the clash between herdsmen and farmers in North Central Nigeria. Djadi (2016) reported that about 20,000 people are thought to have fled the wave of attacks which some locals say is the worst massacre by mainly Muslim Fulani herdsmen since 2010 when 400-500 died near Jos, in Plateau state, North Central Nigeria.

Ethnic jingoists and politicians have been benefitting in these strives and without doubt have succeeded in creating a divide between the farmers and pastoralist in communities that are less educated. Leaders at the federal, state, local governments and even at community levels become perplexed and wondered on how these issues can be resolved. Farmers and pastoralist in many localities and different countries make their livelihood within the same geographical, political, and socio-cultural conditions is characterized by resource scarcity or political inequality (Braukämper, 2000, Bassett, 1988).

Farmer and pastoralist conflict is associated with conflict of land resource use exacerbated by dwindling resources (Blench, 2004). The theory of eco-violence by Okoli and Atelhe, (2014), is where environmental factors and exploitation of scarce resources leads to violence. This explain the dwindling grazing resources (land, pasture) and poor management of existing grazing reserves (Adisa, 2012) as culpable. The population is ever increasing compared to land that is relatively static. The population growth rate of Nigeria per year is 3.2% (NPC, 2012). In the words of Odoh and Chigozie (2012), the causes of conflict to the climate change and the contending desertification has reduced arable and grazing lands, forcing pastoralist to move southwards in search of pasture for their livestock. Climate change-induced rainfall amount and desertification reduces crop lands, and farmers have to follow these patterns, leading to overlap on grazing lands. The Fulani herders in Nigeria, for example are faced with rapidly vanishing grass, forcing them to switch from the Bunaji cattle breed, which depends on grass, to the Sokoto Gudali, which readily browses (FAO, 2001).

The pastoralists' are competing with large-scale agricultural schemes that narrow the grazing lands. The use of tractors, herbicides and fertilizers have revolutionised agriculture in the country leading to more and more grazing lands being farmed extensively (Iro, 2010). As farmlands increase to the detriment of grazing lands, animals can easily veer into farmlands and destroy crops, land acquisition by capitalist farmers exacerbates the upsurge of conflict as pastoralist can no longer find where to pass not to talk of where to stay (Abbass, 2012, Adisa, 2012). It is common to see that cattle pathways close to cities do not exist anymore as houses and filling stations have taken over their places. The cattle now compete with motorist to the

path that is tarred road; there are many other predominant causes. Blockage of waterholes by farmers and fishermen, crop damage by pastoralist livestock and reprisal attacks on pastoralist by sedentary farmers when ethnic or religious disputes occur somewhere else (Umar, 2002; Abbass, 2012; Audu, 2014). Also, allocation of grazing lands as government layouts without compensating the pastoralist, breakdown of law and order and taking side by local rulers or Judges responsible for dispute resolution (Rasak, 2011). Others are gradual decline of social cohesion, ethnocentric and religious intolerance of leaders who these conflicts have direct impact on the lives and livelihoods of those involved. They also disrupt and threaten the sustainability of pastoral production and agriculture in West Africa (Moritz, 2010). These conflicts reinforce circles of extreme poverty and hunger, and destroy social status, food security and affect the most marginalised groups that include women and children. This affects education of children leading to obstacles in their development and mass displacement. Consequentially, this debilitates the once mutually existing farmer-pastoralist relationships. This awful situation becomes worst, especially when either the farmer or the pastoralist is categorised into a group relating to religion, tribe or region.

Abbass (2012) warned that the disharmony in pastoralist and sedentarism reflect enhanced sedentarisation and increased pastoralist leading to constant conflict with the agrarian societies. Some farmers practicing mixed farming attests that their animals have in one way or another affected other farmers, likewise sedentary pastoralists were in one way or the other affected by farmers (Nformi., 2014). This shows that the issue of farmer-pastoralist conflict is more or less shared problem.

This may not warrant isolation of farmers or pastoralists into ethnic or regional groupings for the sake of levying blames on any as the case may be. Blench (2010) observed that judicial commissions set up to handle conflict issues do not yield any effective action. Both farmers and pastoralists are in dire need to settle these conflicts preferably by the customary institutions rather than the Courts. Even though, many of these conflicts are settled outside courts through the customary institutions, a lot of people are not aware of the existence of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR). The ADR is formal and centres are provided within cities and towns. The arbitrators



are professionals at law and cases are solved fairly quickly outside the courts. In Nigeria, the ADRs are established by Arbitration and Conciliation Act, CapA18 of the Laws of the Federation of Nigeria (2004).

### **Timeline of Fulani Herdsmen and Farmers Clashes in Nigeria**

These are some of the attacks by Fulani Herdsmen compiled from various news headlines:

1. **September 30, 2012:** A Fulani herdsman had been accused of murdering one Benjamin Chegue on his farm, the DPM in the Isoko North LGC in Delta State.
2. **April 5<sup>th</sup>, 2014:** Assailants opened fire on community leaders and residents that were meeting in Galadima village. At least 200 people were killed and an unknown number were injured in the attack. Sources attributed the attack to Fulani assailants.
3. **February 18<sup>th</sup>, 2016:** Five persons were killed by Fulani herdsmen at Okokolo village in Agatu Local Government Area of Benue State.
4. **March 5<sup>th</sup> 2016:** About 500 persons were killed by the rampaging herdsmen following a siege on Agatu local government area of Benue state. These communities are Aila, Akwu, Adagbo, Okokolo, Ugboju, Odugbeho, Ogbaulu, Egba and Obagaji.
5. **April 12<sup>th</sup>, 2016:** Fulani herdsmen attacked two villages in Gashaka LGA of Taraba state on and killed 15 people.
6. **April 19<sup>th</sup>, 2016:** Twenty-five local government areas in Delta State grounded activities on the Benin-Asaba Expressway. They reported that the herdsmen allegedly killed over 23 persons. Interestingly, the police recovered 20 AK-47 rifles, 70 Dane guns, 30 double-barrel guns, over one thousand live ammunition from Fulani herdsmen during this period.
7. **April 21<sup>st</sup>, 2016:** Farmers in Lagun, Iyana Offa, Offa, Atagba, Lapata and their surrounding communities in Lagelu LGA of Ibadan, Oyo State, alleged that a group of Fulani armed men attacked their

communities at night, injured a guard and carted away valuables.

8. **April 25<sup>th</sup>, 2016:** Fulani herdsmen attack seven villages in Nimbo in Uzo- Uwani Local Government Area of Enugu State. About forty persons were reportedly killed.
9. **June 16<sup>th</sup>, 2016:** A 45-year-old renowned farmer was shot by gunmen suspected to be Fulani herdsmen in Ossissa community in Ndokwa east local government area of Delta state.
10. **June 20<sup>th</sup>, 2016:** 59 deaths have been recorded following recent attacks on Benue communities of Ugondo, Turan, Gabo Nenzev in the Logo LGA by suspected herdsmen.

Several agencies have proffered solutions to the federal government such as, mediation by community heads and associations, provision of security and patrols on attacked communities, fencing and finding solutions for displaced farmers (Eyekpimi, 2016).

### **Effects of Famers and Herdsmen Clashes**

The effects of the conflicts are discussed drawn from relevant secondary sources.

1. **Humanitarian Effects:** Herds/Farmer conflicts in south-east states have led to loss of life, population displacements, human injury and livelihood crisis. According to a source credited to the national orientation agency (NOA Pulse Report, 2013), the conflicts have led to the killing of many souls between 2011 and 2013. This scores of people who have been rendered morbid, homeless, displaced and destitute by the conflicts. Psychologically, the conflicts are created an atmosphere of mental siege and terror among the populace in such a manner that it threatens public peace and tranquility.
2. **Social Effects:** The conflicts have led to tense and volatile inter-group relations amongst the various peoples of south east states and this manifest in mutual mistrust and animosity which are often misplaced. The pastoralists see the settled farmers as enemies of their collective survival and destiny, and vice versa. This creates an ambience of mutual suspicion and perpetual tension that threatens peaceful co-existence, security and stability of society.

3. **Economic Effects:** The economic impact of the conflict situation under review could be seen in terms of losses associated with destruction of homes, farmlands, community assets, and household properties. These damages have been well documented in relevant official sources, even though they have not been properly quantified, this is the diminishing fortunes of agricultural productivity in the region. When the conflicts occur during the farming season, the tendency is that most farmers would not go to farm for fear of being attacked. The implication of this is the possibility of how agricultural productivity in the following harvest season. Besides, the conflicts have resulted in actual damage of farmlands and volumes of farm crops and produce. It has led to killing of cows from the Fulani herd. All these damages translate into real and quantifiable material losses.
4. **Socio-Economic Effects:** The socio-economic impacts of the conflicts are evident in the glaring level of rural impoverishment and destitution in the hinterlands of south east states. The internecine violence associated with the conflicts has tended to exacerbate hunger and human insecurity. This does not augur well for sustainable wellbeing of the people.
5. **Cumulative Effect:** the conflicts have been engendered untoward outcomes that impede sustainable societal peace and development. As pointed out by Nchi (2013) these rounds of strife disrupt community life and solidarity and destroy local and national economies with negative consequences on general social and economic development.

The nomadic farmers or grazers suffer from material damages when the crop farmers inflict physical injuries on the cattle by using cutlasses, spears or guns or by poisoning the cattle. In Santa sub division in 1994 a grazer lost his entire herd as a result of attack on the cattle by farmers (Haman, 2002). The open confrontation results in rural insecurity and out migration (Ngoufo, 1992). In the event of a conflict, properties and lives are destroyed leading to misery and hardship. The socio-economic consequences of agro-pastoral conflicts are felt at the social level; misunderstanding between the crop farmers and nomadic famers or grazers creates some mistrust, tension and open confrontations between the opposing groups. Crop and nomadic

farmer clash have increased in the last decade because many of those who have been retrenched or retired from service cannot afford to live in urban areas. They return to rural areas and embark on agriculture thus increasing the demand for farm land.

This is visible in grass-field areas of different parts of Nigeria especially in Enugu State where some rural areas have greater population per square kilometer. The nomadic farmers in Nigeria practice transhumance to avoid over grazing the available limited land reduce the herd size during dry season when there is scarcity of pasture and water on the highlands. The animals are taken to low lands and farmer-grazer conflicts become intensified during this period because as the farmers cultivate vegetables in the river valleys with little or no land for grazing. Farmer-grazer conflicts pose a problem to the people and affect rural development negatively as project is executed during chaos or conflict socio- economic effect of conflicts. Reduction in income and output of crop farmers occur as a result of indiscriminate bush burning and destruction of crops by cattle which lead to either partial or total loss of crops by the farmers. The effect on crop yield has negative impact on the affected farmer's income with its summary impact on the overall agricultural income. This affect farmer's savings, credit repayment, as well the food security and economic welfare of dwellers that depend on these farmers for food supply thus, discouraging farming and rural/agricultural development.

Displacement of farmers: the socio-economic effects of the conflict on farmers and nomadic revealed that, internal displacement of herdsman and farmers in host communities occur as a result of the conflict, especially women, who decided to stop going to the distant farm for fear of attack by nomads. The displaced farmers have therefore become a liability to other farmers who has become a source of providence for them and their families which has created a vicious cycle of poverty in the affected. Another effect of the conflict to the society is the susceptibility of soil to erosion which occurs as a result of zero grazing worsens by the rain and accelerated by the topographic nature of some of the areas. Erosion causes a lot of soil nutrients and this became difficult in cultivation.

The killings by nomads and reprisal attacks of the host communities, some female farmers to widows during the conflicts, while other victims of the conflict are maimed or injured and herds of cattle belonging to the nomads' ruthlessly killed. All these drastically reduced agriculture labour force in the area. In the process these are reported cases of proliferation of small arms and ammunitions since the host farming communities and the headsmen saw each other as archenemies. This is inimical to the spirit of integration of Nigerian ethnic groups and peaceful co-existence (Nweze, 2005).

**Farmer-Herdsmen Clashes in South East Nigeria:** some form of crisis has been reported in areas like, Enugu state, Anambra and Abia States. In Enugu State, suspected Fulani herdsmen attacked Ezeagu communities in the state and kill at least two women in their farm in 2009. The sun edition of (June 6, 2009:5), reported that the women killed in the farm reacted against the grazing of the Fulani cattle's in their farm. The herdsmen got enraged and in the end, the two women were killed. The resultant of this killing led to the expulsion of the entire Fulani herdsmen from the area. In Anambra east, the activities of Fulani herdsmen has been reported in the media in Aguleri-Umuleri axis, Fulani herdsmen have been banned from entering the area since 2012. This area is known for high agricultural food production like rice, yam and others are grown in high quantity. The damage caused by Fulani herdsmen led to their expulsion from places like Umuahia and Isuochi precisely as they have all witnessed orgy of violence of greater magnitude caused by Fulani herdsmen. Both Aguleri-Umuleri axis in Anambra State; Uzo-Uwani and Ezeagu in Enugu State have not tolerated the incursion of the Fulani herdsmen in their area.

### **The Case of Grazing Bill**

The main reason for opposing this bill is that it would deprive other peoples of their lands they would like to use for other purposes, lands they would like their children to inherit. It is important to note that southern Nigeria has much less land than northern Nigeria and that its population density is much higher than the North's. It is likely that, once entrenched on reserves, the Fulani would seek to acquire more and, contrary to the express purpose of the bill, will get into more conflicts with non-Fulani owners of the lands. This scenario is based on the facts and ideas in the remaining paragraphs of this sub-heading. Despite the adoption of the idea and practice of permanent

ethnic ownership of land in the country by the British government and the post-colonial Nigerian state, there has been a southward expansion, since the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, where the Fulani are now co-owners and politically dominant. The Hausa-Fulani have been putting much political and economic pressure on the indigenes to convert to Islam. In the first half of the 1960s, Ahmadu Bello, Premier of Northern Nigeria, embarked on several campaigns in central Nigeria that was meant to convert-pagans to Islam (Crampton, 1979, and Paden, 1986,). It is important to note that those responsible for the killings are not brought to justice. It is important to note, too, that the herders are not forced to return to their own states of origin after these massacres. They remain where they have killed the owners of the land, and equally above the law. In south east Nigeria, Fulani herdsmen graze where they like, destroy crops, block traffic, rape women, beat up hunters, and infrequently, wage deadly armed attacks on villages where there is slightest resistance to their depredations. The daring of the Fulani is illustrated by the following brief accounts, crisis looms between Abia community and Fulani herdsmen, invade Ohaji; storm Enugu, rob and rape women (Odera, 2013).

### **Alternative to Grazing Routes and Reserves**

The problem of allocating arable land for crop farming and livestock production is an age old one. In much of the rest of the world, it has been addressed by doing precisely what the AU and IIED experts oppose: compelling herders to abandon the pastoral way of life making cattle as well as sheep breeding a sedentary occupation. The achievements of agricultural revolution in Europe with enclosures lands for crop and animal farming were separated, and land was used more efficiently for both crop and livestock production. It is the position of this paper rather than creating grazing routes and reserves for Fulani herders outside their state origin, the federal and state governments of Fulani states should make livestock production a sedentary occupation. They should ranches in Fulani states and on lands owned or leased by the Fulani and confine cattle breeding within the enclosed areas.

Each ranch would contain grazing fields, and, especially in arid areas, artificial sources of water, like boreholes, dams, canals, and aqueducts supplying water from rivers and lakes. Pasture is usually inadequate on

large ranches. The problem is addressed in the world today by bringing cattle feed from outside. Cattle feed brought into ranches from outside is usually produced by crop farmers. In view of William (2008), forage-crop farming serves as the basis for much of the world's livestock industries. Forage crops are mowed, dried, and stored as hay; chopped and stored wet as silage; or fed directly to cattle as pasture or freshly chopped forage. Forage-crop or hay farming is a major farming activity in many countries. In the United States, 26 million hectares of cropland was used for the production of hay at the beginning of the twenty-first century. However, there is limited arable land especially in northern Nigeria, this can profitably engage in forage-crop farming on a large-scale. Indeed, this has the potential to produce enough forage for domestic consumption and export.

### **Conclusion**

No doubt the southeast is faced with a security dilemma on how to engage with nomadic herdsmen in its region. On the other hand, curbing nomadic pastoralism cannot be left to the receiving region; it will entail the cooperation of the region that generates the nomadic pastoralists. The southeast could engage in genuine acts of peace building targeted at conflict prevention. There is understanding that Nigeria has freedom of movement, as well as freedom to take up residence in any part of the country as enshrined in the Constitution. The way to handle this security cum environmental problem is through, the expulsion of pastoralists flies in the face of social justice. It will be unconstitutional act for the dangers of reprisal inherent in such actions in overcharged polity like Nigeria is better imagined than experienced. Violence has never been a good way to resolve differences as stated by Catholic Pontiff; violence is not overcome with violence. Violence is overcome with peace, it behoves on all the stakeholders to seek peaceful means in resolving this security dilemma that the southeast is facing. Non-governmental organization is ready to deploy their expertise in the field of peace building and conflict prevention to ensure peace, security and sustainable development in Nigeria.

### **Recommendations**

1. The government of south east states should set-up a coordinated approach to handle issues of nomadic pastoralist in the region

2. The security agencies need to engage more with the communities and CSO's on the strategies to tackle the security challenge;
3. The leaders of the host communities of the south east need to engage with leaders of Fulani in the southeast so as to reach a common understanding of peaceful coexistence;
4. The leaders of the host communities, need to educate their members on the mechanisms to seek redress for crop damage and farm invasions, by cattle under the control of nomadic pastoralists;
5. The pastoralists should do all in their power to steer their cattle away from farmlands

The Fulani should play an active role in tracking all renegade herdsmen that resort to violence, and acts of criminality.

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## POVERTY REDUCTION IN NIGERIA THROUGH SOCIAL INCLUSION AND INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

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### Introduction

**A**mong the Nigerian rural dwellers, not every poor person is hungry, but almost all hungry people are poor. Millions live with hunger and malnourishment because they simply cannot afford to buy enough food, cannot afford nutritious foods, or cannot afford the farming supplies they need to grow enough good food of their own. When hunger or lack of food persists, the consequences can be devastating. This study examines perspectives on rural poverty and hunger and its socio-economic impacts in Nigeria. The paper is qualitative in nature. It adopts the historical, descriptive analytical approach as its method of study. The study relied on the secondary sources of information, such as journals, textbooks, the internet, and newspaper. With extensive theoretical and empirical reviews, the study examines the prevalent of poverty in Nigeria, especially in the rural sector. As a way to address this scourge, the social inclusion and integrated strategies are assessed as complimentary efforts to ongoing government programmes in the country.

### **Background to the Study**

Poverty is defined by poor people as having inadequate food and housing and having to rely upon charity and other forms of support for their wellbeing. According to Cameroon (1995), the poor distinguish themselves from the non-poor in five main ways: "The presence of hunger in their households; fewer meals a day and nutritionally inadequate diets; a higher percentage of their meager and irregular income spent on food; non-existent or low sources of cash income; and feelings of powerlessness and an inability to make themselves heard". Moldova (1997) added that "most poor people said, "the worst aspects of poverty were hunger, poor health, lack of adequate clothing and poor housing conditions." This leads to withdrawal and social exclusion of the poor.

The concept of social exclusion emerged largely the condition (barriers and process) that impede social inclusion or involvement of people in national issues, especially issues that affect their existence. Social exclusion is a process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from fully participating in all aspects of life of the society, in which they live, on the grounds of their social identities, such as age, gender, race, ethnicity, culture or language, and/or physical, economic, social disadvantages. Most times, it occurs as a result of poverty. The poor lack a voice to contribute to national issues, lack of recognition, or lack of capacity for active participation. It may further result to mean exclusion from decent work, assets, land, opportunities, access to social services and/or political representation (Smelser and Baltes 2001).

The pervasive effect of poverty also affects human life and dignity. This negates the International Bill of Human Rights:

International human rights law requires governments to respect individuals' civil and political rights – such as their rights to free speech, fair trial, and political participation – and to promote their economic, social and cultural rights – such as their rights to health care and education (Fact Sheet No.2, The International Bill of Human Rights (2005).

Most development efforts to address rural poverty in Nigeria have been the top bottom. The lack of involvement of the rural people for which the

programmes are design accounts as one of the major reasons why the projects fail. Successive efforts in addressing the problem of poverty in Nigeria must provide for the inclusive participation of the poor in designing and implementing the programmes. The study advocates for an inclusive and integrates society as a way of improving the social and economic wellbeing of the poor. This means creating an inclusive society is the engagement of the individual in the process by which society is managed, ordered and represented.

### **Methodology**

The study adopts the historical, descriptive analytical approach as its method of study. The study relied on the secondary sources of information, such as journals, textbooks, the internet, and newspaper. With extensive theoretical and empirical reviews, the study identifies challenges that affect government and nongovernment efforts in addressing the scourge of poverty.

### **Literature review**

The review of literature will assess the conceptualization of poverty and prevalent of rural poverty in Nigeria.

### **Prevalent of rural poverty in Nigeria**

Poverty is multi-dimensional defined in varying perspectives. Primarily, poverty denotes absence or lack of basic necessities of life including material wealth, regular flow of wages and income and inability to sustain oneself based on existing resources available. In such a state, the means of achieving minimum subsistence, health, education, and comfort are absent (CBN, 1999). This was why Greenwald and Associate defined poverty as "condition in which income is insufficient to meet subsistence needs" (cited Anam, 2013).

The World Bank Organization describes poverty in this way:

Poverty is hunger. Poverty is lack of shelter. Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor. Poverty is not having access to school and not knowing how to read. Poverty is not having a job, is fear for the future, living one day at a time. Poverty has many faces, changing from

place to place and across time, and has been described in many ways. Most often, poverty is a situation people want to escape. So poverty is a call to action -- for the poor and the wealthy alike -- a call to change the world so that many more may have enough to eat, adequate shelter, access to education and health, protection from violence, and a voice in what happens in their communities (World Bank, 2011).

Poverty varies considerably depending on the situation. Compare to most developing countries in the world and Africa in particular, Nigeria is one of most endowed with natural resources. The country has one of the world's highest economic growth rates, averaging 7.4% according to the Nigeria economic report released in July 2014 by the World Bank (World Bank, 2014). However, poverty still remains significant at 33.1% in Africa's biggest economy (African Development Bank, 2007; Ebigbo, 2008). Nigeria has a huge population to support agriculture and commerce. Poverty undermines the capacity of citizens. Although Nigeria is the 6th crude oil producing nation in the world and has implemented a number of poverty alleviation programmes, about 70 percent of her population still lives in abject poverty of less than \$1 dollar a day (Dike, 2002; Ogwumike, 2002; Eneh, 2008; Anam, 2013) The level of poverty is unacceptable (World Bank, 2011).

According to Achebe (2017), "as of 2016, 112 million Nigerians live in poverty. In 1990, that number was 51 million. As Nigeria continues to grow, the number of people that live in poverty within its borders increases". This trend is prevalent in rural areas in Nigeria. There is no infrastructure and services. The people lack pipe borne water supplies, sewage connections or adequate toilet facilities, garbage collection and basic measures to prevent disease and provide health care. "Such deficiencies promote diarrhea, dysenteries, typhoid, intestinal parasites and food poisoning and not development" (Anam, 2013). When combined with malnutrition, "these can so weaken the body's defense system and measles, pneumonia and other common childhood diseases become major killers" (Cairncross, 1990). A correct understanding of perspectives poverty will help in identifying an effective measure of addressing the scourge. This assessment provides a focus for this study.



Poverty is a serious problem in Nigeria. It is widespread and severe. "The level of poverty (productivity index) in Nigeria has maintained a constant rise, reaching its all-time high of 72 percent by August 2016. This is contained in the latest evaluation report on the economic performance of some countries in Africa, Asia and the Middle East" (Achebe, 2017). The productivity scale, used in assessing the GDP and other developing indexes of countries, was "said to have maintained a constant decline in the past five years in most countries under reference, with Nigeria recording its worst, jumping from 60 percent in 2015 to 72 percent in the second quarter of 2016" (Achebe, 2017). In the words of Okonjo-Iweala, "The sloth in economic growth and other related factors have constantly created job insecurity in most countries, with Nigeria having more than 48 percent job-losses, in the past one year, from the oil and banking sectors alone" (in Achebe, 2017). Poverty in Nigeria "has been classified as one of the poorest countries with high suffering indices" (Chika, 2004).

The causes of poverty in Nigeria are numerous. Biyi and Oguwumike (2003) listed some of them to include,

1. Real disposable incomes have declined steeply
2. Malnutrition rates have risen sharply
3. Food production has hardly kept pace with population growth and,
4. The quantity and quality of health and education services have also deteriorated.

Poverty, especially rural poverty hinders economic progress in Nigeria. Increasing hunger, poor nutrition, lack of economic opportunities, lack of infrastructure, deep-seated corruption practices, and various forms of conflict, bad governance and poor health facilities affects the well being of citizens. These concerns form the thesis of this study. It is designed to examine perspectives on rural poverty and hunger and its socio-economic impacts in Nigeria.

The persistence and pervasiveness of poverty in several countries have been linked to the lack of popular participation in governance and decision - marking as well as the weak institutional base. This has led to other things to poor accountability, transparency in resource allocation, weak programme implementation and monitoring. Ultimately, development programmes are

rendered ineffective poverty reduction initiatives are therefore ineffective and resources wasted.

### **Models/strategies of poverty reduction**

The study is anchored on the social inclusive strategy and the integrated rural development approach to poverty reduction.

#### **1. Social inclusive strategy**

The concept of social inclusiveness and integration was established in March 1995 during the World Summit for Social Development held at Copenhagen with delegates from 186 countries. A key outcome of the Summit pledged to make the eradication of poverty, full employment and social integration overriding objectives of development. Member states made a commitment to promote social integration through fostering inclusive societies that are stable, safe, just and tolerant, and respect diversity, equality of opportunity and participation of all people, including disadvantaged and vulnerable groups and person (World Summit, 2005).

The thesis of social inclusion involves the provision of certain rights to all individuals and groups in society, such as employment, adequate housing, health care, education, and training, etc. Social inclusion is a process by which efforts are made to ensure equal opportunities for all. It is multi-dimensional process aimed at creating conditions which enable full and active participation of every member of the society in all aspects of life, including civic, social, economic, and political activities, as well as participation in decision-making processes (Mahaldar, 2015).

Mahaldar added that social inclusion may also be interpreted as the process by which societies combat poverty and social exclusion. Social inclusion aims to empower poor and marginalized people to take advantage of burgeoning global opportunities. It ensures that people have a voice in decisions which affect their lives and that they enjoy equal access to markets, services and political, social and physical spaces (Mahaldar, 2015). In this process, individuals, families, and communities are able to fully participate in society and control their own destinies, taking into account a variety of factors related to economic resources, employment, health, education, housing, recreation, culture, and civic engagement.

As a strategy of poverty reduction, social inclusion empowers the poor and marginalized people to take advantage of burgeoning global opportunities. It ensures that people have a voice in decisions which affect their lives and that they enjoy equal access to markets, services and political, social and physical spaces. More so, the strategy creates the opportunity for individuals and groups to take part in society by empowering them to take advantage of global opportunities. It also implies social and economic participation of individuals, the neutralization of social isolation, and the visibility and recognition of citizens.

The advantages of social inclusion in poverty reduction include,

i. Social integration is achieved through social inclusion in the society. Social integration is a dynamic and principled process of promoting the values, relations, and institutions that enable all people to participate in social, economic, cultural and political life on the basis of equality of rights, equity, and dignity. It is the process in which societies engage in order to foster societies that are stable, safe and just – societies that are based on the promotion and protection of all human rights, as well as respect for and value of dignity of each individual, diversity, pluralism, tolerance, non-discrimination, non-violence, equality of opportunity, solidarity, security, and participation of all people, including disadvantaged and vulnerable groups and persons.

ii. Create the opportunity for social participation of members of the rural vulnerable communities in the development process. This is understood as the act of engaging in society's activities. It refers to the possibility to influence decisions and have access to decision-making processes. Social participation creates mutual trust among individuals, which forms the basis for shared responsibilities towards the community and society

iii. It builds social cohesion among community members. In a socially cohesive society, all individuals and groups have a sense of belonging, participation, inclusion, recognition, and legitimacy. Social cohesive societies are not necessarily demographically homogenous. Rather, by respecting diversity, they harness the potential residing in their societal diversity (in terms of ideas, opinions, skills, etc.). Therefore, they are less

prone to slip into destructive patterns of tension and conflict when different interests collide.

The Summit identified five steps of social inclusion as follows:

a) Visibility:

First, people need to be noticed, recognized and have their own voices. There is no possibility of having a voice if an individual or group is not accounted for and represented in the processes that make up formal society. One of the greatest difficulties even at a local level is the actual census of population. People remain uncounted and therefore invisible.

b) Consideration:

The concerns and needs of individuals and groups are taken into account by policy-makers. Often policy-makers do not consider the poor and other marginalized groups as important stakeholders, and therefore, do not incorporate their needs and concerns.

c) Access to Social Interactions:

People must be able to engage in society's activities and social networks in their daily life, including economic, social, cultural, religious, and political activities.

4) Rights:

People must have rights to act and claim, rights to be different, legal rights, rights to access social services, such as housing, education, transportation, and healthcare. They must have the right to work and the right to participate in social, cultural and political life. The right to claim will regress if one is discriminated.

5) Resources to fully participate in society:

Those who do not have access to rights are not able to participate fully in society. However, even if people have rights to access, they cannot participate fully without adequate resources. Therefore, resources to fully participate in all aspects of social activities are the ultimate step for successful social inclusion. It is not only because of lack of financial resources that people are unable to participate, or stop participating, but also because of conditions, such as insufficient time or energy, spatial

distance, lack of recognition, lack of respect, physical conditions or constraints (World Summit, 2005).

The concern of the social inclusion strategy is the question of how to make the concept of social inclusion operational, even in the face of resistance to change. Indeed, in some cases, social exclusion is wilfully pursued as it serves vested interests (World Summit, 2005). The challenge for policymakers, social scientists and development partners is, therefore, to find ways to dissociate the concept of social inclusion from the utopian realm of a "perfectly inclusive" world vision to redefining it as a practical tool used to promote an inspirational yet realistic set of policy measures geared towards a "society for all." This requires a paradigm shift so as to recognize the dignity, value, and importance of each person, not only as an ethical norm and moral imperative, but also as a legal principle, a societal goal, and ultimately, practice (World Summit, 2005).

## 2. Integrated rural development approach

Integrated rural development is defined by Menes (2005), "as an ongoing process involving outside intervention and local aspirations aiming to attain the betterment of groups of people living in rural areas and to sustain and improve rural values through the redistribution of central resources, reducing comparative disadvantages for competition and finding new ways to reinforce and utilise rural resources". According to the definition of an integrated approach to rural development, "the aims of rural development can be achieved through the reduction of comparative disadvantages for competition and the finding of new ways to reinforce and utilize rural resources". In an integrated system, local and central development systems should work in a dynamic cooperation with each other. Control, resources, and responsibilities should be dispersed throughout different levels of the system.

The integrated approach means looking at all aspects of spatial growth and addressing them as one entity. Any neglect of one area has a negative impact on the development of the other areas. Important aspects of the planning process are land use planning, socio-economic planning (Mudenda, 2006). Rural areas need infrastructure that attracts investment. They also need supportive socio-economic structures and systems like

transport and communication systems that support the economic activities in rural areas.

The integrated approach to rural planning and development is the answer to effective rural planning and sustainable development because it involves all the development agents in rural development. This means that there will be no duplication of duties and wastage of resources which are very scarce especially in developing countries. The integrated approach is participatory as it involves the community that is supposed to benefit from the development initiative. However, the integrated approach also falls short as it may result in conflicts between the development stakeholders and the implementation of the rural development programmes may be long lasting.

Promoting even-development is a cardinal objective of integrated rural development. The integrated development approach emphasizes the need of coordinating different agencies under a single management system of essential components (including education) required to get agricultural or rural development moving. The management system may be highly authoritarian credit may be designed to provide an important role for local people in planning, decision making and implementation of the programmes. The main emphasis is on rational development and coordination of all principal factors required for agricultural and rural development.

The overall policy objective of the National Policy on Integrated Rural Development is drawn from the national objectives of developing the rural areas, raising the quality of life of the rural people, alleviating rural poverty and using rural development as a basis for laying a solid foundation for national development. In order to achieve integrated and even development on a sustainable basis, the policies to be adopted are intended to empower rural dwellers through the development of productive employment, enhancing their income, ensuring the protection of the environment, promoting gender responsiveness, and ensuring adequate care for the vulnerable group. This will involve:

i. Community Driven Participatory Approach (CDPA) in project identification design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. This will provide an opportunity for the involvement of the rural populace in determining development priorities that will improve their collective wellbeing.

ii. Improving Nigerians' access to healthcare and quality education are essential steps to reduce the amount of rural poverty that pervades the country.

iii. Rationalization and realignment of public sector rural development institutions. Strong, viable and effective institutions are required for rural development in Nigeria. There must be value orientation on the principles and ethics of the civil service. Institutional corruption must be checked. The public institution should be run by public conscience; accountability and transparency.

iv. Heavy reliance on the private sector to lead investment in the rural sector will promote infrastructural development and economic growth. Infrastructure that supports economic growth at every level is essential to pull people out of poverty. In Nigeria, economic infrastructure includes things like access to micro-credit that help farmers invest in their crops and entrepreneurs lift their businesses off the ground. Micro-credit is an especially important tool for Nigerian women working to escape poverty.

v. Collaborative efforts between government and other stakeholders for input delivery and marketing of agriculture and other rural products. The role of international partnership cannot be undermined. By understanding the causes of poverty in Nigeria, organizations like UNICEF and WHO have started various initiatives to strengthen the economic, education, and healthcare infrastructure in Nigeria, as well as reduce government corruption. Working hand in hand with international partners, Nigeria is continuously demonstrating their commitment to crafting a better future for their impoverished citizens.

### **Conclusion**

There are considerable strategies and challenges on poverty reduction in Nigeria. To complement ongoing strategies, this paper advocates for social inclusion and integration of the rural poor, as strategies for enhancing the dignity, value, and importance of each person, not only as an ethical norm and moral imperative, but also as a means of raising the quality of life of the rural people, alleviating rural poverty and using rural development as a basis for laying a solid foundation for national development. Both strategies are significant in that they enable balanced development of backward rural areas, ensuring parallel improvement and cooperation with individuals, central and local systems of development. The individual member of the society is given the opportunity to participate in the development process that enhances his wellbeing.

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## **CURBING TRANSNATIONAL ORGANIZED CRIMES (TOC) IN AFRICA THROUGH LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORKS: AN OVERVIEW**

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### **Introduction**

**T**ransnational Organized Crimes (TOC) is increasingly assuming a wider / bigger dimension by the day. Globalization which featured along political, economic and social interdependence, improve communications and information technology such as the internet, greater mobility of people, goods and services and the opening of borders free trade etc. factors that contributed to the emergency to what could be referred to as "crimes without borders ." These are known as transnational organized crimes. As they are borderless they easily spread from one country to another like a virus. Africa as continents has its fair share of these crimes. Combating these crimes has not been easy for individual countries and the entire comity of nations. This paper examines the various legislative and institutional mechanisms that have been put in place to reduce this menace. It is the view of this paper there is no dearth of laws and institutions for fighting this crimes particularly in Africa which the focus of this paper. The

paper observes that implementation and some challenges are the bane of the efforts at sub region and regional level to eradicate this menace or to bring it to the barest minimum. The methodology we adopt is the doctrinal research method which is a legal research approach of analyzing texts and instruments and the subject matter. Furthermore the paper adopts the footnote style as against the American Psychological Association (APA) as this is the applicable style in the author's field i.e. law.

### **Background to the Study**

Transnational organized crime refers, to unlawful activity undertaken and supported by organized criminal groups operating across national boundaries.<sup>1</sup>

An offence is transnational in nature if:

- (a) It is committed in more than one State;
- (b) It is committed in one State but a substantial part of its preparation, planning, direction or control takes place in another State;
- (c) It is committed in one State but involves an organized criminal group that engages in criminal activities in more than one State; or
- (d) It is committed in one State but has substantial effects in another State.<sup>2</sup>

Examples of transnational crimes include; human trafficking, people smuggling, smuggling/trafficking of goods such as arms and drugs, money laundering, sex slavery, terrorism offences and apartheid.<sup>3</sup>

With the advent of globalization and ability for criminals to cross international borders in few hours, the advance of modern technology like internet and telecommunications, crime can no longer be viewed as a single country challenge. Crime is neither a national issue nor does it respect national borders. Crime is thus global.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Frank Schmallager, *Criminology Today; An Integrative Introduction* (3<sup>rd</sup>edn, update. Pearson Education Inc. 2004) 392-3

<sup>2</sup>United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime,

<sup>3</sup>[www.en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transnational-crimes](http://www.en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transnational-crimes), accessed on 02/11/2017

<sup>4</sup>Frank (n 1)

The delegates to the 9th United Nations Congress on Prevention Crime and Treatment of offenders in Cairo, 1995 observed and agreed that transnational crime was a major threat to world finance, able to change destinies of countries at critical state of their economic developments.<sup>5</sup>

The delegates went further to identify various world's major crime clans/groups each of which extends its reach beyond its home country. These included; the West African crime groups, Russian Mafiya, Japanese Yakuza, Italian Mafia, South American cocaine cartels and Hong Kong based Triads.<sup>6</sup> From the foregoing Africa as part of the global world has not been spared of the advances in the commission and spread of the transnational crimes as new global challenges. The smuggling of migrants from Somalia and Ethiopia, heroin trafficking from south West Asia to Eastern Africa, trafficking of Ivory from Eastern Africa to Asia, Piracy at the Coast of Somalia to mention but a few.<sup>7</sup>

### **Legal Framework for Combating Transnational Crimes in Africa**

To combat transnational organized crime in Africa, and the world in general, various conventions and protocols have been adopted and ratified by African countries at International level, continental level and regional levels as discussed below;

#### **(a) International Conventions and protocols**

##### **(I) United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000<sup>8</sup>**

This convention sets out the scope and characteristics that qualify a crime to described as a transnational crime. The convention elaborates the objective for cooperation of member states in prevention and combating transnational crime in the world.<sup>9</sup>

The convention went further to provide for general guidelines on establishment of adjudication process of transnational crimes and

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<sup>5</sup>Frank (n 1)

<sup>6</sup>Frank (n 1)

<sup>7</sup>United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, *Transnational organized crime in Eastern Africa: A threat assessment*, 2013.

<sup>8</sup><https://www.unodc.org>, accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>9</sup>The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crimes, 2000, articles 1, 2 and 3.

conferring jurisdiction to state courts and institutions through preservation of state sovereignty.<sup>10</sup>

The convention criminalizes various transnational crimes in the world including Africa and attendant measures to combat such crimes. They include money laundering, corruption, participation in organized criminal group and obstruction of justice and provide how non-natural persons involved in such crimes are treated.<sup>11</sup>

The convention further provides for the handling of the complex investigations that always manifest in transnational organized crimes including but not limited to international cooperation for purpose of confiscation, disposal of proceeds from confiscation, extradition, transfer of convicts, mutual legal assistance, joint investigations, transfer of proceedings, enhancing cooperation with law enforcement agencies to mention a few.<sup>12</sup>

The convention is the bedrock of some of the major transnational crime conventions on the African continental efforts to combat transnational crimes that have been adopted from the time of its signing and ratification.

**(ii) United Nations Convention against Illicit traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substance, 1988<sup>13</sup>**

This convention which most of African countries are party to provides for how state parties can cooperate and obtain from each other assistance in investigations, information sharing under mutual assistance programmes in relation to drug offences.

**(iii) United Nations Convention against Corruption, 2000<sup>14</sup>**

The convention is intended to promote, strengthen, facilitate, and support measures to prevent, combat, corruption efficiently and effectively, provide technical assistance in prevention and fight against corruption, accountability and proper management of public assets.

<sup>10</sup>Convention (n 9) article 4, 11 and 15

<sup>11</sup>Convention (n 9) articles 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 23

<sup>12</sup>Convention (n 9) articles 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 25, 26, 27 and 28

<sup>13</sup><https://www.unodc.org>, accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>14</sup><https://www.unodc.org>, accessed on 09/10/2017

The convention derived inspiration from the United Nations Convention against transnational organized crimes of 2000 highlighted above.<sup>15</sup>

**(iv) Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000<sup>16</sup>**

The protocol was adopted to supplement the UN Convention against transnational organized crimes specifically, on the crimes specified under article 3 and 5 of the Protocol concerning the trafficking in persons especially women and children.<sup>17</sup>

The purpose and object of the protocol is highlighted as follows;<sup>18</sup>

- a. To prevent and combat trafficking in persons, paying particular attention to women and children;
- b. To protect and assist the victims of such trafficking, with full respect for their human rights; and
- c. To promote cooperation among States Parties in order to meet those objectives.

The protocol therefore provides the blue print of fighting, punishing perpetrators of human trafficking and guide to party states in enactment of similar domestic laws to deal with human traffickers and trafficking as social and international problem. The foregoing is in tandem with Kofi Annan's foreword at the Palermo Conference for the signing of the UN Convention against Transnational organized crimes and the protocols thereto.<sup>19</sup>

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<sup>15</sup>The United Nations Convention Against Corruption, article 1

<sup>16</sup><https://www.unodc.org>, accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>17</sup>Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000, articles 1

<sup>18</sup>Protocol (n 17) article 2

<sup>19</sup>United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime, United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crimes and protocols thereto, (United Nations, New York 2004) iii, retrieved from <https://www.unodc.org>, accessed on 09/10/2017

**(v) Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000<sup>20</sup>**

Like the Protocol against anti-human trafficking, this Protocol was adopted by United Nations member states after realizing the need for cooperation to prevent, combat and eradicate the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms, their parts and components and ammunition, owing to the harmful effects of those activities on the security of each State, region and the world as a whole, endangering the well-being of peoples, their social and economic development and their right to live in peace.<sup>21</sup>

The purpose of this Protocol is to promote, facilitate and strengthen cooperation among States Parties in order to prevent, combat and eradicate the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms, their parts and components and ammunition.<sup>22</sup>

The protocol applies to all United Nations member states including those on the African continent that have ratified it.

**(vi) Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, Their parts and Components and Ammunition, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000<sup>23</sup>**

Like the two protocols above, this was also aimed at supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational crimes, 2000 focusing on manufacturing and trafficking in firearms and related products.

The protocols objects and purpose includes; to promote, facilitate and strengthen cooperation among States Parties in order to prevent, combat and eradicate the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms, their parts and components and ammunition. The scope of the protocol excludes

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<sup>20</sup><https://www.unodc.org>, accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>21</sup>Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000, preamble to the protocol

<sup>22</sup>Protocol (n 21) article 2

<sup>23</sup><https://www.unodc.org>, accessed on 09/10/2017



state to state transactions or dealings in fire arms and related materials and further provides general guidance on criminalization of illicit manufacturing and trafficking under the member states domestic law.

Africa being part of the United Nations and its constituent members having ratified the protocol, then the protocol is part of the legal framework for combating transnational crime on the continent.

**(b) African Continent conventions and protocols**

There are conventions and protocols adopted under the auspices of the African Union formerly the Organisation of African Unity, for the purpose of combating transnational organized crimes in Africa as a continent. There are also protocols and conventions adopted at regional levels to enhance cooperation and combining efforts to combat transnational organized crimes of corruption, drug trafficking, trafficking in persons, money laundering and many others. The said conventions and protocols are hereto discussed as follows;

**Organisation of African Unity Convention on Combating Terrorism, 1999<sup>24</sup>**

The member states under scoring their mandate under the international law, the provisions of the OAU and UN charters and the relevant resolutions and measures of the UN to combat terrorism, they adopted this convention to combat one of the 20th and 21st centuries menace and challenging transnational organized crime-terrorism.<sup>25</sup>

The convention provides for restrictions on member states from participation in acts of organizing, supporting, financing, committing, or inciting to commit acts of terrorism, provision of safe havens to terrorists, weaponry amongst other activities. State parties are required to adopt legitimate measures to prevent and combat terrorism acts in their territories. State cooperation to prevent and combat terrorism and further provides for wider and extra territorial jurisdiction under various circumstances well elaborated in the convention.<sup>26</sup>

<sup>24</sup>[http://au.int/treaties/oau-convention on combating terrorism](http://au.int/treaties/oau-convention-on-combating-terrorism), accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>25</sup>Preamble to the convention

<sup>26</sup>Articles 1, 2,3, 4, 5 and 6 of the convention

Further to the foregoing, the convention provides for extradition, extra territorial investigations and mutual assistance a common feature in most of the conventions and protocols relating to combating of transnational organized crime world over and Africa in particular.<sup>27</sup>

In consideration of the challenges posed by terrorism this convention for combating terrorism, was a great step in combating transnational organized crime on the African continent especially terrorism and its devastating effects.

**African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption, 2003<sup>28</sup>**

Africa has further provided for legal framework in relation to fighting and or combating corruption. Upon the adoption of the UN convention of combating transnational organized crime in 2000, the member states of African Union formerly Organisation of African Unity, adopted a continental position to combat corruption through a convention in 2003.

Amongst its purpose are; to promote and strengthen mechanisms by state parties to prevent, detect, punish and eradicate corruption and related offences in both private and public sectors; promote, facilitate and regulate cooperation amongst state parties to have effectiveness of measures of mechanisms to prevent, detect, punish and eradicate corruption in Africa and coordinate harmonize policies amongst member states for the purposes of prevention, detection, punishment and eradication of corruption on the continent.<sup>29</sup>

A reading from the objects of the convention, one observes the resolve and determination of the member states to deal with the virus of corruption that has left the continent with scars of corruption, the mother that breast feeds the rest of the transnational organized crimes, mostly on the continent and they spread the whole world.

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<sup>27</sup>Articles 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 of the convention.

<sup>28</sup>[www.eods.eu/library/AU-Convention](http://www.eods.eu/library/AU-Convention), accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>29</sup>Article 2 of the convention

**Protocol to the OAU Convention on the Prevention and Combating of terrorism, 2004**<sup>30</sup>

The protocol is a supplement to the convention on terrorism and to effect to article 3(d) of the protocol relating to the establishment of the peace and Security Council of the African Union for the efforts to prevent and combat terrorism.<sup>31</sup>

The protocol further provides for the roles of regional bodies and their roles, mechanisms of implementation, the roles of the African Union Commission, and extradition of fugitives among others.<sup>32</sup> This is amongst the many regional conventions and protocols aimed at combating transnational organized crimes in Africa.

**Southern Africa Region**

**(i) South African Development Community Development Protocol on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters, 2002**<sup>33</sup>

This protocol provides the framework on how state parties in the SADC region can share information, exchange fugitives and share proceedings in relation to criminal matters amongst which may include matters of transnational organized crimes perpetrators.<sup>34</sup>

It further provides for state parties to designate central authorities to request and receive assistance. How the requests will be executed, contents of the requests and under what circumstances may requests be refused, who bears the costs of executing the requests amongst other provisions of the protocol.<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>30</sup>[www.peaceau.org/uploads/protocol-prevention and combating terrorism](http://www.peaceau.org/uploads/protocol-prevention-and-combating-terrorism), accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>31</sup>Protocol to the OAU Convention on the Prevention and Combating of terrorism, 2004, article 2

<sup>32</sup>Protocol (n 27) articles 5, 6, and 8

<sup>33</sup>[www.sadc.int/files/protocol on mutual assistance in criminal matters](http://www.sadc.int/files/protocol-on-mutual-assistance-in-criminal-matters), accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>34</sup>Article 2 of the protocol

<sup>35</sup>Articles 4, 5, 6, and 10 of the protocol

Amongst the many protocols adopted by the member states of the SADC block, the protocol on mutual assistance is central as it enables the different law enforcement bodies of the member states to be able to investigate, share information and ultimately apprehend perpetrators of transnational organized crime in the region.

**(ii) SADC Protocol on the control of firearms, ammunitions and other related materials, 2002<sup>36</sup>**

The protocol is aimed at preventing, combating and eradicating illicit manufacturing of firearms, destabilizing, accumulation, trafficking, possession and use in the region. The above is to be achieved cooperation at the regional level through promotion, facilitation and exchange of information and experience in the southern African region in combating, and eradicating the illicit manufacturing of firearms and trafficking or possessing the same.<sup>37</sup>

The protocol further provides for the regional block members to ratify international instruments relation to combating the illicit manufacture and trafficking in firearms and ammunitions. State parties are required to enact laws and take other measures to eradicate the same.<sup>38</sup>

This protocol is another addition to the general conventions and protocols for combating transnational organized crimes in Africa.

**(iii) SADC Protocol against Corruption, 2001<sup>39</sup>**

The SADC regional block has also adopted a protocol to combat corruption another example of transnational organized crime. The protocol defines the meaning and incidences of corruption and requires state parties to undertake preventive measures to combat corruption while considering the objectives of the protocol under the protocol.<sup>40</sup>

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<sup>36</sup> [www.sadc.int/files/protocol on the control of firearms, ammunitions and other related matters](http://www.sadc.int/files/protocol%20on%20the%20control%20of%20firearms,%20ammunitions%20and%20other%20related%20matters), accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>37</sup> Articles 3 and 4 of the Protocol

<sup>38</sup> Article 5 of the Protocol

<sup>39</sup> Sadc (n 15) protocol against corruption, accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>40</sup> Articles 1, 2, 3 and 4 of the protocol

The jurisdiction to handle criminals is clearly provided for and state parties are further required to harmonise policies and domestic legislations relating to fighting corruption in the region.<sup>41</sup> Considering the effects of corruption on the socio-economic set up of any country and its being the mother of enabling the commission of all other transnational organized crimes in the world, the adoption of this protocol by the member states of SADC regional block was a great milestone in combating transnational organized crime in Africa.

### **West Africa Region**

#### **(iv) ECOWAS Convention on small arms and light weapons, their ammunitions and other related materials, 2006<sup>42</sup>**

Like the SADC regional block, the Economic Community of West Africa, adopted a convention to combat the dealing in small arms and light weapons, their ammunitions and related materials which have always been the source of weaponry to criminal groups like the Boko Haram in Nigeria. Amongst its objects, the convention is for the prevention and combating the excessive and destabilizing accumulation of small arms and light weapons within ECOWAS; carry forward the efforts for the control of small arms and light weapons within ECOWAS; consolidate gains in the control; promote trust amongst member states; build institutional and operational capacities of member states; promote exchange of information and cooperation amongst member states.<sup>43</sup>

The convention further provides for how arms are to be transferred within states, control of manufacture of arms within the control of member states, maintenance of national data bases and registers at national and regional level and registering arms for peace operations among others.<sup>44</sup> It is therefore important to highlight this convention that even provides for avenues to dialogue with manufactures of small and light arms as an avenue of combating illegal trade in the same and control corruption that may promote this illegal trade.<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>41</sup> Articles 5, and 7 of the protocol

<sup>42</sup> [www.poa-iss.org/regional\\_organisation](http://www.poa-iss.org/regional_organisation), accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>43</sup> Article 2 of the convention

<sup>44</sup> Articles 3-11 of the convention

<sup>45</sup> Articles 12 and 13 of the convention

**(v) ECOWAS Convention on Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters, 1992<sup>46</sup>**

Similar to the SADC protocol on mutual Assistance in criminal and related matters, ECOWAS has a convention providing for cooperation amongst member states to share, exchange investigative information and the relevant limitations to execute and or honour requests from member states.<sup>47</sup> It is therefore a necessary legal guidance that sets down the framework that provides for how, who may request or receive requests, confidentiality of information, it is evidential values, refusal to honour requests among others. The various provisions of the convention make it a welcome regional effort to combat transnational organized crime on the African continent.

**(vi) ECOWAS Protocol on fight against corruption, 2001<sup>48</sup>**

Relatedly, to efforts of the African Union in combating the transnational organized crime of corruption, ECOWAS member states adopted a protocol of fighting corruption amongst member states of the regional block.

The objects of the protocol are more-less similar to those of AU and criminalization is in harmony with the provisions of the UN Convention against transnational organized crime relating to corruption and even the SADC protocol on combating corruption. It is clear that ECOWAS has furthered the aspirations of the UN and AU to fight and combat corruption in the world by having regionally member states adopting various legal instruments to combat transnational organized crimes in the region.

**East Africa Region**

**(vii) East African Community Protocol on Peace and Security, 2013<sup>49</sup>**

In the East African Community, state parties adopted a comprehensive protocol that combines peace and security with an incorporation of provisions for combating cross border crimes some of which are transnational. The protocol provides for combating transnational organized

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<sup>46</sup>[www.documentation.ecowas.int/protocols](http://www.documentation.ecowas.int/protocols), accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>47</sup> Article 2 of the convention

<sup>48</sup><https://eos.cartercenter.org/uploads>, accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>49</sup>[eacgermany.org/uploads/2015/03](http://eacgermany.org/uploads/2015/03), accessed on 09/10/2017

crimes like; combating and suppressing piracy, terrorism, proliferation of illicit small arms and light weapons, preventing and combating cattle rustling among others.<sup>50</sup> The protocol is therefore a positive addition to the many conventions and protocols on the African continent focused on combating transnational organized crime in Africa.

### **Institutional Framework for Combating Transnational Crimes in Africa**

#### **(a) United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime<sup>51</sup>**

As a United Nations Agency, it is the global lead agency in the fight against illicit and transnational crimes. The agency performs its functions and roles through its extensive network of field offices.

Under its mandate as a United Nations Agency, it provides field based technical cooperation projects to enhance member states' capacities to counter illicit drugs, crime and terrorism; assisting states in ratification of and implementation of the relevant international treaties, the development of domestic legislations on drugs, crime and terrorism; and also carries out research and analytical work to increase knowledge to understand crime issues and expand the evidence base for policy and operational decisions. In doing this the agency makes regular reports, partners with civil society, public and private sectors to fight organized crime and trafficking, corruption, drug abuse, prevention of terrorism among others. The Agency is therefore the first call globally in the fight to combat transnational organized crime in the world and Africa in particular due to the abundance of expertise and information on various crimes under the category of transnational organized crime that is its core mandate.

#### **(b) International Criminal Police Organisation (Interpol)**

This international body based in France has done tremendous work in helping African states to apprehend and extradite fugitives involved in commission of transnational organized crime. In the recent times Interpol was instrumental in tracking and recovery of stolen cars from United Kingdom and shipped to different countries in Africa including Uganda.

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<sup>50</sup>Articles 3, 6, 7, 11, 12 and 13

<sup>51</sup>[www.unodc.org](http://www.unodc.org), accessed on 12/10/2017

**(c) United Nation African Centre for Crime and Treatment of Offenders**

This United Nations Agency based in Uganda, is focused on analyzing crime and rehabilitation of offenders. It analyses the crime trends, motivation and advises on prevention measures especially on the African continent. It is such findings and observations by the agency that policy makers develop new policies to combat transnational organized crimes especially drug traffickers and victims of human trafficking and smuggling.

**(d) Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisations**

These regional arrangements aimed at sharing information and experiences in combating transnational organized crimes. As observed from all the conventions and protocols at international, continental and regional level, most of them provide for mutual assistance and establishment of central authorities to request and respond to requests of assistance. It is therefore these police institutions that have always come together regionally to actualize these provisions under different conventions and protocols to facilitate sharing of information, experiences, mutual assistance requests, joint investigations and operations. Examples of regional police agencies include; SARPACCO (Southern Africa Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisation),<sup>52</sup> Eastern Africa Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisation (EAPCO).<sup>53</sup>

These have done a tremendous job and eased cooperation. For example Uganda Police was able to apprehend the 2010 bombing suspects through assistance from the Kenyan and Tanzanian Police due to the good relations cultivated through EAPCO environment.<sup>54</sup>

Further JamilMukulu the Allied Democratic Forces leader was apprehended through sharing of information between Uganda Police and Tanzanian Police and eventually extradited to be tried for terrorism offences.<sup>55</sup>

<sup>52</sup>[www.sadc.int/politics-defence-security](http://www.sadc.int/politics-defence-security), accessed on 09/10/2017

<sup>53</sup>Times Reporter, Busingye tips regional Police forces on strategic partnerships, *The newtimes* (Kigali 18 September, 2017), retrieved from [www.newtimes.co.rw](http://www.newtimes.co.rw)

<sup>54</sup>Juliet Kigongo, Kampala attack suspects seized by Kenya Police, *The daily nation* (Nairobi 26 November 2013) retrieved from [www.nation.co.ke/news](http://www.nation.co.ke/news) on 12/10/2017

<sup>55</sup>Nicholas Bariyo, Tanzanian Court Clears Extradition of Rebel Leader JamilMukulu to Uganda, retrieved from <http://www.wsj.com/articles/Tanzania-court-clears-for-extradition-of-rebel-leader-JamilMukulu-to-Uganda>, accessed on 12/10/2017



**(e) Regional Task Forces-Financial Action Task Forces**

Besides the conventional state agencies and their regional cooperation platforms, in a bid to combat transnational crimes relating to money laundering, regional task forces have been established. These include the Inter-Governmental Action Group against Money Laundering in West Africa, ECOWAS under the ECOWAS regional block, the Eastern and Southern Africa Anti Money laundering Group, the Middle East and North Africa Financial Action Task Force among others. These task forces have been instrumental in detecting, sharing information and experiences in controlling money laundering by different groups including corruptly obtained funds by political leaders from different African states.

**(f) Anti-Corruption Agencies and their regional organisations/Associations**

These are regional bodies composed of member states anti-corruption agencies to enable them operationalize and effect the provisions of conventions and protocols which provide for cooperation and mutual Assistance. Examples include; East African Association of Anti-Corruption Authorities (EAAACA), the Network of Anti-Corruption Institutions in West Africa (NACIWA), the Association of Anti-Corruption Authorities in Africa (AACAA) to mention a few.

These regional arrangements by ombudsman agencies and at continental level have facilitated sharing of information and experiences in preventing, detecting, punishing and eradicating corruption in Africa.

**(g) The African Centre for the Study and Research on Terrorism, in Algiers, Algeria, (ACSRT)<sup>56</sup>**

This Centre was inaugurated in October 2004 as a unit to assist the Peace and Security Department of the Commission of the African Union for purposes that included; to strengthen the capacity of the African Union through the Peace and Security Council in the prevention and combating terrorism in Africa; eliminating the threat posed by terrorism to peace, security, stability and development.

<sup>56</sup><https://www.issafrica.org/profile-african-centre-for-the-study-and-research-on-terrorism>, accessed on 12/10/2017.

Under this mandate the Centre has carried out activities that included meetings to discuss the threat of terrorism, meetings for its national focal points, training program on explosives, building capacity in African sub regional organisations with focus on West Africa among others.

The Centre therefore functions as a research Centre for excellence in matters concerning the prevention and combating of terrorism in Africa and serves to strengthen the capacity of African Union to deal with issues relating to the prevention and combating of terrorism.

### **Conclusion**

Transnational organized crimes have been a challenge of the 20 and 21st centuries especially terrorism, money laundering, corruption and human trafficking and smuggling. The world including the African continent has had its share of the negative effects to the social, political and economic aspects. Many Africans have died in the Mediterranean Sea as they are being smuggled to Europe; a lot of illicit firearms have found their way in African countries to wreak havoc of civil wars like in Democratic Republic of Congo, Central African Republic, and Uganda among others. Corruption with its sister money laundering has not spared African economies to near collapse. To respond to these challenges, African countries under the auspices of the African Union and the regional economic blocs like ECOWAS, SADC and EAC have adopted various conventions and protocols to combat transnational organized crimes as discussed above. However it noteworthy to mention that these approaches have been affected by a number of challenges like; lack international technical assistance, on bilateral and multilateral bases by African countries to enhance their capacities for ratifying and implementing the OAU/AU Conventions and Protocols on Corruption and Terrorism, and the United Nations Organized Crime Convention and its Protocols, as well as the adoption and implementation, at the international level, of other arrangements on corruption, economic and financial crimes, including money-laundering, cyber-crime and theft of and trafficking in cultural property'.<sup>57</sup>

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<sup>57</sup>African Common Position on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice retrieved from [www.unodc.org](http://www.unodc.org) on 09/10/2017

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## EXTERNAL DEBT MANAGEMENT AND EXCHANGE RATE IN NIGERIA: THE SYNERGY

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### Introduction

The study investigates the effect of external debt management on exchange rate of Nigeria between 1981 -2016. The Augmented Dickey Fuller test, the maximum lag selection criteria for the Johansen's co-integration test, the Error Correction model (ECM) estimation and the stability and diagnostic test were employed using annual dataset of financial sector variables and economic growth for the period 1981 to 2016. The research findings found that the external debt stock does not affect the exchange rate of Nigeria. Furthermore, the Nigeria's external service payment negatively affected the average official exchange rate in Nigeria. The study recommends that stock borrowed should be effectively managed.

The federal government should lay down guidelines in terms of defining the purpose, duration, moratorium requirements and commitments, negotiation among others including conditions for external debt loans. This may guide against high external debt stock that would lead to exceeding healthy threshold.

### **Background to the Study**

External debt management refers to the establishment of the condition of issue and redemption of foreign loans. It involves the proceeds of administering the external public debt that is, providing for the payment of interest and arranging the refinancing of maturity bonds/debt. It involves a conscious and carefully planned schedule of the acquisition and retirement of loans contracted either for development purposes or to support the balance of payments. It makes use of estimates of foreign earnings, sources of exchange finance, the project returns from the investment and the repayment schedule. It also includes an assessment of the country's capacity to service existing debts and a judgment on the desirability of contracting loans (CBN, 1996).

The main lesson of the standard "growth with debt" literature is that a country should borrow abroad as long as the capital thus acquired produces a rate of return that is higher than the cost of the foreign borrowing. In that event, the borrowing country is increasing capacity and expanding output with the aid of foreign debt. The debt, if properly utilized, is expected to help the debtor country's economy (Hameed, 2008). But, this has never been the case in Nigeria and several other Sub-Saharan African Countries (SSA) where it has been misuse (Aluko & Arowolo, 2010).

Prior to the \$18 billion debt cancellation granted to Nigeria in 2005 by the Paris Club, the country had external debt of close to \$40 billion with over \$30 billion of the amount being owned to Paris Club alone (Semenitari, 2005). The history of Nigeria's huge debts can hardly be separated from its decades of misrule and the continued recklessness of its rulers (Imimole, 2014). Nigeria's debt stock in 1971 was \$1 billion. By 1991, it had risen to \$33.4 billion, and rather than decrease, it has been on the increase, particularly with the insurmountable regime of debt servicing and the insatiable desire of political leaders to obtain loans for the execution of



dubious projects. The huge debt was too much burden on the country, in terms of its servicing, leaving it with little to perform her constitutional obligations to the citizenry (Semenitari, 2005a).

Before the debt cancellation deal, Nigeria was to pay a whopping \$4.9 billion every year on debt servicing (Aluko & Arowolo, 2010). It would have been impossible to achieve exchange rate stability or any meaningful growth under such indebtedness as loans obtained in foreign currency may in the long run increase the demand of such (foreign) currency at the expense of the local currency (Onwuka & Igweze, 2014). The effect of the Paris Club debt cancellation was immediately observed in the sequential reduction of the exchange rate of Nigeria vis-à-vis the Dollar from 132.1 Naira in 2005 to 128.6 Naira in 2006, 125.8 Naira in 2007 and then 118.5 in 2008 etc. (CBN, 2011). Although the growth rate of the economy has been inconsistent in the post-debt relief as it plunged from 6.5% in 2005 to 6% in 2006 and then increased to 6.5% in 2007 (CBN, 2008), it could have been worse if the debt had not been cancelled.

However, the benefits of the debt cancellation, which was expected to manifest after couple of years, was wiped up in 2009 by the global financial and economic crisis, which was precipitated in August 2007 by the collapse of the sub-prime lending market in the United States. The effect of the crisis on Nigeria's exchange rate was phenomenon as the Naira exchange rate vis-à-vis the Dollar rose astronomically from about N120/\$ in the last quarter of 2007 to more than N150/\$ (about 25% increase) in the third quarter of 2009 (CBN, 2009a). This is attributable to the sharp drop in foreign earnings of Nigeria as a result of the persistent fall of crude oil price, which plunged from an all-time high of US\$147 per barrel in July 2007 to a low of US\$42.89 per barrel on Friday, 23 September 2016 (CBN, 2015).

Available statistics show that the external debt stock of Nigeria has been on the increase after the debt cancellation in 2005. The country's external debt outstanding increased from \$3,545 billion in 2006 to \$3,654 billion in 2007, and then to \$3,720 billion, \$3,947 billion, \$4.6 billion, \$5.67 billion, \$6.53 billion and \$8.82 billion in 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013 respectively (CBN, 2009a; and 2010a; DMO, 2011; 2012; and 2013). It is therefore, imperative to examine how the external debt management

affected the country's exchange rate for us to appreciate the need to avoid being black in the group of highly indebted nations.

### **Research Problem**

It is no exaggeration that Nigeria's huge external debt burden was one of the hard knots of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) introduced in 1986 by the Babangida administration (Alao, 2010). The high level of debt service payment prevented the country from embarking on larger volume of domestic investment, which would have enhanced economic growth and stabilize her exchange rate (Imimole, 2014; Darma, 2014).

Although the naira exchange rate witnessed some period of relative calm after the Paris Club debt cancellation in 2005, its continued depreciation after the implementation of SAP in 1986, however, decry the performance of the real sector, which was underfinanced due to the burden of external debt servicing. The naira which traded at 0.893=\$1.00 in 1985 depreciated to N2.02=\$1.00 in 1986 and further to N8.03 against the US dollar in 1990 (CBN, 2011). To stem the trend, the policy of guided deregulation pegged the naira at N21.886 against the dollar in 1994. Further deregulation of the foreign exchange market in 1999, however, pushed the exchange rate to N92.342=\$1.00. With huge inflow of oil revenue due to hike in the oil price, the end-period rate stood at N117.97 in December, 2007 (CBN, 2011). This remained stable until towards the end of 2008 when the global financial crisis took its toll and the naira exchange rate depreciated from N117.79 in November, 2008 to N132.56 in December, 2008 or a decline in value by 12.53% and further to N147.31 or a decline by 25.06% in February, 2009 (CBN, 2011). It is against this background of exchange rate exaltation that this research seeks to assess how the external debt management has affected on the exchange rate of Nigeria and its possible fallout.

### **Research Questions**

In the light of the above, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. How has Nigeria's external debt stock affected exchange rate?
2. How has Nigeria's external debt servicing affected the exchange rate?

### **Objective of the Study**

The broad objective of this study is to examine the effect of external debt management on exchange rate in Nigeria. The specific objectives of the study are:

1. To access how Nigeria's external debt has affected the exchange rate.
2. To determine the effect of external debt servicing on Nigeria's exchange rate.

### **Research Hypothesis**

The null hypotheses to be tested in the course of this research work are stated below:

- H0<sub>1</sub>:** That Nigeria's external debt stock does not affect on its exchange rate.
- H0<sub>2</sub>:** That Nigeria's external service payment does not negatively affect the exchange rate of Nigeria.

### **Significance of the Study**

The Central Bank of Nigeria is responsible for debt management; this will serve as advisory tool for their choice of debt servicing. This study will serve as an eye opener to government officials so that when policies are recommended to them (on external debt) having obtained idea from this work, will know the appropriate policy to choose from.

This study will reveal the relationship and effect of external debt in Nigeria; a knowledge that will be beneficial to many stakeholders who will find relevance in it. It will in the long run, guide policy formulation and implementation for a better Nigeria.

Finally, the scholars will find the study relevant as it will form basis for further research and also a reference tool for academic works.

### **Scope of the Study**

The focus of this study is to examine the effect of external debt management on exchange rate in Nigeria. The time frame of this study is 1981 to 2016 was chosen because it allows an analysis of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) which was at this period, partly solve the debt crisis and partly foster sustainable economic growth.

## Review of Related Literature

### Theoretical Frame Work

**1. Threshold School of Thought (Debt - Later Curve Thesis):** The burden of external debt is the concern of threshold school of thought which emphasizes the non-linear relationship between debt and growth (Calvo, 1998). It links debt and growth to problem of capital flight where at high debt levels, growth falls. According to the threshold theory, the fall in growth is due to the higher distortionary tax burden on capital required to service the debt. It leads to lower rate of return on capital, lower investment and hence lower growth. It maintains that low debt regimes have higher growth rate and lower strand of thought in the debt – growth nexus sees external debt as capital inflow with positive effect on domestic savings and investment and thus on growth which leads to poverty reduction via appropriate targeting of domestic savings and investment (Calvo, 1998).

Some economists do not view external debt as indispensable for the economic development of LDCs. To them, public debt both external and internal, but especially external, does not help in overcoming balance of payment difficulties and also does not avoid inflationary pressures. In their opinion, public debt encourages governments of LDCs to embark on ambitious and ambiguous plans involving large expenditures financed by inflationary monetary and fiscal policies and also run down their external reserve.

**2. Ricardo Theory of Public Debt:** Ricardo's theory of public debt was based on an emphasis of the fact that the primary burden to the community was derived from wasteful nature of public expenditure itself rather than from the methods adopted to finance such expenditure. Regarding the question of financing public expenditure, his view was that the requisite funds would ultimately have to be drawn from the liquid resources of the community and that in point of economy; it would make no great difference whether such funds were raised by taxes or by loans. However, where the funds were raised through the later, it would be referred as public debt. External debt involves debt servicing, which in most cases require payment in foreign currency. Whereas, the continue increase or decrease in demand for foreign currency tends to influence the exchange rate.

**Empirical Literature**

The motive behind external debt is to boost economic growth and development of any nation but as a result of future high debt service payments, it poses a serious threat to the economy of that nation. Economic researchers have therefore sought out to investigate the implication of external debt burden on the economies of debtor nations and have come up with diverse views.

Suliman, (2012) carried out a study on the effect of external debt on the economic growth of Nigeria. Annual time series data covering the period from 1970-2010 was used. The empirical analysis was carried out using econometric techniques of Ordinary least squares (OLS), Augmented Dickey-Fuller unit root test, Johansen Co-integration test and error correction method. The co-integration test shows long-run relationship amongst the variables and findings from the error correction model revealed that external debt has contributed positively to the growth of the Nigerian economy. In addition, the study recommends that Nigeria should ensure political and economic stability so as to ensure effective debt management.

Ogege and Ekpudu (2010), employs the OLS to test the relationship between debt burden and the growth of the Nigerian economy, and came up with the results that indicates that there is a negative relationship between debt stock and gross domestic products. Here, the focus of the study is on gross domestic product, rather than exchange rate which is the interest of the current study.

Ijeoma (2013), on her part, made use of linear regression model to empirically assess the impact of debt variables, which include external debt stock, external debt service payment on selected macroeconomic variables including gross domestic product and gross capital formation. The results reveal that there is a significant relationship between Nigerian debt service payment and gross fixed capital formation. The result further shows that exchange rate fluctuations affects external debt shock, external debt service payment and the nation's economic growth. Even though, the study considered Nigerian economy, however the result only shows the effect of exchange rate on external debt, whereas, the emphasis of the current study

is on the impact of public debt on exchange rate, hence this study tends to bridge the gaps observed in previous studies examined.

**Research Methodology**

The analysis that will be made in this study shall be based on the time series data for the Nigerian external debt service payment and exchange rates. Due to the linearity nature of the model formation, Ordinary Least Square (OLS) estimation method would be employed in obtaining the numerical estimates of the coefficients in the model using E-View 8 output statistical software.

Two multiple regression models shall be used in the estimation. The models seek to investigate the effect of external debt management on exchange rate of Nigeria. This is a follow up on the research hypotheses stated above. The estimation period shall be restricted to the period between 1981 and 2016.

Besides, regression analysis shall also be used to examine external debt service payment and exchange rate of Nigeria. The data for this study would be obtained mainly from secondary sources; particularly from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) publications such as the CBN Statistical Bulletin, CBN Annual Reports and Statements of Accounts, CBN economic and Financial Review Bulletin and Bureau of Statistics publications.

**Model Specification**

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the linear regression model is adopted to estimate the impact of external debt management on exchange rate of Nigeria. The model that would be estimated in the course of this study is stated below:

**Model I:** To access how Nigeria's external debt has affected the exchange rate.

$$AOER = f(EDS, ER, RGDP) \dots\dots\dots 1$$

Econometrically, the above equation 1, becomes

$$AOER = \beta_0 + \beta_1EDS + \beta_2ER + \beta_3RGDP + \mu \dots\dots\dots 2$$

Taking the natural logarithm form of the model, which allows for easy interpretation of their coefficients as elasticities, we have:

$$AOER = \beta_0 + \beta_1LEDS + \beta_2LER + \beta_3LRGDP + \mu \dots \dots \dots 3$$

Where;

- AOER = Average official exchange rate of naira vis-à-vis US dollar
- LEDS = Log of external debt stock in previous year
- LER = Log of external reserve in the current year
- LRGDP = Log of real gross domestic product for previous year
- $\beta_0$  is the intercept
- $\beta_1$  to  $\beta_3$  represents the slops coefficients
- $\mu$  is the stochastic term or the error term.

**Model II:** To determine the effect of external debt servicing on Nigeria's exchange rate.

$$AOER = f(EDSP, ER, RGDP) \dots \dots \dots 4$$

Econometrically, the above equation 4, becomes

$$AOER = \lambda_0 + \lambda_1EDSP + \lambda_2ER + \lambda_3RGDP + \mu \dots \dots \dots 5$$

Taking the natural logarithm form of the model, which allows for easy interpretation of their coefficients as elasticities, we have:

$$AOER = \lambda_0 + \lambda_1LEDS + \lambda_2LER + \lambda_3LRGDP + \mu \dots \dots \dots 6$$

Where;

- AOER = Average official exchange rate of naria vis-à-vis US dollar
- LEDS = Log of external debt servicing payment in previous year
- LER = Log of external reserve in the current year
- LRGDP = Log of real gross domestic product for previous year
- $\lambda_0$  is the intercept
- $\lambda_1$  to  $\lambda_3$  represents the slops coefficients
- $\mu$  is the stochastic term or the error term

**Data Analysis and Interpretation**

This section deals with an analysis of the empirical results. It starts with the test for stationary of the time series properties of the variables under

investigation using the Augmented Dickey Fuller test by differencing each variable successively until stationary is achieved. This was followed by the maximum lag selection criteria for the Johansen's co-integration test and the Error Correction model (ECM) estimation. The stability and diagnostic test results are then analyzed to ascertain the robustness of the econometric model.

### Unit Root Test

We carried out non stationarity test to avoid spurious regressions and inconsistent regression results. Table 1 below shows the results of Augmented Dickey Fuller test in establishing the order of integration of individual series.

**Table 1: Augmented Dickey Fuller test for model 1 and 2 respectively**

Model I					
Variables	PPP-Statistic	Critical Value			Order of Integration
		1%	5%	10%	
AOER	-3.669280	-3.639407	-2.951125	-2.614300	1(1)
LEDS	-4.824580	-3.639407	-2.951125	-2.614300	1(1)
LER	-5.747398	-3.639407	-2.951125	-2.614300	1(1)
LRGDP	-6.846349	-3.646342	-2.954021	-2.615817	1(1)
Model II					
AOER	-3.669280	-3.639407	-2.951125	-2.614300	1(1)
LEDSP	-6.346169	-3.653730	-2.957110	-2.617434	1(1)
LER	-5.747398	-3.639407	-2.951125	-2.614300	1(1)
LRGDP	-6.846349	-3.646342	-2.954021	-2.615817	1(1)

**Source:** Author's Compilation Using E-views 8 Output

The unit root test result revealed that all the variables in both models (average official exchange rate, external debt stock, external reserve, external debt servicing payment and real gross domestic product) were non-stationary at their level but became stationary after first differencing. This suggests the use of co-integration analysis because the concept of co-integration requires variables must be integrated of same order.

### Johansen Co-integration Test

After determining the order of integration of the variables, the next step is to determine whether there is cointegration between the variables. This is to



establish if the linear relationship of the variables is stationary. If the null hypothesis of no cointegration is rejected then the linear combination of the variables is stationary, hence a non-spurious long-run relationship exists between the variables and as such, consistent estimates of the long run relationship is evident. To test for cointegration between these variables, the Johansen test is applied. The inclusion of the stationary time series in our estimation is not an issue, and Johansen (1995) states that there is little need to pre-test the variables in a VAR system to establish their order of integration. The first step in conducting the test was to identify the optimal lag length, whose results are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2: VAR Lag Order Selection Criteria for model 1 and 2 respectively**

<b>Model I</b>						
Endogenous variables: AOER LEDS LER LRGDP						
Lag	LogL	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	-322.1319	NA	1457.770	18.63611	18.81386	18.69747
1	-223.8373	163.5050*	13.32876*	13.93356*	14.82233*	14.24036*
<b>Model II</b>						
Endogenous variables: AOER LEDSP LER LRGDP						
Lag	LogL	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	-157.0402	NA	2.460952	9.414129	9.548808	9.460058
1	-126.5586	53.79101*	0.697788*	8.150507*	8.689222*	8.334224*
2	-122.2995	6.764517	0.935814	8.429381	9.372133	8.750886
*indicate lag order selected by the criterion						
LR: sequential modified LR test statistic (each test at 5% level)						
FPE: Final prediction error						
AIC: Akaike information criterion						
SC: Schwarz information criterion						
HQ: Hannan-Quinn information criterion						

**Source:** Author's Compilation Using E-views 8 Output

In table 2 above, the minimum of the lag order selection criteria for sequential modified likelihood ratio (LR), final prediction error (FPE), akaike information criterion (AIC), Schwarz information criterion (SC), and hannanquinn information criterion (HQ) suggested the selection of an optimal lag of 1 in the respective models. The criteria by FPE, AIC, SC and HQ suggest that the lower the value, the better the model thus a maximum of lag one has been selected. We moved on to conduct co – integration analysis

in other to determine if there is a long run relationship between the variables under considerations. The Johansen Co-Integration results are presented in table 3

**Table 3: Co-integration for Trace Statistic test for model 1 and 2 respectively**

<b>Model I</b>				
<b>Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)</b>				
Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic	Critical Value 0.05	Prob.**
None*	0.888071	145.8991	47.85613	0.0000
At most 1*	0.733415	75.82267	29.79707	0.0000
At most 2*	0.520562	33.51674	15.49471	0.0000
At most 3*	0.268206	9.992215	3.841466	0.0016
Trace test indicates 4 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level				
*denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level				
**Mackinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values				
<b>Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)</b>				
None*	0.888071	70.07646	27.58434	0.0000
At most 1*	0.733415	42.30593	21.13162	0.0000
At most 2*	0.520562	23.52452	14.26460	0.0013
At most 3*	0.268206	9.992215	3.841466	0.0016
Max-eigenvalue test indicates 4 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level				
*denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level				
**Mackinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values				
<b>Model II</b>				
<b>Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)</b>				
Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic	Critical Value 0.05	Prob.**
None*	0.745618	117.0673	47.85613	0.0000
At most 1*	0.659620	73.26192	29.79707	0.0000
At most 2*	0.556899	38.77573	15.49471	0.0000
At most 3*	0.328192	12.72906	3.841466	0.0004
Trace test indicates 4 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level				
*denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level				
**Mackinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values				

<b>Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)</b>				
None*	0.745618	43.80536	27.58434	0.0002
At most 1*	0.659620	34.48619	21.13162	0.0004
At most 2*	0.556899	26.04667	14.26460	0.0005
At most 3*	0.328192	12.72906	3.841466	0.0004
Max-eigenvalue test indicates 4 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level				
*denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level				
**Mackinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values				

**Source :** Author's Computation (E-view 8.1 Output)

The Johansen co-integration test was used to determine if there exists long-run equilibrium relationship among the variables under study. The trace-statistic value and max-Eigen statistic are shown to be greater than the critical values at both 1% and 5% levels, thus indicating four (4) co-integrating equation at 5% levels. We therefore, reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there exists long run equilibrium relationship between the dependent variables and independent variables in the both models. We moved on to the ECM which helps us to see the short –run dynamics of the model. ECM will enable us determine the speed of adjustment from short –run to long – run equilibrium.

#### **Error Correction Model (ECM)**

Since the variables are cointegrated, the error correlation model is required to construct the dynamic relationship of the model. The purpose of the error correlation model is to indicate the speed of adjustment from short run dynamic to the long run equilibrium state.

**Table 4: Error Correction Model Results for the Models**

Dependent Variable: AOER Method: Least Squares Date:01/127/18 Time: 13:15 Sample (adjusted): 1982 2016 Included observations: 35 after adjustments				
<b>MODEL I</b>				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	Prob.
C	-585.7920	249.4603	-2.348237	0.0256
LEDS	8.880923	14.36679	0.618156	0.5411
LER	11.81731	2.105843	5.611679	0.0056
LRGDP	38.78724	5.603174	6.922368	0.0000
ECM(-1)	0.966780	0.120470	8.025094	0.0000
R-Squared: 0.870184; F -statistic: 50.27405; Prob(F -statistic): 0.000000; Adjusted R - squared: 0.852875; Durbin-Watson Stat: 1.872031				
<b>MODEL II</b>				
Dependent Variable: AOER Method: Least Squares Date:01/17/18 Time: 07:16 Sample (adjusted): 1982 2016 Included observations: 35 after adjustments				
C	-231.6420	121.4804	-1.906827	0.0662
LEDSP	-13.67338	7.219507	-1.893950	0.0679
LER	10.30507	1.829355	5.633168	0.0000
LRGDP(-1)	39.72500	5.380174	7.383590	0.0000
ECM(-1)	0.995205	0.119206	8.348581	0.0000
R-Squared: 0.877942; F -statistic: 53.94635; Prob(F -statistic): 0.000000; Adjusted R - squared: 0.861668; Durbin-Watson Stat: 1.880003				

**Source:** Author's Compilation Using E-views 8 Output

### Discussion

With respect to the coefficients, the constant (C) has a value of -585.7920 and -231.6420 respectively in the models, whose implication is that if all the explanatory variables are held constant or pegged at zero (0), the explained variable – average official exchange rate will decline by 585.7 units and 231.6 units. This shows that regardless of change on the explanatory variables, average official exchange rate will be reduced. While the negative coefficient of external debt servicing payment revealed that every one percent (1%) increase in external debt servicing payment over the

period of study decreased, average official exchange rate in Nigeria by 13.67% in the model two.

On the other hand, the coefficient of external debt stock, external reserve and real gross domestic product in the both models show a positive direction as they possess coefficients of 8.880923, 11.81731, 38.78724, 10.30507 and 39.72500 respectively in the models; indicating that where other variables are held at zero, a unit increase in external debt stock, external reserve and real gross domestic product will boost average official exchange rate by 8.88%, 11.81%, 38.78%, 10.30% and 39.72% respectively in the both models.

A consideration of the strength of impact using the t-statistics, the both models revealed that external reserve and real gross domestic product showed significant positive effect in the short run with the predictor variable – average official exchange rate. Also the external debt stock has insignificant positive effect on the average official exchange rate. Furthermore, external debt servicing payment also has negative but insignificant effect on average official exchange rate in Nigeria.

The value of the R- squared ( $R^2$ ) for the model is very high, pegged at 87.01% and 87.79% respectively in the models. It implies that, average official exchange rate, external debt stock, external reserve, external debt servicing payment and real gross domestic product explained about 87.01% and 87.79% systematic variations in the level of exchange rate in Nigeria over the observed years. The 12.99% and 12.21% respectively left unexplained is due to changes in other variables not captured in the models but represented by the disturbance term. This is judged by the value of the coefficient of determination (Adjusted R-squared), more so, the Adjusted R-squared confirms the  $R^2$  at 85.28% and 86.16% respectively, taking into consideration the degree of freedom and the inclusion or exclusion of a variable. The high value of R – squared showed that the estimated regression models have a good fit on the data.

Adopting the probability of the f-statistic which is a test for the overall significance of the models, it implies that at zero level of significance, the models are rightly specified. We would therefore not accept the null

hypothesis and conclude that overall variables have significant effect on the average official exchange rate in Nigeria.

The Durbin-Watson statistics in model one is 1.872031 and 1.880003 respectively in the models, which reveals to us that there is no serial auto correlation between the external debt stock, external reserve, external debt servicing payment and real gross domestic product and average official exchange rate in Nigeria.

Lastly, the positive ECM suggested some instability which may be caused by some specification problems attributed to the trend of the data. In this study, instead of the variable to converge at equilibrium, it took 96.6% and 99.5% divergence.

### Test of Hypotheses

At the initial stage of this research, precisely in chapter one, some hypotheses were formulated to help in achieving the objectives of the study. Of course, the study is incomplete without subjecting these hypotheses to test following the empirical findings of the study. These hypotheses are restated below as follows:

**H<sub>01</sub>:** That Nigeria's external debt stock does not affect on its exchange rate.

**H<sub>02</sub>:** That Nigeria's external service payment does not impact negatively on the exchange rate of Nigeria.

**Table 5: Test of Hypothesis for the model 1 and 2 respectively**

<b>Model I</b>				
Variables	t-statistic	p-value	Observation	Decision
LEDS	0.618156	0.5411	<i>p-value &gt; 0.05</i>	<i>Accept null</i>
LER	5.611679	0.0000	<i>p-value &lt; 0.05</i>	<i>Reject null</i>
LRGDP	6.922368	0.0000	<i>p-value &lt; 0.05</i>	<i>Reject null</i>
<b>Model II</b>				
LEDSP	-1.893950	0.0679	<i>p-value &gt; 0.05</i>	<i>Accept null</i>
LER	5.633168	0.0000	<i>p-value &lt; 0.05</i>	<i>Reject null</i>
LRGDP	7.383590	0.0000	<i>p-value &lt; 0.05</i>	<i>Reject null</i>

**Source:** Author's Compilation Using E-views 8 output

**Source:** Author's Compilation Using E-views 8 output

**H<sub>01</sub>:** That Nigeria's external debt stock does not affect on its exchange rate.

This is testing using the t-statistics and p-value in table 5 above. The t-statistics value of external debt stock is 0.618156 and the p-value is 0.5411, it is statistically insignificant at 5% level. The research rejects the alternative hypothesis and accepts the null hypothesis. Therefore, the external debt stock does not affect the exchange rate of Nigeria.

**H<sub>02</sub>:** That Nigeria's external service payment does not impact negatively on the exchange rate of Nigeria.

This is tested using the t-statistics and p-value in table 5 above. The t-statistics value is -1.893950 and p-value is 0.0679. This implies that the p-value is greater than 5% level of significance. Therefore research rejects the alternative hypothesis and concludes that Nigeria's external service payment affected negatively on the average official exchange rate in Nigeria.

### **Diagnostics and Stability Test Results**

Diagnostics and stability tests were also conducted to ascertain the robustness of the model used. The test results are reported in table 6.

**Table 6: Diagnostics Test Result for the Models**

<b>Model I</b>				
<b>Test Type</b>	<b>Null Hypothesis</b>	<b>Statistic</b>	<b>Probability</b>	<b>Inference</b>
Normality Test (Jarque-Bera Statistics)	Errors are normally distributed	Jarque-Bera Statistics = 5.669786	Probability = 0.085725	Fail to reject Ho
Serial Correlation (Breush-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test)	No serially correlated errors	F-statistics = 0.3339	Prob. Chi-Square = 0.2674	Fail to reject Ho
ARCH Test (Autoregressive Heteroskedasticity Test)	ARCH effect does not characterize	F-statistics = 0.939597	Prob. Chi-Square = 0.3397	Fail to reject Ho
Heteroskedasticity Test (Breush-Pagan-Godfrey)	Homoskedasticity	F-statistics = 0.926389	Prob. Chi-Square = 0.4617	Fail to reject Ho
Model Specification Test (Ramsey RESET Test)	Model is correctly specified	F-statistics = 0.446225	Probability = 0.6587	Fail to reject Ho
<b>Model II</b>				
Normality Test (Jarque-Bera Statistics)	Errors are normally distributed	Jarque-Bera Statistics = 0.6505167	Probability = 0.083674	Fail to reject Ho
Serial Correlation (Breush-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test)	No serially correlated errors	F-statistics = 0.731962	Prob. Chi-Square = 0.4899	Fail to reject Ho
ARCH Test (Autoregressive Heteroskedasticity Test)	ARCH effect does not characterize model's errors	F-statistics = 0.915464	Prob. Chi-Square = 0.3458	Fail to reject Ho
Heteroskedasticity Test (Breush-Pagan-Godfrey)	Homoskedasticity	F-statistics = 0.976783	Prob. Chi-Square = 0.4349	Fail to reject Ho
Model Specification Test (Ramsey RESET Test)	Model is correctly specified	F-statistics = 0.378500	Probability = 0.5432	Fail to reject Ho

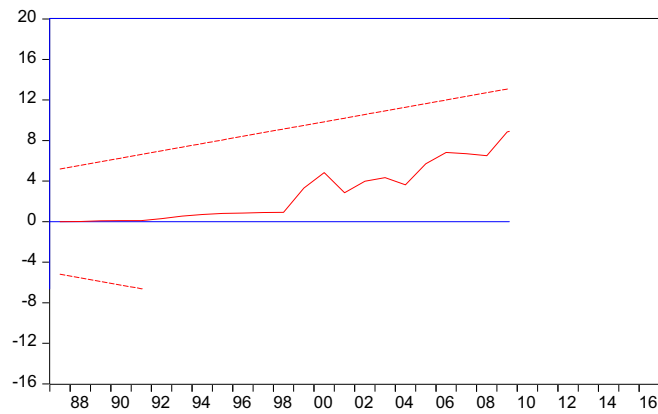
**Source:** Author's Compilation Using E-views 8 output

The diagnostic test suggests good fit of the models. The models does not suffer from the problems of non-normality of the errors, serially correlated errors, ARCH effect, heteroskedasticity and functional form misspecification from the probability values greater than 5%. These results imply that our model could be reliable in the process of forecasting.

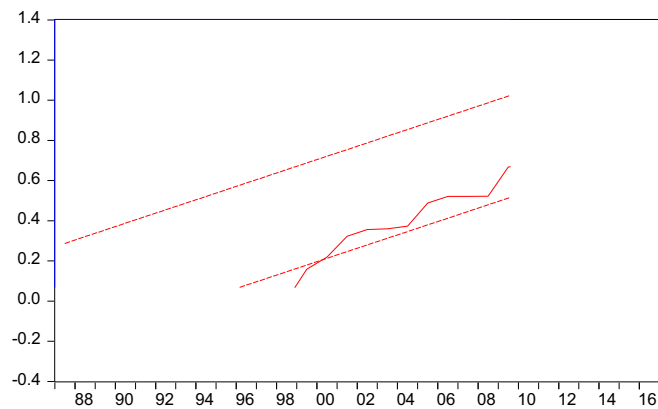


With regards stability test, the results of both the CUSUM and CUSUMQ plots lie within the 5% critical band width which confirm the stability of the coefficients and the correct specification of the models.

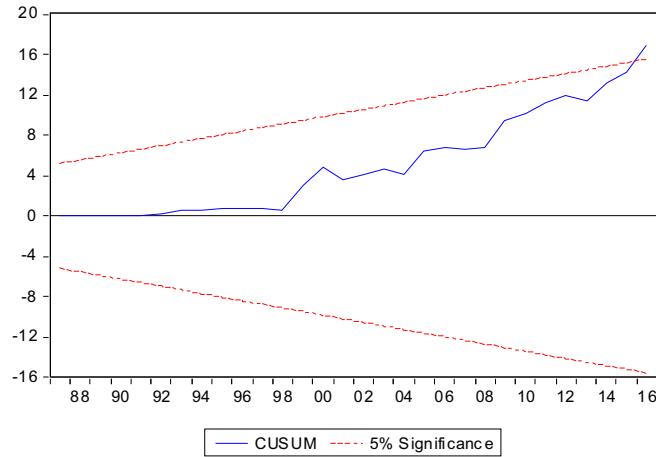
**Figure 1: Plot of Cumulative Sum (CUSUM) for model one**



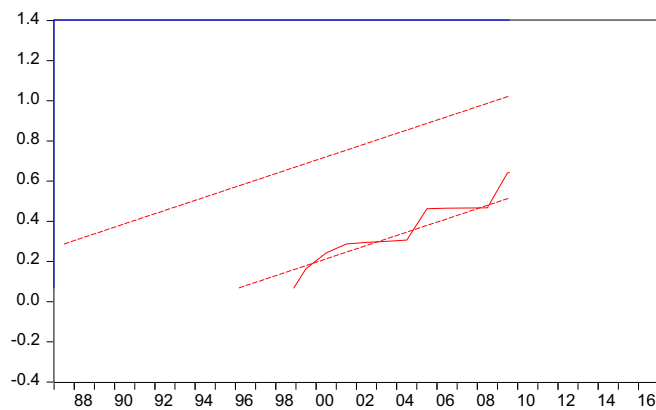
**Figure 2: Plot of Cumulative Sum of Squares (CUSUMQ) for model one**



**Figure 3: Plot of Cumulative Sum (CUSUM) for model two**



**Figure 4: Plot of Cumulative Sum of Squares (CUSUMQ) for model two**



**Conclusion and Recommendations**

This research work is primarily meant to find the effect of external debt management on exchange rate in Nigeria. For the purpose, an application of Augmented Dickey Fuller test, the maximum lag selection criteria for the Johansen's co-integration test, the Error Correction model (ECM) estimation and the stability and diagnostic test were employed using annual dataset of financial sector variables and economic growth for the period 1981 to 2016.

The respective test shows that all the variables used in the model were stationary at first differencing respectively, the accompany co-integration test provided evidence of co-integration among the variables. The result further explains that there is long run relationship between the variables. At this point we examined the short – run dynamics of the model by employing the ECM to determine the speed of adjustment from the short – run disequilibrium to long –run equilibrium. The research findings found that the external debt stock does not affect the exchange rate of Nigeria. Furthermore, the Nigeria's external service payment negatively affected the average official exchange rate in Nigeria.

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Given that external debt stock had positive effect on exchange rate in Nigeria implies that an increase in it will lead to increase the exchange rate. Nevertheless, the study recommends that, the stock borrowed should be effectively managed. The federal government should laydown guidelines in terms of defining the purpose, duration, moratorium requirements and commitments, negotiation among others including conditions for external debt loans. This may guide against high external debt stock that would lead to exceeding healthy threshold.
2. Government should aggressively pursue the process of diversification of the economy. This will result in buoyant and robust economy which will reduce the need for external debt to the barest minimum.
3. Anticorruption agencies like Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC), Independent Corrupt Practices and other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) and Code of Conduct Bureau should be made independent and the laws establishing them reviewed by government to make them more functional and efficient. This will reduce the incidences of misappropriation and embezzlement of funds from external debt.

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