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Highlights

- Sustainable Economic Growth
- Analysis of Determinants and Savings
- Propensity of Women Cassava
- The Socio-Economic and Pathological

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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Empresas Inclusivas, Reinventando la Calidad de Vida. Una Revisión Teórica Inclusive Companies, Reinventing Quality of Life. A Theoretical Review

By Carmen Echazarreta Soler & Albert Costa Marcé
Universitat de Girona

Abstract- The global economy has suffered a serious and rapid slowdown that has led to unemployment and a shortage of decent work, fundamentally affecting the most vulnerable sectors of society. In order to overcome the inequality and exclusion inherent in the current economic system, companies that are termed 'inclusive' produce opportunities for development and aim to improve the quality of life of those who suffer social exclusion. This study aims to describe the main characteristics of inclusive companies based on four fundamental principles: values, team management, corporate social responsibility, and responsible marketing. This theoretical review of the most important studies concludes that there is a need for inclusive companies that contribute to the common good while generating profits. Such companies also have to be smart, championed by leaders who promote the use of information technologies and communication to improve citizens' quality of life. Likewise, companies have to be sustainable, balancing business development on the one hand with the environment and protection of the planet on the other. In essence, in order to move towards a new ethics and business policy, society needs companies that are committed to inclusive development.

Keywords: inclusive companies, values, team management, corporate social responsibility, responsible marketing.

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EMPRESASINCLUSIVASREINVENTANDOLACALIDADDEVIDAUNAREVISINTERICAINCLUSIVECOMPANIESREINVENTINGQUALITYOFLIFE.ATHEORETICALREVIEW

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Empresas Inclusivas, Reinventando la Calidad de Vida. Una Revisión Teórica Inclusive Companies, Reinventing Quality of Life. A Theoretical Review

Carmen Echazarreta Soler [α] & Albert Costa Marcé [σ]

Resumen- En el entorno actual la economía mundial ha sufrido una grave y rápida desaceleración que afecta fundamentalmente a los sectores sociales más vulnerables, generando desempleo y déficit de trabajo decente. Para superar el actual sistema económico fuente de desigualdad y exclusión, las empresas inclusivas generan oportunidades para el desarrollo y tienen por objetivo mejorar la calidad de vida de las personas que sufren exclusión social. El objetivo de este estudio es describir las principales características de las empresas inclusivas que se basan en cuatro principios fundamentales como son los valores, la gestión de equipos, la responsabilidad social corporativa y el marketing responsable. A través de la revisión teórica de los principales estudios relacionados, se concluye la necesidad de empresas inclusivas que contribuyan al bien común y a la vez generen beneficios económicos. Al mismo tiempo, las empresas deben ser inteligentes, abanderadas por líderes que promuevan el uso de la tecnología de la información y la comunicación como medio para mejorar la calidad de vida de los ciudadanos. Asimismo, las empresas deben ser sostenibles, compatibilizando el desarrollo empresarial con el medio ambiente y la protección del planeta. En definitiva, la sociedad requiere de empresas que apuesten por el desarrollo inclusivo para avanzar hacia una nueva ética y política empresarial.

Palabrasclave: *empresas inclusivas, valores, gestión de equipos, responsabilidad social corporativa y marketing responsable.*

Abstract- The global economy has suffered a serious and rapid slowdown that has led to unemployment and a shortage of decent work, fundamentally affecting the most vulnerable sectors of society. In order to overcome the inequality and exclusion inherent in the current economic system, companies that are termed 'inclusive' produce opportunities for development and aim to improve the quality of life of those who suffer social exclusion. This study aims to describe the main characteristics of inclusive companies based on four fundamental principles: values, team management, corporate social responsibility, and responsible marketing. This theoretical review of the most important studies concludes that there is a need for inclusive companies that contribute to the common good while generating profits. Such companies also have to be smart, championed by leaders who promote the use of information technologies and communication to improve citizens' quality of life. Likewise, companies have to be sustainable, balancing business development on the one hand with the environment and protection of the planet on the other. In essence, in order to move towards a new ethics and business policy, society needs companies that are committed to inclusive development.

Keywords: *inclusive companies, values, team management, corporate social responsibility, responsible marketing.*

I. Introducción

La economía mundial ha sufrido una grave y rápida desaceleración. Los efectos de la crisis y la recesión ocurren fundamentalmente en los sectores sociales. La destrucción de miles de empleos, la precarización del mercado laboral y la falta de trabajo constituyen factores de riesgo en entornos de exclusión y marginación social. Han disminuido los recursos, los sistemas de protección, así como las prestaciones propias del estado de bienestar. Simultáneamente, han aumentado las dificultades de acceso al empleo para las personas que presentan carencias educativas, sociales, económicas y de calificación laboral. En consecuencia, se ha generado un incremento notable de embargos y desahucios, generando un impacto profundo en las capas sociales más desfavorecidas (Hadad Hadad y Valdés Llanes, 2010).

Según la (International-Labour-Office, 2012): "El mundo se encuentra ante un grave problema de desempleo y déficits generalizados de trabajo decente. Hay un retraso en el empleo mundial equivalente a 200 millones de puestos de trabajo, incrementados en 27 millones desde el inicio de la crisis. Para generar un crecimiento sostenible y al mismo tiempo mantener la cohesión social, se tienen que crear 600 millones de puestos de trabajo productivos en el próximo decenio. Aun así, quedarán 900 millones de trabajadores que viven con sus familias con unos ingresos inferiores al umbral de pobreza de los 2 dólares de los Estados Unidos por día, sobre todo en los países en desarrollo".

Al mismo tiempo, la tasa de empleo juvenil se ha incrementado, convirtiéndose en uno de los colectivos más vulnerables y castigados por la crisis, con tasas de paro que triplican la población activa en general (United-Nations, 2015b).

La economía mundial ha reducido drásticamente su capacidad para crear nuevos empleos. Por el contrario, en este entorno, gracias a las nuevas tecnologías las empresas pueden optimizar la eficiencia y la eficacia de los procesos productivos y de

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la prestación de servicios para mejorar la calidad de vida de sus clientes (Seisdedos et al., 2015).

Para superar el actual sistema económico fuente de desigualdad y exclusión, las empresas denominadas inclusivas tienen como principal objetivo reinventarse y evolucionar hacia un concepto de negocios en los que la colaboración, la participación y la implicación de los empleados sean indispensables y determinantes.

Las empresas sostenibles ofrecen nuevas formas de inclusión social, apostando por "respetar, promover y tomar en consideración los derechos humanos, el derecho a la salud, los derechos de los pueblos indígenas, las comunidades locales, los migrantes, los niños, las personas con discapacidad y las personas en situaciones de vulnerabilidad y el derecho al desarrollo, así como la igualdad de género, el empoderamiento de la mujer y la equidad intergeneracional" (United-Nations, 2015a).

Las actividades que se consideran estratégicas en entornos empresariales inteligentes o smart, sostenibles e inclusivos, son: la sanidad, la salud, el medio ambiente y la educación. También se hace hincapié en las áreas de atención y comunicación con el cliente exigiendo participación y transparencia (Seisdedos et al., 2015). Cabe tener en cuenta que, a nivel general, la agricultura sigue siendo el mayor empleador del mundo y en los últimos años se han creado más de 2,3 millones de empleos verdes en el sector de las energías renovables (United-Nations, 2015b).

En términos de Eguiguren (2011)"para gestionar las empresas se requieren modelos económicos, políticos y valores corporativos alternativos, propios de una cultura empresarial sostenible e inclusiva".

Según (Klionsky et al., 2012) las empresas inteligentes o smart, sostenibles e inclusivas, actúan en el mercado con sentido de responsabilidad, transparencia, democracia, participación y ética. En este contexto, la presente revisión teórica pretende exponer el resultado de un proceso sistemático de selección y revisión de un conjunto de investigaciones contrastadas sobre empresas inclusivas. Se pretende sentar las bases científicas para la concreción futura de un modelo alternativo al actual de creación, administración y dirección de empresas basado en la inteligencia, la sostenibilidad y la inclusión.

II. Empresas Inclusivas

En términos deFisac Garcia et al. (2011): "Actualmente, se observa un creciente interés en el estudio de modelos empresariales inclusivos que promueven la generación de oportunidades para el desarrollo y que tienen por objetivo la mejora del nivel de vida de las personas que sufren exclusión social. La empresa social, entendida en sentido amplio como una organización que busca la creación de valor social a través de la realización de una actividad económica, puede tener un amplio potencial demostrador y erigirse en un modelo que sirva de referencia para diseñar las organizaciones sostenibles del futuro".

En el actual entorno económico, otro factor fundamental es la revolución digital, que facilita la generación de la sociedad colaborativa, en la que el desarrollo del sistema productivo cambia la fuerza física por el conocimiento. En este ámbito la formación tiene un papel crucial y necesita por un lado incorporar tecnología (conectividad, dispositivos, soluciones multitáctiles, adaptación a personas con discapacidad, etc.) y por el otro facilitar y compartir el acceso a información. Además de incidir en la productividad, la sociedad colaborativa facilita la aparición de modelos de negocio que irrumpen con fuerza y cuestionan los modelos tradicionales forzando su transformación. A nivel colaborativo, Airbnb cuenta según su web con 60 millones de huéspedes en diciembre de 2015 y por su parte Uber afirma realizar más de un millón de viajes al día. Así pues, las reglas del juego han cambiado de manera radical (Seisdedos et al., 2015).

Según Márquez, Reficco, y Berger (2010) las empresas inclusivas se fundamentan en cuatro principios fundamentales como son los Valores; la Gestión de Equipos, la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa y el Marketing Responsable.

a) Valores

Las empresas inclusivas, propias de las sociedades colaborativas, orientan su misión a cubrir necesidades de la sociedad cómo las que recoge el Programa de las Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo: "erradicar la pobreza extrema y el hambre; lograr la enseñanza universal; promover la igualdad de género y el papel de la mujer; reducir la mortalidad de los niños; mejorar la salud y combatir enfermedades, garantizar la sostenibilidad medioambiental o fomentar la asociación mundial para el desarrollo", La misión de las empresas inclusivas no sólo orienta al futuro y a largo plazo, sino que lo promueve. Se recomienda que se formulen de forma simple, directa y clara y a poder ser ambiciosa, y que responda a una necesidad social y diferenciada de las demás (Foladori, 2014).

Según Pin, Espinosa, y López (2005) a principios del siglo XX las empresas introducen valores relacionados con la productividad y la eficiencia porque se concibe el empleado como una pieza del mecanismo productivo. Posteriormente, es a mediados del siglo XX cuando la cultura más democrática y el énfasis en concepciones más psicosociales de las organizaciones, elevan la importancia de otro tipo de valores tales como el espíritu de equipo, la motivación intrínseca, el desarrollo profesional y el organizativo.

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García Sánchez y Dolan (2003) concluyen que, en las tres últimas décadas, gracias a la aparición del nuevo paradigma de la dirección por valores, la concepción de la persona es más integral. Gracias a este enfoque, adquiere relevancia la dimensión más completa de la persona, y no sólo la profesional. Se resalta el valor de la persona como individuo singular, sin olvidar la dimensión económica y psicosocial. La organización es concebida como un conjunto de personas, importantes una a una, e importantes como componentes de la empresa. De ahí que los temas de equilibrio individuo-organización, trabajo-familia-vida personal, sean las ideas de vanguardia de esta nueva concepción.

En función de la concurrencia de una serie compleja de factores se crean y consolidan los valores en una empresa (Pin et al., 2005) en aspectos tales como: a) Creencias y valores del fundador. Todas las empresas tienen su origen en ideas y principios que son introducidos por los fundadores de las mismas; b) Creencias y valores de la dirección que los directivos o gerentes tratan de extender, confirmar o modificar especialmente cuando se produce un relevo generacional; c) Creencias y valores de los empleados. Los empleados contribuyen a la reformulación de los valores de la empresa. En un sistema de retroalimentación constante, los valores de los empleados son influidos por los sistemas de dirección y finalmente d) Marco económico, legal-laboral y los hábitos sociales. Se configuran y se desarrollan en un país en un momento histórico determinado, aspecto que influye y condiciona en gran medida la configuración y transmisión de los valores de las empresas.

b) Gestión de equipos

Según Pedraja-Rejas y Rodríguez-Ponce (2008) en el ámbito de la dirección estratégica uno de los avances más significativos ha sido el hecho de establecer una relación entre el equipo de alta dirección en la formulación de la estrategia y la eficacia o desempeño general de la empresa.

A nivel individual, el liderazgo se fundamenta en la influencia que ejerce una persona sobre su equipo o grupo de referencia. A nivel relacional, gracias al vínculo que establece con su equipo, el líder logra que otros lleven a cabo las tareas que se pretenden desarrollar al servicio de la eficacia y eficiencia colectiva. El principal criterio para medir la eficacia del estilo de liderazgo es el éxito de la organización. El éxito de un equipo de trabajo se medirá en base a los éxitos de la organización (satisfacer la demanda de los clientes, buena percepción por parte de los trabajadores y proveedores, y beneficios para los empresarios).

Los jefes-líderes tienen que superar los problemas que surgen en la organización, desarrollando, poniendo en marcha y valorando las soluciones potenciales, y planeando e implementando en un futuro las decisiones tendientes a resolver dichas problemáticas. Cabe tener en cuenta, que la base cognitiva y los valores de cada uno de los líderes limitan el campo de la percepción selectiva, la interpretación de los problemas y resolución de conflictos, la definición y valoración de las soluciones posibles y la selección e implementación de la estrategia. Es evidente, pues, que el estilo de liderazgo es una variable que tiene efectos directos sobre los procesos y los resultados en las organizaciones.

Según Dolan y Garcia (2002) estudios relevantes han probado que el estilo de liderazgo influye sobre las conductas de los individuos en la empresa. Según los mismos autores, estudios recientes ratifican que el estilo de liderazgo tiene influencia directa en los procesos de trabajo grupal, sobre el clima laboral y sobre los resultados empresariales.

Otros estudios de investigación concluyen que el liderazgo es la capacidad de ejercer el mando óptimo para cumplir los objetivos estratégicos de la empresa, así como los máximos beneficios y a la vez afianzar los grupos de trabajo que lo hacen posible, potenciando el desarrollo de un adecuado clima laboral (Elkington, 1994).

Por otro lado, el líder actúa de motor inspirador y estimulador para que el grupo cumpla con el trabajo. El líder debe de generar consenso a través de establecer un buen vínculo de relación y confianza actuando a partir de valores como: honestidad, compromiso, ética, empatía, proximidad, eficacia, eficiencia, capacidad de liderazgo, transparencia y responsabilidad (Pin et al., 2005).

En coherencia con García Sánchez y Dolan (2003), para conseguir un rendimiento profesional de alta calidad en entornos cambiantes como son los actuales, cabe potenciar y cuidar factores cualitativos y valores intangibles tales como la imaginación, la confianza, la sensibilidad, la creatividad, la libertad, la autenticidad o la belleza. Estos valores poiéticos y creativos son tan importantes o más que los conceptos cuantitativos económicos tradicionales que tienen que ver con el pragmatismo, como son la optimización, la orientación al cliente o la productividad.

Los equipos de trabajo requieren valores emocionales como la alegría, la solidaridad y la libertad para potenciar la creatividad, el talento y la innovación, así como para incidir en la mejora del clima laboral la cual cosa tiene traducción directa en el rendimiento de los trabajadores. Mayoritariamente, los directivos que gestionan equipos de trabajo acostumbran a racionalizar los procesos y los equipos y nunca se toman en serio ni aprecian los valores de la empresa ni los perciben como un verdadero activo que como tal debe ser correctamente gestionado. Lo habitual en estos casos es que las direcciones se tomen la mayor parte del tiempo a atender a lo que ellos denominan los aspectos realmente importantes de las empresas como

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son los balances, la cuenta de resultados, los presupuestos o los impuestos. Es cuestión de tiempo parar ir percibiendo el cambio cultural i necesario que implica el actual entorno económico moderno y globalizado.

Diversos estudios concluyen que la formulación de la misión, visión y valores a través de un proceso participativo en el que se puedan implicar los trabajadores de la empresa, mejora el rendimiento, la implicación y el clima laboral de los mismos. Por lo tanto, se pone de relieve para los equipos de trabajo y las organizaciones, la necesidad de la existencia de valores compartidos (García y Dolan, 1997).

Según Seisdedos et al. (2015) es imprescindible la distribución de competencias y responsabilidades en las organizaciones para abordar su gestión con la dedicación y el foco necesarios; pero a la vez esta dificulta la propia ejecución.

Como alternativa a estas dificultades, para obtener equipos con valores compartidos, capaces de funcionar de forma productiva y potenciando al máximo sus capacidades, es necesario abrir el espacio en entornos que habitualmente son limitados. Se constata que las técnicas de intervención social vigentes ya no son útiles en el contexto de una sociedad globalizada que está en permanente cambio. Se percibe que a menudo, las pausas para el café son los momentos en los que los participantes interactúan de forma independiente a la organización por lo que resultan ser más fructíferos. Así pues, se requieren formas más sencillas y productivas de organizar las reuniones y eventos.

La investigación etnográfica ratifica el aserto anterior. A través de la observación de los sencillos pero efectivos métodos que sirven a distintas etnias distantes del mundo como los indígenas de África y Norteamérica para ponerse de acuerdo y emprender obras que benefician a todos, se crean distintas técnicas de intervención para facilitar la implicación de los participantes en grandes grupos o simplemente en la discusión de temas altamente complejos.

Diversos autores han estudiado y experimentado diversas metodologías especialmente útiles ante situaciones complejas, urgentes, con grupos diversos y multidisciplinarios y cuando se requiere abordar la situación de manera productiva e innovadora (Ver tabla 1):

*Tabla 1:*Tecnologías de intervención en grandes grupos

(Friedmann y Llorens, 2002)

Tecnología del Espacio Abierto (Open SpaceTechnology)es una manera de facilitar reuniones productivas con un volumen de entre cinco y más de dos mil personas.El desarrollo consiste en partir de un tema claro de reunión y después de una introducción breve acerca de la metodología para abrir el espacio a cargo del facilitador, las personas participantes, crean conjuntamente la agenda, a partir de la cual conversan en distintas franjas horarias y subespacios(Owen, 2008).
Conferencia para la búsqueda del futuro (FutureSearchConference)tiene una duración de dos días y medio. Permite implicar a todos los actores clave en la planificación del futuro de una organización. Durante la sesión se desarrollan actividades pensadas para que los participantes descubran y reconozcan el pasado y definan el presente. Finalmente, construyen colectivamente una imagen de futuro, a partir de la cual derivan objetivos comunes y un plan de acción coral (Weisbord y Janoff, 1995).
Cumbre de indagación apreciativa (ia)es una nueva técnica de intervención capaz poner en marcha un proceso de cambio profundo en sistemas complejos o cuando aparecen conflictos. Está pensado para hacer evolucionar los grupos para que sean más eficientes y permitan surgir lo mejor de las personas, las organizaciones y su entorno relevante (Cooperrider y Whitney, 2011).
Círculo o consejo es una forma ancestral de reunión que facilita a los actores clave la conversación. En los círculos, las discusiones se suelen convertir en actitud respetuosa de conversación y escucha profunda(MacDougall, 2005).
World Cafétoma el nombre porqué la técnica imita la distribución habitual de una cafetería en la que entre 10 y 1.000 participantes se reúnen en grupos pequeños (4-5 personas) alrededor de mesas, para conversar airosamente sobre un asunto o asuntos que les involucra a todos. Las ideas se van generando a partir de conversaciones que importan, en los distintos círculos de conversación en los que hay un anfitrión que ayuda a polinizar y nunca cambia de mesa (Brown y Isaacs, 2005).
Indagación apreciativa (Appreciativeinquiry)es una técnica de desarrollo organizativo que tiene por objetivo ayudar a los grupos a renovarse y focalizarse. Se basa en el principio que las organizaciones cambian en función de las preguntas que se hacen (Cooperrider y Whitney, 2011).

Según Cooperrider y Whitney (2011) existen otras técnicas que también obtienen resultados significativos como son: los Diálogos generativos, el Aprendizaje en acción (Action Learning), la Técnica de Recopilación de Ideas Colectivas (CollectiveMind-Mapping), Técnica de Recopilación de Historias (CollectiveStoryHarvest), el Facilitador Visual (Graphic Facilitation), Teoría U y Diálogo.

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c) Responsabilidad Social Corporativa

En la actualidad, se asume que las empresas no sólo cumplen sus obligaciones económicas, éticas, sociales y legales con respecto a sus accionistas sino también hacia el planeta y el medioambiente, los empleados, los proveedores y los distribuidores (Lafuente, Viñuales, Pueyo, y Llaría, 2003).La responsabilidad social corporativa se puede definir como el reconocimiento e integración de las preocu-paciones sociales y medioambientales por parte de las empresas (Cuesta González, Valor Matínez, y Kreisler Merino, 2003).

De acuerdo con Parra Valcarce (2008) los estudios concluyen que la percepción de las empresas por parte de los consumidores es más positiva a la hora de valorar su imagen y reputación si perciben prácticas de RSC. En este sentido, los consumidores esperan que las organizaciones sean coherentes con los valores sociales.

Según un estudio de Ernst y White (2000) sobre la RSC, el 70% de los consumidores europeos indica que el compromiso que las empresas tienen respecto la responsabilidad social es importante cuando adquieren un producto o un servicio.

La Responsabilidad social corporativa representa las empresas que en el momento de su creación tienen los valores de la sostenibilidad como razón de ser. Para que esto se produzca, son necesarios una serie de factores (Felber, 2012) (Ver tabla 2):

Tabla 2: Visión de la Economía del Bien Común (Felber, 2012)

Ámbito económico: cada vez son más los consumidores, clientes y proveedores que valoran las empresas que orientan sus valores hacia la comunidad y no hacia el éxito empresarial financiero. Además, se perseguirá reducir la huella ecológica hacia un mundo globalmente más sostenible y justo.
Ámbito político: se requieren cambios en el marco legal para fomentar las empresas sostenibles. Se necesitan normativas que persigan una vida mejor para todos los seres vivos y para el planeta. El marco legal debe promover un giro radical, pasando de favorecer el beneficio financiero y el PIB a la cooperación y la sostenibilidad.
Ámbito social: se requieren movimientos que continúen concienciando sobre la necesidad de una transformación del sistema. Se pretende que nazcan empresas que cooperen entre sí y practiquen la solidaridad, promoviendo el comercio justo. Se seguirán como ejemplo las personas más empáticas, sensibles, responsables y socialmente competentes.

Siguiendo los trabajos de Eguiguren (2011), se establecen dos tipos diferenciados de empresas u organizaciones. Por un lado se identifican las que realizan acciones de Responsabilidad Social Corporativa (RSC) y por el otro las que nacen y fundamentan su razón de ser justamente en el eje de la sostenibilidad empresarial y en los valores. Así pues, los objetivos de las empresas pueden superar las ganancias estrictamente económicas.

En lo que se refiere a las diferencias respecto de la actividad a realizar, en las de RSC se seleccionan criterios que no necesariamente están vinculados a la misión de la empresa, en cambio en las Empresas Sostenibles las actividades se fundamentan exclusiva-mente en la misión de la empresa(Miotto, 2010).

Por lo que hace referencia a la estructura y a los trabajadores, en el caso de las empresas de RSC están fuera del organigrama y suponen una parte externa, voluntaria, anecdótica o inexistente. Por otro lado, en las Empresas Sostenibles forma parte de su trabajo diario como una actividad de contribución social.

A nivel económico, las empresas que realizan RSC suelen dedicar un porcentaje de sus beneficios a realizar este tipo de actuaciones. Según la Fundación Seres, Sociedad y Empresa Responsable, en España destacan empresas como Ilunion, Adecco y Fundación Adecco, Vodafone, Meliá Hotels International, Orange, BBVA, Konecta, DKV Seguros, Indra, CaixaBank, ESADE, Fundación Repsol y Ferrovial.

Por otro lado, las empresas inclusivas suelen aportar parte de su trabajo, investigación y capital para poner en marcha iniciativas que sean sostenibles con el tiempo. En 2012 el G20 organiza el Desafío en la Innovación de Negocios Inclusivos, un concurso global gestionado por la Corporación Financiera Internacional (IFC) que premia las empresas con métodos innovadores, escalables y comercialmente viables que proporcionan oportunidades económicas para personas pobres, mejorando además el acceso a agua potable, electricidad, salud, educación, vivienda, telecomunicaciones o servicios financieros. Entre las premiadas destacan iniciativas empresariales como: a) Apollo Hospitals Group de India que ofrece servicios médicos especializados en zonas rurales; b) Ecofiltro de Guatemala fabrica a muy bajo costo filtros de agua; c) Engro Foods Limited de Pakistán ayuda a pequeños productores de leche en zonas rurales; d) JainIrrigation Systems Ltd. De India proporciona sistemas de riego a agricultores; e) Manila Water Company de Filipinas proporciona agua potable y assequible; f) Reybanpac Unidad de Lácteos de Ecuador ayuda a combatir la desnutrición al proporcionar bebidas lácteas; g) Sustainable Harvest CoffeeImporters de Estados Unidos ayuda a los pequeños agricultores de café en América Central, América del Sur y el Este de África, y h) Vinte Viviendas Integrales de México ofrece vivienda asequible y ecológica a las familias con pocos recursos (Manchón, 2012).

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Además, si en las de RSC uno de los objetivos es mejorar la imagen y ahorrar impuestos deducibles fiscalmente, en las empresas responsables y sostenibles la finalidad es cumplir con su misión como empresa así como contribuir socialmente a las clases más desfavorecidas pagando los impuestos pertinentes en cada país, sin recorrer a determinados países para obtener beneficios fiscales.

Finalmente, en las empresas de RSC se realizan pocas acciones de evaluación y seguimiento, mientras que en las empresas sostenibles se mide la rendibilidad social y la inversión, así como la calidad, la eficacia de recursos y la eficiencia.

Las empresas inclusivas se fundamentan teóricamente con un proyecto económico abierto a las empresas para promover una economía sostenible y alternativa a los mercados financieros creado por Felber (2012):

Economía del bien común. Pretende sentar las bases para un sistema económico alternativo hacia el bien común, que pretende escapar del capitalismo y del comunismo y ofrecer una alternativa viable. Se trata de un sistema de mercado en el que se cambian las aspiraciones de las empresas, sustituyendo el afán de lucro y concurrencia por el bien común y la cooperación. Pretende generar cambio a nivel económico, político y social, por esto es un movimiento que se define como un proceso participativo, abierto y local con un alcance global.

La economía del bien común se construye en base a valores como la dignidad humana, la solidaridad, la cooperación, la responsabilidad ecológica y la empatía. Se considera que el objetivo de las actuaciones económicas son las relaciones personales y ecológicas. Existe un nuevo significado de éxito empresarial, el indicador Balance del Bien Común 4.0 que sirve para medir los comportamientos humanos y sostenibles. En este entorno, una empresa será considerada exitosa no con criterios de ganancia financiera sino de acuerdo con el indicador de Balance del Bien Común para garantizar el bien a los seres humanos y seres vivos.

d) Marketing responsable

En este entorno, el marketing responsable tiene como finalidad satisfacer las necesidades racionales, ponderadas y proporcionales de consumidores a partir de la fabricación y comercialización de productos y servicios, por los que obtiene como contrapartida un precio razonable y justo y aspira a obtener un beneficio suficiente para continuar contribuyendo al desarrollo social y para procurar la licita compensación de quienes arriesgan su capital y dedican su trabajo (Eguiguren, 2011).

En términos de Palacios Alvarado (2015) el marketing responsable tiene que ver con las decisiones estratégicas que las empresas toman sobre sus clientes consumidores y que vinculan con factores clave como la creación de producto o servicio, fijación de precios, canales de distribución y estrategias de comunicación justas.

Las empresas inteligentes diseñan estrategias de marketing responsable, mostrándose solidarias y justas con el planeta, el medio ambiente y las personas. Superan el objetivo de competir con las demás empresas ya que buscan cooperar, para facilitar que el resto de empresas con las que trabajan, proveedoras y clientes, sean también fuertes, competentes y sostenibles.

A diferencia de prácticas publicitarias basadas en la percepción subliminal, los estereotipos o prejuicios del target o la doble moral, el marketing responsable aboga por un ejercicio de creatividad basado en principios éticos como la democracia, la transparencia, el contraste de la información y la veracidad.

Eguiguren (2011)dota al marketing responsable de sigue una serie de principios: a) Los productos obedecen a necesidades racionales en la sociedad en que se comercializan; b) Se conciben para que el impacto medioambiental en el momento de su fabricación sea reducido o nulo; c) Los servicios o productos están acorde a la misión y valores que persigue la empresa; d) Todos los productos y servicios de la empresa pueden ser considerados sostenibles; e) Los nuevos productos comercializados generan valor para la sociedad a través de su consumo; f) La innovación está destinada a satisfacer necesidades ya existentes en los consumidores; g) Los productos comercializados aportan valor social y sostenibilidad i h) No se comercializan aquellos productos que, aunque siendo rentables, no encajan con los principios éticos del marketing responsable.

En lo referente al marketing ecológico, las empresas inteligentes tienen la responsabilidad de transmitir la cultura de la permanencia de forma práctica a los consumidores y al conjunto de la sociedad. Las autoridades también están obligadas a favorecer las actuaciones en la dirección del desarrollo sostenible, con normativas y leyes positivas y coercitivas para conseguir los objetivos medioambientales.

En términos de Schlottchauer (2014) surge un nuevo perfil de consumidor gracias a la mayor conectividad a Internet y a una desconfianza ante la publicidad convencional. Se trata de un consumidor activo que consulta diversas fuentes de información para decidir si compra un producto o adquiere un servicio.

Ante la necesidad de los consumidores por obtener información auténtica y no institucional de las marcas, surgen los review-sites, webs que permiten a los consumidores publicar reseñas sobre sus experiencias con determinados productos y servicios.

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Schlottchauer (2014) analiza el negocio de Trip Advisor, la web de reseñas de viajes más grande del mundo, y que alberga contenido generado por usuarios, experiencias, crecimiento, monetización, competencia y factores de riesgo. Según concluye el estudio, Trip Advisor es un espacio para construir y gestionar la reputación de las empresas, el contenido y marcas del cual genera confianza en los viajeros de todo el mundo porqué han sido generados por iguales. Con el tiempo, el portal dispone de una gran reputación dentro del sector que es su mayor activo intangible. Otro valor de la compañía es la innovación constante que le permite anticiparse a los cambios y preferencias de los usuarios.

III. A Modo de Conclusión

Descritas y analizadas las investigaciones recientes sobre el concepto de empresa inclusiva como modelo de creación, gestión y dirección empresarial se concluye que pueden ser una alternativa útil ante los efectos de la crisis y de la recesión económica. Se ha evidenciado que las empresas inclusivas pueden ayudar a generar un crecimiento sostenible y al mismo tiempo a mantener la cohesión social, ya que promueven la generación de oportunidades para el desarrollo y tienen por objetivo la mejora del nivel de vida de las personas que sufren exclusión social.

La implantación de empresas sostenibles puede beneficiar, en primer lugar, la inclusión social de colectivos desfavorecidos como jóvenes, mujeres, migrantes, desempleados de larga duración, personas con discapacidad y personas en situación de vulnerabilidad. El hecho de generar valor social para los colectivos en riesgo de exclusión, sin duda ayuda a combatir la pobreza y la marginación.

En segundo lugar, puede suponer la aparición estratégica de nuevos filones empresariales en sectores como la sanidad, la salud, el medio ambiente y la educación. Además, incorporan elementos novedosos para la creación, gestión y administración de empresas que tienen que ver con los valores, la gestión de equipos, la responsabilidad social corporativa y el marketing responsable. En términos de Fisac Garcia et al. (2011) los cuatro factores ayudan a resolver problemas sociales, de pobreza y a transformar o humanizar el sistema capitalista.

En tercer lugar, las empresas smart, sostenibles e inclusivas propician la gestión con sentido de responsabilidad, transparencia, democracia, participación y ética, tal y como describe Eguiguren (2011).

El presente estudio se considera preliminar y pretende describir una aproximación a un modelo de creación, administración y gestión empresarial alternativo al actual. Se pone de manifiesto la necesidad de disponer de un modelo integrador, basado en los resultados de la presente revisión bibliográfica así como en otras investigaciones complementarias. Además, se requieren estudios descriptivos y experimentales capaces de definir indicadores cuantitativos y cualitativos para poder desarrollar dicho nuevo modelo inclusivo, así como estudios posteriores capaces de evaluar los resultados del modelo desarrollado.

La literatura en el ámbito de las empresas sostenibles e inclusivas ha presentado un crecimiento notable ya que se trata de un campo emergente. En este sentido cabe desarrollar por un lado, material con carácter esencialmente divulgativo, didáctico, informativo y general, para enseñar y sensibilizar y, por otro lado, investigaciones con enfoque más crítico y analítico para generar un modelo inclusivo estandarizado que permita la implementación del sistema y superar las dificultades que implica escalar un sistema global de creación, gestión y administración a las condiciones particulares de cada empresa u organización.

Los resultados y conclusiones requieren ser confirmados en estudios posteriores. Se concluye que, ante estos nuevos escenarios y retos, la investigación en este campo debe ser sistemática y multidisciplinar.

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The Socio-Economic and Pathological Effects of Youth Unemployment in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Authority Area of Rivers State, Nigeria

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Abstract- The study examined the socio-economic and paraphernalia effects and the causes of youth unemployment in Ogu Urban Town, and her sister towns in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area (LGA), of Rivers State, Nigeria. The study indicated that youth unemployment has a lot of negative effects on the individual, family, economy and on the society. Youth unemployment leads to poverty, low productivity, and losses on the government in revenue generation; rural-urban migration, and illicit activities which increase insecurity, anti-social activities such as prostitution, political thuggery, violence, restiveness, petroleum bunkering and other social vices evident among the unemployed youths and this constitutes danger to the stability, growth, and development of the Local, State and Federal Government. Following on the research findings, we conclude that, problems of youth unemployment must be solved jointly by the three tiers of government, beginning with the unemployed and all stakeholders. Re-prioritization and revitalization of the agricultural sector (fishing predominantly for the riverine communities), acquisition of formal education, development of the needed infrastructures and building of industries be pursued vigorously which will significantly reduce unemployment in no small measure and poverty reduction as well as eradication of the menace of youth unemployment not only in Ogu/Bolo LGA but in the totality of Nigeria.

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The Socio-Economic and Pathological Effects of Youth Unemployment in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Authority Area of Rivers State, Nigeria

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I. Introduction

Ogu Urban Community is one of the largest towns among the Wakirike Be Se communities (i.e. Okrika nation) in the Rivers State of Nigeria and is ranked the second. The town lies south of Port Harcourt and is about 45 minutes' drive from thence. It is an Urban Area among 24 urban areas designated by the Rivers State Government in 1987, and is the Local Government Headquarter of Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area in the Rivers State of Nigeria created by the late Sani Abacha's Military Regime on 1st October 1996. The LGA has an area of 89 square kilometres (89 k) with a population of 74,683 during the 2006 census. Ogu Urban Town synonymously used with Ogu/Bolo LGA in this work.

Ogu Urban Town with her satellite settlements is geographically surrounded by Eleme LGA in the North, Tai LGA in the North East and Bonny LGA in the South-South, Wakama Ama and Bolo communities (which are part of the Local Government) in the South and Okrika LGA in the South-West, while Andoni LGA in the South-East. It could be reached by air, sea and land (Abomaye- Nimenibo et al; 2017). It has well over 50 satellite villages and fishing settlements that could also be reached, through air and sea from Ogu creek and the Bonny River, while others are accessible by land, through Eleme and Tai Local Government Areas (LGAs). Some of the satellite villages and fishing settlements as enumerated by Abomaye-Nimenibo et al (2017) include:- Tende Ama, Ada Ama I, Ada Ama II, Tamuno Ama (Ofunguru Ama), Yude Ama, New Ogu (Kporo Ama), Chuku Ama, Nemieboka Ama, Igafe Ama, Tendefe Ama, Olobulo Ama, Brown Ama, Afaka Ama, Agakien Ama, Daso Ama, Owukiri Ama, Omodarani Ama, Piri Ama, Ogobo Ama, Iwomabie Ama, Ogweinbie Ama, Owupele Ama, Fombo Ama, Siere Ama, Ogugu-Chuku Ama, Igbikiyemieari Ama, Tububie Ama, Orubie Ama, Anigoboka Ama, Atubonacheofoin-a Ama, Nyanabo Ama, Ogonotoru Ama, Ilanga/Yikabo Ama, Febie Ama, Amabara Ama, Adufe Ama, Chuku Ama II, Ikikafipiri Ama, Olomusoko Ama, Ikpokiri I, Ikpokiri II, Ikpokiri III (Wharf), Tombikuku, Owugono, Ibiorika Kiri, Ibiebele Kiri, Orabere Kiri, Yikabo Kiri, Gream Kiri, Odo Kiri, Abereniboye Kiri, Adokiye kiri, Owuapuigbiki Kiri, Kulo Kiri, Sani Kiri, Apanatibo Kiri, IpiangbafibumoKiri, Bumo Kiri, Semenibipi/Iyo Kiri, Ichi Kiri, Adolphus Nemieboka Kiri, Niniapukiri, Agakien Kiri, Otobipi Kiri, Mbi Kiri, Fulobele Kiri, Mgbemgbeboko (Fubara Kiri) and, so many others which are doted all over the scape of the Eastern Niger Delta. Other towns in the LGA are Ele Town with her villages, Bolo Town with her villages and, Wakama Ama. The people of Ogu are metropolitan in outlook; therefore, settlements taken as villages are big towns in other places (Abomaye-Nimenibo, 2017e).

Ogu also has neighbouring communities such as Sime, Barale, Barayira, Norkpo and Nonwa, all in Tai LGA. Others are Eteo and Onne in Eleme LGA, and Dutch Island, Okochiri, and Okoro Ama in Okrika LGA, as well as Bolo and Wakama Ama communities in Ogu/Bolo LGA that share boundaries with her.

Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area is economically viable. Citizens of Ogu Urban Town are predominantly Fisherman, traders and peasant farmers. Trading is carried out with her neighbouring communities of Tai, Eleme, Bonny, Andoni, and etc. She engages in "legitimate" trade with the Europeans in the

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middle of the last century which increased the volume of commercial activities in Ogu/Bolo LGA, with influx of people from far to her Olobulo, Adufe, Olomusoko, and Tendefe markets which trade became a "large trade" that was well spoken of by Consul Ralph Moor in 1896.

In 1972, Government Secondary School, Ogu, the first post primary school in Ogu/Bolo LGA was established by the then Military Governor of Rivers State Navy Commodore Alfred Diete-Spiff and it started lessons in September 1972 which attract students and other dignitaries to the local government area. For many years, this college remained distinguished from others by its priority of distinction and has made Professors, Doctors of Philosophy, Engineers and Medical Doctors that could not be numbered from all the LGA's of Rivers State and beyond, pushing its popularity both in the West and Middle-belt of Nigeria. By mid-70s, Ogu could boast of a modern hospital, good drinking water and tarred road. The Bolo Community also has a Secondary School, Primary School and a Health Care Centre while the Wakama Ama Community has a Primary School and a Health Care Centre. The Ele Community has a Government Craft Centre which is at its temporary site at the flanks of Ogu Urban Town.

However, the civil war, the creation of LGAs in the country and the great expansion of oil exploration and exploitation activities have had their effect on the people of Ogu positively and negatively. There is no doubt that there is some evidence of development all round. There has been, for instance, a significant increase in the number of educational and health institutions in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area as well as being connected to the national grid which attract population to the area as regards to skilled and unskilled labour.

According to Abomaye-Nimenibo (2017e), Ogu/Bolo LGA has within its territory five oil wells that started production in 1970 attracting all kinds of labour (both endogenous and exogenous manpower).

In addition, several strategic establishments of the Federal Lighter and Ocean Terminals, Onne/Ikpokiri Oil and Gas Export Free Zone Authority, The Nigerian Ports Authority (NPA), Intel Nigeria Limited, and several other service companies which are located on the left bank of Ogu creek from Bonny River, and also attract human traffic and concentration having social, economic, and urban hazards, devastation of the land and sea with the attendant health hazards from oil spillage and bunkering activities.

The distinctive, and impressive cultural activities of the Ogu people such as the Iria puberty and marriage ceremonies, wrestling, traditional plays, burial ceremonies, installation of chiefs and the traditional rulers ceremonies and many other rites and plays connected with the day to day life of the people attract population to the town, hence increases commercial activities.

Display of colourful and artistic masquerades in their paraphernalia at Ogu town are of a common sight throughout the entire Local Government Area, especially during festive periods. These artistic masquerades were believed to be either religious or historical or personifications of the rich legends of the people, and their classic performances, backed up by the refreshing poetry of songs and music, which bring to focus the high sense of drama and entertainment. This colourful display of culture is an emblem of attraction, and allurement of all kinds of people to the town, hence the concentration of people in this LGA as well as inflow of human stream of traffic thereby populating the geographical expanse of Ogu town.

A variety of dances by both the aged men and women, the young maidens who performs the Iria ceremony as well as the colourful masquerades each unique in its form, also abound from September to December of same year, are all symbols of attraction of people to the Ogu community, replica of any other Ijaw tribe . Musical instruments that are displayed include pots and drums, wooden gongs, horns, and xylophones. All these are made the Ogu Urban Town a centre of attraction to all walks of life. These earthen clay and earthen pots moulded for music, drinking water containers, carving of masquerades and ceremonial canoes etc. is a revered art depicting skills and prowess of the Ogu kingdom and carvers have greatly improved the quality of their work over the years which attract even Europeans to the town to have a well-deserved look and catch of the legendary of Ogu town.

The dances, plays of masquerades depict the religious, social, and working life of the people which brings in economic value to the people and the Local Government. In turn, the lives of the people were influenced by their culture. The average Ogu man loves truth, fair-play, and wholesome dealings that can all be traced to the influence of his unique cultural heritage. You can rely on his words as he hardly could negate.

Above all, the Ogu kingdom is hospitable to strangers and citizens. They are lovers of God, music, entertainment of strangers; and none the least, are warriors having spectacular war canoes ever leading the entire warriors of the Wakirike Be Se Kingdom (i.e. Wakirike nation as a whole), bringing in war captives as slaves who when not sold as slaves, settled down in the town as wives producing offspring's, thereby increasing the population of the town. Her people are great travellers who have travelled round the globe, some coming back with foreign wives and children. She has migrated a lot and has families in other towns such as Bonny, Tombia, and Cameroon republic, etc. It is therefore no gain saying that the citizens of Ogu are industrious, peace loving and commercially viable.

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II. Statement of Problem

Over the years, it has become established that the existence of an efficient and effective human capital is the key to socio-economic growth and development in any nation. More so, in the absence of effective human capital development, an increasing population can have adverse negative effect on the economic growth of a nation as a lot more of resources are taken out to manage and cater for the teeming population that the same can generate, (Brand, 2009). It is therefore correct to state that the economic growth of a nation is significantly dependent on the growth of its population in the rural communities of that nation. The effect or impact can be either negative or positive depending on the existence of certain factors, and conditions. When the existing factors and conditions are studied and understood, then the socio-economic life of the people can be managed or controlled to ensure continuous and sustainable economic growth and development (Dennis, 2004). Nigeria is one of the fastest growing economies in the world. According to Nigerian Population Census (2006),with an estimated population of 140 million and an annual population growth rate of 2.9%, Nigeria is the most populous nation in sub-Sahara Africa and the tenth most populous in the world with an estimated population of 180 million in 2012. However, the composition of this population is dependent on the population of each community with 49% contribution from the rural life, (UNDP, 2007).

Since the population of Ogu is growing geometrically, the question that readily comes to mind, is how does population growth affect the direction and magnitude of socio-economic lives of the people of Ogu in Ogu/Bolo local government area of Rivers State as Nigeria's population approaches 180 million, especially in this era of dwindling economy?

Mass unemployment of qualified and able-bodied youths is so common in the world and this is a concern for both governmental and non-governmental organizations, private and public sectors of the economy. Even, the global economic recession of the 1980's has not really helped matters as regarding employment which has caused untold tremendous deterioration in Nigeria's economic and industrial output. Our experience in the 60's and 70's revealed that youth unemployment was not so pronounced as is the present case because, various governments are taking proactive steps in providing jobs for her graduates who were turned out from various higher institutions into the labour market.

Various governments from President Ibrahim Babangida's (1984-1993) has tried to handle unemployment problems in Nigeria by introducing the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) that turned out to be unsuccessful. President Olusegun Obasanjo when he took over power, also tried his best to solve unemployment problem but without much success. Nwodo (2011) ask the Federal and State Governments to urgently address the growing issues of youth unemployment, insecurity and other social vices rampaging Nigeria.

Against this background therefore, Abomaye-Nimenibo (2015) carried out a study with the view of examining the socio-economic effects of youth unemployment in Uyo Local Government, Akwa Ibom State. His findings revealed that there is a significant relationship between youth unemployment and armed robbery situation in Uyo Local Government Area which was in total agreement with the findings of Seers (2007). Also, prolonged unemployment usually results in some form of social pathology, as reflected by an increased crime rate and violent agitators; and his findings collaborated that of Asobie (2004) that, families with unemployed youths and no source of income generation, as in the case of rural areas who face many economic challenges. They live miserable lives on account of poverty, inflation, unavailability of health services, without good education and portable drinking water. The results of that study further showed that, there is a significant relationship between youth unemployment and armed robbery situation in Uyo Local Government Area; and between youth unemployment and kidnapping situation in Uyo Local Government Area as well as an existing strong relationship between youth unemployment and poverty.

Other findings showed that kidnapping was carried out for ransom as a kind of social revolution by unemployed youths who are not satisfied with their socio- economic lot, and there was high rural-urban drift due to lack of infrastructure in the rural areas. Unemployment and underemployment caused by several factors such as rural-urban migration, corruption, socio-cultural constraints, low educational system and high turnover of graduates from secondary and higher institutions, and the increase in government spending on political office holders. Finally, the state of unemployment causes depression, low self-esteem, frustration and some other negative consequences as was buttressed by Ipaye (1998).

III. Objectives of the Study

Based on these findings in Akwa Ibom State, the Researchers decided to carry out a similar study of Ogu/Bolo Local Government Authority Area (LGA) of Rivers State to ascertain whether the same results could be obtained from this area which is also a Local Government Area in another state.

The main objective of this study is to find out the socio-economic effects and pathological consequences of youth unemployment on the life and activities of Ogu/Bolo in Rivers State. Given, the specific objectives of the research work, therefore, are as follows:

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1. To examine the effects of youth unemployment and armed robbery operations in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.
2. To examine the effect of youth unemployment on the kidnapping situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.
3. To find out the extent to which youth unemployment has affected the socio-economic wellbeing of the population of Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.

IV. Research Questions

The same questionnaires used at Uyo LGA of Akwa Ibom State were used especially in the followings:

1. What are the effects of youth unemployment and the level of armed robbery attacks in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area?
2. What are the effects of youth unemployment on the level of kidnapping situations in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area?
3. Does youth unemployment bring about poverty in Ogu/Bolo L.G.A?
4. Does lack of industries in Ogu/Bolo LGA contribute to high rate of youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo LGA in Rivers State?
5. What are the consequences of youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo Local Government of Akwa Ibom State?

V. Hypothesis

Based on these and other hypothetical questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated as follows:

1. *Ho:* There is no significant relationship between youth unemployment and armed robbery situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.
2. *Ho:*There is no significant relationship between youth unemployment and kidnapping situation in Ogu/Bolo local government area.
3. *Ho:* There is no significant relationship between youth unemployment and poverty in Ogu/Bolo LGA of Rivers State.
4. *Ho:* There is no significant relationship between lack of industries and youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.
5. *Ho:* There are no consequences of youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo local government area.

VI. Review of Related Literature

This study posits the concept that employment is one of the basic needs of man. Without employment man may not be able to meet other needs like food, shelter, clothing, and medical bills. An economy is characterized by both active and inactive populations. The economically active ones are referred to as the population willing and able to work and include those actively engaged in the production of goods and services and are regarded as the employed while those who are unemployed are those that are basically not working but are qualified, able and willing to work.

a) The Concept of Unemployment

The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines the unemployed as numbers of the economically active population who are willing and seeking for work, without work being available, including people who have lost their jobs and those who have voluntarily left work (World Bank, 1998).

Fajana (2000) says unemployment refers to a situation where people who are willing and capable of working and were unable to find suitable paid employment. It is one of the macro-economic problems which every responsible government is expected to monitor and regulate. The higher the unemployment rate in an economy the higher would be the poverty level and associated welfare challenges.

Unemployment means a state of joblessness. Briggs (1973) stated that, unemployment is the difference between the amount of labour employed at current wage levels and working conditions and the amount of labour not hired at these levels.

Gbosi (1997) has defined unemployment as a situation in which people who are willing and able to work at the prevailing wage rate are unable to find jobs. Therefore, anybody who is not willing and actively seeking for paid employment should not be counted as part of the employed labour force. If we do so, we may be overestimating the official rate of unemployment. On the other hand, additional workers should not be counted as part of the unemployed labour force. If we do so, we may be underestimating the official rate of unemployment. No matter how one defines unemployment, the underlying philosophy is that unemployment means a state of joblessness.

b) Different Types of Unemployment

Economists world over have used several theories to explain the different types of unemployment in an economy. These different types of unemployment are explained below with their implications for Nigeria's economic growth and development.

i. *Frictional Unemployment*

By frictional unemployment we mean that type of unemployment which occurs when workers spend time searching for new jobs. It is caused by industrial friction in which jobs may exist, yet the workers may be unable to fill them either because they do not possess the basic skills, or because they are not aware of the existence of such jobs. The employable may remain unemployed on account of shortage of raw materials, or mechanical defects in the working of plants. Therefore, the better the economy is doing, the lower this type of unemployment is likely to occur. A worker in Warri may leave his present job to Abuja with the expectation of getting a higher paid job. During this period he away

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looking for a better job, he is without a job, and as such he is classified by labour economists as a frictionally unemployed person. It is important to note that several factors are responsible for frictional unemployment. One such factor is an imperfect flow of information in the labour market. This is because labour markets are not dynamic as the neo-classical economists contended. Also, it usually takes a long time for unemployed workers to get in touch with potential employers who have an available job offered to the public. Again it is of prime importance to note that even though the size of the labour market is constant, at every point in time, there are always new entrants into the labour market. Some of these workers may be searching for employment, while others may not and the underemployed individuals will be leaving the labour force in the search for better jobs. Therefore, frictional unemployment in any country may be determined by the flow of individuals in and out of the labour market and the speed with which these unemployed individuals search for and secure jobs (Gbosi, 1997).

Fajana, (2000, Lindbeck, 1999) stated that ordinarily, this kind of unemployment does not usually pose much threat to individual's welfare, as it is temporary in nature. However, the situation in Nigeria is that of frictional unemployment growing into long-term unemployment and thereby resulting in a stable state of unemployment (Tairu, 2003).

ii. *Seasonal Unemployment*

This type of unemployment occurs as a result of seasonal fluctuations or variations in occupations as a result of climatic changes in fashions. Elrenberg and Smith (1982) observed that the demand for agricultural workers declines after the planting season, and remains low until the harvesting season. Similarly, the demand for construction workers usually falls during the rainy season and peaks up during the dry season. In the tropical region, ice factories are less active in rainy season because demand for ice is low. Seasonal oriented industries are bound to give rise to seasonal unemployment (Wikipedia, 2010). This type of unemployment rarely affects the youths in Ogu/Bolo LGA as the variations in the tidal increase or decrease does not affect the occupation of the people.

iii. *Structural Unemployment*

This occurs when there is a change in the structure of an industry or the economic activities of the country as a result of change in people's tastes or it may be because technology has outmoded and the product or service is no longer in demand. It is mostly to be found in the developing countries of Asia and Africa. This type of unemployment is due to the deficiency of capital resources in relation to their demand. In other words, structural unemployment results from a mismatch between the demand for labour, and the ability of the workers (Alaoa, 2005).

Structural changes can also take the form of decreased demand for a particular skill or a change in technology in a certain industry. Some workers are structurally unemployed because the industry in which they would have liked to work may be decreasing output. Structural unemployment may also occur because there are individuals who look for jobs in a location that has no industry that can use their skills, or because these individuals possess the wrong skills to offer the available employers (Solomon, 1980).

Structural unemployment also refers to a mismatch of job vacancies with the supply of labour available, caused by shifts in the structure of the economy (Bannock et al., 1998). It is believed that much of the 'open' youth unemployment observed in Nigeria is due to structural factors such as the nature of the educational system and its interface with the labour market (i.e., the mismatch problem), technological change, permanent shifts in the demand for goods and services and the skill content of the labour force. The problem in Nigeria, since the early eighties, is that of urban unemployment which has assumed an alarming dimension and a crisis proportion with millions of able-bodied persons who are willing to accept jobs at the prevailing wage rates and are unable to find placements (Onah, 2001).

iv. *Cyclical Unemployment*

Also known as Keynesian unemployment or the demand deficient unemployment is due to the operation of the business cycle. This arises at a time when the aggregate effective community demand becomes deficient in relation to the productive capacity of the country. In other words, when the aggregate demand falls below the full employment level, it is not sufficient to purchase the full employment level of output. Cyclical or Keynesian unemployment is characterized by an economy with shortage of jobs and last as long as the cyclical depression lasts (Thomas, *et al.,* 2001).

The Keynesian economists see unemployment as a situation in which the number of people able and are willing to work at prevailing wage exceeds the number of jobs available; and at the same time, firms are unable to sell all the goods they would like (Bannock *et al.,* 1998).

When carefully analysed, the Keynesian unemployment largely applies to the situation in Nigeria. It can be established that one of the factors accounting for this ugly trend is the unpatriotic taste of many Nigerian consumers including the government that indirectly exports jobs abroad at the expense of the domestic economy. By way of the uncontrolled foreign tastes for virtually all commodities, the domestic producers are faced with the problem of low demand that naturally forces them to lower output and of course reduce the work force. This experience continues in some firms especially the small-scale ones till they are

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pushed out of the market resulting in the loss of more jobs. This results in unemployment persistence. It is a core problem in Africa that has forced many graduate job seekers to take to under-paid and menial jobs (Machin and Manning, 1998).

v. *Residual Unemployment*

This type of unemployment is caused by the personal factors such as old age, physical or mental disability, poor work attitudes and inadequate training (Morphy, 2008).

vi. *Technological Unemployment*

Technological unemployment is caused by changes in the techniques of production. Technological changes take place constantly, leading to an increased mechanization of the production process. This naturally results in the displacement of labour and finally causing unemployment (Oladele *et al.,* 2011).

c) *Causes of Youth Unemployment*

There are many causes of youth unemployment in the world, and this may differ from region to region. In Nigeria, Youth unemployment is caused by several factors. These include:

i. *Poor educational planning*

It is a widely held view that high rate of unemployment among our graduates is traceable to our educational system. Nigerian educational system does not equip our graduates with adequate skills and tools for societal needs. They also contended that our educational system is faulty because it does not prepare the graduates for self-employment (Obi, 1980).

In the view of Gbosi (2005), "the nature of unemployment is as a result of lack of proper skill expansion in our educational institutions, faulty curricular and orientation. The government is also blamed for the wrong orientation of students and poor salary structure in the public sector that has no special incentives for those who possess such skills". It has also been observed that the current proliferation of higher educational institutions and those seeking higher education for white-collar jobs is the main factor responsible for the problem (Gbosi, 2005). This is closely related to the problem of mismatch between educational and economic planning. Consequently, the rate of graduates turn out rises faster than the expansion of job opportunities. Gbosi (2005) further observed that, our educational system is liberal arts-biased. Every year, our higher educational institutions turn out thousands of liberal arts graduates who are not in higher demand in the labour market. We thus have an influx of graduates into the already saturated labour market. Most of these school leavers apparently could not find jobs. Consequently, they joined the array reserves of the unemployed. This is the situation Nigeria finds herself today.

ii. *Adoption of Untimely Economic Policy Measures*

Following the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in September 1986 that ushered in liberalization, deregulation and the devaluation program of the domestic currency, many of the teething domestic firms collapsed. That resulted in the loss of many jobs and thereby rendering many people unemployed which applies to this local government.

A crucial factor that has elicited unemployment problem is the collapsed of the small-scale and cottage industries which operated in both formal and informal sectors. Following the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in September 1986 that ushered in liberalization, deregulation and the devaluation program of the domestic currency, many of the teething domestic firms collapsed. This resulted in the loss of many jobs and so rendering many people unemployed. Although, these policies were designed to jump-start the growth of the economy, given the structure of the Nigerian economy, some of the policy packages became out rightly inimical to the system due to their unseemliness (Momoh, 1998).

iii. *The wrong Impression about Technical and Vocational Studies*

Damachi, (2001) stated that there had been some wrong impression created in the minds of students about technical and vocational education which accounts for the deteriorating state of unemployment in Nigeria. There is an enduring societal biased attitude against technical and vocational education.

iv. *Lack of employable skills due to inappropriate school curricula*

Analysts have argued that in Africa generally, the skills that the job seekers possess do not match the needs and demands of employers (McGrath, 1999; Kent and Mushi, 1995). It is no gainsaid that educational system in Nigeria has over supplied the labour market with graduates that do not possess the skills needed by employers as many graduates lack entrepreneurial skills to facilitate self-employment; rather than looking for white collar jobs and when not available, the citizen becomes and unemployed youth.

v. *Perception about employment by Policy makers and the Youths*

(Kakwagh Venatus and Ikwuba Agnes, 2010; Akaneze, 2011) were of the opinion that Policy makers and youths, perceive employment as job with a salary and working for someone else which perturb their orientation and attitude to work; hence, institutions in Nigeria are expected to provide skills and training related courses (Williams, 2001). Consequently, curricula and training programmes are generally tailored towards preparing young people for formal sector jobs,

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which is supply-driven; but because these jobs do not exist, there is often a mismatch between the skills possessed by the job seekers and the available jobs. Recently, there has been a strong recognition among policy makers in Nigeria that the absence of artisanal and vocational skills has been responsible for youth employment. It is based on this recognition that the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) was established and the introduction of vocational/Technical courses in many Nigerian Universities, Colleges of Education and Polytechnics. The idea behind this is to train young people to acquire vocational/Technical skills. This is, however, a supply-driven response which has ignored the demand for the skills being offered and the absorptive capacity of states and other institutions to make effective use of these skills (Kakwagh Venatus and Ikwuba Agnes, 2010; Akaneze, 2011).

vi. *Lack of Professional Training*

Like the absence of other educational services, there are very few and inefficient institutes for professional training, especially in the rural areas, (Elaigwu, 2008).

vii. *Lack of Opportunities and market Capacity*

Zack-Williams (2000) stated that the collapse of state institutions and the demise of the traditional family coping with structures had left a social gap which, whereas once filled via the protection offered by the social organization of 'street life', the various military forces are now filling in. In effect, life on the street has given many young Nigerians qualities that make them brave fighters as opined by Kanyenze, et al. (2000) and (Liebrandt and Mlatsheni, 2004). The question is how brave are these young fighters who could not fight unemployment?

d) Pathological or Paraphernalia Effects of Unemploy - ment

a. *Brain drain:* Unemployment especially among university graduates results in emigration of youths and active adult population to other countries such as advanced nations of Europe and America. This brain drain leads to loss of highly educated and skilled manpower;
b. *An Increase in Social Vices and Crimes:* Frustrated unemployed youths could be a recruiting source of armed robbers, prostitutes, economic saboteurs, human traffickers, smugglers, militants, militias, etc;
c. *Fall in National Output:* The existence of unemployment means that a nation cannot maximize the use of its labour force for an increased output;
d. *An Increase in Rural-Urban Migration:* Unemployment aggravates rural-urban movement among youths who move to cities in search of non-existent jobs. This also puts more pressure on existing food and social amenities in the cities. According to the UN Report (1999), the high degree of geographical mobility of youths in Africa in the form of rural-urban migration has greatly influenced youth unemployment.
e. *The Increased Drain on the Government Finances:* The presence of unemployment necessitates an increase in government expenditure in the payment of unemployment benefits in nations where they are paid. The government also spends more for the provision of social services at the same time that it collects less from taxes;
f. *Potential Sources of Political Instability:* The army of unemployed youths serves as recruiting ground for disenchanted, disgruntled and revolutionary elements in the society. Such social and political instability is inimical to development;
g. *High Dependency Ratio:* The mass of unemployed persons will have to depend on the small number of the working population for their survival. This will reduce efficiency and savings;
h. *Low Investment and Low National Income:* As a result of low savings, investment will also fall. As a result of the multiplier effect, income will also be low, thus creating a vicious cycle of poverty;
i. *Fall in the Standard of Living:* Unemployment, through the resulting poverty and income inequality, reduces the standard of living of the masses. Unemployment widens inequality gap, impoverishes the masses and lowers their standard of living.
j. *The Neglect of the Agricultural Sector:* The agricultural sector was said to have been the leading provider of employment in Nigeria especially in the sixties and in the seventies when the sector employed more than 60 percent of the Nigerian population.
k. However, in the wake of oil discovery, agricultural sector was neglected and abandoned for oil thereby resulting in high unemployment. Despite the expansion of the industrial sector, unemployment has continued to grow at an alarming rate, (Mkandawire, 1996).
l. *Poor Enabling Environment:* The poor economic environment that characterizes the economy over the years has continued to pose serious challenges to employment generation in Nigeria. Therefore, many job seekers who would have been on self- employment programs are unable to do so because of the hostility of the production environment as well as lack of conducive investment environment, (Abdullah, 1999).
m. *Unstable Political Environment:* It is a common knowledge that a stable political environment enhances macroeconomic stability; but our experience today, reveals that African countries are characterized by military coups, inter-tribal

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warfare, border disputes and a complete breakdown of law and order. Political instability does not attract foreign investment, (Abdullah, 1999). The inflow of foreign resources has facilitated the expansion of Nigeria's industrial activity thereby make the sector to contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic Production (GDP). Gbosi, (2005) stated that Nigeria has been relatively unstable politically.

n. *High Population Growth:* Unemployment situation was worsened by the alarming growth of Nigerian population which growth has continued to increase due to high birth rate resulting in rapid growth of labour which outstripped the supply of jobs (Nweke, 2002). Again, improvement in healthcare delivery has reduced infant mortality rate which has supported an increased population growth.

o. *General Factors:* Bajoma (1996) has classified the causes of unemployment in Nigeria as (a)Economic (b) Social and (c) Political. The economic causes of unemployment in Nigeria, according to him include factors such as the legacy of colonial rule, the oil boom era (1974 – 1981), and consumption pattern. The social causes of unemployment include factors such as rural - urban migration, demographic factors and educational factors. The political causes of unemployment include political instability, ethnicity problem, emigrants from neighbouring countries and the political economy of unemployment, as was supported by Anioke, (2002).

p. *Socio-Economic Effects of Youth Unemployment:* According to Blanchflower and Freeman (1999), the lack of job prospects and the likelihood of a desolate future for unemployed youths in Nigeria have contributed to socially deviant behaviour such as prostitution, armed robbery, kidnapping for ransom, drugs, political thuggery and so on. Crime and violence have been on the increase in many parts of Nigeria especially among unemployed young people. Youth gangsterism is viewed as a substitute for families, typically satisfying the economic and social needs of unemployed young people through violence.

According to UN-Habitat (2004b), many young people entered the criminal world at a very young age and end up becoming victims of crime themselves; become criminals as a result of the frustration and helplessness. They attribute the combination of youth unemployment and availability of firearms to the trend. For example, Fleshman (2001) says that Youth unemployment has a significant social cost. In addition to the indirect health cost, youth unemployment partly contributes to illicit activities which increase insecurity. The increase in criminality in a country as a consequence of youth unemployment causes losses in foreign direct investment (FDI). For example, foreign investors cited kidnapping and other crimes as the biggest deterrent in investment decisions in Nigeria and more especially, most of the oil giant companies are threatening to quit Nigeria, citing insecurity as one of the major reasons, (Okafor, 2011).

q. *Impact on the Youth:* Unemployment has adversely affected our Youths economically, socially, and otherwise. They become vulnerable to themselves and the society who see them as outcast and makes negative comments of themas useless members of society. These young people become the victims of adverse attitudes of people. Their self-esteem is highly affected as they perceive themselves guilty and incapacitated. Most of these youths therefore, go into prostitution, taking to drugs, alcohol and smoking in order to rescue themselves from depression. Some others become criminals as a result of the frustration and helplessness and do anything they like in order to survive. Many such stories have been reported in our dailies that a lot of our youths are criminals who indulge in killings and robberies. There is also an increasing trend of "suicides" among the youths mainly due to the unemployment and poor living conditions especially in the rural areas, where the trend of suicide has been on the increase. Youth unemployment badly affects the morale and spirit of fellow youths of the society who become dejected and disappointed by looking at their peers and elders unemployed, (Unowa, 2006).

r. *Impact on Society:* The percentage of youth population in our society is more than the adults or the aged or the children. They are the most active and productive members of the society, and if the majority of them are unemployed then it means that the society and its other members shall be adversely affected. Of course, when young and capable people are roaming the streets doing nothing useful, it will create irritation and annoyance in the environment. Unemployed youths who are involved in criminal activities become a nuisance to the other members of the society. In rural areas, there are social issues of "kidnapping for ransom". Youths are also among the professionals who are involved in such activities to kidnap local businessmen and other citizens from the city and its environs. They then cause trouble for the families of the kidnapped by demanding a huge ransom. A good number of them are apprehended and they faced capital punishment of death sentence. So, in this way the society loses a great number of assets of young

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talents due to the unavailability of job opportunities and fair working conditions (Abudah, 2004).

s. *Impact on the Economy:* Our young people are the major players in the market economy and if their unemployment causes a lot of losses to the economy regarding intellectual capabilities and talent lost, then the manpower loss is greater. The labour force of these youths if employed could in no small measure boost up the economy of the nation. The unemployed youths, who are alive, becomes a liability and burden to the economy, as they contribute nothing and yet consumes what is being produced. On the other hand, families with unemployed youths with no source of income generation, as in the case of rural areas, are always prone to face many economic challenges. They lead miserable lives on account of poverty, inflation, and unavailability of good health, education and water facilities as observed by Asobie, (2004).

The socio-economic effects of unemployment in Nigeria, like most other African countries is very severe and threatening to the citizenry and the economy as a whole. The unemployment episode has continued to cause psychological trauma which bothers directly on the unemployed.

t. *Unemployment and Personal Wellbeing:* Unemployment in Nigeria has a very serious negative effect on the personal wellbeing of the unemployed. Until recently when a very small number of the affected people benefited from the poverty reduction program of the government, the effect was quite severe on those involved. In cross-sectional regressions, there is clear evidence that unemployment is associated with lower levels of psychological wellbeing (Machin and Manning, 1998). The unemployed is somewhat worse than being divorced in its effect on subjective measures of personal wellbeing. Unemployment dehumanizes the unemployed and causes partial or total loss of esteem among peers. The unemployed feel inferior before his peer group and sees life as totally derisive or disdainful. This is the situation of many of the Nigerian unemployed youths.

u. *Unemployment and Poverty:* One of the core causes of poverty in Nigeria today is the inability of many job seekers to secure gainful employment. This has further worsened the income inequality crisis that characterizes most African economies. Largely, the increasing level of unemployment can explain the increasing level of poverty in Nigeria for which the available information currently puts at 70 percent. This ugly trend of unemployment rate in the face of rising cost of living, has conditioned many people to a very low and undignified standard of living in Nigeria and the African region as a whole (Jane, 2011).

v. *Unemployment and Social Crimes:* Unemployment accounts for most of the social crimes perpetrated by youths in the Nigerian society today. The accelerating level of prostitution, armed robbery, rape and all facets of violence can largely be attributed to the incidence of unemployment. An examination of most of the apprehended criminals shows that a large number of youths that are engaged in criminal activities are those without gainful employment. Some of these criminals are people who have the potentials for gainful employment but have been denied such opportunity by the society. Unemployment then can be seen as one of the core causes of the rising level of social disorder and insecurity permeating the entire country of Nigeria, (Bannon, 2004).

This study is to confirm or negate that in Nigeria, livelihood opportunities for young people are inadequate and this has compelled many urban youths to gangsterism, armed robbery, thuggery and kidnappings. Most, if not all, of these gangs, have distinct sub-cultures with well-developed social structures that are guarded by a clear hierarchy (Bennell, 2000). However, the proliferations of youth gangs in Nigeria have continued to create problems not just for the larger society alone but to the youths themselves as well. For example, while the society suffers from the effect of hideous crimes such as murders, robbery, rape, kidnapping, violence and other atrocities that the gangsters commit, they themselves, because of their involvement in the 'underground crimes', are excluded from receiving formal education that is necessary for their development as good citizens and from the labour market.

According to Guneen (2002), "crime is directly connected to high rates of youth unemployment. This suggested a connection between a soaring crime rate and youth unemployment which influences the way in which our society is governed and developed". Akinrinde (2007) also asserted that "Nigeria becoming more urbanized has an increased proportion of armed robbery cases". To this end, Diara (2011) opines that "The culture of spraying money at social occasions by the rich encourages the poor youths to be involved in armed robbery and other forms of violence".

w. *Unemployment and Economic Growth:* The adverse effect of high unemployment on the domestic economy cannot be quantified. The availability of abundant human resources if

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utilized could serve as the great catalyst to economic growth but if otherwise, could exert negative influence on the economy. The unutilized large quantum of human resources in Nigeria due to non-availability of employment opportunities has continued to impede on the prospect of growth in several ways. The effect of unemployment such as perpetration of violence and general insecurity threatens economic growth and development to a large extent. Therefore, rather than being a source of growth stimulation, the army of the unemployed remains a potential threat to the well-being of the economy. It is therefore, imperative to note that at a social level, prolonged unemployment usually results in some form of social pathology, as reflected by an increased crime rate and violent agitations. It breeds discontent against the state, and any slight provocative issue or incident may trigger violent demonstrations and social unrest, which may result in loss of life and damage to property, if the situation is not handled properly by the authorities (Seers, 2007).

e) Theoretical Framework

The theories found relevant to this work are the Market Liberal Theory, The Marxist Theory of unemployment and The Merton's Anomie Theory.

i. *Market Liberal Theory*

This theory was originated by Margaret Thatcher in 1990 to fight the growing unemployment that hit Britain at that period (Charalambous, 2000). This theory was a challenge to Keynes view that government could solve economic problems by increasing demand in the economy which could invariably reduce unemployment.

An advocate of this theory was Friedman according to Charalambous (2000) in his writing of what he called monetary Policies to control inflation. He opposed Keynes opinion that increasing demand in the economy will reduce unemployment but that will result in two much money chasing too few goods. To him, government could reduce or even eliminate the problem by reducing the money supplied, thereby allowing less money to circulate in the economy. By that, government spends more rather than expanding its economy as advocated by Keynes. Friedman identified what he called a natural rate of unemployment in the economy saying that government could not reduce unemployment below the natural rate without causing excessive inflation.

Adam Smith, a classical economist in his view posits that unemployment could not exist for a long period, saying that, the unemployed would be prepared to work for lower wages in order to get a job. But Friedman disagrees with this view pointing out that in reality, there is no free market in labour. Other factors, according to Friedman are the Mobility of the labour force and the availability and cost of information about the job vacancies. Based on these views, government policies should target reducing public expenditure, powers of unions and make laws that the unemployed will benefit from. This will make industries more competitive allowing efficient industries to prosper, and this will also reduce the burden of taxation on successful industries while privatization of ineffective industries will make them to withdraw and this will make the cost of employing people to fall as unions will lose power and bargaining position as workers become weak and there will be incentives to take low paid work, hence reducing youth unemployment in the economy.

This theory advocates a reduction of government expenditure such as the withdrawal of incentives and subsidies from ineffective industries, the reduction in taxation of unsuccessful industries and also privatizing national industries which are believed to generate employment opportunities for youths thereby, reducing youth unemployment in our nation.

Towing this line as does Keynes Theory of Unemployment, Lawal (2000) was of the view that unemployment problem will be solved. This theory hence stipulates that the higher level of employment will stimulate further investment and employment. Keynes believed that the level of business activity and employment depends on the level of income which determines the extent of savings and investment. So, he suggested that, if government uses some of the money it lavished on frivolous events and redirects to investing in economic activities, there will be creation of employment opportunities in the economy and unemployment would be reduced in the country.

ii. *The Marxist Theory of Unemployment*

The Marxist theory of unemployment is also known as "reserved army of labour theory. It is a theory of conflict that derived its origin from the Marxian school of thought and it was propounded by Karl Marx. To White (2004), the theory refers "to the unemployed in the capitalist society" or "relative surplus population". By the word "army" refers to the workers who queue up at company's gate and web sites in search of available job vacancies, and those workers who are conscripted and regimented in the workplace in a hierarchy, under the command and the authority of the owners of capital. This idea of the industrial reserve army of labour was in circulation in the British Labour Movement in 1830's. During this period, big industries usually require the services of the reserve army of unemployed workers for times of over- population with the aim of having cheap labour. Therefore, over-population is only for the benefit of bourgeoisies but it creates social and psychological effects on the proletariats, especially the youths that constitutes the majority of working population. Even those who are working may be underemployed,

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underpaid and that they cannot pay their bills as well as take care of other necessities and those who are ready to work but could not find jobs, find themselves in devastating situations that is very destructive to societal development (Mcgahey, 2006).

Charalambous (2000) opined that unemployment results from the capitalist system. He believed that unemployment is an endemic problem of capitalism. To him, the capitalist economy always has the highest level of unemployment and especially at periods of crisis when unemployment rises. The bourgeoisie competes among themselves in-order to succeed; they invest their profit to acquire new machinery for more efficient production of goods thereby accumulating capital in the form of machinery for production. The exploitative tendencies of the bourgeoisie are such that capitalist economy has no good intention for the worker. Workers in private companies are denied job securities and their welfare is not in their agenda of welfare plan. The goal of bourgeoisie is maximization of profit and surplus values. That is why Karl Marx predicted that workers will eventually realize that they are being exploited, and will develop class-consciousness and finally overthrow the capitalist system. In essence, Karl Marx postulates that capitalism perpetrates unemployment.

iii. *Social Internationalist Theory*

This is a theory hypothesized by Max Weber which explains the causes and effects of unemployment in the global economy in the mid-century. Marx Weber is of the opinion that unemployment is caused by many factors in a modern market economy. These factors includes; rapid technological change, business cycle recessions, seasonal factors in some industries particularly, such as changes in tastes and climatic conditions which inadvertently affects demand for certain products and services, individual perceptions, willingness to work and attitudes towards some jobs, employers receptivity to training and retraining as well as acquisition of work skills, and discrimination in the work place based on race, colour, religion, ethnicity, age and class.

Above stated causes and effects of unemployment in a particular period, can be a combination of other social factors affects the economy; and how the economy as a whole works in conjunction with individual factors. Marx Weber is of the opinion that unemployment is caused primarily by the social factors rather than by the individual factors. However, Weber believed that individuals construct their social construct and perception and they can be subjective in their behaviour and therefore, can become unemployed even though in the actual condition they can get a job in the job market.

Even though unemployment is caused by interactions between the social structures in the society, its effects on youths are caused by the individuals themselves in that an individual can be unemployed in the society, but the action taken after the conditions is as a result of the individual's decision and not the societal effect. In summary, unemployment is caused by the social structures in the society and its effects, such as the psychological effects, social unrest, etc. In the general sense, unemployment is caused by the individuals in the social structures.

iv. *Anomie Strain Theory*

It is one of the theories that have been extensively studied in the functionalist perspective. The word "Anomie" was coined by a French Philosopher Jean- Marie Gujau and later developed by Emile Durkheim, and further explained by Robert K. Merton in 1940s. In Durkheim usage, Anomie refers to a situation in which cultural norms breakdown because of rapid change in the society. For instance, since the industrial revolution, the increasing rate of unemployment in the global economy have pushed unemployed person to a stage of anomie that is characterized by major strains in various nations of the world.

According to Merton, 'Anomie Strain refers to a situation in which there is an apparent lack of fit between the culture's norms about what constitutes success in life (such as goals, power, prestige or wealth) and the culture's norms about the appropriate ways to achieve those goals (such as means, employment, hard work, etc.). When these are not available or are hard to come by, people are pushed to a stage of normlessness (Anomie, Social unrest, Crime, Psychological trauma and so on) in order to meet the societal approved goals that every society has set as a standard for individuals.

Merton analysis can be understood, first, as a result of our emphasizing success goals more than we emphasize approved means of achieving those goals, and second, our emphasis on the same kind of success for everyone even while the race, ethnicity and class stratification of the society limits the opportunities for success by those in the less privileged groups.

How do people respond to this disjunction of goals and means is what matters. Merton creates a typology of adaptations. The first symbol designates people's relationship to norms about goals; the second symbol designates their relationship to norms about the means of achieving those goals. In his typology, a "+" means acceptance, a "-" signifies rejection and "X" means rejection of prevailing values and substitution of new ones.

Based on the foregoing, there can be no doubt that Anomie Strain theory is preferred due to its intellectual advantages over other theories as it draws a pictorial correlation analysis concerning unemployment and youths activities in the society. It also provides a vivid findings and discovering of new variables about the

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subject matter. That is, the cause and effect between independent and dependent variables which produce a new result (thesis + anti-thesis=synthesis).

This research adopted "anomie strain model" as its theoretical guide. The theoretical contribution to this study would be directed at properly situating unemployment both at the individual and societal levels within the framework of our chosen perspective. This study strives to show that on a theoretical level, the phenomenon of unemployment can be better understood within the objective dimension of "anomie" about the individual, rather than with the subjective dimension which focuses on exploitation or changes in the economic structure.

VII. Method of Study

a) Research Design

Ekong (2003) is of the view that research design is a plan, blueprint or guide for data collection and interpretation. We therefore, adopted the survey method of study to generate the required data. Hence, questionnaire and interview method were used as the major instruments of data collection. The interview method is for all respondents who cannot fill the questionnaires.

b) Research Population

The entire population of the study, Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area is Seventy four Thousand, six hundred and Eighty-Three (74,683) people, according to (NPC, 2006). This population comprise of people in sixty-five (61) satellite villages of Ogu Urban Town alone with twelve (12) wards (Ogu – 6 wards, Bolo- 4 wards, Ele – 1 ward, Wakama – 1 ward) and four (4) clans (Ogu, Bolo, Ele, Wakama Ama). The population for the study is an infinite one but youths between the ages of 18 and 35 years constitutes the respondents.

Therefore, 1,050 respondents were selected using judgmental sampling technique instead of using Taro Yamane sample size determination formula given

$$= \frac{N}{1+Ne2}$$ (Where:

n	=	Sample size to be determined
N	=	Finite population
1	=	Constant
e	=	Level of significance taken to be 0.05).

The sample size can be derived thus:

$$n = \frac{74683}{1+74683\times.05^2} = \frac{74684}{187.71} \cong 398$$

This formula gives us a sample size of 398 but since the previous research conducted at Uyo Local Government Authority Area of Akwa Ibom made use of 1,050 respondents, we decided to use the same sample size for accurate comparism of results so obtained.

The population of the study is made up of youths of employable age between the ages of 18-35 years both graduate, secondary school leavers and some artisans.

c) Sample Size

Due to the cost and difficulty involved in covering the entire population of interest, with a determination to minimize error and to achieve the purpose of this research work, one thousand and fifty questionnaires were administered in the 12 wards of Ogu/Bolo the headquarters of employable age between the ages of 18-35 years who are graduates, and secondary school leavers who are job applicants. This implies that 1,050 respondents out of the entire population were selected, and they are from the various villages in Ogu/Bolo LGA of Rivers State.

d) Sampling Techniques

For objectivity, the 1,050 respondents used for the study were selected through the combination of simple random sampling and the judgmental sampling techniques. The justification of using the simple random sampling method in selecting the villages for the wards to ensure that all the 61 satellite villages in Ogu Urban Town and those of Bolo, Ele and Wakama Ama all in the Ogu/Bolo Local Government Authority Area were sampled and fairly represented in the study without bias, while the use of judgmental sampling technique was used in selecting respondents from the villages to ensure that no bias was introduced in selecting the respondents. Using the above methods, two villages were selected from each of the wards. Generally, 1,300 questionnaires were distributed in all to youths of employable age between the ages of 18-35 years who are graduates, secondary school leavers, and some artisans.

e) Research Instruments

The researcher employs both the primary and secondary source of data collection. The required data from the fieldwork was generated through the use of structured questionnaires and interview for ascertainment or confirmation from the respondents to cross-check whether what they filled was the same thing with what they answered. The questionnaire were ranked and scored using a 5-point Likert scale as follows:

Strongly Agree	(SA) = 5
Agree	(A)=4
Disagree	(D)=3
Strongly Disagree	(SD) =2
Undecided	(U)=1

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f) Reliability/Validity Test of the Research Study Instruments

To ascertain the reliability and the validity of the instruments used for the study, the co-efficient reliability method was used which allowed room for the same questionnaire to be administered twice to the respondents and the correlation between their responses on the two occasions helps us to determine the co- efficient of stability and we rely heavily on the content validity method, of ascertaining that all the respondents understood the questions being postulated.

g) Questionnaires Returned/Analysis

On the whole 1,300 copies of questionnaire distributed, and a total of 1,020 were returned duly filled but a few of them were spoilt.

As earlier stated, the descriptive technique and a 5-point likert scale method were adopted to measure the strength of the structured questionnaire.

Hence, we make use of the chi-square X^2 statistical test to validate the statistical significance of the research findings. This is considered more appropriate to enable us test the significance of the differences between the observed frequencies and the frequencies expected on the basis of our earlier stated hypotheses. This result would help us draw valid conclusion from the study. The formula for the chi-square X^2 statistical analysis is given as:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(Fo - Fe)^2}{Fe}$$

Where Fo = Observed frequency

Fe = Expected frequency

$\sum$ = Summary sign for total frequency

If the observed frequencies are very close to the expected frequencies, the X^2 value will be small indicating a good fit, but if otherwise, the fit is poor. A good fit lead to the acceptance of the null hypothesis (HO) whereas a poor fit leads to its rejection.

VIII. Data Presentation and Analysis

The method used in data collection is five points linkert scale as per structured questionnaire and these questionnaires are presented, interpreted and analysed accordingly.

We used simple random sampling technique in selecting the villages from the 12 wards and judgmental sampling techniques in choosing our respondents.

a) Data Analysis

Furthermore, a total of 1,300 questionnaires were administered but only 1,020 questionnaires were collected and the selected good ones so processed were 1,000. Their responses are presented and analysed below in the following tables.

Section A: Socio-Economic Composition of the Respondents

Table 4.1: Sex Composition of the Respondent

Sex	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Male	720	72
Female	280	28
Total	**1000**	**100**

Table 4.1 above shows the composition of the respondents based on gender. The table shows that male respondents of 720 representing 72% were more than female respondents of 280 showing a 28%.

Table 4.2: Age Distribution of the Respondents

Age	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Below 20	170	17
20 – 30yrs	480	48
31-40yrs	350	35
Total	**1000**	**100**

Table 4.2 reveals the majority of the respondents fall between the age of 20 – 30 years i.e. 48% of the total number, followed by those aged 31 – 40 years representing about 35% while those aged below 20yrs are few representing only 17%.

Table 4.3: Marital Status of the Respondents

Category/Status	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Single	535	53.5
Married	268	26.8
Divorced/separated	108	10.8
Widowed/widower	89	8.9
Total	**1000**	**100**

The marital status of the respondents in table 4.3 shows that majority of the respondents were single (53.5%), followed by married ones (26.8%) while those separated/divorced (10.8%), and the rest 8.9% are widows/widowers.

Table 4.4: Distribution of Respondents by Number of Children

No. of Children	No. of Respondents	Percentage
None	501	50.1
1 – 3	311	31.1
4 – 6	188	18.8
Total	**1000**	**100**

The result of the survey shows that 50.1% of the respondents have no children as shown in the above table while 31.1% has children between the ages of 1 – 3 years and only 18.8% have children between the ages of 4 – 6 years.

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Table 4.5: Educational Level of the Respondent

Literacy Level of Respondent	No. of Respondents	Percentage
No. formal education	35	3.5
Primary Education	98	9.8
Adult education	30	3.0
Secondary education	369	36.9
Tertiary education	468	46.8
Total	**1000**	**100**

Educationally, the result shows that 3.5% of the respondents have no formal education, At least 9.8% has primary education and 3.0% had adult education, while 36.9% have secondary education. Those that had tertiary education represent 46.8%. A total of 83.7% respondents have secondary and tertiary education. This shows that most of the respondents representing 96.5% have at least formal education.

IX. Discussion of Results

a) Testing of Hypotheses

In testing the hypotheses, chi-square statistics is used,

$$X^2 = \frac{\Sigma(O-E)^2}{E}$$

Where
X^2 = chi-square
O is the observed frequency and
E is the expected frequency.

b) The Decision Rule

In testing the hypothesis, if the calculated chi-square (X^2) is greater than the tabulated or theoretical chi-square (x^{2*}) at a given level of significance and degree of freedom (df), we accept the hypothesis, otherwise we reject the hypothesis and regard it is as a null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1

There is strong/significant relationship between youth unemployment and armed robbery situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.

Table 4.6: Response to Test on Relationship between Unemployment and Armed Robbery situation

Details	Male	Female	Totals
SA	560	105	665
A	182	48	230
D	34	15	49
SD	26	12	38
UN	5	13	18
Total (M)	807	193	1000 (T)

(Hypothetical Data)

To calculate the expected frequency (E) using $E = \frac{MN}{T}$, we have:

$$\frac{807 \times 665}{1000} = 536.66; \quad \frac{807 \times 230}{1000} = 185.61; \quad \frac{807 \times 49}{1000} = 39.54;$$

$$\frac{807 \times 38}{1000} = 30.67; \quad \frac{807 \times 18}{1000} = 14.53$$

$$\frac{193 \times 665}{1000} = 128.35; \quad \frac{193 \times 230}{1000} = 44.39; \quad \frac{193 \times 49}{1000} = 9.46$$

$$\frac{193 \times 38}{1000} = 7.33; \quad \frac{193 \times 18}{1000} = 3.46$$

Table 4.7: Observed and Expected Frequency Table

Observed frequency (O)	Expected Frequency (E)
560	536.66
182	185.61
34	39.54
26	30.67
5	14.53
105	128.35
48	44.39
15	9.46
12	7.33
13	3.46
1000	**1000.00**

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$$\text{Using } x^2 = \frac{\Sigma(O-E)^2}{E}, \text{ we have:}$$

$$\frac{(560-536.66)^2}{536.66} + \frac{(182-185.61)^2}{185.61} + \frac{(34-39.54)^2}{39.54} + \frac{(26-30.67)^2}{30.67}$$

$$+\frac{(5-14.53)^2}{14.53} + \frac{(105-128.35)^2}{128.35} + \frac{(48-44.39)^2}{44.39} + \frac{(15-9.46)^2}{9.46}$$

$$\frac{(12-7.33)^2}{7.33} + \frac{(13-3.46)^2}{3.46}$$

$$\rightarrow 1.02+0.07+0.78+0.71+6.25+4.25+0.29+3.24+2.98+26.30 = 45.89$$

Therefore, the calculate $x^2 = 45.89$

At 5% (0.05) level of significance using two degrees of freedom (2df), the tabulated or theoretical chi-squared, $x^2 = 5.991$. Since the calculated chi-square (x^{2*}) of 45.89, is greater than the theoretical chi-square (x^2), we therefore, accept the hypothesis which states that "there is strong/significant relationship between youth unemployment and armed robbery situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.

Hypothesis 2:

H_1: There is a significant relationship between youth unemployment and the level of kidnapping situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government.

Ho: (Null Hypothesis): There is no significant relationship between youth unemployment and the level of kidnapping situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government.

In the context of analysing this hypothesis, the respondents were asked in question No. 4, whether there are Kidnapping incidences in Ogu/Bolo as a result of unemployment".

Table 4.8: The Analysis of Question 4

Details	Male	Female	Total (N)
SA	100	44	144
A	21	15	36
D	200	85	285
SD	400	106	506
UN	10	19	29
Totals (M)	731	269	1,000 (T)

(Hypothetical Data)

$$\text{Using } x^2 = \frac{\Sigma(O-E)^2}{E},$$

$$E = \frac{MN}{T} = \frac{731 \times 144}{1000} = 105.26; \quad \frac{731 \times 36}{1000} = 26.32$$

$$\frac{731 \times 285}{1000} = 208.34; \quad \frac{731 \times 506}{1000} = 369.89 \quad \frac{731 \times 29}{1000} = 21.20$$

$$\frac{269 \times 144}{1000} = 38.74; \quad \frac{269 \times 36}{1000} = 9.68 \quad \frac{269 \times 285}{1000} = 76.67$$

$$\frac{269 \times 506}{1000} = 136.11; \quad \frac{269 \times 29}{1000} = 7.80$$

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Table 4.9: Observed and Expected Frequency of Question 4

Observed frequency (o)	Expected frequency (E)
100	105.26
21	26.32
200	208.34
400	369.89
10	21.20
44	38.74
15	9.68
85	76.67
106	136.11
19	7.80
1000	1000

$$\text{Using } x^2 = \frac{\Sigma(O-E)^2}{E}, \text{ we have}$$

$$\frac{(100-105.26)^2}{105.26} + \frac{(21-26.32)^2}{26.32} + \frac{(200-208.34)^2}{208.34} + \frac{(400-369.89)^2}{369.89} +$$

$$\frac{(10-21.2)^2}{21.2} + \frac{(44-38.74)^2}{38.74} + \frac{(15-9.68)^2}{9.68} + \frac{(85-76.67)^2}{76.67} +$$

$$\frac{(106-136.11)^2}{136.11} + \frac{(19-7.8)^2}{7.8}$$

$$0.26 + 1.08 + 0.33 + 2.45 + 5.92 + 0.71 + 2.92 + 0.91 + 6.66 + 16.08 = 37.33$$

Therefore, calculated x = 37.33.

At 5% (0.05) level of significance using two degrees of freedom (2df), the tabulated or theoretical chi-square, $x^2 = 5.991$. Since the calculated chi-square (x^{2*}) is greater than the theoretical chi-square (x^{2*}), we therefore, accept the hypothesis which states that "there is a significance relationship between youth unemployment and the level of kidnapping situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area."

Hypothesis 3:

H_1: There is significant relationship between youth unemployment and poverty situation in Ogu/Bolo L.G.A in Rivers State.

H_O: There is no relationship between youth unemployment and poverty situation in Ogu/Bolo L.G.A. in Rivers State.

On the basis of this hypothesis, the respondents were asked; whether Youth unemployment encourages poverty in Ogu/Bolo L.G.A. as captured in question No 3 in the questionnaire.

Table 4.10: The Analysis of Question 3

Details	Male	Female	Totals
SA	380	220	600 (N)
A	250	75	325
D	18	11	29
SD	22	9	31
UN	5	10	15
Totals (M)	675	325	1000 (T)

(Hypothetical Data)

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$$\text{Using } x^2 = \frac{\Sigma(O-E)^2}{E}$$

$$E = \frac{MN}{T} = \frac{675 \times 600}{1000} = 405, \quad \frac{675 \times 325}{1000} = 219.37; \quad \frac{675 \times 29}{1000} = 19.57$$

$$\frac{675 \times 31}{1000} = 20.93; \quad \frac{675 \times 15}{1000} = 10.13; \quad \frac{325 \times 600}{1000} = 195;$$

$$\frac{325 \times 325}{1000} = 105.63 \quad \frac{325 \times 29}{1000} = 9.43; \quad \frac{325 \times 31}{1000} = 10.07; \quad \frac{325 \times 15}{1000} = 4.87$$

Table 4.11: Observed and Expected Frequency of Question 3

Observed Frequency (O)	Expected frequency (E)
380	405
250	219.37
18	19.57
22	20.93
5	10.13
220	195
75	105.63
11	9.43
9	10.07
10	4.87
1000	1000

$$\frac{(380-405)^2}{405} = + \frac{(250-219.37)^2}{219.37} + \frac{(18-19.57)^2}{19.57} + \frac{(22-20.93)^2}{20.93} + \frac{(5-10.13)^2}{10.13}$$

$$\frac{(220-195)^2}{195} + \frac{(75-105.63)^2}{105.63} + \frac{(11-9.43)^2}{9.43} + \frac{(9-10.07)^2}{10.07} + \frac{(10-4.87)^2}{4.87}$$

$$= 41.73 + 78.23 + 890.34 + 845.15 + 1{,}772.56 + 93.46 + 175.10 + 1{,}990.35 + 1{,}891.16 + 371.05 = 8{,}149.13$$

Therefore, calculated $X^2 = 8{,}149.13$

At 5% (0.05) level of significance using two degrees of freedom (2df), the tabulated chi-square, $X^2 = 5.991$ is less than the calculated chi-square $X^2 = 8{,}149.13$. We therefore, accept the hypothesis which states that: "there is strong significant relationship between youth unemployment and poverty situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.

Hypothesis 4:

H1: There is a significant relationship between lack of industries and youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.

Ho: There is no significant relationship between lack of industries and youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.

Given the above hypothesis the respondents were asked: Does lack of industries in Ogu/Bolo LGA contribute to high rate of youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo LGA in Rivers State?

This question is Number 13 on the questionnaire.

Table 4.12: The Analysis of Hypothesis 4

Details	Male	Female	Totals
SA	380	220	600 (N)
A	250	75	255
D	18	11	22
SD	22	9	32
UN	5	10	31
Totals (M)	675	325	1000 (T)

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$$\text{Using } x^2 = \frac{\Sigma(O-E)^2}{E}$$

$$E = \frac{MN}{T} = \frac{675 \times 600}{1000} = 405, \quad \frac{675 \times 325}{1000} = 219.37; \quad \frac{675 \times 29}{1000} = 19.57$$

$$\frac{675 \times 31}{1000} = 20.93; \quad \frac{675 \times 15}{1000} = 10.13; \quad \frac{325 \times 600}{1000} = 195;$$

$$\frac{325 \times 325}{1000} = 105.63 \quad \frac{325 \times 29}{1000} = 9.43; \quad \frac{325 \times 31}{1000} = 10.07; \quad \frac{325 \times 15}{1000} = 4.87$$

Table 4.11: Observed and Expected Frequency of Question 3

Observed Frequency (O)	Expected frequency (E)
380	405
250	219.37
18	19.57
22	20.93
5	10.13
220	195
75	105.63
11	9.43
9	10.07
10	4.87
1000	1000

$$\frac{(380-405)^2}{405} = + \frac{(250-219.37)^2}{219.37} + \frac{(18-19.57)^2}{19.57} + \frac{(22-20.93)^2}{20.93} + \frac{(5-10.13)^2}{10.13}$$

$$\frac{(220-195)^2}{195} + \frac{(75-105.63)^2}{105.63} + \frac{(11-9.43)^2}{9.43} + \frac{(9-10.07)^2}{10.07} + \frac{(10-4.87)^2}{4.87}$$

$$= 41.73 + 78.23 + 890.34 + 845.15 + 1,772.56 + 93.46 + 175.10 + 1,990.35 + 1,891.16 + 371.05 = 8,149.13$$

Therefore calculated $X^2 = 8,149.13$

At 5% (0.05) level of significance using two degrees of freedom (2df), the tabulated chi-square, $X^2 = 5.991$ is less than the calculated chi-square $X^2 = 8,149.13$. We therefore, accept the hypothesis which states that: "there is strong significant relationship between lack of industries in Ogu/Bolo LGA and youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo LGA of Rivers State?

X. Findings

In our study we found that, there is significant relationship between youth unemployment and armed robbery situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area of Rivers State although there are a few cases reported in the Local Government which are perpetrated by youths of the neighbouring communities.

This is in total agreement with the findings of Seers, 2007 that at a social level, prolonged unemployment usually results in some form of social pathology, as reflected by an increased crime rate and violent agitators. It breeds discontent against the state, and any slight provocative issue or incident may trigger violent demonstrations and social unrest, which may result in loss of life and damage to property, if the situation is not handled properly by the relevant authorities. We also find that there are petty stealing which has not metamorphose to armed robbery and only a few cases of piracy at sea which are easy crushed by the Joint Task Force (Combined forces of the Army, Navy, Air force and Police) were reported.

Similarly, our findings collaborated that of Asobie: 2004 that, families with unemployed youths and

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no source of income generation, as in the case of rural areas, face many economic challenges. They lead miserable lives on account of poverty, inflation, unavailability of good health, good education and portable drinking water.

The majority of the youths are rather engaged in petroleum bunkering and struggles to do menial jobs as well as embarking on fishing as an occupation for a living. Others are enlisted into the Armed Forces and into volunteered vigilante groups. An average youth of Ogu/Bolo Local Government Authority

Area, more especially an Ogu Urban Town youth is a warrior who prefer to fight than to steal. Anyone caught engaging in stealing are either banished for life from the town and is expected not to return to the town more so for the stigma on him.

Only one case of kidnapping was reported which took place at Bolo at the last Sunday of January, 2018 and was spearheaded by a nephew of the kidnapped erstwhile chairman of the LGA Mr Gilbert Enos. He was picked up right in his bedroom while getting ready to attend that day's worship service. Huge ransom of about five million naira was paid for his release and some the culprits were at last apprehended.

a) Summary of Findings

In the study, we have attempted to identify and examine the socio-economic effects and causes of youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo LGA, an annexe of Port Harcourt the capital city of Rivers State of Nigeria. We used the descriptive statistical method such as simple random sampling technique in selecting the villages and wards with judgmental sampling techniques in selecting the respondents. We used structured questionnaire with five point's likert scale method and chi-square statistical test for the research findings. From the results obtained, and the data analysed from the study our results are simply summarized as follows:

In examining the hypotheses put forward in the study, whether there is a significant relationship between youth unemployment and the level of armed robbery situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area of Rivers State.

In testing the hypothesis, the respondent's responses were analysed and interpreted. The calculated X^2 value of 45.89 is greater than the critical X^2 value of 5.991 at 0.05 significant levels. Since the calculated value X^2 value is greater than the critical values at 5% (0.05) level of significance using two degrees of freedom (2df), the tabulated or theoretical chi-squared ($x^2 = 5.991$), the null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that "there is strong/significant relationship between youth unemployment and armed robbery situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area. This result therefore, confirms the same result that the researcher had in Uyo Local Government Area showing that, there is a significant relationship between youth unemployment and armed robbery situation in Ogu/Bolo LGA.

In testing hypothesis 2, whether there is a significant relationship between youth unemployment and kidnapping situation in Ogu/Bolo L.G.A, the respondents' responses were analysed and interpreted. The calculated X^2 value of 37.33 is greater than the critical value 5.991 at 0.05 significant levels. Since the calculated X^2 value is greater than the critical value, then the null hypothesis was rejected while we uphold the alternative hypothesis, that there is a significant relationship between youth unemployment and the level of kidnapping situation in Ogu/Bolo L.G.A. In any case, only one incident is recorded in the LGA since her creation.

In testing whether there is a significant relationship between youth unemployment and poverty situation in Ogu/Bolo L. G. A. the respondents' responses were analysed and interpreted. The calculated $X^2 = 8{,}149.13$ and df = 2, The calculated X^2 value of 8,149.4 at 5% (0.05) level of significance using two degrees of freedom (2df), the tabulated chi-square, $X^2 = 5.991$ is less than the calculated chi-square $X^2 = 8{,}149.13$. We therefore accept the hypothesis which states that: "there is very strong significant relationship between youth unemployment and poverty situation in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area.

The finding in hypothesis one confirmed that the negative consequent of unemployment includes psychological problems of frustration depression, hostility and this has made some of the unemployed youths go into all manner of criminal activities. The proportion of youths who are unemployed in Ogu/Bolo LGA, get involved in armed robbery and kidnapping though in insignificant number want of money, in complementing whatever they have for living. It was observed that the majority of the unemployed youths in the state has also affected both the individual, family, community, society and government and has hindered the socio-economic growth and development of the state thereby challenging the leadership and people of not only the LGA of study but also Rivers State. Youth unemployment brings about poverty, high crime rate and insolent behaviour which results in death.

Other findings showed that majority of these unemployed youths go into oil bunkering, through the vandalization of petroleum oil pipes to get crude oil for local refining to produce petroleum motor spirit (PMS), Household kerosene (DPK- Duel Purpose Kerosene), Diesel (AGO – Automated Gas Oil) which has claimed so many uncountable souls not only of the youths but adults and their households.

Kidnapping was carried out for ransom as a kind of social revolution by youth especially the unemployed ones who are not satisfied with their socio-economic lot and have decided to take laws into their

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hands to fight for their socio- economic development. This act has given rise to insecurity in the state and has driven a lot of companies and individuals who would have set up industries in the state to other states and even beyond the country. This has adversely affected the LGA and the state in general. This situation presages a great danger for our country's developmental prospects as the country is no longer conducive for foreign industrial investment.

Majority of our youths have not really acquired technical and vocational skills that are marketable for employment in the face of modern technology. There has been high level of rural-urban drift due to lack of infrastructure in the rural areas but for the bunkering activities, the youths have relatively remained in the rural towns irrespective of no steady power supply. However, with the money they made from oil bunkering, power supply generators are being bought to complement the power outage.

Other forms of employment opportunities in the area of agriculture as regards planting food crops was not developed either by the government, through provision of micro-finance and agricultural modernization revitalization, or by the individuals but, a good number of these unemployed youths take to fishing which is their main occupation.

It was also observed that due to oil bunkering business which gives quick financial returns, some of the youths have absconded from western education and have preferred to work in-order to get quick money than going to school which they viewed as wasting of their time. Going to school is no longer their interest and call. This would adversely affect the local, state and the federal government in the future.

XI. Conclusion

The study was able to identified high level of youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area of Rivers State just as was found in Uyo Local Government Area of Akwa Ibom State. There has been lack of industries to absorb the teeming unemployed youths in the Local Government Area, although there a few clusters of service companies and Nigerian Ports Authority hosted by Ogu/Bolo and Eleme Local Government Authorities, which absorbed a few youths of the LGA. The socio-economic development of Rivers State is not all that encouraging as companies are predominantly located in Port Harcourt being the headquarters of the state as well as the industrial and commercial city. Consequently, the few foreign oil companies and industrial investment in Port Harcourt Local Government Area are faced with insecurity and has either relocated and has reduced their operations and therefore, a lot of staff were laid off, compounding the existing unemployment problems.

The study was able to reveal that there is prevalent youth unemployment in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area, and as such, youths of the area are into criminal activities like robbery, kidnapping, killings and illegal bunkering's just mention but a few. Youth unemployment has called for a high level of poverty.

Proper educational planning coupled with relevant skills acquisition and technical based courses to prevent employment mismatch is highly recommended for Government. Government should therefore, rise to the challenges of development in the areas of socio-economic development especially in the provision of amenities and basic infrastructures to enhance employment generation. Public enlightenment campaigns should be carried out by the government over the menace of youthful exuberance.

In order to create employment opportunities and reduce poverty, government should revive all ailing industries in the state. In addition, government should encourage the establishment of new industries with small and medium enterprise (SMEs) as engine of growth that will provide the much needed employment opportunity for our restive youths in Ogu/Bolo Local Government Area and the State at large.

Modular refineries should be built for the local youths in other to make them to be meaningfully employed and also to prevent the breaking of pipelines. Once government built these modular refineries or give license to these youths there would be a real turn around technologically and socio-economic advancement.

In the light of the above and in line with the vision of the president Goodluck Jonathan transformation agenda and drive which is still in operation, entrepreneurial development should be encouraged for self-employment and self-reliance more than paid employment. This will in no small measure reduce criminality in the nation and built up self-confidence and reliability in our youths.

XII. Recommendations

It is also strongly recommended that the educational curriculum in the Rivers State and that of Nigeria should be reviewed by laying emphases on skill acquisition and entrepreneurship development in technical and tertiary institutions.

We also strongly recommend that:

1. Modular refineries should be built for the local youths in other to make them to be meaningfully employed and also to prevent the breaking of pipelines.
2. Agriculture (fishery) should be promoted and revitalized, through modernization of the rural areas as well as provision of basic infrastructures to check rural-urban migration.
3. Creation of awareness for value re-orientation and proper attitudinal change towards the advantage of crime free life/society be carried out to reduce and if

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possible eradicate all dangers of social vices among youths.

4. Adequate population control should be encouraged to meet available resources as the population of this area is exploding as evidenced by Abomaye-Nimenibo et al (December 23, 2017).
5. Government should provide enabling environment for investment in the country.
6. To fight poverty, crimes and social unrest of our unemployed youths, government at all ties should provide meaningful employment, through the provision of viable economic ventures.
7. Micro-finance institutions should be encouraged to provide the needed funds for development of small entrepreneurs in the state to boast employment generation and wealth creation.
8. The average Nigerian youth is an entrepreneur and as such, be encouraged, mobilize and empowered intellectually, technically and financially.
9. Government to reduce poverty among the citizenry, etc.

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For Sustainable Economic Growth that Seeks Improving Environmental Quality: An Empirical Analysis Applied to Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and Egypt

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Abstract- This paper tries to examine the link between economic growth and environmental damage in Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and Egypt, denoted MATE. The main objective for these countries in the coming years is to improve economic growth, which is necessary in response to the increasing demand of their populations, the improvement of the life's quality of their citizens, and to meet the environmental challenges they face. For that, two steps are followed to investigate the relationship between economic growth and environmental damage. In the first step, a basic Environ-mental Kuznets Curve (EKC) equation for each country over the period 1970-2010 is tested to measure the effect of economic growth on environmental quality and to determinate the possibility of the existence of an EKC. In the second step, a few variables are introduced in the basic EKC equation (model tested in the first step) such as economic openness indicator, enrollment rate, and urbanization rate. The purpose is to measure the possible of influence of these variables (included economic growth) on the environmental damage, and to determinate also the possibility of the existence of an EKC. The results of both models show that the relationship between economic growth and environment is complex and ambiguous.

Keywords: *economic, growth environmental, degradation, EKC.*

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For Sustainable Economic Growth that Seeks Improving Environmental Quality: An Empirical Analysis Applied to Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and Egypt

Aïcha El Alaoui [α] & Hassane Nekrache [σ]

Abstract- This paper tries to examine the link between economic growth and environmental damage in Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and Egypt, denoted MATE. The main objective for these countries in the coming years is to improve economic growth, which is necessary in response to the increasing demand of their populations, the improvement of the life's quality of their citizens, and to meet the environmental challenges they face. For that, two steps are followed to investigate the relationship between economic growth and environmental damage. In the first step, a basic Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) equation for each country over the period 1970-2010 is tested to measure the effect of economic growth on environmental quality and to determinate the possibility of the existence of an EKC. In the second step, a few variables are introduced in the basic EKC equation (model tested in the first step) such as economic openness indicator, enrollment rate, and urbanization rate. The purpose is to measure the possible of influence of these variables (included economic growth) on the environmental damage, and to determinate also the possibility of the existence of an EKC. The results of both models show that the relationship between economic growth and environment is complex and ambiguous. It is not possible to find a unique form of this relationship and each variable introduced in the model can give some explanation where the application of EKC is unclear and uncertain. So, each country through policymakers, governmental and nongovernmental organizations must apply preventive and precautionary measures to reduce environmental damages. These measures must be appropriate to its economic and environmental conditions benefiting from experiences of neighbors, especially those of developed countries, and to take lessons from their past mistakes related to pollution, regional development and resource management.

Keywords: economic, growth environmental, degradation, EKC.

I. Introduction

The economic growth remains important for all countries, developing as well as developed countries. It affects people's well-being, i. e. health, education, employment, quality of life, etc. It affects also government's stability, from social and nutritional security to political stability. The recent example is the "*Jasmine*" revolution started in Tunisia. The principal reasons behind this revolution are the high rate of unemployment, the high index of corruption, the poor living conditions, the lack of democracy (free election), and the deficiency of freedoms (freedom of the expression and the press).

The economic growth requires the combination of different types of capitals in order to produce goods and services (World Bank, 2006). These include produced capital, human capital, institutional and social capital, and natural capital.

- Produced capital, which means machinery, buildings, roads and rail network;
- Human capital, which refers to education, health, knowledge and skills. In the early 60s, economists have accorded a large importance to this concept, especially, with the writing of *Becker* (1962, 1964), *Schultz* (1961, 1962), *Mincer* (1958, 1962), *Kiker* (1966) and *Blaug* (1976);
- Institutional and social capital, which involves the quality of political institutions represented by the extent of their connections to the society and their respect to the norms, values and human rights. This concept was popularized, namely, by *Bourdieu* (1985), *Coleman* (1988a; 1988b), *Putnam* (1993), and *Portes* (1998);
- Natural capital, which is related tothenatural resources such as air, water, minerals, the extracted raw materials (gas, phosphate, petroleum, . . .), and animals (fish, cow, pig, . .). This capital is vital for securing a sustainable economic growth and development, not only for the present but also for the future generation. Natural capital is defined by the Global Development Research Centeras "the enviroment stock or resources of Earth that provide goods, flows and ecological services required to support life". This concept is used in many studies especially in this of *Costanza and Daly* (1992).

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The link between the economic growth and the four capitals mentioned above is complex and strong. This study focuses only on the relationship between the economic growth and the environment/ the natural capital[1]. Indeed, the environment plays an important role in supporting all economic activities (agriculture, manufacturing and services). It contributes directly and indirectly in these activities. Directly by providing raw materials and minerals required as inputs for the production. Indirectly by providing ecosystems required as river, ocean, air . . . However, the economic growth has caused many changes to the environment, especially, since the industrial revolution. In its report, the *IPCC's Fifth Assessment* (AR5) showed that "since the beginning of the industrial era, oceanic uptake of CO2 has resulted in acidification of the ocean; the PH of ocean surface water has decreased by 0.1 (*high confidence*), corresponding to 26% increase in acidity, measured as hydrogen ion concentration", (IPCC, 2014, p.4). The environmental changes can be summarized in three aspects: the ozone layer, the temperature change, and the biodiversity loss.

The first aspect of environmental damage is the ozone layer, which is a thin layer of stratospheric gas that protects life on Earth by absorbing the solar UV radiations and preventing them from reaching the Earth's surface, *(Daniel,* 1999, p.10). During the last years, the ozone layer became extremely fragile because of its low concentration of ozone (O_3). However, the pollution causes destruction of this layer notably via the reactions that take place between O_3 compounds and pollutants. It thus exposes humans to sunlight and therefore causes many health problems such as the skin cancer.

The second aspect of environmental damage is the extreme change in the earth's temperature: the atmosphere and the oceans have warmed, the amounts of snow and ice have diminished, and the level of the sea has risen. The IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) documented that "the number of cold days and nights has decreased and the number of warm days and nights has increased on the global scale", (IPCC, 2014, p.7). Moreover this report confirms that "each of the last three decades has been successively warmer at the Earth's surface than any preceding decade since 1850", (IPCC, 2014, p.2). Thus, the global average land and ocean surface temperature warming combined is estimated of 0.85 [0.65 to 1.06] °C[2] over the period 1880 to 2012, (IPCC, 2014, p.2). In addition, the glacier areas have continued to shrink almost worldwide in response to the increased surface temperature and the changing snow cover since the early 1980s. The measure of ice core shows that the "atmospheric concentrations of CO2 have increased from 280ppmv[2] in pre-industrial times to 365ppmv today", (Daniel, 1999, p.93).

The third aspect of environmental damage is the biodiversity loss or the "biological diversity" loss. It refers to all species living in the world. However, human actions on the environment and the air pollution highlight the disappearance and scarcity of certain species, whether insects, animals, or plants. So, human activities have increased the species extinction's rate to a higher level of 100 to 1,000 times the natural rate, *(Chivian and Bernstein,* 2010, p.5).

These three aspects of the environmental damages have caused direct and/or indirect problems such as the increase risk of the famine, the contagious maladies (malaria, Ebola…), flooding, and the risk of water shortage(Khagram, Clark and Raad, (2003), Bass(2006), Martino and Zommers (2007), among others). "The harmful effects of the degradation of the ecosystem services are being borne disproportionately by the poor, are contributing to the growing inequities and disparities across groups of people, and are sometimes the principal factor causing poverty and social conflict", (Bass, 2006, p.2). While, the environmental damage will be experienced by developing countries and the poorest people, especially in Sub-Saharian Africa, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and Latin America regions. In urban area, the risks for peoples, assets, economies and ecosystems have increased such as air pollution, drought and water scarcity (IPCC, 2014, p.15). In rural area, the major impacts are on water availability and supply, food security, infrastructure and agricultural incomes (IPCC, 2014, p.16).

Everybody has a clear conscience about environmental challenges, from averting dangerous climate changes to halting biodiversity losses and protecting our ecosystems. However, the developed economies have partially reduced the environmental damage by, especially, installing/relocating/ transferring a part of their production as investments in developing countries, thus exporting their pollution to these countries. But, these investments are important and vital for developing countries; it ensures continued economic growth and helpsto reduce poverty, migration and unemployment. For that, the solution is in reducing environmental impacts namely by highlighting the importance of technological innovations in developing countries.

This paper tries to examine the link between the economic growth and the environment in *M*orocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and Egypt, denoted *MATE*, where the main objective for these countries

[1] This study uses the concept of the environment because it is general and includes different aspects of life and resources in the Earth.

[2] This expression means "parts per million by volume".

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in the coming years is to improve economic growth, which is necessary in response to the increasing demand of their populations, the improvement of the life's quality of their citizens, and to meet the environmental challenges they face.

The article is organized as follow: The second section reviews a sample of theoretical and empirical studies that focus on the relationships between economic growth and environment. The third sectionpresents economic and environmental situation in Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Egypt. The fourth section is allotted for the presentation of the methodology and of the main results. The fifth section serves to sketch the main components of a strategy to induce environmental improvement in MATE and to conclude.

a) *Theoretical and empirical discussions about the relationship between economic growth and environment*

The environmental issues received growing attention throughout the 60s via the publication of Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring* in 1962, which examined the impact of man's indiscriminate use of chemicals in the form of pesticides and insecticides, mentioned by Cole (1999). In the early 70s, Ehrlich and Holdren (1971, 1972) and Commoner (1971, 1972a, 1972b) identified three factors that created environmental impact (*I*): increasing human population (*P*), increasing economic growth or per capita affluence (*A*), and the application of resource depleting and polluting technology (*T*). These three factors were considered as the worst for the planet and are linked by the following equation named IPAT[3]:

Impact = Population *x* Affluence*x* Technology.

According to IPAT equation and Rachel Carson (1962), the attention was growing to examine the relationship between the economic growth and the environmental quality. This relationship is represented by the Environmental Kuznets Curve, noted EKC, which refers to the hypothesis of an inverted U-shaped relationship between various indicators of environmental degradation and per capita income. In the early stages of economic growth, degradation and pollution increase, but beyond a certain level of per capita income, which will vary for different indicators, the trend reverses, so that a high income level of economic growth leads to environmental improvement. This implies that the environmental impact indicator is an inverted U-shaped function of per capita income. Typically, the logarithm of the indicator is modeled as a quadratic function of the logarithm of income. An example of an estimated EKC is shown in Figure1. The EKC takes the name of SimonKuznets (1955)[4] who hypothesized that income inequality first rises and then falls as the economic development proceedsfrom a certain threshold's economic growth.

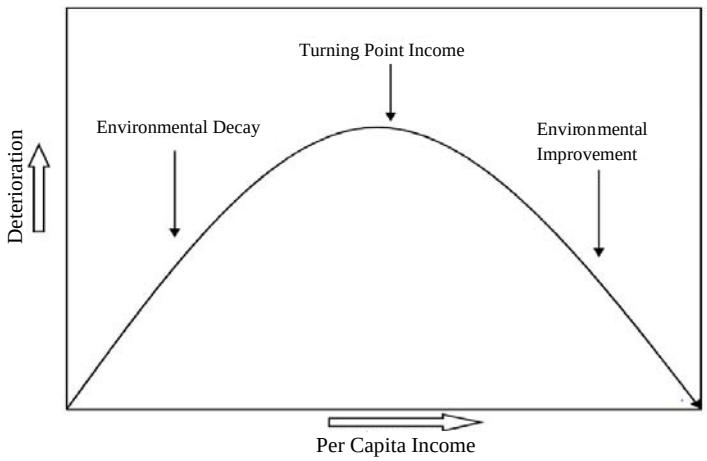


Figure 1: Environmental Kuznets Curve

Source: Yandle, Vijayaraghavan and Bhattarai (2002), p.3.

The idea of this model is that population enrichment was accompanied by the demand for a cleaner environment. At the lowest income's level, the main preoccupations for a poor person are to afford the basic necessities for himself and his family such as food, shelter, water, and clothing, leaving a little place for other concerns as environmental issues. At the highest income's level, a rich person is more sensitive to environmental issues. What is true at the individual attitude is also valid at the national level. When an individual or a country becomes rich, it is easier to scarify à part of its income to protect the environment. Many

[3] For more explication see Chertow (2001). The author tries to track the various forms the IPAT equation to examine which variables was worst for the planet.

[4] Simon Kuznets (1901-1985) was an American economist, demographer and statistician of Ukrainian origin. He won the Nobel Prize in 1971.

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researchers have focused on the relationship between the economic growth and environment such as Grossman and Krueger (1991, 1995); Beckerman (1992); Shafik and Bandyopadhyay (1992); Panayotou (1993, 1997, 2003); Shafik (1994); Selden and Song (1994); and Cropper and Griffiths (1994)[5]. Moreover, the empirical studies related to this subject have grown rapidly during the last decades, especially in developed countries. This paper represents a sample of these studies.

The first estimation of the EKC was established by Grossman and Krueger (1991) which analyzed the environmental impact of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). The authors distinguished three separate mechanisms that can affect the level of pollution and the rate of depletion of scare environmental resources. These effects are the scale, the composition and the technique effects[6]. The authorsused a cubic function to estimate the concentration of pollutants in the air (SO_2, suspended particles and dark matter (thin smoke)) in urban areas using the Global Environmental Monitoring System (GEMS) dataset as part ofa study of the potential environmental impacts of NAFTA. The authors suggested that trade liberalization generates some benefits such as increased income growth which tends to alleviate pollution problems and increased specialization in sectors that cause less than average amounts of environmental damage. They suggested, also, that "the environmental impacts of trade liberalization in any country will depend not only upon the effect of policy change on the overall scale of the economic activity, but also upon the induced changes in the in tersector al composition of economic activity and in the technologies that are used to produce goods and services", p.36. Similar findings are reported by Shafik (1994), he concluded that "some environmental indicators improve with rising incomes (like water and sanitation), others worsen and then improve (particulates and Sulfur oxides) and others worsen steadily (dissolved oxygen in rivers, municipal solid wastes, and Carbon emissions)", pp.769-770.

"Has past economic growth been associated with the accumulation of natural capital or the drawing down of natural resources tocks? Is the accumulation of physical and human capital from complement toor a substitute for the accumulation of natural capital? How do these relationships vary across different environmental resources? And how have macro-economic policies affected the evolution of environmental quality?", Shafik and Bandyopadhyay (1992) tried to respond to these questions exploring the relationship between economic growth and environmental quality by analyzing the patterns of the environmental transformation of several countries at different income levels. The authors tested three models (log-linear, log-quadratic and log-cubic) to explore the shape of the relationship between income and each environmental indicator[7], which was used as the dependent variable in a panel regression using data from up to 149 countries over the period 1960-1990.Excluding deforestation and dissolved oxygen, they found that income has the most consistently significant effect on eight of environmental in dicatorsthan that of policy variablesi.e. the variables related to trade policy, political and civil liberties. Lack of clean water and lack of urban sanitation decline uniformly over time with increasing income. River's quality tended to worsen with increasing income. The two indicators of air pollutants (SPM and SO_2) confirmed the EKC hypothesis. Both per capita municipal waste and carbon dioxide emissions increased with rising income:"access to clean water and sanitation haveelasticitiesof -0.48 and -0.57 respectively, implying that a 1 percent increase in income results in about 0.5 percent more people in the population are served by improved facilities", (Shafik and Bandyopadhyay, 1992, p.22).

In another background paper in World Development Report 1992, Beckerman tried to analyze the relationship between economic growth and environmental quality, namely local air quality and access to drinkable water and sanitation. The author has clearlydescribed this relationship arguing that "there is a clear evidence that, although the economic growth usually leads to environmental deterioration in the early stages of the process, in the end the best way to attain a decent environment in most countries is to become rich", p.482. The author found that there is a strong positive relationship between income level and environmental quality. Although the environment in developing countries may get worse, he confirmed that "in the longer run they will be able to reverse the trends in more common forms of air pollution, and attain levels of water supply and sanitation essential to an acceptable, decent and healthy standard of living", p.21.

[5] For a chronological presentation of the EKC see Stern (2004). This author confirmed that the EKC concept was popularized through World Bank Development Report (1992).

[6] For more explication see Grossman and Krueger, 1991, pp.3-4

[7] They estimated for 10 environmental indicators which are "the lack of clean water, lack of urban sanitation, ambient levels of suspended particulate matter (SPM), ambient sulfur oxides (SO_2), change in forest area between 1961-1986, the annual rate of deforestation, dissolved oxygen in rivers, fecal coliforms in rivers, municipal waste per capita, and carbone missions per capita", (Shafik and Bandyopadhyay, 1992, p.5).

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Examining the effect of population pressures on deforestation in 64 developing countries over the period 1961-1988, Cropper and Griffiths (1994) documented that if there are "two countries with rapid population growth and significant forest resources but with different levels of per capita income, the country with the highest income is likely to be deforesting less rapidly. As income grows, people will switch to energy sources other than firewood and will use modern agricultural techniques that reduce the demand for agricultural land", p.250.The authors showed that the Kuznets curve for deforestation was verified. Thus, an increase of the growth rate of per capita income by eight percentage points reduces the rate of deforestation by one-tenth of a percentage point.

Several studies have focused on relationship between international trade and environmental quality, and have confirmed that the international trade can improve the environmental quality. Accordingly, the international trade would accelerate income; so it can allow a quick passage to the ascending part of the curve. Grossman and Krueger (1991) showed that trade liberalization generates an increase in income levels, then it can strengthen the incentives for 'environmental dumping', p.21. So they proposed that free trade can protect the environment. Lopez (1994) showed that "economic growth and trade liberalization decrease the degradation of natural resources if and only if producers internalize their stock feedback effects on production", p.163. He concluded that the effect of trade liberalization depends on three assumptions:*(i)*the manufacturing sector is protected vis-à-vis to the primary sector, *(ii)* the productive stock effects of the resource occur entirely in the primary sector, and*(iii)* the productive sector is characterized by constant returns to scale technology, (Lopez, 1994, p.183). Antweiler, Copeland and Taylor (2001) investigated how the openness to trading opportunities affects pollution concentrations by developing a theoretical model to divide trade's impact on pollution into scale, technique, and composition effects. The authors concluded that "free trade is good for the environment", p.878.

The turning points[8] come somewhere between $4,000 and $5,000 per capita GDP, measured in 1985 U.S. dollars, (Grossman and Krueger, 1991, p.5). 'Similar' resultsare found byCropper and Griffiths (1992) which the turning points are $4,760per capita income for Africa and $5,420per capita income for Latin America. However, these points vary substantially across environmental indicators[9]. Shafik and Bandyopadhyay (1992)found that the turning points are $3,280, $1,375 and $1,375 (per capita incomein 1985 U.S. dollars) for sulfur dioxides, SPM and fecal coliform, respectively.

Other studies[10] have estimated the turning point to be generally higher. The turning points vary for the different pollutants[11], but almost in every case they occurred at an income of less than $8,000 U.S dollars in 1985, (Grossman and Krueger, 1995, p.369). Selden and Song's estimates are under $10,000 per-head (1985 U. S dollars). These authors tested four indicators of air pollution (SPM, SO_2, NOx and CO) in their model using the GEMS aggregate emissions data obtained from the World Resources Institute. But, Cole, Rayner, and Bates (1997) used carbon dioxide, carbonated fluorocarbons (CFC) and halons, methane, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide, suspended particulates, carbon monoxide, nitrates, municipal waste, energy consumption and traffic volumes to examine the EKC. They have estimated the turning points for different pollutants (from a low $5,700 to a high $34,700 in 1985 U.S dollars).

The EKC has been the subject of growing criticism (Arrow et al. (1995); Ekins (1997);Torras and Boyce (1998); Perman and Stern (1999);Stern and Common (2001), and Cole and Neumayer (2005)). Some authors have confirmed that the EKC is just a utopia because the solution of environmental degradation is not related only to an economic growth and a higher income but there are several other factors can play an important role in improving our biodiversity and ecological system ssuch as education, quality of institution, and civil society[12]. However, many critics have argued that the EKC suffers from severe methodological problems that cast doubt on the reliability of EKC results *(Cole and Neumayer*, 2005, p.298). The authors documented that the rich countries have become clean up, at least partly, by exporting the dirty production of products to poorer countries. This fact may therefore explain the reductions in local air

[8] Stern (2004) presented in table 1 (p.1425) a summary of turning points for sulfur emissions and concentrations assigned at the several studies. See also table 1 of Cole (1999), p.92.

[9] For more explication see Shafik (1994).

[10] See for example Selden and Song (1994), Grossman and Krueger (1995), and Cole, Rayner and Bates (1997).

[11] They focused on four types of indicators: concentrations of urban air pollution, measures of the state of the oxygen regime in river basins, concentrations of fecal contaminants in river basins, and concentrations of heavy metals in river basins.

[11] For example, Panayotou (1993) proposed that "the state of natural resources and the environment in a country depends on five main factors" ignoring/ neglecting other factors that impact economic growth. These factors are "(a) the level of economic activity or size of the economy; (b) the sectoral structure of the economy; (c) the vintage of technology; (d) the demand for environmental amenities; and (e) the conservation and environmental expenditures and their effectiveness", p.2.

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pollution experienced in most developed countries found in many studies.

Arrow et al. (1995) highlighted that the inverted-U relation is evident in some cases but not evident in all cases implying that economic growth is not sufficient to induce environmental improvement in general. They concluded that "economic growth is not a panacea for environmental quality", p.521.

Stern and Common (2001) and Perman and Stern (1999) declaredthat the several studies used only OECD data will have to estimate an optimistic tuning pointswith variables that are likely to be no-stationary. Consequently, the standard estimation willprobably generate spurious results. Ekins (1997) argued, also, that estimated turning points are highly dependent on the choice of functional form, the data set, and the estimation method. The EKC literature is overly optimistic in suggesting the existence of a systematic inverted-U relationship between income and pollution, p.805.

b) Description of economic and environmental situation in MATE

In MATE, economic growth differs significantly from a country to another and within the same country. The best growth rates of real GDP and of real GDP per capita were recorded during the period 1970-1989, and the highest rates were recorded by Egypt. However, Morocco grew speedily by 3.9% during the period 2010-2013 against 3.1%, 2.8% and 2.6%respectively in Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia. These rates are lower than those recorded in Africa (all countries combined), South Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), East Asia and Pacific (EAP) and China. These growths were accompanied by a rapid urbanization in all regions of the World, but it is more important in developed countries than that in developing countries. Roughly 80% of China and OECD populations live in urban area against only 41.5% in Africa (all countries combined) and 36% in Sub-Saharan Africa. In MATE, majority of Algerian and Tunisian populations live in cities, while Moroccan and Egyptian populations live in rural area. Table 1 gives an idea about economic growth and rapid urbanization known in majority regions of the world.

Table 1: Real GDP (g) [(1)], Real GDP per capita (g_y) [(2)], urban and rural population

	g (%)			g_y (%)			Urban population [(3)], %			Rural population [(4)], %		
	Average of period:			Average of period:			Average of period:			Average of period:		
Countries/Region of the World	70-89	90-09	2010-13	70-89	90-09	2010-13	70-89	90-09	2000-13	70-89	90-09	2010-13
Algeria	5.0	2.7	3.1	2.0	0.9	1.2	44.0	59.5	68.5	56.0	40.5	31.5
Egypt	6.1	4.6	2.8	3.8	2.9	1.1	43.4	43.0	43.0	56.6	57.0	57.0
Morocco	4.6	3.8	3.9	2.3	2.4	2.5	40.9	53.1	58.4	59.1	46.9	41.6
Tunisia	5.4	4.8	2.6	3.0	3.4	1.5	50.3	62.9	66.2	49.7	37.1	33.8
China	9.2	9.9	8.8	7.4	9.0	8.2	20.0	36.2	51.2	80.0	63.8	48.8
EAP- all income levels [(5)]	4.9	3.6	4.8	3.1	2.6	4.1	27.9	41.5	53.3	72.1	58.5	46.7
EAP- developing only	7.8	8.4	8.1	5.8	7.2	7.4	21.9	36.7	49.3	78.1	63.3	50.7
LAC-all income levels [(6)]	4.0	2.9	3.8	1.8	1.4	2.6	63.7	74.7	78.8	36.3	25.3	21.2
LAC -developing only	4.1	2.9	3.9	1.8	1.3	2.7	63.1	74.3	78.5	36.9	25.7	21.5
MENA-all income levels [(7)]	5.2	4.6	4.0	2.2	2.4	2.1	49.0	58.5	63.2	51.0	41.5	36.8
MENA-developing only	4.1	4.3	2.3	1.3	2.2	0.6	46.5	55.3	59.6	53.5	44.7	40.4
OECD members [(8)]	3.3	2.2	1.8	2.4	1.4	1.2	70.3	75.9	79.4	29.7	24.1	20.6
South Africa	2.7	2.5	2.8	0.4	0.6	1.4	48.8	56.8	63.0	51.2	43.2	37.0
South Asia	4.3	6.0	6.4	1.9	4.1	5.0	21.9	27.5	31.6	78.1	72.5	68.4
SSA-all income levels [(9)]	2.9	3.5	4.2	0.1	0.8	1.5	22.1	30.7	35.9	77.9	69.3	64.1
SSA-developing only	2.9	3.4	4.3	0.1	0.7	1.5	22.1	30.7	35.9	77.9	69.3	64.1
Africa	3.9	4.1	4.7	1.1	1.7	2.3	27.2	36.9	41.5	72.8	63.1	58.5
World	3.5	2.6	2.9	1.7	1.3	1.7	39.3	46.7	52.3	60.7	53.3	47.7

Source: Calculated using World Development Indicators (WDI), 2015. (1) gis growth rate of the real GDP (2005 US$); (2) $g_y$is growth rate of the real GDP per capita [real GDP per capita =GDP (constant 2005 US$)/total population]; (3) Urban population (%) represents share of urban population in total population;(4) Rural population (%) represents share of the rural population in the total population; (5) EAP is the East Asia and Pacific; (6) LAC is Latin America and Caribbean; (7) MENA is the Middle East and North Africa; (8)OECD is the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development; (9) SSA is Sub-Saharan Africa.

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Consequently, live in cities have an important impact on life-style of citizens and economic activities such as boost demand of transport, telecommunication technology, manufactured goods, drainage, sanitation, and other demand linked to consumption style in the cities. Thus, these changes in the population's behavior will increase the environmental damage especially in air and water. Table 2 gives an idea about the evolution of environmental damage measured by CO2 emissions in MATE and in other regions of the World.

Table 2: CO2 emissions in MATE and other regions of the World, 1970-2009

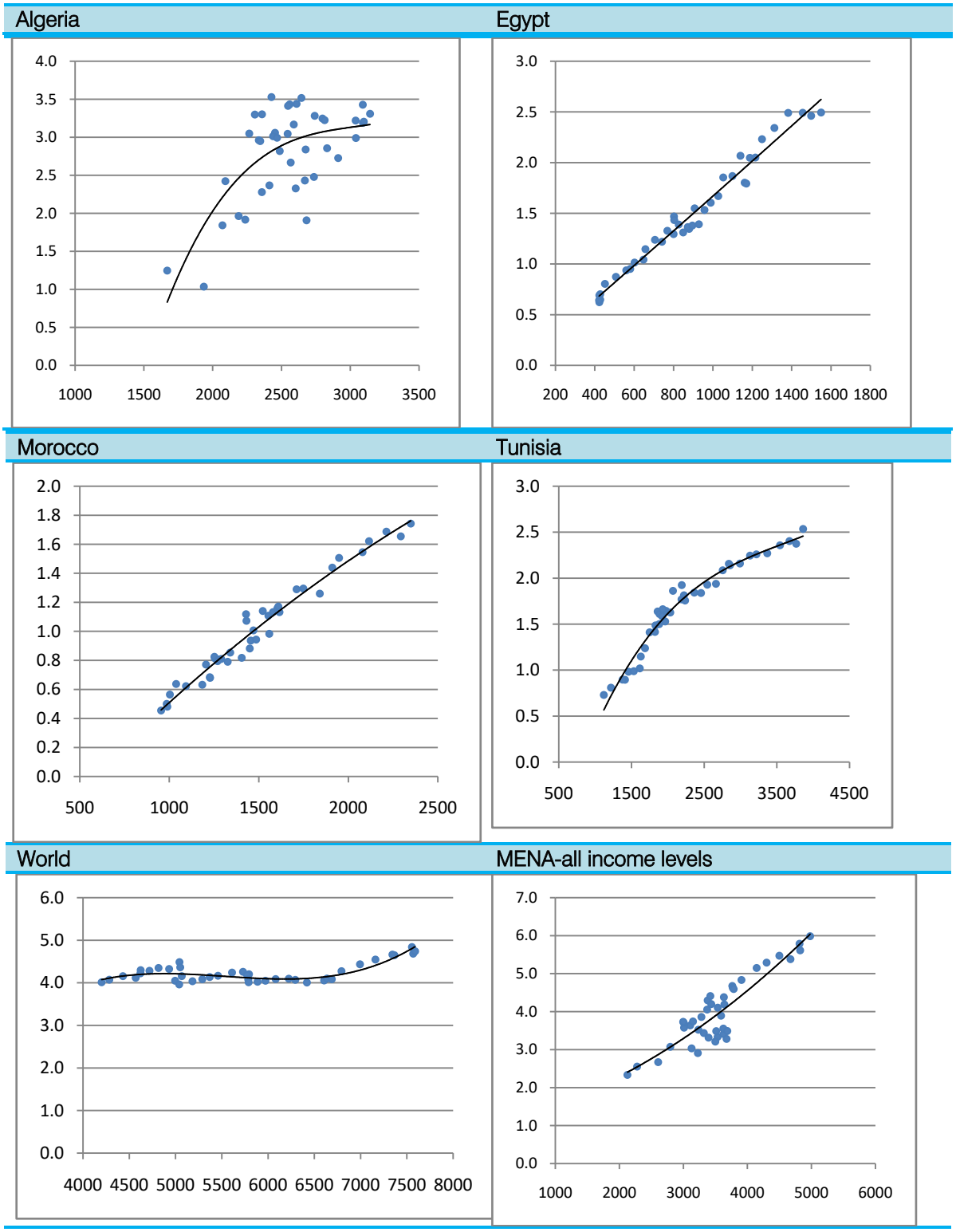
	G-CO2 (1)				P-CO2 (2)			
Countries/Region of the World	70-79	80-89	90-99	2000-09	70-79	80-89	90-99	2000-09
Algeria	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.0	2.1	3.0	3.1	3.0
Egypt	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.8	0.8	1.3	1.6	2.3
Morocco	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.4
Tunisia	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.6	1.8	2.3
China	7.2	5.7	3.7	2.4	1.2	1.8	2.5	4.1
EAP- all income levels(3)	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.9	2.3	3.1	4.2
EAP- developing only	4.3	3.8	2.8	2.1	1.1	1.6	2.3	3.4
LAC-all income levels(4)	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.7
LAC -developing only	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.5
MENA-all income levels(5)	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	3.0	3.5	4.1	5.2
MENA-developing only	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.5
OECD members (6)	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.4	11.0	10.4	10.8	10.9
South Africa	1.5	1.9	2.0	1.7	7.5	9.8	9.1	8.7
South Asia	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.6	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.1
SSA-all income levels(7)	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8
SSA-developing only	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8
Africa	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.2
World	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.5

Source: Calculated using World Development Indicators (WDI), 2015. (1) G-CO2refers to CO2 emissions (kg per 2005 US$ of GDP) =CO2 emissions/ RealGDP (constant 2005 US$); (2) P-CO2is CO2 emissions (metric tons per capita)=CO2 emission/total population; (3)EAP is the East Asia and Pacific. (4) LAC is Latin America and Caribbean. (5)MENA is Middle East and North Africa. (6) OECD is the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. (7) SSA is Sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 2 shows that ***(i)*** Africa's emissions are lower compared to those of the World; ***(ii)*** the highest CO2 emissions per GDP are recorded in China and EAP-developing countries; ***(iii)*** CO2 emissions per capita are recorded in OECD members followed by South Africa; ***(iv)*** Egypt's emissions per GDP are more important than those recorded in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia, and those recorded in MENA; ***(v)*** Algeria's emissions per capita are higher than those recorded in Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia, but lower than those recorded in MENA; ***(vi)*** MATE's emissions per GDP are higher than those recorded in Africa and the World, but MATE's emissions per capita are lower than those recorded in the World and more important than those recorded in Africa.

The following figure (**Figure2**)shows that there is a relationship between CO2 emissions per capita and real GDP per capita, but this relationship hasnota unique form.

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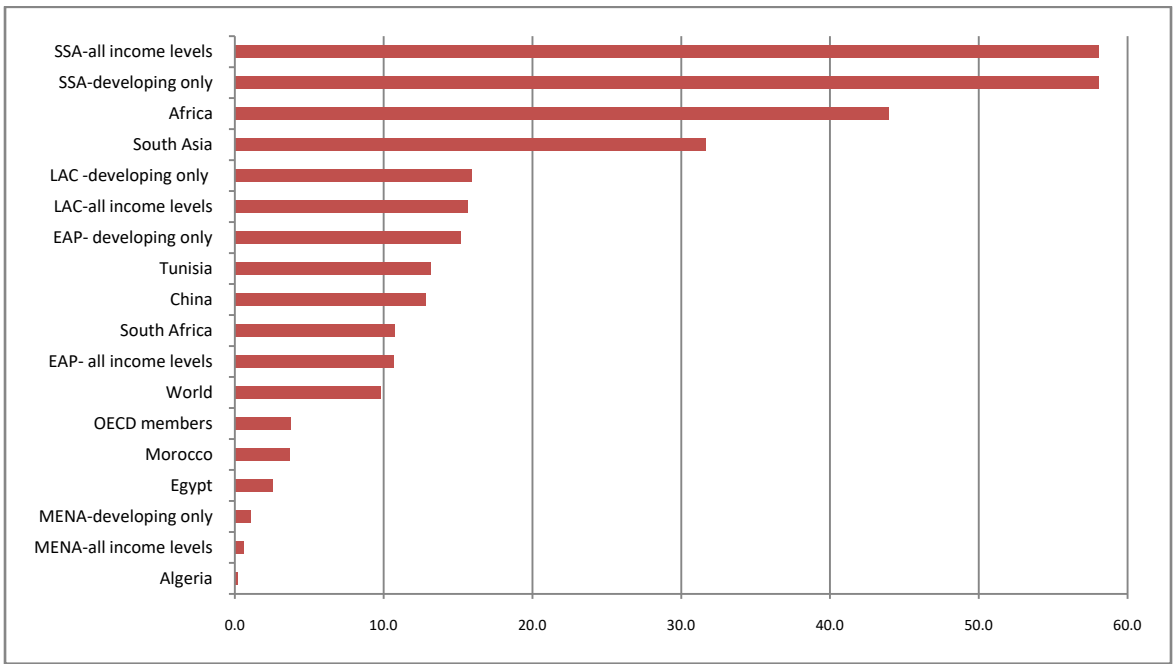


Source: Elaborated using World Development Indicators (WDI), 2015. E refers to CO2 emissions per capita in level. Y refers to the real GDP per capita 2005 US dollars in level.

Figure 2 : Statistical relationships between CO2 emissions (metric tons per capita) and real GDP per capita (2005 US$) of MATE, the world and MENA regions, over the period 1970-2010

In Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), combustible renewable and waste constitute more than 50 percent of energy use during the period 2000-2009, Figure 3. In Tunisia, combustible renewable and waste is important than that recorded in China. The lowest rates are recorded in Algeria, Morocco, Egypt and MENA.

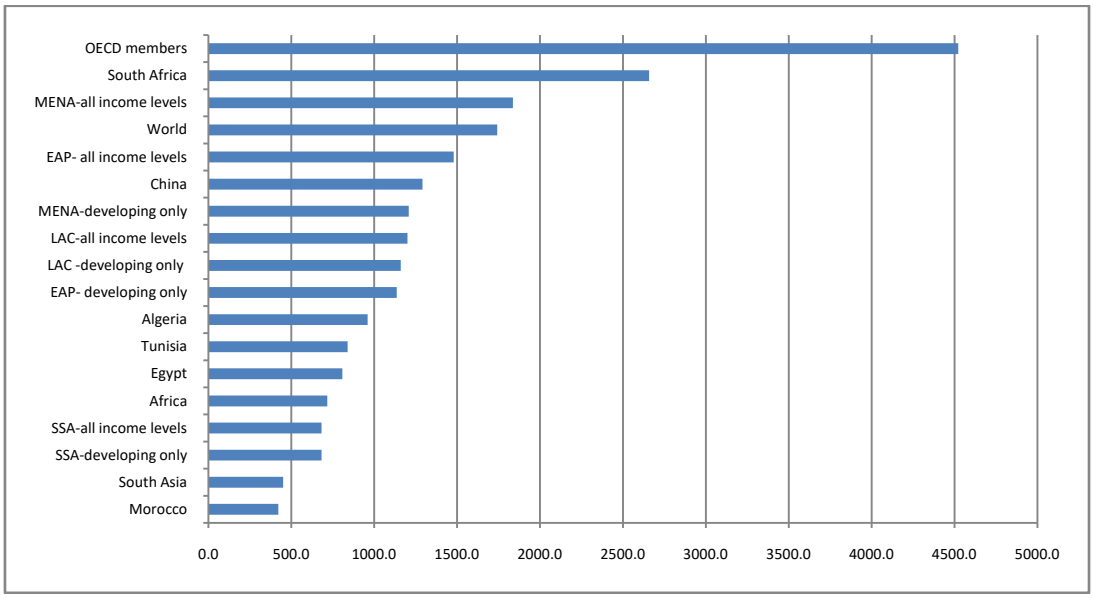
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Source: Elaborated using World Development Indicators (WDI), 2015

Figure 3: Ranking of regions of the World by combustibles renewable and waste (% of total energy use), during the period 2000-2009.

The highest energy use per capita is recorded in OECD members followed by South Africa and MENA- all income levels, Figure 4. Algeria, Tunisia and Egypt have an average of energy use per capita more important than that in Africa (all countries combined). The lowest energy use per capita is recorded in Morocco; it is just more than 400 kg of oil equivalent per capita.



Source: Elaborated using World Development Indicators (WDI), 2015.

Figure 4: Ranking of regions of the World according to energy use per capita (kg of oil equivalent per capita), during the period 2000-2009.

II. Methodology and Results

Estimating and quantifying the effect of economic growth on environmental quality vary according to the conditions of each country such as the economic growth, the degree of openness, the population density, the education and public policies. For that, two steps are followed to investigate the relationship between environmental degradation and economic growth using a basic EKC equation used in many studies.

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- *First step*:A basic EKC equation for each country over the period 1970-2010[13] is utilizedto measure the effect of economic growth on environmental quality and to determinate the possibilityof the existence of an EKC, i.e. the determination of the environmental curve in the form of an inverted U, which is estimated by the following form.

$$LE_{it} = a_0 + a_1 LY_{it} + a_2 (LY_{it})^2 + \varepsilon_{it} \quad \text{model. 1}$$

For each i= Algeria, Egypt, Morocco or Tunisia.

Here, LE is the logarithm ofthe environmental degradation, LY is thelogarithm of the per capita income, ε_t refers to the error term, and t = '1970, 1981…2010' year. The existence of an EKC implies that the coefficients a_1 and a_2 will be positive and negative, respectively, ($a_1>0$ and $a_2<0$). In that case, there is a level of real GDP per capita beyond which the environmental indicator begins to improve, the turning point (noted Y_{tp}), therefore, is determined by: $Y_{tp} = -\frac{a_1}{2a_2}$.

- *Second step:* Introducing other variables[14] in the basic EKC model because that might have some impact on the level of environmental damage by decreasing or increasing it. These variables are:

i. The urbanization because more people in cities involve more wastes and consumption of carburant and combustible;
ii. Then rollment rate because they have a direct and indirect impact on income and it may modify peoples' life style;
iii. The economic openness indicator measured by (X+M)/GDP, where X and M represent, respectively, exportation and importation.

Model1 will as follow:

$$LE_{it} = a_0 + a_1 LY_{it} + a_2 (LY_{it})^2 + B.\, X_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad \text{model. 2}$$

For each i= Algeria, Egypt, Morocco or Tunisia.

Where B is a parameter vector and X isan independent variables vector.

This study uses annual data taken from World Bank. Table 3 summarizes the descriptive statistics of all variables used in this study.

Table 3: Statistic descriptive of the variables, sample: 1970-2010

Variables	Notation: variables_code of country	Mean	St. Dev	Max	Min	Obs.
Real GDP per capita at 2005US$	Y_alg	2558.05	331.10	3143.63	1669.43	41
	Y_egy	886.72	320.90	1550.24	421.35	41
	Y_mor	1494.88	365.59	2348.59	953.93	41
	Y_tun	2263.14	724.89	3861.51	1119.71	41
Environment's Indicator: CO2 emissions per capita	E_alg	2.82	0.61	3.53	1.04	41
	E_egy	1.47	0.56	2.50	0.62	41
	E_mor	1.01	0.35	1.74	0.45	41
	E_tun	1.69	0.48	2.54	0.73	41
Enrollment rate measured by rate of primary completion	Pcr_alg	74.31	13.73	93.40	40.52	39
	Pcr_egy	77.81	20.29	105.91	34.64	39
	Pcr_mor	52.22	16.13	83.90	26.08	39
	Pcr_tun	79.18	13.98	101.72	55.02	39
Urbanization rate is the share of urban population in total population	u_alg	52.15	9.17	67.53	39.50	41
	u_egy	43.18	0.59	43.95	41.48	41
	u_mor	47.26	7.13	57.68	34.48	41
	u_tun	56.80	7.22	65.93	43.48	41
Economic openness indicator = (X+M)/GDP	open_alg	57.74	11.48	76.68	32.68	41
	open_egy	52.87	12.66	82.18	32.48	41
	open_mor	56.69	10.76	88.35	36.68	41
	open_tun	80.63	15.24	115.40	46.74	41

Source: Calculated using WDI (2015). Code of country refers to alg=Algeria, egy=Egypt, mor=Morocco, and tun=Tunisia.

Table 5 summarizes the regression results for each country based on the two models mentioned above (**model 1** and **model 2**),differ with some specific additional independent variables (*u*, *pcr* and *open).*

[13] The data of CO2 emission per capita is not available over the period 2011-2015.

[14] There are several factors that affect economic growth or environmental damage, but we cannot use all these variables, so we make some selection according to data availability of MATE and it importance

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Table 5: Results of models 1 and 2 from OLS estimation method, sample 1970:2010

			Algeria		Egypt		Morocco		Tunisia	
			Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
	Constant	a0	-218.00	-2.38	7.80	-4.28	-39.53	-10.29	-51.23	-47,63
		std. dev	62.29	131.91	2.76	2.87	8.79	9.21	5.40	7,78
		t-stat	-3.50	-0.02	2.83	-1.49	-4.50	-1.12	-9.49	-6,12
independent Variables	LY	a1	54. 87	0.64	1.38	-0.38	6.36	1.86	12.49	11,55
		std. dev	15.99	33.47	0.83	1.03	2.41	2.48	1.40	1,99
		t-stat	3.43	0.02	1.67	-0.37	3.89	0.75	8.89	5,81
	LY^2	a2	3.43	-0.03	0.027	0.10	-0.54	-0.09	-0.75	-0,70
		std. dev	1.06	2.12	0.06	0.08	0.16	0.17	0.09	0,12
		t-stat	-3.35	-0.01	0.42	1.33	-3.28	-0.54	-8.19	-5,63
	pcr	b1		0.01		0.001		0.0003		-0,004
		std. dev		0.01		0.002		0.0016		0,002
		t-stat		1.40		0.56		0.1777		-2,10
	open	b2		0.01		0.0003		0.004		0,002
		std. dev		0.01		0.001		0.002		0,001
		t-stat		-0.11		0.28		2.60		2,19
	u	b3		0.001		0.06		0.03		0,01
		std. dev		0.01		0.03		0.00		0,01
		t-stat		-0.11		1.93		5.37		1,76
Turning point at 2005US$		Y_{tp}	7987,28	10531.12	26254.02	---	8662.42	10461.87	8347.83	8305.85
		R^2	0.57	0.57	0.98	0.98	0.96	0.98	0.96	0.97
		F-Stat-value	25.122	8.62	925.88	380.78	523.62	364.15	482.12	233.95
		Probability of F-Stat	0.0033	0.0000	0.0000	0.0017	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

Source: Estimated using the available data.

Model 1: In MATE, real GDP per capita and its square are statistically significant and the coefficients attached to these variables are respectively, positive and negative. Therefore, these results prove the existence of an EKC and the levels of real GDP per capita beyond which the environmental indicator begins to improve, notedY_{tp}, are around $8000per capita (2005 US dollars) except in case of Egypt, itsturning point is very higher. It is more than $26000 per capita (2005 US dollars). This result can be partially explained by the feeble level of real GDP per capita in Egyptagainstthose recorded in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia.

Model 2: In case of Egypt, real GDP per capita and its square have not expected signs. Therefore, these results cannot prove existence of an EKC in Egypt. However, real GDP per capita and its square have expected signsin cases of Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia. These results prove existence of an EKC. But, the turning points of Morocco and Tunisia are estimated more than $8000 per capita (2005 US dollars) and of Tunisia, this point is estimated very higher; it is more than $10000 per capita (2005 US dollars).

In Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia, economic openness (*open*)is linked positively to CO2 emissions per capita. These results mean that the openness increases the environmental damage. But, this variable is a negative sign in case of Algeria. However, urbanization rate (*u*)is linked positively to CO2 emissions per capita in MATE. Rate of primary completion has no stable sign in **model 2**. This indicator is negative and significantin case of Tunisia and it is positive and no significant in other cases.

III. Environmental Strategies and Concluding Remarks

There are conflicts between economic growth and environment. Improving quality of citizens' life cannot be realized, even if it is not sufficient, without the economic growth whether in developed or developing countries. But, this growth conducts destruction of the ecosystems and biodiversities in the Globe with irreversible impact in future. The relationship between these variables is complex and ambiguous. Therefore, it is not possible to find a unique form of this relationship and each variable introduced in model can give some explanation, as it is shown in this study, where the application of EKC is unclear and uncertain. These results mean that each country through policymakers, governmental and nongovernmental organizations must apply preventive and precau-

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tionary measures to reduce environmental damages. These measures must be appropriate to its economic and environmental conditions benefiting from experiences of neighbors, especially those of developed countries, and to take lessons from their past mistakes related to pollution, regional development and resource management.

In parallel, it is necessary to establish a global political strategy to protect the ecosystems and biodiversities in all countries because solidarity and participation of all people of the planet are important steps to reduce environmental damage. These steps mean that the present generation must not only think about future generations while using resources, but also it must be some kind of involvement of all people in improving and protecting the environment through solidarity actions, recreational activities and volunteering as in case of the epidemic or the natural disasters or the wars.

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Girl-Child Empowerment and Socio-Economic Welfare in Urban Southwestern Uganda: A Case of Kanungu Town Council, Kanungu District

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Abstract- The study aimed at establishing the nature of socio-economic welfare of girl-child empowerment interventions in urban Kanungu District through a case of Kanungu Town Council. More specifically, it intended to identify the forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015, to establish the extent to which girl-child empowerment has improved the socio-economic welfare in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015, to identify and explain the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council, and to generate strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council. The study adopted a case study research design using a cross-sectional survey. The study population was composed of 15,138 people. Out of the sampled population, the sample size included 332 respondents. Census, systematic random sampling techniques were used to select respondents. Data collection methods included; interviews, questionnaire administration, and documentary review. Data was analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively whereby quantitative data were entered in EPIDATA version 10 and then exported to excel for analysis. The study found out that forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council included; access to education, reproductive health services and income generating.

GJHSS-E Classification: *FOR Code: 910199*

GIRLCHILDEMPOWERMENTANDSOCIOECONOMIC WELFAREINURBAN SOUTHWESTERN UGANDAA CASEOFKANUNGU TOWN COUNCILKANUNGU DISTRICT

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Girl-Child Empowerment and Socio-Economic Welfare in Urban Southwestern Uganda: A Case of Kanungu Town Council, Kanungu District

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Abstract- The study aimed at establishing the nature of socio-economic welfare of girl-child empowerment interventions in urban Kanungu District through a case of Kanungu Town Council. More specifically, it intended to identify the forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015, to establish the extent to which girl-child empowerment has improved the socio-economic welfare in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015, to identify and explain the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council, and to generate strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council. The study adopted a case study research design using a cross-sectional survey. The study population was composed of 15,138 people. Out of the sampled population, the sample size included 332 respondents. Census, systematic random sampling techniques were used to select respondents. Data collection methods included; interviews, questionnaire administration, and documentary review. Data was analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively whereby quantitative data were entered in EPIDATA version 10 and then exported to excel for analysis. The study found out that forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council included; access to education, reproductive health services and income generating. In addition, it was found out that, the performance of girl-child interventions included formal education for girls through universal primary and secondary education has enabled them to advance their education career, being aware of family planning services. Challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child included; poverty, negative cultural norms, ignorance and traditional gender roles while on the strategies for enhanced girl-child in Kanungu Town Council, it was found out that programmes have been introduced to promote girl-child through formal education. The study concluded that, the town council has been implementing interventions that seek to empower the girl-child and improve her welfare and these included legal framework and policies, and access to education. However, there are still challenges hindering girl-child empowerment and these included early marriages, teenage pregnancy and gender based distribution of domestic work. The study recommended that the town council should continue to promote programmes that lead to empowerment of the girl-child. For instance allowing girls to go to, and stay in school, have access to all the resources, including shelter and food on the same footing as boys.

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I. Background

This section presents the conceptual, the historical, the theoretical, the contextual, the political, the cultural and the economic perspectives of the background of the study. While the conceptual dimension covers the key concepts underpinning the study, such as girl-child, empowerment and socio-economic welfare, the theoretical dimension dwells on the theories that link the key variables in the study, such as those linking girl-child empowerment and socio-economic welfare. For its part, the contextual dimension provides an overview of the spatial and socio-economic contexts within which the relationship between girl-child empowerment and socio-economic welfare were examined.

Conceptually, one is considered a 'girl-child' if she is a biological female offspring aged 18 years or less (ICMNCH, 2013), normally under the care of adults. Girl-childhood is made up of four successive developmental stages: infancy, childhood, early adolescence, and late adolescence. Infancy lasts from birth to around two (2) years of age; childhood extends from two (2) years to around seven (7) years of age; early adolescence lasts from ten (10) to around fifteen (15) years of age; and late adolescence covers the period from sixteen (16) to eighteen (18) years of age.

While commenting on the importance of girl-child education, Kofi Annan (2001) said that, educating the girl-child is the best strategy for promoting human welfare. And yet girl-children are often denied their rights, such as free access to education. Bennett (2002) defines empowerment as the enhancement of assets and capabilities of diverse individuals and groups that engage, influence and hold accountable the institutions which affect them. For its part, UNICEF ESARO (2000) views girl-child empowerment as collective action undertaken to overcome obstacles of structural inequality which have previously placed girls in a disadvantaged position.

Elsewhere, Kabeer (2001) states that, resources and agency are among the basic components of empowerment because they enable individuals to reach achievements that they would not otherwise have been able to achieve. In Kabeer's opinion, resources are the pre-conditions for empowerment. That is why many

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empowerment programmes provide or facilitate access to such resources. Kabeer adds that resources include not only food, shelter and financial assets but also information and social resources, which can be accessed through various institutions, such as the family, the school, the market and the broader community.

In addition, Kabeer (2001) defines agency as the ability to define one's goals and act upon them. Agency is so fundamental to empowerment that Malhotra et al (2012) view it as the essence of empowerment, partly because for resources to be empowering, an individual must have the freedom and ability to choose to utilize these resources to achieve his or her desired goals; and this ability is the essence of agency. Therefore, while self-efficacy is the foundation of agency, agency is the foundation of empowerment which leads to achievements. Achievements, such as staying in school, utilising health services, voting, delaying marriage until adulthood or influencing household decisions, are the outcomes of the empowerment.

Besides, Kabeer (2001) views empowerment as explicitly valued as an end in itself, and not just as an instrument for achieving other ends. The term 'empowerment' has been used to explain different ideas and notions about different individuals and group power between nations, classes, races, sexes and individuals. In essence, empowerment can mean equalising or near-equalising. However, Makoni (2012) asserts that, where there is war and conflict, girls are the primary victims when they are forced into sex by the youth militia. In Makoni's opinion, school-girls are not safe either where many girls are forced to marry teachers who impregnate them. She also observes that menstruation is hard to manage during school, especially for rural girls 80 per cent of whom miss school an average of 3 months a year during their menstruation periods. She adds that more girls than boys are HIV-positive. According to Psacharapoulos and Patrinos (2002), every year of schooling lost represents a 10 – 20% reduction in girls' future incomes, and countries could raise per capita economic growth by about 0.3% percentage points per year, or 3% in the next decade, if they attained gender parity in pupils' enrolments. Therefore, unless a solid foundation is made for the girl-child through empowerment and education programmes, the future of the girl-child, and implicitly of humanity, shall remain in the balance.

Moreover, Herz and Sperling (2004) asserts that girls who acquire education are better able to resist practices such as female genital mutilation, early marriage and domestic abuse by male partners. However, education alone is not enough to overcome the multiple causes of girls' deprivation and oppression: young women, including educated ones, face embedded disadvantages in labour markets, property ownership and sexual reproductive choices.

Historically, while World Health Organisation (2014) contends that, the issue of the girl-child was first placed on the international agenda by the 1990 Declaration of the World Summit for Children which accorded priority attention to the girl-child's survival, development and protection, CEDAW (1979) indicates that, the girl-child issue was already on the international agenda in 1979. At the 1990 summit, the international community acknowledged equal rights of girls and equal participation of women in the social, cultural, economic and political life of societies as being a prerequisite for successful and sustainable development. But before that, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979 and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in 1989, contain mutually reinforcing principles to ensure protection and fulfilment of the rights of girls and to end gender-based discrimination.

In September 2000, promoting gender equality and women's empowerment was the third of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that were set. Twelve years later, on October 11th 2012, the United Nations inaugurated the first International Day of the Girl-Child, giving global and national advocates of girl-child empowerment a focal day on which to highlight girl-child issues (ICMNCH, 2013).

Theoretically, the study was based on Mohapatra's (2009) theory of feminism and tribal women. According to Mohapatra, feminism is a set of ideas and concepts that stands for a distinctive and established socio-political ideology developed during the second half of the 20th century. As Mohapatra (2009) reveals, the term "feminism" has become common in everyday language, and it implies a diverse collection of socio-political theories, political movements and moral philosophies largely motivated by a concern for gender equity in society. However, Mohapatra (2009) laments that crimes against girls, such as female infanticide and domestic violence, including rape, continue to increase.

According to Colley (1998), despite all the social changes in recent decades, traditional definitions of masculinity and femininity are still widespread in areas of education where there is male dominance, and in ways in which male supremacy has been maintained. Similarly, Stan worth (1983) asserts that, traditionally, less females than males have been going on to further and higher education.

Contextually, the challenges hindering girl-child empowerment include child marriage which is defined as any formal or informal conjugal union where one or both parties are below the age of 18, and it is a human rights violation and an impediment to global development. According to the International Centre for

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Research on Women (ICRW, 2011), there were nearly 70 million child brides in the world in 2011, and more than 15 million girls were married each year in spite of the many programmes and organisations working to prevent child marriage and provide support to married girls.

According to the International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW, 2007), Uganda ranks the 9th globally, with 54.1% of girls in the country marrying before the age of 18. Similarly, the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS, 2009) reported that one in every four (4) girls aged between 15 and 19 becomes pregnant, and nearly half of the girls are married off before the age of 18 years. In addition, Kasente (2003) asserts that, poor families, especially rural ones, commonly use girl-child marriage as a strategy to raise income for the rest of household members, and that many girls in poor families perceive marriage as an escape route from family poverty. Moreover, poor girls sometimes withdraw from school, especially if their parents or guardians cannot meet their needs for supplies like shoes and dresses. Worse still, most societies define femininity in relation to marriage, and girls have been socialized to accept that perspective, thus lowering their aspiration for secondary and higher education. That is why organisations like Joy for Children, Girls Not Brides Uganda Alliance, and the Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (SRHR) Alliance are implementing initiatives to empower the girl-child through raising awareness, economic empowerment, and supporting girls' education by providing scholastic materials and forming Girls not Brides School Clubs.

In 2009, the New Vision (a Ugandan leading newspaper) declared Kanungu as one of the poorest districts in Western Uganda, with 19.3% of the people living in dire poverty. The district is also reported to have one of the highest levels of teenage pregnancy in Uganda (Uganda Bureau of Statistics report (2009), partly attributable to poverty. These facts are confirmed by a UNICEF report (2011) according to which 62% of girls in Uganda's poorest quintiles are married before the age of 18, compared to 26% of girls in the richest quintile. And all this is happening in spite of the governmental and non-governmental interventions in favour of the girl-child in Uganda in general and in Kanungu District in particular.

It is against this background that the study sought to identify the forms of girl-child empowerment, establish the extent to which girl-child empowerment had improved socio-economic welfare, identify and explain the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child, and generate strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council, Kanungu District.

II. Statement of the Problem

The status of the girl-child is critical to achieving women's quality and dignity which is in many ways a litmus test for the maturity of a society. However, girls face various forms of discrimination, attitudes and practices which include female genital mutilation, son preference, early marriage, teenage pregnancy, sexual exploitation and abuse. In addition, pervasive patriarchal, gender biases and stereotypes, and narrowly defined gender roles place girls on the lowest rank of the social and family hierarchies, rendering them marginalised and sometimes socially invisible.

In order to eliminate girl-child discrimination, gender-based violence, exploitation and abuse, governmental and non-governmental stakeholders, have undertaken interventions to empower the girl-child. For instance, the Government of Uganda, through its Universal Primary Education Policy, increased the participation of girls in formal primary education, and completion and achievement rates in primary education, thus lowering the barriers to girls' education. Similarly, non-governmental organizations, like Straight Talk Foundation and Restless Development Uganda, are implementing projects to empower the girl-child. Moreover, through education, schools and other educational institutions are transmitting knowledge and teaching girls essential life and livelihood skills, such as financial literacy, sexual and reproductive health as well as critical thinking.

In spite of all these interventions, the girl-child still faces significant barriers in life. These barriers include poverty, child labour, lack of easily accessible schools, teenage pregnancy and unequal access to education due to gender and cultural factors. Therefore, one wonders whether the interventions to empower the girl-child have had any impact on the social welfare of the girl-child, and if not, why not? Similarly, one wonders whether there are better ways of empowering the girl-child than those tried so far.

III. Objectives of the Study

a) General Objective

The general objective of the study was to establish the nature and socio-economic welfare impact of girl-child empowerment interventions in urban Kanungu District through a case of Kanungu Town Council.

b) Specific objectives of the study

To achieve the above general objective, the study sought to achieve the following specific objectives:

i. To identify the forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015.
ii. To establish the extent to which girl-child empowerment has improved the socio-economic

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welfare of girl-children in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015.

iii. To identify and explain the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council.

iv. To generate strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council.

c) Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide the study:

i. What are the forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015?

ii. To what extent has girl-child empowerment improved the socio-economic welfare of the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015?

iii. What are the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council?

iv. What strategies can be adopted to enhance girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council?

d) Scope of the Study

i. *Content scope*

The study mainly focused on girl-child empowerment and socio-economic welfare. It specifically sought to identify forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015, establish the extent to which girl-child empowerment improves socio-economic welfare in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015, identify and explain the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child, and generate strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council, Kanungu District.

ii. *Geographical scope*

The study was carried out in Kanungu Town Council, Kanungu District, in south-western Uganda. Kanungu District borders the districts of Rukungiri to the north, Kabale to the south- east, Kisoro to the south and the Democratic Republic of Congo to the west. It is composed of 9 sub-counties, 4 town councils and 515 villages. Kanungu Town Council is within Kinkiizi East Constituency and borders with Kirima Sub-county to the west, Rugyeyo Sub-county to the east, Kambuga Sub-county to the north and Rutenga Sub-county to the south. The town council covers a total land area of 3,072 hectares (30.72 square kilometres), inhabited by about 15,138 people, 7,229 males and 7,909 females (Kanungu District Population and Housing Census 2014 – provisional results). The town council is divided into four (4) wards (Eastern, Western, Southern and Northern) which are further sub-divided into 39 cells. The town council is mainly inhabited by Banyankole and Bakiga; two culturally and linguistically related ethnic groups (Kanungu TC Development Plan, 2011 – 2016). The main economic activity of Kanungu District is mixed farming, involving mainly tea production and coffee growing as the major cash crops and banana, cassava, sweet potatoes, rice and millet as the main food crops some of which also double as cash crops. Mixed farming practitioners keep mainly dairy cattle, poultry and some goats while others practice fish farming and bee-keeping. The district is densely populated (203.53 per square kilometre) and land is increasingly becoming scarce due to population pressure. The main economic activities of Kanungu Town Council include brick-making, mixed farming and small-scale businesses.

iii. *Time scope*

The study covered a period of 10 years, from 2005 to 2015. This period was selected because it was during this decade that the issue of girl-child empowerment was firmly placed on the international agenda during the Millennium Development Goals Summit of world leaders. Of the eight Millennium Development Goals, it was Goal number three (03) that focussed on promoting gender equality and women's empowerment.

e) Significance of the Study

It is anticipated that the study will be of great benefit to a good number of stakeholders, and in a variety of ways.

The findings of the study are likely to be of great use to international, national and local government development policy makers and civil society workers in the general areas of community development and poverty reduction as well as in the specific areas of gender equity and the girl-child.

Secondly, the residents of Kanungu Town Council, especially girls, are likely to benefit from this study, particularly if its recommendations for enhancing girl-child empowerment are implemented by both the district and Town Council authorities. The benefits could be in the form of a reduction in the violations of the rights of the girl-child, and improved access to education, health care and general welfare facilities by the girl-child, leading to enhanced physical, emotional, psychological and spiritual growth and development.

Finally, the findings of the study are likely to constitute a valuable source of reference in form of a dissertation for students and other scholars interested in development studies, especially gender equity and the girl-child. Moreover, the study may also inspire other researchers to undertake similar research in other areas of Uganda and beyond, thereby further extending the frontiers of knowledge.

f) Operational Definitions of Key Terms

For purposes of this study, the following terms are used to denote the meanings indicated below.

Girl-child: A socially constructed category around female persons between 0 and 18 years. The term 'girl-child'

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also refers to girls who are between 10 and 24 years of age and thus, encompasses adolescents.

Girl-child empowerment: The process of providing, facilitating and instilling the means of addressing issues which impend the full growth and development of the girl-child in all spheres of the home, the school and the community. More specifically, it is the expansion of a girl's current and future ability through access to education, reproductive health and information, removal of cultural norms and practices, such as male dominance, in order to make her act on strategic life choices. In short, it the process of enhancing the girl-child's capacity to participate in her owns development and that of her community or society.

Socio-economic welfare: The state of social and economic well-being in a society, measured using indicators such as gross domestic product (GDP), per capita income, and improved life expectancy due to improved health, improved literacy levels as well as increased levels of employment.

IV. Literature Review and Conceptual Clarification

a) Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on girl-child empowerment and socio-economic welfare in the world, with a particular focus on Uganda and Kanungu District. The review is presented according to themes derived from the research objectives. The first part covers literature on forms of girl-child empowerment that lead to socio-economic welfare, followed by literature on the impact of girl-child empowerment on socio-economic welfare, and then on the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child, and finally on the strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment.

b) Forms of Girl-Child Empowerment

i. Girls' access to education

According to Tuyizere (2007), education is an essential tool for achieving the goals of equality, peace and development, and it is a useful tool for addressing the religious and cultural impediments that deny girls access to education. In her view, non-discriminatory education benefits both boys and girls, and ultimately contributes to the establishment of more equal relationships between men and women. That is why she concludes that equal access to, and attainment of, educational qualifications is necessary if more women and girls are to become agents of change. Tuyizera's views are echoed by those of Ahunna (2013) who opines that, the education of the girl-child is a vital factor in dealing with the root causes of poverty and underdevelopment. Ahuma adds that a girl's education directly contributes to sustainable development and it is one of the most important investments that yield maximum returns for development. That is why it is important for girls to be able to access education. In Chibiko's (2009) view, access to education refers to the availability, convenience, and ability of a girl to be educated and it translates into enjoyment of the right to education.

According to Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) in December 1949, education is one of the fundamental rights of individuals, and everyone has a right to education. In the words of the Declaration, "This shall be free at least in the elementary and primary stages; elementary education shall be compulsory while technical and professional education shall be made generally available; higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit"

The World Bank (2001) states that education of the girl-child contributes to a decline in mortality and fertility rates, and improves the health and education prospects of the next generation. It was perhaps in recognition of this fact that the UN Millennium Development Goals included commitments to universal primary education and to gender equality. As a matter of fact, Africa has made some progress towards achieving this goal, and as a result, enrolment figures are improving and the enrolment gap between boys and girls is narrowing. For example, in sub-Saharan Africa, the World Bank found that, in 2005, 83.6 girls were enrolled for every 100 boys in primary school. However, primary school enrolment figures do not tell the whole story. As Mason et al (2001) indicate, the gap in higher levels is more dramatic and, for many women, the lack of leadership capacity is due to discrimination in access to education and training.

According to Article 30 of the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (1995), "all persons have the right to education." In addition, according to Article 34 of the same Constitution, "a child is entitled to basic education which shall be the responsibility of the state and the parents of the child." The Constitution further emphasises that, there is need for affirmative action in favour of groups marginalised on the basis of gender, among other social categories, for the purpose of addressing imbalances which exist against them. In this regard, the Uganda Gender Policy (2007) is the national guiding framework for gender mainstreaming.

Fredrick et al (2007) states that the provisions in the Bill of Rights, the national objectives and directive principles of state policy, provide that the state shall promote compulsory education and take appropriate measures to afford every citizen equal opportunity to attain the highest educational standard possible. However, despite the existence of a policy on primary education in Uganda, there is no law that provides punitive measures against parents who do not ensure that their children are in school.

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ii. *Policies on access to girls' education*

The Government of Uganda, through its Ministry of Education and Sports, gives considerable support to the education of the girl-child. For example, in 1997, the government launched the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme following the recommendations of the Education Policy Review Commission (EPRC, 1989), the subsequent relevant stipulations of the Government of Uganda (GoU) White Paper (1992) and the development of the Children's Statute (1996). The key policy objectives of UPE are:

i. Establishing, providing and maintaining quality education as a basis for promoting the necessary human resource development, transforming the society in a fundamental and positive way, and providing the minimum necessary facilities and resources to enable children enter and remain in school and complete the primary cycle of education;
ii. Making basic education accessible to the learner and relevant to his/her needs as well as meeting the national goals;
iii. Making education accessible in order to eliminate disparities; and
iv. Ensuring that education is affordable by the majority of Ugandans.

The policy further emphasises equal opportunity for both boys and girls, and it focuses on promoting gender equality in enrolment, retention and performance in primary education. From the 1990s, the Ministry implemented the Universal Primary Education (UPE) policy, and as a result, the enrolment of girls in primary schools increased from 46% in 1997 to 48% in 1999. Overall, 87% of children aged between 6 and 12 years were enrolled in primary school. However, Namaganda (2009) argues that girls' enrolment has consistently lagged behind that of boys by about 20%. For her part, Nyanzi's (2002) report echoes that of the Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development (MoGLSD, 2000) which asserted that the dropout rate for girls fell from 11% in 1995 to 5.6% in 1998 and that repetition rates among primary school girls reduced from 17.7% in 1995 to 6.3% in 1998.

According to UNICEF (2002), the gross enrolment increased at the introduction of UPE in 1997 and 16.6% more pupils of both sexes were enrolled. However, Fredrick et al (2007) points out that while the free primary education introduced in 1997 resulted into increased enrolment in terms of numbers, it did not necessarily translate into higher retention rates of either boys or girls; and neither have building structures matched the number of pupils enrolled.

Elsewhere, Muhwezi (2003) opines that the UPE programme has led to a number of gender parity achievements, especially where more girls are currently enrolled in school and fewer girls drop out of school. However, gender disparities persist, especially in performance, classroom participation, access to school facilities and general educational attainment. In addition, gender disparities at the secondary school level have not received as much attention as at the primary level. Muhwezi (2003) concludes that there is evidence that more males than females are enrolled in secondary schools although repetition rates for males seem to be higher than those of their female counterparts, and this could be attributed to the greater numbers of male enrolment.

According to Namaganda (2009), Universal Secondary Education (USE) was a government initiative to fulfil its commitment to the Dakar Education for All (EFA) declaration and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) aimed at attaining parity between girls' and boys' enrolment in primary and secondary levels by 2005 and gender equality at all levels of education by 2015. In addition, the MoES Sector Performance Report (2006), in conjunction with Uganda Educational Statistics Abstract 2006/2007 on the status of USE Head Count in 2008, states that there has been a remarkable increase in enrolment of students, including girls, into secondary education. Furthermore, the Uganda Gender Policy (2007) recognises education as an essential human development indicator. Similarly, according to the Uganda Population and Housing Census (2002), the illiteracy rate for Uganda stands at 32%. However, gender disparities still exist, with 23.6% of males compared to 37.6% of females being illiterate.

Ryan (2009) and MoES (2005) state that education for all can only be a useful tool if its policies are gender-sensitive to ensure equal opportunities and benefits. Reflecting on the views of other scholars and practioners, Ryan opines that many studies have shown and continue to show that, in spite of an education policy that makes a provision for equal opportunities for all, girls have continued to lag behind boys in education enrolment, though the gap is getting narrower. For their part, Musisi and Muwanga (2003) observe that, in 1991, the Government of Uganda instituted a policy where girls entering university were given an extra 1.5 points to address the persistent gap in enrolment of girls in higher institutions. This measure resulted in a surge in girls' enrolment so that female students now numerically dominate some university programmes. Additionally, the policy has been revised to provide that any disadvantaged sex should have a minimum enrolment, a move that has been supported by many institutions, including Busitema University which specialises in engineering courses.

iii. *Increase in girls' access to education*

In 1999, the Government of Uganda adopted the National Action Plan for Young Women, aimed at achieving equal opportunities for young women by empowering them to participate in, and benefit from,

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economic, social and political development. Therefore, the girl-child's education, poverty and economic empowerment were among the major areas covered in advancing the girl-child's position. In this regard, Cartley-Carlson (1994) asserts that keeping girls in school is one way to break into the vicious cycles of underdevelopment. Moreover, girls' retention in school serves the national development goals of creating a population that is educated, healthy, economically active and secure.

According to the UN Millennium Development Goals Report (2010), there has been an increase in the number of girls accessing education at the level of entry, particularly for primary schooling which is almost reaching parity. In Uganda, access to UPE increased from 2.5 million pupils in 1997 to 7.5 million in 2008, thus reaching a level of 82% of all eligible pupils enrolled. In addition, the National Strategy for Girls' Education (2000) states that there are many societal dividends that result from educating girls. These include, but are not limited to, higher family incomes, greater economic productivity, better nutrition, delayed marriage and improved maternal outcomes, improved survival rates for infants and overall improvement in education outcomes for children.

According to Lucas et al (1988), since the 1980s, both macro- and micro-economists have stressed the importance of education for economic growth and development. Lucas's views echoes that of Schultz (2002) who opines that, some of the benefits of education include increased earnings potential, better health, a higher probability of adopting new technologies, and reductions in fertility. In addition, countries may particularly benefit from investing in girls' education because diminishing returns to education imply that the marginal return of investing in girl's education is higher than that of investing in boys' education, given that ability is evenly distributed between boys and girls and that girls are less educated in most countries of the world. Moreover, as girls mature, there is a closer relationship between mothers' education as opposed to fathers' education, health and schooling of children.

Furthermore, to effectively empower girls, it is important to invest in their education, especially at primary and secondary levels. This is because education is critical in achieving gender equality and empowering girls to contribute to social change in their communities. The Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC) and the Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) established education as a basic human right. Although gender inequality in education and other sectors affects both boys and girls, girls are at greater disadvantage than boys, which prevents girls from realising their full potential. Moreover, investing in girls' education not only benefits them, but has multiplier effects that benefit the community and the nation at large. Girls who complete school are more likely to marry later in life as well as have fewer and healthier children. As Nattembo (The New Vision 23rd March, 2016 pg. 21) points out, statistics show that a girl who stays in school is six times more likely not to get married at a young age.

Atekyereza (2011) argues that, it is very important for girls to have the same (or, logically, even greater) access to education as boys. This is because, as grownups, girls fend for the family in both good and bad times. Moreover, girls are often responsible for the economic well-being of their families and for primary health care. In addition, because a mature lady is the manager and decision-maker of the home, she needs all the necessary skills to make a successful and happy home enterprise. Besides, a household with an educated woman is better off than one with an uneducated wife and mother.

c) Girls' economic empowerment

According to Girls' and Young Women's Empowerment Framework Report (2014), economic empowerment is a critical lever for change in adolescent girls' lives, helping them to gain financial independence, establish good saving habits, and improve their future prospects for participation in the labour force. Moreover, economic empowerment can provide girls with more mobility, promote their confidence, strengthen their social networks and improve their health outcomes. In addition, promoting a girl's economic empowerment facilitates the achievement of other important public policy goals, such as economic growth, improved human development and reduced violence.

According to Morcos et al (2011), evidence shows that providing girls with economic opportunities and means to build financial assets can improve their health-seeking behaviour, reduce their risk of violence and delay their onset of sexual activity. In addition, formal financial education, combined with social and livelihood interventions, is one way to address the issue of violence. Similarly, financial inclusion and education are essential to help adolescent girls build a sustainable economic future. According to the Women's World Banking Report (WWB, undated), financial education contributes to asset building and helps girls build an understanding of principles around good money management. Moreover, it also promotes awareness of personal financial issues and choices and develops knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours to manage day-to-day expenses, prepare for life events, set financial goals and develop strategies to achieve them.

OECD and G20 (2013) states that children and youth are considered both current and future social and economic actors, and financial capability is not only a relevant 21st century life skill but also a great opportunity for creating a more skilled and

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knowledgeable generation. However, adolescent girls often lack social support and social skills. But, as Morcos et al (2011) reveal, girls who learn how to gain financial independency, combined with social and managerial knowledge, are more likely to participate in the labour force and save their money for future benefit. Such girls can be a powerful economic and societal force. According UNESCO (2013), every dollar spent on reducing malnutrition can result in a return of up to US $30 to the global economy.

Horton (1996) asserts that economic activity of girls is a means of enhancing their autonomy and participation in household decision-making. Kanbur et al (1994) concur when they assert that increasing female participation in the labour force can positively impact young women's freedom and attainment in other areas, such as education and health, and have a favourable impact on education and health outcomes for their children. Recent studies have shown that the economic participation of girls can have a profound impact on their choices as well. For example, Kanbur et al (1994) argue that economically active girls are more likely to postpone marriage and child bearing, which leads to better socio-economic and health circumstances.

Marcus (2014) argues that carefully designed interventions that target girls' economic empowerment, in tandem with other programs, can also positively impact their risk of specific forms of gender-based violence (GBV). In addition, such interventions mitigate economic insecurity and improve decision-making by giving girls increased access to, and control over, assets and resources. Similarly, combined programming has also shown increase in parents' and brothers' sense of girls' competence, and thus contributes to a positive shift in thinking about adolescent girls in general. It is also suggested, though not yet proved, that girls' economic empowerment can have a positive effect on shifting discriminatory gender norms which are among the key drivers of gender-based violence against girls.

Fewer et al (2013) affirms that integrated programming is one approach for taking into account adolescent girls' unique needs and capacities, through building a more holistic set of assets that can help girls improve their economic prospects while at the same time protecting them from risks they may face. This view echoed by Austrian et al (2014) who assert that provisions like the safe spaces concept should be considered as a platform to deliver integrated program models and multidisciplinary interventions for the economic empowerment of adolescent girls. The same authors add that economically empowering adolescent girls can lead to positive outcomes, including helping them improve decision-making through increased financial knowledge and practical money skills, establishing good savings habit, and improving their future prospects for participation in the labour force. However, UNICEF (2013) argues that economic empowerment programmes can inadvertently cause harm when investment in girls' livelihoods and girls' participation in those programmes are not fully monitored and evaluated to see how they affect child labour, school attendance and girls' care-giving and other domestic responsibilities. UNICEF (2013) further reports that recent studies of several sub-Saharan African programmes have suggested that building economic assets can expose girls to new risks of gender-based violence as they change their patterns of movement and time use.

i. *Access to reproductive health services and information*

According to UNFPA (2015), access to safe, voluntary family planning is a human right, and family planning is both central to gender equality and girl-child empowerment and a key factor in reducing poverty. UNFPA adds that some 225 million girls globally who want to avoid pregnancy are not using safe or effective family planning methods for reasons ranging from lack of access to information or services to lack of support from their patterners or communities. It is thus not surprising that the International Conference on Maternal, New born and Child Health in Africa Report (2013) states that a focus on the health of the girl-child is essential for reproductive, maternal, new born and child health efforts. The same report adds that girls under the age of 15 are five times more likely than older women to die in childbirth and that infant are 60% more likely to die in their first year of life if their mothers are under 18 years. This explains why among female adolescents, maternal conditions are responsible for 15% of all deaths in sub-Saharan Africa.

The reproductive health rights of adolescent girls are enshrined in international human rights law; and the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD, 1994) states that everyone has the right to attain the highest standard of reproductive and sexual health, the right to make decisions concerning reproduction free from discrimination, coercion and violence and the right to have information and means to make such decisions.

UNFPA and UNICEF (2011) report that, globally, up to 50% of sexual assault cases are committed against girls under the age of 16 years. Moreover, 1 in 5 girls under the age of 15 experiences sexual abuse worldwide (WHO, 2005). In addition, the World's Youth Data Sheet (2013) of the Population Reference Bureau states that nearly 10% of adolescent girls give birth each year in emerging countries, compared to less than 2% in developed countries. That is why comprehensive sex education not only presents abstinence as a positive choice, but also teaches minors how to prevent pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections. In the process, it also helps to reduce the rates of maternal

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mortality, abortion, adolescent pregnancies and HIV/AIDS. Furthermore, a non-governmental organisation, Save the Children (2016), emphasises that comprehensive sexuality education and contraception are part of life planning, and adolescents need the knowledge and skills to delay and space pregnancies as they become sexually active and plan for their future. That is why Save the Children has integrated family planning programming capacity within its long-term programmes for young people. For similar reasons, Save the Children focuses on clinic and community-based strategies to make contraception and comprehensive sexuality education more accessible to unmarried people, through schools and community groups.

ii. *Access to contraceptives*

The UNFPA Report (2015) asserts that increasing access to modern contraception among adolescent girls is a crucial starting point for improving their long-term health. The report adds that access to modern contraception among adolescent girls is equally essential for improving maternal and newborn health. Moreover, in low- and middle-income countries, pregnancy and childbirth complications are leading killers of adolescent girls. In addition, their babies also face a higher risk of dying than the babies of older women. And yet enormous barriers prevent adolescents from accessing reproductive health information and services. However, according to the Family Planning 2020 Report (2015), the number of girls with access to modern contraception has increased by 24 million since a landmark family planning pledge in 2012 to improve availability, although progress remains slower than projected and risks leaving millions of girls behind. The report further states that an unprecedented 290 million young women and girls in the poorest countries were using modern methods of contraception by July, 2015. It adds that the increase in access to contraception in the previous year had helped prevent 80 million unintended pregnancies and 111,000 maternal deaths in the FP2020 partnership's 69 focus countries.

According to Adenike (1994), the International Women's Health Coalition reported that in Nigeria, Girls' Power Initiative, a non-governmental organisation, equips adolescent girls between the ages of 10 and 18 with information on sexuality, human rights and reproductive health. The same report stated that meeting once a week, girls learn new skills in leadership and economic management to help them cope with growing up, and this is done in conjunction with parents, teachers and health workers who help girls to improve their communication skills and increase their understanding and support. In addition, the programme offers counselling and health service referrals. Moreover, to bring about wider change throughout the society, this same non-governmental organisation established a Gender Development Institute to conduct research and foster greater awareness and policy changes for equality.

iii. *Girl-child empowerment and socio-economic welfare*

According to Young Women's Empowerment Framework Report (2014), empowering girls is essential to achieving gender equality, where females and males have equal enjoyment of their rights, resources, opportunities and benefits. The same report rightly states that reaching girls in early adolescence offers an opportunity to guide their development, self-discovery and identity in positive ways. Moreover, reaching their families and societies offers an opportunity to reflect upon, and redefine, prevailing gender norms so that a wide variety of girls' and young women's aspirations and contributions are valued, including and extending beyond motherhood and domestic labour.

While speaking at the International Day of the Girl-Child (IDGC) celebrations in Geneva, Switzerland, Bustreo (2014: pp.113) said,

> "It is time to celebrate the enormous potential each young girl has to help build a brighter future. But she can only do this if she grows up in the right conditions, with the right support and in the right environment, and her potential needs to be carefully nurtured and promoted……together, we [all stakeholders] can unlock every young girls' future potential for generations to come".

For its part, WHO (2014) reports that, adolescence is a critical time that can determine the entire trajectory of a girl's life: with the right care, investment and environment, she will become educated and grow into an adult who can take key decisions that will lead her to be an agent of change and contribute to economic growth in her community and in the society. In addition, an informed and empowered girl is better able to exercise agency over her own life, to be an actor rather than a recipient of rights and services, and to become a visible and active member of society. However, the human rights of girls, enshrined in international instruments (CRC & CEDAW), cannot be attained without the empowerment of girls themselves. According to Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination and Violence against the Girl-Child report (2006), empowerment is an active and inclusive process centred on the girl that engages all stakeholders, including parents, guardians, teachers, elders, the community and the state at large. The same report states that effective empowerment results into girls who are transformed through the acquisition of knowledge on their rights and their bodies, and the skills and tools they need to develop a strong and proud sense of their own identity.

The United Nations Population Fund (2009) asserts that educating girls is a powerful lever for girl-

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child empowerment, as well as for reducing poverty. The Fund adds that girls who are educated are likely to marry later and to have smaller, healthier families because education helps girls to know their rights and claim them for themselves and their families. That is why the organization believes that education can translate into economic opportunities for girls and their families. The views of UNPFA are echoed by Namaganda (2009), a Ugandan female writer, according to whom education empowers girls to think critically and to increase their democratic participation (at school level) and later as grownups, which may bring about positive changes through instilling positive values and character. Namaganda cites the example of girls with at least a secondary education who, in her opinion, are less likely to fall victim to crime, are less vulnerable to exploitation, and will instil the same values in their children. She adds that girls' empowerment may also enable them to say no to male teachers' advances and other men who aim at exploiting them sexually through giving gifts or asking them to take books to their staff quarters for marking. In Uganda there is a local (Runyakitara) saying, '*washomesa omwana womwishiiki noba washomesa eihanga, konka washomesa omwojo, noba washomesa omuntu nyabuntu*', meaning that when you educate a girl-child you educate the nation, but when you educate a boy, you educate an individual.

The above ideas are shared by Watkins (1999) according to whom education is the primary vehicle by which economically and socially marginalised adults and children can lift themselves out of poverty and obtain the means to participate fully in their communities. Watkins sees education as playing a vital role of empowering girls, safeguarding children from exploitative and hazardous labour and sexual exploitation, promoting human rights and democracy, protecting the environment and controlling population growth. He concludes that, increasingly, education is recognised as one of the best financial investments states can make.

A report by FAWE-Uganda (2006) shows that educated girls can become income earners and business entrepreneurs in the near future, which improves the livelihood of families. The report adds that children who are born to teenage mothers tend to be underfed are unlikely to be immunised and are likely to die before the age of five. These views are echoed by those of May (2006) who states that education reduces infant mortality, increases childhood immunisation and nutrition, reduces children's stunting and lowers fertility and unwanted pregnancies. In addition, May states, education offers a valuable opportunity to catch girls when they are most vulnerable, when they can and must learn healthy behaviours. That is why she believes that education can mitigate HIV/AIDS, especially given that over half of the 40 million people globally affected are girls and young women. She concludes by arguing that the longer girls stay in school the lower their fertility becomes and the more qualifications they get to enable them compete in the labour market.

In May's (2006) opinion, there exists a relationship between quality education attainment for girls and poverty reduction. She argues that education empowers girls as well as women socially and economically, and provides them with a key to poverty alleviation through provision of high returns with regard to wage growth. She adds that family health problems, which drain the economy of a family and a nation, are largely alleviated through secondary education. In her view, uneducated women seek to compensate for higher infant mortality rates by delivering eight or nine children in the hope that five will survive, which lowers their economic productivity while at the same time increasing complications from child birth, besides further straining a poor family. But according to Shafiq (2009), an Egyptian writer, girl-child's empowerment is also affected by the fact that girls attain sexual maturity earlier than boys. At school, this may reduce their concentration on studies and even lead to their eventual abandonment of education. Additionally, it is likely that changes in the marriage market have contributed to reducing the pro-male education gap since educated girls fetch more returns upon marriage than uneducated ones.

As a report of the International Day of the Girl-Child (2014) affirms, when adolescent girls are empowered, everybody benefits. This is because empowered girls will grow into empowered women who can care better for themselves and their families, increase their earning potential, serve as active and equal citizens and change agents, and spur economic growth for communities and nations. For her part, Namaganda (2009) views government policies of affirmative action, for example reserving seats for women in the local and district councils and in parliament, as an encouragement for more girls to aspire higher. In addition, Namaganda believes that the many ministerial positions assigned to women in the government of Uganda have also raised the status of women.

iv. *Challenges to girl-child empowerment*

Many girls face tremendous challenges that prevent them from achieving their full potential. For example, the theme of the year 2014 on the International Day of the Girl-Child highlighted violence against girls as a major challenge because it is a universal phenomenon that has persisted worldwide, jeopardizing the human rights, health and wellbeing of too many young lives. According to WHO (2014), much of this violence is rooted in gender inequality and poverty, with lack of education compounding the problem. Therefore, as long as violence against girls, poverty and lack of education persist in the world, girl-child empowerment will be curtailed.

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While lack of education affects both boys and girls, girls are more adversely affected than boys. For example, Muto (2015) cites the revelations of the District Education Officer (DEO) of Gulu District in northern Uganda, Rev. Vicent Oceng-Ocen, according to whom 15% of girls in primary schools, as compared to only 10% of boys, drop out before completing Primary Seven. Similarly, Namaganda (2009) reports that dropout rates get higher in rural schools and as girls grow. She attributes this to the fact that, the puberty stage disturbs girls a lot, and many of them end up with pregnancies. Implicitly implicating poverty, Namaganda adds that, in rural areas where parents cannot afford to give their daughters money for food, boys and men buy lunch for girls in exchange for sex. When they drop out of school, such girls are forced to turn to providing cheap labour to support themselves. Therefore, UNICEF (1996) was right when it stated that, the high dropout rate of girls affects the economic empowerment of girls when they become adults through gainful employment. But girls and young women face even more fundamental challenges than these.

Significant barriers to education in Uganda include poverty, child labour, long distances from school, teenage pregnancies, child marriage and unequal access to education due to gender and cultural factors. A survey conducted in Uganda by Forum for African Women Educationalist (FAWE) in 2001 revealed that the school dropout rate of girls was increasing due to teenage pregnancies at 34% per annum, poverty at 28% per annum and engagement in sex at 11% per annum (FAWE, 2001). Child labour, which is closely related to poverty, is a leading cause of school dropout among both boys and girls. A report by UNICEF (2002) revealed that the death of parents due to HIV/AIDS has further aggravated the situation, leading to an increase in the number of girl-headed households. And when parents die and school girls assume responsibility for their siblings' welfare, such school girls have to leave school. Under such circumstances, education for the girl-child is a low priority. No wonder therefore, that in Uganda, girls' exhibit lower literacy and skills achievement levels than boys.

As UNICEF (2002) reveals, there are more boys in schools than girls in most of the developing countries. It attributes this to the fact that, in science and mathematics lessons, teachers prefer to involve boys rather than girls because boys raise their hands enthusiastically whereas girls tend to raise their hands timidly. Often, the same report adds, when the teachers try to involve girls, the latter contribute reluctantly and they often fail to solve science and mathematics problems. Worse still, instead of encouraging girls, teachers sometimes ignore them, make derogatory remarks that are linked to their personal appearance, sex or background, and eventually the girls give up. To make matters even worse, when a girl performs well, instead of motivating her positively, some teachers will make sexists comments, such as "She has a woman's body, but the brains of a man."

While Universal Primary Education increased girl-child enrolment in Ugandan primary schools, that quantitative increase was not matched by similar increases in the infrastructural facilities, human resource capacity or quality of education provided. Moreover, going to school has its attendant hazards for the girl-child. These hazards arise mainly from the girl-child's increased exposure to sexual harassment and exploitation. As Tuyizere (2007) indicates, girls who are in school are seduced by men of all types, some of whom are HIV-infected. To make matters worse, Tuyizere adds, there are too few female teachers or guidance counsellors, especially in rural areas, and some schools have no female teachers available to deal with girls' problems. And yet girls face physical and sexual threats from male teachers and other men who make them feel unprotected, especially when there is no trusted adult that girls can approach for advice at school. Moreover, when a girl is raped, she will hesitate to inform her parents for fear of being harassed. The same author rightly states that education represents one of the largest investments that most governments make in the children of their countries, and that the potential of schools and other educational institutions to transmit knowledge and teach girls and boys essential life and livelihood skills, such as financial literacy, sexual and reproductive health and critical thinking is immense. However, she also observes, and rightly so, that this potential often remains unfulfilled.

That unfulfilled potential is partly attributable to what Kwesiga (1998) called lack of gender awareness among educators at all levels. In Kwesiga's view, this lack of gender awareness has strengthened the existing inequalities between boys and girls by reinforcing discriminatory tendencies and undermining girls' self-esteem. She adds that Science curricula, in particular, are gender-biased, and science textbooks do not relate to young women's and girls' daily experiences, and fail to give recognition to women scientists. Kwesiga also laments the fact that girls are often deprived of basic education in mathematics, science and technical training subjects that could provide the kind of knowledge girls can apply to improve their daily lives and enhance their employment opportunities. For his part, Carasco (1996) argues that because girls prioritize privacy and cleanliness highly, lack of latrines and water in schools easily causes them to drop out of school. This view is supported by RUWASA (1998), a newsletter, which observes that in order to retain girls in school; there have to be sufficient and separate toilet facilities for girls.

According to a report by Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination and Violence against the Girl-

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Child (2006), all these violations of girls' rights emanate from underlying patriarchal attitudes and behaviour as well as discriminatory gender norms and structures. It is these discriminatory gender norms and structures that favour boys and in national forums and in legislation, in places of work, schools and vocational training institutions, on the streets and in homes. As a result, millions of girls are adversely affected in a diversity of ways. While boys and men may also have their rights violated by rigid gender norms, and while efforts should be made to address this, young women and girls are the most adversely affected according to the same report. Negative traditional beliefs and practices expose girls to extreme forms of violence, including female genital mutilation and female foeticide and infanticide. Moreover, systems of dowry and bride price objectify girls and treat them as property. Addressing these issues requires identifying and bringing attention to these harmful behaviours perpetrated at all levels. There is need for international, national and local legislation and policies in every day practices of families and communities to socialise both girls and boys.

Prabhat et al (2006) argues that sex-selective abortions of female foetuses and female infanticide as a result of son preference are prevalent in many societies. For example, a study conducted in India, estimated that prenatal sex selection and infanticide resulted in approximately half a million missing girls per year for the previous two decades. If allowed to continue, these practices will have serious repercussions on gender balance in some populations, which may result in further violence against girls in the not-so-distant future. Emerging evidence can be seen for example in trafficking young women and girls as brides-to-be from Viet Nam to rural China, where many young women live in virtual slavery.

Brady et al (2006) also argue that girls often lack access to girl-friendly, safe and supportive spaces, including at school. And yet, the same authors reveal, studies have established that girl-friendly spaces are often among the best platforms from which governments, international organisations and non-governmental organisations can protect and promote the human rights of girls. In the same authors' opinion, as a result of discrimination, indifference, ignorance and the hidden nature of widespread abuses against them, girls continue to suffer serious rights violations, often outside the public consciousness, and are therefore left behind in development.

As the report by Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination and Violence against the Girl-Child (2006) indicated, the girl-child's situation is further aggravated by lack of political will on the part of governments to adopt and fully implement international standards. For example, while some governments have ratified key international conventions concerning children, such as the International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention 138 on Minimum Age for Admission to Employment and Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour, others have not. Moreover, many of those that have ratified such international standards have not fully implemented them, partly because of lack of political will to allocate enough resources for girl child-specific programmes. This impedes progress on the empowerment of girls and on the achievement of national, social, economic and development goals. According to the same report, the situation is further complicated by the fact that current international instruments and policies are not specific enough to protect, promote and fulfil the rights of the girl-child. As a result of this lack of specificity, two of the most important international instruments for girls' rights, CRC and CEDAW, are not being adequately implemented to effectively protect and promote the rights of the girl-child. The same report concludes that there are insufficient linkages between the two conventions and their monitoring bodies.

Goonesekere et al (2006) reveal that the very duty bearers charged with protecting and supporting the rights of girls, such as parents, siblings, guardians, teachers and law enforcement officers, have often been implicated in various forms of violence against girls as well as in the neglect of their responsibility to protect them. In most cases, attacks on girls' physical and mental integrity have been sanctioned as elements of culture, laying a powerful foundation for the denial of girls' rights.

Bruce and Judith (2006) observe that the reproductive health needs of adolescents as a group have been largely ignored by existing reproductive health services, which has led to many girls being at risk of unwanted pregnancy and HIV/AIDS infection. The same authors add that in both developing and developed societies, adolescents, especially girls, face pressures to engage in sexual activity. Ali et al (2006) express similar opinions when they state that sexually active adolescents of both sexes are increasingly at high risk of contracting and transmitting sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS, and they are typically poorly informed about how to protect themselves. In the same vein, the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women (1995) observed that sexual violence and sexually transmitted diseases have had a devastating effect on children's health, and girls have been more vulnerable than boys to the consequences of unprotected and premature sexual relations. The same conference participants agreed that girls often face pressures to engage in sexual activity, and that, due to such factors as their youth, social pressures, lack of protective laws or failure to enforce laws, girls are more vulnerable to all kinds of violence, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual exploitation, trafficking, possibly the sale of their organs and tissues, and forced labour.

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Similar observations are contained in the Gender and Women Empowerment Policy 2010-2020 of Gambia, which states, inter alia, that adolescents continue to become vulnerable to sexual and reproductive health-related problems, and that inter-generational relations (young girls having sexual relationship with older men) have exacerbated their vulnerability to STIs and HIV/AIDS. However, as the same policy document stated, in the same age group, HIV prevalence is higher among females than it is among males. Moreover, because many adolescent pregnancies are unwanted, they contribute to the growing number of induced unsafe abortions. Many of the pregnancies and STIs among adolescents arise because of ignorance and lack of life skills to negotiate safer sexual behaviour.

Namaganda (2009) states that girls are often portrayed as domestic helpers and subjects of marriage, and that household poverty makes it difficult for parents to meet the requirements of their daughters. She adds that these factors force girls to look for alternatives to sustain themselves. Often, Namaganda continues, girls face problems when they reach puberty because some parents find reasons to end the schooling of their daughters. Moreover, bad peer groups and lack of role models also lead girls into early marriage. Worse still, sometimes, parents chose marriage for their daughters. Namaganda further observes that poverty is the underlying factor for girls' poor performance and dropping out of school. It is estimated that about 35% of households in Uganda live below the poverty line. Because of this, parents and guardians in such households cannot meet the costs of their children's education, and when the children are girls, marriage is seen as the only alternative to education. Moreover, the fact that early marriage is sanctioned under both customary law and Islamic norms and practices is a widespread problem that keeps girls out of school. This is partly because girls are primarily associated with, and viewed in terms of, their reproductive roles. In addition, girls are seen as a source of bride wealth to the family and the clan, and eventually girls are married off when they should be in school.

According to Uganda's Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (1992), the country's economic challenges revolve around widespread poverty due to limited sources of income besides poorly motivated or trained teachers. This view is supported by both the World Bank (1996) and Pons (1996). According to the former, Ugandan families find the cost of education, including primary education, prohibitive; and in the opinion of the latter school fees constitute one of the most pressing financial demands on family budgets, and are constant sources of anxiety at all social levels. This anxiety found dramatic expression in the words of a parent in Kanungu District, western Uganda, who, on seeing school children coming home for the school holidays, said, "The thieves have come back."

The Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development Report (MoGLSD, 1999) asserts that addressing gender issues and concerns in national policies and programmes are in most cases culturally determined. The same report rightly states that culturally, people are taciturn about sex and sexuality, which hinders openness about sex education in schools. Moreover, this denies girls vital information through proper counselling and guidance during puberty, sometimes leading to their dropping out of school. Therefore, such norms and their associated practices are partly responsible for girls' sexual promiscuity. At the same time, Namaganda (2009) informs us that some do not care about what they say to, or do for, their children while others do not care about what time their children get home or the kind of friends they associate with. Moreover, Namaganda adds, some parents are reluctant to provide basic needs for their children. In her view, it is these failures that have led girls to seek for love elsewhere.

Tuyizere (2007) opines that girls, especially in rural schools, do not have access to sanitary towels, and as a result, they do not go to school during their menstrual periods. Furthermore, when menstruation begins, poor and uninformed parents regard this as a sign that their daughter is ripe for marriage, which is also an occasion for them to earn some much needed money and livestock in the form of bride price. At this stage, some parents remove their daughters from school, on the pretext that the young girls have to help their mothers with household chores when actually the parents are looking or waiting for a son-in-law. In some parts of Uganda, such as in southwestern districts of Kabale and Kisoro, girls are frequently married off between the ages of 12 and 15 years, meaning that by the age of 18 years, few girls are still unmarried.

UNFPA (2009) aptly states that social expectations often put pressure on girls to marry and begin bearing children before they are ready. The same agency observes that despite a shift towards later marriage in many parts of the world, 82 million girls in developing countries are married before their 18th birthday. Child marriage jeopardizes the health of the married children and limits the opportunities afforded to girls; and it usually disrupts their education and often violates their human rights. Married adolescent girls often find it difficult to access reproductive health services and, in some countries, marriage to older men makes girls even more vulnerable.

Bustreo (2014) asserts that, globally and annually, more than 14 million girls marry before their 18th birthday. Moreover, early marriage is most prevalent in rural and impoverished areas of sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, but the practice is by no means limited to these regions, and poverty often

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triggers this practice. In addition, families may hope that an early marriage will secure a young girl's financial future and honour. However, these unions have too often resulted in disempowerment, abuse and early pregnancy, all of which lead to serious health consequences. UNICEF (2005) also states that some families view their daughters as a source of wealth. As a result, such parents send their daughters to school to simply pass time until they are old enough to be married off for dowry or to be used as sources of free household labour. Therefore, for UNICEF, early marriage and parenthood prevent girls from going to school.

According to Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination and Violence against the Girl-Child report (2006), globally, unequal trade and economic policies aggravate poverty and income inequalities. In the same vein, global advertising campaigns frequently commercialise girls' sexuality. Moreover, this can exacerbate sexual exploitation and violence against girls, and narrow girls' own sense of their value and humanity. Mugerere (1996) argues that teenage pregnancy is now a reality: worldwide teenage pregnancy rates are high and continue to rise, and Uganda's teenage pregnancy rate of 43% is the highest in sub-Saharan Africa. The same author cites two telling examples: at St. Katherine Secondary School, Boroboro, Lira District, 15 girls were found to be pregnant, and expelled from school, in November 1996; and a girl from Arua Public Secondary School was not allowed to sit for her Ordinary Level examinations because she was pregnant although she had studied for four years and had paid all the school fees. Elsewhere, the Daily Monitor of April 13th, 2016 reported that in Bukedea District, many girls became pregnant before their bodies were ready. As a result, most of them abandoned school while others ended up contracting HIV/Aids (Daily Monitor, April 13th, 2016, pg.12).

A study conducted by World Health Organisation (WHO, 2013) indicated that, early marriage and resultant pregnancies are the biggest causes of death among Ugandan girls aged 15 to 19 years, and they account for 20% of maternal deaths. According to the National Strategy to End Child Marriage and Teenage Pregnancy Report (2015), ignorance of the risks of child marriage, limited access to education for girls, cultural norms that dictate that girls marry while still young, and poverty have contributed to this trend of child marriage in Uganda (The New Vision, April 19th, 2016 pg. 28).

For her part, Cecilia Okot (2016) opines that one year into the 2030 agenda for achieving Sustainable Development Goals, emphasis should be put on improving data on girls, and addressing the issues that are holding them back which are critical for the fulfilment of these global targets.

The International Conference on Maternal, New Born and Child Health in Africa (2013) states that because gender equality is fundamental to attaining human rights, an approach that emphasises accountability and seeks to assist participatory policy formulation is critical. Moreover, the lack of a human rights-based approach prevents the promotion of mutually empowering relationships between boys and girls both in the public and private sphere.

d) Strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment

Strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment include reducing in the violations of the rights of the girl-child, improving access to education and health care (social services), improving the general welfare facilities as well as observing gender equity in resource allocation and distribution. These strategies constitute the subject matter of the following sub-sections.

i. *Improving access to education and health care*

Stakeholders are expected to increase the school participation, completion and achievement rates of girls in primary education, by addressing the barriers to girls' education, such as sexual and gender-based violence, poor sanitation and poor management of menstruation. This view is shared by Nsubuga (2015) who asserts that the Ministry of Education and Sports should re-engage all stakeholders on issues of skills for out-of-school children and the need for non-formal education, teenage pregnancies, re-entry of child mothers, and menstruation management. The same author rightly states that "Ugandans must ensure that all school-age children are in school, stay in school and complete school. He concludes that children should be taken to school, girls that have given birth should be supported, and the vice of child and forced marriage should be ended. In his view, "girls are too young to marry before attaining University education."

Tuyizere (2007) opines that a clear girls' education policy, incorporating the goals of gender equality and human rights, would indicate that government recognises the need for, and is committed to, planning appropriate strategies for achieving education for all. Moreover, such a specific education policy is a critical step for mainstreaming gender into the educational system. In addition, some countries, including Uganda, have started developing and implementing gender policies, leading to an increase in the number of girls in school. For example, in Uganda, of the four children from every family that are eligible for universal primary education, two must be girls. This is complemented by the affirmative action policy at Makerere University where female applicants are awarded an extra 1.5 points to increase the intake of female students to the University.

Other countries have adopted slightly different affirmative action approaches. For example, in South Asia, UNICEF declared 1992 the Year of the Girl-Child

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(Margaret, 1998). One of the many activities supported that year was a media campaign, using a cartoon character named Meena, that demonstrated ways in which educating girls was beneficial to girls, their families and society as a whole. Elsewhere, since the late 1980s, USAID projects in Mali, Malawi, Bangladesh and Guatemala have adopted social marketing campaigns to influence parental attitudes concerning girls' education (Margaret, 1998).

Nattembo (The New Vision 23rd March, 2016, pg. 21) maintains that, to ensure investment in girls' education, there is an urgent need to provide equal access to education by developing a gender-sensitive learning environment for girls. She adds that there is need to educate boys and men about gender equality and engaging them in promoting the rights of girls and women as an important strategy which has not been effectively employed. Nattembo also recommends that the Ministry of Education should monitor the implementation of the menstrual hygiene guidelines, especially separation of toilets for girls and availability of water. Additionally, she recommends that the Ministry of Education should eliminate all hidden costs to ensure that all children, especially girls, attain free and quality skills. She concludes that emphasis should be put on supporting girls to develop life skills to enable them to negotiate safer and healthier options, and speak confidently about the issues that concern them. Similar views are expressed by the United Nations Fourth Conference on Women Report (1995) according to which policies and programmes should be developed, giving priority to formal and informal education programmes that support girls and enable them to acquire knowledge, develop self-esteem and take responsibility for their own lives. The report adds that such programmes should focus specifically on programmes to educate women and men, especially parents, on the importance of girls' physical and mental health and well-being, including the elimination of discrimination against girls in food allocation, early marriage, violence against girls, female genital mutilation, child prostitution, sexual abuse, rape and incest. Finally, while the report acknowledges that some schools now allow girls who have given birth to return to school, it recommends that a policy should be made that allows girls to return to school after giving birth, because many schools do not allow such girls to resume their education.

Chege and Fatuma (2006) argue that while the education of girls has received much attention in recent decades, including being listed as a key goal in the Millennium Development Goals, how and when education empowers girls has remained a complex process. The same authors rightly state that experience has shown that despite successful efforts to enrol more girls in primary school, girls in many settings are more likely than boys to repeat classes or to drop out of school altogether. They conclude that, alone, schooling will not empower girls unless the current focus on enrolment in schools is expanded to give more attention to the quality and content of education and the social structures that reinforce schooling and reward a schooled girl. In a similar vein, Tuyizere (2007) asserts that, in addressing unequal access to education and inadequate educational opportunities, governments and other role players (stakeholders) should promote an active and visible policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective into all policies and programmes so that, before decisions are taken, an analysis should be made of the effects of gender imbalances. This would produce more educated girls that, some men fear, would be unmanageable.

However, Namaganda (2009) states that men's fear that educated girls will be unmanageable can be mitigated by more education and an expanding economy which can give more opportunities to young women without taking away from what men already have. The same author rightly states that contraceptives should be made easily accessible in schools and that girls need to understand what their sexual role in society is and could be. In Namaganda's view, girls need to know as much as there is to know about their reproductive health and their sexual rights. She adds that girls need to know how to prevent unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted diseases, and how to avoid sexually transmitted infections, especially HIV/AIDS.

The New Vision of 30th July, 2009, reported that early childhood education has been a life-long investment that has laid a strong foundation to build on. The same paper reported that more emphasis should be put on early childhood education to develop interest and vision, and to be able to influence girls' aspirations in education. It added that since time immemorial, education has been, and still remains, the key to national development and personal emancipation. Therefore, the same paper argues, governments and other stakeholders should step up their efforts in fighting inequality in access to education. In this effort, the paper recommends, parents should be supported to take an upper hand in investing in girls' education, and they should groom their boys early in life to value girls as fellow human beings. The New Vision concludes that the social, economic and political development of any country is largely dependent on the investment made in girls, with particular emphasis on education.

Obina (2016) opines that the government of Uganda needs to strengthen laws, especially on the girl-child, because most of the issues related to teenage pregnancy, dropping out of school and other girl-child problems are fuelled by poverty, inappropriate laws and limited projects meant to support and retain girl-children in school. The same author notes that when you educate a girl-child you educate a nation. Moreover, as

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the Gender and Women Empowerment Policy 2010-2020 report of Gambia revealed, it is important to address the teenage girl's vulnerability to sexual and reproductive health-related problems and to promote and support the empowerment of girls empowerment, especially regarding unplanned pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections (STI). That is why Ssetumba (2016) was right to say that stakeholders, including the government through the Ministry of Internal Affairs, should work with foreign non-governmental organisations such as Vital Voices Global Patternship to raise awareness among girls about the dangers of early marriage and teenage pregnancy, through plays in schools.

ii. *Improving general welfare facilities of the girl-child*

Bruce et al (2006) opine that, like boys, girls have a basic right to a community and to spaces that are safe. They add that personal safety is essential if girls are to have meaningful access to the most basic rights or needs, such as the right to life, shelter, food and water, and that the safety of girls in their homes, communities and schools is the basis for all other efforts at citizenship building and empowerment. These ideas are shared by World Health Organisation (undated), which views a safe and supportive environment as part of what motivates young people to make healthy choices. The same agency adds that 'safe' in this context refers to the absence of trauma, excessive stress, violence (or fear of violence) or abuse, and that 'supportive' means an environment that provides positive close relationships with family members, other adults (including teachers, the youth and religious leaders) as well as peers.

A report done by Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination and Violence against the Girl-Child (2006) states that safe girl-friendly spaces are not only essential social platforms through which programmes can be delivered, but they can also act as venues in which girls can develop protective friendship networks, explore their problems, learn about their rights, develop strategies to protect their safety and health, practice team-building, and eventually develop leadership skills and learn how to play. The views of this report are echoed by those of Bustreo (2014) on the International Day of the Girl-Child who asserts that infrastructure, services and technology should be made accessible to girls in order to effectively meet their needs of safety, connectivity and mobility enhancement.

Nomdo and Christina (2006) observe that building girls' social assets should include informing them about their rights and helping them acquire the skills to exercise their rights. In their view, this entails helping them to build connections with same-sex friends, developing safe spaces to meet friends, having adults in their lives to whom they can turn in times of need, and mentors who should help them aspire to their future goals. The same authors add that building social assets means giving girls opportunities to experience being part of a team that helps them to develop leadership skills. However, in the opinion of Nomdo and Christina, girls' social assets can only be built if they find their own voice and recognize their ability to identify their own needs and to act on them as full members of the society. They conclude that, in order to enter into decent work, girls must learn to identify themselves as economic actors and to acquire basic financial literacy.

A report by Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination and Violence against the Girl-Child (2006) affirms that girls have the right to participate in matters that affect them, their families and communities. The same report states that participation is both an individual and a collective concept whereby, at the former level, a girl must feel that she is able to express herself, and has a forum in which to do so while at the latter level, there is need for organised channels through which girls, especially the least visible and girls at greatest risk, articulate their needs which are often different from those of more privileged girls. In addition, the same report rightly states that governments in both developed and developing countries must take responsibility and be held accountable for the impact of global and national policies and trends on the poorest of the poor who are often young females.

According to a report by National Women's Association for Social and Educational Advancement (NWASEA, 1997), while girls' counselling used to enlighten girls' view about their body changes, this noble duty has now been left to peer groups, and parents no longer have control over their children. The same report laments that children are now influenced more by peers, films and cross-border culture than by their parents or elders. Therefore, the Association concludes, there is need to go back to our African family values, where parents used to control children and children would listen to them. For her part, Namaganda (2009), a female, Ugandan writer opines that there is need to improve the welfare of girls by providing privacy for adolescent girls in schools. She adds that sex education should be provided to male and female students and teachers so that girls are not harassed by male students and teachers. She also recommends that Head teachers should endeavour to have more female teachers and to reduce gender inequality in their schools so as to better manage girls' welfare. In her view, more female teachers can also be a motivation to school girls. In addition, the same writer recommends, appropriate facilities should be built at schools and more Universal Secondary Education (USE) schools should be built in rural areas to take schools closer to children, and reduce the exposure of girls to the risk of being lured, raped, assaulted, abducted or sexually harassed by men, and thereby exposing them to

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HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs).

iii. *Gender equality in resource allocation and distribution*

Tuyizere (2007) asserts that discrimination against girls as a result of son-preference has led to unfair distribution of food and access to health care services, thus endangering the girls' current and future well-being. She laments that counselling and access to sexual and reproductive health information and services for adolescents are inadequate or completely absent and that the girl's right to privacy, confidentiality, respect and informed consent is often ignored. To make matters worse, Tuyizere adds, adolescent girls are both biologically and psychologically more vulnerable to sexual abuse, violence, rape and prostitution and to consequences of unprotected and premature sexual relations than boys are. She attributes this to the fact that early sexual experience, combined with a lack of information and services, increases the risk of unwanted and early pregnancy, HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases and unsafe abortions. She concludes that early child-bearing continues to impede improvement in educational, economic and social status of girls in developing countries like Uganda.

iv. *Reduction in the violation of rights of the girl-child*

According to a report by Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination and Violence against the Girl-Child (2006), there is a growing international consensus on the need to engage boys and men in improving the well-being of girls and redress discriminatory gender socialisation. The same report also states that there is a growing base of programmes which include group educational activities (involving men and boys in questioning traditional gender norms), and community outreaches (engaging gatekeepers, community leaders, and local religious leaders among others) that seek to engage men and boys in questioning traditional gender socialisation. In addition, the same report states that all actions to eliminate discrimination and violence against the girl-child should focus on the protection and promotion of girls' human rights. International human rights instruments, the report continues, provide the framework and accountability mechanisms for the elimination of all forms of discrimination and violence against the girl-child. The report specifies that these instruments include the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and its two Optional Protocols, the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and its Option Protocol, ILO Conventions No. 138 on the Minimum Age for Admission to Employment and No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour and the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Conventions against Transnational Crime. It concludes that there is an urgent need to challenge, and take collective action to address, patriarchy and power imbalances, through action by all stakeholders, including governments, communities, individual women, men, girls and boys.

The United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women (1995) asserts that the elimination of all forms of discrimination against the girl-child should be pursued alongside their root causes, such as son preference, which result in harmful and unethical practices, including prenatal sex selection and female infanticide which has been compounded by the increasing use of technologies to determine foetal sex, resulting in abortion of female foetuses. The same report adds that governments, the United Nations, civil society organisations and public and private institutions should join forces and reaffirm their commitment to end the scourge of violence against girls. In this connection, Namaganda (2009) asserts that girls should be encouraged to learn what is acceptable and what is not from the information and advice they hear or receive from their parents, community leaders, counsellors, books and straight talk as well as from observing good people's behaviour. She maintains that girls should be able to know why some children go wrong and end up dropping out of school. Namaganda recommends that girls should be protected from abuse, exploitation and violence, and that people who commit crimes against girls should be brought to book. She recommends further that children should be stopped from doing work that exposes them to danger and poses risks to their health and education, and that girls should move in groups composed of responsible people who should take care of one another. She concludes that girls should take it upon themselves to avoid situations that can lead them into danger.

FAWE-U (2009) views parents as major contributors to the high school dropout rates of girls, and it recommends that laws should be put in place to hold parents accountable if they marry off their daughters, or withdraw their children from school for domestic work. In this connection, the Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES, 2005) proposes that harmful traditional practices and attitudes which inflict physical and physiological damage on girls like early marriages, bride wealth payment and initiation ceremonies, like female genital mutilation, should be abolished. This proposal is particularly pertinent today when the negative impacts of globalisation, poverty and social vulnerability can reinforce cultural fundamentalism, with negative consequences for women's and girls' rights. Already, in some parts of the world, limited advances in women's rights are leading to fundamentalists reactions that hinder the advancement of girls. These negative and fundamentalists movements must be recognised and challenged.

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V. Methodology

a) Research Design

The study adopted a case study design, using a cross-sectional survey in which both qualitative and quantitative techniques were applied. The study used both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques in a methodological triangulation framework in order to collect both quantifiable and non-quantifiable data.

b) Population and Sampling

Kanungu Town Council is composed of 7,909 females and 7,229 males, adding up to 15,138 people (Kanungu District Population and Housing Census, 2014). The study population consisted of all girl-children and governmental and non-governmental agencies or organizations working in the general area of community development within Kanungu Town Council, the study area.

The researcher used a sample of 260 girl-children (0 – 18years especially from O-level) from selected secondary and primary schools within Kanungu Town Council. This implied that an average number of twenty six (26) girl-children were selected from each school.

Therefore, the researcher selected a sample size of 332 respondents to represent the total population of study.

A total of ten (10) head teachers comprising of three (03) head teachers from selected secondary schools (Kinkiizi High School, San Giovanni Secondary School and Mark Hill Girls School) and seven (07) head teachers of primary schools (Nyakatare, Makiro, Karuhinda, Makiro Model, Mother Care, Kirima Parents and Bishop Mazzoldi) were selected. In addition, two hundred and sixty (260) girl-children were selected from the above mentioned secondary and primary schools meaning an average of 26 girl-children were selected from each school. Eight (08) political leaders (elected local council chairpersons - LC I – LC IV, counsellors and religious leaders) and 208 parents were selected from all the four wards of Kanungu Town Council, one (01) District Community Development Officer and one (01) District Education Officer were as well selected using appropriate sampling procedures.

VI. Data Collection Methods

The researchers used various methods to obtain data. Both primary and secondary sources of data were used. The researcher obtained primary data through questionnaire administration, interviews in the field. On the other hand, secondary data was collected by means of documentary review involving text books, archives, government publications, dissertations, journals and the Internet.

a) Validity and Reliability

i. *Validity*

For purposes of this study, the researcher pre-tested the data collection instruments on a group of respondents to determine whether the instruments could produce the anticipated results. The content validity index was established by establishing the percentage of items that were found to be valid in each tool, and when that percentage was found to be above 80%, the tool was declared valid and the invalid items were reformulated to render them valid.

ii. *Reliability*

The reliability of an instrument is the consistency with which the instrument measures the same phenomenon or variable under constant or similar conditions but at different times. To ensure that the questionnaire and the interview guide were reliable, the researcher used the "test-retest" method. The tools were administered to the same people twice on two consecutive occasions under more or less identical conditions. When the results obtained on both the occasions were found to be similar, the instruments were declared to be reliable. Items that were found to be unreliable were fine-tuned, re-tested and found to be reliable.

b) Data Analysis

For this study, data collected was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative data were entered in EPIDATA version 10 and then exported to Excel for analysis. Quantitative data was also analyzed using content and thematic approaches. The researcher reviewed field data on a daily basis, beginning with data collected through interviews, and questionnaires. This involved reading interview notes word by word and underlining key ideas that were mentioned repeatedly and also assigning codes to each idea in particular paragraphs. The findings of the study were presented in expository and descriptive prose supplemented with graphs, tables and pie-charts to facilitate explanation and comprehension.

c) Ethical Considerations

This study was conducted in full compliance with the basic principles of social research ethics. Throughout the study, the researcher endeavoured to conduct his work in such a way that no harm befell any respondent as a result of his or her participation in the study.

VII. Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

a) Background characteristics of the respondents

The social characteristics examined included sex of the respondents, age bracket, highest level of education and marital status. These were captured from all the categories of the respondents that included girl-

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children, head teachers, parents, political leaders and district focal persons.

i. *Sex of the respondents*

The people of Kanungu District, like their counterparts elsewhere, have culturally determined gender roles, and a person's sex influences what his or her society or community expects of him or her. Moreover, traditionally, access to, and control of, household resources in Kanungu District, are at least partly, if not largely, determined by gender. Therefore, a person's sex is a major factor in his or her empowerment and welfare, and it was for this reason that the study was interested in the sex of the respondents.

Table 4.1: Sex of respondents by category

S/N	CATEGORY	GENDER		TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
		Female	Male		
01	Girl-Children	260	00	260	78
02	Political leaders	03	05	08	2.4
03	Parents	22	30	52	16
04	Head teachers	04	06	10	03
05	DEO	00	01	01	0.3
06	DCDO	00	01	01	0.3
TOTAL		289	43	332	100

Source: Field Data, 2017

According to Table 4.1 above, all the girl-child respondents (260 or 100%) were, of course, females because the researcher specifically wanted to obtain primary data from the girl-children whose empowerment and socio-economic welfare were the subject of the study.

In addition, Table 4.1 above indicates that most (05 or 62.5%) of the respondents in the category of political leaders were males while females accounted for only (03 or 37.5%) of the membership of that category. This distribution reflects the patriarchal nature of the study population, characterized by male dominance, especially in the political and the economic spheres of life.

Similarly, Table 4.1 above indicates that most (30 or 58%) of the parent respondents were males as compared to only (22 or 42%) females. This is partly because most households are headed by men who, therefore, are expected to speak on behalf of their wives, and partly because most mothers were too busy working in their gardens to be available for interviews.

Table 4.1 also indicates that most (06 or 60%) of the head teacher respondents were males compared with only (04 or 40%) females, again reflecting male dominance in the education sector. Lastly, Table 4.1 above indicates that the two district focal person respondents (02 or 100%) were both men, highlighting male dominance in government administration as well.

ii. *Age of the respondents*

Age not only influences one's ability to understand reason and act, it also influences a person's attitude to ideas. For example, it is widely believed that the older people become, the less receptive they are to new ideas. Therefore, it was deemed important to know the age of the respondents as such knowledge would help the researcher to better interpret the responses of the respondents.

Table 4.2: The age of respondents by category

S/N	CATEGORY	AGE BRACKET								TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
		10-15	16-21	22-26	27- 32	33-38	39-44	45-49	50+		
01	Girl-Children	-	257	03	-	-	-	-	-	260	78
02	Political leaders	-	-	-	-	-	-	05	03	08	2.4
03	Parents	-	-	-	-	02	04	14	32	52	16
04	Head teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	03	07	10	03
05	DEO	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	0.3
06	DCDO	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	0.3
TOTAL		00	257	03	00	02	04	22	44	332	100

Source: Field Data, 2017

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According to Table 4.2 above, most (257 or 99%) of the girl-child respondents were aged 16-21 years while those aged 22-26 years were only (03 or 01%). This was expected because most of the respondents selected were from Senior One to Senior Four where most of the girl-children are found, especially those below the age of 18 years which is the researcher's working definition of a girl-child.

Table 4.2 above shows that most (05 or 63%) of the political leaders in the sample were aged between 45 and 49 years while the rest (03 or 37%) were aged 50 years and above. This was expected because most people in responsible positions are adults in their prime.

The same shows that most (32 or 62%) of the parents in the sample were aged 50 years and above while the rest (14 or 27%) were in the age bracket of 45-49 years. This was expected because parents of senior secondary school-going children are normally over 40 years of age. Similarly, Table 4.2 above shows that most (07 or 70%) of the head teachers in the sample were aged 50 years and above while the rest (03 or 30%) were in the 45-49 years age bracket. Lastly, Table 4.2 above shows that the two respondents in the category of district focal persons were 50 years or older suggesting that they had been in government service for long enough to attain their senior positions.

iii. *Highest level of education of the respondents*

A person's level of formal education often determines his or her ability to comprehend complex issues and to express his or her ideas correctly and communicatively. Therefore, in a study of this nature, knowledge of the highest level of formal education of the respondents assists the researcher in his or her assessment and interpretation of the responses elicited. It is for this reason that the study was keen to establish the highest level of formal education of each respondent.

Table 4.3: Highest level of education of the respondents by category

S/N	CATEGORY	HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATON								TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
		None	PLE	O-Level	A-Level	Dip.	Bachelor's degree	PGD	Master's degree		
01	Girl-children	00	00	257	03	00	00	00	00	260	78
02	Political leaders	00	04	02	01	01	00	00	00	08	2.4
03	Parents	00	34	10	04	01	03	00	00	52	16
04	Head teachers	00	00	00	00	00	06	02	02	10	03
05	DEO & DCDO	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	02	02	0.6
Total		00	38	269	08	02	09	02	04	332	100

Source: Field Data, 2017

The level of education of the girl-children was established. According to Table 4.3 above, most (257 or 99%) of the girl-children were 'O' Level students meaning that their highest level of education was PLE. While 'A' Level students were only (03 or 01%) and their highest level of education was 'O' Level. The researcher focused on the 'O' Level girl-children because that is where the majority of the girl-children below the age of 18 years, and outside primary school, are found.

Table 4.3 above also indicates that most (04 or 50%) of political leaders in the sample had attained only primary level education, (02 or 25%) had attained 'O' Level, while (02 or 25%) had attained advanced and diploma levels of education respectively.

The same Table 4.3 above indicates that most (34 or 65%) of the parents in the sample had attained the primary level of education, (10 or 19%) had attained 'O' Level while (04 or 08%) had attained the 'A' Level. On the other hand, (03 or 06%) had attained a Bachelor's degree and only (01 or 02%) had the diploma. This implies that the level of formal education of the majority of the parents is relatively low, which has implications for their awareness of girl-child empowerment issues.

According to the same Table 4.3 above, (06 or 60%) of the head teachers in the sample had a a Bachelor's degree, (02 or 20%) had a Master's degree, while only (02 or 20%) had a post-graduate diploma. This reflects the requirement of at least a Bachelor's degree for one to become a secondary school head teacher.

Finally, Table 4.3 above indicates that both the district focal persons in the sample had a Master's degree. Again, in this case, this was because it is a local government requirement in Uganda that a head of a local government department must be a holder of at least a Bachelor's degree.

iv. *Marital status of the respondents*

Marital status affects a person's awareness of the challenges associated with empowering children in general and girl-children in particular as part of improving their welfare. It was, therefore, important to know the marital status of each respondent as such knowledge enabled the researcher to better interpret the respondents' responses.

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Table 4.4: Marital status of the respondents by category

S/N	CATEGORY	MARITAL STATUS					TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
		Single	Cohabiting	Married	Separated	Divorced		
01	Girl-Children	260	-	-	-	-	260	78
02	Political leaders	-	-	07	01	-	08	2.4
03	Parents	-	-	50	02	-	52	16
04	Head teachers	-	-	10	-	-	10	03
05	DEO	-	-	01	-	-	01	0.3
06	DCDO	-	-	01	-	-	01	0.3
TOTAL		260	00	69	03	00	332	100

Source: Field Data, 2017

According to Table 4.4 above, all (260) the girl-children respondents were single because, being school girls largely below 18 years of age, they are legally minor and, therefore, not expected to be married. The same table indicates that most (07 or 70%) of the political leaders in the sample were married while only one (01 or 30%) was unmarried. Therefore, apart from their being key informants by virtue of their political leadership positions, they are also parents and thus familiar with issues related to girl-child empowerment and welfare from the perspective of parents.

In addition, Table 4.4 above indicates that the majority (50 or 96%) of parent respondents were married while (02 or 04%) had separated; and they all had parenting experience, making them appropriate respondents for purposes of the study.

Regarding the head teachers in the sample, and as Table 4.4 above shows, all (10 or 100%) of them were married, and therefore likely to have children, including daughters. Therefore, apart from their vantage point as head teachers, they had the added advantage of also being parents, with experience as both head teachers and parents.

Lastly, Table 4.4 above also shows that (02 or 100%) of the district focal persons in the sample were married, and therefore likely to be parents as well, with both parenting and administrative experience.

VIII. Analysis of Results

a) *Forms of Girl-Child Empowerment in Kanungu Town Council*

The first objective of this study was to identify the forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015. The corresponding research question was*: What are the forms of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015?* Questions pertaining to this objective were put to, and answered by, girl-children, parents, political leaders, head teachers, the DEO and the DCDO, and their respective responses are presented, analysed and interpreted below.

b) *Forms of girl-child empowerment according to girl-children*

When the girl-children were asked whether there were any interventions that are meant to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council, all the 260 (100%) girl-children in the sample answered the question affirmatively. Further asked to name the different types of such interventions, they agreed that the interventions were available and they include among others access to quality education, reproductive health services, and income generating activities. Moreover, access to education is provided for by both the government and non-governmental organisations, reproductive health services is provided for by Reproductive Health-Uganda, while income generating activities is provided for by the government through its programmes like the Youth Livelihood Programme.

c) *Forms of girl-child empowerment according to parents*

When they were interviewed about the forms of girl-child empowerment in the town council, many parents observed that girls had been socially empowered through programmes that work to end the discrimination of girls based on their sex. For example, some noted that girls like boys, are allowed to go to school, and have access to all the resources, including shelter and food on the same footing as boys. Parents also noted that girls now have their privacy rights respected, especially through provision of sanitary facilities in schools like Kirima Parents Primary School, Kinkiizi High School, and San Giovanni as well as other public places which are separate from those of boys. It was also noted that in terms of employment, girls have had equal access to employment opportunities with their males' counterparts.

In the words of one parent,

> *"In Uganda in general and Kanungu district in particular emphasis has been put in gender equality and equity in terms of access, control and ownership of resources and programmes geared at increasing life expectancy of girls, through reproductive and health services, promotion of proper nutrition, and fighting of domestic violence and other forms of*

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discrimination against the girl-child" (Interview, Kanungu Town Council, 6th May 2017).

d) Forms of girl-child empowerment according to political leaders

The political leaders interviewed indicated that in Kanungu Town Council, girls have been encouraged to participate in income-generating activities, including farming in their homes, which have enabled them to generate income. In addition, the respondents noted that some girls have been employed in restaurants, hotels, guest houses, bars, public offices, banks among others. It was further noted that economically empowered girls are less dependent on men and their family members. Some of the activities in which girls have been involved have resulted into self-employment initiatives by girls.

As one of the political leaders noted,

> *"Government has introduced some programs to alleviate poverty in this town council. A case in point is the youth livelihood program which among its principles is equitable distribution of resources and gender balance. This principle states that, for any youth project to receive funding, it must have 30% of membership being female. This was put in place specifically to promote the socio-economic welfare of girl-child. In addition, the government has also introduced the Women Empowerment Fund also through the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development".*

e) Forms of girl-child empowerment according to head teachers

It is often argued that education is a powerful tool in the emancipation and empowerment of the girl-child. The respondents in the category of head teachers observed that policies to make quality education accessible have been implemented in Uganda and Kanungu District in particular. They noted that, since the introduction of Universal Primary Education and Universal Secondary Education, many girls have been enrolled into primary and secondary schools. This has translated into girls joining tertiary institutions, including universities. In addition, the respondents noted that some girls have even benefited from the affirmative action of 1.5 points given to girls at entry into tertiary institutions like universities. As one of the head teachers observed, "Within schools in Kanungu Town Council, there are even more girls than boys enrolled. Also retention of girls has increased and this is likely to lead to better welfare, especially when girls complete their studies and join the world of employment."

f) Forms of girl-child empowerment according to the DEO and the DCDO

According to the study findings presented by the DEO and the DCDO, legal instruments for the protection and promotion of girls' well-being have been put in place. For instance, the policy of Universal Primary Education and Universal Secondary Education has allowed all children, including girls, to benefit primary and secondary education free of charge. In addition, deliberate legal measures, such as the affirmative action of 1.5 additional entry points accorded to female applicants to tertiary institutions, including universities, have promoted the access of girls to tertiary education. The respondents mentioned that girls are protected internationally and the Government of Uganda has domesticated such legal instruments to suit its conditions and context. A case in point is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against the Girl-Child. In effect, Uganda after ratifying these conventions, put in place the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995 as amended, the Children's Act, the Equal Opportunities Commission which was established by an Act of Parliament. Finally, respondents argued that all these have been put in place to protect and promote the rights and well-being of girls.

g) Summary of the forms of girl-child empowerment

As the foregoing account indicates, various forms of interventions to empower girl-children in Kanungu Town Council have been put in place. These include programs geared at ending gender-based discrimination in access to resources such as food and shelter, such programmes include Girls not Brides Alliance through a non-governmental organisation called Mend the Broken Hearts-Uganda. Similarly, and as indicated by political leaders, girls have been encouraged to participate in income-generating activities, such as agricultural production in their homes, from which some girl-children have derived income.

For their part, head teachers observed that girl-children, including those whose parents cannot afford the cost of formal education, have been given a chance to go to school through the policy of universal primary and secondary education. This has significantly increased the enrolment of girls in both primary and secondary schools. At the national level, Uganda has domesticated international legal instruments that favour the girl-child's empowerment. These instruments include the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against the Girl-Child. In effect, after ratifying these conventions, Uganda put in place the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995, as amended, the Children's Act, the Equal Opportunities Commission which was established by an Act of Parliament and all these has been geared towards protection and promotion of girls' rights. All these are certainly significant forms of girl-child empowerment, but how effective have they been?

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h) Performance of girl-child empowerment interventions

The second objective of the study was to establish the extent to which girl-child empowerment had improved the socio-economic welfare of girl-children in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015. The corresponding research question was*: To what extent has girl-child empowerment improved the socio-economic welfare of the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council from 2005 to 2015?* This research question was also put to, and answered by, girl-children, parents, political leaders, head teachers, the DEO and the DCDO, and their respective responses are presented, analysed and interpreted in the following sub-sections.

i. *Performance of girl-child empowerment interventions according to girl-children*

When the girl-children were asked about the performance of girl-child empowerment interventions, they noted that they foresee the benefits associated with having formal education, since most of them want to become doctors, lawyers, teachers or nurses, among other professions. The optimism raised by these empowerment interventions was vividly expressed in the words of one girl-child according to whom*, "Education will make me acquire knowledge that I will bring to bear on issues related to my health and nutrition, unwanted pregnancies, domestic welfare, the environment and sanitation".* In the words of another girl,

> *"Having seen the case of this girl who as a result of her education got a good marriage and was able to help her brothers who are now residents in Kampala and her immediate family members life has changed for the better. Thus, I see it as motivation factor to also send my girls to school in the future."*

ii. *Performance of girl-child empowerment interventions according to parents*

According to the parents in the sample, the performance of girl-child empowerment interventions, they noted that formal education for girls forms an important aspect in human development and this can be developed through investment in education and training. However, through awareness and sensitisation campaigns, by different organisations including the government within Kanungu Town Council, some parents see the benefits associated with education of their daughters. For instance, when probed about the importance of sending her daughter to school, a parent respondent responded, "*Sending my daughter to school would make her learn basic knowledge and skills that will help her improve her health, livelihood and also empower her to take her rightful place in the society."*

In addition to the above, as a result of sensitisation programmes on the importance of education of the girl-child, another parent informant had this to say when probed about the benefits of educating girls rather than marrying them off by saying that,

"Illiterate girls marry prematurely whilst some do not get a happy marriage due to poverty. The roles of women have changed and boys and girls nowadays prefer educated partners and for that matter, if girls are given the opportunity of education, it would enhance their marriageability".

iii. *Performance of girl-child empowerment interventions according to political leaders*

The political leaders interviewed observed that Universal Primary and Secondary Education means that girls can advance their education career and many have joined leadership positions in schools. They further stated that education plays a significant role in equipping an individual with skills, like reading and writing as well as enhancing their ability to seek rightful information. For instance, the proportion of girls in Kanungu Town Council attending public secondary schools increased from 10.6% in 2005 to nearly 15% in 2009. However, poor quality of education, insufficient teachers and equipments to meet the growing classroom population still persist, an indication that free universal secondary education has yielded mixed results. Similarly, pupils' enrolment more than doubled with the introduction of universal primary education in Uganda in general and Kanungu district in particular. However, this has been affected by hunger and poverty which disrupts the retention rates of most pupils. For instance, a 2014 out of school report showed that for schools that provide breakfast and lunch, the enrolment and retention rates more than doubled while those that did not lost many children to other schools.

iv. *Performance of girl-child empowerment interventions according to head teachers*

The study findings also indicate that, according to the head teachers, girl-child empowerment has led to awareness of family planning methods due to reproductive health services provided by Reproductive Health-Uganda, a non- governmental organisation and this has led to a reduction in unwanted pregnancies, sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS. In the long run, this has led to a reduction in maternal mortality rates in the town council because young girls can now use family planning services available, which prevents them from unwanted pregnancies and their resultant unsafe abortions that eventually culminate into high maternal mortality rates. For instance, in 2014, there was a slight drop of abortion cases in the district from 351 to 331 in the previous year and by mid-2015; only 251 cases had been recorded. All this is attributed to awareness campaigns on sexual and reproductive health education, radio talk shows as well as improving up take of family planning services in the town council that prevents unwanted pregnancies.

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v. *Performance of girl-child empowerment interventions according to the DEO and the DCDO*

The district focal persons argued that empowering girls starts with educating the girl-child and this increases education levels of the girl-child, reduces maternal mortality rate, increases advocacy for human rights as well as political civil services. Similarly, the DEO and the DCDO argued that performance of girl-child empowerment interventions further reduces sexual harassment of the girl-children in schools by male teachers, dropout rates as well as limiting the parents to educate their daughters. Thus, any intervention that helps a girl-child to develop and expand her personal and intellectual ability and improves her potential for participation in the society, the economy and in the family is a source of empowerment.

vi. *Summary of performance of girl-child empowerment interventions*

As the above account indicates, on the performance of girl-children empowerment interventions, the first performance identified (by the girl-children) is that they foresee the benefits associated with having formal education in the near future, since most of them want to become doctors, lawyers, teachers, nurses to mention but a few. The second performance identified (by parents) is that formal education for girls forms an important aspect in human development and this can be developed through investment in education and training of their daughters. Similarly, the third performance identified (by political leaders) respondents is that, universal primary and secondary education means that girls can advance their education career and many have been able to join leadership positions in schools.

Furthermore, the fourth performance identified by the (head teachers) is that girl-child empowerment leads to awareness of family planning methods due to reproductive health services provided by Reproductive Health-Uganda, a non- governmental organisation for this has led to a reduction in unwanted pregnancies, sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS among others. Finally, the DEO and the DCDO identified that, empowering girls starts with educating the girl-child. For this increases her education levels, reduces on maternal mortality rates, increases advocacy for human rights and political civil services. Moreover, they conclude that girl-child empowerment interventions further reduce sexual harassment of the girl-children in schools by male teachers, dropout rates as well as limiting the parents to educate their daughters.

i) Challenges faced by girl-child empowerment stakeholders

The third objective of this study was to identify and explain the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council. The corresponding research question was: *What are the challenges faced by stakeholders in their efforts to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council?* This research question was answered by girl-children, parents, political leaders, head teachers, the DEO and the DCDO, and their respective responses are presented, analysed and interpreted in the following sub-sections.

i. *The challenges according to girl-children*

The girl-children respondents were asked about the challenges that hinder stakeholders in their efforts to empower them and they responded that early marriage, teenage pregnancy and dropping out of school were among the leading consequences to the challenges that curtail the efforts of stakeholders to empower the girl-child. Moreover, these phenomenon are a clear manifestations of poverty and its negative effects that leads to dropping out of school, negative cultural norms and practices of marrying off girls at an early age by some parents/ guardians and ignorance of some girl-children that engage into sexual behaviours at an early age. For instance, as a result of negative cultural norms and practices in Kanungu Town Council, the girl-children respondents mentioned that many girls get married or are married off before they complete their school cycles. In addition, they lamented the fact that many girls and a small number of boys enter marriage without any chance of exercising their right to choose their spouse. Thus, early marriage inevitably denies girls of school-going age their right to education, which is crucial for their personal growth and development and eventually their effective contribution to the future well-being of both their families and the society in general.

ii. *The challenges according to parents*

When asked to state the challenges they encounter in their efforts to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council, the parents in the study sample cited traditional gender roles as a major hindrance to the promotion of girl-child empowerment. According to one parent some households delegate certain tasks to girls, and these include childcare, collecting firewood and water, cleaning and washing which are traditionally within girls' domain. In addition, girls help in almost all domestic work, though boys can be asked to do some work when there no girls around. However, the same parent noted that as girls and boys grow older, they share more workload of their mothers and fathers respectively. Most parents observed that the work burden of girls in the study area does not allow girls to attain higher levels of education. For example, according to one parent,

> *"It is the girl-child, for example, who does cooking, sweeping and fetching water which are the preserve of the girl-child in most households in Kanungu Town Council. She further narrated that, by virtue of being girls, they must be taught how to do these domestic chores so that when they get married, the*

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do not bring disgrace to their families for not knowing how to do domestic work which renders them complete women".

In addition, most parent respondents noted that poverty is yet another challenge they encounter in their efforts to empower the girl-child especially raising school fees and other scholastic materials besides meeting other family obligations such as providing food, buying clothes, footings medical bills to mention but a few. Thus, parent respondents stated that the lack of enough resources both financial and material curtails their efforts to empower their children the girl-child inclusive.

iii. *The challenges according to political leaders*

For their part, the political leaders in the study sample noted that girl-children lack access to formal education which means that they are denied the technical know-how and professional skills that are a pre-requisite for formal employment. It was observed that illiterate girls who are abandoned are later widowed or divorced, or are victims of growing urban poverty which forces them into commercialized versions of their work as housewives: cleaning, cooking, and taking care of children. Moreover, they even stand the risk of entering into commercial sex which is a common phenomenon in many towns and cities. The researcher probed the respondents as to why girl-children lack access to education and they stated that in most cases, parents/guardians cannot afford to take them to school due to poverty and lack of support from stakeholders [government and non-governmental organisations].

iv. *The challenges according to head teachers*

According to the head teachers in the sample, early marriage is the main hindrance to efforts to empower the girl-child because it forces them to drop out of school, thereby putting to an end their chances of career advancement? Girls are either taken out of school or not even given the opportunity to attend so that they can be married off early. In an interview with a secondary school head teacher, he lamented the low retention rates of girls in secondary schools in the town council. Early marriage inevitably denies girls of school-going age their right to education which is crucial for their personal growth and development and eventually their effective contribution to the future well-being of both their families and society as a whole. In addition, the head teacher respondents argued that most parents cannot afford the indirect costs of education, like school uniform, books, pens, sanitary towels and even lunch for primary school pupils.

v. *The challenges according to the DEO and the DCDO*

The DEO and the DCDO observed that although there is universal primary and secondary education, indirect costs of education, like uniforms, books, and sanitary towels, are beyond the means of most parents, forcing many students, especially girls, to drop out of school. The same respondents further argued that the school fees burden and other school requirements make it difficult for poor families living at the margins of the society and in the informal economy to afford. In their view, the worst affected are the rural poor families that rely on crops that do not command high or stable prices. They noted that most parents in the town council are subsistence farmers with little or no surplus to sell for basics, let alone school fees. For this matter, the respondents observed, most families cut back on their expenditure by removing their children, especially daughters, from school.

vi. *Summary of challenges faced by girl-child empowerment stakeholders*

As the above account indicates, stakeholders trying to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council face many challenges. The first two, and related, challenges identified (by girl-children and head teachers) are early marriage and teenage pregnancy which force girls to drop out of school. Early marriage and teenage pregnancy are attributed to poverty, cultural norms and beliefs of some parents marrying off their daughters at an early age, as well as ignorance of some girl-children that engage into sexual behaviours at an early age. The third challenge identified (by parents) is the persistence of traditional gender roles according to which girls are supposed to do most of the household chores, including cooking, cleaning, fetching water and firewood and taking care of babies, all of which limit the amount of time a girl-child can devote to her education. Moreover, according to the same traditional gender roles, girls are expected to grow up into hardworking housewives, implying that formal education is not a priority for them. The fourth challenge identified (by political leaders) is the girl-child's lack of access to formal education which arises from poverty and lack of support from stakeholders [government and non-governmental organisations]. Finally, the DEO and the DCDO identified the high cost of formal education as a major challenge for those trying to empower the girl-child in Kanungu Town Council. In their opinion, the combined cost of school tuition, stationery and sanitary pads is beyond the means of many parents and forces parents to either not to send their children, especially daughters, or withdraw them from school, thereby hindering the empowerment of the girl-child through education.

j) Proposed Strategies for Enhanced Girl-child Empowerment

The fourth objective of this study was to generate strategies for enhanced girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council. The corresponding research question was: *What strategies can be adopted to enhance girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council*? This research question was

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answered by girl-children, parents, political leaders, head teachers, the DEO and the DCDO, and their respective responses are presented, analysed and interpreted in the following sub-sections.

i. *Strategies proposed by the girl-children*

According to the girl-children in the study sample, the best way to empower the girl-child is by enabling her to go to, and stay in, school for as long as possible. They cited the example of some programmes that have been introduced to promote and empower them, especially through formal education. They argued that, organizations like Brac-Uganda and Girl Education Movement-Uganda both non-governmental organisations, are helping girls to attain education, by providing scholarships to girl-children at the lower and tertiary levels. Similarly, some of these programmes support girls who have given birth to go back to school. According to one girl-child, *"the government and other stakeholders should conduct sensitization and awareness creation campaigns on reproductive health and more organizations should come in to support girl-child education.*

ii. *Strategies proposed by the parents*

Similarly the parents in the study sample proposed that the best way to empower the girl-child is to promote her formal education so that she becomes a knowledgeable and skilful citizen, capable of self-reliance and contributing to the welfare of her family and society. The parents also proposed the intensification of poverty-alleviation programmes to enable poor households to afford the cost of educating their girl-children. When probed as to why their proposed strategies would work better than the current ones, one parent replied,

> *"I did not have any hope of sending my child to a nursery school which was her dream. Thanks to Kanungu District Local Government and the UNFPA programme, my child was given a scholarship, all her fees and upkeep paid for. She was later given a job and she is now helping me pay school fees for her siblings."*

In the opinion of another parent,

> *"Government programmes for socio-economic empowerment of households do not segregate. For instance, as a woman, I applied for a heifer and it was granted to me. It already has a calf and I sell milk and I am able to meet some household expenses, including school fees for my children"*

iii. *Strategies proposed by the political leaders*

In the opinion of the political leaders in the study sample, the best way to empower the girl-child is by continuously sensitizing the general public about the rights of the girl-child which need to be protected, promoted and respected just like those of any other human being. Furthermore, political leaders proposed that the policies and laws that promote the welfare of the girl-child should be enforced more strictly, for instance, by punishing those who violate the rights of the girl-child in any way. In their view, if all those who abuse the rights of the girl-child, such as defilers and rapists, were justly punished instead of being corruptly mismanaged by both parents and law enforcement officers, the rights and empowerment of the girl-child would be promoted. The political leaders further proposed the promotion of reproductive health as well as advocating for the rights of the girl-child through workshops and seminars because reproductive health knowledge and skills would empower the girl-child to protect herself from potential abusers of her rights.

iv. *Strategies proposed by the head teachers*

Similarly, the head teachers in the study sample also proposed that the best way to empower the girl-child would be by strengthening the existing legal framework on the promotion and protection of girls' rights. In their opinion, cases of early marriage, forced marriage, defilement, rape and domestic violence are still commonly retarding the empowerment and welfare of girls, partly because the relevant laws have loopholes and partly because their enforcement is inadequate. The head teachers further reasoned that if the offenders were more severely punished than they are currently, the welfare of the girl-child would be significantly improved. Finally, the head teachers proposed that religious leaders, who are generally respected, should do all in their power, including the use of radio talk shows, to sensitise the public on the importance of the life and welfare of the girl-child.

v. *Strategies proposed by the DEO and the DCDO*

For their part, the DEO and the DCDO proposed that pro-equality and pro-equity programmes should be instituted to empower the girl-child and promote her welfare. In their opinion, if government initiated and implemented such programmes, especially those focusing on gender issues, the girl-child would be empowered and her welfare would be improved. In support of government-led initiatives, the DEO and the DCDO cited the example of government-led youth livelihood and women empowerment programmes which have helped to raise the income levels of many households, thereby enabling them to meet household needs, including paying school fees for the children.

vi. *Summary of strategies proposed by all respondents*

In all, the five categories of respondents generated ten strategies for the enhancement of girl-child empowerment in Kanungu Town Council, and these strategies can be categorised into four types. The first type of strategies consists of those focusing on promoting the formal education of the girl-child as a means of empowerment. These strategies were proposed by girl-children themselves and parents who

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proposed that girl-children should be enabled to go to school and stay in school until they acquire enough knowledge and skills to be self-reliant.

The second type of strategies was that focusing on sensitization and awareness creation among all people, especially regarding the rights of the girl-child and reproductive health, and these were proposed by girl-children, political leaders and head teachers. The head teachers particularly suggested that religious leaders should exploit the respect that they command in their communities to sensitize the general public on the importance of life and the welfare of the girl-child.

The third type of proposed strategies focuses on empowering the girl-child through pro-equity, pro-equality and poverty alleviation programmes meant to increase household incomes so as to enable poor parents and guardians to afford the cost of educating their girl-children. This type of strategies emanated from parents, the DEO and the DCDO.

The fourth type of proposed strategies came from political leaders and head teachers, and it focuses on strengthening the legal framework and improving the enforcement of policies and laws relating to the protection and promotion of the rights of the girl-child.

IX. Conclusions

On the basis of the above discussion of findings, the study concludes that:

1. Kanungu Town Council has been implementing interventions that seek to empower the girl-child and improve her welfare. These are mostly government interventions through programs, legal frameworks and policies. Other interventions are being implemented by other non-governmental organizations and private individuals.
2. Girl-child empowerment interventions have helped in improving the welfare of the girl-child. For instance, girls now have access to education, and more of them are staying in school for longer, some have received sponsorship and joined higher institutions of learning, they are working for pay and their general standard of living has improved. Moreover, organizations like Brac-Uganda and Girl Education Movement-Uganda both non-governmental organisations, are helping girls to attain education, by providing scholarships to girl-children at the lower and tertiary levels.
3. There are still challenges hindering girl-child empowerment and these are related to individual girl-children while others are attributable to the culture of the communities in which the girl-child finds herself. These include early marriage, teenage pregnancy, gender-based distribution of domestic work, and the high cost of formal education.
4. Various strategies have been adopted to enhance girl-child empowerment. These include programs geared at promoting the rights of girls and meeting their socio-economic needs, and strengthening the existing legal framework for the protection of the girl-child. These have enhanced girl-child empowerment and they need to be strengthened.

X. Recommendations

On the basis of the above conclusions, the following recommendations emerge:

1. First and foremost, it is recommended that Kanungu Town Council should continue to promote programmes that lead to empowerment of the girl-child. For instance allowing girls to go to, and stay in school, have access to all the resources, including shelter and food on the same footing as boys.
2. Families, communities and nations should strive to reject violence against the girl-child and to provide a supportive and nurturing environment in which girls are valued and respected as equal partners. Moreover, this can be done through awareness and sensitization campaigns by various stakeholders over the media like radio talk shows, awareness of family planning methods due to reproductive health services provided by Reproductive Health-Uganda, a nongovernmental organisation and this has led to a reduction in unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted diseases.
3. Negative cultural norms and practices of marrying off girls at an early age should be abolished because this leads many girls to drop out of school before completing their education levels. Therefore perpetrators should be dealt with in accordance with the law.
4. In Kanungu Town Council, various strategies have been adopted to enhance girl-child empowerment. However, there is need to strengthen the existing legal framework and policies for the protection and promotion of the welfare of the girl-child in order to meet their socio-economic needs and enhancement of girl-child empowerment.
5. Last but not least, in Kanungu Town Council, various programmes have been introduced to promote and empower the girl-child especially through formal education. For instance, organizations like Brac-Uganda and Girl Education Movement-Uganda both non-government al organisations, are helping girls to attain education, by providing scholarships to girl-children at the lower and tertiary levels. Therefore, these and many more organisations should be encouraged to come up and keep on improving the status of the girl-child through promoting education of the girl-children.

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Analysis of Determinants and Savings Propensity of Women Cassava Processors in Ekiti State Nigeria

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Keywords: *saving avenue, saving propensity, annual income.*

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I. Introduction

Women play significant and potentially transformative roles in agricultural growth in developing countries. They have the potentials necessary to evolve a new economic order, to accelerate social and political development and consequently transform the society into a better one (Safiya, 2011). Kayode and Sunday, (2013) emphasized that women are mainly responsible for the bulk of crops production, agro-based food processing, preservation of crops and distribution of outputs/products from farm centers to urban areas. Cassava is a versatile crop; all parts of the plant including its root can be process into some products. These include food for human consumption, animal feeds and industrial based products, making cassava-based diets sources of dietary energy (Ashaye *et al*., 2007). Women play a central role in cassava production; they harvest, process and market contributing about 58 percent of the total agricultural labor in the Southwest, 67 percent in the Southeast and 58 percent in the North Central zones (FAO, 2004, Onyemauwa, 2012). In Nigeria, women play significant roles in reducing post-harvest losses through processing. Crop processing is the responsibility of women while men engaged in operations like cultivation, land clearing, weeding, etc. cassava processing is challenged with myriads of problems such as dilapidating processing sheds and expensive processing facilities. Women processors, therefore, need credit and adequate savings to acquire modern processing facilities that would add value to their products. Savings is considered in economics as disposable income minus personal consumption expenditure. Amu and Amu (2012) explained that savings means putting something aside for future use, or what is considered as deferred expenditure. It is also regarded as income that is not consumed immediately by buying goods and services. As explained by Odoemenum, Ezihe and Akerele (2013), it includes earnings from all sources during a year.

Dwivedi, (2005) emphasized that economic development of any nation is contingent upon the savings potential and consumption pattern of its people, while the channelization of savings in productive investment avenues leads to an increased capital formation that constitutes the determinant of economic growth in the developed country. According to (Rutherford, 1999, Zeller and Sharma, 2000) savings are very imperative for supporting rural enterprise, improving well being, insure against times of shock and providing a buffer to help people cope in times of crisis. For a country to achieve higher economic growth, the marginal propensity to save should be higher. They opined that the determinants and patterns of savings differ from rural to the urban region. In rural areas, the marginal propensity to consume is more rather than the marginal propensity to save which seems to be vice-versa in the urban areas where the marginal propensity to save is more than the marginal propensity to consume.

As for an individual farmer, savings becomes the cushion for the futures intercourse of the unforeseen, upcoming as well as the uncertain circumstances of life. It can be carried out in numerous forms such as property acquisition, e.g., jewelry, land, livestock, etc. or inform of currency notes deposited in the bank or more

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often hoarded. In whichever way, savings gives the farmers the possibility of future investment at the various levels in the economy. The more the income is at a higher rate, the more it encourages the farmer to have more savings, which according to Brata, (1999) could be used directly for investment purposes thus enhanced capital formation. The ability, willingness and opportunity of farmers and processors to save and invest can therefore significantly influence the rate and sustainability of capital acquisition leading to economic growth in developing countries (Oluwakemi, 2012).

One of the problems confronting the development of the cassava processing activities in Nigeria is inadequate savings despite the income generated by its active processors. Meanwhile, growth attained within cassava processing activities depends mainly on what the processors do with the incomes generated from their processing activities. Several significant questions remain in the minds of many people as to what problem(s) women cassava processors do face. Such include among others are; do women cassava processors in Nigeria and Ekiti State in particular, have a significant capacity to save? If so, what financial avenues are offered and why do they make use of such? What are the factors that affect and determine their savings propensity?

Several researchers have empirically investigated the factors influencing savings habit of individuals and households in different parts of the world. In Ghana Quartey and Blankson (2008), identify savings as a necessary engine of economic growth for the Ghanaian economy, but the level of savings in the country remains very low. Lisa *et al.* (2006) in the study of Patterns and Determinants of Household Saving in the Philippines using the Generalized Least Squares Estimation and Instrumental Variable Estimation, discovered that education, the proportion of young dependent and proportion of elderly are the determinants of household saving. A study of saving pattern in Netherlands and Italy by Alessie et al., (2004) reported that child's income share has positive effects on the household saving rate. The study found that bank deposits is the main preference for investment, and income influences investor awareness. Harris *et al.* (1999) in Australia, Horioka and Junmin (2007) in China, as well as Abdelkhalek *et al.* (2009) in Morocco confirmed a positive relationship between the household saving and income growth.

In Nigeria, several studies have revealed that poor rural people in developing countries like Nigeria do save part of their earned income (Wright *et al*. 2000; Nwachukwu and Peter 2009). Soyibo and Adekanye (1991) examined the determinants of savings in Nigeria. The result of their study indicated that lagged aggregate savings ratio, current GDP, foreign savings, and ex-post real interest rate were significant in savings determination in Nigeria. Orebiyi, (2005) studied determinants of saving mobilization by farmer's cooperators in Kwara State Nigeria, using multiple-regression and descriptive statistics techniques. The results revealed that household size, farmer's expenditure, and membership experience are the determinants of savings. Adeyemo *et al*. (2005) examined the pattern of saving and investment among cooperators farmers in south west Nigeria and reported that income, loan repayment, and amount of money borrowed are significant variables that influenced saving pattern. Ayanwale and Bamire, (2000) in their study on rural savings in Osun state Nigeria, asserted that saving behavior of rural farmers in developing nation is less depended on the aggregate income (but more on the relationship between current and expected), the nature of the business, household size, wealth, and age. Osundare, (2013) in his study identified age, the amount saved, farming experience, farm size and household size as the determinants of income, savings and investment among cocoa farmers in Idanre, Ondo state. While drawing from the experience of these authors, this study focused on savings propensity of women cassava processors to make them more potentially transformational. It's against this background that this study was carried out to examine the savings avenue used by the respondents; determine the factors affecting saving propensity and examine the determinants of savings among women cassava processors in Ekiti State.

II. Research Methodology

a) *The Study Area*

This study was carried out in Ekiti State, Nigeria. What the state lies entirely within the tropics is located between latitude 7° 15' to 8° 5 ' North of the equator and Longitude 4° 45' to 5° 45' East of the Greenwich meridian. It enjoys a typical tropical climate with two distinct seasons, the rainy season which lasts roughly from April to October and the dry season which prevails for the remaining months of the year. Ekiti is an agrarian society with a land area of about 5,307 square kilometers of which over 90% is available for farming and agricultural related enterprises. Equally, the state enjoys favorable agro-climatic conditions suitable for agricultural productions of tree crops such as oil palm, citrus, mango, kola nut and guava and arable crops such as maize, cassava, rice, plantain, tomato, okra, and melon, etc.

b) *Sampling technique and Data collection*

Multi-stage random sampling technique was adopted in the selection of the population. At the first stage, Five (5) LGA were selected from the sixteen LGA in the state. At the Second Stage, Six (6) towns were randomly selected from each of the five (5) LGA. This gives a total of 30 communities. Finally, six (6) respondents were selected from each town using

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Snowball sampling method, giving a total sample size of 180 women cassava processors. Structured questionnaire were used to elicit information from respondents on their socio-economic characteristics, savings avenue, factors affecting their savings. These were personally administered to women cassava processors in the study area.

c) Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, and percentages were used to analyze the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and to discuss the constraints to savings and investment of the respondent. Friedman Ranking Analysis was used to rank the Savings Avenue of the respondents; multiple regression models were used to determine the factors affecting savings propensity in the study area.

i. *Friedman Ranking*

The savings avenue were ranked using Friedman Ranking analysis with the implicit model specified as

$$F_R = \frac{12}{rc(c+1)}\sum_{f=1}^{c} R_f^2 - 3r(c+1) \qquad (1)$$

Where

R_n^2 = square of the total of the ranks for group n (n = 1, 2 …)

r = number of blocks

c = number of groups

ii. *Multiple Regressions*

A multiple linear regression models were used to determine the factors affecting savings propensity in the study area. Only quantifiable factors, which were hypothesized to affect savings were included in the models, the implicit model specified as:

$$S = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, e) \qquad (1)$$

Where:

S = savings of respondents defined as Inc – Con in (N)

X_1 = income of respondents defined as farm income + off-farm income in (N)

X_2 = Age of respondents in years

X_3 = processing experience of respondents in years

X_4 = Educational level of respondent in years

X_5 = Household size number

X_6 = quantity of Garri produced in (Kg)

X_7 = Membership of Social Organization (1 if yes) or (0) otherwise

e = Error term.

III. Results and Discussion

a) Socio-economic Characteristics of the Respondents

The respondents characteristics that are of interest to this study are Age, marital status, educational background, household size, income, and processing experience etc

Table 1: Socio-economic Distribution of Women Cassava Processors in Ekiti State

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Age						
20 – 30	34	18.9				
31 – 40	65	36.1	36.5	8.979	20	53
41 – 50	55	30.6				
≥50	26	14.4				
Total	180	100				
Marital						
status	24	13.3				
Single	124	68.9				
Married	32	17.8				
Widow	180	100				
Total						
Educational						
level	48	26.7				
No formal	73	40.6				
education	35	19.4				
Primary	24	13.3				
Secondary	180	100				
Tertiary						
Total						
Household						
size	28	15.6	8	3.78	2	16
≤3	90	50				
4 – 8	33	18.3				
9 – 12	29	16.1				
≥12	180	100				

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Total						
Processing experience ≤5 6 – 10 11 – 15 ≥15 Total	30 69 54 27 180	16.7 38.3 30 15 100	10.64	4.49	4	21
Qty of Garri processed ≤5 6 – 10 11 – 15 16 – 20 ≥21 Total	22 54 44 35 25 180	12.2 30 24.4 19.4 13.9 100	13.03	6.59	1	27

Source: Field Survey, 2017.

b) Age distribution of the Respondents

The result in Table 1 shows the age distribution of the respondents in the study area. The minimum age of 20 years and mean age of 36.5years indicates young people were involved in cassava processing. The result of this research work is in line with the findings of Alao, Torimiro, and Ayinde (2016) which reported that processors at this age range (30 and 50) are strong enough to bear the tedious tasks of processing

c) Marital status and Household size Distribution of the Respondents.

68.9% of the respondents were married with a relatively large household size of 8 – 16. Large household sizes could be advantageous to processors if the adolescent members are willing to provide family labor otherwise they could constitute constraints to the provision of adequate investment funds to farm enterprises because they determine the dependency ratio as well as consumption rate.

d) Educational Distribution of the Respondents

As indicated in Table 1, 73% of the respondents acquired formal education while 27% of the respondents had no formal education. The research findings also show that the educational level of the respondents was very low since 67.3% could not attain up to secondary education and hence, an indication that the rate of adoption of cassava processing innovations may be low. The result of this research work was in accordance with the findings of Shitu (2012) that low level of literacy is frequent in the rural areas and this will affect their level of new technology adoption as well as their income and savings.

e) Processing experience

The respondents were veteran in cassava processing with the mean processing experience of 10.6 years and maximum processing experience of 21 years. Based on the findings of Osaka (2006), the experience is measure of management ability; it could be that the women cassava processors in the study area are likely to make decisions that would increase their productivity all things been equal.

f) Quantity of Garri Processed

The result of Garri processed by the women cassava processors shown in Table 1 indicates that the modal quantity of Garri. However, 13.9% processed above 1000kg while 12.2% processed below 300kg monthly.

g) Annual Income Distribution of women cassava processors in Ekiti State

Cassava processor in the study area generates their income mainly from cassava processing, though they engaged in some other activities such as farming and trading. From the result (Table 5), the modal income generated from cassava processing was ₦100,000 – 250,000 annually with the mean income of ₦195. The modal total annually generated was ₦251,000 – 500,000 while the mean was ₦488,750 per annum. This implies that the respondents made considerable income annually but still living below $1(₦375) per day, an indication that they are living below the poverty line (FAO 2011).

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Table 5: Annual Income Distribution of women cassava processors in Ekiti State

	Cassava processing		Total Income	
Income	F	%	F	%
<100,000	16	8.9	12	6.7
100,000 – 250,000	92	51.1	30	16.7
251,000 – 500,000	62	34.4	78	43.3
501,000 – 1,000,000	10	5.5	60	33.3
>1,000,000	0	0	2	1.1
Total	**180**	**100**	**180**	**100**
Mean	195,000			488,750
Std. Deviation	99,889.222			247,233.055
Minimum	75,000			35,500
Maximum	620,0 00			1,012,500

Source, field survey 2017

h) *Friedman Ranking Analysis of Savings Avenue for Women Cassava Processors in Ekiti State*

The result in Table 6 shows the saving avenue of respondents based on their mean rank using Friedman ranking analysis. The table revealed that cooperative society with the mean score of 5.90 was ranked highest among the respondents. This negates the apriori expectations that rural household's safe at home. The tenable reason is the quick loan availability at low-interest rate offered to carry out their processing activities. Meanwhile, home savings with the mean score 5.76 was ranked second among the mostly used savings avenue by the respondents. This is as a result of the use of cash to meet the immediate household needs even though it has the risk of theft and tendency to spend on frivolous things. Daily contribution with the mean score of 5.36 and Rotating Savings and Credit Association (ROSCAs) also known as ESUSU with the mean score of 5.00 was ranked third and fourth respectively. This is because the respondents regard this avenue as a fast means of savings compared to the rigorous queue and delay in the banks. Also, their money is made available as at when due. Formal savings method (Bank) with 4.28 mean score was ranked fifth because of the nonavailability of bank in the rural communities, the delay encountered and the cumbersome saving procedures involved in bank transactions, while NON-ROSCAs with 3.36 mean score was ranked sixth Savings Avenue used by the respondents. The respondents claimed not having access to their money when they urgently need it, and this makes it difficult for them to use the medium at times. Relative/friends/neighbors at a distance had a mean score of 3.26 and were ranked seventh (7th) saving avenue by the respondents. Because the respondents noted that it's not safe to use this avenue due to insecurity and insincerity yet they still constitute a method of saving to the respondents. The result of this research complement the findings of Odoemenem *et al.,* (2013) that farmers make use of informal financial sectors to mobilize savings and develop their rural communities because it gives them access to loans that they cannot get from formal financial institutions due to lack of collateral security. Also, processors that use this avenue are likely to be beginners with small savings.

Table 6: Friedman's mean Rank Score of the Respondents Savings Avenue

Saving Avenue	Mean	Rank
Cooperative society	5.90	1st
Home savings	5.76	2nd
Daily Contributions	5.29	3rd
ROSCAs (ESUSU)	5.00	4th
Bank	4.28	5th
NON ROSCAs (Awidodun)	3.36	6th
Relatives/Friends/Neighbuors	3.26	7th

Source; field survey 2017

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i) Propensity to Save of Women Cassava Processors in Ekiti State

The annual income of the women cassava processors were use in the analysis, and it consists income from cassava processing and non-processing activities. Non-processing covers both earnings from other auxiliary activities engaged. The processors were asked to give what they were able to save from both processing and non-processing income; the result is presented in Table 7. The modal amount saved was ₦120,000 – 150,000 annually, the mean savings was ₦121,180 and the maximum savings was ₦300,000 per annum. The average propensity to save (APS) was approximately 0.25 implying that 25 percent of the annual income of the respondents was saved while 75 percent may go to consumption. The results affirmed the findings of Olofinsao, Oluwatusin, and Adekunmi (2016) that rural households have higher marginal propensity to consume (MPC).

$$\text{Average propensity to save (APS)} = \frac{\text{Average annual savings}}{\text{Average annual income}}$$

$$= \frac{₦121,180}{488,750} = 0.2479$$

In the same vein, The Marginal propensity to save (MPS) of respondents was analyzed using linear regression; the results presented in Table 8. The result shows that Marginal propensity to save is equal to ₦0.254 for every increase in the income, i.e., a ₦1 increase in income leads to ₦0.254 increase in savings of the respondents. The result indicates that savings capacity not only existed among the respondents, but the women cassava processor were saving.

Table 7: Distribution of respondents according to the Amount saved annually

Amount Saved		Frequency	Percentage
No Savings		7	3.9
<120,000		20	11.1
120,000 – 150,000		63	35.0
150,000 – 200,000		50	27.8
200,001 – 300,000		27	15
>300,000		13	7.2
Total		180	100
Mean	121,180		
Std deviation	52710.567		
Minimum	21,000		
Maximum	330,000		

Source: field survey 2017.

Table 8: Marginal Propensity to Save (MPS) of women cassava processors in Ekiti State

Variables	coefficients	Std. Error	T – values
Constant	46997	8930.1995.263	
Annual income	0.254*	0.016	15.575
	R^2	57.7	
	Adjusted R^2	57.4	

Source: Field survey 2017.

j) Factors Affecting the Marginal Propensity to Save (MPS) of Women Cassava Processors in Ekiti State

The results of the factors affecting the marginal propensity to save MPS of the respondents were shown in Table 9. It was gathered from the oral interview that the willingness and fulfillment derived from sending children to school, fulfillment of obligations to cater for family, investing in processing and farming activities for future gain and quest for personal upkeep are the factors affecting the respondents MPS. Therefore negates the findings of Osondu *et al* (2015) that the main constraints to the small holder farmers' inability to save are inadequacy of income and risk of losing it.

Table 4: Factors Affecting Marginal Propensity of Women Cassava Processor in Ekiti State

Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Child education	54	29.75
Household maintenance	56	30.63
Processing and farming activities	37	20.35
Personal upkeep	33	19.40
Total	180	100

Source: Field Survey, 2017

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k) Determinants of Savings among women cassava processors in Ekiti State

Table 10 shows the result of Two-Stage Least Square Estimates of saving function. The linear function was chosen as the lead equation because it exhibited better diagnostic test statistics than other models. The R^2 of the lead equation indicates that about 61.4 percent of the variability of processors' saving is attributed to the specified explanatory variables in the model. This shows that the specified explanatory variables were determinants of savings among the respondents. The F-statistic value of 45.4 is statistically significant at 1 percent probability level, suggesting that the R^2 and the estimated linear regression equation have the goodness of fit.

Specifically, the coefficient of age was negative and significant at 5.0% probability level. It shows that 1% increase in age of the processor would stir up the decrease in savings by ₦0.12 and it is in contrary to a priori expectation. It is likely that the women processors in the study area spend more as a result of responsibility that comes with age. This result corroborates the findings of Omonona (2009) who opined that at the early stage of life, earnings rise before gradually declining in later years and this is usually the case for households who are into energy-sapping occupations like cassava processing. Processing with crude implements which are a labor intensive decline with age. So as age increases, income shrinks, which automatically reduces per capita savings.

The educational level had a significant (negative) effect on saving of the women cassava processors in the study area at 10% significant level. It implies that 1% decrease in the number of years spent in school, would lead to ₦0.088 reduction in the amount saved. It is probable since majority of the respondents (67%) have low levels of formal education which may deprive them of certain benefits such as accessibility to loans from formal lending institutions, adoption of improved technology etc. The result complements the findings of Orebiyi, (2005) and Osondu *et al.* (2015) that significance of education on savings cannot be disregarded. Household size has a significant (negative) effect at 5% significant level on savings of the respondents, i.e., as household size increases, savings decrease. It may be credited to the fact that the respondents with larger household will have more mouth to feed i.e., the respondents will channel more of their income to consumption expenditure rather than savings. The result is in line with empirical results reported by Orebiyi (2005) that household with a smaller size has high tendency to save than larger ones.

Income has a significant positive effect at 1% level on the amount saved by the respondents suggesting that a Naira increase leads to a ₦0.78 increase in their savings. similar result has been obtained from Nigeria and other parts of the world by Adeyemo and Bamire, (2005); Ayanwale and Bamire, (2000); Horioka and Junmin (2007) in China; Abdelkhalek *et al.*, (2009) in Morocco and Kibet *et al.,*(2009) in Kenya.

The coefficient of the quantity of Garri processed is positive and statistically significant at 1% level. An indication that an increase in the quantity of cassava processed leads to #0.665 increases in the savings of the respondents. It confirms the *a priori* expectation that significant increase in the value and the magnitude of Garri brings an increase in income of the respondents. By extension increase the savings.

Table 10: Result of Two-Stage Least Square Estimates of Determinants of Savings Among Women Cassava Processors in Ekiti State

Determinants of savings	coefficients	Std. Error	T values
Constant	3908*	599.434	5.352
Age(x_1)	-0.122**	0.0487	-2.504
Education(x_2)	-0.088***	0.0038	-1.832
Household size(x_3)	-0.114**	0.0606	-2.378
Processing experience (x_4)	-0.008	0.0500	-0.160
Annual Income)x_5	0.779*	0.0479	16.259
Quantity of Garri processed (x_6)	0.655	0.0429	15.259
Member of coop association(x_7)	0.006	0.0472	0.127
R^2	0.614		
R^2 – Adjusted	0.600		
F – Stat.	45.386*		

Source: Field Survey, 2017.

*Note: *, ** and *** represent 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels respectively.*

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l) Relationship between Determinants of Savings and Marginal Propensity to Save

The Pearson correlation coefficient between the determinants of savings and marginal propensities to save among the women cassava processors ware presented in Table 11. From the result, the significance (negative) relationship between the quantity of Garri processed and annual income with the respondents MPS indicates that a decrease would lead to significant drop in the MPS. The magnitude of the reduction is ₦0.374 and ₦0.375 respectively. The null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the determinants of savings and marginal propensities to save among the women cassava processors was accepted. It was accepted because the majority of the variables has no significance relationship with the MPS.

Table 11: Pearson correlation between the determinants of savings and marginal propensities to save among the women cassava processors

Variables	MPS
Age	-0.128
	(0.088)
Household size	-0.105
	(0.159)
Education	-0.127
	(0.089)
Processing experience	0.036
	(0.631)
Quantity of Garri processed	-0.374**
	(0.000)
Annual income	-0.375**
	(0.000)
Member of socio-cultural organization	0.001
	(0.985)

Source: Field survey, 2017.
*Note ** means correlation significant at 1% level.*

IV. Conclusion and Policy Recommendation

Findings showed that women cassava processors in Ekiti State had an average saving propensity of 0.248 and marginal propensity to save of 0.254 all suggesting that the women processors had the potentials to save but seriously militated by low income, expenses on children education and some other domestic responsibilities they had to meet. All these increase their consumption tendency. The determinants of savings among them were age, educational status, household size and annual income. The processors depend mainly on non-formal saving methods because of the convenience despite the risk involved. Based on the findings of this study, it was recommended that government should subsidize modern cassava processing facilities to reduce processing cost and increase the income of the processors.

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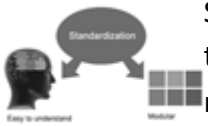
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9. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

10. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense to present those events that have happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate events that will happen in the future. Use of wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid sentences that are incomplete.

11. Pick a good study spot: Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

12. Know what you know: Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

13. Use good grammar: Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.

Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

14. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.
Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

19. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

20. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

21. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

22. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

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Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.



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Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.



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Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

The Administration Rules

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Topics	Grades		
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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