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Disaggregated Government Spending on Infrastructure and Poverty Reduction in Nigeria

By Osundina C. K., Ebere, Chidinma & Osundina, O.A

Babcock University, Nigeria

Abstract- This study examined the relationship between government spending on infrastructure and poverty reduction in Nigeria. Per capita income was used to proxy poverty reduction, government spending on infrastructure was proxied by; government spending on building and construction, government spending on transportation, government spending on education and government spending on health. Time series data of 43 years were employed and Augmented Dickey Fuller unit root test showed that the variables were not stationary at level but were stationary at first difference the order of integration was $I(1)$. The lag length as selected by Vector Autoregressive model was one. Vector Error Correction model showed that there was a long run relationship between government spending on infrastructure and poverty reduction in Nigeria. The regression result showed that government spending on building and construction has a positive and significant effect on poverty reduction in Nigeria, while government spending on transportation has a negative and significant effect on poverty reduction. The effect of government spending on education and health were insignificantly negative and positive respectively. It is recommended that the government of federal republic of Nigeria should increase spending on building and construction as poverty reduction responds to it brilliantly well.

Keywords: *infrastructure, government spending, poverty reduction, vector error correction.*

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Disaggregated Government Spending on Infrastructure and Poverty Reduction in Nigeria

Osundina C. K. ^α, Ebere, Chidinma ^σ & Osundina, O.A ^ρ

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1. INTRODUCTION

One of the major functions of a responsive government is to provide social/public goods like transportation, power supply, telecommunication, health, education, defense and so on for its citizens. Most of these responsibilities are carried out through spending/expenditures. Government expenditure is an important fiscal instrument recognized as an agent of growth in every economy. Infrastructure is the physical structure needed for the operation of a society. Infrastructure is synonymous to economic development: Roads, railways, and utility systems are needed in every economy, and the lack of infrastructure services signal barriers to growth and underdevelopment (Jones, 2006). Infrastructural development involves fundamental structures that are required for the functioning of a community and society and it has made a net contribution of around one percentage point to Nigeria's improved per capita growth performance recently likewise, Nigeria already spends \$5.9 billion per year on federal infrastructure, equivalent to about 5 percent of

GDP. Existing spending patterns are heavily skewed toward capital investment, with little provision for operations and maintenance and heavily dominated by power sector. Mostly, Information on the infrastructure spending of sub-national governments was not available, and so could not be assessed (Vivien & Nataliya, 2011). Poverty is one of the prominent issues in Nigeria owing to; rapid population growth, lack of good governance because of corruption, poor infrastructure, lack of food production capacity due to little or no concentration on agricultural sector, poor health facilities to mention a few.

Nigeria has a remarkable economic growth for the past decade but it has not reflected in combating the problem of poverty which happens to be the number one of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Various efforts have been made since 1972 to eradicate/reduce poverty in Nigeria such as: National Accelerated Food Production Programme and the Nigerian Agricultural and Co-operative Bank of 1972, Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) of 1976 targeted at teaching the rural farmers how to use modern farm implements, Green Revolution Programme of 1979 aimed at reducing food importation and increasing food production, Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) of 1986, Family support programme as well as Family Economic Advancement Programme of 1993 so also National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) of 2001. Despite these programmes 63% of Nigerians still leave in poverty. Capital expenditure is on the increase yet poverty rate is on the increase. In the 26 – page report released by National Bureau of Statistics, the detail of poverty and income distribution across the country was given explicitly and out of the major findings and categorization from the survey we have the following:

The measurement of Relative poverty which is defined by reference to the standard of living of majority in a given society for Nigeria was 54.4% in 2004, but increased to 69% in 2010. The North-West and North – East geo-political zones in Nigeria recorded the highest poverty rates of 77.7% and 76.3% respectively in 2010. Sokoto state has the highest poverty rate among Nigerian states of 86.4% while Niger state has the lowest of 43.6%. The absolute poverty rate (defined in terms of the minimal requirement necessary to afford minimal standards of food, clothing, healthcare and shelter) in Nigeria was 54.7% but increased to 60.9% in 2010.

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Using the Dollar –per-day shows that 51.6% of Nigerians were living below US\$1 per day in 2004, but this increased to 61.2% in 2010. Using subjective method, 75.5% of Nigerians considered themselves to be poor in 2004 and in 2010, the number went up to 93.9%. Using various economic models, for completeness and to guide policy, NBS estimates that poverty level may rise slightly from 2011. The survey suggests rising income inequality in Nigeria using Gini – coefficient.

Globally, Nigeria ranks low in the quality of its infrastructure which impacts the ease of doing business. Low investments in transportation have resulted in the current infrastructural deficit. Key challenges include inadequate investment and poor management of transport infrastructure – which have created a huge infrastructural deficit (Igwe, C.N., Oyelola, O.T., Ajiboshin I.O., Raheem S., 2013).

Most poor people of the world reside in rural areas, which are frequently characterized by low levels of public infrastructure, especially roads. Inadequate roads raise transport costs, limiting the use poor people can make of local markets for the sale of their produce, the purchase of consumer goods and opportunities for off-farm employment. Access to educational and health facilities, where they exist, is also constrained when it is difficult to reach them (Peter, 2005).

From the above, it has been widely researched that economic infrastructure is critical for economic growth and poverty reduction, giving its pivotal role in improving competitiveness; facilitating both domestic and international trade, and integration of continent to the global economy. Government spending is on the increase as well as poverty in Nigeria. Hence, the need to establish, the association between them, as well as the possible effects of governments spending on infrastructure through Building and construction, transport, education and health on poverty in Nigeria.

In order to establish this relationship, this paper is divided into five major parts; the first section deals with introduction of the study, followed by literature review, methodology, analysis and finally, discussion of findings.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A lot of works have been done on government expenditure and economic growth in Nigeria, some of the recent ones are: Abu & Abdullahi, (2010); Ogun T.P. (2010); Oluwatobi & Ogunrinola, (2011); Edame, (2014); Ogundipe & Oluwatobi (nd); Chude & Chude, (2013); Taiwo & Agbatogun, (2011); Adewara & Oloni, (2012); Akpokerere & Ighoroje (2013); Robinson, Erawoke & Ukavwe, (2014); Oyinola & Akinnibosun, (2013); Amassoma, Nwosa & Ajisafe (2011); Aruwa, (2010); Usman, Mobolaji, Kilishi, Yaru & Yakubu (2011); Habib & Stephen (1999) and a host of others. While a few out of which we have: Akinlabi, Jegede & Kehinde (2011);

Vivien et.al (2011) also, Okonjo-Iweala and Osafo-Kwaako (2007); Ogun (2010), Igwe et.al (2013) have examined government expenditure on infrastructure and poverty reduction. Shenggen, Peter & Sukhadeo (1998) equally examined government spending, growth and poverty in rural India. Researchers like Fasoranti (2012); Nworji and Oluwalaiye (2012); have examined the link between government expenditure on infrastructure and economic growth in Nigeria. There are three views regarding investment in infrastructure and poverty reduction: the first one argues that investment in social infrastructure, which includes investment in education and health, is more relevant to the goal of poverty reduction rather than physical infrastructure (Jahan & Mccleery, 2005). Ogun (2010) also submit that investment in social infrastructure has greater potential to reduce poverty than investment in physical infrastructure in Nigeria. The second view holds that both physical and social infrastructure can reduce poverty by linking poverty reduction to growth of an economy. While the third view holds that investment in infrastructure has no effect on poverty reduction. Ali and pernia (2003) used road, electricity and irrigation to measure physical infrastructure focusing on rural poverty and discovered that road transport has a more significant effect on poverty reduction than electricity because the cost of acquisition and maintenance of it comes from households. Therefore, the poor may not be able to afford it. However, they observed that weak governance and institutions permit corruption, distorted public investment choices, and neglected maintenance, which in turn lowering infrastructures contribution to economic growth and diverting benefits intended for the poor. Generally, there is now wider recognition that if governance and institutional frameworks are strengthened, the linkage between infrastructure and reduction of poverty can become stronger.

The study of Kwon (2005) on infrastructure, growth and poverty reduction in Indonesia shows that road investment improves the performance of provincial economic growth in poverty reduction. Government investments that were considered were irrigation, roads, health, science and technology, agriculture and forestry, and education. They include macroeconomic variables such as; regional production, agricultural employment, non-agricultural employment, agricultural production, and real wages. Peter (2005), in his study on road development and rural poverty in Lao shows that all-weather road has a positive and highly significant effect on poverty. During the period under consideration, Lao experienced about 13% decline in poverty incidence as a result of road development.

a) Empirical Review

Abu and Abdullahi (2010) used a disaggregated analysis of government expenditure having total capital expenditure, total recurrent expenditure, government

expenditure on education, government expenditure on transport and communication and government expenditure on health as measure of expenditure. They found that total capital expenditure, total recurrent expenditure and government expenditure on education have negative effect on economic growth. In the same vein, Mauro (1998) in his examination of composition of government expenditure discovered that corruption lowers expenditure on education and perhaps on health. Igwe et.al (2013) identified poor maintenance city planning as problems facing road infrastructure in Nigeria. In the work of Amassoma et.al (2011), while using error correction modeling to determine the linkage between components of government spending and economic growth in Nigeria, they used components of government expenditure such as; agriculture, education, health, transport and communication and found that expenditure on agriculture had a significant effect on economic growth in Nigeria while expenditure on education, health and transport and communication had insignificant influence on economic growth. They recommended that, there is need for an increase in the budgetary allocation to the agricultural sector and also initiate incentives that can promote the activities of rural farmers in promoting output growth of the sector. The monetary authorities should bridge the widened gap existing between lending rate and deposit rate to enhance agricultural output in Nigeria. The continuous decline in budgetary allocation to the education and health sector should be reverse as this would act as a catalyst to improve performance of the sectors and ultimately impact on the aggregate economy. There is the need for the government to redirect their excessive government revenue in the maintenance of government official both in the house of senate and house to representative to these pivotal sectors of the economy. Such redirection of fund would bring about improve performance of the sectors (Amassoma et.al. 2011).

Akinlabi et al (2011) examined public infrastructure as an approach to poverty alleviation and economic growth in Nigeria. They adopted Vector Autoregressive (VAR) framework. They equally used real per capital expenditure on economic service and real per capital income on social and economic services as proxy to infrastructure they used level of fiscal deficit to proxy quality of governance with the assumption that in any economy where level of infrastructure leads to poverty alleviation, the quality of governance must be a contributing factor. They found out that; public infrastructure granger causes poverty alleviation directly through economic growth, fiscal deficit does not granger cause poverty alleviation and they concluded that, continuous increase in public infrastructure through increase in capital expenditure on economic, social and community service and qualitative governance will alleviate poverty in Nigeria. The introduction of improved infrastructure on both roads and electrification has

contributed to agricultural growth in India and thereby, reduce poverty (Shenggen, et al 1998).

While the capacity to formulate sound public policies for urban development and housing is not lacking, consistent failures of institutions and political structures, corruption and corrupt practices have hindered the successful implementation and actualization of such policies in the country (Onakuse & Leniyan, 2007). Many builders' cut-corners to get their building plans approved, thereby neglecting the safety codes as enshrined in the building plan. Although bribes are not taken by planning officials to grant unlawful development permits, officials do tacitly overlook planning and building contraventions for pecuniary gains. The absence of standardized training for artisans engaged in the construction industry is another fundamental cause of construction defects which culminate in disaster risks. Eighty percent of artisans in the construction industry are not certified and unskilled (Ede, 2011), (Aniekwu & Ozochi, 2010), (Kayode et.al 2008) as cited in Adelekan (2013).

Adewara and Oloni (2012) explored the relationship between the composition of public expenditure and economic growth in Nigeria between 1960 and 2008 using the Vector Autoregressive models (VAR). Their findings shows that expenditure on education has failed to enhance economic growth due to the high rate of rent seeking in the country as well as the growing rate of unemployment. They also found that expenditure on health and agriculture contributed positively to growth.

Fasoranti (2012), examined the effect of government expenditure on infrastructure on the growth of Nigerian economy. She used government expenditures on education, government expenditure on environment and housing, health services, transport and communication, agriculture, security, inflation rate as explanatory variables and gross domestic product as explained variable. Some of the findings include; long run relationship between the growth of the economy and government expenditures in education, environment and housing, health services, water resources, inflation rate, agriculture, security, transport and communication. The paper observed that government expenditures on health services, transport and communication imparted negatively on growth while expenditures in agriculture and security were not significant in the growth of the economy.

III. METHODOLOGY

For this study, Per Capita Income (PCI) was used to proxy welfare which in turn means reduction in poverty, Government Spending on Road Transport (GSRT), Government Spending on Building and Construction (GSBC), Government Expenditure on Education (GEE) and Government Expenditure on Health (GEH) were used as proxy for government

expenditure on infrastructure. The data used are secondary in nature from National Bureau of Statistics annual data and statistical bulletin of central bank of Nigeria. The research design adopted for this study is time series and the scope of this study is from 1970 to 2012 (43 years) both years inclusive. Ordinary Least Square (OLS) estimation method was used with regression analytical method. Some diagnostic tests like unit root test, co-integration test and vector error correction model were employed to ascertain stationarity, order of integration and possibility of long run effect of expenditure on infrastructure on poverty reduction in Nigeria. These tests are necessary to ensure that the regression results are not spurious.

Using Keynesian definition of aggregate output, the functional relationship is as follows;

$$PCI = f(GSRT, GSBC, GEE, GEH) \text{ ----- eqn 1}$$

The multiple linear regression equation is stated in eqn 2 as follows;

$$PCI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GSRT + \beta_2 GSBC + \beta_3 GEE + \beta_4 GEH + \mu \text{ ----- eqn 2}$$

Taking the natural log of equation 2 we have;

$$LNPCI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 LNGSRT + \beta_2 LNGSBC + \beta_3 LNGEE + \beta_4 LNGEH + E_t \text{ ----- eqn 3}$$

The general error correction model adopted for this study is;

$$\Delta LNPCI_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \Delta LNGSRT_t + \beta_2 \Delta LNGSBC_t + \beta_3 \Delta LNGEE_t + \beta_4 \Delta LNGEH_t + ECM_{t-1} + E_t \text{ ----- eqn 4}$$

Where,

PCI = Per Capita Income

GSRT = Government Spending on Road Transport

GSBC = Government Spending on Building and Construction

GEE = Government Expenditure on Education

GEH = Government Expenditure on Health

A priori Expectations

$$\frac{\Delta PCI}{\Delta GSRT} > 0, \quad \frac{\Delta PCI}{\Delta GSBC} > 0, \quad \frac{\Delta PCI}{\Delta GEE} > 0,$$

$$\frac{\Delta PCI}{\Delta GEH} > 0,$$

The above expressions mean that we expect their coefficients to be greater than zero. That is, non-negative. We expect that an increase in expenditure on road transportation should increase the per capita income which should alleviate poverty, an increase in expenses on road will make the road more motor able

and increase the trade within the country, thereby alleviate poverty. Likewise, an increase in expenditure on building and construction should increase per capita income. Also, an increase in expenses on education will bring about an increase in human capital formation which will reduce poverty in line with Maku (2009), when he regressed real GDP on private investment, human capital investment, government investment and consumption spending. An increase in expenditure on health will improve the health of the people by providing first aids, maternity homes, hospitals etc. this will increase the productivity of the people and reduction of poverty.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The unit root test showed that all the variables were not stationary at levels but were stationary at first difference as shown below. This test is necessary for econometric model and to make proper inference, also economic theory suggests that certain variables should be integrated (Bo, 2008).

Table 4.1 : Unit root test at level

Variab les	ADF	Critic al Value (1%)	Probabil ity	Level of Significan ce	Remar k
GEE	6.438 3	- 3.615 5	1.0000	0.05	Non- stationa ry
GSRT	0.232 6	- 3.596 6	1.0000	0.05	Non- stationa ry
GSBC	2.958 2	- 3.596 6	1.0000	0.05	Non- stationa ry
PCI	1.153 7	- 2.621 1	0.9334	0.05	Non- stationa ry
GEH	3.822 7	- 2.634 7	0.9999	0.05	Non- stationa ry

Table 4.2 : Unit root test at first difference

Variab les	ADF	Critic al Value	Probabil ity	Level of significan ce	Remar k
GEE	- 4.854 7	- 3.601 0	0.0000	0.05	Stationa ry
GSRT	- 7.437 6	- 3.601 0	0.0003	0.05	Stationa ry
GSBC	- 6.324 7	- 2.622 6	0.0000	0.05	Stationa ry
PCI	- 7.209	- 6.864	0.0000	0.05	Stationa ry

	7	1			
GEH	-	-	0.0000	0.05	Stationary
	4.5618	5.4247			

Table 4.3 : Johansen Co-integration test result

Hypothesized	Eigen Value	Trace statistic	0.05 critical value	Probability
$r = 0$	0.6696	93.8953	69.8189	0.0002
$r \leq 1$	0.4608	48.4886	47.8561	0.0435

Trace test indicate 2 co-integration equations at 0.05 levels of significance, while max-eigen indicates 1 co – integrating equation at 0.05 levels of significance. These indicate that a long run equilibrium relationship exists between dependent variables (PCI) and independent variables (GEE, GSRT, GSBC, GEH).

Table 4.4 : Static long run equation of poverty reduction

Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	Probability
C	53440.08	1867.34	28.6184	0.0000
LNGSBC	2.8599	0.8090	3.5352	0.0011
LNGSRT	-1.6249	0.4152	-3.9137	0.0004
LNGEE	0.0938	0.0809	1.1597	0.2534
LNGEH	-0.0997	0.1230	-0.8112	0.4223

$$R^2 = 0.70, DW = 0.51, F\text{-Statistic} = 22.2917 (0.00000)$$

Table 4.4 shows that government spending on building and construction has a positive and significant effect on poverty reduction in Nigeria as expected, while government spending on road transport has a negative and significant effect on poverty reduction in Nigeria contrary to the a priori expectation. Government spending on education has a positive and insignificant effect on poverty reduction in Nigeria so also, the relationship between government expenditure on health and poverty reduction is negative and insignificant. The model is reliable in showing the relationship between government spending on infrastructure and poverty reduction in Nigeria.

Table 4.5 : Results of Vector Error Correction model of poverty reduction in Nigeria

D(PCI) Dependent variable	
Constant	2083.9 (638.003) [3.266]
LN(GSBC)(-1)	-1.7249 (0.8275) [-2.0846]
LN(GSRT(-1)	0.6205 (0.4871) [1.2741]
LN(GEE(-1)	-0.0550 (0.0433) [-1.2700]
LN(GEH(-1)	-0.0789 (0.0731) [-1.0802]
ECM(-1)	-0.5173 (0.0606) [-2.3655]

() denotes standard error

[] denotes t statistics

The above table shows that the coefficient of ECM conforms to the a priori expectation in that the coefficient is negative and lies between 0 and 1. This is also in line with the result of co integration test that there exist a long run relationship between government spending on infrastructure as measured by; building and construction, road transportation, education, health and poverty reduction in Nigeria but the relationship is insignificant.

V. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND POLICY IMPLICATION

This study examined the long run relationship between government expenditure on infrastructure and poverty reduction in Nigeria. Time series data of 43 years were obtained from CBN statistical bulletin and Augmented Dickey Fuller unit root test showed that all the variables (dependent and independent) are not stationary at level but were stationary at first difference. This is the reason why the natural logarithm of the data was used so that the result will not be spurious. There exists a long run relationship between government spending on infrastructure and poverty reduction in Nigeria this result is in line with the result of Akinlabi et al (2011), Shenggen et al (1998) though, the variables used were different. The regression result showed that government spending on building and construction has a positive and significant effect on PCI (poverty reduction) in Nigeria. The result is expected because an

increase in expenditure on building and construction will increase employment rate and per capita income will increase. The submission of Igwe et al (2013) equally applies to this paper because an improvement on building and construction will alleviate poverty. Unlike the result of Peter (2005) which he carried out in Lau, government spending on transport has a negative and significant impact on poverty reduction in Nigeria. This can be due to corruption level which has rendered almost all the economic theories inapplicable to the nation. The reasons given by Fasoranti (2012) out of which we have; poor management, poor funding, misappropriation of fund, inadequate modern technology and so on may also apply to this situation. Government expenditure on education has a positive but insignificant effect on poverty reduction in Nigeria and government expenditure on health has negative and insignificant effect on poverty reduction in Nigeria. Adewara and Oloni (2012) found that expenditure on education has failed to enhance growth so also, in this study, poverty reduction has failed to respond to government expenditure on education. The result of GEE and GEH also did not comply with a priori expectation. Generally, the model is statistically significant. That is, government spending on infrastructure has a significant impact on poverty reduction in Nigeria and the model is fit to explain poverty situation in the country. About 70% of the variation in per capita income (poverty reduction) can be explained by variation in government expenditure on infrastructure in form of building and construction, transport, education and health. Policies to increase spending on building and construction should be implemented as poverty reduction responds to it positively. Government spending on education should also be increased, since it can alleviate poverty as human capital formation improves the economy. The transportation sector of Nigeria needs monitoring and urgent attention because an increase in spending on transport should alleviate poverty and not otherwise. Policies should then be put in place to ensure achievement of desired result.

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GJHSS-E Classification : *JEL Code: I39*



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I. INTRODUCTION

The ultimate objective of development endeavors and policies in developing countries is the eradication of poverty. Particularly today poverty in Africa is the primary development challenge facing the continent. Poverty in this continent is pervasive, intensive, chronic, gender-biased and largely a rural phenomenon. Poverty in Africa has been described as mostly a rural phenomenon not only because the majority of the population live in rural areas but also because of the distribution of economic activity between rural and urban areas (Simon, 1999).

The incidence of female headship is believed to have increased worldwide and, in both developed and developing countries, a high proportion of these households are found to suffer from poverty. Thus female-headed households have become an easily identifiable group on which to target poverty alleviation measures. However, the efficacy of such targeting has

been widely questioned (Quisumbing et al., 2009). Female headship results from a variety of causes: widowhood, divorce and de facto headship, arising, for instance, from the illness of a spouse or his migration to an urban area to find work. More work is needed to understand the relationship of forms of female headship to access to resources and the consequential effects on the ability to improve the household's position. Only when such links are documented can poverty alleviation measures be effectively and efficiently targeted (King et.al, 2000). The different roles, rights and resources that men and women have in society are an important determinant of the nature and scope of poverty. Access to income and assets, housing, transport and basic services is influenced by gender-based constraints and opportunities (Masika,et.al, 2002).

Gender empowerment is an important and appropriate instrument for enhancing gender roles in sustainable rural development. Over years the government of Ethiopia has made efforts to empower women in decision-making processes in order to facilitate the attainment of the country's sustainable development goals. The establishment of the Women's Affairs Office in the country and the formulation of a national policy on women, which entitles and ensures women's right to property, employment and pension illustrate the commitment of the government to gender empowerment (UNDP, 2012). Nevertheless, gender empowerment in the country is facing a number major constraints, including the low level of consciousness by the population about the roles played by women in the development of the country; the deep-rooted cultural beliefs and traditional practices that prevent women from fully participating in the development process of the country; lack of appropriate technology to reduce the workload of women at the household level; and the shortage of qualified female development agents to help motivate and empower rural women.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Much of what is known about gender aspects of rural poverty is derived from micro-studies; there is a general absence of data disaggregated by sex, a prerequisite for recognition of the role of women in agriculture and the economy as a whole (World Survey, 1994). There seems to be little dispute over the fact that Female Headed Households are usually disadvantaged in terms of access to land, livestock, other assets,

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credit, education, health care and extension services. For instance, in Zimbabwe, female-headed households have 30-50% smaller landholdings than male-headed households. There are similar findings on Malawi and Namibia. In Ethiopia Female Headed Households are more illiterate and unemployed with most of them concentrating in informal sector activities, by that they are female heads has an impact on the welfare or poverty status of the households through affecting their level of education and employment status (Meron, 2009).

Moreover, in order to assess the situation of female headed households in comparison to male headed ones a static poverty assessment is not sufficient (Buvinic and Gupta, 1997). Even if female headed households are not poorer, they may be more vulnerable to poverty as they face higher risks and/or have fewer options for ex ante and ex post coping strategies. Therefore, we include the vulnerability to poverty of households as another dimension of wellbeing in our analysis. Although it is commonly stated that female headed households are more vulnerable to poverty than households headed by men in terms of shocks and downside risks, little is known about this issue empirically. There are relatively few empirical studies on vulnerability to poverty and almost none of them focus on this particular point.

Thus, study on analysis of vulnerability to poverty in female headed households in rural Ethiopia makes it instructive and important from both an academic and a practical perspective, which is the purpose of this study.

III. OBJECTIVES

1. Identify the determinants of vulnerability to poverty of Female Headed Households in rural Ethiopia, and
2. Measure the vulnerability to poverty of Female Headed Households in Rural Ethiopia

IV. MATERIALS AND METHODS

To accomplish the objective of the study a quantitative dataset from the Ethiopian Rural Household Survey is used. The Ethiopian Rural Household Survey was collected by the Department of Economics of Addis Ababa University, Oxford University and International Food Policy Research Institute. It is a rich dataset that comes in seven rounds: round one (1994a), round two (1994b), round three (1995), round four (1997), round

five (1999), round six (2004), and round seven (2009). For the purpose of this study the data set from 1999-2009 is used.

The ERHS consists of core modules that provide detailed information on household demographics, assets, and agricultural income. It also provides information on ownership of land and livestock and crop production and it includes modules that provide information on consumption, health, and women's activities. However, interpretation of results has to take into account that the data is not (and was not intended to be) nationally representative since pastoralist and urban areas are not included (Bilisuma, 2010)

The standard tools for assessing the correlates of vulnerability to poverty are multivariate consumption expenditure regressions (World Bank, 2012). These regressions can also estimate the partial correlation coefficients between consumption expenditure per adult equivalent and the included explanatory variables. An alternative to exploring the correlates of vulnerability to poverty by using per adult equivalent consumption expenditure as the endogenous variable is to perform categorical data analysis such as Probit, Logit or Tobit. Such response models are often used when a dependent variable takes one of a number of discrete values and simulations can conveniently demonstrate how much the likelihood of being poor is reduced if an exogenous variable such land ownership were to change (Bogale et al., 2005). These models estimate the probabilities of being poor using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) while accounting for the discrete nature of the dependent variable (Greene, 2002).

The vulnerability to poverty measure proposed by Chaudhuri (2003), Chaudhuri et al. (2002), Suryahadi and Sumarto (2003) and Azam and Imai (2009) is be used. Hence, there is a need to develop a method for estimating household consumption variance from cross-section data. This, however, obviously requires relatively strong assumptions about the stochastic process generating consumption. Vulnerability to poverty in this context is defined as expected poverty, or in other words as the probability that a household's consumption will lie below the predetermined poverty line in the near future. Hence, following Chaudhuri (2003) and Azam (2009), for a given household, the vulnerability to poverty is defined as the probability of its consumption being below the poverty line in the future

$$V_{ht} = pr(\ln c_{ht} < \ln z) \text{ ----- (1)}$$

Where V_{ht} vulnerability of household h , C_{ht} denotes the per capita consumption of household h and z stands for the poverty line (national poverty line or food

poverty line) of household consumption. The probability that a household will find itself poor depends not only on its expected (mean) consumption but also on the volatility (i.e., variance, from an inter-temporal

perspective) of its consumption stream. Therefore, both estimates (household expected consumption and the variance of its consumption) are required to quantify the

level of household's vulnerability to poverty. Assuming that for household h the data generation process for consumption is captured by the following equation:

$$\ln c_{ht} = X_{ht} \beta + \varepsilon_h \quad (2)$$

Where c_{ht} stands for per capita consumption for household h , X_{ht} represents a vector of observable household characteristics as such as household size, gender of household head, educational attainment of the head of household etc, β is a vector of parameters, and ε_h is mean-zero disturbance term that captures household's idiosyncratic factors (shocks) contributing to differential level of per capita consumption for households that share the same characteristics. The vulnerability to poverty of household h with characteristics X_{ht} can now be calculated by:

$$\hat{V}_{ht} = \hat{pr}(\ln c_{ht} < \ln z | X_{ht}) = \phi \left[\frac{\ln c_{ht} - X_{ht} \hat{\beta}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right] \quad (3)$$

Where \hat{V}_{ht} denotes predicted vulnerability to poverty, that is the probability that the per capita consumption level (c_{ht}) will be lower than the poverty line (z) conditional on household characteristics X_{ht} . $X_{ht} \hat{\beta}$, household's expected log consumption calculated from equation (2). Meanwhile, $\phi(\cdot)$ denotes the cumulative density of the standard normal distribution and $\hat{\sigma}$ is the standard error of the error term in (2).

Finally, the estimates of β and θ obtained through this FGLS method can be used to estimate the vulnerability to poverty of household h through the following generalization of the equation (4):

$$\hat{V}_{ht} = \phi \left[\frac{\ln c_{ht} - X_{ht} \hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{X_{ht} \hat{\theta}_{ij}}} \right] \quad (4)$$

This is an ex ante vulnerability measure that can be estimated by cross-sectional data. Equation (3) will provide the probability of a household becoming poor given the present distribution of consumption. A merit of this vulnerability measure is that it can be estimated by cross-sectional data. However, the measure correctly reflects a household's vulnerability only if the distribution of consumption across households, given the household characteristics at one time, represents the time-series variation of consumption of the household. Hence this measure requires a large sample in which some households experience a good period and others suffer from negative shocks.

V. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The study focused on the conditions of vulnerability to poverty and the related determinant factors of female headed households in rural Ethiopia. The data is analyzed by both descriptive statistics and econometric analysis techniques. The descriptive methods are employed to explain the level and extent of vulnerability to poverty for female headed households among the different demographic and socio economic variables in the study area. To have deep insights whether there is feminization of poverty or not a comparative view of the status of Female Headed Households is made with that of Male Headed Households. The econometric analyses enlighten the determining factors for vulnerability to poverty of female headed households hence give empirical evidences for the basic research questions of the study.

Table 1 : Entry into poverty and exit from poverty from 1999-2009

Entry into and exit from poverty	M	F	Total
Non-poor Entry to poverty in 2004	23.20	22.92	23.06
Non-poor Entry to poverty in 2009	35.12	37.15	36.14
Poor Exit from poverty in 2004	22.66	21.35	22.01
Poor Exit from poverty in 2009	19.01	18.58	18.795

Source: Author's own computation based on ERHS 1999-2009 data

23.2% of Male Headed Households and 22.92% of Female Headed Households who were non poor in 1999 became poor in 2004. That is on average 23.06% of households entered in to poverty. During this time period 22.66% of Male Headed Households and 21.35% of Female Headed Households also exit from poverty. That is they were in poverty in 1999 and became non-poor in 2004. Though it seems that during 2004 the proportion of Female Headed Households who entered to poverty is slightly less than that of Male Headed Households, the proportion of Female Headed Households who exit poverty in 2004 is less than that of Male Headed Households. This indicates that Female Headed Households face more difficulty to move out of poverty when compared to Male Headed Households. Though the incidence of poverty is relatively lower in Female Headed Households when compared with Male Headed Households, the Female Headed Households are more vulnerable (high probability to fall in to poverty than Male Headed Households). When we compare the entry and exit or the dynamism of in to and out of poverty the number of those who are entering poverty is relatively higher than the number of those who exit poverty. This indicates that there is high vulnerable non poor (who are more probable to be poor in the near future) and poverty reduction strategies should also focus on highly vulnerable non poor.

An attempt has been made in this study to estimate vulnerability to poverty using the latest available household panel data. Using the representative panel data, vulnerability to poverty is estimated. Vulnerability to poverty computed as a probability that the household's welfare will be less than a given threshold (poverty line) next period. Using the method specified in the methodology part of this paper (equation 5) an estimate of vulnerability for each household is generated. The poverty line used in the estimation is the already described absolute total poverty line. The results summarize vulnerability to poverty (i.e., the probability that a household will be poor), and amongst the vulnerable we distinguish those whom we call the relatively low vulnerable (i.e., those who have an estimated vulnerability level less than 0.5); and those whom we call the highly vulnerable because we expect that they are more likely to experience poverty (i.e., those who have an estimated vulnerability level of greater than 0.5). A regression model of the relationship

between a household's consumption level and its characteristics is estimated. However, as some types of households may experience bigger fluctuations in their consumption levels than others, the residual error term of the regression is allowed (which considers transitory fluctuations among other things) also to vary with (a potentially different set of) household characteristics. This model is used as the basis for assessing vulnerability of households to poverty.

Following (Azami, 2009) Households with vulnerability index greater or equal to 0.5 are grouped as "high vulnerable group" (HVG) and households with vulnerability index less than 0.5 are grouped as "low vulnerable group" (LVG). Non poor households with vulnerability index greater or equal to 0.5 are grouped as high vulnerable non poor (HVNP). On average 38 percent of households out of the total sampled households are highly vulnerable to poverty (has a vulnerability index greater or equal to 0.5 or has a probability of 50 percent and above to fall in to poverty in the near future) and 16.38 percent of the non poor are highly vulnerable to poverty. But based on the recent data used for this study only 35.26 percent of households in rural Ethiopia are poor in the year 2009. This shows that expected poverty is much higher than the point-in-time estimates of poverty, which connote the importance of forward looking poverty analysis. Arguably, this indicates that point-in-time estimate poverty might be underestimated and vulnerability to poverty should be considered in targeting poverty reduction.

Moreover table 2 summarizes the mean vulnerability for different group of households. The mean vulnerability of households with vulnerability index greater or equal to 0.5 (HVG) is found to be 38% for rural Ethiopia. This means highly vulnerable households who are not currently poor have on average a probability of 38 to fall in to poverty and highly vulnerable poor households have a probability of 0.38 to remain poor. The mean vulnerability for all households is also high (0.29). This means the households have a probability of 29% to be poor or remain poor. The mean vulnerability for Female Headed Households is higher than that of Male Headed Households. This shows that Female Headed Households are more vulnerable to poverty than Male Headed Households.

Table 2 : Category of households in to relative vulnerability group

Vulnerability index	1999			2004			2009		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Vh>=0.5	26.06	28.16	26.53	26.49	26.96	26.725	43.84	37.24	40.54
Vh<0.5	73.94	71.84	73.47	73.5	73.04	73.27	55.92	62.76	59.34

Source: Author's own computation based on ERHS 1999-2009 data

To identify the possible determinants of the vulnerability to poverty for female headed households the vulnerability index is used in classifying female headed households as highly vulnerable and low vulnerable. When the vulnerability to poverty is greater or equal to 0.5 the household is grouped as high

vulnerable group which takes the value of 1 and 0 otherwise (when the vulnerability index is less than 0.5 for the group) as dependent variable is estimated using the same explanatory variables used to identify the determinants of poverty by the logistic estimation.

Table 3 : logistic estimation for determinants of vulnerability to poverty

Probability to be poor	1999		2004		2009	
	Coefficient	T statistics	Coefficient	T statistics	Coefficient	T value
HHAGEF	0.0512467	1.46	0.007623	1.56	-0.0259597	-2.34
HHAGE2F	-0.000328	-0.82	-0.017042	-1.65*	-0.217557	-27.8***
HHSIZEF	-0.985273	-2.73 ***	0.4830301	9.14	0.0005212	0.71
HHSIZE2F	0.0446389	1.73	-0.5028173	-2.06 ***	-0.1824848	-0.58
LANDF	-0.15962	-4.28***	-0.0167	-0.75	-0.076259	-0.45
TLUF	0.2269048	2.11 ***	-0.1804487	-3.74 ***	0.1949831	2.10***
OXENF	-0.30914	-1.29	-0.4232148	-2.44 ***	0.2072659	1.13
ILITERATEFD2	0.09961	12.61***	0.023275	1.15	0.2686651	1.14
CONSTANT	3.023923	2.49	2.318365	7.61	1.001373	1.61

* Significant at the 1% level; **Significant at the 5% level; ***Significant at the 10% level

On average age square of female headed household has a negative sign and significant. This indicates that on average as the age of the female headed household increases after certain years vulnerability to poverty increases. This is as expected because as age the head increase the household acquires more skill, experience and accumulated asset that tends to decrease vulnerability to poverty. The coefficient for household size has positive sign which confirm that household size exerts more pressure on consumption than it contributes to production. This show as household size increases the vulnerability to poverty increase. But the square of household size has negative sign that shows increment of household size after a certain level negatively affects the household probability to be poor. This means current large family size can be a good labor force for the household in the future that reduces the vulnerability to poverty.

Compared to the base category illiterate head of household has high vulnerability to poverty. This is as expected because the more the household head is educated the more probable the household to use modern agricultural technologies and better cope with risk and uncertainty which reduces the probability to fall in to poverty in the future. Livestock ownership, oxen and land holding have significant effect on vulnerability to poverty reduction as the coefficient for each is negative and significant. This is in line with the expectation as asset ownership or accumulation has negative effect on vulnerability to poverty.

Livestock ownership, oxen and land holding have significant effect on reducing poverty as the coefficient for each is negative in vulnerability to poverty estimations. This is in line with the expectation that as

asset ownership or accumulation has negative effect on vulnerability to poverty. The coefficients for household heads illiteracy is positive and significant. This implies that current educational achievement of the household not only reduce current poverty status but also decrease the likelihood of vulnerable to poverty.

VI. CONCLUSION

An estimate of vulnerability to poverty shows that 38 percent of households out of the total sampled households are highly vulnerable to poverty and 16.38 percent of the non poor are highly vulnerable to poverty. The mean vulnerability for highly vulnerable female headed households is found to be 0.38 for rural Ethiopia. This reveals that on average the sampled households with high vulnerability index have the probability of 0.38 to fall in to poverty. The mean vulnerability for all households is also high (0.29). Most of the findings in the descriptive analysis are consistence with the result obtained from multivariate model. Similarly the probability of being poor is on average higher for female headed households relative to the male headed households. On the other hand, literacy of household head, livestock ownership and land holding has negative effect on poverty. In general, households with large family size and illiterate head, less livestock owned and land holding are more likely to be poor than other household heads.

Logit model for determinants for of vulnerability to poverty shows that households with large family size, illiterate head, small land holding and less livestock ownership significantly increase the probability of the Female Headed Households to be poor. It seems that

the determinants of poverty and vulnerability to poverty are similar since those variables that have significant effect on poverty also have significant effect on vulnerability to poverty.

VII. RECOMMENDATION

Variables such as household size, household head education, the household head ownership of land and oxen are proved to be major determinants of poverty and vulnerability to poverty in rural Ethiopia. Lack of education is extremely significant in explaining poverty and vulnerability to poverty since Female Headed Households headed by person having higher level education are significantly better poised to cope with risk and uncertainty. So to address the issue of illiteracy investment in human capital has paramount significance in poverty alleviation in rural Ethiopia. Particular emphasis also should be given to adult education since majority of the adults are illiterate households with larger family size, less livestock owned and land holding are more likely to be poor than other household heads. Accordingly, current government policy to increase lands and labor productivity and increasing awareness among rural women in using family planning to reduce fertility should be encouraged.

In designing policies one should take note of the varying nature of poverty and vulnerability among Female Headed Households. For the chronically poor who lack economic assets, priority should be given to reduction of consumption fluctuations and building up assets through a combination of protective and promotional programs. Access to financial services, for example, through micro credit programs, might help poor households build up assets as it could smooth income and consumption, enable the purchase of inputs and productive assets, and provide protection against crises. On the other hand, the transient poor and high vulnerable non-poor households are most likely to benefit from some combination of prevention, protection, and promotion which would give them a more secure base to diversify their activity into higher return, higher risk activities.

Therefore poverty reduction strategies should place ahead the importance of social protection and promotion programs for ensuring inclusiveness in the development process so that growth becomes more pro-poor. A sizeable portion of Female Headed Households that are now non-poor are certainly vulnerable to falling into poverty in future than Male Headed Households. This has policy implications that Female Headed Households are more vulnerable to poverty.

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The Development of the Railway System and its Impact in Offa, Kwara State; 1912-1955

By Abdulsalami Muyideen Deji

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I. INTRODUCTION

The ultimate purpose of transport is to serve mankind. It is an integral part of the economy of every society whether advanced or simple economies; and both production and distribution of goods at all levels rely heavily on transport. Transport economists such as Bonavia, Norton, Sharp and Healey see transport as being indispensable to any economy which necessitated the construction of rail roads in Nigeria in the pre-colonial and colonial times. According to Hugh Norton, transportation enables society to enjoy the advantages of specialization of resources, and the benefits of division of labour by making it possible for products to be brought from great distances thus avoiding the necessity for local production of needs.¹

More importantly, the earliest demand for transportation of things arose from the fact that men wanted a variety of natural products but nature did not provide them in one place. This buttresses Walsh Healey's assertion which says "man as a hunter and gatherer carried himself to wherever there was a surplus to meet his needs." To satisfy immediate future needs, he had to carry some with him²

By 1886 the British Colonial activities and intentions under Governor Macgregor and Edgerton was to extend the construction of rail line to the furthestmost part of Northern Nigeria³. The issues regarding development of railway system in Nigeria through Offa were well articulated by different authors in line with the aim of British to annex the legitimate products in hinterland.

Rail construction in Nigeria served as a major catalyst to the socio-economic development of major towns in Nigeria, Offa and other communities in Kwara State as an integral part of the country benefited immensely from it since 1912. The construction of rail terminus in Offa boosted economic activities of Offa and its environs because it attracted many people to Offa. This paper analyzes why it is necessary to formulate a policy that would hasten the rehabilitation of existing rail lines, particularly the existing structures at Offa terminus erected by the colonial master for the benefit of Offa community and travellers. It is important to look at the geographic location of Offa as a strategic point for white men during the period of railway construction.

II. THE GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF OFFA

The present day of Offa is located in South-East of Ilorin, the capital of Kwara State of Nigeria. The town is situated on longitude 500E and latitude 800N. It is about 56 kilometres from the state capital. Offa is situated on a gentle Plateau, which is about 1429 feet (408.9m) above sea level. It has indeed been aptly described as a watershed between the Ogun-Osun River Basin and Niger Basin. It is also situated on 215 miles (344km) on the South/ North (SN) rail line from Lagos⁴. It is regarded geographically as a "gap town" and has always been a major Railway Depot Station. Offa is regarded as a gateway to the old Northern Region of Nigeria. The climate in Offa is divided into two seasons; the rainy season, characterized by heavy rainfalls which usually start from April and end in October, with little shower to mark the end of rain in early November. The dry season is characterized by excessive sunshine, leading to the hotness and dryness of the land. It usually starts in November ending and end in March. Offa is bounded in the South by Ijagbo, in the North by Erin-Ile, in the East by Ira, and in the West by Ipee. Offa, the headquarters of Offa Local Government is one of the 16 Local Government Areas in Kwara

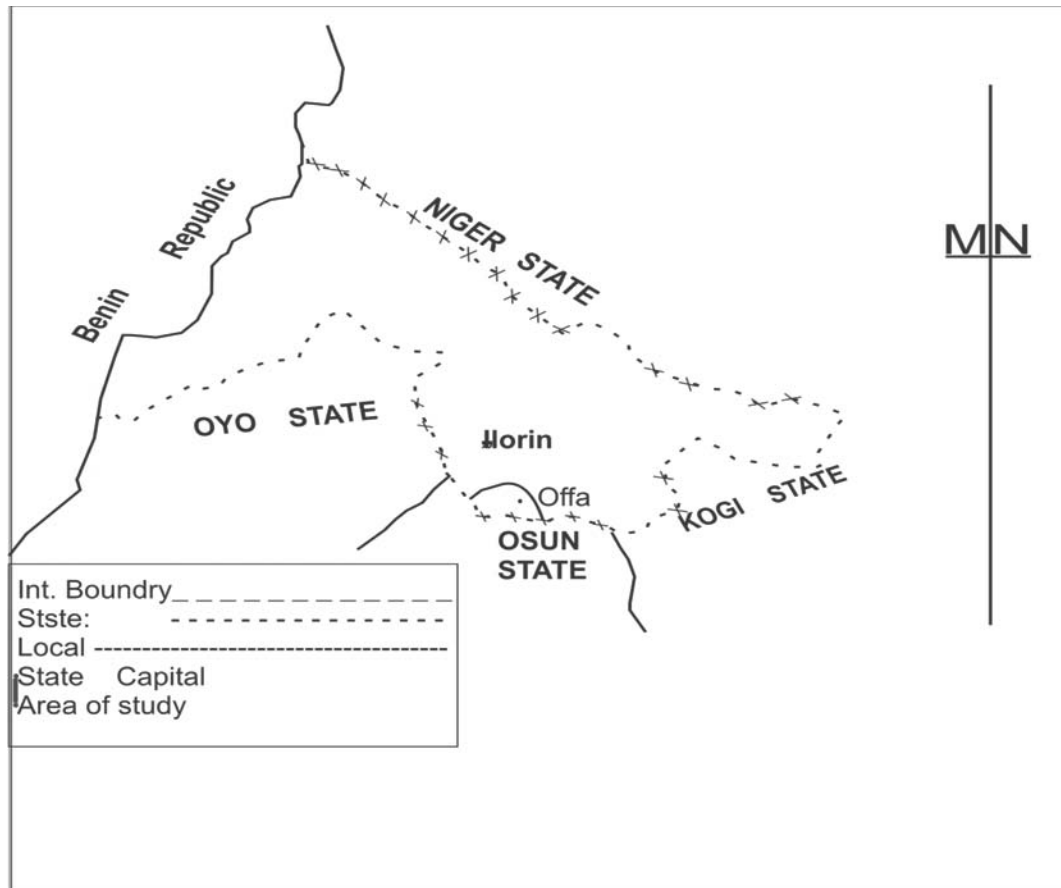
Author: Taraba State University, e-mail: dejfat2003@yahoo.com

State⁵. The language spoken by people of Offa is Yoruba.

Offa is located in Ibolo province and was a major town in the province. The Ibolo province lies to the South-East of the Ekun-Osi towns as far down as Ede, Iresa being the chief town. The other towns are: Oyan,

Okuku, Ikirun, Oshogbo, Ido, Ilobu, Ejigbe and Ede. In 19th century, the Fulani Jihadist from Ilorin, the present capital of Kwara State destroyed Iresa, which was regarded as chief town in the Ibolo province, and the mantle of leadership for the control of that province fell on Offa⁶.

Map 1: Showing The Location of Offa



Source: Kwara State survey Ilorin 2014⁷

III. CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

For better understanding of this research, it is imperative to clarify the concept of development. A clarification of this concept in historical enquiry of railway development will illuminate its substance, pattern and direction. More importantly, it clears issues raised in a proper direction by strengthen the trend of discussion. On this note, the researcher tends to clarify the concept of development.

Development comes from the French verb *developper* - meaning to wrap, that is, "to cause to grow gradually, fuller, larger, stronger and better." It is because development is conceived as a steady movement towards a better graduation that is seen as "a progression towards maturity and better exemplification of the nature of the type in question⁸

The word "Development" in general usage is an incident that causes a situation to change or

progress; it is a process of change and becoming larger, stronger, or more impressive, successful, or advanced, or causing somebody or something to change. It also regarded as a state in which the developing of something is not yet completed⁹.

According Walter Rodney, development in human society is a many-sided process. At the level of the individual, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being¹⁰.

Construction of rail line to Offa was a monumental development in the life of Offa people which caused a great change in the manner and way of carrying out their internal and external trade. It increased freedom of movement from one place to another, not at short distance alone but long distance to negotiate new deals. Opportunity to annex greater responsibility and material well-being were been carried out which brought a colossal change.

As Rodney notes that, some of these features mentioned are virtually moral categories and are difficult to evaluate depending as they do on the age in which one lives, one's class origin, and one's personal code of what is right and what is wrong¹¹. What is visible in this concept is economic and social gains for both parties (colonial masters and Nigerians) involved in the development of rail lines across Nigeria which Offa tapped the benefit immensely. Development of railway was a process which brought change in socio-economic activities of Offa.

IV. DEVELOPMENT/GROWTH OF RAIL TRANSPORT SYSTEM IN OFFA

According to Howard Gauthier "the economic development requires adequate and effective transport services"¹² the advent of rail transport in economy all over the world herald a clear departure from difficulty of bringing goods needed for production.

The clamour for railway network in West Africa started with private interest from the middle of the nineteenth century. Many of the railway promoters were enthusiasts who formulated grandiose plans but lacked the financial capacity to execute them.

Railway construction in Nigeria by colonial masters was directed at two main targets; these were commerce and administration. In July 1898 Mr. Joseph Chamberlin set up a Committee of six members to decide where the Nigerian railway should begin and where it should end. This Committee was called the Niger committee comprising of Lord Salborne, Chairman and Parliamentary Under Secretary of State for the Colonies; Reginald Antrobus, Assistant Under Secretary of state in charge of West African business at the colonial office; Sir Ralph Moor, Commissioner and Consul-General of the Niger Coast protectorate; and Sir Henry Mccallum, Governor of Lagos Colony. The remaining two members were Sir Clement Hill representing the foreign office, and Sir George Goldie, head of the Royal Niger Company¹³.

The committee agreed that a railway to the far north should be built; they further agreed that the northern terminus should be the commercial city of Kano, and finally they agreed that southern terminus should be a port on the coast that could handle ocean-going steamers¹⁴.

In Nigeria, the construction of rail lines began in Lagos in 1898 and the line was extended to Ibadan in 1901, thence to Jebba on the Niger in 1909 and Kano in 1911. The Port Harcourt-Enugu-Jos line, linking the northern and eastern parts of the country, was completed in 1926. Thus, by 1940, there were 5,200 miles of railways in British and French West Africa colonies.¹⁵

The development of railway system in Offa which originated from Lagos railway was later converted

to Nigerian Railway Corporation (NRC). The Nigerian Railway Corporation traces its history to the year 1898, when the first railroad in Nigeria was constructed by the British colonial government¹⁶. In October 3, 1912 the Lagos Government Railway and Baro-Kano Railway were amalgamated, the birth of first amalgamation was hatched for the benefit of colonial masters and inhabitants for easy movement of goods and services from one location to the other. This marked the beginning of a nationwide rail service under the name Government Department of Railways. The company gained its current name with the passing of Nigeria Railway Corporation Act on 1st October, 1955, this gave the company legal backing to construct and operate rail service in Nigeria¹⁷.

Thus, in 1898 railway construction terminal at Iddo was erected to connect the Lagos Island with the Mainland and act as a transit stop for the trains using the railroad bridge constructed along two major road networks that connected the Island with other parts of Lagos, then Carter bridge and the Denton bridge. Also in 1898 railway construction began from the Iddo area with extension made along the Lagos route with stop over at Otta, Ifo, Arigbajo, Papa-Alantoro, Abeokuta. December, 1900 railway reached Ibadan and it was opened to traffic in March 4, 1901¹⁸.

However, financial crisis hampered further development of railway in Southern Nigeria; financial crisis loomed because British home government did not give adequate backing to the construction of rail lines initially. In 1904, official approval was given for the commencement of rail linking to Ibadan and Oshogbo the present capital of Osun state¹⁹. The official approval originated from the fear expressed by the British authority on the possible diversion of trade in British colonies to railway lines in the adjoining French colonies.

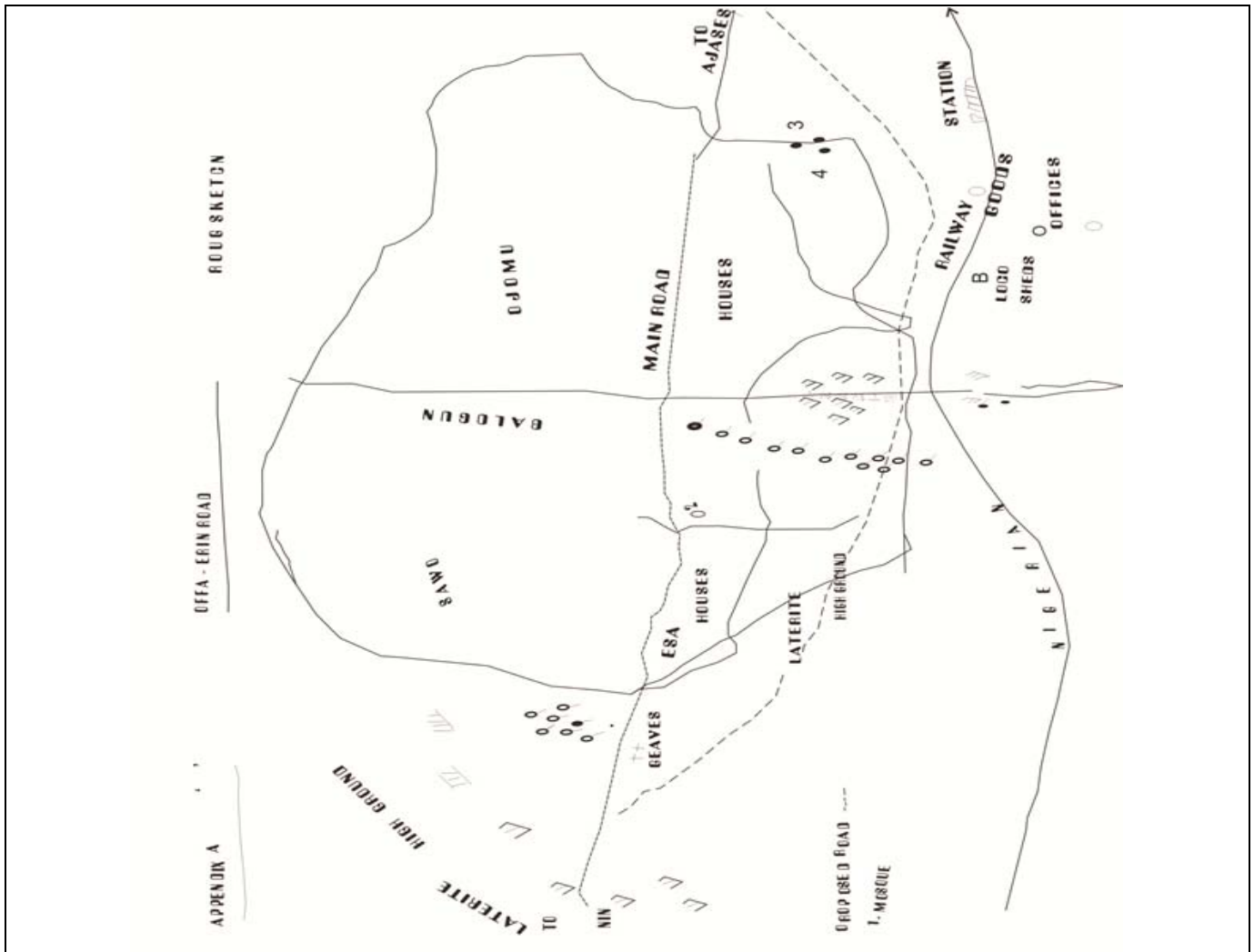
In 1907, another approval given by the British authority brought the construction of rail line passing through Offa to lime light. Thus development and extension of railway line continued unabatedly from Offa to other places like Jebba, during the construction²⁰. Then, five months later a covering letter was written to British authority informing them about a tentative approval given to the General Manager because of the urgency of the work²¹.

After the construction official commissioning of railway between Offa and Jebba took place in 1923. It is important to state here that administrative offices were commissioned in 1944 as terminus and it is known as Sub-district Headquarters, Ibadan is a District headquarters²². However, the mini station within Offa areas are Inisha, Okuku, Erin-Ile and Ijagbo all the stations are known as wayside station till today. Interestingly, Ilorin is also regarded as wayside station. The capacity of the office in Offa accommodated both civil operational and mechanical officials.

The change of locomotive driver effected at Ibadan when railway is coming from Lagos. Then from Ibadan the next locomotive driver takes over from Offa to Mokwa in Niger State. The benefit derived by wayside stations under Offa Sub-district station is that any locomotive popularly called *worowor* by inhabitants must stop over to pick and off load passengers in these

stations. Also, the stations usually have their own staff ranging from four (4) to five (5) persons as administrative officials²³.

The diagram below shows the location of railway terminus in Offa including offices sited around the terminus for administrative and mechanical work.



Source: Offa Assessment Report by P.A. Province Office Ilorin²⁴

V. THE IMPACT OF RAILWAY TRANSPORT IN OFFA FROM 1912-1955

The main focus of this part is to examine the impact of railway transport system in Offa.

It has been argued that widely separated communities like Nigeria were linked by trading activities which could be carried out through the following ways; water, air and land. But the activities did not just run through north and south to connect forest and savanna; they also connected the communities in the east to those in the west²⁵. This suggests both a variety of economic activities and adequate transport facilities which rail transport system has done since inception.

Initially, there were few practicable alternatives to the railway. Lines were therefore built as an aid to general economic development and in the interest of political administration²⁶.

The development of railway had significant effect on the economy of Nigeria as a nation. Economic activities were stimulated and existing modes of transport were displaced in large measure especially in long distance transactions²⁷. Indeed, up to the outbreak of First World War, the lagoon traffic supplied a considerable proportion of Lagos export but this was not the case, in communities like Offa, where there is no availability of water transport. The coming of rail transport was a blessing for the colonial master to

penetrate without any competition from other mode of transport.

However, it is generally accepted that long distance trade had been in existence in Nigeria before the coming of European and different means of transport like road had been adopted for the movement of goods and services in Offa and other areas in Nigeria, but it was not in large quantities. The establishment and development of railway transport system in Nigeria was a revolution in movement of goods and services in Nigeria which Offa tapped immensely from it. Also railway system across Nigeria gave opportunity to international trade to thrive. The palm-oil produced in south, cocoa and kola nut in the west, and groundnut in the northern part could easily be taken to the coast for onward transfer to Europe. It is important to analyze the economic and social impacts of railway transport in Offa. This would enable us to know the benefits derived by all stake holders in the sector especially Offa people who are the main focus of this discourse.

VI. ECONOMIC IMPACT

a) *Low-Cost of Transport*

The rail transport system in Offa had made the movement of internal and long-distance trade easy. Haulage is the basic transport mode at Offa, but in certain circumstances, when traffic flows are exceptionally heavy and where distance are long, rail transport offers the lowest-cost of transport. This is an immense contribution to the colonial economy as well as traders who supplied farm produces to the European²⁸. Attention of many traders was shifted to Offa with aim of easy transfer of their goods to choice location at cheaper rate.

b) *Evacuation of Cash Crops*

Railway system largely met the needs of people. Agricultural products in this area (Offa) required movement only over short distance to and from market places, between adjoining villages and between villages and nearby towns were taken to railway station for onward transfer to Urban centres (i.e. Lagos for export). One of the key objectives in the establishment of the railway system by the colonial master was to aid the evacuation of cash crops and export it to other county. Land transport owners and porters benefited from the system. Conveyance of goods from far and nearby villages created huge opportunity for transporters then, while porters are waiting at station to convey these goods into the station for waybill. This served as means of income for many people.

c) *Supply of Manufacturing Goods*

The manufactured products were being carried back to the hinterland through the rail. As a result of this Offa had many stores belonging to multinational company like United Africa Company (UAC), Paterson

Zochonis (PZ) and JOHN HOLT till today in Offa and these companies employed large number of people²⁹. While these companies gave employment to the indigenes and settlers at Offa, it provided great opportunity for wholesaler to buy in large quantities and distributed to retailers within the area at cheaper rate. A modern market in Offa became beehive for the people from towns and villages surrounding Offa.

d) *Job Opportunities*

It is on record that railway in Nigeria was the major employer of labour in Nigeria during the colonial economy. This shows that host communities like Offa had great opportunity in terms of job opportunities with the railway. Between 1912 -1955 the estimate figure of employee with the Railway Corporation hovered around 42,000 in Nigeria, then Offa terminus had 1317 employee with seven departments namely;

1. Signal and Communication,
2. Operation & Cooperation
3. Civil Engineering
4. Mechanical,
5. Welfare
6. Mechanical Diesel,
7. Ticketing.³⁰

Apart from this, indirect job was created by this sector with large numbers of private lock-up shops built along railway terminus servicing the workers and passengers³¹. Also the workshop built by Railway Corporation had impacted knowledge of modern technology then into the people.

The advent of rail transport also consolidated the position of existing commercial centres, caused the decline of others- unless such had road links with the railways and led to the emergence of new towns and markets at railway junctions. Typical example of this could be found in Inisha, Okuku and Erin-Ile where the wayside stations beat far from the main town commercial activities were moved to those stations to serve the needs of travellers. There is no doubt that rail transport reduced cost of fare significantly, facilitated the access of European merchants and officials to new markets in the hinterland and enabled them to exploit the colonies more effectively.

Offa became an entry-port for the traders in neighbouring towns and villages which increased internal generated revenue. This additional income led to the advent of local tax collector in Offa then. This caused rivalry between Offa and Ilorin Emirate then but later resolved that all labourer living in Offa must remit their taxes with the Local District Officer.³² Thus, autonomy was given to local administrator on tax and this helped authority in Offa to develop infrastructure for the benefit of the inhabitants. The Native Revenue Ordinance and Gazzete gave an estimate of €1517.12 as revenue generated then³³. The railway employees living in Offa town were compelled to remit their tax to

Oloffa, District Head of Offa, and not through the ward-heads. The management of railway suggested ₦8.0.0 per man. But final rule came from Lieutenant Governor stated in his telegram **S.6 dated 7/3/18** to the employee residing at Ilorin and Offa that the minimum tax on each employee should be ₦6/per annum. It was accepted by Oloffa³⁴. Internal Generated Revenue from Offa then soared.

VII. SOCIAL IMPACT

a) *Spread of External Religions and Western Education*

The exchange of cultural background through movement of goods and services by people aided the spread of Christianity and Islam in Offa at that time. It is important to know that part of the people who worked assiduously for the construction of rail road are the evangelists because they had conviction about changes that would greet missionary work, if railway had access to the hinterland³⁵. When railway started operations in Nigeria, it contributed immensely to the movement of missionaries and they had access to the people. The evangelical work was easier for the missionaries to carry out. Also, Roman Catholic Church was built with cottage hospital in Offa, then, the hospital was serving Offa people and other neighboring towns like Ijagbo, Ipee, Igosun and Ira. Also, the Muslim scholars moved into Offa from Northern part of Nigeria to preach Islam and many traditional worshipers were converted into Islam³⁶. The first oldest community secondary school known as Offa Grammar School (OGS) emanated from communal effort in what used to be the northern Nigeria gateway was established at Offa in 1943 to promote western education³⁵. The establishment of this school (Offa Grammar School) devoid of any religion affliction, hence, it emanated from communal effort to promote western education.

b) *Inter-Group Relations*

One of important aspects of social development that railway transport brought into Offa was emergence of towns and villages that attracted a population that was made of other ethnic like Hausa, Igbo including Yorubas from other towns and villages. Today, in Offa there is Hausa community around Popo area of Offa with their leader recognized by the King (Oba) of Offa. Igbo established some of their shops along rail line till today, the existence of these ethnics dating back to 19th century when the construction of rail line started in Offa. Inter-ethnic marriages became rampant among people, before the establishment of railway in Offa; marriages were mostly organized among indigenes. Influx of different ethnic groups promoted inter-ethnic marriages which was part of joke among people then that if you accept railway to go through your back yard your wife would be married to white man.³⁷

VIII. CONCLUSION

The use of transportation in any human society cannot be over emphasized because; it is regarded as the only means of movement from one place to the other. Before the advent of rail transport in Offa other modes of transportation like use of animals and road transport portage were the methods used in carrying their goods and services from one location to the other. Establishment of railway in 1912 at Offa was a game changer in the way and manner people engaged in transportation system because railway is the greatest carrier of merchandise.

The development of railway transport at Offa led to establishment of wayside stations in its environs as earlier mentioned and this impacted positively to the socio-economic activities of those areas. Thus, impacts of railway transport/terminus could not be waived aside at Offa in terms of job opportunities, businesses and other socio benefits attracted to Offa.

The full utilization of railway as modern means of transport led to development of trade, agriculture and industry. It is noteworthy that the establishment and development of rail transport from 1912 -1955 was remarkable period which greeted rapid development in the transport sector because the rail traffic at this time was dominated by agriculture. The cost of rail freight depends on the type of goods which are classified as each class had its own rates. Cost was directly related to the volume of goods transported by train.

More people preferred to move their goods by train as freight by train because it was cheaper than by road. A larger proportion of goods transported by train were agricultural produce like groundnut, hides, cocoa, cotton, and palm kernel. The railway became centripetal which connected all major towns and introduced the resources of each region to each other. And Offa as a major player in the railway transport benefited from this colossal opportunity.

Finally, if government focuses on resuscitating railway in line with the vision of colonial masters in Nigeria, the economy of Offa would be resuscitated and this will provide job opportunity for teeming youth that are jobless in the community today. The activities of shop owners within the premises would certainly wear a new look for economic prosperity. More importantly, high powered technological equipment erected for training and production of furniture and welding tools would serve the interest of inhabitants as it were in those days when the white men were controlling the terminus.

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Managing Risk of Petrol Scarcity in Nigeria: A Test of the Efficacy of Strategic Management Approaches

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I. INTRODUCTORY FRAMEWORK

Perhaps the most complex problem confronting the Nigerian nation is how to make petrol available at all times for local consumption, practical experience over the years have shown that it has not been easy for Nigeria to find a sustainable solution to frequent and protracted scarcity of petrol in the country. It is important to note that several efforts and permutations have been made and are still being made to address the problem, but the solution is far insight. From the time of military administrations to present democratic dispensation, different strategies such as yearly turn-around maintenance of the refineries and importation of refined petrol to supplement local production have been adopted without any positive impact. The problem has become a recurrent dilemma in the nation's economy. The situation is becoming more complex and dramatic especially given the current security challenges facing the nation. Pump price of petrol in Nigeria are no longer determined by

government fiat (where at all times, petrol is found in the filling stations), but at the discretion of the independent petrol marketers. It appears that the more serious and committed the government is poised to put an end to petrol scarcity, the more slippery the problem becomes.

Could it be that our refineries has outlived its useful age, or is it the problem of lack of political will and lack of vision by our leaders? Is it the problem of inability or lack of skills in strategy implementation? Could endemic corruption be a critical factor thereby sabotaging government genuine efforts in addressing this problem? Whatever and whoever is responsible for the nation's woes in petroleum sector of our economy, it should be noted that petrol remains very strategic and most important element in the growth and development of the Nigerian economy.

The importance of petrol as material goods and services cannot be misplaced. It is so important that any contemplation of a possible scarcity or unavailability of the product will no doubt spell doom for the economy of the country. In locomotive activities, petrol is a key resource, in heating and lighting whether in the house or factory or anywhere, petrol is a key resource. Without petrol the world would come to a halt, lives would be made difficult as movement would eventually be impeded. As reported by Rasheed (2010) and Onifade and Ojukwu (2010), without petrol, our world would almost grind to a halt; factories would stop running, so would cars; airplanes would be grounded; tractors on the farm would sputter to a standstill and rust; and people's homes and offices, if not heated by petrol, would freeze in winter. Because petrol is so important, the whole world is affected by what happens to this vital commodity.

Today, petrol scarcity is no longer a new phenomenon in Nigeria. It has become a common feature and got to a crisis stage. In particular, the petrol crisis which started as a joke in December 2009 has now become a feature of the country's socioeconomic landscape. Across the country, Nigerians queue up at filling stations for hours unending for unavailable petrol. The implications have been loss of man-hours and rising cost of living as transport fares and prices of foodstuffs jump up. The recurring instances of petrol scarcity, usually worsens towards the end of the year. In the year 2009 alone, there were at least six instances of petrol

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scarcity (AFRICNEWS, 2009). Petrol scarcity can make it difficult for the government to accomplish that which it proposed to do in the budget.

It is the opinion of these researchers that the time has come for managers of agencies such as Nigerian National Petroleum Company (NNPC) and refineries that extract and refine crude oil to device sustainable approach towards stemming out the menace of petrol scarcity in the Nigerian economy. The researchers therefore investigate and consider the adoption of strategic management approach in addressing the problem. The objective sought to achieve are to:

- i. identify causes of petrol scarcity in Nigeria
- ii. assess the effect of petrol scarcity on the lives of Nigerians,
- iii. ascertain the effects of petrol scarcity on the economy of Nigeria
- iv. identify the strategies of government in curbing incessant petrol scarcity in Nigeria.
- v. ascertain the most effective strategic management approach toward managing petrol production and supply by NNPC and other subsidiaries in Nigeria.

In order to attain the objective of this study, the following sets of hypotheses were formulated in the null form:

Ho1: Petrol scarcity has no significant effect on lives of Nigerians.

Ho2: Petrol scarcity has no significant effects on Nigerian economy.

Ho3: Strategies adopted by government have not significantly curbed incessant petrol scarcity in Nigeria.

Ho4: Strategic management approaches available are not effective at managing petrol production and supply by NNPC in Nigeria

II. THEORY AND CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Commodity scarcity has been theorized by different scholars who, in their separate studies, explain the factors that cause scarcity, why people react to scarcity and when scarcity becomes eminent. These theories are the Frustration-Aggression theory, the Hubbert peak theory, as well as the demand and supply theory. The Frustration - Aggression Theory posits that scarcity occurs absolutely when people do not have enough to survive as when petrol scarcity takes place, and relatively when people have enough to survive but have less than those around them.

Another relevant theory is the Hubbert peak theory which explains that when oil is peak, then its production will naturally deplete and scarcity of the product will begin to set in. By this theory, scarcity of petrol follows a natural decline in the production of oil due to its having reached the highest point of

production. Because, there are other causes of petrol shortage, this theory only provide an insight into natural scarcity not artificial scarcity of petrol, and as such does not well give superior argument to this study.

The Theory of Demand and Supply is one of the basic and very popular theories in economic. It postulates that whenever the demand for any product is greater than the supply, scarcity is very evidently a sure experience. This theory explains that petrol scarcity is a function of the demand side activity; that when people do not need a thing, the scarcity of the thing cannot be experienced.

a) *Petrol genealogy, causes of scarcity and crisis situation in Nigeria*

Petrol otherwise called gasoline is a byproduct of petroleum or say crude oil. The word was borrowed from French pétrole, which in turn came from Latin petroleum (itself taken over directly into English in the 16th century). This means 'rock-oil'. Carless Capel, a German wholesaler was the first company to register 'petrol' as a trade name in year 1892. It is also called Benzin in Germany which is derived from a chemical named Benzene (Energy Bulletin, 2011). Other byproducts of petroleum are Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG), diesel, kerosene, etc. All are energy rich fuels. Initially, petrol was used as cleaning liquid to remove strains. It was available in cans. Petrol is also used for lighting in the form of white gas which is highly purified petrol. By 1950's oil took over as major fuel from the reigning coal and so started evolution of filling stations. Petrol has been the main reasons for the developments in car engines since last 100 years. Most of the car engines are designed according to the kind of petrol available at that time.

Scarcity happens when there is low supply of something that is in a high demand. When this happens, people are prone to paying more for a product. If all of our products and resources are scarce, then we may see inflation. Petrol scarcity situation in Nigeria is very discerning and ugly. The situation is such that has plagued the nation and caused a lot of pains, anguish and dislocation to economic and sundry activities. There are hardly any individual industries, institutions and organization in Nigeria today that is not severely affected.

On the causes of petrol scarcity in Nigeria, government circles attributed it largely to bottlenecks in the distribution system. This conjectured belief was substantiated by the results of the study conducted by the Departments of Petroleum Resources (DPR, 2012) and Furtado and Suslick (1993). The results indicated that petrol scarcity or crisis in Nigeria is caused by fraudulent marketers who, despite the effort of DPR, encourage and sell adulterated products. The crisis situation worsening day after day when some fuel stations sell petrol in the night to the black markets in

which they increase the rate far above the approved price depending on the level of adulteration. Other causes of petrol scarcity were found to include product hoarding, diversion, smuggling, under-delivery of products at retail outlets, conflicting activities of multifarious government agencies, manpower shortage, inadequate funding, lack of materials, legal limitation and, safety of personnel also cause petrol scarcity. In the opinion of Vincent (2013), the petrol shortage is a reflection of bad management.

In all, it may be safer to say hypothetically that the presence or absence of good governance account for the presence or absence petrol scarcity. According to Onwuka (2010), the biggest problem, which we have here, is pipeline vandalism. The issue of vandalisation of oil pipelines as a major cause of fuel crisis could be looked at from the angle of frustration – aggression theory. According aggression, vandalisation of oil pipelines is the outcome of frustration. Gurr (1970) opined that where expectation does not meet attainment, the tendency is for people to confront those they hold responsible for frustrating their ambitions. He further stated, “the greater the discrepancy, however marginal, between what is sought and what seem attainable, the greater will be the chances that anger and violence will result”. In other words, crisis or conflict occurs when the governed are frustrated by the way they are governed especially with respect to deprivations of the basic needs of life. This explains why oil pipelines have, many times, been blown up or damage done to many of the oil installations not only by militants in the Niger Delta area but also in many other parts of the country. The worst aspect is that many Nigerians are not patriotic enough to report such vandals. Another major cause of petrol crisis in Nigeria is corruption and nonchalant attitude of some of the leaders. In fact, high level corruption could be seen as the bane of Nigeria’s oil industry and the cause of incessant petrol crisis. Historical evidence shows that the First Republic in Nigeria (1960-1965) was terminated by military intervention because of the excesses of corrupt politicians (Ademoyega, 1981). Other causes are inadequate refineries and mal-functioning or under functioning of existing ones (AFRICAN NEWS, 2013).

b) The Risks and Effects of Petrol Scarcity on Citizens and Economy of Nigeria

The incessant fuel crisis has led to long queues of vehicles at several filling stations across the country, in addition to sky-rocketing, deviating pump price and racketeering. Also, the scarcity of fuel has led to a huge rise in the cost of living, while making it almost impossible for millions of Nigerians to move with their merchandises for exchange. Furthermore, the stifling scarcity has led to many avoidable accidents, both on the roads and in homes, with fatal consequences as motorists load extra fuel in their vehicles and store them

in their residences. The effect of petrol scarcity in Nigeria was so biting such that several questions were raised, although they were mere rhetoric. Such questions included “what sort of government is this that sits idly by as citizens go through untold hardship? Is it not a shame that a government that could not meet its promise to Nigerians to deliver 6,000 megawatts of electricity by the end of the year has now inflicted more pain on them by its inability to even guarantee abundant petrol supply? For how long will Nigerians have to endure this multiplying hardship? (Business World, Feb. 8th 2010). The escape route for many businesses and households in the country from the stranglehold of energy crisis, which has resulted in the epileptic supply of electricity in the country, has been petrol and diesel. But with petrol and diesel now becoming as scarce as gold, many households and businesses are having it very rough, and this has resulted in many businesses now operating at levels that are far below their installed capacity. As a consequence, of course, is low productivity and downsizing.

Some unscrupulous marketers usually seize the opportunity of the situation to hoard the commodity in anticipation of government announcement of a rise in pump price. To say that the fuel crisis has made Africa’s largest oil-producing nation- Nigeria- a laughing stock in the comity of nations is an understatement. It is common knowledge today that the fuel scarcity will escalate inflation and worsen the problem of poverty in Nigeria. Many workers will lose their jobs as companies will find it difficult to cope with it. The risks of petrol scarcity of which their severity are tested in this work could be summarized to include the paralysis of social and economic activities, socio-economic unrest, increased transport fare, sky-rocketing of market prices of food and materials, high rate of inflation, excessive corruption and mismanagement, retardation in economic growth, wasteful spending of money on importation of petrol, fire and, road accident, diversion of petrol among others.

c) Strategic management approaches applicable to managing petrol scarcity

Strategic management analyzes the major initiatives taken by a company’s top management on behalf of owners, involving resources and performance in internal and external environments (Nag, Hambrick and Chen, 2007). Strategic management is concerned primarily with responses to external issues such as in understanding customers’ needs and responding to competitive forces. Academics and practicing managers have developed numerous models and frameworks to help managers make strategic decision and understand the infinitely complex macro-economic environments. Some of the core strategic approaches considered in this study are discussed below.

d) *SWOT analysis and management of petrol scarcity*

SWOT stands for strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats. It is one of the most basic and widely-used strategic management approach which is often used to examine both internal elements (strengths and weaknesses) of the organization- and external elements (opportunities and threats). Strengths and weaknesses are often internal to your organization, while opportunities and threats generally relate to external factors. For this reason the SWOT analysis is sometimes called Internal-External (IE). SWOT Analysis is a useful technique for understanding your Strengths and Weaknesses, and for identifying both the opportunities open to you and the threats you face. By using SWOT analysis the incessant scarcity of petrol could be reduced. This is because the internal and external analysis would be able to identify other strategic areas of making gains apart from involving in unethical petrol marketing practices like hoarding, smuggling and adulteration of the product all of which result in petrol scarcity. As would be tested in this study, SWOT analysis is expected to provide alternative strategic management solutions to the problem of petrol scarcity in Nigeria.

e) *PEST analysis and management of petrol scarcity*

PEST is an acronym for politics, economics or environment, social and technological factors. This strategic management approach examines macro-economic environmental factors such as politics, economics, social factors, and government regulation. Other known acronyms derived from PEST are: STEEP, PESTLE, PESTEL, and STEP. The PEST acronym is well known and used all over the world as a basis for external analysis. One of the causes of petrol scarcity in literature was government and environmental related in terms of corruption, poor governance and access road. The application of PEST would help dealers and managers of petrol resources to identify those political, economic, social and technological factors that impeded free and smooth supply of petrol product in Nigeria.

f) *The balanced scorecard and management of petrol scarcity*

The Balanced Scorecard attempts to measure the performance of an organization from the perspective of various stakeholders. The balanced scorecard is also valuable in strategic management because it helps to define and maintain competitive advantage. The scorecard lets them introduce four new management processes that, separately and in combination, contribute to linking long-term strategic objectives with short-term actions. The first new process- translating the vision- helps managers build a consensus around the organization's vision and strategy. The second process- communicating and linking-lets managers communicate their strategy up and down the organization and link it to

departmental and individual objectives. The third process-business planning-enables companies to integrate their business and financial plans and, the fourth process- feedback and learning- gives companies the capacity for what we call strategic learning. By this strategic management approach, managers and dealers in petrol would come to term with the realities of the time being the fact that profitability is not a short term goal. And using short term tactics that are not sustainable would not in the long run guarantee organizational profit. By this knowledge they would be able to deploy appropriate management approach that is not only more sustainable but strategic in order to facilitate the attainment of organizational profit in both the short and long run.

g) *The Porter Five Forces Analysis*

This strategic management approach helps to determine the competitive intensity and therefore attractiveness of a market. Named after Michael E. Porter, (Porter, 1996), this model identifies and analyzes five competitive forces that shape every industry, and helps determine an industry's weaknesses and strengths. The five forces are supplier power, buyer power, competitive rivalry, threat of substitution and, threat of new entry. Arguably, regulation, taxation and, trade policies make government a sixth force for many industries. Five forces analysis helps organizations to understand the factors affecting profitability in a specific industry, and can help to make decisions relating to whether or not to enter a specific industry, to increase capacity in a specific industry and, to develop competitive strategies. This approach helps in explaining the relationship between the supplier and buyer in the petrol distribution chain. In the context of petrol scarcity, the supplier plays a major role by ensuring the supply of the product to buyers, failure of which will culminate into scarcity situation. When this strategic approach is applied, this relationship would be examined critically and possible avenues of inefficiency identified and provided for in the overall management decision concerning petrol availability and affordability in event of a soured relationship between the supplier and the buyer.

III. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK AND DATA PRESENTATION

Survey and secondary research design were adopted. This is because by its nature, the study involved the use of questionnaire methods as well as archival retrieval technique and document analysis. In terms of Population, the 2013 Fact Books of the Independents Petroleum Marketers Association of Nigeria (IPMAN) and that of National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas workers (NUPENG) indicated the total number of its members to be 7792 and 18 members from the Major Oil Marketers Association of Nigeria

(MOMAN) in Akwa Ibom State. Judgmentally, a total number of 150 consumers were chosen to participate in the research. Putting the figures together it becomes 7960. This figure formed the population from which a sample of 396 was selected using Taro Yamen's formula given as: $n = N / (1 + N(e)^2)$ where n = sample size, N = population, e = acceptable margin of error (5%), 1 = constant; Therefore given "N" to be 7960 and "e" as 5 percent; n was determined as shown below: $n = 7960 / (1 + 7960(0.05)^2) = 396.0199005 = 396$. Consequently, a total of 396 copies of questionnaire were personally administered by the researcher to the respondents during official hours at their places of work. From the 396 copies of the questionnaire distributed 351 copies were properly completed and returned. This represented 88.64 percent.

In order to score the instrument, a key was developed by which information obtained from the questionnaires was scored. The questionnaire consisted of statements on which respondents were to react according to five (5) point Likert attitude scale as follows:

Strongly Agree (SA) = 4, Agree (A) = 3, Strongly Disagree (SD) = 2, Disagree (D) = 1, Uncertain (UN) = 0. Considering the nature of data collected as well as the hypotheses formulated for the research, the statistical methods adopted were simple percentage frequency statistic and Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) denoted by "r".

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

From the analyses of the research questions to the test of the research hypotheses, several findings have been made. For purposes clarification and explicitness, and in line with modern research tradition, these findings were discussed according to each of the research objectives. First was the result on the trend of petrol price adjustment in Nigeria as presented in Table 2 and Fig.1.

Table 2: Trend of petrol price adjustments in Nigeria since 1978

S/N	Date	Administration	Price	%age Change
1	1978	Obasanjo	15k	-
2	1990	Babangida	60k	300%
3	1992	Babangida	70k	17%
4	1992	Babangida	N3.25k	364%
5	1993	Babangida	N5.00	54%
6	1994	Shonekan	N11.00	120%
7	1994-1997	Abacha	N11.00	-
8	1998-1999	Abacha	N20.00	82%
9	2000	Obasanjo	N20.00	-
10	2000	Obasanjo	N22.00	10%
11	2001	Obasanjo	N26.00	18%
12	2003	Obasanjo	N40.00	54%
13	2004	Obasanjo	N45.00	13%
14	2007	Obasanjo	N70.00	56%
15	2007-2009	Yar'Adua	N56.00	0.07%
16	2010-2011	Jonathan	N65.00	-
17	2012	Jonathan	N141.00	117%
	2012		N97.00	- 48.36
18	2013	Jonathan	N97.00	0.00
19	2014	Jonathan	N97.00	0.00
	2014		N150.00	

Source: Adagba; Ugwu and Eme, (2012) and authors' investigation

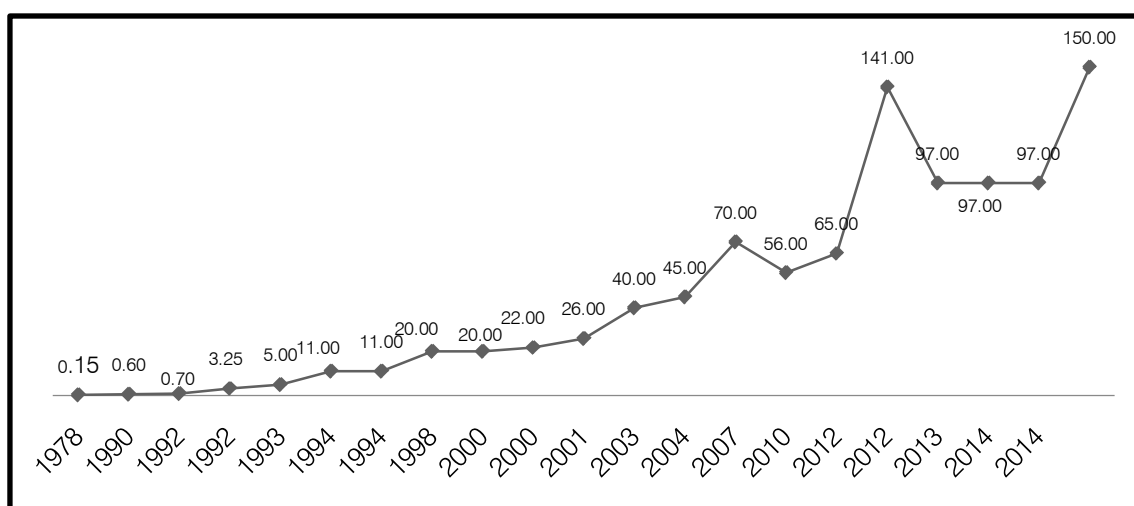


Figure 1 : Trend of petrol price adjustment and scarcity crisis in Nigeria, 178-2014

Source: Plotted from data on Table 2

From Fig. 1, the trend of petrol price adjustment which is a reflection or an indicator of petrol scarcity in Nigeria is highly cyclical. The trend exhibit an upward movement to the upper right corner of the curve which means that petrol scarcity caused an upward or

increment in the petrol price which is incidental to inflationary tendencies in Nigerian. This finding goes to explain the reason for the ever growing inflation in Nigeria. On causes of petrol scarcity, responses were presented in Table 3.

Table 3 : Responses on causes of petrol scarcity

Causes	SA	A	$\sum(SA:A)$	SD	D	$\sum(SD:D)$	UD	Total
Excessive corruption & Mismanagement	193	107	300	17	23	40	11	351
Oil Pipeline Vandalisation	129	97	226	114	7	121	4	351
Insufficient/ malfunctioning of refineries	107	90	197	52	93	145	9	351
Diversion & Smuggling	110	84	194	30	87	117	40	351
Hoarding	122	120	240	49	51	100	9	351
Administrative Bottlenecks & Legal limitations	78	86	164	79	88	167	20	351
Inadequate Funding	64	70	134	81	92	173	44	351
Manpower Shortage	61	73	134	80	99	179	38	351
Fuel subsidy	140	129	269	34	44	78	4	351

Source: Field Survey, 2014

On the basis of aggregate agreement and aggregate disagreement that each factor exhibit different degree of severity which is pictorially presented in Fig. 2, for clarity.

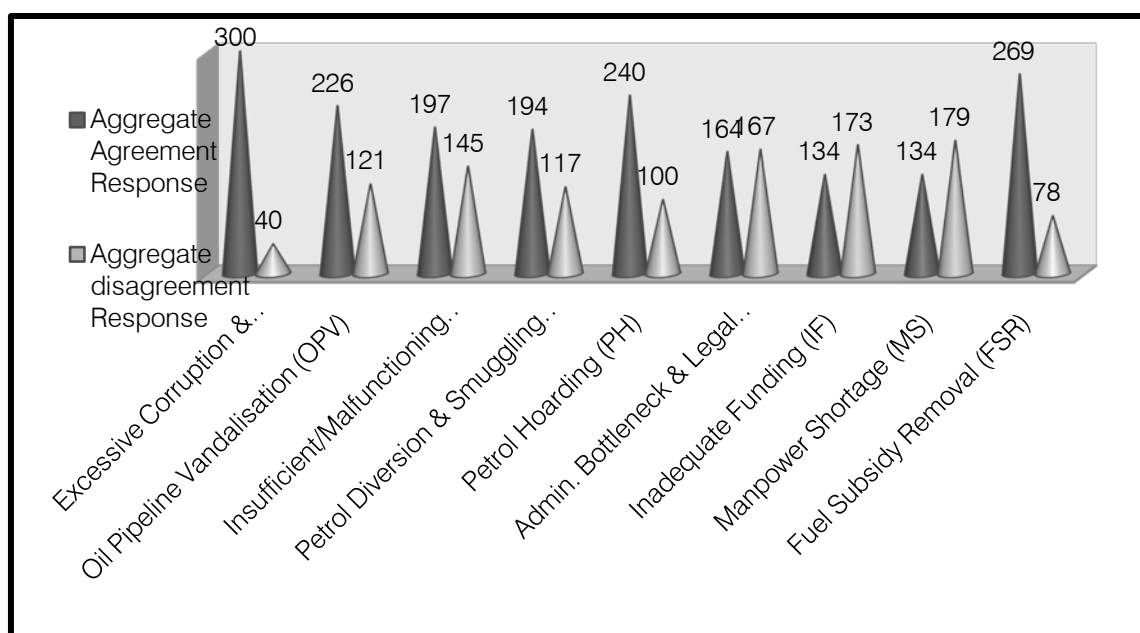


Figure 2 : Pictorial Presentation of causes of petrol scarcity in Nigeria

Sources: Constructed from summation of all agreed and all disagreed responses on Table 3

From the figures, it is obvious that excessive corruption and mismanagement is most responsible for petrol scarcity in Nigeria. The next factor found was the removal of fuel subsidy, followed by hoarding of petrol, vandalization of oil pipeline, insufficient/ malfunctioning of refineries and, diversion and smuggling of petrol. This finding is in tandem with those of Birol and Guerer (1993) and Furtado and Suslick (1993) who similarly found that fuel scarcity is caused by many factors such as excessive corruption and mismanagement, oil pipeline vandalism, insufficient and malfunctioning

refineries, petrol diversion and smuggling, petrol hoarding, administrative bottlenecks and legal limitations and, petrol subsidy removal. Two factors that do not cause petrol scarcity were found to be inadequate funding and manpower shortage.

Concerning the effects of petrol scarcity on lives of Nigerian, Table 4 contained different responses rates, Table 5 contained data for the test of hypothesis number one while Table 6 contained the result of the test of hypothesis one.

Table 4 : Response on the effect of petrol scarcity on lives of Nigerians

Effects	SA	A	$\Sigma(SA:A)$	SD	D	$\Sigma(SD:D)$	UD	Total
Socio Economic Unrest	129	137	266	39	42	81	4	351
Hike in Transport Fare	120	166	286	18	39	57	8	351
Heavy Consumption Burden occasioned by skyrocket market price	130	127	257	28	33	61	33	351
Fire and Road Accidents	61	100	161	51	100	151	39	351
Stagnation of Goods and People	121	140	261	31	42	73	17	351
Poverty & Sufferings	133	162	295	23	27	50	6	351

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 5 : Data for the test of hypothesis one

Likert Scale Point	(SEU)	(HTF)	(HCB)	(FRA)	(SGP)	(PS)
4	129	120	130	61	121	133
3	137	166	127	100	140	162
2	39	18	28	51	31	23
1	42	39	33	100	42	27
0	4	8	33	39	17	6

Source: Table 4

Table 6: Correlation result for effects of petrol scarcity on lives of Nigerians

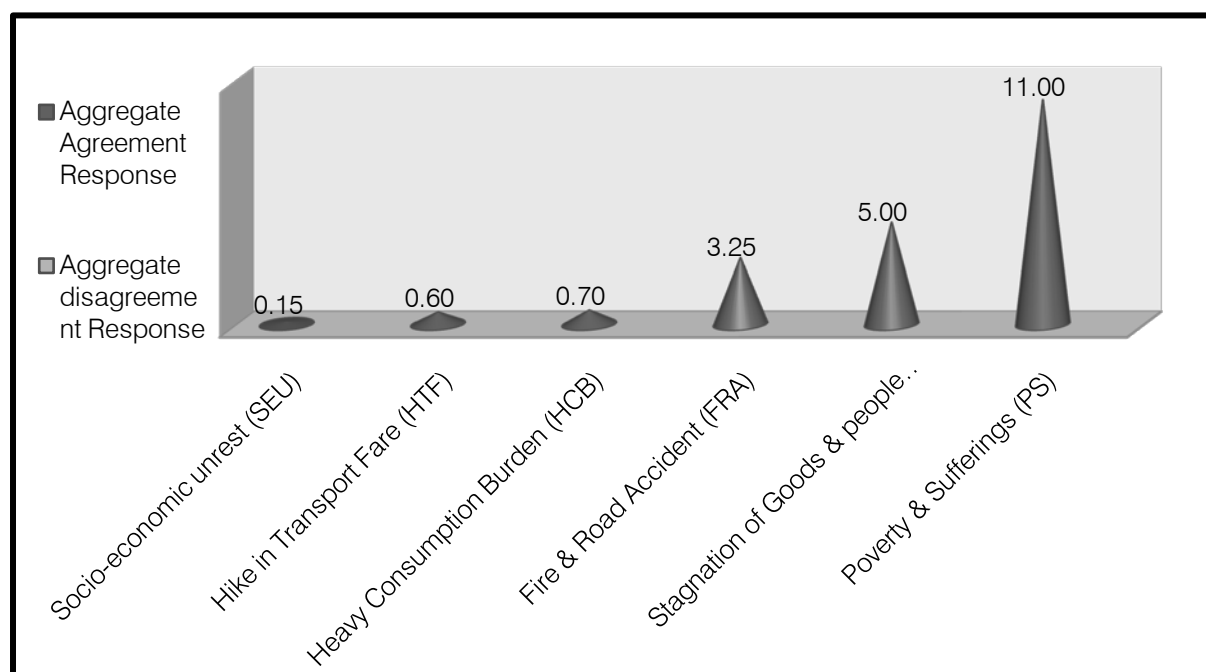
Effects petrol scarcity on lives of Nigerians	Correlation coefficient (r^2)	Sig. (2-tailed)
Socioeconomic Unrest (SEU)	.920*	.027
Hike in Transport Fare (HTF)	.801*	.104
Heavy Consumption Burden (HCB)	.855*	.065
Fire & Road Accidents (FRA)	.246*	.690
Stagnation of Goods and People (SGP)	.862*	.061
Poverty & Sufferings (PS)	.857*	.063

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS generated result

From Table 6, all correlation result shows a significant positive effect of petrol scarcity on lives of Nigerians except fire and road accident. The rest of the results indicate that petrol scarcity caused not less than 80 percent of the plight that Nigerians suffer. As it is a positive result, it means that more petrol scarcity would

lead to more suffering for Nigerian; hence the rejection of the null hypothesis which stated that petrol scarcity has no significant effect on lives of Nigerians and the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. The most devastating effect of petrol scarcity on lives of Nigerians is presented pictorially in Fig 3.

*Figure 3*: Pictorial Presentation of Effects of Petrol Scarcity on Lives of Nigerians

Sources: Constructed from summation of all agreed and all disagreed responses on Table 4

As shown therein, the highest and ofcourse the most devastating effect of petrol scarcity on lives of Nigerians was poverty and sufferings followed by high transportation, and the next was socioeconomic unrest, immobility of goods and people and heavy consumption burden. However, against the conjectural responses the correlation results specifically indicates that the highest problem petrol scarcity has caused Nigerian is socioeconomic unrest which Balouga (2012) explained to mean that people are made to sleep at petrol stations for weeks if not months for purposes of being able to purchase the product even at a high price to continue

their daily economic activities so as to earn a living. This is clear indication of how restless every Nigerian would be whenever there is scarcity of petrol.

Another effect was found to be stagnation of goods and people. That is a state of being immobile. When petrol is scarce, there would be shortage of vehicular movement and this will stop people from moving with their produce to market. Explaining further, Femi (2013) said that petrol scarcity also affect civil servants, businessmen, students and lectures adversely. They arrive at their places of work late; even some students are unable to attend lectures consequent upon

a high transport fare. Another effect was poverty and sufferings. When people could not make ends meet during normal economic conditions, the scarcity of petrol which anchors most on the peasant economic engagement of the rural poor will further exacerbate the impoverished condition of Nigerians.

Moreover, high consumption burden was found to be another effect of scarcity of petrol on Nigerians. Femi (Ibid) also stated that petrol crisis paralyze social and economic activities and bring about socio-economic unrest which result in increase in transport fare and sky rocketing of market prices. What this implies is that the extra cost of petrol bought during scarcity is transferred to the consumers of the product that consumers buy.

And this places a heavy burden on them as they would have to struggle in order to be able to pay for such goods. Another effect was found to be hike in transport fare. It is no news that during scarcity of petrol, transporters who are most affected will have to increase their transport fare so as to recover their money. This still boils down to the consumer having to bear the burden of high cost consumption.

Another thrust of the study was to assess the effect of petrol scarcity on the economy. Responses on this were captured in Table 7; the data for the test of hypothesis two were captured in Table 8, and the result of the test of hypothesis two was presented in Table 9.

Table 7: Response on the effects of petrol scarcity on the economy of Nigeria

Effects on economy	SA	A	$\Sigma(SA:A)$	SD	D	$\Sigma(SD:D)$	UD	Total
Retardates Economic Growth	130	105	235	84	27	111	05	351
Increases Inflation	199	110	309	12	20	32	10	351
Crippled Economic Activities	99	81	180	56	101	157	14	351
Bring Down Government	110	126	236	41	59	100	15	351
Dwindle foreign reserves due to importation of fuel	97	116	213	51	80	131	7	351
Closure of Industries	128	161	289	21	29	50	12	351
Hinders infrastructural Development	119	181	300	19	25	44	7	351
High Cost of Living	123	185	308	12	23	35	8	351
Foreign & Domestic Disinvestment	106	199	305	17	23	40	6	351
Increased Unemployment due to closure of factories	109	190	299	19	29	48	4	351

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 8: Data for the test of hypothesis two

Likert Scale Point	(REG)	(IF)	(CEA)	(BDG)	(DFR)	(CI)	(HID)	(HCL)	(FDD)	(IU)
4	130	199	99	110	97	128	119	123	106	109
3	105	110	81	126	116	161	181	185	199	190
2	84	12	56	41	51	21	19	12	17	19
1	27	20	101	59	80	29	25	23	23	29
0	5	10	14	15	7	12	7	8	6	4

Source: Table 6

Table 9: Correlation Result for effect of Petrol scarcity on economy of Nigeria

Effects of petrol scarcity on economy of Nigeria	Correlation coefficient (r^2)	Sig. (2-tailed)
Retardates Economic Growth (REG)	.985*	.002
Increases Inflation (IF)	.889**	.044
Crippled Economic Activities (CEA)	.654*	.231
Bring Down Government (BDG)	.870*	.055
Dwindle foreign reserves due to importation of fuel (DFR)	.801*	.103
Closure of Industries (CI)	.833*	.080
Hinders infrastructural Development (HID)	.787*	.114
High Cost of Living (HCL)	.777*	.122
Foreign & Domestic Disinvestment (FDD)	.723*	.168
Increased Unemployment due to closure of factories (IU)	.749	.145

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS generated result

From the above tables, petrol scarcity show different degree of effects on the economy. The result of the corresponding hypothesis indicated a significant positive relationship between petrol scarcity and performance of Nigerian economy because all R^2 values were positive and significant. Specifically, it was found that during scarcity of petrol, economic growth is retarded by about 98.5 percent (i.e. $R^2 = .985$); inflation peaked at its highest brim with about 88.9 percent (as $R^2 = .889$), economic activities of about 6.54 percent (i.e. $R^2 = .654$) are slowed if not halted; the performance of government was adjudged 87 percent poor since $R^2 = .870$, foreign reserves dwindled by about 80.1 percent (i.e. $R^2 = .801$); about 83.3 percent (i.e. $R^2 = .833$)

industries were closed down as was the case of Dunlop and Michelin; infrastructural development was also stalled by about 78.7 percent (i.e. $R^2 = .787$), cost of living was about 77.7 percent higher (i.e. $R^2 = .777$), foreign and domestic investment reduced by about 72.3 percent (i.e. $R^2 = .723$) and unemployment increased by about 74.9 percent (i.e. $R^2 = .749$). This findings conform to that of Ojo and Adebunsi (1996) and Onyishi, Eme and, Emeh (2012) who said in summary that "as petrol is so important to us in conducting our everyday lives, significant price increases will cause inflation in the economy, both nationally and globally". Pictorially, Fig. 4 presented the highest effect of petrol scarcity on the economy.

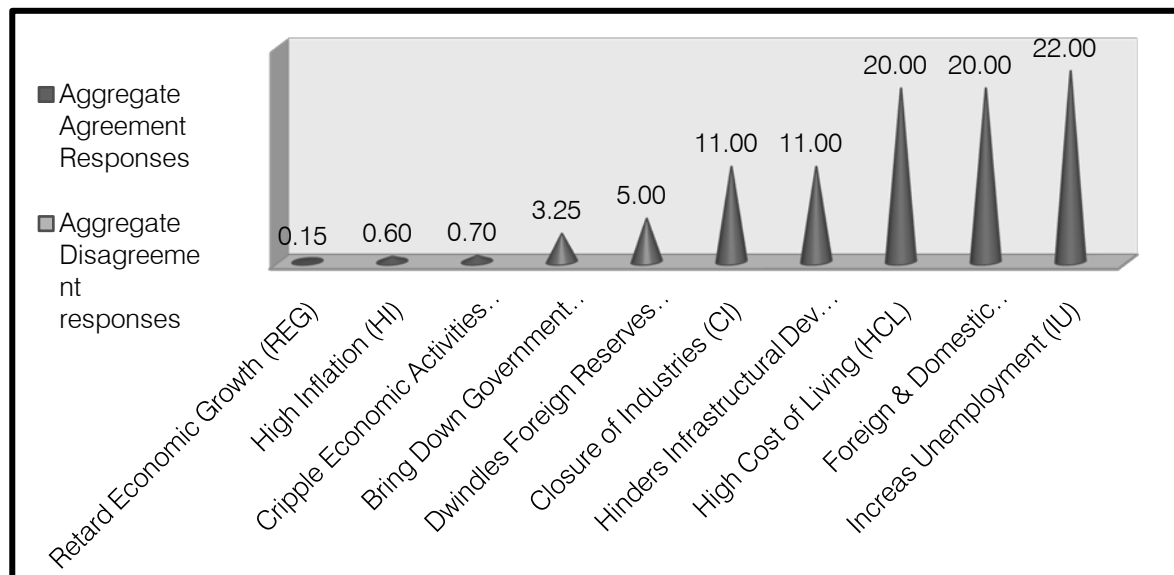


Figure 4 : Pictorial Presentation of the effects of petrol scarcity on the economy

Sources: Constructed from summation of all agreed and all disagreed responses on Table 6

From Fig. 4, the highest effect of petrol scarcity on the economy was found to be high inflation followed by high cost of living. Others in order of high effect are foreign and domestic disinvestment, poor infrastructural development, increase in unemployment, closure of

industries, discrediting government, retardation of economic growth, and dwindling foreign reserves. Response data and the result for the strategies used by government in curbing petrol scarcity in Nigeria were presented in Tables 10, 11 and 12 respectively

Table 10 : Government strategies for curbing incessant petrol scarcity in Nigeria

Strategies	SA	A	$\Sigma(SA:A)$	SD	D	$\Sigma(SD:D)$	UD	Total
Fuel Subsidy Removal (FSR)	31	44	75	109	156	265	11	351
Setting up Task Force on Petroleum Product Monitoring (TFPPM)	8	9	17	111	222	333	1	351
Reforms of the Downstream Sector (RDS)	3	3	6	126	217	343	2	351
Institution of Petroleum Industry Bill (PIB)	4	7	11	20	18	38	302	351
Introduction of Petroleum Support Fund (PSF)	17	13	30	123	182	305	16	351
Creation of NNPC and its subsidiaries (C'NNPC)	99	93	192	43	102	145	14	351
Establishment of the Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR)	21	9	30	186	130	316	5	351
Establishment of Petroleum Product Pricing and Regulatory Agency (PPRA)	32	41	73	99	107	206	72	351

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 11 : Data for the test of hypothesis three

Likert Scale Point	(FSR)	(TFPPM)	(RDS)	(PIB)	(PSF)	(NNPC)	(DPR)	(PPPRA)
4	31	8	3	4	17	99	21	32
3	44	9	3	7	13	93	9	41
2	109	111	126	20	123	43	186	99
1	156	222	217	18	182	102	130	107
0	11	1	2	302	16	14	5	72

Source: Table 8

Table 12 : Correlation result for Government Strategies for curbing out Petrol Scarcity

Effects petrol scarcity on lives of Nigerians	Correlation coefficient (r^2)	Sig. (2-tailed)
Fuel Subsidy Removal (FSR)	-.188	.761
Setting up Task Force on Petroleum Product Monitoring (TFPPM)	-.327	.592
Reforms of the Downstream Sector (RDS)	-.342	.573
Institution of Petroleum Industry Bill (PIB)	-.740	.153
Introduction of Petroleum Support Fund (PSF)	-.339	.577
Creation of NNPC and its subsidiaries	-.644	.241
Establishment of the Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR)	-.170	.785
Establishment of Petroleum Product Pricing and Regulatory Agency (PPPRA)	-.688	.199

Source: SPSS generated result

The result showed a negative and significant relationship meaning that all the strategies adopted in curbing petrol scarcity have not been successful. This further means that the more of these strategies, the less the solution to petrol scarcity in Nigeria. These strategies were fuel subsidy removal ($R^2 = -.188$), setting up of task forces ($r^2 = -.327$), introduction of reforms ($R^2 = -.342$), formulation of legislative bills such as petroleum industry bill ($r^2 = -.740$), petroleum support fund ($R^2 = -.339$) and, establishment of NNPC ($R^2 = -.644$), DPR ($-.170$) and PPPRA ($R^2 = -.688$). Apart from NNPC, all other strategies were found to be ineffective. The pictorial view of the various strategies were presented in Fig. 5

.342), formulation of legislative bills such as petroleum industry bill ($r^2 = -.740$), petroleum support fund ($R^2 = -.339$) and, establishment of NNPC ($R^2 = -.644$), DPR ($-.170$) and PPPRA ($R^2 = -.688$). Apart from NNPC, all other strategies were found to be ineffective. The pictorial view of the various strategies were presented in Fig. 5

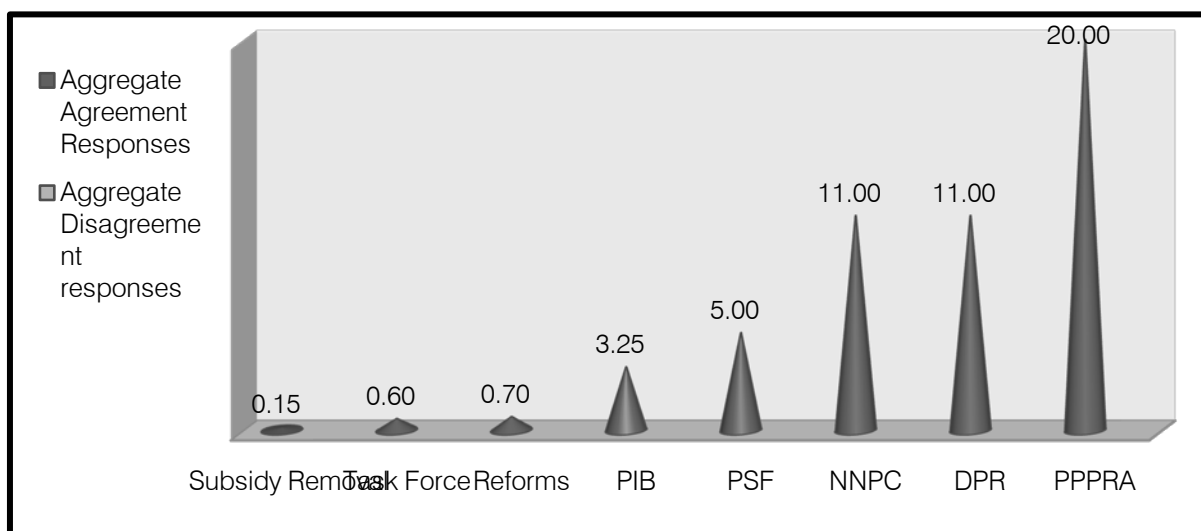


Figure 5 : Pictorial Presentation of government strategies for curbing out petrol scarcity

Sources: Constructed from summation of all agreed and all disagreed responses in Table 8

As indicated in Fig. 5, the most used and most ineffective strategy was the introduction of reforms followed by used of task force, creation of the department of petroleum resources (DPR), institution of petroleum support fund (PSF), next was the removal of fuel subsidy, the establishment of NNPC has however,

had a marginal effect. Also in support of this assertion are several authors such as Ikponmwo and Odogwu, (2012), Ozumba (1996) and Ovaga (2012) who asserted that the creation of many agencies and parastatals to manage the nation's oil resources in addition to NNPC is not a healthy development as it is capable of creating

operational conflicts and duplication of functions. Again these authors emphatically opined that such creation and development further opens up the sector and the entire economy to fraud and corruption and people who occupy the position would consider it a reward for their political devotion and contribution. They were of the opinion that instead of creating more agencies, the NNPC should be empowered with relevant constitutional provisions to extend operations and regulatory oversight over the distribution and dispensing of petroleum product in the country. Speaking on the challenges in oil sector, Yekini (2011) said, "despite all the efforts of the

ministry and parastatals, the NNPC has almost found it impossible to eliminate the activities of saboteurs in the oil industry in the country thereby making the corporation ineffective".

Result on strategic management approach for managing risk of petrol production and consumption in Nigeria were those suggested by Stoner (1963). These strategies as explained by Chaffee (1985) include SWOT analysis, PEST analysis, the balanced score card approach and, the Porter Five Forces analysis. However, indicated in Tables 13, 14 and, 15 were responses, data and the result of the hypothesis four

Table 13 : The most effective strategic management approach toward managing petrol production and supply by NNPC and other subsidiaries in Nigeria

Strategic management approaches	SA	A	$\Sigma(SA:A)$	SD	D	$\Sigma(SD:D)$	UD	Total
SWOT Analysis of Petroleum	20	28	48	31	33	64	239	351
PEST or STEEP Analysis	13	20	33	40	36	76	242	351
Balanced Score Card Analysis	15	10	25	14	12	26	300	351
Porter Five Forces Analysis	8	12	20	15	6	21	310	351

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 14 : Data for the test of hypothesis four

Likert scale point	SWOT analysis of petroleum	PEST or STEEP analysis	Balanced score card analysis	Porter Five Forces Analysis
4	239	242	300	310
3	33	36	12	6
2	31	40	14	15
1	28	20	10	12
0	20	13	15	8

Source: Table 10

Table 15 : Correlation result for effective strategic management approach

Effective strategic management approach	Correlation coefficient (r^2)	Sig. (2-tailed)
SWOT Analysis of Petroleum	.741	.152
PEST or STEEP Analysis	.775	.124
Balanced Score Card Analysis	.704	.185
Porter Five Forces Analysis	.705	.184

Source: SPSS generated result

On the basis of aggregate agreement response for SWOT analysis was 48 (which was about 13.68%) of all the respondents with aggregate disagreement response was 64 (18.23%) of all respondents, but with a total of 239 undecided responses (which was about 68.09%) of all the respondents. PEST had an aggregate agreement response of 33 (9.40%), aggregate disagreement response of 76 (21.65%) and, a total of 242 unexpressed response which represent about 68.96 percent of all respondents. Balanced score card had 25 (7.12%) aggregate agreement responses and 26 (7.41%) aggregate disagreement responses and, a total of 300 reserved comments representing 85.47 percent of all respondents. Finally, Porter five factor analyses had 20 (5.70%) aggregate agreement responses and 21 (5.98%) aggregate disagreement responses and, a total

of 310 reserved comments which represents about 88.32 percent of all respondents.

The result above indicates that all the approaches have some level of effectiveness that can help curb petrol scarcity in Nigeria. This is because all the R^2 shows a significant positive value which is above 70 percents. This value is an indication of effectiveness and as such the null hypothesis was rejected while the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Moreover, the result on these strategic approaches was that a number of respondents did not say anything, which may imply that they do not even understand these strategies nor ascertain their application by concerned organizations. These strategic approaches are very important to an organization. This is because of the difficulty of fully comprehending and responding to the complex issues

faced by organizations which has led to a proliferation of strategic management models and frameworks. Each of the various models attempts to organize a number of issues and make them more readily understandable.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has made an in-depth investigation into the concept of petrol scarcity and its attendant risks on the lives of Nigerians and performance of Nigerian economy. The main thrust was to ascertain how managers of agencies and organizations saddled with the responsibility of petrol production and supply could apply modern strategic management approaches in carrying out their operations without incessant occurrence and experience of avoidable petrol scarcity and shortage. This study was informed by the need of the present day economic thinkers to bring petroleum products to all and sundry for their use without unnecessary hiking of the product price and generating a condition of scarcity that paralyze economic activities at both micro and macroeconomic levels. Extensive literature was reviewed; requisite data were also sourced, collected and analyzed with appropriate statistical tools. Based on the findings and discussions made thereof, it is thus concluded that a number of factors are responsible for scarcity of petrol at different degrees of effects and that this menace has influenced Nigerian and the economy negatively. Moreover, government strategies so far adopted have not significantly addressed the problem and the risks of petrol scarcity in Nigeria. Therefore there is need for alternative strategic approach to managing petrol in Nigeria to avert and reduce rampant cases of petrol shortage and scarcity. Based on this conclusion, the researchers wish to make recommendations that follow:

- i. Management of NNPC and associated agencies should work against the found causative factors of petrol scarcity by applying an appropriate strategic management. The approach suggested here for their application is the Balanced Scorecard. This approach will help organizations operate from the perspective of various stakeholders, taking into consideration the various interests such that the tendency for heinous activities, corruption and mismanagement would be averted.
- ii. PEST analysis or STEEP analysis or approach should be employed by the managers of petroleum sector. This approach would allow for the examination of the macro-economic environmental factors such as politics, economics, social factors and, government regulations in which case issues that concern the populace would be addressed properly
- iii. Since the effect of scarcity on economy is more of external than internal the appropriate strategic

management approach to be used in order to avert and make the effect of petrol scarcity on economic performance negligible is by applying the Porter's Five Forces Analysis. This approach or framework helps to determine the competitive intensity and therefore attractiveness of a market to both foreign and local investors. When this happens, petrol would be made available as there would be competition.

- iv. Since it was found that administrative bottlenecks and legal limitations caused petrol scarcity, the petroleum industry bill (PIB) should be passed into law to remove entanglements and empower relevant agencies to operate legally. The Bill will also help in regulating the activities of petroleum dealers in the sector such that any practice found to be inimical to petroleum product availability in the right quality, quantity and price would be discouraged

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Poverty Reduction during 1971-2013 Periods: Success and its Recent Trends in Bangladesh

By Basharat Hossain

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Abstract- This paper analyses data on poverty for 1971-2013 periods and finds that, Bangladesh reduces national poverty by 55.82 percent during these periods. Moreover, nearly 44 percent people are found extremely poor who earn less than \$1.25 per day and 77 percent people are moderately poor who earn less than \$2 per day. Though, absolute income poverty declines but income inequality rises by 30 percent in these periods. However, different international indexes disclose that, Bangladesh also reduces human poverty. Bangladesh is no longer the member of 'alarmingly hunger countries' and will become the member of 'Medium human development countries' by 2014. Besides, about 58 percent people are found multi-dimensionally poor, who suffer from overlapping deprivations in health, education and standard of living. Finally, this paper makes a comparison between Bangladesh and other south Asian countries and finds that, Bangladesh has the highest level of poverty followed by India in this region.

Keywords: *poverty, income inequality, human development, population, bangladesh, south asia.*

GJHSS-E Classification : *JEL Code: I32, O15, O53*



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



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1. INTRODUCTION

Bangladesh, is one of the most poorest and 5th densely populated country in the world with 1.37 percent population growth per year (United Nation, 2012, pp.; 41-51 and GOB, 2013, pp.; 183-189). More than 154 million people lives in this country with 47 million poor people. The current GDP of this country is \$116.4 billion with per capita GDP\$ 859. Moreover, it is a low income country with yearly 6.03 percent GDP growth and most of its income is generated from the industrial sectors followed by agricultural sector (GOB, 2013, pp.279-351).

The life expectancy of its people at birth is 65 years only; maternal mortality ratio (MMR) is 194 per 100000 live births While 65 deaths per 1,000 live births occur among children under 5 years of age (UNICEF, 2012, pp.1-12, BMMS, 2010, pp.2-24, WHO, 2013, pp.67).

In addition, the adult literacy rate is only 57.91 percent and labor force (15-64 years) comprises by 62.1 percent of total population (BBS, 2010, pp.23). Bangladesh has achieved significant success in reducing extreme poverty during the last 42 years (1971-2013) (BBS, 2011, pp.132-141).

Now, a close look on definition and measurement of poverty is necessary for further

discussion. World Bank points out the definition of poverty from a representative sample of 60,000 poor people from 60 developing countries during the 1990s. The poor see that, Poverty is multidimensional. Poverty consists of many interlocked dimensions. The extreme is hunger – the lack of food, some psychological dimensions are powerlessness, voicelessness, dependency, shame, and humiliation. Moreover, poor people lack access to basic infrastructure – roads (particularly in rural areas), transportation, and clean water. No education or poor schooling. Poor health and illness as a source of destitution, low income and gender discrimination (World Bank, 1996 and Narayan et al 2000, pp.9-27).

Nafziger (2006) in his book mentions that, Poor people live without fundamental freedoms of action and choice that the better off take for granted. They [suffer] deprivations that keep them from leading the kind of life that everyone values. They also face extreme vulnerability to ill health, economic dislocation, and natural disasters. And they are often exposed to ill treatment by . . . the state and society (Nafziger, 2006, pp. 165-189.).

More precisely, Sen (1983, pp. 153-169, 1985, pp.2-9) defined the poverty as the lack of «capability» to function in a given society. That means, the individual has a space of «functioning», where a person is either actually able to do (realized functioning) or the set of alternatives he/she has (real functioning). This space may be very basic (food, shelter) or complex (freedom, self-respect, social inclusion, etc.).

United Nation defines Poverty as a mirror that reflects the miseries of deprived people who have to struggle with hunger to survive. The United Nations Development Program (2000) defines poverty into two general classifications: income poverty and human poverty (UNDP, 2000, pp.5-22).Income poverty is an understanding of poverty that is solely based on levels of monetary income. According to the World Bank, people, who earn less than US\$1.25 per day, are living in extreme poverty, and people who earn less than US\$2 a day are in moderate poverty (World Bank, 2008, pp.28).

Furthermore, Poverty can be either relative or absolute. Absolute poverty measures the number of people living below a certain income threshold or the number of households unable to afford certain basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter. Conversely,

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Relative poverty defines poverty in relation to the economic status of other members of the society: it measures the distribution of income and wealth across the population (Sen, 1992, pp.47-52). It reflects the inequality in the bottom-half of the income distribution and the cost of social inclusion and equality of opportunity in a specific time and space (Smelser & Baltes, (2001) Coudouel et al. (2002) and Todaro and Smith, 2012, pp.202-265).

Human poverty encompasses the multiplicity of dimensions associated with poverty. It employs indicators that capture non-financial elements of poverty, such as life expectancy, adult literacy, water quality, malnutrition, abbreviated life span, poor maternal health, illness from preventable diseases and children that are underweight. Indirect measures are lack of access to goods, services and infrastructure - energy, sanitation, education, communication, and drinking water - necessary to sustain basic human capabilities (ECOSOC, 1998 & Krieger, 2002, pp.21-39).

In Bangladesh, Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) uses the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) method to measure Income poverty and Direct Calorie intake ((DCI) method to measure both the extreme poverty (absolute as well as Hard-core poverty)(BBS, 2010). CBN method is used to design food and non-food poverty line. The food poverty line is determined according to three steps: (1) a basic food basket is identified from the data, consistent with consumption patterns, (2) The quantities in the basket are scaled accordingly to correspond to the nutritional requirement and (3) The cost of acquiring the basket is calculated. A non-food poverty line is calculated by estimating the cost of consuming a basic set of non-food goods for (i) extreme poor households whose total expenditures equals the food poverty line (ii) moderate poor households whose food expenditure is at food poverty line (BBS, 2010).

Direct Calorie Intake (DCI) is used to determine the absolute and Hard-core poverty. Household is absolute poor if its per capita calorie intake is less than the standard per capita nutritional requirement 2122 kilo calories per day and Household is hard-core poor if its per capita calorie intake is less than 1805 kilo calories (BBS, 2010, pp.48-62).

To measure the human poverty, different international indexes including Human Development Index (HDI), The Global Hunger Index (GHI) and Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) are used in this paper. Human Development Index (HDI), first introduced in 1990 by the UNDP, is a composite measure of indicators along three dimensions: life expectancy, educational attainment and income needed for a decent living. It ranges between 0 (lowest level of human development) and 1 (highest level of human development). According to the Human Development Report 2013, those countries with an HDI score of over

0.800 are part of the very High Human Development group. Those between 0.711 and 0.800, 0.535 and 0.710 are included in the group of high and Medium Human Development countries. And, those that fall below 0.534 are the Low Human Development countries (UNDP, 2013, pp.64).

Since Hunger is a dimension of extreme poverty (Pinstrup & Fuzhi, 2007, pp.96-103). Hunger index is used to measure the human poverty. The Global Hunger Index (GHI) was first introduced and published in 2006 by the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), Welthungerhilfe and Concern Worldwide' to comprehensively measure and track hunger globally and by country and region. The GHI combines three equally weighted indicators: 1) the proportion of the undernourished as a percentage of the population; 2) the proportion of underweight children under the age of five; and 3) the mortality rate of children under the age of five. GHI counts the scores, and rank countries on a 100-point scale in which zero is the best score (no hunger) and 100 the worst. The high score mean the worst hunger situation in a country. Values less than 4.9 reflect "low hunger", values between 5 and 9.9 reflect "moderate hunger", values between 10 and 19.9 indicate a "serious", values between 20 and 29.9 are "alarming", and values exceeding 30 are "extremely alarming" hunger problem (IFPRI, 2013, pp.5-56).

Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) was first introduced by the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) and UNDP in 2010. The index uses the three dimensions: overlapping deprivations in health, education and living standards – rather than income. These are measured using ten indicators. Child Mortality, Nutrition under health category, Years of school, Children enrolled under education, and Cooking fuel, Toilet, Water, Electricity, Floor, Assets under standard of living category. Each dimension and each indicator within a dimension is equally weighted. If people are deprived in a three or more of ten (weighted) indicators, the global index identifies them as 'MPI poor'(suffering deprivations in 33.33 percent of weighted indicators). The global MPI has been published in the HDR2013 ever since, and assesses multidimensional poverty in 104 countries for which data are available (MPI-UNDP, 2013, pp.29).

II. OBJECTIVE

The main objective of this paper is to reveal the success of Bangladesh in poverty reduction during 1971-2013 periods and its recent trends in Bangladesh. More specifically, the aim of this research paper is to disclose that, whether the different types of poverty increases or decreases in Bangladesh during 1971-2013 periods and what is the recent scenario.

III. METHODOLOGY

This paper is a descriptive analysis of poverty incidence in Bangladesh. This paper employed different method of World Bank, United Nation, and Government of Bangladesh to measure the poverty incidence in Bangladesh. The details description of these methods is given in section (I) the all data of this study are collected from the secondary sources. The data on national income poverty, rural and urban poverty, absolute and hard core poverty, relative poverty, education and land poverty are collected from Bangladesh Household income and expenditure survey (HIES) 2005-2010 and Bangladesh economic review 2013. The data on extreme and moderate poverty are collected from different issues of World Development Indicators (WDI) 2008-2013. The data on human poverty are collected from Global Hunger Report 2013, Human Development Report 2013 and Bangladesh Progress Report in MDG 2012 (GOB, 2012-2013)

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

The United Nation study finds that on average income growth is the major driving force behind both the declines and increases in poverty. The rise of income inequality is the causes of severe poverty in Bangladesh (UNU-WIDER, 2010, pp.22-37). However, Bangladesh experiences a declining trend in poverty compared to 1970s. But inequality rises and a large proportion of people still struggling for survival because, poverty is not a high priority for the Bangladeshi elite politicians, businessmen, bureaucrats (Naomi, 2005, pp.8-40). Sen (2008) finds that, to increase 'capability of women under the human development', Bangladesh has gone ahead of India. Moreover, Bangladesh set it target to halve the extreme poverty (live on less than 1.25\$ per day) to 24.9 percent by 2015(World Bank, 2013, pp.112).

Among the recent works, Hossain (2009, pp.5,) analyzes the dynamics of rural poverty in Bangladesh. McLeod (2007, pp.38-52) shows the poverty trends in Bangladesh for 1990-2005 periods. Urban poverty persists in Bangladesh due to huge Slum population, unplanned Migration and Social dis-Integration (Shahadat, 2010,pp. 18-32).The paper of Ali and Begum (2006,pp.3) exposes the performance of recent poverty and Social Indicators for 1990-2005 periods. Murgai and Zaidi (2005, pp.7-32) reveal the research outcome on the poverty of 1990s of Bangladesh in their article. Islam (2004, pp.29-49) presents the poverty change sscenario by investigating 1983-2000 period data. However, this research paper is different from the earlier research in a sense that, it analyzes 42 years data for 1971-2013 periods, which is longer duration than previous. In addition, this paper investigates both income and human poverty trends in Bangladesh. This paper also discloses the income inequality scenario between rich and poor people. Another addition of this work is the

making of comparison in poverty incidence of Bangladesh with other countries in south Asian region by using the latest national and international poverty indexes.

V. POVERTY REDUCTION IN BANGLADESH: LATEST SCENARIO

a) *The trends in Income poverty*

i. *Absolute Income Poverty*

During 1971-2013 periods, Bangladesh achieved significant success in reducing the level of poverty. The highest level of poverty decreases during 2000-2013 period. Bangladesh has already achieved the target of reducing the extreme poverty and hunger in 2013, the first goal of Millennium Development goal (UNDP, 2013).To be mentioned that, in 1970s, about 71 percent people were living below the poverty line. The main causes behind that were the independence war in 1971, high (about 40 percent per annum) inflation rate accompanied by drought, flood and famine in 1974 and political turmoil during 1975-77 periods (Akash, 2003).

However, in 1980s, the poverty incidence fluctuates in different years and declines, but was also at high level. Figure-1(a) reveals that, according to the lower poverty line, the average national poverty rate decreases to 39 percent in 1980s compared to 47 percent in 1970s.The annual rate of declining poverty in this decade was only 0.44 percent. In the same period; both rural and urban poverty declines and reaches to 44.30 percent and 22 percent in 1989 respectively.

Actually, the rate of poverty reduction became faster after the year of 1990 and the annual rate of decreasing poverty was the highest 4.86 percent in 2000s compared to 1.64 percent in 1990s.In 2010, the national poverty rate was only 17.6 percent which is about 64 percent lower than the 1973's poverty.

The similar declining trend is recorded under the upper poverty line (see Figure-1(a)). During 1973-2010 periods, the incidence of poverty decreases by 56 percent, and reaches to 31.5 percent in 2010 compared to 71.3 percent in 1973.The highest level of poverty declines in 2000s compared to other decades and the annual declining rate is3.5 percent in 2000s which was 1.2 percent in 1980s and 1.8 percent in 1990s correspondingly. Moreover, the data exposes that, the overall rural as well as urban poverty rate was also declining during the last four decades but rural poverty was always higher than the urban poverty.

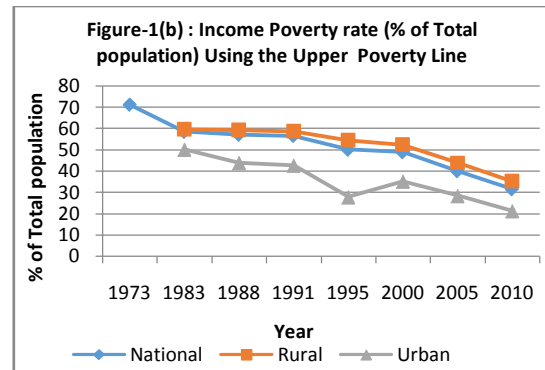
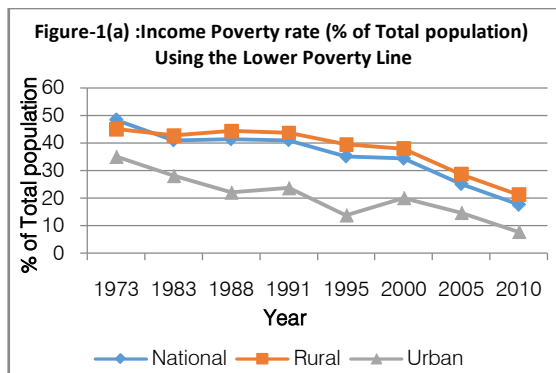


Figure 1 : Trends of Income poverty in Bangladesh (1973-2005)

ii. Extreme and Moderate Poverty in Bangladesh

During 1988-2005 periods, the national absolute and Hard-core poverty decreases by 16.14 percent and 41.19 percent respectively. But the number of poor population under the absolute poverty level increases by 4.4 million during the same period. Besides, though the Hard-core poverty decreases at national and rural level, the number of urban hard-core poor increases by 4.5 million. This result implies that, though the percentage of absolute and Hard-core poverty decreases, but the number of poor people increases during the 1988-2005 periods. The BBS does not measure this method in 2010 (see figure-2(a)).

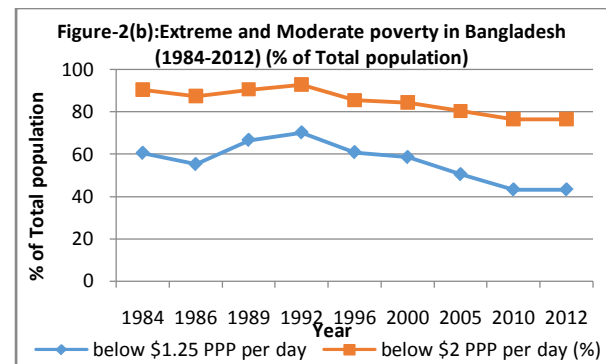
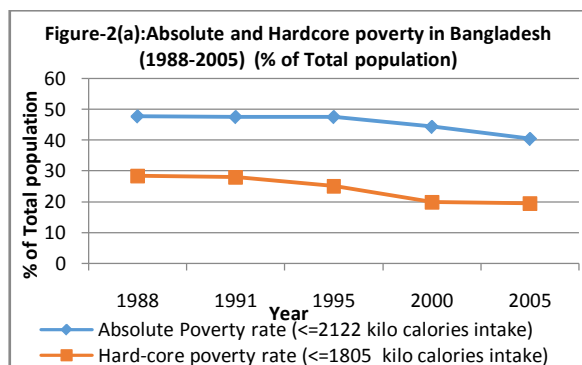


Figure 2 : Trends in Extreme and Moderate Poverty in Bangladesh (1984-2012)

Conversely, Figure-2(b) demonstrates that, during 1984-2012 periods, the extreme poverty (below \$1.25 PPP per day income) in Bangladesh declines by 25 percent and recorded as 43.3 percent 2012 compared to 60.57 percent in 1984. This indicates that, still now, extreme poverty is almost high and makes severe problem in Bangladesh. Another Alarming report is that, 2012, about 77 percent people earn less than \$2 PPP per day. That means, majority percent of the total population have very low income and are moderate poor. In addition, World Bank reports that, the moderate poverty (below \$2 PPP per day income) declines only 16 percent during 1984-2012 periods (World Bank, 2013, pp. 20-52).

iii. Relative Poverty and Income Inequality

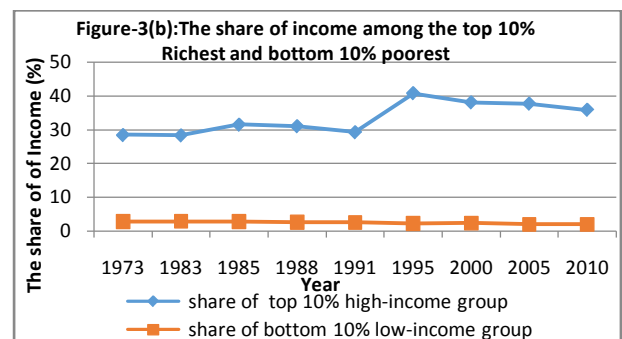
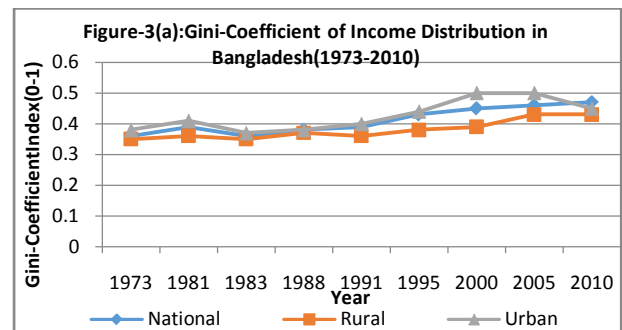


Figure 3 : Trends in Relative Poverty and Income Inequality in Bangladesh (1973-2010)

Figure-3(a) describes that, income inequality in Bangladesh increases overtime. The values of Gini index presents that, the income gap between rich and poor people increases to nearly 50 percent during 1973-2010 periods. The alarming evidence is that, though the absolute income poverty decreases overtime, but relative income poverty increases significantly at the same period. The Gini coefficient in Bangladesh rises to 0.47 in 2010 compared to 0.36 in 1973 at national level while this figure recorded as 0.43 and 0.45 in rural and urban areas. The income discrimination is much worst in urban areas then the rural areas.

Additionally, the strong proofs of income inequality are found from the analysis of income sharing scenario in figure-3(b). In 2010, top 5 percent high-income group household occupies 25percent of total income against the 0.77 percent of the bottom 5 percent low-income group household. This indicates that, the richest 5 percent people hold about 25 time higher income from the poorest 5 percent people in Bangladesh. In addition, this situation is much worse between the richest as well as the poorest 10 percent of people. The richest 10 percent has about 36 time higher income than the poorest 10 percent. The implication is that, the income discrimination in Bangladesh is on the upward trends since its independence and riches become richer and poor become poorer day by day.

b) The Trends in Human Poverty

i. International Poverty index: Bangladesh Scenario

Hunger is the sign of extreme poverty. Global Hunger index (GHI) counts the scores, and rank countries on a 100-point scale where zero is the best score (no hunger) and 100 the worst. The lower the scores mean the lower hunger level. Figure-4(a) shows that, during 1990-2013 periods, Bangladesh successfully reduces the hunger level among poor by 47 percent. Besides, its GHI score declines to 19.4 in 2013 from 36.7 in 1990. But still now, it stays in the zone of 'serious hunger (score: 10-19.9)' (IFPRI, 2013, pp.5-56).

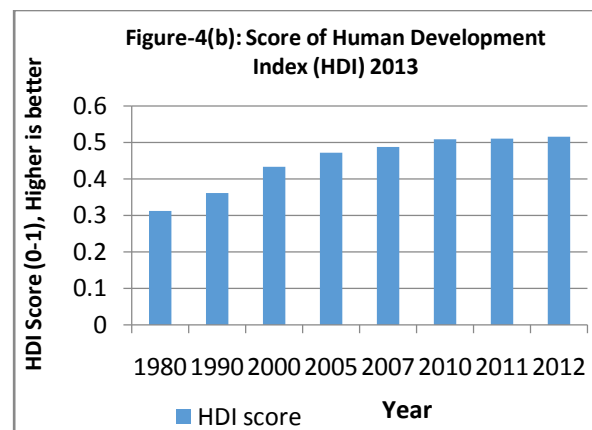
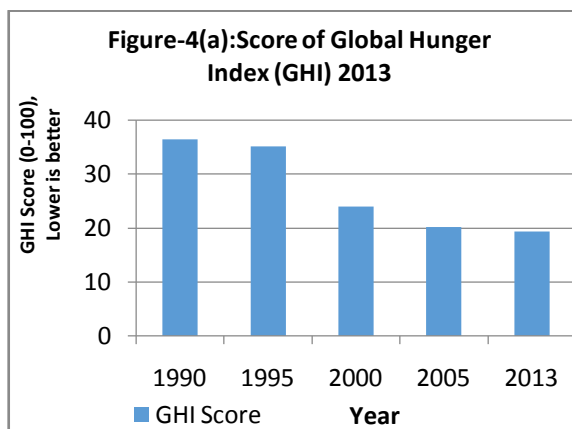


Figure 4 : Trends of Human poverty in Bangladesh (1980-2013)

Furthermore, Figure-4(b) illustrates that, during the last four decades (1980-2013), human development progresses occur very slowly which is about 16.26 percent per decade and reaches to 0.515 in 2012. Compared to 0.312 in 1980. Though its HDI score exceeds the 0.500 level in 2008, it takes four years to reach to 0.515 in 2012. Bangladesh with a Rank 146 is still included in the group of 'low human development' countries (below 0.534 HDI score) in 2013. Moreover, human development report also reveals that, the living standards dimension contributes more than the health and education dimensions. Besides, it is recorded that, Gross national income (GNI) per capita adjusted to 2005 purchasing power parity (PPP \$) is 1781 and life expectancy at birth is 69.2 years, where child survival rate is higher among educated people compared to uneducated or lower educated people. In addition, during the same period, dependency ratio decreases by 40.80 per cent. Furthermore, average mean years of schooling are only 4.8 years, which is very performance in education index and alarming for human development (UNDP, 2013).

ii. Incidence of Poverty (CBN) by Educational Statistics and Ownership of Land

Table 1 : Trends in Poverty by Education and Land Ownership in Bangladesh

	2000	2005	2010
Illiterate	63.7	54.7	42.8
Literate	29	23	19
Landless poor	46.6	46.3	35.4

Poverty is high among the illiterates than the literates' people (see table-1). The household income and expenditure survey (HIES, 2010) report discloses that, 42.8 percent poor are illiterates compared to 19 percent of the literates poor in 2010. Moreover, the proportion of declining poverty among literates poor (34.48 percent) is higher than that among illiterates'

poor (33.33 percent). However, the poverty is much severe in terms of Land ownership. About 47 percent poor were landless in 2000. Between 2000 and 2010; the number of landless poor declines by 24 percent and reached to 35.4 percent in 2010. Since there is an inverse relationship between land ownership and incidence of poverty, redistribution of land is indispensable to reduce land poverty in Bangladesh (BBS, 2010).

iii. Millennium Development Goals and achievements of Bangladesh

The United Nation's Millennium Development Goals conflate hunger and poverty in its first goal to "eradicate extreme poverty and hunger." The indicators used for this goal measure income poverty, undernourishment, and malnutrition (MDGR-UNDP, 2013, pp.33-55). Bangladesh has made commendable progress in respect of eradication of extreme poverty and hunger. The latest HIES (2010) data show that the incidence of poverty declines at an annual rate of 2.47 percent in Bangladesh during 1992-2010 periods against the MDG target of 2.12 percent. Bangladesh has already met one of the indicators of target 1 by bringing down the poverty gap ratio to 6.5 in 2010 against the target of 8.0 in 2015. The estimated figures suggest that the MDG target of halving the population living below the poverty line (from 56.7 percent to 29.0 percent) has already been achieved in 2012 (GOB, 2012, pp.7-22).

VI. POVERTY IN SOUTH ASIAN REGION: A COMPARISON

a) Income poverty in South Asian Region

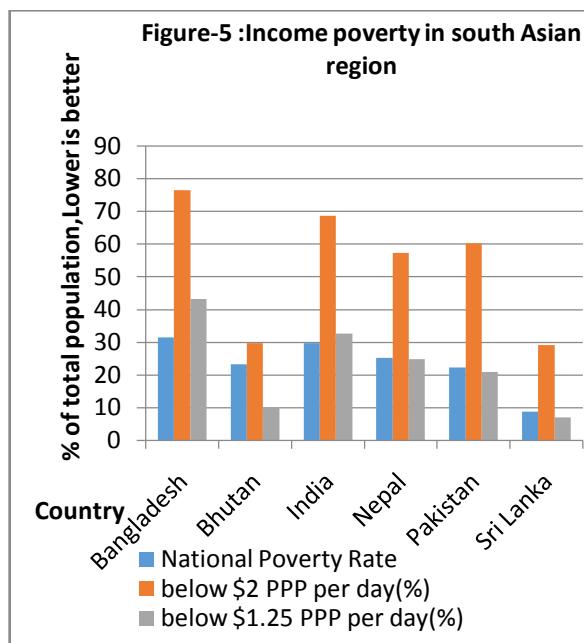


Figure 5 : Trends in Income Poverty in South Asia 2013

Figure-5 portrays that, in south Asian region, the overall poverty condition is worst in Bangladesh than any other countries. Moreover, the highest number of extreme as well as moderate poor lives in Bangladesh followed by India, Nepal and Pakistan respectively. On the contrary, Sri Lanka attained the great success in reducing extreme poverty and has only 8.9 percent the lowest level extreme poverty in this region. Besides, the extreme poverty is also lowest as 7 percent at \$1.25 poverty line and 29.1 percent at \$2 poverty line in Sri Lanka correspondingly.

b) Human Poverty in South Asian Region

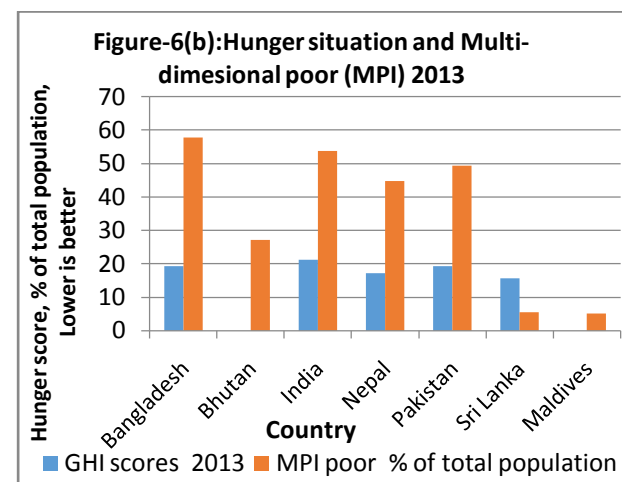
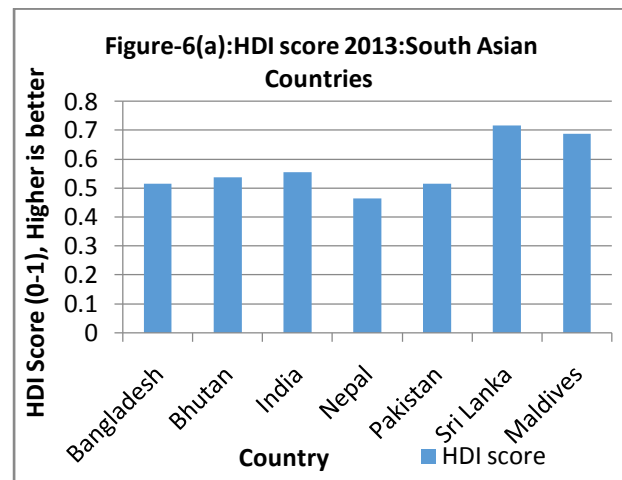


Figure 6 : Trends in Income Poverty in South Asia 2013

Figure-6(a) discloses that, likewise income poverty, Sri Lanka attained the top position in reducing human poverty and it is the only country that achieves the High human development score (0.715) in south Asia. Maldives achieves the highest (0.688) medium human development score followed by India (0.554) and Bhutan (0.538). Whereas, Bangladesh (0.515) and Pakistan (0.515) secures the fifth position in reducing human poverty and stays in the group of the low human development countries followed by Nepal (0.463).

Figure-6(b) depicts that, in south Asian region, the hunger is lowest in Sri Lanka (15.6 percent) followed by Nepal (17.3 percent), Pakistan (19.3 percent) and Bangladesh (19.3 percent). Bangladesh occupies the fourth position in reducing the hunger in this region while India stays in the zone of 'alarming hunger' with 21.3 percent hunger score. In contrast, the multidimensional poverty is highest in Bangladesh. Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) defines that, people are multi-dimensionally poor, if they suffer from overlapping deprivations in health, education and standard of living. The highest multi-dimensional poor is living in Bangladesh (58 percent) followed by India (54 percent), Pakistan (49 percent) and Nepal (44 percent). Maldives is the country of the lowest multi-dimensional poor (5.2 percent) followed by Sri Lanka (5.3 percent) in this region. Moreover, the intensity of deprivation is the highest in Pakistan (53 percent) followed by Bangladesh (50 percent) and Nepal (49 percent) (MPI-UNDP, 2013).

VII. SUMMARY OF DISCUSSION AND KEY FINDINGS

The national Poverty in Bangladesh decreases during 1971-2013 periods. The national poverty rate is recorded 31.5 percent in 2010 which was 71.3 percent in 1973. But in 2012, nearly 44 percent of total population are found extremely poor who earn less than \$1.25 per day and about 77 percent people are moderately poor who earn less than \$2 per day. This study also finds that, about 15 percent people are hardcore poor with less than 1805 kilo calories food intake per day and nearly 35 percent poor people have 2122 kilo calories food intake per day. Though the absolute income poverty declines overtime but the relative income poverty increases at the same time. The income inequality rises by 30 percent between 1973 and 2012. The income gap between the rich and poor people also rises at the same period.

However, different international indexes disclose that, Bangladesh achieved the great success and changed its position in reducing human poverty. Global hunger index reports that, hunger decreases faster in Bangladesh in 2013 compared to the last two decades. Bangladesh is no longer the member of 'alarming hunger countries'. According to Human development index, Bangladesh exceeded the HDI 0.500 score in 2008 and still included in the 'group of 'low human development countries'. Moreover, poverty among illiterate, literate and landless people is also decreases in 2000s.

In south Asian region, Bangladesh has the highest level of income poverty (31.5 percent) comprising the highest number of extreme (43 percent) as well as moderate (76 percent) poor population followed by India (29.8 percent). On the other hand, the

lowest number of extreme as well as moderate poor lives in Sri Lanka (8.9 percent).

In addition, Multi-dimensional poor are higher in Bangladesh while it secures the third position in hunger index in this region. According to Human development report, Bangladesh occupied the fifth position (0.515 HDI score) in reducing human poverty in this territory.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

This article finds that, though the head count ratio of poverty decreases, but the income inequality rises. To reduce income inequality, Government should take pro-poor policy to increase the access to credit, opportunity to participate in economic activities and equitable distribution of resources. Moreover, Education must be ensured for the poor people because research found that, poverty is lower among the literates' people. Education also contributes to health and productivity. Higher level of employment can reduce the income gap, so both labor as well as capital intensive industry should be facilitated by the government to create employment. Government can strengthen the youth development center to make the labor force more efficient. Special emphasis on health care is needed to increase the productivity of people which may reduce human poverty. Finally, Government should fix target to reduce poverty faster than other countries in the south Asian region.

IX. CONCLUSION

The poverty in Bangladesh decreases during the last four decades. The declining rate became faster after 1990s and reached to 30 percent poverty in 2010. The fastest poverty reduction was attributed to the expansion of labor-intensive Exports (such as garments and fisheries) business and the increase in employment in the rural nonfarm sector comprising Small and cottage industries, construction and other non-tradable services. To reduce the poverty, the development of all sectors is needed to boost up the employments and productivity. Finally we have to recognize that, Poor people are none but our neighbors. So Government of every country and the development agencies of the world should take initiative to eradicate extreme poverty. Otherwise, this world would be a hell instead of a peaceful living place

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The Justiceability and Enforceability of Women's Rights in Nigeria

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Introduction- The legal framework for women's rights in Nigeria is based on the Constitution primarily, other local laws and international treaties relating to women ratified by the country. Nigeria is a country with very high but youthful population. 2 Women in Nigeria constitute more than two - thirds of the country's 70% adult non literate population. Despite the fact that women also constitute about 49% of the total population, they are discriminated against in all spheres of governance. The marginalization of Nigerian women is much more pronounced in the native laws and custom which constitutes a major aspect of the sources of Nigerian law. The issue of women's rights in Nigeria is very sensitive. Right is defined as 'A power, privilege or immunity, guaranteed under a constitution, status or decisional laws or claimed as a respect of long usage.

Although Nigeria is a party to many international and regional conventions the country, many of the conventions have not been tested in the Nigerian courts of law. Some of the international treaties applicable to women and ratified by Nigeria includes; International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) 29 July, 1993, International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) 29 July, 1993, Optional Protocol on ICCPR concerning individual petition, Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT) 28 June, 2001, International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD) 16 October, 1967, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) 23 April, 1984, Optional Protocol on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women 22 November, 2004 and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) 19 April, 1991.

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The Justiceability and Enforceability of Women's Rights in Nigeria

Dr. Foluke O. Dada

I. INTRODUCTION

The legal framework for women's rights in Nigeria is based on the Constitution primarily, other local laws and international treaties relating to women ratified by the country. Nigeria is a country with very high but youthful population.² Women in Nigeria constitute more than two - thirds of the country's 70% adult non literate population. Despite the fact that women also constitute about 49% of the total population, they are discriminated against in all spheres of governance. The marginalization of Nigerian women is much more pronounced in the native laws and custom which constitutes a major aspect of the sources of Nigerian law. The issue of women's rights in Nigeria is very sensitive. Right is defined as 'A power, privilege or immunity, guaranteed under a constitution, status or decisional laws or claimed as a respect of long usage.'³

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Refugees (2 May, 1968), Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War (October 10, 1988) and the United Nations Convention Against Corruption (9 December, 2003).

Importantly, the 1945 Declaration served as the basis for subsequent declarations on the rights of peoples geared towards the protection of the rights of women such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women 1979, a treaty signed and ratified by Nigeria without reservations with the Optional Protocol signed on 8th September 2000 and ratified on the 22nd of November, 2004. Article 28 (2) adopted the impermissibility principle contained in the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties. It also states that a reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of the Convention shall not be permitted and may be challenged by other States parties.

The Convention defines discrimination against women as "...any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field."⁴

The Convention provides the basis for achieving equality between women and men through ensuring women's equal access to, and equal opportunities in, political and public life including the right to vote and to stand for election as well as education, health and employment. State parties agreed to take all appropriate measures⁵, including legislation and temporary special measures, so that women can enjoy all their human rights and fundamental freedoms. The Convention is the only human rights treaty which affirms the reproductive rights of women and targets culture and tradition as influential forces shaping gender roles and family relations. It affirms women's rights to acquire, change or retain their nationality and the nationality of their children. States parties also agreed to take appropriate

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² The World Bank in a 2009 estimate records the Nigerian population to be 154, 728, 892

³ Dr C.O. Isiramen, Humanism and Women's Rights in Nigeria found at <http://www.iheu.org/node/1134> (last visited on March 16th 2011)

⁴ Article 1 Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) 1979.

⁵ The court, in *Serac V. Nigeria*, recognized a fourth duty of promoting enjoyment of human rights. The Commission held that the duty to undertake measures involves preemptive steps to prevent human rights violations even if not caused by direct acts of government agents

measures against all forms of traffic in women and exploitation of women.⁶ As such, ratification of the many international instruments on human rights principally the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR) has inspired more positive responses within the human rights domain. The UNDHR however, is now considered a key component of the National Customary Law as many state parties strive to achieve the objectives of the covenant. It served the purpose of taking over from where the League of Nations which was established at the end of the First World War stopped especially since its efforts was not adequate enough to stop the subsequent Second World War. Since its adoption at the Geneva Convention in 1948 following the cruelty and horrors of human rights abuses witnessed during the Second World War, the UNDHR has served to promote several social, economic and cultural rights of peoples across the world. The preamble to the instrument stated clearly the lofty aim sought by the governments of the world represented when it stated that, "recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world". Other instruments such as the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) also came in by encouraging state parties to take steps through international assistance and co-operation, especially economic and technical, to the maximum of its available resources, for the full realization of the rights of its citizens guaranteed without discrimination as to race, colour, sex, religion, political or other opinion, origins, property, birth or other social stratification. This convention also sought, among other things, to protect the economic rights of people especially in the payment of just and favourable remuneration for employment⁷ and the provision of assistance for the family specifically in promoting family unification by providing that women should be afforded the right to be with their newly born babies for a period of time obviously to encourage bonding.⁸

The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) to which Nigeria is also a member enjoined state parties to ensure the equal rights of men and women⁹ to the enjoyment of all civil and political rights including the right of men and women to freely choose their marriage partners¹⁰ and ensure that parties to a marriage must be capable of freely exercising their rights and responsibilities to the marriage during the subsistence of such marriage and

at its dissolution with adequate protection¹¹ given by the state to the parties at dissolution.¹² Every citizen shall also have the right and opportunity to take part in the conduct of public affairs, directly or through freely chosen representatives and vote and be voted for through the universal secret ballot system, guaranteeing the free expression of the will of the electors and the right of equal access to public service in his or her country.

Other international instruments such as the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights¹³ enjoined state parties to ensure the elimination of all discrimination against women and to ensure the protection of the rights of the woman and the child as stipulated in international declarations and conventions.¹⁴ Additionally, the very important Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against women (CEDAW) decries all forms of discrimination against women, denying or limiting their equality of rights with men as fundamentally unjust and constitutes offence against women's dignity.¹⁵ Child marriage and betrothal of young girls before puberty shall be prohibited with effective action including legislation must be taken to specify a minimum age for marriage and to make marriages in an official registry compulsory¹⁶. In Nigeria however, this has been problematic despite the ratification of the CEDAW since local laws are clearly inconsistent with this provision of the covenant. For example, Apart from advocating for equal rights of men and women¹⁷ and the freedom of choice and consent in marriage¹⁸, the convention also enjoined all state parties to educate public opinion and to direct national aspirations towards the eradication of prejudice and the abolition of all

¹¹ Article 26 of the ICCPR also provides for equal protection of law for all

¹² Article 23 ICCPR

¹³ Article 2 provides for the right of individuals to enjoy rights and freedoms recognized in the convention without discrimination of any kind as to race, ethnic group, colour, sex, language, religion, political or any other opinion, national and social origin, fortune, birth or other status. Article 3 also provides that everyone is equal before the law and be entitled to equal protection of the law.

¹⁴ Minister of Health & Ors. v. Treatment Action Campaign & Ors. (2002) AHLR 189, (2005) SA 721 (CC). In this South African case, the court determined the right of the woman to dignity specifically the right of the HIV/AIDS victims to treatment especially in ensuring that adequate treatment is given to prevent mother-to-child transmission of HIV considering the special vulnerability of women and children in the effort to combat HIV/AIDS in South Africa.

¹⁵ Article 1 of the Convention of Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (Hereinafter referred to as CEDAW)

¹⁶ Article 6 (3) of CEDAW

¹⁷ For example, Articles 2, 4 and 5

¹⁸ Article 5 provides for the right of women to acquire, change or retain their nationality. See the case of A.G Botswana v. Unity Dow (1998) 1 HRLRA 1. Article 6 (2) and (3) also provides for the equal rights of men and women during marriage and that the best interests of the children shall be paramount in all cases relating to the children of the marriage.

⁶ United Nations Website <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/>

⁷ Article 7 of the ICESCR

⁸ Article 10 ICESCR

⁹ Article 3 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (hereinafter referred to as the ICCPR)

¹⁰ Osamwonyi v. Osamwonyi (1972) All NLR 792 established a woman's

customary and social practices that are biased and based on the idea of the inferiority of women.¹⁹

The Beijing Declaration which later followed in 1995 was designed to help foster/assure the human rights of women worldwide. The "eradication of poverty based on sustained economic growth, social development, environmental protection and social justice requires the involvement of women in economic and social development, equal opportunities and the full and equal participation of women and men as agents and beneficiaries of people-centered sustainable development"²⁰.

Article 2 is central to the objects and purpose of the Convention since States parties agree that discrimination against women in all its forms should be condemned and that the strategies set out in article 2, subparagraphs (a) to (g), should be implemented by States parties to eliminate it. No traditional, religious or cultural practice nor incompatible domestic laws and policies can justify violations of the provisions of the Convention. Any reservations to article 16 are incompatible with the Convention and therefore impermissible and should be reviewed and modified or withdrawn. The consensus to eradicate all forms of domestic violence as crimes was also reached with the added duty to promote people-centered sustainable development, including sustained economic growth, through the provision of basic education, life-long education, literacy and training, and primary health care for girls and women.²¹

Governments, the international community and civil society, including non-governmental organizations and the private sector were called upon to ensure that the persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women is addressed. Also, the inequalities and inadequacies in and unequal access to education and training, access to health care and related services must be tackled in order to reduce the burden of violence against women.²²

The effects of armed or other kinds of conflict on women, including those living under foreign occupation, inequality in economic structures and policies, in all forms of productive activities and in access to resources and inequalities between men and women in the sharing of power and decision-making at all levels must also be addressed with particular attention paid to the establishment of structures, systems and enforcement mechanisms needed to protect the rights of women.²³

Importantly, the goal was to promote the human rights of women and encourage equality between men and women, promotion of social justice and the empowerment of women with the purpose of achieving political, social, economic and cultural security of all persons.

II. APPLICABILITY OF RIGHTS TO WOMEN IN NIGERIA

The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 forms the basis of the rights inherent in every citizen. Sections 33 to 44 of that constitution grants inherent fundamental human rights such as the right to life, fair-hearing, personal dignity,²⁴ personal liberty, freedom of thought, conscience and religion, freedom from discrimination and the right to compulsory acquisition of property among others. Importantly, S. 19 (d) of the Nigerian Constitution declares that "respect for international law and treaty obligations as well as the seeking of settlement of international disputes by negotiation, mediation, conciliation, arbitration and adjudication" shall be one of the state's foreign policy objectives. In applying international laws and treaties relating to the human rights of women in Nigeria, the Constitution is the primary source of law. The Federal Constitution as the supreme law of the land²⁵ allows a system whereby international laws and treaties ratified and adopted into law by the parliament becomes part of the accepted law of the land. Problems occur however because many of the Nigerian states have not adopted and passed into law most of the treaties and covenants ratified by the country. The Nigerian Constitution in protecting the human rights of Nigerians divides the rights into civil and political and socio-economic. It guarantees the civil and political rights in its Chapter 4 and socio-economic rights in its Chapter 2. The distinction lies in their justiceability. While the civil and political rights are justiceable, the socio-economic rights are not but are acknowledged as Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy.²⁶

Hence, women's rights as a fundamental part of the general human rights broad spectrum are problematic to enforce within the country. This paper presents the dual view of the current Nigerian legal

study of the provisions relating to women as contained in the Beijing Declaration.

²⁴ Section 35 of the Constitution provides for the personal dignity of individuals including women. This right is violated by many law enforcement officials who arrest and detain women for alleged offences committed by their husbands, boyfriends or sons. Worse still, they are abused and many times raped while in detention. See also Uju Peace Okeke, 'A Case For The Enforcement Of Women's Rights As Human Rights In Nigeria' (2004) found at http://www.wunrn.com/news/2010/04_10/04_05_10/040510_nigeria.htm

²⁵ S. 1 (1) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999.

²⁶ See Uju Peace Okeke, 'A Case For The Enforcement Of Women's Rights As Human Rights In Nigeria' found at http://www.wunrn.com/news/2010/04_10/04_05_10/040510_nigeria.htm

¹⁹ Article 3 of CEDAW

²⁰ Article 16 of the Beijing Declaration

²¹ Fourth world conference on Women: The Beijing Declaration 1995 See Declaration

²² See <http://web.un.org>

²³ See <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/declar.htm> and <http://www.un-documents.net/bpa-4-i.htm> for an in-depth

system as explicitly stated within the Constitutional framework of the country as far as it relates to social, cultural and economic rights. It also provides a framework for understanding the conflicts that may be inherent in certain decisions of the court as it either sustains limitations in the attainment or enforceability of rights and the respect for justiceability within the legal system.

- a) Indeed, S.42 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 provides that, "A citizen of Nigeria of a particular community, ethnic group, place of origin, sex, religion or political opinion shall not, by reason only that he is such a person: be subjected either expressly by, or in the practical application of, any law in force in Nigeria or any executive or administrative action of the government, to disabilities or restrictions to which citizens of Nigeria of other communities, ethnic groups, places of origin, sex, religions or political opinions are not made subject; or
- b) be accorded either expressly by, or in the practical application of, any law in force in Nigeria or any such executive or administrative action, any privilege or advantage that is not accorded to citizens of Nigeria of other communities, ethnic groups, places of origin, sex, religions or political opinions."

The applicability of rights to women in Nigeria has also been motivated by the desire to act in line with the multifarious international laws and treaties embraced by the country through acts of ratification and limited adoption. This is seen mostly in the fact that the country, in her effort to seem compliant, has initiated some lofty ideas and programs to enhance the lives of women with huge sums of money devoted by some state governments towards the enforcement of women's rights. The issue becomes more important when country reports are sent to the international bodies who compile such reports to either show case any development or decline in the general status of women world-wide. This works out to be a soft check on the state parties and also encourage accountability and further commitment from member states.

However, women's rights are often challenged in Nigeria most especially in family law areas such as succession rights and widowhood issues. Most cultures in Nigeria do not afford women with rights such as afforded by the international instruments and local laws including the constitution of Nigeria. Chapter 4 of the Nigerian Constitution deals with the Fundamental rights of all individuals including women who are individual rights bearers.

III. ENFORCEABILITY AND JUSTICE ABILITY OF WOMEN'S RIGHTS

Women are generally discriminated against in Nigeria despite statutory provisions to the contrary. Examples may be found in such areas as:

a) *Right to Work*

Regarding the right of women to work, the court in the Tolani case²⁷ affirmed that the Convention on the Rights of Women with disabilities was ratified on 3rd day of May, 2008 as part of the Nigerian law especially when discriminated against in their place of work. Article 3 of this Convention states:

"The principles of the present Convention shall be:

- a) Respect for inherent dignity, individual autonomy including the freedom to make one's own choices, and independence of persons;
- b) Non-discrimination;
- c) Full and effective participation and inclusion in society;
- d) Respect for difference and acceptance of persons with disabilities as part of human diversity and humanity;
- e) Equality of opportunity;
- f) Accessibility;
- g) Equality between men and women;
- h) Respect for the evolving capacities of children with disabilities and respect for the right of children with disabilities to preserve their identities.

b) *Right to Property & Succession Rights*

The right of women to own property under marriage and to accede to family chieftaincy and family headship vary from one local culture to the other. Of all the cultures of Nigeria, the Yoruba culture of inheritance and succession has been given judicial endorsement. The case of D.W Lewis & Ors. v. Bankole & Ors.²⁸ has become the "*locus classicus*" of women's rights (as grandchildren of a Chief Mabinuori who died in 1874 in Lagos, leaving twelve children, the eldest being a daughter), to the family compound and (2) that the family compound was the family property of the deceased. The court held that there was no reason why a Lagos woman would be disentitled from managing the domestic affairs of her family despite the argument that a male family member will be more desirable than a woman within the local system. In this case, Osbourne J. admitted the evidence of Yoruba traditional chiefs that the Yoruba native laws and custom does not

²⁷ See the case of Tolani v. Kwara State Judicial Service Commission & Ors. (2009) LPELR-8375(CA)

²⁸ 1 NLR 81

discriminate against women on issues of inheritance and succession.²⁹

The rights of women under the Nigerian customary law are very precarious. For example, the "Primogeniture Rule" where males were preferred to women in inheritance matters. For example, the eldest male known as the "Okpala" becomes the head of the family and inherits as of right, the late father's dwelling and the immediate surrounding compound to the exclusion of the daughters.³⁰ Also, in the case of *Alajemba Uke & Anor. V. Alberet Iro*, the "Nnaeto" custom which allows a man to keep one of his unmarried daughters to raise children for him and the "Oli Ekpe" custom which allows only male children precludes a woman. In the case of *Archbishop Olubunmi Okogie V. Attorney General of Lagos State*,³¹ the court held that the provisions of chapter II of the Constitution are not obligatory on the government, meaning social-economic rights are not attainable in Nigeria. As such, it has been difficult to assert the right to health in Nigeria.

c) *Widowhood practices*

Under the Ibo customary law, a widow is not to succeed to the personal or real estate of her deceased husband.³² The Ibo culture of widow inheritance is oppressive to women. The only mitigating factor under this system is the right of the widow to be maintained from the proceeds of the estate of the late husband for as long as she lives within the compound. Also, the culture of forcing one of the daughters of a father who had no sons to remain in the family in order to produce a male son for the family was held unlawful.³³ In *Mojekwu's* case, the court's jurisdiction to declare a local custom repugnant to "equity and good conscience" was called into play with the case becoming a landmark case for the elimination of such customs that are repugnant to natural justice, good conscience and equity.³⁴

d) *Sexual Offences*

The Nigerian Criminal Code (applicable in the South) and the Nigerian Penal Code (applicable in the North) makes it a criminal offence to subject a woman to indecent sexual assault, rape and defilement. However, this offence happens too frequently with many of the women either too afraid to seek justice or made vulnerable by the stigma and embarrassment that may follow the report of such an offence. In certain instances, corroborating the evidence of the victim may create a problem for the prosecution to prove the case of sexual assault. For example, in the case of *State v. Akingbade Gabriel*,³⁵ the accused having been charged with the offence of rape of a 20-year old girl was later discharged and acquitted despite being found to have raped victim for lack of corroboration of the victim's statement. The court held in that case, that "... corroboration is evidence which shows or tends to show that the crime has been committed, but that it was committed by the accused." The court therefore went further to hold that in "applying the test, it (is) difficult to discover the necessary corroborative evidence in this case. The girl's prompt report or complaint to her parents is certainly not the corroborative evidence. That complaint and both the girl and her father's evidence of it satisfy me that she did not consent to sexual intercourse by the accused with her. In the result, the prosecution must fail and I regrettably discharge and acquit the accused." One is appalled by this decision especially in the learned judge's quest for a reason to convict. The requirement of corroboration is a device to circumlocute doubt and not a legal requirement but a cautionary requirement to ensure justice and fairness. Also, section 26 (2) (a) of the Constitution discriminates against women when it permitted a wife of Nigerian to acquire Nigerian citizenship unlike husband of a female Nigerian. This is express discrimination on ground of sex. Section 360 CC which defines unlawful indecent assault of females as mere misdemeanor attracting 2 years imprisonment while assault of males is a felony attracting 3 years imprisonment is discriminatory as it protects perpetrators (men) rather than the real victims (women).³⁶

One other important social problem is the issue of male chauvinism in most of our local systems. This is seen in the attitude of most of our judges and indeed in protecting women from rape by their husbands. In fact, the Nigerian Penal Code provides that a man is not able to rape or indecently assault his wife. This was the common law stance as stated in the case of *R v. Steel*³⁷ where the court held that, "the husband cannot be guilty

²⁹ See also the case of *Ephraim v. Pastony & Another*, (1993) LRC 231. The Tanzanian District Court upheld the rights of women by holding that since the incorporation of the Bill of Rights into the Constitution; women clan members had the same rights as men.

³⁰ See *Nwafia v. Nubua* (1966) 1 All N.L.R. 8

³¹ (1981) 2NCLR 337

³² See *Nezianya v. Okagbue*

³³ See *Emeka Mojekwu & 2 Ors. v. Okechukwu Ejikeme & 4 Ors.* (2000) 5 NWLR (Pt 657) 413. The court in this case held that "the Nrachi custom encourages promiscuity and prostitution, the latter condemned in Article 6 of the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) promiscuity and prostitution are anti-social conducts which are against public policy within the meaning of the proviso to S. 14 of the Evidence Act (Cap 112, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria..."

³⁴ See also, *Attorney General, Botswana v. Unity Dow* (1998) 1 HRLRA 1 and the case of *Sarah Longwe v. Intercontinental Hotels Ltd.* 1993 HP 165

³⁵ (1971) All NLR 508

³⁶ See *Uju Peace Okeke*, 'A Case For The Enforcement Of Women's Rights As Human Rights In Nigeria' found at http://www.wunrn.com/news/2010/04_10/04_05_10/040510_nigeria.htm

³⁷ (1977) CLS 270

of rape committed by himself upon his lawful wife, for by their mutual matrimonial consent and contract, the wife had given up herself in this kind ... to her husband from which she cannot retreat." Section 357 of the Criminal Code defines rape as '*...unlawful carnal knowledge of a woman or girl, without her consent... or, in the case of a married woman, by personating her husband...*' However, section 6 of the Criminal Code specifically provides that sexual intercourse between a husband and a wife cannot amount to rape unless there is a decree absolute or possibly a decree nisi. This provision therefore encourages marital rape and domestic violence in families. In the case of *Akinbuwa v. Akinbuwa*,³⁸ the court held that minor assault of the wife by the husband for corrective purposes is tolerable. This is in line with the Penal Code³⁹ which allows for wife chastisement. Also, in the case in *A.L.E Alawusa v. Lydia Ade Odusote*,⁴⁰ the appellant had shaved the pubic hairs of his wife under Native Laws and Custom. The learned counsel for the appellant argued that a man cannot be convicted of indecent assault upon his wife since he cannot be convicted of rape against his wife. The court was however of the view that the assault upon one's wife is not rendered "indecent" by circumstances which would render it "indecent" in the case of another woman. Here, the court then substituted the verdict of the Magistrate court from "indecent assault" to a verdict of "assault" contrary to section 351 of the Criminal Code with a sentence of six weeks imprisonment. One is worried about this decision as a man should not be immune from criminal action for indecently assaulting his wife simply because they are married. Within the customary system, a woman is the property of the husband who can be corrected by whipping or abused in the manner deemed fit by the husband. This system is made worse by the application of Sharia laws within the country. Many of the Northern States that adapted Sharia have technically legitimated the abuse of women domestically with the resultant effect of the subjugation of the rights of women within these territories.

The justiceability of women's rights has been put in question especially under the Sharia law.⁴¹ A primary concern is the fact that most of the judges in the court are not lawyers or persons knowledgeable in the law. The fact that women's rights are in jeopardy under this system⁴² cannot be overstated. For example, in the case of *Safiyatu Hussain Titudu v. Attorney General,*

*Sokoto State*⁴³, the plight of women under the Sharia system of justice was brought to question in the determination of guilt of the male and female participants in adultery. The appellant in this case was charged with the offence of "Zina" (adultery) committed with one Yakubu Abubakar contrary to sections 128 and 129 of the Sokoto State Sharia Penal Code Law 2000. The Sharia court was of the view that since the 2nd Accused, who was once married and divorced, had confessed to the offence of Zina with the first accused having legitimately exercised his right under the Sharia to retract his admission of the offence and change his plea, the 1st accused was discharged and acquitted. The court then went further to state that the offence of Zina was proved against the 2nd accused since she got pregnant and delivered a baby. She was then sentenced to death by stoning in the presence of other Muslims as witnesses. The death sentence was delayed to allow her time to breastfeed her baby before her execution. Under the Maliki school of thought, which dominates the interpretation of Sharia in northern Nigeria, pregnancy is considered sufficient evidence to condemn a woman for Zina, an offence that is to be read as adultery or as voluntary premarital sexual intercourse. The oath of the man denying having had sexual intercourse with the woman is often considered sufficient proof of innocence unless four independent and reputable eye-witnesses declare his involvement in the act of voluntary sexual intercourse. Safiya Hussaini was sentenced to death in her first trial for adultery on the basis of her pregnancy.⁴⁴ However, on further appeal to the Sharia Court of Appeal, her conviction was fortunately set aside and was discharged and acquitted.

The case of *Safiyatu Hussain* can be likened to the case of *Aminatu Lawal*, another Northern woman sentenced to death by stoning under the Sharia law in 2002. This system of law is problematic in Nigeria especially in the procedure of application of death penalty under the Sharia Penal system that allow Sharia courts, often only consisting of one judge and having no guarantees for adequate legal representation, to impose the death penalty. Under the Penal Code of Northern Nigeria and also the Nigerian Criminal Code applicable in southern Nigeria, cases attracting capital punishment could only be tried by the State High Court. The Nigerian government by ratifying the Convention Against Torture in June 2001, the Federal Republic of Nigeria agreed not to apply punishments such as stoning, flogging or amputation which are considered cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment by international human rights standards.⁴⁵

³⁸ (1998) CA/B/6/94, 13 (Court of Appeal Benin).

³⁹ Penal Code Law, 1959, Cap 89, Laws of Northern Nigeria, 1963 section 51(1)(d)

⁴⁰ (1941) 8 WACA 140

⁴¹ Sharia law is enforced in twelve states of Nigeria namely, Zamfara, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Kebbi, Niger, Sokoto and Yobe

⁴² See <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/2519595.stm> last visited March 15th 2011.

⁴³ (2008) Vol. 1 WHRC 309

⁴⁴ See http://www.amnesty.org.uk/news_details.asp?NewsID=13699 Last visited on March 16th 2011

⁴⁵ See http://www.amnesty.org.uk/news_details.asp?NewsID=13699. Last visited March 16th 2011

e) Custody Issues

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)⁴⁶, the International Convention on Economic and Social Cultural Rights (ICESR),⁴⁷ the CEDAW⁴⁸ and the Child Rights Acts among other relevant provisions of the law, provides that the best interests of the child should be taken into consideration in issues relating to children generally and especially in custody matters. However, in *Onwochei Odogwu v. Otemeoku Odogwu*,⁴⁹ custody of the three of the marriage was given to the father by a Lagos High Court judge on the 17th of December 1990. On appeal by the mother, the court found for the mother and ordered that the children be sent back to their mother.⁵⁰

f) Health Issues

Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) is another issue of concern within many of the local cultures of Nigeria. FGM is still practiced in some parts of the country and among all religious groups. The age of mutilation varies from 3 months to 17 years or just about the first pregnancy. Female Genital Mutilation is a violation of the right to privacy. Many young girls face several health risks including of HIV infection due to unhygienic methods used for the mutilation such as the repeated use of the same blade/knife on different girls, using unclean rags as swabs whilst cross infecting patients etc. However, some states passed laws prohibiting female circumcision and genital mutilation. FGM as harmful traditional practices is recognized and efforts to combat it have not yielded much fruits.

In Northern Nigeria, the majority of girls face the prospect of early marriage which has resulted in a large number of cases of vesico-vaginal fistula,⁵¹ some of the abuse of these teenage girls results often in unwanted pregnancy. For many girls, this situation is disastrous because it leads to severe discrimination within their own community or even family. They are often punished for being pregnant or are excluded from school.

The deeply rooted practice of polygamy has also complicated the health issues faced by women within many of the Nigerian cultures. This has increased the prevalence of HIV/AIDS amongst married couples

when men engage in the practice of being sugar daddies to girls, some of whom end up as wives in the home of the man. Women's lack of reproductive choice has also increase the incidence of HIV/AIDS with the consequent effect on the social and economic consequence on women.

IV. CONCLUSION

Women must have a voice in the implementation of equality standards and cultural practices and norms. Effective, facilitated dialogue, together with careful litigation, will allow women to shape the customary law and cultural practices that dramatically affect their daily lives.⁵² Women must also be recognized as both members of their cultural communities and as advocates for gender equality within those communities⁵³.

As for the Sharia, arguments have been proffered that in Nigeria's multi-ethnic society, "a national collective conscience has never existed. Unsurprisingly, Shari'ah debate has accordingly divided Nigerians into retentionists and abolitionists. Those who advocate retention argue that the authority and ideals of Muslim law and government derive directly from the Quran. Since the colonial period, such ideals, embodied in the people's accepted culture and religious have, according to Jeremy Hinds, meant freedom from the British; the powers of the old Fulani emirs, and most importantly, freedom to be under Muslim law."⁵⁴ Whatever good the Sharia intends or advocates, the disparity between the treatment of men and women can serve no other purpose than the suppression of the rights of women resulting in the denial of basic fundamental human rights granted by the Constitution which is the supreme law of the land.

Sharia also has great implications on the woman's right to divorce. Although there are different types of divorce under the Sharia such as the Talaq, (which means the undoing of the act of marriage and usually employed by the husband after saying the word 'talaq' three times), the Khul or mubaraat (usually employed by women to divorce their husbands), although there has been much debate on dowry and *kuhl* divorce. The Holy Qur'an, Surat Al Baqarah (The Cow) 2:229, states that it is not lawful for you (Men) to take back Any of your gifts (from your wives), Except when both parties Fear that they would be Unable to keep the limits Ordained by Allah." Women who are economically disadvantaged often have issues pursuing

⁴⁶ Article 3 of the CRC

⁴⁷ See Article 23 (5) of the ICESR

⁴⁸ Article 6 (2) and 3 CEDAW. S. 71 of the Matrimonial Causes Act also provides that in the award of custody of children in divorce proceedings, the interest of the children is paramount and that custody must be awarded to the parent that is in a better position to provide for their welfare, education and upbringing.

⁴⁹ (1990) 2 NWLR (Pt. 225) 571

⁵⁰ See also the case of *Sidney Adeyemo Afonja v. Ebum Olufunke Afonja* (1971) U.I.L.R 105

⁵¹ This is a condition caused by giving birth when the cervix is not well developed which occurs because the pelvic bones have had insufficient time to develop to cope with child-birth. Corrective operations require the consent of the spouse with sufferers abandoned or divorced by their husbands and ostracized by their communities.

⁵² See Johanna E. Bond, GENDER, DISCOURSE, AND CUSTOMARY LAW IN AFRICA Southern California Law Review March 2010

⁵³ See Celina Romany, Black Women and Gender Equality in a New South Africa: Human Rights Law and the Intersection of Race and Gender, 21 Brook. J. Int'l L. 857, 857-58, 860 (1996)

⁵⁴ Matthew Kukah, Human Rights in Nigeria: Hopes and Hindrances 19-27 (Missio 2003)

khul.⁵⁵ However, The Holy Qur'an also "strongly disapproves of slandering one's wife just to divorce her and take back from her the dower money given to her."⁵⁶

Other customary practices in Nigeria should also be made to fall within the context of the supreme law of the land (the constitution) through the repeal of all customary laws that are repugnant to equity, justice and good conscience. States in Nigeria must also be encouraged to pass into law, provisions of the ratified international instruments advocating for the rights of women in Nigeria.

The role of civil societies and stakeholders in advocating for the rights of women cannot be overstated. Lawyers should also be encouraged to undertake more pro bono cases to assist women who really need legal representation and advice. This will help to create the enabling environment which includes structures, laws and policies while the stakeholders include, government, women, law enforcement agents, media, courts, religious and traditional rulers, women's rights activists and community advocates.

It is advocated that the enforceability and justiceability of women's rights in Nigeria must commence with the codification of appropriate laws and instruments followed by the court's insistence on enforcing provisions that are fair and equitable, and not repugnant to justice and good conscience. In the dictum of late Hon. Justice Pats-Acholonu in *Magit v University of Agriculture, Makurdi*⁵⁷ "It is said that the function of the court is to interpret laws made by legislature and not

to make laws. In theory, that is so. But it must equally be admitted that judges are not robots (or zombies) who have no mind of their own except to follow precedents. They are intrepid by their great learning and training and can distinguish in order to render justice to whom it is due. As the society is eternally dynamic and with fast changing nature of things in the ever changing world and their attendant complexities, the court should empirically speaking situate its decisions on realistic premise regard being had to the society's construct and understanding of issues that affect the development of jurisprudence'.⁵⁸

⁵⁵ Kathleen A. Portuan Miller, 'WHO SAYS MUSLIM WOMEN DON'T HAVE THE RIGHT TO DIVORCE?--A COMPARISON BETWEEN ANGLO-AMERICAN LAW AND ISLAMIC LAW' New York International Law Review, Winter, 2009 suggesting that a *khul* divorce is acceptable because a husband is essentially making a trade-off by regaining the dowry in exchange for his marriage with his wife); *see also* Ran Hirschl, *The New Constitutionalism and Judicialization of Pure Politics Worldwide*, 75 FORDHAM L. REV. 721, 738 (2006) (discussing a court decision that answered the debate by holding that a husband's consent is unnecessary to obtain a *khul* divorce so long as the woman provides the husband with some value in exchange for the divorce); *see also* Rehman, *supra* note 50, at 118-19 (comparing the contrasting, debating views of different schools of Islamic beliefs with regards to women being able to initiate divorces).

⁵⁶ *See* ASGHAR ALI ENGINEER, *THE RIGHTS OF WOMEN IN ISLAM* 121 (St. Martin's Press 1992) at 121 (asserting that taking back the wife's dowry money by defaming and divorcing her is condemned in the Holy Qur'an); *see also* HAIFAA A. JAWAD, *THE RIGHTS OF WOMEN IN ISLAM AN AUTHENTIC APPROACH* 86 (1998) (commenting that not only did the Qur'an discourage divorce, but slandering the wife to take back her dowry was reprehensible and disallowed); *see also* Leila P. Sayeh & Adriaen M. Morse, Jr., Note, *Islam and the Treatment of Women: An Incomplete Understanding of Gradualism*, 30 TEX. INT'L L.J. 311, 327 (1995) (asserting that in Islam, the dowry belongs solely to the wife and the Qur'an prohibits the husband from trying to get the money by slandering her to cause a divorce).

⁵⁷ (2005)19 NWLR PT.959 211, 259 D-E

⁵⁸ *See also* Uju Peace Okeke, 'A Case For The Enforcement Of Women's Rights As Human Rights In Nigeria' found at http://www.wunrn.com/news/2010/04_10/04_05_10/040510_nigeria.htm



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Accountability and Good Governance at the Grassroots Level in Nigeria: Option for Rural Poverty Alleviation

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Abstract- Nigeria is the only country in the world that is rich in oil and other mineral resources and yet its citizens remain at the very lowest ladder of the poorest people in earth. It is estimated that most Nigerians live on less than a (Us) dollar in a day. This poverty situation has affected the general perception and of doing things among Nigerian so negatively that it has become a problem in Nigeria mostly at the grassroots level. Although poverty is a Universal phenomenon that affect the Socio-economic and political well being of its victims whether in developed or underdeveloped countries however, statistics and data show that poverty in poor countries is absolute and more pronounced in rural areas due to lack of accountability and good governance among council officials. Since our independence the rural folks that constitute significant segment of the Nigerian Society live in abject and hopeless poverty and are neglected in terms of socioeconomic and political wellbeing. There is therefore an urgent need for elected local government officials to be accountable and ethical imperative for good governance at the grassroots levels. This paper has provided an ethical and empirical analysis of the problems, and points out that poverty cannot be totally eradicated but it can be alleviated and that its rest on transparency and good governance at the grassroots in Nigeria.

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Abstract- Nigeria is the only country in the world that is rich in oil and other mineral resources and yet its citizens remain at the very lowest ladder of the poorest people in earth. It is estimated that most Nigerians live on less than a (Us) dollar in a day. This poverty situation has affected the general perception and of doing things among Nigerian so negatively that it has become a problem in Nigeria mostly at the grassroots level. Although poverty is a Universal phenomenon that affect the Socio-economic and political well being of its victims whether in developed or underdeveloped countries however, statistics and data show that poverty in poor countries is absolute and more pronounced in rural areas due to lack of accountability and good governance among council officials. Since our independence the rural folks that constitute significant segment of the Nigerian Society live in abject and hopeless poverty and are neglected in terms of socioeconomic and political wellbeing. There is therefore an urgent need for elected local government officials to be accountable and ethical imperative for good governance at the grassroots levels. This paper has provided an ethical and empirical analysis of the problems, and points out that poverty cannot be totally eradicated but it can be alleviated and that its rest on transparency and good governance at the grassroots in Nigeria.

1. INTRODUCTION

“**N**O democracy can become dynamic, acceptable and sustainable if the system of governance at the grassroots level is not people oriented, friendly, participatory and accountable” (Adedeji, 1999). Sachs, (2005) postulated that, “The stability of a fledging government depends to a large extent on the ability of the governing elites to eradicate poverty For government cannot thrive in an impoverished country where people live below \$1 per day, and where stresses of diseases, famine and climate shock are pervasive”. These quotations capture the central objectives and theme of this paper on accountability and good governance at the grassroots level in Nigeria options for rural poverty alleviation.

The origin of local government in Nigeria dates back to the very beginning of colonial administration with the introduction of indirect rule, which marked the genesis of self rule and shared rule. Since then, several adjustments have been made based on several

theories of local government without success. The current efforts appear to be blindly directed towards bringing the poverty level to the barest minimum level, with the result that there are so many local governments that are not making any impact on socio-economic and political lives of their people. A visit to any rural settlement in Nigeria, which constitute about 73-75% of the nation's population will reveal dirt and unmotorable roads, women and children walking barefooted and trekking long distance to get water and firewood, pupil studying under trees, dilapidated and ill-equipped health centres and scores of poverty driven problems (Aderonmu, 2007). The rural dwellers suffer on many fronts and are powerless to improve their situation because of ill health, poor education and lack of access to many opportunities available to them. They are extremely vulnerable to natural disasters and economic upheavals as well as to crime and violence. The rural dwellers are often deprived of basic rights that urban dwellers take for granted.

Although successive governments in Nigeria since independence to date have attempted severally to eradicate poverty in the country through various programmes, the assessment of their contributions to poverty reduction is scanty compared to the huge amount of resources committed to the programmes (Egware, 1999), because local government official are not always accountable and lacks good governance. The situation where local governments merely collect budgetary allocations and taxes and rates without any form of change in the lives of the people and their environments is not good enough, and it is also unethical, undemocratic and anti-governance. The local government must begin to affect the lives of rural communities more positively by reducing poverty than ever before as such; positive changes in the lives of the lives of rural communities will cumulatively result in the growth and development of the national economy.

Anybody that has experienced poverty especially in rural Nigeria will agree with me that poverty is a very dangerous human situation that has the capacity to influence and alter the psychic and intellectual Constitution of the person especially where it has become abject as we noticed in most of our local government areas. According to Ahmed, (2007), Poverty in the rural areas has become a common phenomenon

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that it is almost becoming an accepted factor of life because the elected officials and rulers lack accountability, vision and mission of governance". The Nigeria poverty situation, be it at the state and local governments however, presents itself as a paradox in the sense that the country is richly endowed in both human and material resources yet its people remain among the poorest people of the earth planet.

Some scholars have posited that, the extreme poverty of rural Nigerians is one of the greatest hindrances in the fight against corruption and bad governance in the country. Although the local governments are most endowed in resources with ever expanding budget yearly in Nigeria, yet corrupt elite that remains a stranglehold on political power has reduced its citizens to destitution. Consequently rural Nigerians who ordinarily resent any form of slavery are only too eager now to go into slavery in Western, Asian countries for survival. Poverty is so deeply etched on their faces and in their psychology that it can be truly regarded as the major underlying factor for the moral turpitude that other people so readily point to in Nigerian rural dwellers. In its full manifestations, albeit in material, moral, intellectual and psychological spheres, rural-poverty has created political thugs, professional prostitutes, constant migrations and sycophancy, Boko Haram membership etc, that makes the running of government very difficult in Nigeria. These are some of the missing ingredients in our local government system which this paper is out to address. The paper is divided into eight parts including this introduction, the remaining parts is organized as follows part two dwellers on theoretical and conceptual framework of accountability and good governance which will provide basis for part three which examines the concept of good governance and that of local government which will provide basis for part four which examines rural poverty situation in Nigeria. Part five discusses Accountability and good governance for poverty free rural government in Nigeria. Part Six, Seven and Eight contain challenges of Accountability and good governance at the grassroots level, suggestions for the improvement of accountability and good governance in rural Nigerian then the conclusion.

II. THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF ACCOUNTABILITY AND GOOD GOVERNANCE ACCOUNTABILITY

Although accountability is widely believed to be a good thing, the concept is highly abstract and is often used in a very general way. According to Robertson (1993) a typical definition is that "accountability concerns the process by which those who exercise power, whether as government elected representatives or as appointed officials, must be able to show that they have exercised their powers and discharged their duties

properly". Such a broad definition is necessary as the detailed nature of accountability varies greatly from one situation to another.

Ohonba (1986) has argued that accountability is not confined to democracy or local governments as some writers appear to assume. He argues that where as it is the case in demonstrably government officials are accountable to the electorates, this is not to say that officials in other economic systems are never accountable to those over who they work with/for even if the form of accountability and degree to which it seems to obtain differs from western type of government and economic ideology. It therefore means that for a specific country, one can identify a set of different relationship procedures that constitutes main element of accountability.

Oshisami (1992) posits that generally people tend to quote accountability as given account of one's stewardships of what is entrusted to the leader by the people. The dictionary further defines accountability as responsibility or expected to give an explanation. This he said is not always true. The fact, according to him is that, one can have responsibility for carrying out a number of functions or for a number of things, whereas he may be accountable for only a few of them or for only one of them. Accountability in general is more specific than responsibility. Accountability in government has been observed to be beyond the stewardship function. This is because there is the added dimension of complexity, which is one of the most significant aspects of managing government complexity not irrationality, in assessing whether or not one us or allocation of resources is better or more beneficial than another. Accountability in public places can be nebulous or articulated as possible, depending on circumstances and societal values In other words, there are also many patterns of public accountability (Ademolekun 1986) for instance, identified five patterns of public accountability thus political, legal, financial, social and ethical accountability.

The popularity and acceptance of accountability stem from the fact that it is necessary to control and check the work of leaders and managers and their accountability, according to Dariani, (2006) due to the following reasons probable mistakes in human being, prevention from probable corruption, prevention from wasting of resources and government facilities, best selection in programming and policies and justification of citizens rights. Our values has always emphasized on accountability in all affairs for proper governance of the society. The modern theorems of accountability also stem from the fact that all persons are exposed to corruption, (Lewis, 2006). The position of this paper is that corruption is evil and must be avoided in all spheres especially at the grass root level to alleviate the type of poverty experienced in Nigeria.

Again the basics of accountability as posited by Ademola (2007) include monitoring which is the first and important base and pre-theorem of accountability in a way that without it, there is no meaning for accountability and practicality with lack of monitoring. It is impossible to invite people, government and organizations to accountability. The second base of accountability is transparency, because without transparency in all affairs, it is impossible for accountability to be the base of positive effects and results. Thirdly, accountability which may result from an accountable system and guarantees its continuous and correctness is consideration of the claims. It is good to prevent any violation and convince the people that there are real penalties for those who may violate the rule (Lewis 2006).

III. CONCEPT OF GOOD GOVERNANCE

Governance can be defined as the fundamental process by which the lives and dreams of people are jointly pursued by deliberate and systematic strategies and policies for the attainment of their maximum potential. It is the combination of responsible leadership and enlightened public participation" (Jegede 2001). Governance rather than being perceived in political term as institution is construed as the management of the lives of people in a systematic, organized way for the best possible results, using the consensus of the people's will, vision, wisdom and aspiration, (Jegede, 2001).

Thus if governance embraces all of the methods-good and bad that societies use to distribute power and public resources thus problems of good governance is therefore a subset of governance wherein public resources and problems are managed effectively, efficiently and in response to critical needs of society. Effective democratic forms of governance ideally should rely on public participation, accountability and transparency. This implies a high level of organizational effectiveness in relation to policy formulation and policies actually pursued especially in the conduct of economic policy and its contribution to growth, stability and popular welfare-poverty alleviation. Thus good governance also includes openness and the application of the rule of law.

As a necessary condition for development, a system of good governance in a limited administrative sense, would consist of a set of rules and institutions, (that is, a legal framework for development in this case poverty alleviation at the grass root level) and system of public administration which is open, transparent, efficient and accountable. Such a system would provide clarity, stability and predictability for interested investors/developers which would constitute the essential engine of economic development and in turn reduce poverty in the rural areas.

In recent years, people have been much more concerned about good governance than anything else especially as attempt to sustain and consolidate the hard-won democracy continues to gain ground at the grassroots.

According to a newspaper report (New Nigeria, October 3, 2000), Good governance is the positive action undertaken by a government to promote democracy and achieve social justice".

For governance to be considered good, scholars have come out with the following attributes: accountability based on the notion of popular sovereignty are public choice, a legal framework that guarantees the rule of law and due process, popular participation in decision-making process based on political and social pluralism, and on freedom of association and expression and bureaucratic accountability based on impersonality of office, uniform application of rules and rationality of organizational structure.

IV. USING THE UNDP REPORT, CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD GOVERNANCE INCLUDE THE UNDERLISTED

- Participatory activities
- Legitimacy and acceptability to the people
- Sustainability
- Transparency
- Promotion of equity and equality
- Ability to develop the resources and methods of governance
- Promotion of gender balance
- Tolerates and accepts diverse perspectives
- Ability to mobilize resources for social purposes
- Strengthens indigenous mechanism
- Operates by rule of law
- Efficient and effective in the use of resources
- Engenders and commands respect and trustable to define and takes ownership of resources
- Enabling and facilitative
- Regulatory rather than controlling
- Able to deal with temporal issues
- Service oriented

V. CONCEPT OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local government unit is almost universally found in modern politics and in both developed and developing countries. Local government continues to be vital in political and economic issue in Nigeria since the 1976 Reform. It continues to place strains on politics in general and inter-governmental economic relations in particular. But what is local government? Where does local government derive its power? What is involved in referring to local government as "third tier" of government? These are some of the questions that we set out to provide answer.

The conceptualization of the term has been rather problematic. Because of this; there has been no universally accepted definition of the term "local governments". A number of authors have pointed out the problematic nature of the term. For example, Mackenzie (1994) said that, there is no normative general theory from which we can derive testable hypothesis about what local government is. Wickwar (1970) seems to agree with Mackenzie when he stated that no greater authors like Austin, Bentham, Buchana or Mill have thought it fit to determine the principles of local government in general.

While it is difficult to fault all the foregoing especially Wickwar's observations, it does not negate the fact that we are struck with reality that there is something like local government, which has to be dealt with. Anyway we will like to go with scholars who define it as the level of government closest to the people. It is vested with some powers to exercise control over the affairs of people in its domain. The United Nations Division of Public Administration defines local government as a political sub-division of a nation (or in a federal system or a state) which is constituted by laws and has substantial control of local affairs including the power to impose taxes or exert labour for prescribed purpose. The government body of such an entity is elected or otherwise locally selected.

The 1976 Nigeria Local government Reforms sees local government as "Government at the local level exercised through representative council established by law to exercise specific powers within a defined area".

Arising from the above definitions, we can reasonably be sure of what local government is all about. The characteristics of local government can be deduced from the above definitions are:

- Is a sub-system playing its part within the larger political system (Oladoke 1984).
- It is established by law and has certain functions and responsibilities
- It is the lower level of government in a unitary political system and lowest level of government in a federal three-level government
- It is a legal entity of its own and can sue and be sued
- Its council members could be elected or selected
- It is a political unit with defined territory and certain specific population, (150,000-800,000) as prescribed by the 1976 Reforms

VI. POVERTY SITUATION IN RURAL NIGERIA

Just like the concept of "accountability" and "good governance", poverty defies precise definition due to its multidimensional natures. Dike (2003) affirms this when he argued that "poverty has narrow and broad definition partly because it is a physical matter and

partly because poverty is relative". He asserted further that it is physical because a poor person in one country may not be perceived as such in another country. Nweje and Ojowu (2002) defined three categories of poverty, and subjective poverty. These scholars argued that families or groups are said to be absolutely poor when "they have inadequate resources particularly real income to obtain the types of diets needed to enjoy some fixed minimum standard of living determined by a given society, which Schiller (1976) considers as some amount of goods and services essential and that these who are unable to obtain them are said to be "absolutely" poor. These essential goods and services include water, food, clothing, housing, health care, sanitation and education.

Relative poverty on the other hand implies a situation in which an individual or household has goods and services which are lower than those of other people or households in the society. Schiller (371-413)? on the other hand posited that subjective poverty is expressed in a range of non-material and intangible qualities based on a respondent's feeling of their standard of living. Newje *et al.* (2002). From Vaidyanathan's (2002), perspective poverty is the feeling of whether one is poor or not depending on the absolute minimum standards of living below which one may be categorized as poor. While Odey (2008) sees poverty as an all inclusive hydra, problematic of unacceptable human deprivation of general welfare, denial of opportunities, choice and expectations.

This paper is more concerned with absolute poverty because this category of poverty is prevalent among rural Nigerians. On this basis, the definitions of poverty as argued by the World Bank, the Copenhagen Declaration on poverty 1995; and in the Journal of Poverty would be examined. According to the World Bank, Poverty is a living condition in which an entity is faced with malnutrition, illiteracy, low life expectancy, insecurity, powerlessness and low self esteem. It implies economic, social and political, cultural and environmental deprivation" World Bank (2001).

The Copenhagen declaration on poverty in 1995 also argued that poverty has various dimensions and manifestations, including lack of income and productive resources sufficient enough to ensure sustainable livelihood, hunger and malnutrition, ill health, limited or lack of access to education and productive resources sufficient enough to ensure sustainable livelihood, lack of basic services, increased mobility and mortality from illness, homelessness and inadequate housing, unsafe environment, social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision making and in civil social and cultural life. Copenhagen Declaration (2001).

Moreover, the Journal of poverty explained poverty to mean more than less been impoverished and

more than lacking financial means. It is an overall condition of inadequacy, and deficiency of economic, political and social resources". This overall condition of inadequacy extend to the denial of the expression of basic human rights among others, in rural Nigeria At independence, in 1960 through to the era of oil boom in the 1970s the poverty level in the grassroot was not so escalated. However, records have shown that since 1980 and throughout the 1990's to the present poverty level in the grassroots has been on the increase. For example the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) (2000), poverty profile of local governments first published in 1999 revealed that the level of poverty rose from 28.1% in 1980 to 46.3, percent in 1985 but dropped slightly to 47.2 percent in 1992 it however, rose sharply to 69.6 percent in 1996 and has ever since been on the increase in an alarming proportion. This increase was/is associated with the prolonged military rule in the country which was characterized with anti-democratic norms. Their anti-democratic posture was seen as capable of causing any local government official unaccountable and of bad governance, hence the prevalence of poverty among the rural Nigerian populace. The military administration in Nigeria thwarted the democratic process and institutionalized anti-rural values in Nigeria it was under the military that such vices like corruption in all its ramification, ethnicity, religious fanaticism and negation of merit amongst others became more pronounced especially at the grassroot level because the military actually entrenched, in local government politics of calumny, sit-tight syndrome, unaccountability, bad governance and abuse of scarce resources. All these anti ethical of rural values precipitated abject poverty of the grassroots in Nigeria.

Moreover, despite the 1976 Local government, which was aimed at restructuring the council to meet the aspiration of the people for greater political participation and economic empowerment, empirical evidence has shown that accountability and good governance is yet to take its rightful place at the grassroots level in Nigeria. Because the Constitution establishing them does not allow the rural populace have a control, contributions or checks on the elected officials. They are not accountable to the people they are supposed to serve and this no doubt encouraged bad governance. It is therefore correct according to Victor 2009: 31-34 "to say that most of the crises of corruption which is perpetuating poverty at the grassroots level in Nigeria can be traced to constitutional provisions".

For example the Nigerian constitution gave local government a separate status as a third tier of government, but at the same time subordinates local government to the state government. With this, who will the officials be accountable to? This provision is contained in the 1999 constitution as follows:

The 1999 Constitution by virtue of section 7 provides that:

The system of local government democratically elected is under this guaranteed and accordingly the government of every state, shall be subject to section 8 of this constitution ensures their existence under a law which provide for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and function of such councils.

The implication of this provision is that local government derives its existence from the state. It therefore means that the state government shall make laws to regulate its local government, and of the same time local government is expected to function as a tier of government with some of the residual powers. What a contradiction? This provision greatly affects accountability of the elected officials to the rural populace and good governance at the grassroots level because they merely dance to the tune of those in the capital and are also responsible to them as well Abaje, (2009).

In addition, the listing of all the 774 local government areas in the constitution by Decree 15, 1989 and subsequent unification of the structures of administration regardless of the level of socio-economic, educational and political development as well as differences in culture and traditional political system population and financial resources disparity, all cumulatively have serious implications for the accountability and expected good governance at the grassroots level Abaje, (2009).

Besides, there is the question of ethical issues, which are non-statutory because it borders on equity and fairness, morality, normative as well as norms and tradition. Ethical issues are subjective which have different expression from place to place. However, in all human societies, ethical issues in governance seems to have universal expression as the essence of accountability and good governance is to provide for the welfare of the governed. The ethical issues in local governance can be discussed under the two roles of local government in every political system i.e. political and social-economic. Local governments are set up to promote the idea of accountability and good governance while at the same time providing socio-economic services to alleviate poverty of any form at the grassroots. These roles have some theoretical underpinning.

This could have prompted the writings of Mills and his associate who writing as far back as the 16th century believed that the purpose of local government is essentially to promote democracy at the grassroots level with respect for ethical values and patriotism at heart. But some other writers and theorists such as Langrod and Moulin, (1995) argue instead that the aim of establishing local government should be that of service delivery. This has been the argument as to which of those roles is primary and, which is secondary? Irrespective of which line of argument that may receive

our sympathy, we may dare say that both roles are complementary and not substitute to each other. The best of each of these two roles must be applied so as to alleviate poverty at the grassroots level in Nigeria.

VII. ACCOUNTABILITY AND GOOD GOVERNANCE FOR POVERTY FREE RURAL GOVERNMENT IN NIGERIA

The high level of poverty at the grassroots level in Nigeria today is unbelievable more so that: First, Nigeria is well blessed with natural and human resources, and she is under the yoke of a democratic rule. These are potentials for development and reduction of poverty of any type and inequality at the grassroots level. Since Nigeria has abundant resources the answer to this could probably be explained in the nature of accountability and good governance. But there are state government manipulations of local government finances and even programmes. This manipulation has so many manifestations. Some of which include the failure of poverty alleviations programmes, failed elections, failed leadership, political and ethnic crises. The poverty Alleviation programme (PAP) for instance gulped 10 billion naira but its impact was not felt at the grassroots. Why? Because it was infested with corruption on the part of the council officials and other officials charged with the implementation of the scheme (News Watch, 2000). The same was said of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) another government rhetoric concerning poverty alleviation. According to Benard (2001), "Most of these programmes creates more poverty it is designed to alleviate because after the 'launchings, corrupt officials at the three level of government hijack the objectives of the programmes".

According to Ademolekun (1993), "Much has been said about the need to develop the grassroots level, but solutions should mainly be aimed at providing good governance and responsible local government official. That he went further by positing that, enhance the development at the grassroots and thus tackle the problem of abject absolute poverty confronting the vast majority of rural people in the midst of plenty" Indeed leadership should be purely based on the principle of accountability and good governance. The constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria clearly provides what should be accountability and good governance at any level of government. It provides that Nigeria shall be a state based on the principles of democracy and social justice and that "Sovereignty belongs to the people of Nigeria from whom government through this constitution derives its powers and authority". It further provides that "the security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government and that "the participation of the people shall be the primary purpose

of government" and that "the participation of the people in their government shall be ensured in accordance with the provisions of the constitution" Specifically in section 15 (5), the constitution stipulates that the state shall abolish all corrupt practices and abuse of power". These and other provisions in the constitution aimed at achieving social justice are contained in chapter two of the constitution as fundamental objectives and directive principles of state policy. Again section 13 of the constitution also provides that "It shall be the duty and responsibility of all organs of government, and of all authorities and person, exercising legislative, executive or such powers to conform to observe and apply the provision of this chapter of the Nigeria constitution Therefore the local government leaders/Officials should manage the councils in strict compliance to the rule of law as stipulated by the constitution by been accountable and good governance to the people at the grassroots level Victor (2009).

VIII. CHALLENGES OF ACCOUNTABILITY AND GOOD GOVERNANCE

It needs be emphasized that the challenges of accountability and good governance has been attributed to popular participation of the rural folks in the day to day running of local government Beyond pervasive culture of poverty that renders our local governments too weak in attaining greater efficiency because of their limited resources. The available scarce resources are far from being judiciously used Agreed that corruption is taking a large chunk of the scarce resources but wastages, duplication of efforts, and palpable inefficiency makes local government to be too alienated from the citizenry In an insightful piece Femi (1989), a political scientist, bemoaned the spate of civil uprising against constituted authorities which raised a fundamental question about the relationship between the local government officials and her Citizenry. The indication is that there is a simmering feeling of exasperation among many which carries with it a readiness to renege on the obligation to obey the law or even take up arms against the council managers From 1989 when this observation was made with respect to the "Criminal" neglect of state functions in terms of provision of social amenities and a decade later, the deplorable living condition of an average Nigerian of all strata of the society was a Childs play when juxtaposed with the present state of poverty, squalor and deprivation at the grassroots level.

Compounding the problem of poverty of the citizens at the grassroots level is the civil society in Nigeria, which unlike in other African countries exhibit t clear traits of weakness. The Civil society suffers from some limitation in its capability to serve as vanguard for rural poverty alleviation through accountability and good governance and promotion of popular participation It is

beleaguered by an authoritarian state. It is one that has to contend with a very strong state either under military autocracy or one party rule. The civil society in its form is rather segmentary and non-additive because they contend also with regional and religious factionalism, with membership dominated over others by a particular ethnic group. This segmentation usually undermines national and grassroots alliances around common demands.

Another problem of the Nigerian civil society is that it is non-combative in its struggle for accountability and demand for good governance at the grassroots, whereas accountability and good governance is never handed down arbitrarily on a platter of gold, talk less of its sustenance, it is always fought for. The embarrassing level of illiteracy and general mediocrity limits the mobilization of the civil society in its perennial struggle and consolidation especially on issues of poverty at the grassroots (Idenogbe (2007).

IX. SUGGESTIONS ON IMPROVEMENT OF ACCOUNTABILITY AND GOOD GOVERNANCE IN RURAL NIGERIA

In order to achieve accountability and good governance in the alleviation of poverty in the grassroots level, the following strategies are suggested.

- Political Rights should be granted the rural populace to elect the officials whom they prefer the government that will pursue their interest
- Committed Government officials that will be accountable and good governance should be sponsored into local government officials
- If democracy is understood, there should be no support for any democratic government that abandons, unattended the gross inequality of wealth and continuing impoverished daily living conditions in the rural areas
- Political stability In the extant literature on grassroots development and sustainability generally, there seems to be a kind of consensus that without accountability, probity and transparency in the conduct of the their tier of governance political stability will be a mirage
- Weak accountability mechanisms tend to facilitate corruption, prolong poverty and other abuses of office and thereby undermine good governance more generally Therefore for a governance to be considered good, it must be open which suggests that policies are generally subject to prior consultation and deliberations and that there is legally enforceable right of public access to local government records and other instruments to check the activities of the officials
- An Active Civil Society should be demonstrated at all times Civil Societies, such as non-governmental

organizations, - human rights, pro-democracy organizations, the media, Religions assemblages, cooperative unions and professional association as facilitators and defenders of accountable and good government should be widely acknowledge to the extent that they are seen as important instruments that can force the local officials to be transparent and accountable in poverty alleviation programmes

- The putative role of the independent media in sustaining political stability, is that of providing the public, space for a wide range of societal opinion to be expressed and supplying the populace which objective is needed help create a feeling of nationhood among the rural people traditionally divided by tribal loyalties to be united to prosecute officials who derail from the dreams and aspirations of the council

X. CONCLUSION

In a country like Nigeria where more than seventy-five percent of the population lives in rural areas outside the direct influence of either the Federal or state government, it is clear that our promotion of accountability and good governance remains the greatest antidote to the problems of poverty of the grassroots level. And when modern institutions government collapse at other levels, governance is sustained through the traditions at the grassroots No doubt the quest will be an ongoing learning process. There are bound to be several ups and downs along the path, it is important that we alleviate poverty if democracy will be sustained in Nigeria.

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