DEVELOPING ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILLS IN A DWINDLING ECONOMY: TRANSFORMING CHALLENGES INTO OPPORTUNITIES

BY

Prof. Prince Famous Izedonmi

And

Odia James
Department of Accounting,
University of Benin, Benin City
Nigeria

Abstract

The challenges before the contemporary graduates, especially in our country cannot be overemphasized. Employment prospects are highly competitive and diminishing in all sectors (public and private), this has been made worse by the developing trends of job outsourcing and labour casualisation. These challenges, gravious as they are can only be effectively addressed through the development of entrepreneurial values. This paper thus discusses the challenges before our graduates in terms of creating jobs/work as well as wealth. Graduates will indeed be celebrated if they continue to add value to their profession and nation. This value can only be added through work, because work creates values. One can choose to work for others and end up as a servant. You can work for others either temporarily or permanently. Alternatively, one can strive to create wealth to pay oneself through self-employment via entrepreneurship. Remember that it is work that determines your worth. One is worthless if he/she is not working or adding value. Other factors surrounding entrepreneurship and its values such as its elements, opportunities, and legal frameworks required for conducting business were discussed. The characteristics of a dwindling economy and the role of entrepreneurs in the transformation of the economy which goes beyond creation of jobs to creation of wealth and addressing social, security and environmental challenges in our nation.

Introduction

Perhaps it will be easier to start the paper with two inter-related stories that will help capture the essence of the. First is the story of the snake and frog. The story shows that; “knowing is good but having is by far better”. As chartered accountants no one will doubt your level of academic knowledge and professional confidence .But what is the use of knowledge without work or wealth. Perhaps some of you know or will know more than your employer in terms of academic and professional training yet they are the ones paying you. They are also your employers. They hire you and can fire you.

The second story presents an empirical study result of the 40 years survey of 100 young employees in different employment and sectors.

✓ 53% ended up broke ,penniless and depended on people at 65
✓ 30% died before they reached the retirement age
✓ 10% were still struggling for contract at 65
✓ 5% were comfortable spelt COM – FOR - TABLE
✓ 1% were rich. None was wealthy.
This study reminds us that employees end up under five brackets and that generally many employees are worse off at the end. No employee can truly be described as wealthy. At best he/she may be comfortable or rich. The easiest way to create wealth and job opportunities is through entrepreneurship. Indeed it is the shortest route to job and wealth creation. It makes you a master, a total person and a wholesome individual and independent whereas paid employment makes you a slave or servant. It does not matter whether the employment is the industry or public sector. A servant is a servant. Don’t end up a servant if you can. Please follow attentively.

**Stack Realities**

1. For graduates and inductee professionals like you, few things are clear in today’s world. Job competition is becoming stiffer every year. Unfortunately, Government’s response to the unemployment problem is slow, inadequate and not radical.

2. There is also an urgent need to bring back the middle class in the society which has been lost for many years. Fresh university graduates and fresh professional accountants like yourselves, used to be classified in those days as being in the middle class but today they are in the lower class. The only genuine channel of restoration is entrepreneurship characterized by sustained job and wealth creation.

3. The unemployment market is bloating every year. For instance, out of about 250,000 tertiary graduates that are produced every year by all tertiary institutions in the country, only about 5,000 are said to secure paid-employment every year. Hence, going through the higher institutions of learning and/or possession of professional qualification in disciplines like accounting, law, engineering and even medicine is no more a guarantee of getting the desired employment because of the shrinking economy. A way out is through encouraging the development of entrepreneurial skills and transforming challenges to business opportunities.

Remember only the living think; you are dead if you don’t think;

- From now you must take a personal responsibility of your life or you die a liability if you fail to. No one will take responsibility of your life or for your success. No one takes responsibility to develop another person. Life is a personal adventure. Give all it takes and that very early. You will find yourself on top on time.
- Life is not fairer to anyone than the other. It is what we sow into it that life delivers to the sower. We reap what we sow in life.
- Opportunities in life are dressed with such overall coat that many people particularly young folks despise them. Most opportunities that change men’s status are wrapped in a coat called hard work plus integrity. Create the opportunity for yourself and no man will take it away from you.
- Life is not a fun fair rather it is warfare. Only those with the right mentality and strategies win the wars
- Life is in phases and men are in sizes. Live your size per phase
- It is knowledge that gives you edge. That is why it is spelt know-l-edge.
• It is intellectual capital, skills and technology that produces wealth. Lay emphasis on them. Don’t lay emphasis on money because money does not solve poverty problem.
• You need only four factors to succeed in life and entrepreneurially too
  ➢ Skills makes 80% contribution to your entrepreneurial success
  ➢ Knowledge „ „ 96 „ „ „ „ „ „
  ➢ Hard work „ „ 91 „ „ „ „ „ „
  ➢ Attitude „ „ 100 „ „ „ „ „ „

This rest part of the paper is divided into five (5) sections. Section I looks at the challenges of today’s young accountants. Section II highlights the concept and definition of entrepreneurship, characteristics of entrepreneurship, elements of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial opportunities and some of the legal frameworks the would-be entrepreneur should be familiar with in conducting his business. Section III is on relevant entrepreneurial skills and how to develop these skills. Section IV shows the characteristics of a dwindling economy and the role of entrepreneurs.

1.A. Challenges Of Today’s Graduates / Professional Accountants
The importance of the development of entrepreneurial skills by every graduate accountant cannot be over-emphasized because gone are the days when jobs were available everywhere both in the private and public sectors of the economy and employers go about looking for potential employees to employ. Indeed, in the past, it is the employers that go round universities and polytechnics in this country to hunt for potential graduate accountants for employment. Then there were fewer universities and polytechnics. University enrolment was also low then. But today, things have changed very drastically such that many tertiary institutions graduates are now sellers of recharge cards. Some work as bus conductors. What an economic tragedy and waste! The question of choice of job or the type of employer is gradually being eroded each year. Many graduates are now desperate to get just any job to keep body and soul together. Indeed there is a paradigm shift in the labour market now. Even the professional disciplines like accounting, medicine, law and engineering to mention a few are now fast getting into tight employment opportunities.

Employment prospects amongst qualified accountants are with a lot of increasing competition; the job openings are equally limited. From our past experiences, many graduate accountants have always had strong preference for the industry or public sector practice but things have since changed. Even employment opportunities in the public sector are also decreasing. Indeed job prospects are diminishing by the day in both the private and public sectors. Added to this ugly situation are the increasing trend of job outsourcing in accounting and consultancy firms, casualization of labour in the oil and gas industry and the increasing phenomenon of rightsizing of labour among big firms and corporations in the country. As a side effect, the figure of tertiary graduates who have not been able to secure the first employment since graduation for upward of 5 years is on the increase and even those with professional qualifications like MBA, ICAN,
COREN, are not spared from this ugly socio-economic phenomenon. Some accountants are even paid peanuts if they are lucky to secure paid jobs. University and polytechnics accounting graduates now fall back on their lower qualifications like WASC, ND and polytechnics OND to secure menial jobs. No thanks at all to the global economic meltdown.

1.B. Economic Meltdown
The recent economic meltdown also has made matters worse. Some companies are as a result operating below expected capacity. The current troubles in the financial sector, particularly the money and the capital markets and their subsequent effects on the economy are not only visibly glaring but highly challenging as far as employment is concerned. I guess we still need more reforms in financial sector particularly the bank sub-sector. Another round of merger or acquisition will definitely happen. Such moves are always accompanied by both positive and negative consequences when labour is involved. There is also the need to encourage very strongly the development of the microfinance institutions to encourage small scale business owners. The real sector has been neglected for too long. Agriculture and the manufacturing sub-sectors have not been given adequate attention since the advent of oil in the 1970s.

1.C. Possible Redress
Entrepreneurship and indeed the need for developing the requisite entrepreneurial skills by accountants have been suggested to help redress the aforementioned problems. Entrepreneurship will make the people not only to be job creators but wealth creators as well (Midea, 2004, Izedonmi, 2009). According to Small Business Service (2005), “the possession of entrepreneurial skills to create new knowledge based social enterprises is vital to addressing these social and environmental issues effectively”. Consequently our nation cannot afford to toy with the issue of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial skills acquisition and development. It is here that our tertiary institutions must respond fast and positively towards entrepreneurship education. Graduates should be encouraged to undergo vocational education during the NYSC. In fact, part of the NYSC should be spent in government well-equipped skill and vocational training centres. Universities and polytechnics should have entrepreneurial skill development and acquisition centres for students.

However, the general business skills and knowledge in the current tertiary institutions curricula are considered insufficient to turn graduates into serious-minded entrepreneurs (Kisby, 2004). Hence, the need to acquire and develop specific entrepreneurial skills cannot be overemphasized. Here, ICAN comes in. I believe that it is the consciousness of this fact that the organizers of this year’s (2010) ICAN induction programme suggested this as an all-important subject for discussion. This is because entrepreneurship has been vital to creating employment and indeed a special form of employability (Moreland, 2004).
Professional bodies like ICAN, the government at all tiers and of course the academias have been attracted to it. In particular, some universities particularly the private universities are re-designing their curricula and the ways they operate to create opportunities for the training of their students in practical entrepreneurial skills. Due to the way entrepreneurial programmes have assumed a global proliferation and dimension, it was suggested by Volkmann (2004) that entrepreneurship will become “the major academic discipline for business education in the 21st century”.

Economic Growth and Entrepreneurship
Recent Survey Report in 2008 by the Kahftman Foundation in connection with the relationship between economic growth and entrepreneurship found that all nations with high level of entrepreneurial activities had above average rate of economic growth. What this translates into is that entrepreneurially deficient economy will have low economic growth while entrepreneurially rich economy tends to enjoy rapid growth. Hence, Government has come to recognize the importance of entrepreneurship in economic development and that entrepreneurial ventures have in-built capacities to promote employment and economic growth.

1.D. Historical Sketch
One of the first courses specifically addressing entrepreneurship was established at the Harvard Business School in 1947. Similarly, Fry (1992) observes that entrepreneurship has been one of the fastest growing disciplines in the U.S.A in the 1990s. Indeed by the wake of the 21st century, as many as 1600 universities in the North-America were found to be offering different courses in entrepreneurship when compared to merely two dozen in the 1970s (Inegbenebor, 2005). In the U.K, the first few courses in entrepreneurship were launched in the 1980s together with the UK’s first initiative for enterprise in higher education (Elton, 1991, Kirby, 1989 & 2005, Volkmann, 2004). The growth of entrepreneurship education and the subsequent inclusion of the discipline into the curricula of universities in the United Kingdom has been largely attributed to the sheer need to serve the innovation need of businesses and to produce graduates with transferable skills for businesses.

1.E. Entrepreneurship In Nigeria
According to Ekanem (2005), the history and development of entrepreneurship in Nigeria started in the 1960s. This is however confirmed by some of the earlier studies such as Schatz and Edokpayi (1962), Harris (1969), Olakanpo (1968) and Akeredolu-Ale (1972). Therefore, the concept of entrepreneurship development in Nigeria is not entirely really new. Since the 1970s for example, several government agencies and institutions in the country have been engaged in different aspects of fostering entrepreneurship though with short-lived and varied successes. For instance, the Centre of Management Development (CMD), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), former Nigeria Industrial Development Bank (NIDB), Nigerian Bank for Commerce and
Industry (NBCI), Nigeria Youth Service Corps (NYSC), among others have had programmes for entrepreneurship development and skill acquisition in Nigeria.

Other entrepreneurial development agencies include government sponsored Entrepreneurial Development Programme (EDP), various shades of NGOs and the Nigerian Employer’s Consultative Association (NECA). The vigour and sincerity with which the programmes were pursued then is quite a different issue for our future assessment. Time will not permit us to do so here. If the proofs are available even the blind and deaf can feel it. Only fools doubt proofs.

2. A. What Does Entrepreneurship Really Entail?

Basically, entrepreneurship entails the following:

i. Generation of bankable business idea
ii. Concretizing those ideas in a written document called Business Plan (BP)
iii. Taking positive steps to get the capital (start-up and working capital)
iv. Acquisition of relevant personnel
v. Launching the enterprise
vi. Growing the enterprise
vii. The building of skills in negotiation
viii. Building leadership skill
ix. New product development
x. Creative and innovative thinking

Exposure to technological innovation, (Kuratko, 2003) - Entrepreneurship exposes students and graduates to entrepreneurial beliefs, values and culture. It equips the students with the required mentality to think and to behave entrepreneurially. It encourages them to get involved in networking, create and manage businesses of their own no matter its size at the beginning, progress and success in entrepreneurial career.

Benefits of Entrepreneurship - Entrepreneurship leads to products differentiation in the market place. It creates paid employment, income, wealth and leads to efficient resource allocation. Entrepreneurship could satisfy status and social needs and leads to self-satisfaction and self-actualization. It can also meet the financial needs for the entrepreneurs and their families. In fact, entrepreneurship is a satisfying process even though it can be risky and may even lead to loss of capital at times (Fry, 1992). Society-wise, entrepreneurship has made substantial impacts throughout history because of numerous inventions, massive job creations made through small and medium scale enterprises (SMES) in both developed and developing countries.
2.B. Some Definitions of Entrepreneurship
Various definitions have been given for entrepreneurship. For instance Inegbenebor and Igbinomwanhia (2008) say that:

“Entrepreneurship is the process of performing the roles of an entrepreneur. It has been defined as the process of planning, operating and assuming the risk of a business venture. It may also be defined as the process of creating a unique value of pulling together a portfolio package of resources to exploit an opportunity. Entrepreneurship encompasses various activities which are carried out to ensure the survival and growth of the business”

Inegbenebor (2006) defines it as: “bearing the skills needed to assume the risk of establishing a business. It is about developing the winning strategies and executing them with all vigour, persistence and passion needed to win any game.” Ekanem (2005): sees “entrepreneurship as the process or capacity for organizing, operating and assuming risk for a business venture. It is dynamic risk-taking, creative and growth oriented behavior which involves the use of various resources to create wealth.” Ekwe (1992): observes that, “entrepreneurship involves the: Ability to perceive profitable business opportunities. Willingness to act on what is perceived and Necessary organizing skills associated with projects.” Fry (1992) says that “Entrepreneurship involves action rather than static events. It involves taking action necessary to analyze opportunities to launch and/or grow business, to finance the venture and possibly even to harvest the venture.”

Izedonmi (2009) places entrepreneurship in a continuum form with economic entrepreneurship at one end of the continuum and social entrepreneurship at the other end. In between these you will find some varying characteristics of combinations. The process is also dynamic. In summary, the central issues in entrepreneurship involve uncertainty and risk-taking, innovation, perception and change. For instance, Drucker (1985) posits that innovation is the specification instrument of entrepreneurship. He argued further that the entrepreneurs must always change to respond to it, and to exploit it as an opportunity. Entrepreneurship is therefore seen in this respect as the process of identifying, developing and bringing a vision to life. The vision may be an innovative idea, an opportunity or a better way to do something. The entrepreneur perceives business opportunities and takes advantages of the scarce resources to use them.

2.C. Elements Of Entrepreneurship
Entrepreneurship may involve the following elements:

Bankable Ideas Generation and Screening
This is actually the starting point of many new entrepreneurial ventures. Sources of ideas are many and varied. The sources notwithstanding, the would-be entrepreneur must cultivate the habit of documenting those ideas. It should be packaged in form of expanded business plan and feasibility report.
Methods of Starting A Business
This could involve:
   a. Buying an existing business
   b. Starting from the scratch or start-up business
   c. Through Franchise
   d. By Inheritance

Seeking Financing
Financing could either be debt or equity financing, traditional or venture, internal or external capital. The would-be entrepreneur must consider financing the venture. Availability, cost and timeliness must be balanced. Starting small attracts small capital input. It offers the micro – entrepreneurs the opportunity to learn a lot of things. However, not all entrepreneurial ventures actually require either start-up capital or large amount of capital. A big project xxx with little or no start-up capital will end up in failure. Therefore marry big project with big capital and marry small project with capital. Creative Financing is a Basic Tenet of Entrepreneurship - A growth-oriented venture uses multiple sources of financing. You must be prepared to make your personal sacrifice in this respect. Too often, the banks will request to see your personal inputs in terms of financial commitment before such bank can consider your application for credit facilities. Finance institutions only lend to ventures that have proven records, and history, and those ventures that are also promising economically. The warning to youth and prospective entrepreneurs is to avoid financing your business with commercial bank loan no matter how juicy the offer may be.

Assuming Entrepreneurial Risk
Every entrepreneur must assume one risk or the other. However, entrepreneurship is not necessarily risk-taking but risk-assuming. While corporate management talks about risk minimization, entrepreneurship deals in risk management. Corporate management too often generally tends to be risk-averse. They want to reduce risk to a minimum so as to be profitable. Entrepreneurship manages risk since it cannot be reduced significantly in entrepreneurial situations whether new or existing ventures. However, entrepreneurs are calculated risk-takers. Risk management involves the acknowledgement that risk exists and the subsequent actions that are taken to minimize or shift as much risk as possible to others and then control the remainder.

Some risk Management strategies include:
   ▪ Renting rather than owning equipment and facilities
   ▪ Using multiple sources of financing.
   ▪ Building an entrepreneurial team with distinctive skills.
   ▪ Undertaking multiple ventures simultaneously with varied degrees of risk.
   ▪ Committing a portion of the total resources to any one project.
   ▪ Assigning a team member the responsibility of monitoring short-term performance with the anticipation of cutting losses
Creativity and Innovation
Innovation is the development and introduction of a new product, a new process, or a new service to a market. Creativity is the link between pure imagination and the introduction of an innovative product, process or service. Both are necessary ingredients for entrepreneurship. However, creativity is at the root of innovation. Creativity alone, does not in fact, define entrepreneurship. Creativity without innovation does not produce results. And innovation without effective management does not produce marketable products, processes or services. Although creativity and innovation are necessary ingredients in effective entrepreneurship, they are not sufficient of themselves to establish successful entrepreneurship (Fry, 1992, Izedonmi, 2009). There must be effective and efficient administrative structure on ground and a healthy dose of management as well.

2.D. The Pull and Push Entrepreneurship Factors
There are various factors (negative or positive) which tend to provide the needed motivation in getting into entrepreneurship or becoming an entrepreneur. While the negative factors are referred to as push factors; the positive factors are referred to generally as pull factors. Both factors could provide the fundamental impetus and attraction either by design or by desire and opportunity into the entrepreneurial world.

**The push factors include:**

i. Unemployment / loss of job.
ii. Dissatisfaction with pay and job situation.
iii. Discrimination and victimization by boss in workplace.
iv. Middle-age crises.
v. Divorce / widowhood.
vi. Relocation.
vii. The positive pull factors typically include:
viii. Desire for independence.

**The pull factors include:**

i. Desire for increase in wealth and general need for wealth creation Increased social status and prestige.
ii. Spouse positive support and motivation to venture into entrepreneurship.
iii. Provision of market opportunity.
iv. Favourable franchise opportunities.
v. Provision of licenses by parent company.
vi. Favorable government policies etc.

**The Entrepreneurship Decision**
The motivation to launch an entrepreneurial venture has been grouped into three variables (Fry, 1992) as:
a. Antecedent variables.
b. Triggering variables.
c. Enabling variables.

The Antecedent Factors
These factors cause the individual to begin to consider very seriously the possibilities of going into entrepreneurship either consciously or unconsciously. This could take into consideration such variables listed below:

i. Creativity.
ii. Entrepreneurial Background.
iii. Personality.
iv. Past experience.
v. Education.
vi. Current job.

Triggering factors:
These are those events or situations that specifically trigger the entrepreneurial act. Some of the factors are actually salient life events and they may be quite personal or professional. For instance, financial changes and challenges in an entrepreneur’s life that are perceived as very important to entrepreneurial decision may set off the alarm to take a deliberate entrepreneurial step. In particular they involve:

- **Loss of Job**
- **Invention or generation of bankable Idea**
- **Offer from existing or old partner**

Mathematically, entrepreneurial motivation or willingness to start a venture is expressed thus:

\[(M) = \text{Antecedent Variables (A)} \times \text{Triggering Variables (T)}\]

The Enabling Factors
These factors make the actual launching of the entrepreneurial venture possible. They include business opportunity and the availability of resources which are very critical to the successful launch of the venture. The likelihood of a venture launch is made up of these three factors combined deeply and intensely. Today, too many of our youths are looking outside instead of looking inward. Those who look inward first tend to travel faster on the outside. Several entrepreneurial opportunities exist in the environment which many people do not take notice of everyday. They need to look well to discover some of these opportunities. Our youths must be ready to start small, learn the ropes and grow up. Hard work, patience and deep commitment are necessary for entrepreneurial success. Let us now explore these points further in the subsequent section.
2. E Entrepreneurship Opportunities
Entrepreneurial opportunities really begin with a discovery of yourself, I mean your potentials, talents, wisdom and gifting. This is because that once opportunities are identified and properly evaluated, resources would normally be deployed to capture them. Opportunity creates or generates its kind of resources. In fact, entrepreneurship tends to be opportunity-driven rather than resource-driven. There are thousands of opportunities available to would-be accountants or entrepreneurs who present high capacity and potential for wealth creation, economic growth, self-employment, independence, social status, and prestige. The would-be entrepreneur accountant must conduct a thorough scanning and survey of the environment strategically to identify those opportunities he can take. But if you do not have any readily available opportunity, you can creatively and innovatively come up with one. Not all opportunities are takeable. You must have the resources to back it up.

However, some of the sources of these opportunities could include:
1). Self-discovery
2). Improvement in the quality of existing product/service.
3). Use of an existing product/service in an untapped market
4). Invention
5). Consultancy
6). Trade magazines, Journal and Business Newspapers
7). Societal needs
8). Survey of natural resources
9). Government Agencies
10) Research Institutes, Universities, e.t.c
11) Spin-off
12) Work experience
13) Hobby and Vocation

2. F. The Entrepreneur and the Legal Framework
The would-be entrepreneur must know that he is going to operate in an environment which already consists of other entrepreneurs and businesses. Therefore, he will need to understand the legal framework in order to protect himself or herself and the business from harms, liabilities and unnecessary litigations. The legal framework defines the acceptable legal norms and behaviour expected from the business and its owner. Therefore, the entrepreneur should conduct his business in accordance with and within the extant laws. These laws include:

The Companies and Allied Matters Acts (CAMA ) 1990 as amended to date. CAMA deals with the establishment and regulation of business enterprises in Nigeria.

Laws of Contracts: regulates the commercial and economic interactions between entrepreneurs and their businesses. A contract is an agreement enforceable at law. There are various types of contract such as simple contract which is an agreement made either orally or in writing; expressed and implied contracts etc.
**Labour Acts (Cap. 198, LFN, 1990).** This regulates contract of employment between employers and employees in Nigeria. It has provisions for the minimum terms and conditions for contracts of employment; the protection of wages, child labour.

**Law of Tort:** This promotes the rights of buyer of goods and services produced by the entrepreneur. A tort is a civil wrong, which occurs independently of an agreement and leads to the award of damages to the party wronged. While the law of contract seeks to protect the interest of the performance of agreements, the law of tort seeks to protect several interests ranging from interest in the person, property, reputation and so on.

**Workmen’s Compensation Act (Cap. 470, LFN 1990):** It provides some kind of monetary benefits to any workman who may sustain or suffer one kind of injury or the other in the course of his employment. All employees of whatever grades are regarded as workmen except members of the Nigerian Army, Navy, and Air Force.

**Factories Act (Cap. 125, LFN (1990):** Employer who operates factories should know that he or she has an obligation to provide safe physical conditions under which his or her workers are working. An entrepreneur should therefore provide:
- Fence around any dangerous equipment;
- Safety wears, apparel, ear morph for the use of workers
- First Aid Box and its equipment for the use of workers.

**National Minimum Wage Act (2000) and the Entrepreneur:** This Act fixes the national minimum wage at N5,500.00 per month for every worker where the employer employs 50 workers and above. Failure to implement the positions of the Act carries penal sanctions. Thus, an entrepreneur, who employs 50 workers and above is bound by the provisions of this Act.

**National Social Insurance Trust Fund Degree (Decree No. 73 of 1993):** aims to assist employees in time of old age, or loss of employment or in time of invalidity or death and such-like conditions which will make it impossible for the employees to earn their living. It also provides a security for the dependants of the deceased employees.

**Intellectual Property Rights** - seeks to protect original intellectual creations from unlawful acts such as piracy and appropriation by others. As a way of encouraging creative thinking and entrepreneurial activities, the law has provided a cushion against theft of intellectual property.

**Copyrights Act (1990)** - regulates the right of authors, artists or creators over their literary and artistic works. A copyright is the monopoly right conferred by law on a person or an institution to do or to restrain others from doing certain acts with respect to the author’s original literary, musical or artistic work.

**Trademark or Service Mark** – is used by an entrepreneur in the course of trade, to distinguish the goods or services from other goods or services of similar descriptions. Trademarks provide protection for distinctive names, phrases, symbols, or signs that are used to and distinguish the source of a particular product or service.
3. A. Entrepreneurial Skills Required To Transform Challenges into Opportunities

General Business Skills
Some common or major entrepreneurial skills of successful entrepreneurs are identified below namely:

- Sales and marketing skills
- Prudent money management or sound financial Know-how skills
- Very strong self-motivation skill
- Effective time management skill
- High and flexible administrative skill

If you watch very closely a lot of these skills have to do with the person, the ideas and the products or services. In fact, until people accept you, they may never accept your product or service. We shall briefly elaborate these points.

Sales and Marketing Skills
To attract the right customers, maintain their loyalty and subsequently make target revenues and profits will obviously require good communication skill.

Financial Know-How Skills and Money Management
Not many people can manage or handle money. There are others who money can control. Some become temporarily insane when they see a volume of money they have never seen before. To succeed as an entrepreneur, you must know how to manage money well. After all, not everybody can effectively manage money. Money actually controls some people. The entrepreneur must source for fund appropriately, from the right sources at the right time and the right cost. Funds include long-term capital and working capital.

Self-Motivation Skills
Encouragement from others is good but the best is however self-encouragement. You need it in your journey into entrepreneurship. You can motivate yourself even if people around you want to discourage or disappoint you. Self-motivation skills include:

  a. Internal locus of control
  b. Self-starter with a clear desired goal in mind
  c. Confidence in yourself and in your ideas
  d. Diligent and hardworking
  e. Extra drive and commitment to set goals

Time Management Skills
Successful entrepreneurs manage their time effectively. This is because:

- Time is money
- Time is life
- Entrepreneurship opportunity has time-limit
- Time management is very important for business success
- Self-management is very critical for effective time management
Time Management Techniques

- Have a time table or schedule of activities to be done and keep to it as much as possible
- Employ delegation freely without fear
- Determine priorities into urgent and important activities as:
  i. Urgent activities that demand immediate attention
  ii. Urgent but not important activities
  iii. Not urgent but important activities
  iv. Not urgent; not important
  Give priority to (i) and (iii) because by performing them, time is reduced for activities (ii) and (iii)
- Manage meetings and relationship with others

Administrative Skills

Administrative skills include organizing, coordinating, directing, planning and general management, etc.

Technical, Analytical and Human Relation Skills

Accountants are by training normally technically skilled. They must also develop and possess conceptual, analytical and human relation skills to be successful entrepreneurs. Others are business planning, idea generation, negotiation and risk analysis skills and management skills etc.

Information Communication & Technology (ICT) SKILLS

Graduate entrepreneurs should have Computer and Information Technology (C&IT) skills because of the era we are living in and the environment they will have to operate on day to day basis and the various technological changes and demands.

3.B. Entrepreneurship Opportunity and Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Entrepreneurship Opportunity</th>
<th>Skills and Attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.  | Business/consultancy in area of professional specialization or working as a contractor | General Business skills such as marketing, time management e.t.c
Confidence enthusiasm, hardworking |
| 2.  | Sonet Entrepreneurship | Idea development, leadership, negotiation, planning, organizing, self belief, confidence
General business skill |
| 3.  | Intrapreneurship | Idea development recognizing opportunities for improvements
Alliance building, confidence, leadership |
| 4.  | Non-traditional specialist business | General Business
Idea development, creativity, confidence
Willingness to work hard |
| 5.  | General Business Ventures | Ideas development, creativity, confidence, willingness to work hard
General Business skill |

Source: Andrea: Developing Entrepreneurship skills in the context of higher education.
### 3.C Avenues of Developing Entrepreneurial Skills

Entrepreneurial skills acquisition can be obtained through various avenues which include:

- Attending Entrepreneurial training classes, development programme, seminars, workshops, etc.
- Universities
- Job rotation
- Special (intensive) training
- Articleship or apprenticeship
- Organizational learning
- R & D Institution
- Consultants
- National and international agencies and bodies
- NGOs
- Professional bodies

### Entrepreneurial Success Factors

Successful entrepreneuring depends on four (4) major factors namely:

- Knowledge
- Hard work
- Skills
- Attitude (character/integrity)

### 3.D. Proof

Now let us work out this “lifematics” question together. There are basically four (4) attributes or factors listed above that can enhance our success in life viz: Skills, Knowledge, Hard work and character (Attitude). They are all essential ingredients of entrepreneurial success. How much does each contribute? Which of these is most superior and why? For easy understanding, let us replace character with attitude.

**Solution**

Our current roman alphabets and numerals are made up of letters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>J</th>
<th>K</th>
<th>L</th>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The alphabets together with their corresponding numerical values are stated above.

Let us take each attribute one after the other and link up the corresponding numerical value. Start with skill, then knowledge follow this with hard work and finally character but remember to substitute attitude for character.
Let us replace numeric value to each alphabet and see their results as indicated below:

(i)  
\[
\begin{align*}
S & \quad K & \quad I & \quad L & \quad L & \quad S \\
19 & \quad 11 & \quad 9 & \quad 12 & \quad 12 & \quad 19 & = \quad 82 \\
\end{align*}
\]

(ii)  
\[
\begin{align*}
K & \quad N & \quad O & \quad W & \quad L & \quad E & \quad D & \quad G & \quad E \\
11 & \quad 14 & \quad 15 & \quad 23 & \quad 12 & \quad 5 & \quad 4 & \quad 7 & \quad 5 & = \quad 96 \\
\end{align*}
\]

(iii)  
\[
\begin{align*}
H & \quad A & \quad R & \quad D & \quad W & \quad O & \quad R & \quad K \\
8 & \quad 1 & \quad 18 & \quad 4 & \quad 23 & \quad 15 & \quad 18 & \quad 11 & = \quad 98 \\
\end{align*}
\]

(iv)  
\[
\begin{align*}
A & \quad T & \quad T & \quad I & \quad T & \quad U & \quad D & \quad E \\
1 & \quad 20 & \quad 20 & \quad 9 & \quad 20 & \quad 21 & \quad 4 & \quad 5 & = \quad 100 \\
\end{align*}
\]

**Solution**

Skills scored only 82 %, Knowledge 96 %, Hardwork 98 % and Attitude 100 % in that order. Only Attitude which equates to character or integrity for this purpose secures 100 % success in the race of high profile entrepreneurship.

In the next section, we shall briefly examine some features of a dwindling economy since it is part of the key issues in our discussion.

### 4.A. Characteristics of A Dwindling Economy

The characteristics include:

1. High unemployment rate
2. High level of corruption among the ruling class
3. Fragile political environment
4. High inflation rate
5. Low average real income
6. Low saving ratio or high consumption ratio
7. Low level of technology including local technology
8. Low levels of productivity
9. Low per capita income and downward trend of living
10. High poverty rate of a large proportion of the population
11. Low economic growth rate
12. Poorly developed financial and stock markets
13. High level corruption and instability and insecurity of lives and property
Although the above factors and many others can be observed in a dwindling economy, they also invariably provide good basis for entrepreneurial development. In fact, of these factors listed above, some can act as either pull or push entrepreneurial factors. Very often they provide good windows of opportunities for entrepreneurial-minded individuals. While entrepreneurship-deficient minds will keep complaining about the economy, serious-minded entrepreneurial persons will be looking for entrepreneurial opportunities from the system. So stop complaining; convert the challenges into success.

4.B. Roles Of Entrepreneurship In Reviving A Dwindling Society

Some of the roles played by entrepreneurship include:

- Generating employment
- Increases productivity through innovation
- Facilitates the transfer/adoption of technology
- Ensures increase resource utilization
- Stimulates growth in the supply market
- Renovates large scale enterprises and public enterprises
- Encourages and sustains economic dynamism that enables an economy to adjust successfully in a rapidly changing global economy.
- Linkage effects of various sections of the economy is facilitated
- Income generation and wealth creation tend to occur faster
- Encourages training and development
- Ensures rapid development
- Develops indigenous technology
- Provides a training ground for indigenous managers and semi-skilled workers
- Reduces rural-urban migration
- Constitutes a vital engine for economic growth and development of a nation by increasing the GDP
- Skyrocketing of the emergence of SMES and their rapid development
- Promotion of self-reliance and economic sustainability

Conclusion

In conclusion, we must admit that possession of professional certification in accountancy is good. But what is the use of academic degree and/or professional certificate if you are not working? You are almost worthless when you are not working. You do command real worth or value if you are not working. You either work for others and get paid or create work yourself entrepreneurially and pay yourself.

Whichever mode of value creation viz paid employment or entrepreneurship you may adopt at the end you really require integrity. Indeed, character is the true collateral security of our values, learning and entrepreneurial success. It keeps the society and system going. It prevents a nation from decaying and checkmates unnecessary crises and even civil war. Therefore in all our entrepreneurial pursuit, character development should be given a prominent place. When character breaks down everything breaks down. True certification in life is only evidenced by
sound character and not papers called certificates or entrepreneurial success alone or quantity of wealth. Given the various challenges facing the graduates of tertiary institutions and professionals in Nigeria today there is still an answer and the sure remedy is not only the possession of certificates but also entrepreneurial skills which could help them identify and take advantage of business opportunities.

References

Inegbenebor, A.U (2005): Education for Entrepreneurship: Experience of the University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria. Academy of Management Journal, pp 61-75
Izedonmi,F.O.I (2009) : Model of Wealth Creation , Benin City, Mindex Publishing Company
A PRICE FLOOR/FERTILIZER SUBSIDY: AN IMPERATIVE SUBSTITUTION TOWARDS SALVAGING AGRICULTURE IN NIGERIA

BY

BASHIR AHMAD DANEJI
Department Of Business Administration
Adamawa State University
Mubi, Adamawa State, Nigeria

Abstract:
Nigeria is blessed with abundant cultivable land. Couple of decades ago Nigeria’s agricultural sector provided the country with the food it needs and even export the surplus. Immediately, after the discovery of oil, the attention moves away from the agricultural sector to the oil sector. As a result the sector could not feed the citizens of the country talk less of exporting. In an attempt to remedy the situation Nigerian governments (federal, state and local governments) invested heavily in procuring and subsidizing fertilizer for farmers. For decades, hundreds of billions were spent on fertilizer yet the sector could not meet the food need of the country. The major aim of this paper was to identify a correct measure which if adopted by the governments will go a long way in boosting agricultural sector. The data used were secondary, and the study identified price floor as the correct measure to be adopted.

Introduction:
Before the discovery of oil in Nigeria, Agriculture was the main stay of the nation’s economy. It provided the nation with foreign earnings by the exportation of cash crops like cocoa, rubber, palm oil, groundnuts, cotton etc. It also provided income and employment to farmers and food to the entire populace by cultivation of food crops like rice, maize cassava, yams, millet, potatoes etc., and rearing of animals.

After the discovery of oil agricultural sector was neglected by the Government, elites, well-to-do individuals and other villagers who had alternatives. Many people abandoned agriculture pursuing contracts and other businesses that promised huge income easily. The few people left were those that hardly could produced in excess of what they demand, and their method of farming is subsistence in nature characterized by small and scattered, farmlands, simple tools and shifting cultivation. The negative consequences started manifesting vividly and the Nigerian government tried several ways to convert the menace but up till now no commensurate result. Lack of stable and sustained policies couple with abuse of office, and mismanagement compound the issue.

Consequently, Nigeria who was a major exporter of farm produce became an importer of the same produce to feed its citizens and as raw materials to its growing industries. In search of a solution to agricultural problems in the country, the Nigerian Government decided to supply farmers with a subsidized fertilizer at affordable price. The aim was to enable farmers to feed the nation and export the surplus. The question is how much has been achieved from that effort? The answer is little if any. Year in year out, Federal, State and Local Governments have been spending billions and billions of naira in the name of fertilizer subsidy but the real and true farmers are always buying the fertilizer at a price above even the market price. The subsidized fertilizer is usually shared among the greedy politician and those working for government,
mostly atime; they don’t even know how to farm. At the end they sell the commodity in black market at exorbitant price to the farmers. This will result in high cost of inputs to farmers. Despite the high cost of input (fertilizer), after harvesting the farmer will not get a competitive price for his produce. The produce will be sold at take away price (a price that will not even cover the cost of production) because the farmer is desperate to have the money for other things, sometimes because of the perishable nature of the produce.

A report by the BBC world service on 10th May, 2010 revealed that large numbers of villagers who are young farmers go to cities during dry season to get something doing temporarily before the next coming rainy season (chirani). Now, these young farmers refused to go back to their respective villages. When same were interviewed over the issue, the response is the same phenomena as explained in the above paragraph.

This write up intends to present an alternative measure of boosting agriculture which if adopted as a policy by the Federal government and other ties of government will go a long way in salvaging low productivity in agricultural sector. The alternative measure is a PRICE FLOOR. A price floor is the minimum support price above the equilibrium level which is considered to be low and un-remunerative to the farmers. The writer is suggesting that instead of the government to be spending billions of naira yearly in the name of fertilizer subsidy which refused to work is better to be using the same amount of money or even less in buying surplus agricultural produce directly from the farmers which will result from a price floor.

The writer suggested a price floor as a substitute to fertilizer subsidy not because fertilizer is the only input to farmers. But because it is the most abuse subsidy which runs into billions and cut across Federal, State and Local Governments. Also, the writer pay attention to food crops, produced for home consumption compared to export products. Because the country that cannot feed its citizens despite the comparable advantage it is having in agriculture than any other sector of the economy that country is a “sorry country”.

**Literature Review and Theoretical Framework**

**Agriculture in Nigeria**

According to Michael and Stephen (2003), the Nigerian economy underwent profound changes during the 1970s and 1980s. once an agriculturally based economy and a major exporter of cocoa, peanuts, and palm products, Nigeria now relies on oil for more than 90% of its export earnings, 30% of its GDP, and 70% of its Federal budget resources. However, a combination of declining oil prices, overly ambitions industrialization programmes, neglect of the agricultural sector excessive foreign borrowing, and widespread economic corruption and mismanagement during those decades caused the Nigerian economy to experience a prolonged period of economic stagnation and decline.

Buttressing the position of agriculture in Nigeria, encyclopedia of the Nations stated “In terms of employment, agriculture is by far the most important sector of Nigeria’s economy, engaging about 70% of the labour force. Agricultural holdings are generally small and scattered’ farming is often of the subsistence variety, characterized by simple tools and shifting cultivation. These
small farms produce about 80% of the total food. About 30.7 million hectares (76 million acres), or 33% of Nigeria’s land area, are under cultivation. Nigeria’s diverse climate from the tropical areas of the coast to the arid zone of the north, make it possible to produce virtually all agricultural products that can be grown in the tropical and semi-tropical areas of the world. The economic benefits of large scale agriculture are recognized, and the government favours the formation of cooperative societies and settlements to encourage industrial agriculture. Large scale agriculture, however, is not common. Despite abundant water supply, a favourable climate and wide areas of arable land, productivity is restricted owing to low soil fertility in many areas and inefficient methods of cultivation. Agriculture contributed 32% to GDP in 2001.

From encyclopedia of the Nation “prior to civil war, the country was self sufficient in food, but imports of food increased substantially after 1973. Bread, made primarily from US wheat, replaced domestic crops as the cheapest staple food for much of the urban population. Also it says “Agricultural exports (including manufactured food and agricultural products) decreased in quantity after 1970, partly because of the discouraging effect of low world prices. This shows that the decrease in quantity of agricultural output is attributed to low prices of commodities (farm produce).

Joseph and Olawole (2002), observed “there are three basic sources of demand for Nigeria’s agricultural output. The first source is for food and fiber for Nigeria’s 120 million population, which is growing at a rate of 3% per annum. Although, population growth rate may decrease to 2.5% per year, Nigeria’s population could reach 240 million by the year 2030 and 360 million by 2040. A second source of future demand for Nigeria’s agricultural output is moderately raising disposable incomes. Tastes and preferences change with rising incomes that often lead to increased demand for edible oil and livestock products. A third source of demand is for exports and the resulting foreign exchange earnings. These future sources of demand will define Nigeria’s agricultural production and trade patterns. On the supply side, Nigeria has experienced growth in agricultural production. With the exception of maize, which has a 2.8% production growth rate, all of the other selected crops show positive production growth rates”.

However, they observed also that “Nigeria’s food import bill for 2000 was N164 million (2001 constant naira) or 13.3% of the total value of imports. Food imports as a percentage of total imports was as high as 14.7% in 1996 and have been increasing since 1990 at an annual average growth rate of 13.3%. Foreign exchange earnings from non-oil exports, which include all agricultural exports, is low relative to total exports. Only 1.6% of total exports in 1999 were derived from non oil exports. Since 1992, non-oil export have not covered the cost of food imports-non-oil exports paid for only 17% of food imports in 1999.

There seems to be a contradiction here. This is because the authors give a statistics of rising food imports and also acknowledged the growth in agricultural production with the exception of only one product (maize). Even though, the authors based their analysis on some selected crops, yet there is need for explanation.
Fertilizer Subsidy
There was no consistency in Nigerian fertilizer policies over the years. The policies kept changing trying to tackle the problems of availability, distribution and price arbitrage. None of the policy changes succeeded.

In Joseph and Olawale (2002), the governments stated reason for fertilizer subsidies is that farmers cannot afford the high free market fertilizer price. The implication is that the crop product price to fertilizer price ratio is too low for farmers to invest in fertilizer. The authors also reported that Stakeholders were asked if farmers actually received the subsidized fertilizer at the subsidized price in 1999 and 2001. An overwhelming number of stakeholders indicated that most farmers did not obtain the subsidized fertilizer at the subsidized price and a substantial amount was sold on the black market.

We may not know how much exactly is being squandered by Nigerian Governments in the name of fertilizer subsidy. After which the targeted beneficiaries do not get it. Consider the table below:

Table 1.1 Nigerian National and Agricultural Budgets and Fertilizer Subsidy Costs, 1990-2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Nigerian National Budget (1) (Billions of ₦)</th>
<th>Nigerian Agric. Budget (2) (Billions of ₦)</th>
<th>Fertilizer Subsidy Cost (3) (Billions of ₦)</th>
<th>Agric. Budget as % of National Budget (4)</th>
<th>Fertilizer Subsidy as % of Agric. Budget (5)</th>
<th>Fertilizer Subsidy as % of Agric. Budget (6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>164.333</td>
<td>23.022</td>
<td>30.416</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>152.492</td>
<td>6.428</td>
<td>25.662</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>127.074</td>
<td>6.069</td>
<td>54.294</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>93.689</td>
<td>9.168</td>
<td>36.371</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>106.389</td>
<td>9.608</td>
<td>30.606</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>89.023</td>
<td>9.374</td>
<td>28.979</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>73.552</td>
<td>5.965</td>
<td>17.711</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>162.823</td>
<td>8.793</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>245.456</td>
<td>11.754</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>179.559</td>
<td>9.064</td>
<td>0.968</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>348.854</td>
<td>11.269</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>496.659</td>
<td>10.595</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Extracted from Joseph and Olawole (2002).

When one look at the table 1 above a lot of analysis can be made. One can see that in 1992 the fertilizer subsidy is 8.9 times than the entire agricultural sector budget. It was because the fertilizer subsidy came from the president’s special account and was not part of the ministry of Agriculture’s budget.

It was rightly observed by Michael and Stephen (2003), that “Another critical area calling for major improvements in government policies relates to the pricing of agricultural commodities, especially food grains and other staples produced for local markets………. Farmers have been paid prices below either world competitive or free market internal prices…………. With farm prices so low in some cases below the costs of production there was no incentive for farmers to
expand output or invest in new productivity – raising technology. As a result, local food supplies continually fell short of demand, and many developing nations, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, that were once self-sufficient in food production had to import the balance of their food needs. This caused further strains on their international balance of payments situation and contributed to the worsening foreign exchange and international debt crisis of the 1980’s and 1990’s.

From his own part Jhingan (1997), opined that “a suitable agricultural price policy holds the key to growth in a developing country. Agricultural prices have the tendency to display wide inter and intra-year fluctuations. Such fluctuations are the result of relatively low price elasticity of demand for agricultural commodities, and Biological and seasonal nature of agricultural production. The price elasticity of demand for agricultural commodities is less than unity. Due to the biological and seasonal nature of agricultural production, the price elasticity of supply is also low. It is this low elasticity of demand and supply that causes severe fluctuations in agricultural prices in such countries.

He also adds that such a price policy is also essential in order to increase agricultural production. A number of farmers use costly inputs like fertilizers, improved seeds, modern implements, etc. for this; the agricultural price policy has to be growth-oriented by ensuring minimum prices to the farmers for different farm products. Minimum prices also encourage the farmers in crop planning. Nigeria as a developing nation also needs a price policy (price floor) to encourage our farmers to produce more. More so, unemployed youths will find the opportunity cost of leaving villages where farmlands are very high.

**Price Floor:** It is defined as the minimum legal price that can be charged in a market. Raj. and Kuldip (2007) view it as the minimum support price above the equilibrium level which is considered to be low and un-remunerative to the farmers. They went further to say that in case of minimum support price; the Government becomes an active buyer of the product in the market. In developed countries such as the USA that price support policy for agricultural products is adopted to provide reasonable prices to the farmers and increase their income.

When Government put the price floor (minimum support price) what will happen to the market? The market will experience surplus. And the Government is obliged to buy the surplus from the farmers at the floor price. Consider the figure below that has to do with wheat.

![Fig. 1.1 Minimum Support Price (Price Floor) farm produce (wheat).](source: Adapted from Business Economics by Raj and Kuldip (2007).)
Now suppose this free market determined equilibrium price OP (N500 per unit) is considered to be un-remunerative which does not provide incentives to the farmers to produce wheat or expand its production. Therefore, to promote the interests of the farmers, the Government intervenes and fixes a higher minimum support price OP₁ (N550 per unit) for wheat. It will be seen from fig. 1.1 above that at price OP, of wheat, the quantity demanded of wheat decreases to OQ₁ (P₁A). On the other hand, at higher price OP₁ farmers expand their output and supply a greater quantity OQ₂ (P₁B) of wheat. This means that the imposition of minimum support price of wheat higher than the equilibrium price OP leads to the emergence of surplus of wheat equal to AB of Q₁Q₂. If the government does not purchase this surplus this will tend to depress the price of wheat OP₁ (N550 per quintal) to the farmers the Government will have to purchase the entire surplus AB or Q₁Q₂ from the farmers. It should be noted that to purchase the surplus Q₁Q₂ from the farmers, the Government will have to make expenditure equal to OP₁ x Q₁Q₂, this is equal to the area Q₁ABQ₂.

If follows that under minimum support price OP₁ the farmers sell OQ₁ quantity of wheat in the free market and quantity Q₁Q₂ to the Government. At the free market determined equilibrium price OP and quantity OQ₁ the total income of the farmers will be equal to the area OPEQ. Now, with minimum support price equal to OP₁ and the total quantity sold equal to OQ₂, the income of the farmers has increased to OP₁ x Q₁Q₂. Thus minimum support price policy has greatly benefited the farmers both in terms of price they receive for their product and the income they are able to earn.

Jhingan (1997) observed that the agricultural price policy (price floor) play a significant role in stimulating production of agricultural commodities, raising their prices, making terms of trade favourable for the agricultural sector, raising income of the farmers and protecting the consumers through the public distribution system. He also mentioned that G.S Gupta in his study of Agricultural prices policy and farm incomes has shown that price support/procurement policy has positive effects on farm prices.

**Consequences of Fixing a Floor Price**
The price floor has not been an unmixed blessing. It has its short comings (Jhingan, 1997). It has been shown that the government purchases the surplus of produce at a floor price. As viewed by Raj and Kuldip (2007) a major problem facing the government is how to dispose of the surplus it purchases from the farmer at the higher minimum support price. If the Government sells it in the market, the price in the market will fall which will defeat the purpose of support price policy. Alternatively, the Government may store the surplus and in this case the Government will incur storage costs. Thus, while to produce surplus requires valuable resources such as labour fertilizer, irrigation and other inputs, yet it is quite often left to decay in government warehouses. In America, one important way of disposing of surplus is to give them to the developing countries as food aid. But this food aid is not without problems. The American food aids to developing countries have tended to depress prices of food grains in these countries and therefore has harmed the interests of the farmers of these developing countries.
Taking the above paragraphs into consideration we see that a price floor is having disadvantages as it has advantages. Now it is an issue of weighting the two and sees which one is heavier.

Discussions
It is in the agricultural sector that the battle for long-term economic development will be won or lost (Gunnar, 1970). In an attempt to boost agriculture in the country the three tiers of government adopted various policy measures and programmes. The most pronounced measure in Nigeria is fertilizer subsidy. Every year government spends colossal amount of money for the procurement and subsidizing of fertilizer supposedly to farmers. It is even to the extent that to measure their performance in agricultural sector, Minister of agriculture, Commissioner of Agriculture, Local Government Chairman sometimes, presidency or State Government do boost of the amount they spends in subsidizing the fertilizer. To the Government, agriculture support begins and ends with spending as much money on fertilizer subsidy.

But, who are the beneficiaries of the annual ritual of fertilizer subsidy. Certainly, not the farmers, may be those in government and people at the corridor of power. In 2003 Kano State Government before inauguration of the executive council, ordered for the supply of fertilizer to the tune of N2b. In 2009 Federal Government subsidized fertilizer to the tune of N46 billion. In 1992, fertilizer subsidy reached up to 42.7% of national budget, and the subsidy was 8.9 times as large as the national agriculture budget. With all these amount, the governments were not interested in the result. This is because at the end of the harvesting season, un-existing figures will be documented submitted to the government that will show an increase in the agricultural produce. This is a typical game of deception.

Because of the mismanagement of financial resources which produced no meaningful result the paper is putting forward the use of price floor towards boosting food production in the country. Tanimu (2009) lamented that farmers in this country can produce more than they are producing presently if government at all levels create market for them. He said part of the problem hindering agricultural productivity in Nigeria was inability of farmers to get market for their produce. A situation which he said creates opportunity for middle men to buy farm produce at cheap price from farmers.

Jhingan (1997), opined that agricultural price policy (price floor) benefits both producer and consumer. He said “the aim of agricultural price policy is to iron out price fluctuations of agricultural commodities so as to reduce the loss to the producer from a sharp price fall following a bumper harvest and to minimize the difficulties of the consumers from a sharp price rise as a result of short supplies due to a crop failure. The ultimate aim is to bring price stability in agricultural commodities.

We were made to understand that if price floor is set the farmers may likely increase their production and the demand of their product may likely be short of the supply. Hence the surplus may result. The government is to purchase the surplus to maintain the price floor. What would the government do with the surplus? The surplus can be distributed to hospitals, boarding schools, orphanages, less privilege in the society or any other place which the government is spending money to feed. This will even have the effect of reducing cost to the government.
Because, government do spend much money in feeding patients in hospitals, students in school etc. Another question could be from where the government gets money to purchase these surplus if it occur? We have seen how government spends hell lot of money in procuring and subsidizing fertilizer. The money used for fertilizer subsidy could be used for this purpose. If this is done am sure the number of farmers will increase, the existing farmers will double their production. Soon people will go back to villages taking farming as an occupation to earn a living. Our youth will be employed because well to do may prefer to invest in farming than to invest in shares. This is because they are sure of what they will get as returns. And ultimately these will result in large scale farming.

Michael and Stephen (2003) recommended that to promote increases in agricultural production government in less developed countries “……… must also provide incentives for small and medium-sized farmers by implementing pricing policies that truly reflect internal market conditions.” From encyclopedia of the nations we leant that Agricultural exports (including manufactured food and agricultural products) decreased in quantity after 1970, partly because of the discouraging effect of low world prices. Hence a price floor is essential in boosting agricultural production.

Summary and Conclusion
It is a fact that before oil succeeded in getting the country (Nigeria), Agriculture was the mainstay of the nation’s economy. Nigerians abandoned agricultural sector including the government looking for easy ways of getting money. Consequently, the country became the major importer of food items to feed its growing population.

Fertilizer subsidies were employed by the government spending billions and billions of naira yearly towards boosting agriculture in the country. This effort proved fruitless. Despite the high cost of input the farmer could not get a competitive price for their produce after harvesting. Lack of competitive price made many farmers and potential farmers to abandoned farming as an occupation.

To reverse the situation the writer proposes the use of a price floor that will encourage Nigerian farmers to increase their production and it will even entice businesses to invest in farming since the price will results in favourable returns to the capital invested. It is envisaged that our teaming unemployed graduates will go back to the farm if the price of farm produce will pay.

It was observed that price floor may result in surplus of farm produce (unsold farm produce) from the farmers. The government will normally purchase these surpluses from farmers and use it as appropriate. The money which the government will use in purchasing the surplus was anticipated to come from the money used in subsidizing fertilizer. Since under price floor, there will be no fertilizer subsidy.

Even though, some disadvantages were observed in price floor system the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Among the disadvantages were; increase in food prices for citizens, high cost to the government and the problem of disbursing the surplus. On the other hand, among the advantages are: Reduction in food importation, provision of employment for the teaming youth,
increasing the farmers (rural dwellers) welfare, reducing spending the country’s foreign exchange etc.

Finally, it is recommended that government should adopt a price floor system on agricultural produce and stop subsidizing fertilizer; instead the government should use the money to purchase the surplus that might occur as a result of price floor policy. Government should distribute the surplus of farm produce to hospitals; children’s home disabled homes, boarding schools etc.

Government should increase the salary of its workers to cushion the effect of price increase of food items that might result. Government should remove duty on all agricultural inputs (fertilizer inclusive) or reduce it to the lowest level possible. All policies that will hinder the importation and marketing of agricultural input should be removed.

Agricultural sector was, is and will remain an important and vital sector of the Nigerian economy. It provides food for the teeming populace, raw materials for industries, income to farmers, foreign exchange earnings to the government, provide employment, national pride and last but not the least it provide a sense of social security. Despite the importance of agriculture to the economy, one will believe Michael and Stephen (2003) that the sector is neglected.

References
BBC World report 10/05/2010.
Raj, K. and Kudlip G. (2007), Business Economics UDH publishers and Distributions (P) LTD New Delhi
EVALUATION OF NATIONAL POVERTY ERADICATION PROGRAMME (NAPEP): 
A CASE OF OLUSEGUN OBASANJO LED CIVILIAN ADMINISTRATION

BY

BASHIR DANLAMI SARKIN DAJI
Department of Business Administration
Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University,
Lapai, Niger State, Nigeria

Abstract:
It is an understatement to say that poverty is endemic, widespread and deep rooted in Nigeria. Many poverty alleviation programmes and implementing agencies have practically failed to address the issue of poverty and its devastating effects. This paper evaluates poverty in Nigeria and strategies for poverty reduction with particular focus on NAPEP during the eight-year rule of Olusegun Obasanjo. It analyses the militating factors and suggests the way forward to refocus the programme so as to achieve its laudable objectives.

Keywords: Evaluation, Poverty, Eradication, Programme.

Introduction
Every government uses policies and programmes to raise the standard of living and to reduce poverty among the generality of the citizenry. In line with this, Chief Olusegun Obasanjo in his millennium year broadcast to the nation declared:

"Alleviating the poverty and suffering of our people is the fundamental objective of our government. It is the single principle that underlies everything we have done, and will do. Our administration will pursue such economic policies that contain comprehensive strategies for tadding all forms of deprivation in which poverty manifests itself. We are determined to take ordinary Nigerians to the centre of development by ensuring his access to affordable food, education and health (National Concord, 2000)."

The government moved into action by establishing the poverty alleviation project (PAP) on 14th February, 2000. The project had a three year span and a budget of N10 billion. The specific objectives and targets of PAP were as follows:

a. to create 200,000 jobs throughout the country, 5000 in each state and a minimum of 200 in each local government area;
b. to offer micro-credit to semi-skilled and unskilled Nigerians for self-employment, especially in the agricultural sectors;
c. to lift the ban on employment into the civil service and review upward the salaries and wages of government employees.
d. to raise the percentage of children covered by the National Programme on Immunization (NPI) from 30% to 60%;
e. to increase the proportion of Nigerians who have access to portable water from 30% to 60% and;
f. to raise rural electrification from the levels of 30% to 60% (The Guardian, 2000).
According to Mohammed (2001:8) “the government that conceived the idea had no foggy idea of how to go about it. Poverty alleviation was reduced to a Robin Hood dishing out money to party faithful and hangerson. It died a pathetic death, unsung and unmourned”.

In the report of the consultative forum on Harmonization of poverty policies, Agencies and Mechanisms in Nigeria, it was revealed that the poverty situation in Nigeria has, no doubt, assumed a dangerous turn with about 60% of the population earning a monthly income that is less than the UN stipulated minimum of $1 per day. This obviously challenged the civilian administration under the leadership of Olusegun Obasanjo to set up a National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), (IPG forum 2003:23). But with its low performance and still the high levels of poverty in Nigeria, particularly amongst the poor and the rural areas that have majority of the population, NAPEP is singing old song just like the precedent policies. Hence, the need to evaluate the programme to give an achievable focus to meet-up with the global challenges of poverty reduction is the concern of this paper.

To do this, the paper is structured into six parts. Part one is the introduction. Part two caters for conceptual definitions. Part three addresses poverty and implementing agencies for poverty reduction in Nigeria. Part four assesses the objectives of NAPEP. Part five critically evaluates NAPEP under Olusegun Obasanjo led civilian administration. Part six offers the conclusion and recommendations.

**Conceptual Definition**

The basic concepts that need clarification in this paper are: poverty, eradication, reduction and or alleviation. Poverty can be conceptualized as a condition in which an individual or household is unable to meet the basic needs of life considered as minimum requirements, to sustain livelihood in the given society (Curtain, 2002; Santrelli, 2002). Some of the basic needs include adequate food, portable water, decent shelter, health, education, transportation, work, etc. Generally, poverty can be defined as a situation in which a major part of the population lives below income levels sufficient to meet their basic needs (UNCTAD, 2002). That is why GreenWald and associate defined poverty as a condition in which income is insufficient to meet subsistence needs i.e. the individual lives below the conventional poverty line distinguishing the poor from the rich.

The German government in 1992, described poor people as not having enough to eat; a high rate of infant mortality, low life expectancy, low educational opportunities, poor water, inadequate health care, unfit housing and a lack of active participation in the decision making processes (Federal Ministry of Co-operation and Development; 1992). According to the World Bank Development report (1990), poverty is defined as inability of certain persons to attain a minimum standard of living. It is nothing but lack of command of basic consumption needs such as poor clothing, and or shelter. Such lack of resources to meet the basic needs incapacitates the individual in protecting himself against social, economic and political development.

From the above, it means poverty has everything to do with the poor ones’ inability to meet basic necessities of life to uplift or boost their living standard. However, efforts to revive the deplorable conditions of the people in poverty conditions for better is generally called poverty eradication, reduction or alleviation.
Eradication according to Oxford Thesaurus of English Dictionary (2004:29) connotes: elimination, removal, suppression, extermination, destruction, annihilation, extirpation, obliteration, killing, liquidation, declination, extinguishing, quashing, evasive, effacement, excision, expunction, expunging, blotting out. Similarly, eradication has to do with doing away with as completely as if by pulling up the roots. However, with reference to its usage in this Paper, eradication is an attempt to eliminate or total wipe out of poverty in Nigerian.

Mariam-Westers Collegiate Dictionary (1993: 392) defines alleviation as: to make (as suffering more bearable), or to partially remove and correct. However, in an attempt to proffer solution to poverty in Nigeria, the concepts of alleviation and reduction are used inter-changeably with the belief that poverty cannot be eradicated but controlled. Therefore, alleviation and or reduction as used here means, to control or minimize the levels of poverty in Nigeria through various agencies.

**Poverty Types and Implementation of Programmes for Poverty Reduction in Nigeria**

There are different types of poverty, that is income poverty and basic needs (food, education, health care, etc) poverty. While poverty in the developed countries is basically income determined, in the developing countries, Nigeria inclusive, it is, in addition, the result of deprivation and lack of access to basic services (e.g safe drinking water, health care, education, housing). Other dimensions of poverty are; cultural, ecological and historical (Nzekwu, 2006:57).

Poverty in Nigeria is wide spread and deep. The country progressively slipped from being one of the middle-income oil producing countries in the late 1970s and early 1980s to one of the lowest-income countries in the early 1990s. Moreover, the 2004 edition of the UNDP’S Human Development Report placed Nigeria in the 151st position, based on the Human Development Index. Casual evidence of the growing intensity of poverty in the country can be glimpsed from using incidence of mass unemployment, urban vagrancies and homelessness among the poorest groups, diminished access to quality foods and nutrition health care and educational facilities, and the rising incidence of street begging among others (Nzekwu, 2006:57).

Concerns about poverty in Nigeria are great. The Nigeria situation is a paradox. It is a rich country inhabited by many poor people i.e poverty in the midst of plenty. The country is richly endowed with a diversity of human and natural resources from which the bulk of its wealth is derived. The immense waste of human and natural resources in Nigeria due to poverty can be partly attributed to the unhealthy state of the Nigerian economy. The growth rate of real gross domestic product of Nigeria since the early 1990s has not been encouraging. The rate was very slow from 2003 to 2005. From the rate of 8.3 percent in 1990, it declined to 1.0 percent in 1994 and then rose to 2.2 percent in 1995 and to 3.7 percent in 1997 by 1998, it dropped to 2.6 percent and gradually increased to 3.9 percent in 2001, but by 2002, it dropped again to 3.3 percent, these figures when viewed in comparison to the population growth of an average 2.8 percent (UNSN, 2001) per annum, leave little room for substantial improvement in living standards (Nzekwu, 2006: 57).
A petroleum and gas producing country, Nigeria has, since the mid-1970s been heavily dependent on revenue from crude oil for much of its domestic and foreign expenditure requirements. Crude oil, has accounted for over 95% of the country’s total export earnings over the past decades. The country in the year 2004 produced 2.65 million barrels of crude oil per day, which at the prevailing international prices of $53-$54 per barrel, represent a huge resource inflow. The contribution of the primary sector has remained relatively stable over the period, 52.2 percent in 1990 to 52.3 percent in 1999 and 47.8 percent by 2002, while that of the secondary sector has consistently declined from 1991 except for 2002 when it rose slightly to 10.5 percent. The tertiary sector’s contribution has increased marginally over years from 37.2 percent in 1990 to 39.4 percent by 2002. The diversification index has remained relatively stable, suggesting that no fundamental structural changes have taken place in the country (Nzekwu, 2006:57).

At the level of governance, the belief is to have a change of poverty reduction implementing agency. But the implementation of Poverty Reduction Programmes is not new in Nigeria. Poverty Reduction Programme has had a long history in Nigeria. In 1970s and 1990s, the main strategy was periodic augmentation of wages. To increase purchasing power and narrow the gap between public and private sector workers (Alternative Poverty Reduction Strategy, 2004:10). By 1999, there were 15 core Federal Ministries of Poverty Alleviation and about 30 core institutions, agencies and programmes. There are activities for the various State government, Local councils, the Community based organizations (CBOs), Non-governmental organizations (NGOS) and the International Donor Agencies (IDAS) (Aliyu, 2002:5).

To be precise, there was the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) during the Obasanjo Military led regime as poverty reduction programme. Other programme and agencies are: the Green Revolution (GR), the Directorate of Social Mobilization; Self-Reliance, Economic Recovery and Social Justice (MAMSER), Better Life for Rural Women (BLRP), Family Support Programme (FSP), the National Directorate for Employment (NDE), Peoples Bank and Community Bank (Yunusa, 2006:3).

Some of the reasons that contributed to the failure of most of these programmes and agencies are:

i. Poor policy formulation and coordination;
ii. Policy discontinuity and lack of sustainability;
iii. Absence of policy framework, institutional framework and delivery machinery;
iv. Absence of target setting for Ministries, Agencies and Programmes,
v. Absence of coordination, complementation and monitoring;
vi. Duplication of functions among institutions and agencies;
vii. Unhealthy rivalries among institutions and agencies;
viii. Lack of the involvement of the traditional authorities and community groups in projects selection and implementation;
ix. Embarking on project that do not have direct relevance to the poor and in some cases abandonment of these projects; and
x. Absence of an agreed poverty reduction agenda that can be used by all concerned, that is, the Federal Government, State Governments, Local Government, and the international donor agencies (Aliyu, 2001:6).
The above problems of the previous Poverty Reduction Programmes and Agencies set the agenda for the Olusegun Obasanjo administration’s (NAPEP) with the following objectives.

**Objectives of NAPEP**
The ultimate target of the Federal Government Poverty Eradication Programme is the eradication of absolute poverty among the people of Nigeria. The eradication of poverty in Nigeria is therefore to ensure that all Nigerians are provided with:

a. steady source of real income;

b. high purchasing power;

c. abundant, good quality and high nutritional food;

d. basic health care facilities;

e. good quality drinking water;

f. good standard housing units;

g. good quality roads and other means of transport;

h. stable and affordable power supply;

b. good urban and rural communication facilities;

c. cheap and affordable consumer products; and

c. conducive environment for production and trades.

If all these can be provided to all Nigerians, then the target for eradicating absolute poverty in Nigeria is achieved (Aliyu, 2002:6). Unfortunately, with these laudable objectives and implementation, NAPEP is confronted with the following problems:

i. corruption;

ii. poor execution;

iii. lack of relevant strategies;

iv. operational bottle necks and bureaucratic problems;

v. undue political interference;

vi. ineffective targeting of the poor; and

vii. absence of sustainability mechanisms in programmes or projects (Akiri, 2006:68).

The failure of NAPEP as outlined above, necessitated an intellectual look into suggesting a way forward for NAPEP instead of proliferation of Poverty Reduction Programmes and Agencies for this paper strongly believes and is convinced that nothing is wrong with the name NAPEP.

**National Poverty Eradication Programme: The Way Forward**
To start with, Nigeria and Nigerians need leadership that cares about the needs of the people. According to Nakasone (1992:224) a leadership is “the same whether you are in business or government. You must be able to set goal, persuade everyone and have everyone participate. And you have to have great enthusiasm.

Leadership “focuses on people, on human wants and needs and on creating an environment where motivation can occur (Jeffries, 1996: xvi). Leadership in practical terms understands the wants and needs of the people and serving those needs in a manner that appeal to the people and encourages them to support the vision”. As Jimmy Carter says “leadership also have a duty to
understand the need of the people who depend on them (Carter, 1992:52). Secondly, Nigeria needs leadership with vision. In simplest terms, vision is a picture of a future that has not yet arrived. Consider the vision which Dr. Martin Luther King used to galvanize his nation towards greater racial equality. It is contained in his great “I have a dream” speech which he delivered from the steps of the Lincoln Memorial in Washington DC on August 28th, 1968. His vision is still the reference point for the continuing the improvement in race relations in America. Such is the power of vision. It inspires, it motivates and focus for creative energies of those who have brought into it (Timothy, 2006:15).

Next to the above is integrity. Men of noble character are people of integrity. Integrity wholeness. It is being who you are created to be. When we are phony, we are demonstrating a lack of integrity. Our immediate past has been characterized by an absence of integrity in private and public lives.

President Olusegun Obasanjo describes the backward view of Nigeria using the following words: “What matters to most Nigerians is the six Ps, which are pursued at all cost-position, power, possession, plaudits, popularity and pleasure. Nothing else matters. With the six Ps, he can buy anything. Honesty is disregarded, indolence is extolled, probity is devided and waste and ostentation are paraded” (Obasanjo, 1999:198).

The President upon assumption of office in 1999 presented himself as a man of integrity devoid of the above ills in order to alleviate if not eradicates poverty in Nigeria. Unfortunately, the president pursued the six Ps at all cost and embraced them. The President kept blaming his predecessors for the woes and failures of the state worsened the state of Nigeria’s petroleum refineries and textile companies in Kaduna and the Kaduna refineries.

Democracy is an antidote to poverty. Nigeria’s democracy under Obasanjo’s leadership alienated rather than empower, it was anti-people, anti-development. It had zero in term for criticism, it preferred conformist and cronies (Abubakar, 2005:15). The President (Obasanjo) should have known that he cannot alleviate or reduce poverty in Nigeria by deregulating fuel prices. The argument that deregulation will not necessarily lead to increases in price is dishonest and deceitful, going by antecedents in this country. Deregulation will definitely lead to price increases not only of petroleum products, but also of other goods and services (Yunusa, 2007:77).

The issue of poverty is treated as contempt for the people. Daily, people die of poverty rather than tackle poverty. Human beings are expendable instead of poverty. Poverty has made life so cheap. The worse aspect is that poverty is seen as a discourse in which the victims have no say, the say has to come from others, the non-poor, the donor, the humanitarian agencies. The poor are seen as object and subject of poverty, as both victims are perpetrators (Abubakar, 2005). The NAPEP discourse is therefore, a big ruse, a cover up; it does not raise the issue of strict implementation, the structures of production and reproduction of poverty and why some people are poor and others are rich. These are very important issues as far as Poverty Reduction Scheme like NAPEP is concerned (Yunusa, 2008). In projecting a better tomorrow for NAPEP, we must never fail to mention godliness. According to Timothy (2006), in our country (Nigeria), there has always been plenty of religion but not a whole lot of Godliness. Godliness is not just a matter of
attending church or mosque or performing a set of required observance. That is not being godly, it is being religion.

According to Obasanjo (1999:219);

“Nigeria was taken captive by a conspiracy of deception, oppression, corruption and injustice all for greed and selfishness-and it needs liberation. And nothing liberates and enlivens like knowledge, enlightenment and the spirit of God. My people are destroyed from lack of knowledge”?

Hosea 4:6 where the spirit of the Lord is, there is freedom 2 Corinthians 3:17. Nigeria is too fragile and the situation too dangerous for anything but the truth and justice; and too small for anything but brotherhood and sisterhood. The world is moving too fast that it may live us behind. Deducing from the above, fortunately the government under the leadership of Obasanjo had eight years which was enough time to tackle the problems of poverty, corruption, unemployment, injustice and to enhance the spirit of brotherhood and sisterhood through peace, but unfortunately, the government used the eight years lamenting on dilapidated infrastructures and political witch-hunting and finally made political power acquisition “a do or die affair” which led to destruction of lives and properties.

The outcome of this aggravates poverty instead of poverty reduction. It is not possible to alleviate poverty without peace. For peace is a prerequisite to development.

Conclusion/Recommendations
The paper is targeted at evaluating the National Poverty Eradication Programme under the Obasanjo led Civilian Administration. Concepts such as poverty, eradication, alleviation and or reduction were examined. The paper also discussed some poverty implementation programmes and agencies in Nigeria and the problems that led to the failure of these programmes and agencies for poverty reduction in Nigeria. Objectives of NAPEP were also discussed. Finally the paper evaluated NAPEP under the Olusegun Obasanjo led civilian administration. Of course, we need to move from rhetoric to action. NAPEP provides a platform for action. But we scared that, unless and until our essential world view is changed, NAPEP will be destroyed on the same rocks that have destroyed other programmes and agencies before it. NAPEP will succeed and Nigeria will be transformed when each of us say no to what is evil and yes to all that is good.

It is therefore suggested that;
Nigerians should give their leaders the needed support. The challenges of poverty, of unity of stability of growth, modernization and fighting corruption are arduous tasks every leader has to proffer the right mix of policy initiatives to tackle these challenges.

- Let there be a vigorous anticorruption campaign.
- Relevant strategies should be worked out to match identified poverty area.
- The government should release adequate fund which should not just be on paper.
- Finally, policy makers should not be part of implementation team to ensure that the benefit trickle-down.
References
Obasanjo, O. (1999): This Animal Called Man (ALF Publication), Abeokuta.
CONSUMER MOTIVATION: ANALYSIS AND IMPLICATIONS

By

MOHAMMED A. MAWOLI
Department of Business Administration
Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University,
Lapai, Niger State, Nigeria

And

KABIR AGBOOLA ABDULAZEEZ
Department of Business Administration
Ahmadu Bello University,
Zaria, Kaduna State, Nigeria

Abstract:
Consumer purchasing decision is a need-satisfaction and problem-solving decision. The hallmark of marketing is to satisfy consumers’ needs at a profit. Consumer needs are numerous and complex. The complexity of consumer needs is attributed to the fact that consumers at times cannot tell “what they need” or “why they make certain purchases”, thus making the marketers’ task of identifying consumers’ needs more difficult. To ease this task, a good understanding of economic, biological, social-cultural and psychological make-ups of the consumers is quintessential. Hence, this paper is set out to review the motivational theories with the view to determining what inspires, pushes or motivates consumers to buy or not to buy certain goods and services. The paper is a descriptive paper, adapting theoretical analysis and deduction as the methodology. The paper reveals that out of the seven major classifications of motivational theories, just one – the need theories – is of direct relevant to marketing. The needs theories point out that consumers’ needs are numerous and are in hierarchy, and that only unsatisfied needs will push consumers to buy goods and services. This implies that marketers have to carry out research to identify consumers unsatisfied needs, and segment the market into groups of consumers that share similar needs.

Key Words: consumer, motivation, needs theories, purchases, goods and services.

1.0 Introduction
Consumers make purchasing decisions on daily basis to solve problems or satisfied certain needs. Consumer problems could be economic, psychological, emotional, social and so on. Consumer problem is simply the difference between his/her ideal and actual situations big enough to trigger a decision (Anonymous, 2004).

Initially, consumers are thought to be rational purchasers. They search for all available products alternatives, rank each of the alternatives in terms of their benefits and disadvantages, and identify the best alternatives. However, researches by psychologists have proven otherwise. That consumers are a bundle of economic, biological, psychological, and social characteristics. Thus, their purchasing decisions are influence by many variables or factors, one of which is psychological factor (e.g. motivation).

McCUTCHEON and SNYDER (2007) submit that while consumers have different motivations for consuming the things they do, all consumers have motivations that guide them to want, and
purchase certain goods or services. Some motivations for consumption could include the need for status, social acceptance, security or individuality while other motivations are unconscious and can be utilized by marketers to hook consumers into buying a product they never knew they always wanted.

Thus, this paper is aimed at reviewing consumer motivational theories with the view of understating what motivates consumers into taking general and specific purchasing decisions. The paper is structured into four specific sessions. Part one introduces the paper, part two reviewed definitions of consumer motivation, part three dwells on Motivational theories, while part four discusses the implications of need motivational theories to the marketers. Part five concludes the paper.

2.0 Consumer Motivation Defined
Consumers are individuals who buy a company’s product not for resale but for direct consumption. Consumers buy goods and services to satisfy a need and solve a problem. Needs instigate and drive individuals to take purchasing decisions. Impliedly, whatever drives or pushes and individual into action is a motivator. Thus, Kerin, Harley, and Rudelius (2009) define motivation as the energizing force that causes behavior that satisfies a need. Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) state that such energizing or driving force is produced by a state of tension, which exists as the result of an unfulfilled need.

Consumer motivation can, therefore, be defined as the study of motives behind consumer purchases. Put differently, it is the study and applications of the drivers of consumers’ purchases. Since consumer needs are the focus of the marketing concept, marketers try to arouse these needs (Kerin, et. al., 2009) and subsequently satisfy them.

2.1 Theories of Motivation
Although there is general agreement among psychologists and marketers that man experiences a variety of needs, there is considerable disagreement as to what these needs are and their relative importance. There have been attempts to present models of motivation which list a specific number of motivating needs, with the implication that these list are all-inclusive and represent the total picture of needs. Unfortunately, each of these models has weaknesses and gaps, and thus leaving the existing literature without a general theory of motivation.


Consumers are only concerned with “needs satisfaction”. In the same vein, marketers are very much concerned with how to identify, arouse and satisfy consumer needs. To that extent, only the Needs Motivational Theories are of interest to the marketers as its understanding and
application will enable marketers to understand the consumers better and satisfy their needs profitably. Thus, only the need/content motivation theories will be reviewed in this article.

2.3 Needs/Content Motivational Theories
The needs or content motivational theories focus on identifying people’s needs in order to understand what motivates them. Several need theories are identifiable in the literature of motivation and most of the later theories of motivation deal essentially on human needs or are need based. Need theorists while differing in some respects, argue that human needs represent the primary driving force behind consumer behavior. The need theories that will be reviewed in this article are Abraham Maslow Hierarchy of Needs theory, Alderfer’s Modified Need Hierarchy Need theory, McClelland Needs theory, and Herzberg’s’ need theory.

2.3.1. Abraham Maslow Hierarchy of Needs theory
The famous and perhaps oldest theory of motivation is the hierarchy of needs developed by Abraham Maslow in 1954. Maslow (1954) theorized that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of needs: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization needs.

Physiological needs: This includes homeostasis (the body’s automatic efforts to retain normal functioning) such as satisfaction of hunger and thirst, the need for oxygen and to maintain temperature regulation. It also includes sleep, sensory pleasures, activity, maternal behavior, and arguably sexual desire.

Safety needs: These include safety and security, freedom from pain or threat of physical attack, protection from danger or deprivation, the need for predictability and orderliness.

Love needs (often referred to as social needs): This include affection, sense of belonging, social activities, friendships, and both the giving and receiving of love.

Esteem needs (sometimes referred to as ego needs): This include both self-respect and the esteem of others. Self-respect involves the desire for confidence, strength, independence and freedom, and achievement. Esteem of others involves reputation or prestige, status, recognition, attention and appreciation.

Self-actualization needs: This is the development and realization of one’s full potential. Maslow sees this as: ‘what humans can be, they must be’, or ‘becoming everything that one is capable of becoming. Self-actualization needs are not necessarily a creative urge, and may take many forms, which vary, widely from one individual to another.

One of the assumptions of hierarchy theory is that only unfulfilled or ungratified needs serve as motivators (Stephen and Timothy, 2008). That is, a substantially satisfied need cannot motivate an individual consumer in taking need-satisfying action. The theory also contends that it is the lowest level of ungratified needs in the hierarchy that motivates behavior (Nelson and Quick, 2003). In other words, the lowest level needs in the hierarchy (e.g. the physiological needs) are the initial motivators and as long as they remain unsatisfied, the higher-level needs (e.g. safety to self-actualizing needs) cannot motivate individuals. However, as soon as lower level needs are
substantially satisfied, they cease from being motivators while the higher-level needs that are yet to be satisfied becomes strong motivators. This is called progression hypothesis.

According to Stephen and Timothy (2008), Maslow separated the five hierarchical needs into higher and lower orders. Physiological and safety needs constitute the lower-order needs, while social, esteem, and self-actualization needs constitute the higher-order needs. Stephen and Timothy (2008) state that the higher-order needs are satisfied internally (within the person), whereas the lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally (by things such as pay, union contracts, and tenure). Despite wide recognition and application of this theory, it lacks empirical substantiation (Stephen and Timothy, 2008). Also, several studies that sought to validate the hierarchy theory found no support for it (Lawler III and Suttle, 1972; Rauschenberger, Schmitt and Hunter, 1980). Nelson and Quick (2003) state that the problem with the hierarchy theory’s progression hypothesis is that it leaves no way to move down the hierarchy. For example, if a person at the esteem level lost a job and was now worried about security.

2.3.2. Alderfer’s Modified Need Hierarchy theory
Clay Alderfer believed that the Maslow’s hierarchy of needs was not accurate in identifying and categorizing human needs. Hence, he produced a modified need hierarchy theory that converts Maslow’s five levels of needs into three levels. This model became known as the ERG theory (or Existence – Relatedness – Growth Theory). Alderfer (1969) suggests three (3) types of needs: existence (similar to Maslow’s physiological and safety needs), relatedness (similar to Maslow’s social and status needs), and growth (similar to Maslow’s esteem and self-actualization needs).

**Existence Needs:** This is concerned with sustaining human existence and survival, and cover physiological and safety needs of a material nature.

**Relatedness Needs:** This has to do with how people relate to their surrounding social environment and includes Maslow’s need for meaningful social and interpersonal relationships.

**Growth Needs:** These are thought to be the highest need category and includes Maslow’s needs for self-esteem and self-actualization.

Like Maslow, Alderfer suggests that individual’s progress through the hierarchy from existence needs, to relatedness needs, to growth needs, as the lower-level needs become satisfied (Robinson, 2004). However, Alderfer suggests these needs are more a continuum than hierarchical levels. More than one need may be activated at the same time. In addition, ERG theory postulate a regression hypothesis alongside progression hypothesis of Abraham Maslow. The regression hypothesis states that people regress to the next lower level category of need and intensify their desire to gratify these needs (Nelson and Quick, 2003).
Figures 1 and 2 shows the Maslow’s five (5) stage hierarchy of needs and Alderfer’s three stages ERG theory respectively. *Growth* in the ERG theory conforms to *self-actualization need* in Need Hierarchy. Similarly, *Relatedness* in the ERG theory conforms to the *Social and Esteem needs* in the Need’s Hierarchy. Lastly but not the least, *Existence* in the ERG theory is similar to the *Safety and Physiological needs* in Maslow’s hierarchy.

### 2.3.3. McClelland Needs theory
After devoting his career on studying secondary needs that motivate people, McClelland (1973) identified three types of basic motivating needs: need-for-power (n/PWR), need-for-affiliation (n/AFF), and the need-for-achievement (n/ACH).

**Need-for-power (n/PWR):** Their research found that people with a high need for power have a great concern for exercising influence and control. Such individuals generally are seeking positions of leadership; they are frequently good conversationalists, though often argumentative; they are forceful, outspoken, hardheaded, and demanding: and they enjoy teaching and public speaking.

Need-for-affiliation (n/AFF): People with a high need for affiliation usually derive pleasure from being loved and tend to avoid the pain of being rejected by a social group. As individuals, they are likely to be concerned with maintaining pleasant social relationships, to enjoy a sense of intimacy and understanding, to be ready to console and help others in trouble, and to enjoy friendly interaction with others.

Need-for-achievement (n/ACH): People with a high need for achievement have an intense desire for success and an equally intense fear of failure. They want to be challenged, and they set moderately difficult (but not impossible) goals for themselves. They take a realistic approach to risk; they are not likely to be gamblers but, rather, prefer to analyze and assess problems, assume personal responsibility for getting a job done, and like specific and prompt feedback on how they are doing. They tend to be restless like to work long hours, do not worry unduly about failure if it does occur, and tend to like to run their own shows.

Stephen and Timothy (2008) submit that McClelland and his associate researchers focused most of their attention on n/Ach. They maintain that high achievers are usually successful in entrepreneurial activities, but salespeople with high-need-for-achievement do not necessarily make a good sales manager, or general manager. This is because people with high n/Ach are only interested in how well they do personally and not in influencing others to do well. However, the best managers are high in their need for power and low in their need for affiliation (Winter, 2002). One of the major shortcomings of McClelland theory of needs is that the needs are difficult to measure, hence it has less practical effect than others.

2.3.4. Herzberg’s’ Need Theory
Fredrick Herzberg developed Two-factor (motivation – hygiene) theory. To him, there are two groups of needs: the satisfiers or motivators, and the dissatisfiers or hygiene factors. The motivation factors relate to job satisfaction, and hygiene factors relate to job dissatisfaction. The dissatisfiers consist of company policy and administration, working condition, supervision, interpersonal relations, status, salary, job security and personal life. The satisfiers comprise achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth.

While Maslow’s analysis was concerned with the motivation of man from birth, at work and at leisure, in the family, and in his many social groups, Herzberg concentrated on studying how Maslow’s needs operate at work and in the employment situation. According to Herzberg, the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction but “no satisfaction”. Similarly, the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction but “no dissatisfaction’. He also emphasized that by removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not make the job satisfying.

According to Nelson and Quick (2003), Motivational factors lead to positive mental health and challenge people to grow, contribute to work environment, and invest themselves in the organization. In contrast, hygiene factor do not directly affect a person’s motivation to work but influence the extent of the person’s discontent.
2.3.5. Murray’s Manifest Needs Theory
This theory is propounded by Henry A. Murray and his Associates at Harvard Psychological Clinic during the 1930s. To Robinson (2004), Murray was concerned directly with the description and measurement of motivation as a basis for understanding human behaviour. “A need”, Murray says “is a predisposition to behave in a certain way under certain condition”. A need is identified with end or goal. His concept of need was essential to understanding human behaviour. He distinguished between two types of needs namely:

**Viscorogenic Needs** (or primary needs): Which are concerned with physical conditions of the body, e.g., food; and

**Psychogenis (or secondary Needs)**: According to him, the Psychogenic or Secondary Needs are about 27 and can be divided into 5 major classes, namely: Ambition, Defence of Status, and Response to Human Power, Affection and Exchange of Information.

After several years of clinical observations, Murray wrote his classic ‘Explorations in Personality’ in which he argued that individuals could be classified according to the strengths of various personalities need variables. These needs were believed to represent a central motivating force both in terms of the intensity and the direction of goal-directed behaviour. Specifically, Murray (1938) as cited in Robinson (2004:65) defined a need as “a construction, which stands for a force in the brain region, a force which organizes perception, apperception, intellection, conation and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, unsatisfying situation.”

Murray stated that the analysis of such needs was a hypothetical process, the occurrence of which is imagined in order to account for certain objective and subjective facts. Murray here implies that one could only infer needs from observed behaviour. Murray (1938) further viewed needs as a largely learned behaviour rather than innate tendencies, which were activated by cues from the external environment (See: Robinson, 2004:65). Each need according to him was composed of two factors:

a. A qualitative or directional component which represents the object toward which the motive is directed; and

b. A quantitative or energetic component, which represents the strengths or intensity of the motive toward the object.

Murray felt that in order to understand a person’s need, it was essential to take account of previous experiences and behaviour, that the history of a person is necessary for understanding his needs. The needs for aggression may lead to fighting. Needs could be expressed in over behaviour or in imaginable forms. According to him, there were six functions of personality, namely:

- Tension reduction – needs produce tension which lead to tension reduction similar to Freud’s view;
- Generation of tension – pleasure derives from tension reduction;
- Self expression allows personal expression of Feelings
- Decision making;
- Adjusting levels of aspirations;
- Ensuring that individual confirms within society – accommodating personality within society.
Marketing Implications of Needs/Content Motivation Theories

The needs theories have many implications for marketers. First, the fact that individuals have numerous needs that are in layers entails that marketers have to device means of identifying the consumers’ needs. Thus, marketing research becomes inevitable for all business organizations, especially motivation research. Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) submit that motivation research attempts to discover underlying feelings, attitudes, and emotions concerning product, service, or brand use. Prior to Dr. Earnest Ditcher’s adaptation of Freud’s psycho-analytical techniques to the study of consumer buying habits, marketing research had focused on what consumers did [i.e. quantitative and descriptive studies] (see: Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). However, Ditcher used qualitative research methods to find out why consumers did what they did (e.g. why consumers’ buy certain products or brands and not other brands).

Second, the revelations by the needs theories that consumer’ needs are in hierarchy, ranging from physiological needs to self-actualization needs, suggest that a group of consumers are likely to have or share similar and pressing needs begging for satisfaction at any point in time. Thus, marketers must segment their markets to ensure effective targeting and positioning of their brands to achieve predetermined marketing goals. Market segmentation entails dividing the total consumer market into sub group of consumers with common or homogeneous needs for the purpose of serving each segment with a set of marketing mix. Kotler and Armstrong (2009) define market segmentation as the process of dividing a market into smaller groups of buyers with distinct needs, characteristics, or behaviours who might require separate product or marketing mixes. Segmentation can be done using geographic, demographic, psychological, social, behavioural and hybrid variables. The need hierarchy is often used as the basis for marketing segmentation, with specific advertising appeals directed to one or more need-segment levels (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000).

Third, the need theory of Herzberg helps marketers to design marketing strategies that will ensure consumers’ satisfaction and avoid consumers’ dissatisfaction. Kotler and Keller (2006) suggest that sellers should identify the major satisfiers or motivators of purchase and try to supply them. They, however, advised that sellers should do their best to avoid dissatisfiers such as a poor training manual or a poor service policy. This is particularly so because while the dissatisfiers will not sell a product, it can easily unsell it.

Fourth, the Maslow Hierarchy of needs can be adapted in positioning a company’s brand in the minds of the target consumers. Kotler and Keller (2006) define positioning as the act of designing the company’s offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the mind of the target market. The key to product positioning is to find a niche – an unsatisfied need – that is not occupied by a competing product or brand (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). Products can be positioned in the minds of consumers to provide quality, low cost, prestige, economy, speed delivery, superb after sales services, etc. For example, First Bank Nig. Plc is positioned as “…truly the first,” Union Bank Nig Plc as “…Big, Strong, and Reliable,” African Petrol (AP) as “…leadership through quality”, Oceanic Bank Int. Plc as “experience peace,” Indomie as “instant noodle.” and MTN as “your best connection.” Positioning can also be used as a status appeals (“Impress your friend”), self-actualizing appeals (“You deserve the best) or economy appeal (“A tank of petrol from Kaduna to Lagos”).
Fifth, the McClelland’s motivational theory provides useful insights in hiring employees, especially salespeople and marketing managers. Effective salespeople are rich in n/ach, which suggest that marketing firms must hire individuals who love setting difficult but achievable personal goals, like taking risks, like confronting challenges, like beating records and date lines, and expects prompt feedbacks on their achievements. In contrast, marketing managers are gifted with the talents and skills for influencing subordinates behavior towards achieving company goals. They like setting appropriate goals for groups and individuals and motivating the individuals to achieve such goals.

Conclusion
Consumers make purchasing decisions on daily basis to solve problems or satisfied certain needs. While consumers have different motivations for consuming the things they do, all consumers have motivations that guide them to want, and purchase certain goods or services. Some motivations for consumption could include the need for status, social acceptance, security or individuality while other motivations are unconscious and can be utilized by marketers to hook consumers into buying a product they never knew they always wanted.

The needs theories have many implications for marketers. It assists them in identifying consumer needs even before commencing production of goods and services. It also guides segmenting consumer markets based on their peculiar homogeneous needs. It equally helps marketers to design marketing strategies that will ensure consumers’ satisfaction and avoid consumers’ dissatisfaction.

References:


CONSUMERS’ PERCEPTION OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

By

OJO MONDAY
Department of Marketing,
Yaba College of Technology
Lagos, Nigeria.

Abstract:
This paper investigates the concept of corporate social responsibility especially as it relates to the extent to which consumers’ perceive it. Questionnaire was administered to 280 participants made up of consumers in the banking, health, construction, security, educational, commercial and political sector of the economy. The result obtained was analysed using chi-square as statistical tools and findings reveal that consumers are supportive of organisations that are socially responsible. It also shows that consumers can recall organizational activities that are considered socially responsible. It is recommended that CSR be adopted as a strategic weapon to repositioning organisation.

Key words: Corporate social responsibility, Perception, Consumers

Introduction
For a very long time, the concept of social responsibility connotes different meaning to different organisation to the extent that its practice and adoption vary across corporations. In its simplest form, CSR could be seen as a situation where one is responsible not just for doing what you feel like doing but by ensuring that your actions are responsible to the whole community, be it immediate or remote. In other words, the goal of social responsibility assumes that your goal is to have positive effect rather than a harmful and self-serving one on the greater community. Social responsibility is voluntary; it is about going above and beyond what it called for by the law (legal responsibility). It involves an idea that it is better to be proactive toward a problem rather than reactive to a problem. Social responsibility entails eliminating corruption, irresponsible and unethical behaviour that might bring harm to the community, its people, or the environment before the behaviour happens.

Social responsibility could be in the form of organisation seeking to foster relationships and collaborative partnerships with like-minded organisation and individual within its community so that it is more likely to have the freedom to adopt and demonstrate this desirable tenet. Thus, its guiding philosophy would be one of self-responsibility and mutual benefit.

Walter (2009) opined that social responsibility has become important concept in the public-relations campaign of medium-sized and large corporations. It has become a marketing pillar that often refers less to the whole of the organisation’s action but more to a department, a programme of efforts or charitable donations.

From holistic point of view, an organisation – whether for profit or non-profit- might be independently owned and operated in a community accountable manner. Such an organisation might endeavour to provide right livelihood or meaningful employment to its member; eschew the greed that compels one to acquire and hoard more than one needs, and adhere to the principle of right action and’ no harm’ to all who might be affected by its operation.
Pivato et al (2008) in their study on the impact of corporate social responsibility on consumer trust reported that corporate social responsibility activities is the creation of trust among the stakeholders and that trust in turn influences subsequent actions. Corporate social responsibility refers to business decision-making linked to ethical values, compliances with legal requirements, and respect for people, communities and the environment.

Kaliski (2001) reported that in today’s society, business must maintain ethical principles in order to be successful. Businesses can use ethical decision-making to strengthen their businesses vis-à-vis increase productivity, improve the health of those seen as stakeholders that are outside of the business and allow for government agencies to minimize their involvement with the corporation. The increased awareness of corporate social responsibility has also come about as a result of the United Nations millennium development goals in which a major goal is the increased contribution of assistance from large organizations, especially multi-national corporations to help alleviate poverty and hunger for businesses to be more aware of their impact on society. There is a lot of potential for corporate social responsibility to help with development in poor countries, especially community-based initiatives. This feelings of attachment is becoming increasingly pronounced more so that the character of social interactions are altered away from communal attachments and more towards primarily economic based contacts through work and shopping (Putnam 2000). The age of globalization, increasingly mobile population and growing urban sprawl lend credence to this fact. Similarly, individual quest for the provision of basic means of livelihood from government that is never available has resulted in the shift of attention to organization for such. The implication is that individuals seek solace and relief from organization to meet their needs and at the same time ensure their continuous existence. Through community oriented corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives, businesses might attempt to portray themselves as attached to the community (Besser 1999; Miller & Besser 2000).

Many studies have noted the importance of corporate social responsibility and its attendance consequence in the decision making process of individual while making purchase. Hull et al (2005) in their study of the impact of perceived corporate social responsibility on consumer behavior reported that consumer’s perception of fit, motivation and timing of corporate social initiatives serves as information cue that assist in improving consumer belief, attitudes and intentions.

Similarly, Yoon, Zeynee and Nobert (2008) concluded that corporate social responsibility activities improve a company’s image when consumers attribute sincere motives, and are ineffective when sincerity of motive is ambiguous and tend to hurt the company’s image when motive are perceived as insincere.

**Statement of the Problem**
Corporate social responsibility as a concept if adopted and practiced by organization would go a long way in confirming its adherence to good ethical practices. In this connection, organization would have taken good care of the employees and at the same time impact positively in the society. The consumers on the other hand are likely to develop positive image about the organization. After all, one good turn deserve another, Hence, to what extent would consumer be
supportive of such organisation and even be able to recall the various activities that are considered to be socially responsible.

Research Evidences

Do consumers care about Corporate Social responsibility? Augur et al (2007) explain that a combination of more product choices, wealth, education and brand consciousness on the one hand and the increasing availability of ethical products on the other, result in a more socially conscious consumer. Creyer & Ross (1997) survey of 280 parents concluded that a company’s ethicality is a factor which is considered when purchasing decisions are made and firms which are ethical would be rewarded with higher prices and those with lower ethical standards would be punished with lower prices.

Similarly, Page & Fearn (2005) using a large consumer sample in the UK, US and Japan, reported that consumers do care about corporate behaviour, but this is not the primary concern when they are shopping. Apart from price and quality, consumers are concern for how they are treated. They are less willing to sacrifice basic functional features of goods and services for socially acceptable characteristics of the product (Auger et al 2003). This is especially true if the social initiatives of the firms are not aligned to its corporate objectives, i.e. a low fit (Becker-Olsen et al 2006). Mohr et al (2001) reported that experiment conducted tends to show that evaluation of products and companies as well as purchase intentions depend on the amount and nature of corporate social responsibility information provided. The experiment also shows the negative impact of unethical behaviour of firms.

Sanker & Bhattacharya (2001) conducted studies on when, how and for whom specific corporate social responsibility initiatives work, reported the mediating role of consumers’ perception of congruence between their own characters and that of the company in their reactions to its corporate social responsibility initiatives. More specifically, it was found out that the corporate social responsibility initiative can under certain condition decreases consumers intentions to buy a company product.

In the same vein, Bhatacharya & Sen (2004) opined that consumer reaction to corporate social responsibility is not straight forward and evident as the market place polls suggest. While Smith (2003) reported a positive correlation between a company’s corporate social responsibility and consumer behaviour towards that company products.

On consumer perception of corporate donation, Dwane (2003) noted that average firm enhance its image by pursuing an unconditional donation but a conditional donation did not damage firm image perception of the scrupulous firm but a scrupulous firm suffered a loss of favour by pursuing cause–related marketing.

Xueming & Bhattacharya (2006) in their studies on the influence of corporate social responsibility (CSR) on perceived customer responses reported that corporate social responsibility (CSR) actually reduces customer satisfaction level and through the lowered satisfaction harms market value. Also, Daniela (2010) conducted study on corporate social responsibility (CSR) and consumers perception of price concluded that consumers’ perceived the
benefit and value in the offer of the socially responsible firm and are willing to pay 10 percent more for its product judging this pricing as being fair. In the developing countries, consumers are often unaware and unsupportive towards corporate social responsibility (CSR). Unlike in the developed countries, consumers are willing to support corporate social responsibility (CSR) launched by organization.

Maignan’ (2001) survey of consumer perception of CSR in Germany, France and the United States shows some difference which could be related to culture. It was found out that France and German consumers tend to rate economic responsibilities of firms lower than the Americans. Legal and ethical responsibilities were rated more important by the Europeans and this is linked to the communication dimension. On the other hand, the individualistic nature of the Americans is responsible for the emphasis on economic responsibilities of firms.

Laura et al (2008) conducted a cross-cultural studies and reported that United States companies tends to communicate about and justify CSR using economic or bottom-line terms and argument whereas European companies would rely more heavily on language or theories of citizenship, corporate accountability or moral commitment.

Ramasamy & Hung (2004) in a comparative study between CSR in Malaysia and Singapore reported a high level of economic development for a higher awareness level in Singapore. In developing countries where average income is low, consumers may under-estimate their role in the market. Kemp (2001) highlight that a lack of social welfare system in Indonesia means that workers depend on their salaries as the sole source of income leading them to accept sub-standard, working environment and environmental degradation as “fate”. And as such, consumers may tend to emphasize the economic responsibility of businesses, as this will secure jobs and income.

In developing countries, there is often the tendency to rely on government to exert pressures on businesses for being socially responsible rather than by using the consumption naira. There is also the tendency for consumers to relate CSR to a firm’s philanthropic activities. Sood & Arora (2006) reported that in Asia, philanthropy is ingrained in religious ideology. As countries pursue economic development, income inequalities increase. And so the rich are expected to share their wealth with the needy in order to obtain inner peace (Sharms & Talwar, 2005). However, with the emergence of middle class, the demand by consumers on firms beyond philanthropy could also be realized This was made possible as a result of more access to education by the masses as well as an increased realization of the power to penalize businesses through market actions.

Yet, consumers’ expectation of the role of business in society could also vary according to the level of institutional development in the country. Whether the rule of law is ambiguous, as is the case in many developing countries (Transparency International, 2006), consumers may expect businesses to be responsible and adhere to rules voluntarily. Some companies use CSR methodologies as a strategic tactics to gain public support for their presence in global market, helping them sustain a competitive advantage by using their social contributions to provide a subconscious level of advertising (Fry, Klein & Meiners, 1982). Global competition places particular pressure on multinational corporations to examine not only their own labour practices,
but those of their entire supply chain, from a CSR perspective. Orlizty, Schmidt, and Rynes (1999) found a correlation between social/environmental performance and financial performance. However, businesses may not be looking at short-run financial returns when developing their CSR strategy.

How does brand promote corporate social responsibility? According to McWilliams and Siegel (2006) brands are a critical aspect of selling social responsibility to consumers and it is increasingly becoming important in international markets. Trademarks enable firms to post “reputational bonds” in the form of advertising and other expenses in maintaining the brand. If the firm shirks on the quality promise inherent in the brand, it stands to forfeit some or all of its investment in the brand.

3.0 Methodology
This paper attempts to examine consumers’ perception of corporate social responsibility. Two probable effects of such perception were put forward as hypotheses for testing:

- That consumers’ does not support organisation that are socially responsible.
- That consumer cannot recall organizations activities that are socially responsible.

Definition of Concepts
Perception: this entails accurate interpretation of information, event or activities in the environment.

Corporate social responsibility: This is organisation acceptance of social obligation beyond the requirement of the law.

Consumer: Individual or group of individual that purchase the product of an organization.

Administration of Questionnaires
A total sample size of 280 participants were used for the study consisting of consumers in the banking, education, commercial, construction, health, security and political sector of the economy. Data were generated by means of a self administered questionnaire, with mainly close-ended questions. The questionnaire was designed to allow measurement of consumers’ general support of socially responsible organization as well as consumers’ ability to recall activities that were considered socially responsible.

The instrument comprises of 24 statements focusing on the above two measures – a single statement to measure the overall social responsibility of organization, ten statements measuring consumers’ support of responsible businesses and another eleven statement seeking consumers’ perception of what organization does. Chi-Square analysis was applied to data obtained from the participants
4-0 Result of Analysis
Table 1-4 gives a summary of the responses and analysis obtained from the administration of the research instrument.

Table 1: Consumers’ support for corporate social responsibility.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Indifference</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Banking</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politicians</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Chi-Square Analysis to measure the significant relationship in the perceived support for corporate social responsibility among consumers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>O-E</th>
<th>(O-E)^2</th>
<th>O-E^2 E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>13.58</td>
<td>184.4</td>
<td>23.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifference</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>-6.12</td>
<td>37.45</td>
<td>4.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>-4.02</td>
<td>16.16</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>-3.12</td>
<td>9.73</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X=32.092</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Consumers’ recall of activities that are socially responsible

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Indifference</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Banking</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4: Chi-Square Analysis to measure the significant relationship in the perceived recall of organizational activities that are socially responsible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>O-E</th>
<th>(O-E)^2</th>
<th>O-E^2/E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>136.89</td>
<td>17.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifference</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-5.6</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>3.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-3.3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>X^2=23.551</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hypothesis One:**
Consumers do not support organizations that are socially responsible. From the analysis of data presented in table 1 and 2, the result show a Chi-square value of 32.092 while the table value at 5-1=4 degree of freedom (df) is 9.488. Since 32.092 is greater than 9.488, then reject the null hypothesis i.e. consumers are supportive of organisation that are socially responsible.

**Hypothesis Two**
This hypothesis states that consumers cannot recall organizations activities that are socially responsible. From the analysis of data in table 3 and 4 above, result shows a Chi-square calculated value of 23.551, while the table value (critical value) at 5-1=4 degree of freedom (df) of 9.488. Since 23.551 is greater than 9.488, then reject the hypothesis i.e. consumers can recall activities of organizations that are socially responsible.

**Discussion and Conclusion**
The result of findings revealed that consumers are supportive of organizations that are socially responsible. This could be linked to the adage: One good turn deserve another. In the domain of common sense, it goes to show that those who impact positively on others would most often than not be rewarded directly by the beneficiary or indirectly by well wishers.

Similarly, findings also show that consumers are capable of associating organization with responsibilities especially to the extent in which they are performed. The implication is that it brings about positioning (product and/or organization) into the mind of consumers. Organization that live up to her responsibilities would earn trust from consumers and this will manifest in subsequent action. This view is supported by pivato et al (2008) in their study on the impact of corporate social responsibility on consumer trust.

Furthermore, it can be deduced from this study that corporate social responsibility activities improves a firm’s image more so as consumers attributes such to sincere motive. The finding of Yoon et al (2008) provides evidence to support this study.

Conclusively therefore, it can be asserted that corporate social responsibility is a weapon to be used by organization for strategic purposes especially as a way of repositioning.
To future researcher, it is suggested that organizations are equally studied with a view to finding out the extent of adoption of CSR specifically as the tenets of CSR goes beyond physical evaluation.

References
Mcwilliam, A; Siegel, D & Wright, B (2006) Corporate Social Responsibility Strategic Implications; Journal of Management Studies 43 (1), 1-18
Mohr, I; Webb, D & Harris, K (2001) Do Consumers Expect Companies to be Socially Responsible on Buying Behaviour, Journal of Consumer Affair, 35 (10), 45-72
SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES, ROLES AND CHALLENGES TOWARDS ECONOMIC GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT IN NORTHERN NIGERIA
(A CASE STUDY OF BORNO STATE)

By

ABDULFATAH ODUA,
BABAGANA I. IMAM

And

HANNATU WATIFA
Department of Marketing,
Ramat Polytechnic,
Maiduguri, Borno State, Nigeria

Abstract:
The study investigated small-scale industries, roles and challenges towards economic growth and development in northern Nigeria (A case study of Borno State). A sample of one hundred and twenty (120) respondents drawn from two local government areas (Maiduguri Metropolitan Council and Jere Local Government area) from the population was used using quota sampling technique. The result of the study indicated among others lack of loan facilities for small-scale investors, lack of information and lack of proper storage facilities for their produce/products. The study therefore recommended that government should identify, register, monitor and design programmes that will aid small-scale businesses, also the Ministry of Trade and Commerce should set up a division/department to cater for small-scale industries and furthermore government and private organisations should help provide infrastructure, funds, grants, research, marketing intelligence, tax holiday and subsidies to encourage individual who wish to engage in small-scale business and those already in it.

Introduction
There is no clear definition of small-scale industry; however Jonah (1995) defined small-scale industry as the term used to cover industries consisting of small forms ranging from household and cottage establishment to medium size factories. Again, Jonah (1995) pointed out that in the United State of America the amended Small Business Act of 1958 states that were the number of employees is used as one of the criteria in making such definitions for any of the purpose of the Act, the maximum number of the employees shall vary from industry to industry to the extent necessary to reflect differing of such industries and to take proper account of other relevant factories. In the Nigerian situation, some far-reaching decisions and the definition have been obtained. The government Small-Scale Industrial Development Scheme (SSIDS) defines small-scale business as “any manufacturing, processing or service industry with a capital investment not exceeding ₦50,000 in machinery and equipment. The Third National Development Plan (1975 – 1980) defines small-scale industry as manufacturing establishment employing not less than ten people and of whose investment in machinery and equipment do not exceed ₦600,000. The Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industry (NBCI, 1985) defined small-scale industry as “any industry with a total cost of less than ₦1,000,000 (at pre-FCM values). From these scholarly exercises, it could be deducted that for business to be small-scale, it should have relatively small-amount of capital, small number of employees, small investment and small institutional framework over a mall time. Small-scale industries are important not only because they account for a significant proportion of investment of output and employment in the nation, but also because they provide vital links in the chain of economy as
whole in motivating, energising and connecting various sectors and sub-sectors for greater productivity.

Furthermore, for it to be termed a small-scale enterprise or business, it must possess the following characteristics which include providing a good training ground for management and labour, it has to be labour-intensive and can create more; it should not be complex in terms of technology which makes it easier for the indigenes to manage them, it should utilise local raw materials and it should be within the financial reach for many indigenous entrepreneurs in their quest for contribution toward equity and initiatives.

Jonah (1995) and Hatten (2006) noted some of the roles that small-scale industries perform include the following:

Small-scale industry provides ideas that afford individuals opportunities to back their ideas with their own available resources and initiatives towards forming their own firms or companies. Thus the courage and conviction one has that one’s talent when fully utilised might lead the one to an economic prowess. Economic prowess leads to economic freedom; economic freedom when articulated from the grassroots provides a fundamental basis for easy political freedom;

Again, to promote small-scale industry is essentially to promote domestic private enterprises. It follows that the development of the indigenous small-scale industries in Maiduguri is not really an effective way of contributing to the diversification and development of the economic base of the State and increase in living standard but is also one of the principal means of achieving the much needed social and political objectives of crucial importance to Nigerian society;

Besides, small-scale industries help in checking rural-urban migration by making life in the rural areas reasonable and worthwhile. Government use small-scale industries sub-sector as the pivot of our industrial development strategy and the springboard by which many indigenous entrepreneurs should be able to undertake ventures in the medium and large scale sub-sectors;

Similarly, Monly (1974) also added that it is the practice in some developing countries for large-scale industries to subcontract the manufacture of parts and components in small-scale industry. Raw materials will usually be channelled to small-scale industries which would manufacture components and pass them onto the larger industries which assemble and deliver the finished goods. Monly (1974) further stressed that in the newly and less-developed countries the increasing interest in small and medium enterprise is said to stem primarily from the inability of agriculture to provide employment for the increasing population. The shortage of capital means that those non-farm jobs which are created need to maximise the use of labour, subject to the orientation of economic efficiency;

Furthermore, Alexander (1998) noted that “in most industrialised countries, entrepreneurs are free to turn to multiple sources of supports, subsidy, technology and agencies to aid them to develop their business. These include low cost funding for markets studies rank to cover market research and development, access to market intelligence, export promotion, fiscal incentives, tax holding, subsidised management training.
Apart from the roles played by small-sale industries, certain constraints are linked to them. Accordingly, Iornem (1984), Fubara(1998) and Ogundele (2004) noted the following (i) the critical review of their plight sometimes revealed total ignorance to of the need for marketing skills or deliberately neglect of the necessity for programmed marketing, the increasing awareness of the need to boost small-scale industries in Nigeria has been matched with the identification and analysis of their marketing potentials and problems; (ii) on the performance of marketing function by small-scale business owners who blame their failure on inadequate sales, Iornem (1984) considered Nigerian small-scale industries as being in the production area where emphasis is on cost, mass production of light quality goods. This according to him makes the management fall into the “better mouse tap fallacy” believing that building a better mouse trap will lead people to beat a path to its door; (iii) According to Fubara (19984) for small indigenous industrial concern like shoes manufacturing shops, block making industries, furniture manufacturers and others, there is no formal marketing plan. They are the hopefuls because they live by hoping that sooner or later, someone who has need for their products will come long to buy them.

Furthermore, Ogundele (2004) stressed that the study of in and out of business firms show that potential manufacturers and merchandisers would do well to ascertain market size, consumer preference and competitive offerings before establishing a business, thus circumventing hazards created by blind, optimistic speculation, because small manufacturers are production oriented, the tend to fail miserably in the formulation of sound marketing policies. Again, Fubara (1998) reveals that many of the enterprises tend to hide themselves away from the public so that passers-by do not easily see them and tax officers cannot locate or assess their competence and earning capacity. Little attempts were made by the sellers or producers to push their goods through the distribution channels by sales promotions and advertising. This is equally glaring in Maiduguri where none of the existing enterprises has any proper identification signpost, talk less of engaging in any promotional activities. To have an in-depth knowledge on the study, the following research problems among others was looked at to find out the initial capital needed to start a small-scale business and how it was sourced, to find out if small-scale business enterprise receive support from government/private sectors and to find out if investor recoup their return on investment. In finding answers to the following research questions raised above, the study is therefore intended to achieve the following objectives which include; to identify the methods and techniques used by small-scale industries in the State, to access the policies adopted by the government in managing small-scale industries in the State and to identify problems militating against small-scale industries development in the State and proffer solutions to them.

Area of Study
Borno State with Maiduguri as its capital has long been the dominant city in the north-eastern Nigeria and is located close to the Republic of Chad, Niger and Cameroon gives it an increasing international recognition as the centre of commerce, transport, education, religion and administration (Maxlock, 1976). Within the country, it is boarded by Yobe and Jigawa States in the north-west and Gombe in the west and Adamawa State in the south. The city is located in latitude 11°51 north and longitude 13°5’ east and it stands some 370.1 metres above sea level. The 2006 census gave the population as 521,492 with 290,449 male and 231,043 female (NPC, 2006).
Research Data and Source of Data
Primary data were obtained using a research questionnaire designed and administered to 100 respondents in Maiduguri Metropolitan Council and Jere Local Government Area where majority of the small-scale industries are located in the State. Quota sampling technique determined by the respondents was used) while the secondary data were obtained from textbooks, journal and newspapers.

Research Design
The target population of this study include all those who are engaged in different form of small-scale business within Maiduguri Metropolitan Council and Jere Local Government Area. A statistical assumption through the use of percentage of the respondents on given research data was used in the analysis of data obtained and where presented in table format

Results
The results of the finding revealed the following:

i) Most of the small-sale businessmen (77.5%) are male and 86.7% of those that engage in small-scale business are married (items 1 and 2 in the table).

ii) On the kind of small-scale business they are into, majority of them (70.8%) indicate that they are into buying and selling (see table 3).

iii) Table 4, 5, 6, and 7 indicated that 45% of the small-scale businessmen were able to secure their initial capital from savings, because 78.3% of them could not secure loan from financial institutions at reasonable interest rate and 82.5% are not aware of any government establishment or agency aim to support their kind of business in addition to the revelation that 80.8% do not belong to any registered business organisation that might assist.

iv) 59.2% of the respondents indicated that they are able to make their returns on the investment they made into their small-scale business.

v) Majority (67.5%) of the small-sale businessmen agree that capital/loan is the major challenge that they are faced with and another 60.8% indicated that the assistance they need is in capital and reasonable loan.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Table 1: Gender of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Table 2: Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010
Table 3: What kind of small-scale business are you into?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Producing</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buying &amp; selling</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>70.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service rendering</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Table 4: How did you secure your initial capital?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Savings</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends and relations</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Table 5: Are you able to secure loan at financial institutions at reasonable interest rate?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>78.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Table 6: Do you belong to any registered professional business organisation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>80.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Table 7: Are you aware of government establishment/agencies aimed at supporting your kind of business?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>82.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Table 8: Do you make returns on your investment?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>59.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010
Table 9: What major challenges you are faced with?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capital/loan</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>67.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storage/preservation</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw material</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Table 9: In which area do you need assistance?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capital/loan</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>60.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storage/preservation</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw material</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Discussion
The findings of the study based on the results obtained in items and 1 and 2 suggests that small-scale businessmen are mostly men and majority of them are married. Again, it indicated that majority of those engaged in small and medium-scale business enterprise are into buying and selling (Jonah, 1995; Hatten, 2006). Furthermore, small-scale businessmen in Borno State are about to secure their initial from saving because majority of them could not secure loan from financial institutions or government establishments formed for their purpose at reasonable interest rate and are not aware of any government establishment or agency established to render any form of support to them. Furthermore, they are not aware of any registered professional organisation with the intention of assisting small-scale business enterprise in Borno State which has led to some of the challenges the small-scale businessmen have faced (Fubara, 1998; Lornem, 1984 and Ogundele, 2004).

However, in spite of the challenges faced by the small-scale businessmen in Borno State a good number above average are of the view that they are still able to make their returns from what they have invested in the business. The research findings also revealed that majority of those engaged in small-scale business in Borno State belief that the major challenge to their business is lack of capital and loan facilities at reasonable interest rate and will want assistance from government and other agencies in this aspect.

Conclusion
In respect to the finding from the analysed data, the following conclusions have been made:
That Small-scale industries will only grow in the north if there is increased revenue income which can be derived from increased funding from financial institutions at reasonable rate and
increased patronage from customers. Again, another area that will aid the growth of small-scale business is the creation of good awareness of its benefits by all stakeholders. Furthermore, it was also discovered that there is no good storage system especially for those that are engaged in production of farm produce. Moreso, government’s lukewarm attitude to small-scale industry was also discovered.

**Recommendations**

- Machinery should be set up by the government to monitor the various activities of small-scale industries through identifying the industries, getting them registered and producing programmes for promoting viable business ventures.
- The Trade and Commerce Ministry should set up a division or department that will cater for small-scale industries. Their activities should be continually monitored and progress reported to government as well as the entire general public.
- Promotional activities should be carried out at trade fairs so as to create awareness for their products, activities and locations.
- Government should provide infrastructure, funds, grants, research and development, marketing intelligence, tax holidays and subsidies to small-scales enterprise.
- Finally, it should also encourage the development of an advancement of local technology especially for storage because some of the produce are perishable especially farm produce.

**References:**


FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR LOW TURN-OUT OF VOTERS REGISTRATION IN BIDA LGA, OF NIGER STATE

BY

DARAMOLA JAPHETH
Department Of Surveying and Geoinformatics,
School of Environmental Studies,
The Federal Polytechnic Bida,
Niger State, Nigeria

Abstract:
Election has one of the civic responsibilities of any citizen of this nation that is above the age of eighteen years, is a medium through which the electorate elects their leaders by going to poll to cast their vote. But the attitude of the electorate towards election is dwindling by the day, with only estimated 32.4% registered voters’ turnout for 2007 general election in Bida Local Government Area of Niger State. To this end this paper try to find out the reasons responsible for such attitude by using percentage and tress score theory to find the percentage of voters per ward and the pattern of election in 2007 gubernatorial election. The tress score theory proved the heterogeneity pattern of the election in Bida. Conclusion and recommendation designed to inform the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) on how to encourage greater participation in, and understanding of, the democratic process in future elections.

Introduction
Right perspective of the electorate in developing nation by going out to cast their vote for candidate that will impact their life and community positively will go a long way in sustainable development in the this nation. The Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) is the commission saddled with the responsibility in Nigeria to conduct voter and civic education, promote knowledge of sound democratic election processes and conduct any referendum required to be conducted pursuant to the provision of the 1999 constitution or any other law or Act of the National assembly. (Electoral Act, 2006).

The study area is one of the twenty-five Local Governments Area of Niger State, Nigeria under the mandate of INEC. Bida is the headquarter of Bida Local Government area with fourteen political wards and One Hundred and Fifty Eight polling units. Bida Local government Area of Niger State is located in Niger valley within Latitudes 9°0’36”N and 9°9’17”N and Longitudes 5°56’55”E and 6°4’34”E. Bida Local Government has a common boundaries with Gbako Local Government Area Northward and Westward, Lavun Local Government in the South and Katcha Local Government in the East. The majority of people in Bida Local Government Area are Nupe, who constituted about 90% of the Population. Others are: Yoruba, Hausa, Ibo, Gwari and Fulani respectively. (Daramola 1999).

The main economic activities of the people of Bida Local Government Area is agriculture and this sector employs over 70% of the entire population, with a number of cereal, root crops, fruits and animals grown and reared. Few number of people also engaged in hunting on the savannah plains and fishing in rivers. (Daramola 1999).
The Local Government also has some local industries that specialized in weaving, pottery, glass beads and bangles, brass works, embroidery carving and other cottage industries. Commercial activities are also undertaken in the Local Government Area. These ranges from entrepreneurship to large business such as, beverage industries, Rice mill, vegetable oil industries etc. Today, the commercial services in Bida Local Government Area includes those of the commercial banks, insurance services, stock exchange, small scale industries, retail and petty trading.

**Review of Literature**

Electoral act (2006), The Independent National Electoral Commission as established by section 153 of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria shall be a body corporate with perpetual succession and may sue and be sued in its corporate name. In addition to the function conferred on it by the 1999 Constitution, the commission shall have power to conduct voter and civic education, promote knowledge of sound democratic election processes and conduct any referendum required to be conducted pursuant of the provision of the 1999 Constitution or any other law or act of the National Assembly.

Ipsos, (2010), Qualitative research into the collection of Personal Identifiers
The Electoral Commission is an independent public body set up by Parliament. Its aim is integrity and public confidence in the democratic process. Part of its remit is to monitor and drive up standards for registering electors.

Karamjit, (2002) Electoral Commissioner and chair of the Commission’s research project with the University of Manchester – observed in 2002:
…it would be wrong to seek universal solutions to the problem of voter disengagement. In today’s diverse society, it is vitally important that research and policy responses in this area are sensitive to the different experiences and perceptions of different communities.

Rethink Politics Newsletter September (2008) Issue 1, Both politicians emphasised that although many people are put off by politics, it actually affects everyone’s day to day life. They urged careers and service users to use their vote to make their voices heard. Those that had been affected by mental illness explained the difficulties they had previously faced in having their concerns listened to, but said that they were now ready to stand up and be counted.

Great Britain Electoral Commission (2002) *Voter engagement among black and minority ethnic communities*. The need for sensitivity to the needs of different communities was further evidenced by *Voter engagement among black and minority ethnic communities* which reported considerable variation in turnout levels between different Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) subgroups, for example, participation among Asian communities is much higher than it is among black Afro-Caribbeans. Turnout among Asian communities has generally risen in the past 40
years but while people of Indian heritage are the most likely to turnout and vote at elections in the UK, other Asian communities such as Bangladeshis and Pakistanis are less likely to vote.

Laura Richards and Ben Marshall (2003) Paper prepared for The Electoral Commission's research seminar on 3 November 2003. Similarly, non-registration among the BME population – a key obstacle to political participation and possibly as high as 15% in some constituencies – varies considerably among different BME communities. Those of black African heritage have one of the lowest levels of registration in the UK, while registration rates among certain Asian communities are as high, if not higher, than for the white population. Our research found that registration and turnout among BMEs is affected by generic socio-demographic factors including the younger age profile of the BME population and higher than average social and economic deprivation and urbanity. At the same time, concerns about anonymity, fear of harassment, language barriers and alienation from the political system can also dissuade BMEs from registering to vote.

Laura Richards and Ben Marshall (2003) Voter engagement among black and minority ethnic communities found several explanations for non-voting at elections including ‘alienation’ – the view that it makes no difference who wins – and ‘apathy’ – the lack of interest in politics. Skepticism about the efficacy of voting, a sense that politics is unrepresentative of BME communities and the inconvenience of voting are also identified as factors explaining non-voting among these groups. A review of the BME media also led the Manchester team to conclude that ‘the vernacular of the BME media is not subject to the same levels of mobilization as the English-language press’. After an analysis of 2001 election survey data, no real evidence was found of differential interest in politics or feelings of civic duty among BME communities.

Research Methodology
Primary data were collected using structured questionnaire administered to One Hundred and Forty people randomly selected from sample survey of ten registered voters in each of the fourteen political wards of Bida Local Government Area, who did not cast their vote in 2007 general election. Data were collected on reasons for voters card registration and why they did not cast their vote.

The secondary data used for this study came from Independent Electoral Commission (INEC). These includes the number of registered voters per polling units and numbers of people that casted their vote in 2007 general election per polling units in Bida Local Government Area.

Method of Data Analysis
Two types of analysis were carried out. At first Percentages were determined at ward and local government level using 2007 general election data and the structured questionnaire. Secondly the tress score analytical technique was used to find out the voting pattern of election in Bida Local Government political wards.
**Table 1: Bida Local Government Electoral Wards 2007**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>WARDS</th>
<th>NO. OF REGISTERED VOTER</th>
<th>NO. OF VOTERS</th>
<th>% VOTE PER WARD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>BARIKI WARD</td>
<td>6545</td>
<td>2430</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>CHENIYA WARD</td>
<td>7277</td>
<td>2757</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>DOKODZA WARD</td>
<td>7045</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>KYARI WARD</td>
<td>8236</td>
<td>1522</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>LANDZUN WARD</td>
<td>4902</td>
<td>1676</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>MASABA WARD 'I' CODE:006</td>
<td>4450</td>
<td>1591</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>MASABA WARD 'II' CODE:007</td>
<td>4572</td>
<td>1330</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>MASAGA WARD 'I' CODE:008</td>
<td>3814</td>
<td>914</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>MASAGA WARD 'II' CODE 009</td>
<td>3527</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>MAYAKI-NDAJiya WARD 'II' CODE:010</td>
<td>6262</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>NASARAFU WARD CODE:011</td>
<td>5942</td>
<td>1568</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>UMARU MAJIGI WARD 'I' CODE:012</td>
<td>3896</td>
<td>1639</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>UMARU MAJIGI WARD 'II' CODE:013</td>
<td>2986</td>
<td>1639</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>WADATA WARD</td>
<td>2264</td>
<td>1691</td>
<td>74.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71718</td>
<td>23259</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** INEC office Bida.

Total number of registered voters  = 71718
Total number of voters            = 23,259 therefore, \( \frac{23259}{71718} \times 100 = 32.4\% \)

**Analytical Techniques**

From the above table you will discovered that only 23,259 people which represent 32.4% of total registered voter, voted in 2007 general election in Bida Local Government Area of Niger State which is grossly low.
The researcher went further to find out the homogeneity or heterogeneity of the voting pattern taking each ward as a polygon in space using Tress score as commonly used in Geographic information System to find out the level of diversification when dealing with polygon.

**Table 2: 2007 Voting Patterns in Bida LGA using Tress score.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>WARDS</th>
<th>NO. OF VOTER</th>
<th>% OF VOTER</th>
<th>% IN-ORDER OF MAG.</th>
<th>CJ-1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>BARIKI WARD CODE:001</td>
<td>2430</td>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>11.85</td>
<td>11.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>CHENIYA WARD CODE:002</td>
<td>2757</td>
<td>11.85</td>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>DOKODZA WARD CODE:003</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>8.67</td>
<td>30.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>KYARI WARD CODE:004</td>
<td>1522</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>39.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>LANDZUN WARD CODE:005</td>
<td>1676</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>7.27</td>
<td>46.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>MASABA WARD 'I' CODE:006</td>
<td>1591</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>53.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>MASABA WARD 'II' CODE:007</td>
<td>1330</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>7.05</td>
<td>60.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>MASAGA WARD 'I' CODE:008</td>
<td>914</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>67.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>MASAGA WARD 'II' CODE:009</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>74.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>MAYAKI-NDAJIYA WARD 'II' CODE:010</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>8.67</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>81.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>NASARAFU WARD CODE:011</td>
<td>1568</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>86.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>UMARU MAJIGI WARD 'I' CODE:012</td>
<td>1369</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>92.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>UMARU MAJIGI WARD 'II' CODE:013</td>
<td>1639</td>
<td>7.05</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>96.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>WADATA WARD CODE:014</td>
<td>1691</td>
<td>7.27</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>100.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23259</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>865.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Field work**

Tress score measure departure from the state of complete diversification using the formula

\[ T_j = \Sigma P_{ij} + C_j - i \]

Where \( P_{ij} \) is the highest percentage, \( C_j - i \) is the addition of % in order of highest magnitude, and \( T_j \) is submission of \( C_j - i \).

The maximum score of complete homogeneity is

Upper band \( N \times 100 = 14 \times 100 = 1400 \)
Mid-point is \( 1400 + 650/2 = 1025 \)
Lower band complete heterogeneity

\[ = 100(n - 1)/2 \]
\[ = 100(14 -1)/2 = 650 \]

The tress score is **865.93** which is lower than **1025** mid-point band therefore, the voting pattern is towards **heterogeneity**.
NOTE: that from lower band score of 650 to mid-point score of 1025 is toward heterogeneity while from 1026 to 1400 is towards homogeneity.

Implication
This implies that the patterns of voting in Bida local Government Area political wards in 2007 general elections are not the same. And this hereby ruled out the possibility of pre-determined votes.

This now lead to the question, why do we have such low percentage of voters in 2007 general election despite the heterogeneous pattern of voting in the political wards.

Result and Discussions: The questionnaire was designed to find out from ten registered voter card carrier in each of the wards why they did not turn out to exercise their civic right despite their registration.

Table 3: Why did you register for voter registration?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
<th>NUMBERS</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civil servant</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political benefits</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vote</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>140</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

50% percent of the registered voters, registered because of their job so that they will not be victimized by the government of the day, 35.7% registered because of political benefits while only fourteen percent registered with the aim of going to the poll to cast their votes.

Table 4: Why don’t you cast your votes?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
<th>NUMBERS</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fear of Political thug</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It doesn’t count</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polling unit too far</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No monetary incentive</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>140</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6% did not vote because of fears of political thug, 57% believed their vote will not count, 14.3 refused to cast their vote because of the distance from their houses to the polling unit, while 25% did not cast their vote because there is no financial inducement.

Conclusion
The results of this study showed that, there is generally low turn-out of voters in 2007 general election, it also portrays the heterogeneity of 2007 general election voting pattern in Bida Local Government Area of Niger State and from the questionnaires it can be deduced that the people
did not cast their vote principally because they believed their vote will not count and to some extent because there is no financial inducements.

**Recommendations**

Sequel to the various section of this paper that the author recommends as follows: as a step towards good governance in Nigeria political processes; Government should enhance electoral processes that will improve the confidence of the public in polity and encourage them to choose their leaders. Electronic registration and voting system should be introduced to checkmate double registration and double voting by the electorate. The neutrality of law enforcements agents on election processes should be encouraged and respected. Government should discourage money politics. Electoral officers should be well paid and monitored to reduce rigging of election. Awareness campaign should be embarked upon to enlighten the public on the need to cast their vote as a way of choosing the right person that will represent their interest and not to cast vote base on financial inducements. The government should make attempts to redefine political wards in order to give fair and equal access to members of the wards.

**References:**

Daramola, J. (1999): Agricultural Land Suitability Classification of Bida Local Government Area, B.sc project submitted to Geography department Usmanu Danfodiyo University Sokoto.


Rethink Politics Newsletter, 2008 September Issue 1.
THE PROBLEMS OF TRAINING & DEVELOPMENT IN FEDERAL PARASTATALS:
A CASE STUDY OF NCRI BIDA

By

DEMEDO CHARLES
Federal Polytechnic Bida
Niger State, Nigeria

Abstract
This research is basically designed to assess the problems of Training and Development in Government Parastatals. Every organization needs to grow and expand in order to achieve its goals bearing in mind the importance of workers training and development. Training should be given to workers to be able to attain the highest level of efficiency in their performance. The researcher designed and distributed questionnaire to the respondents through which their responses were collected. Data collected were analyzed using chi-square method of analyses. From the findings it was discovered that NCRI do send their staff on training but concentrated on senior staff. In addition many years of service is needed before a staff is qualified to be sent on training. The major problem of training and development are fund and government policy, finally, it is recommended that its activities should be commercialized as a way of sourcing for funds

Introduction
Every organization irrespective of its size has goal and objectives. These goals and objectives cannot be realized without competent and dynamic human resources. The business environment is dynamic, old skills becomes obsolete within a shortest period of time. In order to survive and grow, old skills cannot be totally relied on, new ones must be acquired. For the fact that human resources are the most dynamic of all of organization resources and the expectation of employee competence by organization must be high, this demand considerable investment and attention on employee training and development from the organization’s management if employees are to realize their full potentials in their work place. Although, training is a problem in the sense that decision must be about the relevant or the most appropriate type of training, but when the right decision is made on the type and mode, it is always beneficial to both the organization and employee towards the attainment of organizational goals and specific goals of the individual.

Now that the government is talking and emphasizing on service to the nation service delivery – (SERVICOM) in her various agencies, ministries, parastatals etc this require training and retraining of work force that had been saddled with inefficiency and nepotism for ages in order to meet the current national and global challenges

Statement of Problems
There is need to conduct research into the problems of Training and Development in Government Parastatals , this is because part of government scarce resources are invested in training and development of her employees which has yielded little or no result to the benefit of the public. Government policy as it affects training and development is a problem. Imagine an employee in public sector who must have his appointment confirmed and must work for two years before he or she can be sent on training. This is an uneasy delay and waste of time in training program. More also people resist change either because of age or their conservative nature. Any form of training has little or no effect on their performance. In addition, most
government parastatals ration training programme for their staff based on state of origin, godfatherism and availability of fund.

Objectives of The Study
This research is aimed and designed to achieve the following objectives:

i. To identify some major possible problems of training and development in government parastatals.

ii. To determine if these problems are caused by policies or the implementation of the policies

iii. To find out possible solutions to some specific problems of training and development

Literature Review
Meaning of Training
Gary Dessler (2005) defined training “as the method used to give new or present employees the skill they need to perform their jobs” He added that it is the hallmark of good management and task managers ignore at their peril He went further to say that having high-potential employees does not guarantee they will succeed, in fact they must know what you want them to do and how you want them to do it, if they don’t they will do the job their way not yours or they will improvise, do worse, or do nothing productive at all. Supporting Gary, Flippo (1984) noted that no one is perfect fit at the time of hiring and some training and development must take place. Also, no organization has a choice of whether to develop employees or no, the only choice is that of methods.

Peretimode (2001) also defined training as “planned organizational effort and activities concerned with helping an employee acquire specific and immediate usable skills, knowledge, concepts, attitude and behavior in him or her to perform more effectively and efficiently on his present job”. This definition implies preparation for an occupation or specific skills: it is narrower in conception than either education or development, it is job-oriented than personal and as such should result in an observable change in behavior and attitude of the employees as it increases ability to perform duties.

Mathins and Jackson (1996) see training from a narrow and broader perspective, in the narrow sense training is concerned with specific and immediate usable skill. From a broader sense, training provides general information use to develop knowledge for future long-term application. From Beech (1980) point of view, training is an organized process by which people learn knowledge and or skill for a definite purpose. Also Ubeku (1975), said “training is the term used to describe the process through which organization bind the skill and abilities of non-organizational employees he went further to state that it a practice by employees to help employees acquire basic skills required for the efficient performance of duties. According to Ichima (1998) staff training is the practice by employers to help employees to improve performance by sharpening skills. He added that training is not one-time affair. It is an activity engaged in by organization on a continuous basis in well-managed establishments. Each time a worker receives directives on how to do a job he is being trained. From these definitions one can deduce that training involves both learning and practice for the acquisition and improvement of skills. Knowledge, attitude and values are directed towards the improvement of the employees
present and future on the job performance, as well as contribution towards the achievement of organizational goals and objectives.

**Meaning of Development**

According to Price (2004) “Human resources development is a strategic approach to investing in human capital”. He explained further that it draws on the human resource processes, including resourcing and performance assessment, to identify actual and potential talents. In addition it provide a frame work for self-development, training programmes and career progression to meet an organizational future skill requirements. Price added that systematic human resource development maximizes the human capital of an organization, involving time, money and thought to improving the pool of essential competence among its staff. It has a general impact on business performance by enhancing product knowledge and service expertise. It emphasizes people as people rather than number, moral staff, drawing on the talent and demonstrating that they are valued by the organization. It is aimed to empower staff.

Sikula (1976) Defined development as “a long-term educational process utilizing systematic and organized procedure by which personnel learn conceptual and theoretical knowledge for general purpose”

Mere understanding of these definitions may make one to conclude that training is the same as development and to compound this both training and development are often used together (training and development) but an in-depth understanding of development shows that it suggest a broader view of knowledge and skill acquisition than training, it is less job oriented than career-oriented, it is concerned with more employees potentials than with immediate skill, sees employees as adaptable resource.

Gross(1994) observed that training and development are regarded often as mutually exclusive activities, this he said can be attributed to the hierarchical nature in most organizations in which training is sometimes done to lower level workers, whereas development is a process experienced by managers hence ‘management development’ To him this approach is incompatible with the central principles of management which hold that employees are assets where competence need to be developed, to support Gross, Henry(1995) stated that “increasingly, we are getting away from the notion that managers are “developed while messengers, technicians etc are merely trained

Development programmes are designed to educate employees beyond the requirement of the present job position so that they can be prepared for promotion and be able to face future challenges. Because effective performance on the part of employee is essential for the success of any organization such performance is tied to the skill and knowledge.

**Determining Training and Development Need**

According to Cole (1996) training and development need is “any shot fall in term of employee knowledge, understanding, skill and attitude against what is required by the job or the demand of organization change”
From the diagram, the employees have level of skill, knowledge, attitude (point B). With these knowledge and skill, simple job that requires little knowledge with no need for any deeper understanding of what is involved can be performed. But this is not possible in case of complex jobs that require not only a specialized knowledge but also a real understanding of the basic principles or concepts of the work involved therefore there is need to acquire knowledge for effective performance as shown in A part of the diagram above. Cole 2004 modified the above diagram into an equation, as seen below:

The difference between the initial and this is that skill has been subdivided into at least three broad categories; manual, social and intellectual. Manual skill involves the use of the hands combined with other senses: social skill involves the personality in seeking to influence others while intellectual skill involves the higher processes of the brain in analyzing and making sense of things.

Training and development of workers should not be embarked upon for the sake of it, the need for training and development should be clearly determined before designing the program.
program must be geared toward enhancing the performance of works and to the objective of the organization concerned. A well-trained and developed person is likely to just be more secured and confident, in addition it is important to distinguish the training needs of the individual and those of the organization and these two objectives must be reconciled.

Dessler 2005 described and illustrated steps in training and how an organization should go about identifying training need as follows; Analysing Training needs, Task analysis; Assessing New Employee Training Needs, Performance Analysis; Assessing Current Employees Training Needs.

**Types of Training**

According to Evborokhai 2003 ‘the type and method of training /learning opportunities need to be designed in such a way that trainees will derive maximum possible benefit from them’. Gomez-Mejia and Balkin(2002) broadly classified training into two; On the job training and Off-the-job training.

On-the-job training: this is the type of training that takes place in the actual place of work setting under the guidance of an experience worker, superior or trainer according to their job rotation. Apprenticeship and internship are all forms of on the job training. On the other hand. Off-the-job training takes place away from the employment sit and is in form of formal courses, simulation and role playing. In fact they went further to discuss variety of presentation techniques that may be used for off the job training. They include: Slides and Videotapes, Classroom Lectures, Computer-assisted instruction, Virtual Reality, Vestibule Training, Simulation and Cross-functional Training.

AAT Study Pack (1998) discussed training extensively. It began discussing types of training by stating that “there is a range of training styles depending on the purpose for which is required they are Induction, Operative, craft, technical, professional, office and managerial respectively.”

**Research Design and Methodology**

The methods used in carrying out this research is the descriptive methods which deals with the current condition using descriptive variable method to raise a possible solution to the problem. Questionnaire which were distributed randomly provides the main sources of information to this study. The data that was collected were presented using descriptive statistics and results in a tabular form and computed in percentages. In addition $x^2$ or chi-square test was used to test whether there is significant or dependency between variable of study. The level of significant of 0.05 which is the maximum probability describing the risk involved in the statistical decision required was used. Here 5% is used (giving 95% confidence in any decision required) A sample size of 325 out of a population of 723 consisting of junior and senior staff this number represent 45% of the entire staff.

**Results and Discussions**

This aspect deals with the presentation and, analysis and interpretation of responses obtained from the questionnaire administered. Statistical analysis using chi-square and testing of hypothesis are performed and necessary comments made in line with result findings.
Chi-Square Analysis

Hypothesis

H₀: Training of staff is not associated with obstacles such as position, year served, condition, desire and fund

H₁: Training of staff is associated with obstacles such as position, year served, condition, desire and fund

Table 1  Number of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Senior staff</th>
<th>150</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior staff</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result is shown in table 11

Senior Staff Analysis Using Chi-Square

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Par X²</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>Contingency coefficient</th>
<th>P significant</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training vs position</td>
<td>3.423</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs year served</td>
<td>61.071</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs condition</td>
<td>6.284</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs desire</td>
<td>3.269</td>
<td>1.151</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs obstacle</td>
<td>3.871</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Relationship between training and position occupied

The test using chi-square shows that $X^2=3.423$ and (P>0.05) with a coefficient of 0.154. This shows that staff is not sent on training based on position he or she occupies in the organization. In other words, position is not statistically significant.

2. Relationship between training and the year served

The chi-square test shows as shown in table 11($X^2=61.071$ and P<0.05) reveals that training is significantly related to the year served. The coefficient of contingency shows that the level of relationship is 55%.

3. Relationship between training and desire for re-training

The analysis reveals that ($X^2=3.269$ and P>0.05). This means that many staff could desire for training but are not sent on training, reason such as too many staff to be sent on training at the same time, staff not qualify for training, some are already on training, lack of fund may be a factor for not sending those who desire training or re-training.

4. Relationship between training and condition for training

The result shows that neither vacancy, seniority, behaviour and others are condition for sending staff on training. The result of $X^2$ shows($X^2=6.284$ and P>0.05) at 5% level.
5. Relationship between training and obstacle to training
From table 1 (X²=3.871 and P<0.05) at 5% level. The implication of the result is that training is saddled with some obstacles. Further analysis using percentages reveals that 95% of the respondent are of the opinion that fund is a major obstacle to training and development.

Junior Staff Analysis Using Chi-Square Hypothesis Test
H₀: Training of staff is not associated with obstacles such as position, years served, desire and fund.
H₁: Training of staff is associated with obstacles such as position, years served, desire and fund.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Pairs</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>Contingency coefficient</th>
<th>P significant</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training vs year served</td>
<td>15.179</td>
<td>0.3404</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs frequency</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>Non-Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs procedure</td>
<td>4.448</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>Non-Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs favour</td>
<td>8.024</td>
<td>0.239</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs funding</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>Non-Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training vs position</td>
<td>4.2339</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>Non-Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Relationship between training and the year served
The result shows that (X²=15.179) and (P<0.005). It could then be concluded that training and development is dependent on the year served. As year go by, more staff are trained. In addition most staff would have been trained at least once in the later part of their service this corroborate the analysis carried out for senior staff.

2. Relationship between training and the rate at which staff are sent on training
The result shows no significant relationship between training and the number of times staff are sent on training (X²=0.085 and P>0.05)

3. Relationship between training and procedure in selecting staff for training
The result of the analysis shows no relationship between training and procedure (X²=108) and (P>0.05) the result also shows the contingency coefficient which is a means of association to be 17.3%

4. Relationship between training and godfatherism/ favouritism
The analysis of the data as shown on the table 111 shows that (X²=8.024) and (P<0.18).The implication of this result is that management selection of staff for training is based on godfatherism and favouritism.

5. Relationship between training and availability of fund
The analysis show that (X²=142).which shows that training is not dependent on fund. This may be reflecting the ignorance of junior staff because most of them are not sent on training the opinion of the junior staff is that fund is available but as policy or what is best known to the management, they are deliberately ignored because of their status /level in the organizational chart.
**Hypothesis Test**

From the data analysed using chi-square and the hypothesis which states that:

**H₀**: Training is not associated with obstacles such as year served, procedure for selection, funding and position  
**H₁**: Training is associated with obstacle such as year served, procedure for selection, favour, funding and position.

The analysis shows that there is a relationship between training and year served to be \( (X^2=15.129) \) and \( (P<0.02) \) and training and favouritism is \( (X^2=8.024) \) and \( (P<0.018) \) at 5% level of significance.

**Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation**

This research was conducted in order to assess the problems of training and development in government parastatals. Emphasis was laid on employee training and development. The research sample covered both junior and senior staff in the organization.

In view of the research, the following findings were drawn:

i. Training programme for staff was concentrated on selected staff on the basis of year of service. Most junior staff who have spent up to five years and above in the organisation have been sent on one form of training or the other, while majority of those who have served for 1-5 years have not been trained.

ii. Some staff are being favoured by management based on godfatherism when staff are to be sent on training. Though it may also be probably because of some personal factors best known to the management.

iii. Funding and government policy are major problems of training and development of staff. Most times, they use their personal money to pay school fees, accommodation and transport fare and would only be refunded after completion of course. Also some staff attributes their inability to be sent on training on government policy. The response shows that because of government policy even if they have served the organisation for two years, they are not considered for training.

iv. Many staff could desire training but are not sent on training, because of non-availability of fund. Probably, the number that desire training cannot be accommodated either because the number is too many at a time makes it not feasible to allow them, so few has to be selected for training or many are already on training. They are expected to resume before others can be sent on training.

v. The management do not follow laid down procedures in selecting staff for training and development.

**Conclusion**

Training and development of workers is one of the essential activities in the realization of the organization's objective. It also helps to improve workers perspective and self-actualization. Also most of the junior staff are not trained. This is different from senior staff where most of them are trained. Lacks of fund and government policy are major problems facing training and development in organizations.
Recommendation
The following recommendations are base on the general problems facing the company as well some lapses found in policy implementation. The company should as much as possible source for fund from other sources for staff training and development. Training of staff should not be concentrated on few that have served the organization for more than ten years. This should be extended to even the two years of appointment if such staff is qualified. Government policy should be reviewed. A situation where a staff need to serve an organization for at least three years before being sent on training is no good enough. Where most staff are not trained due to two years put in can be a demoralizing factor. More also the senior staff depend on the junior staff for support services. Reasons should be given to employee who applied for training but was not approved. Most junior staff believed the senior staffs are being favoured. This can be attributed to the fact that all those that desire training may be too many at a time or the need of the organization require sending some staff even if they have not put in years as others. Once the reason is not given, it will be seen as favouritism.

Reference
ACCA STUDY PACK  (1998). Organization and Management. London Published by Financial Training Courses
Jonathan E Evborokhai (2003) A practical guide to research writing for Polytechnics and Universities Jubes- Evans, Bida
Perotomade, (2001), Human Resources Management Lagos Oberoh and Oginmaku
Ichima, S. (1998), Element of Public Administration Bida Akan Communication
PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF ENTREPRENEURS OPERATING IN MINNA METROPOLIS, NIGER STATE

BY

UMAR SAGANUWA MOHAMMED
Department of Business and Management

&

MOHAMMED SHABA
Department of Banking and Finance
Federal Polytechnic Bida,
Niger State, Nigeria

Abstract:
The World Bank has been encouraging the Governments of developing countries to create and develop entrepreneurs to boost economic activities and improve standard of living. Consequent upon this, entrepreneurs in Niger State were indeed encouraged, but the success of resident indigene entrepreneurs was always put to question as a result of their activities. This research was to found out the activities of these entrepreneurs within and outside their enterprise. Simple random sampling technique was used to administered questionnaires on these entrepreneurs in Minna metropolitan. It was found out that the activities of these entrepreneurs were unethical which normally result in liquidation. Consequently, it was recommended that the State government should give special attention to this problem by organising seminars, conferences and workshops to equip this group of entrepreneurs.

Introduction
It is believed that when business opportunities exist in an economy, entrepreneurs would normally emerged to take advantage of such opportunities, provided there are no major impediments. In a developing country like Nigeria that is enriched with both human and mineral resources, the World Bank has been encouraging the government to provide or create enabling environment for entrepreneurship to flourish so as to improve the standard of living of the citizenry. Nigeria government has taken up the challenge by providing the needed atmosphere for the entrepreneurs. Many Nigeria entrepreneurs took advantage of these opportunities and have ventured into and succeeded impressively in their various businesses. These entrepreneurs are spread across the country. Niger State like developing countries in the world is encouraging her residents to become entrepreneurs in various field of endeavour. The present administration (Dr. Muazu Babangida Aliyu led Administration) promised to make the State one of the best three economy in the country by providing infrastructural facilities so that entrepreneurs will be encouraged. This of course is not realisable without stimulating and educating the would be entrepreneurs and entrepreneurs across the State.

Niger State like other States in the federation is blessed with both human and mineral resources which are major opportunities for both resident indigene and resident entrepreneurs. Many businesses have been established by entrepreneurs in Niger State but from observation the resident entrepreneurs are always successful while the resident indigene entrepreneurs always take off successfully but in the short run will liquidate. For example Vespa Company in Bida,
Sack Industry in Kontagora and Mona Juice in Minna etc. Probably, it is the unsuccessful operations of resident indigene enterprises and very few successful operations of resident entrepreneurs that the State is always referred to as ‘civil servant state’. It is against this background that the researchers wish to find out about the business life of resident indigene entrepreneurs in Minna metropolis. It is also based on the foregoing the researcher hypothesised that the activities of an entrepreneur in the course of the operations of enterprises will not lead to the liquidation of business.

Quantitative descriptive research method was adopted and simple percentage method was used. Data was collected through questionnaire as primary data while secondary data was collected through documentary evidence as literature review. The population of the study was stratified into Resident Indigene Entrepreneurs and Resident Entrepreneurs. The former are the entrepreneurs that are indigene of Minna metropolis while the later are the entrepreneurs that are non-indigene but resident in the metropolis. The study was focused on Resident Indigene Entrepreneurs who operates small and medium enterprises in Minna Metropolis between 2004 and 2009 which are 608 enterprises. For the purpose of convenience, the sample size will be all the registered and operational small and medium enterprises within the said period which were 241 enterprises. 277 employees were selected randomly from these 241 enterprises and were used as sample size for the study.

2. Literature

2.1 Meaning of Entrepreneurship

In every society today, businesses are established and run by people with or without formal education or assistance from others. To many people, business is a game to be played, enjoyed and won. The more skilful one is the better his strategies, the greater his chances of winning the game. However, people may lose sometimes despite this skills and superior strategies. Entrepreneurship is all about learning the skills needed to assume the risk of establishing a business. It is all about developing the winning strategies and executing them with all vigour, persistence and passion needed to win any game.

Aruwa (2006), he observed that the willingness and ability of an individual to seek for investment opportunities, to establish and to run an enterprise successfully is referred to as entrepreneurship. Today, there are many young men and women that are educated, familiar with modern technology and have acquired respectable managerial experience which with stable polity and political will, the economy will be ready/set for a vibrant entrepreneurship.

2.2 Benefits of Entrepreneurship to National Development

Every society or nation with vibrant entrepreneur backbone has a great deal of prospects. This is because, entrepreneurship activities performs important functions necessary for the growth and development of all sectors of the economy (Kolo and Gara, 2006). Specifically, entrepreneurship plays major roles in the following areas: -

Creation of jobs for the unemployed youths: Many youths can be gainfully employed in small and medium enterprises established and run by entrepreneurs. This gives them the opportunity to earn income and curtail this dependence on public sector for jobs.
Getting full command over scarce resources: such as raw materials, managerial competence, labour and finance. Here, entrepreneurs assist in increasing the availability of scarce developmental resources such as money, skills, and human energy. Entrepreneurships are used in promoting indigenous business within the economy. This is achieved through identification of local resources and human skills within communities and thereby de-emphasising foreign based resources and skills.

Make contributions in various government policies and programmes designed to develop the economy. For example, government makes contacts every year with organised private sectors such as Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN), Nigerian Association of Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Mines and Agriculture (NACCIMMA), National Association of Small and Medium Scale Enterprises/Industries (NASSI) etc in packaging the national annual budget. Creation of different innovative ideas: Innovative ideas are one of the prime benefits and entrepreneurship business often creates. This is because, it can leads to the development of many enterprizes that are capable of making economic contributions to national development.

2.3 Entrepreneurship Personal Traits
Nwachukwu (2005) in his book “The Practice of Entrepreneurship in Nigeria” noted no single individual possesses all traits or characteristics of an entrepreneurship. This is because it is not easy to make distinctions between all the traits that make an entrepreneurship what he is to become one. In the light of the above, Patrick Liles succinctly puts it that “the degree of experience, situational conditions, rather than personality or ego, are the major determinants of whether or not an individual becomes an entrepreneur or not”. Below are some of the personal traits important to an entrepreneur:

*Initiative:* Here, an entrepreneur consistently sought for additional tasks that are highly ingenious, resourceful and alert himself to opportunities that might presents itself. They also ensure that works are regularly performed without waiting for directions for job to be done as in the case of routine workers in most cases.

*Attitude towards others:* An entrepreneur possess at all times positive, friendly interest in people. They also mostly appear pleasant, polite and sometimes difficult to work with at times.

*Leadership:* Entrepreneurs as one of their personal traits posses leadership skills. This is exhibited through their forceful, inspiring confidence and loyalty to what they do. They constantly give order, drive people to attained goals and above all do away with weak people.

*Responsibility:* As an entrepreneur, responsibilities are sought, welcomed and fully accepted without any protests in order to ensure that the business succeeds.

*Organising ability:* Most entrepreneurs have high capability of perceiving and arranging fundamentals in logical order. They possess the ability to organise activities to lead to the ultimate objective of the business.

*Industry:* Entrepreneurs generally are seen to be industrious, capable of working hard for long hours/time depending on the type or nature of business. This act ensures that they are at what they know best doing in most part of their daily lives every day.
**Decision:** An entrepreneur is also well known with not only making quick decisions in life but accurate ones. Making quick and accurate decisions is a strong trait in most entrepreneurs that makes them at times successful in their ventures.

**Perseverance:** Entrepreneurs are also highly steadfast in purpose and do not allow to be discouraged by others nor obstacles. They ensures that they consistently maintained steadily the effort they put into their business to achieve optimum performance.

**Physical energy:** Most entrepreneurs are characterised with high energy at most times. This enable them to put in efforts on the business when, where and what time it is required to push the business to a next level of its success.

3. **Results and Discussion**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Small Business Registered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>S/No</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the number of Resident Indigene Entrepreneurs that registered their enterprise with Niger State Ministry of Commerce and Industry in Minna Metropolis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Existing Registered Small Businesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>S/No</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 also shows the number of Resident Indigene Entrepreneurs that registered their enterprise with Niger State Ministry of Commerce and Industry in Minna Metropolis whose enterprise are still running/operational.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>S/No</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 indicates that the entrepreneurs were creative, hardworking and sincere but do not rely on the abilities of their employees as shown in No.2.

Table 4: Other Personal Traits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No.</th>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Alternative</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentages (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Leadership provided</td>
<td>Forceful</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>13.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Inspiring</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>15.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Driving</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>24.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>46.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Ability to organize</td>
<td>Capable</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>14.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Able</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>19.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fairly Able</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>62.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Attitude toward others</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>48.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>33.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uncooperative</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Decision making</td>
<td>Quick and accurate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Good and careful</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>14.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quick but unsound</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>20.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Slow and fearful</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>58.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Determination of business</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>goals</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>28.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>54.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Physical fitness for</td>
<td>Highly energetic</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>61.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>business</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>32.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fairly energetic</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not energetic</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Attitude toward responsibility</td>
<td>Sought and welcome</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Accept without protest</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>16.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Accept with protest</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>43.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Avoid whenever possible</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>29.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 4, the leadership for a successful entrepreneur should be inspiring and driving but it shows that the leadership is generally weak which is not a good trait for a successful
entrepreneur. Item No. 2 also shows that the entrepreneurs have the required skills to organise enterprises because alternatives 1 and 2 on the table were scored higher. Again, item No. 3 shows that the entrepreneurs had the required human and public relation skills to succeed in their operations. The major and most important activity of entrepreneurs is decision making which is directly tie to the success of the enterprise. Item No. 4 shows that the entrepreneurs are very slow and fearful (58.12%) in their decision making instead of having quick and accurate decisions. Item No. 5 shows that the entrepreneurs were not well equipped with the ability of perseverance or persistence in their chosen goals. That is, they were not highly steadfast in purpose or maintained effort steadily (54.87%). The entrepreneurs were physically fit to run a successful enterprise (61.01%) as shown in item No. 6. Finally, item No. 7 shows that certain responsibilities that should be carried out by the entrepreneurs were avoided or accepted with protest (29.96% and 43.32% respectively) instead of them to sought and welcome responsibilities (10.47%).

4. Conclusion
In conclusion, it is a known fact that for any economy to develop and grow, the efforts of entrepreneurs must be encouraged. The activities of these individual entrepreneurs (Resident Indigene Entrepreneurs) to the success of running or operating of small and medium enterprises are most importantly tie to the personal conduct of their business life. Therefore, the unsuccessful trend in the operations of resident indigene entrepreneurs in Minna Metropolis was as a result of these entrepreneurs.

Recommendations
Efforts should be made by the authorities concern to bring this group of entrepreneurs together to educate them on issues raised therein. As the state government is encouraging the establishment of small and medium enterprise, special attention should be given to entrepreneurs and would be entrepreneurs on their personal conduct (business life) in running an enterprise. The agencies concern with the establishment, development and growth of small and medium enterprise should pull together the existing entrepreneurs in the State and draw their attention to these attitudes that leads to the collapse of their enterprise. Workshops, seminars or conferences should be organised throughout the year by the concern government agencies on each of the attitudinal problems of the entrepreneurs in the State.

References
APPENDIX
Questionnaire

Is your employer resourceful 
   a) Yes ( )  b) No ( )
Did your employer direct that you must wait for instruction before discharging the routine task?
   a) Yes ( )  b) No ( )
How can you assess the leadership style provided by your employer?
   a) Forceful ( )    b) Inspiring ( )    c) Driving ( )    d) Weak ( )
What is your employer’s ability to organise this business setting?
   a) Capable ( )   b) Able ( )    c) Fairly able ( )   d) Poor ( )
How can you assess the attitude of your employer towards others?
   a) Positive ( )   b) Pleasant ( )    c) Difficult ( )   d) Uncooperative ( )
How does your employer take business decisions?
   a) Quite and accurate ( )   b) Good and careful ( )    c) Quick but unsound ( )   d) Slow and fearful ( )
How can you rate the determination of your employer in terms of business goals? 
   a) High ( )   b) Good ( )   c) Fair ( )   d) Poor ( )
Can your employer work for along hours? 
   a) Yes ( )   b) No ( )
Is your employer sincere in business dealings?  
   a) Yes ( )   b) No ( )
How can you assess the physical fitness of your employer in this business? 
   a) Highly energetic ( )   b) Energetic ( )    c) Fairly energetic ( )   d) Not energetic ( )
What is the attitude of your employer toward responsibility?
   a) Sought and welcome ( )   b) Accept wont protest ( )    c) Accept with protest ( )   d) Avoid whenever possible ( )
FAMILY SIZE, CORRUPTION AND DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

BY

HARUNA NMA ALH. SALIHU

And

HASSAN NDAFATIMA

Department of General and Liberal Studies
Niger State Polytechnic
Zungeru, Niger State, Nigeria

Abstract:
Family is an integral social institution in every society, whether developed or developing. It forms the basic organizing principles of social life. Thus family varies from one society to another. In all societies however, it is the central institution that is responsible for transformation, of infants into civilized adults. It introduces the child to attitudes, beliefs and behavioral expectations that prevail in the larger world in which the family is located. Family as an institution therefore, evolved as modernity progressed and so do its functions. These changes have been a cause of serious concern, most especially considering the implications on the lives of individuals, groups and the entire society. As the most basic unit of social organization, some of its latent functions are bound to have negative impact on the behavioral expectation of individuals and groups in the society. Never the less, the issue of corruption and development cannot be divorced from the analysis of the functions of the family, because both pivot round attitude and behavior of people. As such, this paper using sociological perspective dwells’ on the structural changes of the family and it impact on corruption and development in Nigeria becomes imperative.

Introduction:
In both developed and developing societies the family is the central institution with responsibility for supporting individuals. Primarily, family as a social institution is charged with the responsibility of transforming the pre-human infant into a civilized adult, (ogunbameru, 2000:70). It introduces the child to the norms and values of the society so that he would grow with all the skills necessary for his living and survival.

The family, institution, though universal, varies from one society to another. The difference however, follows the accepted practice of marriage. It has two aspects of social and biological grouping. The biological involves those people that are blood and descendental members of a family. While social aspects of the family are relatives made through marriages (Affinal kin). When closer relative other than a married couple and children live either in the same house hold or in a close and continuous relationship with others, we speak of an extended family size. This also includes the grand parents, brothers and their wives, sisters and their husbands, aunts, and nephews. While in the case of nuclear family size, we have two adults, a man, his wife, and biological children or adopted children.

The family institution has undergone fundamental changes which in the recent time has provoked many researchers to find out it impact on both individuals and the society. Some of these researchers, as David Popenoe (1993) Otite et al (2006) argued that in the recent past there has been a serious decline in the structure and function of the family. Popenoe (1993) in Guerro
(2005:77) stressed that “Families are not meeting society’s needs as they once did and have lost most of their functions, social power and authority over their members”.

He attributed the weakness of family function to high divorce rates, declining family size, and the growing absence of fathers and mothers in their children lives. All these changes in the family serve to challenge the fundamental values of home, and the society. Against this background, this paper sets the following objectives to accomplish:

**Aim and Objectives**

The objectives of this finding include the following.

1. To identify the impact of industrial revolution on the family size.
2. To examine effect of the family size on corruption and development.

The paper is therefore divided into sections. Section one is the introductory part, while section two contains: theoretical frame work, the family size before the industrial revolution, the effect of industrial revolution on family size, the impact of family size on corruption and conclusion.

**Theoretical Frame Work**

Functionalist’ theory view society as a system; that is, as a set if inter connected parts which together form a whole. An understanding of any of this part as argued by Haralambos (2008:20) requires an analysis of its relationship to other part and most importantly its contribution to the maintenance of the society. The theory further stressed that just like human organism; there are society basic needs (parts) that must be met if it is to continue to exist. These are social institutions such as family, religion health, education, e.t.c.

In analyzing the function of the various social institutions, R.K Merton (1957) in Haralambos (2008) stressed that each has manifest functions and latent functions and. The former refers to “those objective consequences for a specified unit which contribute to its adjustment or adaptation and were so intended; the latter refers to unintended and unrecognized consequences of the same order”. In this vein, Ogunbameru et al (2007:72) added that, family like any other social institution also performs some unintended functions which could be positive or negative. For instance, family neglect can bring about delinquency in children. Thus, it is within the functionalist theoretical frame work, the family size, corruption and development would be examined in this paper.

**The Family Size before the Industrial Revolution**

To understand the family size before the industrial revolution is to review the traditional structure of the family and the functions it performed during this period. For instance in, most traditional agrarian societies, like Nigeria, the functional basic unit is the extended family. The nuclear family is part of a larger kinship net work. It is the main source of security. The success of every member is built on family connections which in turn revolve mostly around access to and ownership of land. This made every member of the family to be close to home and related to this land on the basis of values and rules sanctioned by The Society. These values Igun et al (2002: 71) emphasized.
Have both ethical and philosophical aspects. In the ethical point of view, societal values insist that nobody shall be allowed to become destitute. This is achieved through an inheritance law that guarantees for all children or sons of a man, a share of all his properties. While philosophically, family land is seen to belong to all members including the ancestors as well as the future generation (Igun, et al, 2002:71)

In the traditional societies, when parents became aged and their ability to support themselves and family declined, adult children take over, because firstly parents have socialized them to accept such support as their responsibility. Secondly, they are fully prepared to inherit the land which is their source of income and finally children were made to believe that children who support their parents in old age may view themselves as setting an example for their own children to follow. This structure reflects the intimate relationship that exists among members of the traditional extended family. This relationship according to Igun et al as argued by (2002) makes for greater feeling of security than where members are isolated from the wider family group. The closely – knit extended family structure has implications for the stability of the household. For instance, in the event of divorce or death, there would be less disruption in the performance of family functions. Beside, the primary socialization of the child is taken to be the responsibility of every older member of the extended family. In this “setting a child is aware that he can seek succor from any of his numerous fathers, mothers, brothers, and sisters whenever he wishes” Igun et al.

The Effect of Industrial Revolution on Family Size
In Nigeria, the creation of states with ministries and parastatals and subsequent establishment of companies and industries from 1960s to date led to the weakening of the traditional family and kinship system, resulting from employment opportunity away from home to the cities, which by implication transforms into urban/industrial centers. This as argued by Gidens (2008) disrupted the setting of family system previously centered on landed production. Thus, the forces of industrialization are accompanied by changes in behaviours and attitudes. The structure of the family changed from extended to nuclear families in which majority of people live in the urban areas and tend to behave relatively impersonally and exclude distance kinsmen. That, apart from the man, his wife and children, if any, other members are tolerated as the economic and social costs of retaining links with wider family group, Otite (2006). The argument above suggested that the self government achieved by Nigeria and subsequent developments that led to economic growth weaken solidarity among the extended family size. Guerrero (2005:73) stressed that structural changes in the economy undermine the quality of life among working class families. That the reality of long workdays and weeks take its toll on families.

However, Frankenberg, and Kuhu (2004:4) argued that neither occupational nor geographic mobility need necessarily reduce the strength of extended family ties. He stressed that; ties between extended family may remain strong if migration away from rural areas is to secure multiple economic sectors and geographic locations, or if migration is undertaken as a means to temporarily high earnings by individuals who intend to return to rural areas at some future point.
This is inline with Otite’s argument that, even though, some Africans, particularly Nigerians urbanized, they still retain their feet in their rural traditional family systems. That they are very conscious about their mutual social security for the rich and the poor, the dependence of the sick and the old on the young and stronger members, and their common involvement in prestigious social occasions, such as burial, community development, chieftaincy titles e.t.c. This with increased cost of living in the cities, will encourages a high dependency ratio and an increase in the functional load on the employed members of the family. It is with this background that this paper considers the impact of family size on corruption and development in Nigeria.

The Impact of Family Size on Corruption

It is evident from the discussion on the effect of industrial revolution on the family size that resources flow from individuals working in urban areas to members of extended families in the rural areas. Hypothetically therefore, those individuals whose opportunities are not sufficient enough to cater for their extended responsibilities are likely to find additional means to do so, through legal or illegal means. This suggests the reason why acts of dishonesty and illegal behaviour in developing countries especially in Nigeria are mostly common among people in the civil service.

In Nigeria the first obligation of every individual who took up employment is to provide for his close kin and then to his lineage or ethnic groups. This obligation therefore makes it difficult for government officer to refuse request made by his people. In most cases, these remittances to members of extended families are relatively high considering the size and the nature of livelihood of which 70% are poor farmers. This certainly will lead to corruption. The question now is what is corruption?

Corruption is defined as the act of corrupting someone by securing his consent to act in breach of duty for financial gains. According to Ighorajah (2002). Corruption is a form of transaction which violates the duty of a public office holder with the partial motive of acquiring or amassing resources illegally for personal advancement and self gratification. Ighorajah (2002:139).

The advance leaner dictionary (2000) looked beyond amassing wealth by defining corruption as a process of making someone to behave in a way that is morally wrong. Therefore, corruption involves behavioural acts that violate the normative values of the society.

The family problem which according to functionalists emerges when it struggle to adopt to a modern society. It is in the process of adaptation to urban lives that extended family structure was disrupted and this affects the influence children are subjected to in the traditional family system, where a person’s child is taken to be every body’s child.

Sociologists are very much concerned about social consequences of urbanization on the family, because when family fails as a result of these social consequences such as divorce and domestic violence functionalists take these problems seriously. These problems in the words of Guerrero (2005:65) “afflict not only the family but also lead to problems in the society. Such as crime, poverty or delinquency”. Yusuf in Igun etal (2002:75) corroborated Guerrero’s argument by stressing that in Nigeria the disruption of the extended family size still creates a number of
corrupt practices in individuals, groups and the entire society. He attributed increasing incidence of juvenile delinquency, crime, prostitution and many other anti-social and immoral acts to break-down of the traditional hold of the family on the individual.

Nevertheless, the paper has noted that, the family’s original functions have been taken over by other organized social institutions, like education, health, economic, government etc. but the argument is that still the family is expected to provide its main functions of raising children and provide affection and companionship for its members. However, in Nigeria today many affluent and some middle class workers relegated these major functions by employing the services of house maid to perform them. Such neglect can lead to negative latent functions of the family, and its attendant consequences of delinquency in children. A common parlance that says if you want to know the future of any society, interrogate how children are raised and you will have a better view of such society.

Where family fail to perform its primary function of socialization, by structuring the personalities of the young, thereby providing them with the psychological training and support necessary for the requirements of the social system, such society cannot experience development. According to Todaro (1982:5) development is a multi-dimensional process of change in attitude, social structure, institution as well as the general acceleration of economic growth. This means that development involves more than economic growth and changes in economic structures. Therefore, if peoples attitude cannot be changed from dishonesty and immoral acts, and when social institutions like the family is not performing its primary functions effectively then it will be strange to call the result development even if per capital income doubled.

The paper however is not criticizing development inherent in the growth of industries and urbanization, but that its impact on the family size (extended and nuclear) contributes in not little measure on the high rate of corruption in Nigeria. And the government is not much a wear of this. This is why all its efforts both in the past and present to wipe out corruption in Nigerian society had been geared toward economic and political institutions. The fact is that, many families are not able to fulfill their legitimate responsibilities as father, mothers and even as responsible children. In all, it seems that “the social importance of the family relative to other significant social institutions is increasingly declining” Yusuf in Igun et-al (2002:30).

**Recommendations**

The paper therefore, is not suggesting that we should revert to the past, but believed that there is need to ensure that relevant functions associated with the family in past be held to. “ Also, necessary measures needed to be taken towards restoring family stability, establishing new bonds between families and communities, and on the whole restoring hope in the family so as to make living in the family a worthy effort ” Yusuf (2002).

To achieve this objective above, there is the need for government to organize workshops for working class Nigerians at all levels to educate them on the importance of early child integration to socialization.
Though, fighting corruption is often the product of ideological definition by political leaders, it can be suggested that government policy on corruption should attach importance to the family as an active social institution that can improve moral standards of the society.

There should be efficient and effective government policy against corruption, which should include poverty alleviation programmes and provision of employment opportunities for the unemployed.

Good reward system should be introduced. Workers should be paid living wages so that employed members of the family will have enough to share among members of the extended family circle. With proper rewarding system, family member need no to deviate or be tempted by corrupt persons.

**Conclusion**
The social changes in our modern society, undermining primary functions of the family and this remain the major causes of corruption in Nigeria. This situation arrest development.

**References:**
APPRAISAL OF MAINTENANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS FOR RESIDENTIAL QUARTERS IN KADUNA POLYTECHNIC

BY

G.D. AMASA
Department of Education Technical, College of Science Technology,

And

IKUPOLATI ALEXANDER OLUWADARE
Department of Quantity Surveying, College of Environmental Sciences, Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Nigeria.

Abstract:
This study appraised the Maintenance Management Systems of residential quarters in Kaduna Polytechnic. To guide the study, three objectives and research questions were formulated. A review of the existing practices was carried out and the factors that negate Maintenance Management Systems in the residential quarters identified. These factors were appraised with a view of developing a model for future use. Survey research design was adopted for data collection for the study. The population comprised of all the 385 staff residence in eight locations of Kaduna Polytechnic quarters. The proportionate stratified random sampling technique were used to constitute 100 respondents out of the population. The analyses of data collected from the respondents were analysed using mean statistics. The results of the analysis show that Kaduna Polytechnic do not have organised maintenance department, maintenance funding was most of the times inadequate and most glaring was the absence of a form of planned Maintenance Management Systems. The researchers suggested a model known as Planned running and Corrective breakdown Maintenance Management System for use in Kaduna Polytechnic.

Introduction
Within the 70’s, during the oil boom era, the construction industry was relatively busy. During this period the economic implications of embarking on most capital projects were given less thought because money was in good supply. Maintenance has therefore until recently been a much neglected sector of the construction industry, and because of its non-glamorous nature, it never got the attention it deserve.

Lately, when the economy suffered a severe setback and new buildings are rare, dilapidated and derelict buildings have become common sights in the country. Owners have had to embark on the development of a maintenance culture that will ensure the preservation of the existing building. This “backward integration as it is often referred to, increased public and private sector awareness on the maintenance of the existing building stock as opposed to the erection of new ones.

According to Miles and Syagga, (1997), the maintenance of a built environment affects everyone for it is the state of our homes, offices and factories that depend not only for our comfort but for economic and structural survival. Building maintenance is accorded little or no merit and a neglected field of technology. A causal stroll around a city, town or village in almost any
developing country suggests that many important national capital assets, such as school buildings, roads, residential houses and apartments, hospitals and civil buildings, are run-down beyond the point of economic repair. Why should this be, when the building maintenance is known to be among the most labour intensive of construction activities? A complete answer is yet to be found but it seems that their main failure are at the root of most of the problems: inadequate finance, bad management, and poor building design. Maintenance work, is considered waste of money and time by most property owners, funds are usually directed toward new buildings rather than the upkeep of the existing ones.

Maintenance/renovation relation works according to Oyediran and Odusanmi, (1994), account for less than 20% of the total workload of the construction industry in Nigeria. This neglect has manifested in the sorry state of most infrastructure in both public and private sectors. Maintenance is generally defined by BS4811 “as the combination of all technical and associated administrative actions intended to retain an item in, or restores it to a state in which it can continue to perform its functions. Maintenance therefore, has two facets technology and Management.

Maintenance management is an orderly and systematic approach to planning, organizing, monitoring and evaluating maintenance activities and their costs. A good maintenance management system coupled with knowledgeable and capable maintenance staff can prevent health and safety problems, environmental, damage yield longer asset life with fewer breakdowns, and result in lower operating costs and a higher quality of life.

Kaduna polytechnic has 385 housing units scattered in different areas of Kaduna town. The polytechnic has a works department that looks after these housing units. However, the works department has its own shortcomings with regards to maintenance practices. The shortcoming of the Polytechnic will be looked into in this study in the following areas:
   i. Maintenance planning
   ii. Organising maintenance management
   iii. Coordinating the maintenance management system in Kaduna polytechnic
   iv. Budgetary provisions for maintenance
   v. Controlling of maintenance management systems of all residential structures in the polytechnic.

Purpose of the study
The main purpose of this study is to appraise the maintenance management system used in residential quarters of Kaduna polytechnic. Specifically the study will:
   i. Find out the present maintenance management systems used by the authority of Kaduna Polytechnic
   ii. Identify factors that negate maintenance management systems by the occupants of the residential quarters in Kaduna Polytechnic.
   iii. Find out the best maintenance management system for use in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic
Research Questions
For the purpose of achieving the aim of this study, the following questions have been asked to guide the study:

1. What are the present maintenance management systems used in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic?
2. What are the factors that negate maintenance management system by the occupants of the residential quarters in Kaduna Polytechnic?
3. Which is the best maintenance management system for use in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic?

Scope of the Study
The study appreciates the scope and diversity of building maintenance operations, the study will cover only the aspects relating to the Maintenance Management Systems of public buildings. It is not expected that the category of buildings in Kaduna Polytechnic will be income generating, but must contain certain social benefits. The study therefore, be delimited to the residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic.

Research Design
Descriptive survey design was adopted for this study. This design is chosen due to the fact that opinion of occupant respondents will be sought for and this design has been found to be suitable. A survey design is one in which a group of people or items is studied by collecting and analyzing that data from only a few people or items considered to be representative of the entire population (Nworgu, 1991).

Area of Study
The area of the study is the residential quarters of Kaduna polytechnic. The research was conducted covering all the locations were Kaduna polytechnic has quarters e.g panteka, cresent road, express by pass, U/rimi, main campus, Keffi road, Zamfara Quarters and Barnawa.

Population
The respondents from whom the researchers to solicit for relevant data for this study are the occupants of these houses and the management staff of the works department of Kaduna Polytechnic. All together there are 385 housing units (works department of the Kaduna Polytechnic, 2010).

Sample of Study
The proportionate stratified random sampling technique was adopted to determine the sample of the study. This means that 100 occupants will be used to represent 26% of the total number of 385 housing units.

Instrument for Data Collection
The instrument used for data collection for this study was structured questionnaire developed by the researchers. The questionnaire has 15 items divided into three sections A,B and C organised according to the sequence of the research questions that guided this study.
The response option for the questionnaire was according to four (4) point rating scale of:

- Strongly Agree (SA) - 4 points
- Agree (A) - 3 points
- Disagree (D) - 2 points
- Strongly disagree (SD) - 1 point

Always used - 4 points
Used - 3 points
Sometimes used - 3 points
Not used - 1 point

Validation of the instrument
To establish the validity of instrument, the questionnaire was subjected to both face and content validation by three experts; two professionals in the building industry and one research expert. The corrections made by these experts were used in improving the content of the instrument.

Reliability of Instrument
The reliability of the instrument was tested with test-retest reliability method. A pilot study was conducted in NNPC quarters. The questionnaire was administered to ten respondent occupants of NNPC quarters. After a period of two (2) weeks the same questionnaire was re-administered to the same respondents. Data collected was analyzed using Spearman Brown formula to establish the coefficient of stability of instruments. The coefficient of 0.90 was obtained which indicates a positive correlation of the instruments.

Method of Data Collection
The researchers administered the instrument for data collection personally. The questionnaire was administered to the sampled occupants of residential quarters of Kaduna polytechnic.

Method of Data Analysis
The mean statistic was used to analyze the data collected from the respondents with regards to research question 1, 2 and 3. Decisions were taken based on the four points rating scale. Thus, any item with a mean of 2.50 and above will be considered agree and any item with less than 2.50 will be considered disagree.

Presentation of Data Analysis
The data was collected from the respondents and were analysed and presented in tables according to the research questions that guided this study.

Research Question 1
What is the present maintenance management systems used in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic? The data analysis to research question 1 is presented in table 1.

**Table 1: Present Maintenance Management Systems used in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/NO</th>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>AU</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>SU</th>
<th>N.U</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>REMARKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Preventive planned maintenance</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>Sometimes used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Corrective planned maintenance</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>Sometimes used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Unplanned maintenance</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>Sometimes used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Direct labour systems</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>Sometimes used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Contract system</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>Used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Both direct labour &amp; contract System</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>Used</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grand mean = 2.29
Table 1 shows that two items (5 and 6) were used while items 1, 2, 3, and 4 were sometimes used. With the grand mean of 2.29 it shows that these items are sometimes used.

**Research Question 2**
What is the effect of maintenance management systems in the factors identified by the occupants of the residential quarters?
The data analysis to research question 2 is presented in table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/NO</th>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>REMARKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Faulty design</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Construction method</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Occupant activities (usage)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Quality of materials used</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Inadequate maintenance</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grand mean = 2.40
Table 2 shows that items no. 7-9 disagree, while items 10 and 11 agree.

**Research Question 3**
Which is the best maintenance management system for use in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic? The data analysis for research question 3 is presented in table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/NO</th>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>REMARKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Planned running maintenance management system</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Planned shutdown Maintenance management system</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Corrective breakdown maintenance management system</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Emergency maintenance management system</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grand mean = 2.74
Table 3 shows that items 12 and 14 were strongly agreed as models chosen for Kaduna Polytechnic while items 13 and 15 were disagreed.

**Major Findings**
1. The present Maintenance Management System used in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic is unplanned maintenance
2. Major factor that negates maintenance in residential quarters in Kaduna Polytechnic is the inadequacy of maintenance.
3. The best models of maintenance management systems in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic are planned running and corrective breakdown maintenance management systems.

Discussion of Findings
The discussions of findings of this study were based on the research questions as stated below.

Research Questions 1
What is the present Maintenance Management Systems used in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic?

The finding of the study relating to research question 1 revealed that it is obvious from the results that unplanned maintenance is what was been used in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic.

This is buttressed by B.S 3811 that defined unplanned maintenance as “work resulting from unforeseen breakdown or damage due to external causes”. Unplanned maintenance therefore, calls for immediate action to stem further deterioration of the remaining parts of the building.

Research Question 2
What are the factors that negate the maintenance management systems of the occupants of the residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic?

The finding of the study relating to research question 2 revealed that inadequate maintenance and poor quality of materials used in construction of the buildings are the major factors identified by the occupants.

This shows that the authority of the Kaduna Polytechnic pay little or no attention to maintenance work and thus the buildings deteriorate and could not perform their original function. Again, the use of poor quality materials during construction of such buildings has its effect on maintenance. Most often than not such materials are usually re-design out after a long damage must have been done.

Thurley (1989) postulates occupant based system. This system relies on job requests made by the occupants. Attempt is then made to meet the needs of the occupants based on their request. A characteristic feature of this system is that maintenance tempts to concentrate on the aesthetics and findings rather than functional consideration.

Research Question 3
Which is the best maintenance management system for use in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic?

The result of the research question 3 shows that the planned running and corrective breakdown of maintenance management systems will be suitable for use in residential quarters of Kaduna Polytechnic. The planned running Maintenance Management System simply means that maintenance should be carried out at all times and not waiting for damage / repairs before they are done.
While corrective breakdown maintenance management system means carrying out the maintenance immediately there is a breakdown, meaning funds are set aside for such unforeseen damages / repairs. According to Lee (1989) planned maintenance connotes proper organisation to ensure its success. Maintenance management system must therefore move from the present waiting game practice (contingencies system: whereby fault are allowed to develop before maintenance is effected) to planned operations as a matter of policy.

Implication of Findings
The implication of this study clearly shows that at present Kaduna Polytechnic has unplanned maintenance systems. The major factor that negates the maintenance Management system is the inadequacy of maintenance. Finally, the researcher came out with a model presumed suitable for Kaduna Polytechnic and christened as planned running and corrective breakdown maintenance management systems.

Recommendations
Based on the findings of the study, subsequent discussions and the implication of the finding, the following recommendations are proffered:

1. That Kaduna Polytechnic should create a maintenance department separated from works department with clearly defined maintenance management systems as this was lacking.
2. That five million naira (N5,000,000.00) should be set aside by Kaduna Polytechnic into separate Maintenance Department account. This fund should be managed by the maintenance manager and strictly be for maintenance work.
3. Maintenance department should be aware of the prevailing market value of their assets on a yearly basis. This will provide information for the appraisal of the effect of maintenance works on the building value for any financial and accounting purpose.
4. A maintenance cycle of not more than five years is recommended for the maintenance department of Kaduna Polytechnic.

Conclusion
It is desirable to erect building to provide shelter and other centres of human activities for the need of man and at times to advance civilisation. It is also expected that maintenance of buildings be done ith the same vigor. But because of its non-glamorous nature, maintenance never gets the attention it deserved.

The imperatives for maintenance management systems cannot be over emphasised particularly for public infrastructural facilities because of the inherent benefits not only to the economic but also to the social structures.

References:


OVERVIEW OF ESTATE DEVELOPMENT AND MANAGEMENT IN NIGERIA

By

O. J. APOCHI,
ABIMBOLA KOMOLAFE

And

ZUBAIRU TIJJANI ONUVAJOR
Department of Building
College of Environmental Studies
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Nigeria

Abstract:
The paper defines the topic and tries to link its importance in the provision of housing to supplement successive government’s efforts in housing delivery. The various development processes from inception to in-use stage are highlighted. The management operations such as on-site, off-site and maintenance and the various challenges such as access to land, access to finance, construction costs, poor urban infrastructures etc. facing estate development in Nigeria are discussed. The paper concludes that even though the challenges enormous they are not insurmountable and recommends the use of highly qualified professionals, local materials internally generated fund etc. to overcome the challenges.

Introduction

Definitions

Estate: Thorn craft (1965) defined estate as a legal entity, denoting the character and quality of rights that an owner possesses in a property. While O’Donnell (1975), define it as an interest in the use of enjoyment and disposition of land.

Development: Is defined in section 91 of the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Decree No.88 of 1992 as the carrying out of any building, engineering, mining or other operations in, on, over or under any land. While Lawal (2000) says that among the architects, builders, engineers and surveyors development generally means the process of carrying out the construction works with a change in the use in the intensity of the use of land or with a re-establishment of an existing use, such works include the alteration, erection or re-erection of buildings and also the construction of roads, servers, the building of a river wall or the laying out of playing fields.

Estate Management is defined by thorn craft (1965) as the direction and supervision of an interest in landed property with the aim of securing the optimum return; this return need not always be financial, but may be in terms of social benefits, status, prestige, political power or some other goal or group of goals.

The issue of Estate development has engaged the attention of world governments for several decades so much that the year 2000 was declared by the United Nations as a year of housing for all. Of major concern has been the poor housing condition in the developing countries like Nigeria. The quest for housing Urban Nigerians has been a problem for successive governments
for many years and none has been able to bring any meaningful solution. Housing Programmes of successive governments have achieved very little. Both the Federal and State Governments have consistently failed in the housing targets they had set for themselves. This has made governments to seek new ways of finding solution to the problem, one of which is the encouragement of private participation in real estate development by corporate bodies housing societies, cooperative societies etc. and individuals. It is to this end that this paper is being presented to you the executives of cooperative societies in order to arouse your interest in Estate Development and Management so that you can participate and supplement governments’ efforts in housing delivery in Nigeria.

For this to be achieved, the traditional perception of housing simply as a welfare issue should be corrected. Housing should be viewed as a key economic sector with significant linkages with the overall economy. Government has also encouraged the formation of Real Estate Developers’ Association of Nigeria (REDAN). REDAN is the principal agency of the organized private sector for the delivery of affordable mass housing for all Nigerians. It is set up to promote the development of residential estates at affordable costs for all classes of Nigerians and provide a forum for all real estate developers in which to collaborate for the benefit of Nigerians. Your associations or societies can key in for this support.

**The Development Processes**

To correct the enormous maintenance problems of this country through maintenance management efforts must be made to re-orientate your views about the development process of a project. The traditional view considers that the project commences at the inception and ends at completion or the handing over of the project for the client’s use or occupation. But as Ashworth (1988) pointed out, the more modern approach is to consider this process in the context of a development cycle of a building. In this context, the process described above is extended to include in-use aspects, eventual demolition and the subsequent redevelopment of the building and the whole process must have maintenance in mind.

**Table 1 The Development Cycle**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGE</th>
<th>PHASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INCEPTION</td>
<td>Brief, Feasibility and viability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESIGN</td>
<td>Outline proposals, sketches, design detailed design, contract documentation, contract procurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONSTRUCTION</td>
<td>Project planning, installation, commissioning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN-USE</td>
<td>Maintenance, modification, demolition, replacement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Ashworth (1988) – Cost Studies of Building*

**Inception Stage**

This stage begins with the client having ideas about initiating a construction project due to a rising need (Datok, 1996), and will also be determining the objectives of his project. The client
then approaches any of the professionals in the construction industry and the choice of the professional first consulted depends on the nature of the project. A brief is made by the client indicating his requirements in terms of the design, construction needs and his level of financial preparedness and commitment of the project. The running cost of such a project should be considered where it affects the sale of such project by a private developer (Seeley, 1976).

The feasibility and viability studies dial with the procurement of site and determination of any legal or planning restraints on such site in relation to the eventual use of the completed project. It also includes determination of necessity and economic viability of the investment, assessment of project size in relation to client’s finances and the choice of method of construction to be adopted (Komolafe and Bungwon, 2001).

**Design Stage**

Although producing a maintenance free structure is not feasible, much can be done at design stage to reduce the amount of subsequent maintenance work. This places a heavy responsibility on the shoulders of designers who could contribute immensely to the reduction in maintenance costs if they ask themselves the four questions below when designing each component part of a structure as pointed out by Seeley (1976):

- How can it be reached?
- How long will it last?
- How can it be replaced?
- How can it be cleaned?

Apart from the above Komolafe and Bungwon (2001) suggest that since building generates a lot of maintenance if it does not adequately perform the functions for which it was designed the designer should also design with the following criteria in mind:

  i. Social-cultural and religious values of users
  ii. Level of enlightenment of users
  iii. Economic implication of the design in terms of standardization
  iv. Users expectation of the design
  v. Availability of services (water, electricity etc.)
  vi. Available technology and capability of local maintenance personnel
  vii. Existing maintenance practices of the client.

It is therefore at the design stage that maintenance burden can be positively influenced for better or for worse, since design faults leading to high maintenance cost often result from poor detailing at the design stage (Apochi and Obaba (2001). This include insufficient allowance for expansion or contraction, absence of weathering’s or throatings, lack of or incorrectly placed damp-proof courses, unsound foundations, poor jointing between different materials and poor access or facilities for repairs. The lowest initial cost is, not necessary the most economical in the end, for cheaper materials often require more frequent maintenance and may have a shorter working life than the more expensive alternative (Stoner, 1986).

To minimize this problem, designers should therefore be conversant with effects of environmental elements such as moisture contact, corrosion, insect and fungal attacks, thermal
insulation, etc, on structures and be able to match initial cost against running cost in the choice of materials.

Also during contract documentation, specification should be concise and comprehensive and devoid of duplications and the inclusion of vague and ambiguous details. When specification is accompanied with drawings, it should amplify, not repeat and certainly not contradict the information given on the drawings. The specification should explain the purpose and intent of the drawings more fully and clearly so that the two documents when taken together leave no doubt as to the work to be executed. All workmanship clauses should give a clear and concise description of the character and extent of the work involved.

Finally, as pointed out by Seeley (1976), most times, failures resulting from faults in design cannot be cured permanently and remain a continuing nuisance throughout the life of construction. Therefore a lot of considerations are necessary at the design stage to avoid occurrence of these design-maintenance problems.

**Construction Stage**

The construction stage begins with work commencing on the site after the ward of the contract to a competent contractor who will adhere to quality assurance actions. The professionals in charge of design should ensure that the contractor or builder adheres to specifications and details that constitute part of the contract documents as failure due to faulty execution of projects has been put at 41% by Ransom (1998). With strict adherence to a good design by the builder, problems arising from this phase leading to maintenance would be largely reduced or restricted.

Very often project execution does not produce exactly what was intended in the original contract drawings due to amendments to the original design as the work progresses for varied reasons. It is therefore, necessary to produce a set of drawings which shows precisely what is on the ground (called the As-Built drawings) after the completion of the project. Accordingly As-Built drawings should be produced by the builder with all the related specifications used during the construction stage. These drawings are very essential for later maintenance and renovation related works especially for mechanical and electrical services installations which should be produced by the nominated subcontractors and handed directly to the architect. This is a point most often neglected in the Nigerian construction industry.

**In – Use – Stage**

The final stage of the development cycle is the ultimate use of the project by the client. User’s activities – both human and mechanical including authorized and unauthorized usage can give rise to maintenance. Also, changing standards, needs and tastes of user which not worsening the existing condition may create a demand for maintenance work to be carried out more frequently than functionally necessary, for example repainting for the sole aim of changing the colour scheme to suit a user’s taste. This will also give rise to modification from time to time to incorporate modern standards of amenities and environmental comforts. Obsolete services, fittings and finishes and possible changes in use will all require some form of replacement. It may also become necessary to refurbish and remodel existing premises extensively, as an alternative to complete rebuilding.
Finally demolition sets in when existing project is no longer capable, in either practical or economic terms of modernization. When this final phase in the cycle occurs, the process is repeated.

Management of the Estate
Most new homes in the U.S are built by developers who in turn sell them to home owners and investors. Some homes are built by small scale developers who produce only a few a year, others 400 homes up to 40 storey that are developed and constructed by large corporations that have their own planning, appraising, financing, construction and marketing personnel.

For an investment property, the property manager’s job is to supervise every aspect of a property’s operation so as to produce the highest possible financial return over the congest period of time. And according to Jacobus and Han wood (1996) his tasks include renting, accounting, advertising, tenant relations, building maintenance and repair, and supervision of personnel and tradesmen.

The management of an estate could be classified into three operations namely on-site, off-site and maintenance management as suggested by Weather head (1997).

**On-Site Management** of an estate is a term that refers to property management duties that are performed on the premises such as: showing apartment units to prospective tenants or buyers, taking applications, conducting interviews, signing leases, maintaining good tenant relations, collecting rents and handling vacancies and evictions. The On-site manager is also responsible for the security of the building and grounds as well as the keeping of the premises clean by ensuring the trash is collected. He is also called in the event of emergencies such as when a tenant or guest becomes boisterous. He is the eyes and ears of the property owner and makes suggestions as to needed maintenance, repairs and improvements; needed changes in landlord – tenant policies and ways to better look after the building and its tenants.

**Off – Site Management** consists of duties that can be done without being on the premises. They include accounting for rents collected, handling pay rolls and bills. Others include hazard and liability insurance, bids for contracted services, rent levels advice, advertising major repairs, and capital improvements. He also advises when to refinance or sell the property.

**Maintenance Management** includes services such as formulating maintenance policy for the estate so that maintenance works are properly planned and done with fore-thought; drawing up of inspection schedules and schedules of dilapidation, planning and programming of maintenance works. The carrying out of the work through direct labour or by contracting system. The maintenance manager also makes suggestions as to headed maintenance, repairs and improvements.

**Sources of Financing Estate Development**
- Sources generally include:
- Insurance companies
- Mortgage institutions
- Commercial and merchant banks
The cost of borrowing from any of these sources should be properly appraised before doing so.

**The challenges to Estate Development**

Estate development in Nigeria is faced with a lot of problems which include:

Access to land: - The problem of inefficient land titling system, bottlenecks in the land tenure system and land use administration has contributed significantly to the difficulty of accessing land, (Nwuba, 2008). The government is responsible for allocation of land and granting of land titles to land holders through the grant of rights of occupancies. The possession of certificate of occupancy (C of O) is the indication of ownership of valid title to land and mortgage and financial institutions require them for mortgage transactions and it is also one of the conditions for accessing the National Housing Fund. But the process of obtaining certificates of occupancy is costly cumbersome, tedious and frustrating. The proposed land reform programme of the presentation administration should try to resolve these problems.

**Poor Access to Housing Finance:** - The country’s mortgage system is largely underdeveloped and the establishment of the National Housing fund has done little to solve the problem. Accessing the fund is difficult and mortgages from Primary Mortgage Institutions (PMIS) and commercial banks carry very high interest rates ranging from 15 to 23% per annum and sometimes with hidden charges.

**Cost of Land:** - The prices of land have been escalating in most urban areas in Nigeria. The inefficient land tenure system and land administration which concentrate land in the hands of a few people create scarcity and subsequent high and rising prices thus posing serious problem to estate development.

**Construction Costs:** - Construction costs are important in dealing with estate development in urban areas. Nwuba (1994) observed that housing construction costs have been rising since 1986 due to rising costs of building materials.

The existing gross inadequacy of urban infrastructures makes estate development very difficult. In many cases governments design layouts and allocate lands without the provision of basic infrastructures like roads, electricity, water supply etc. such layouts could remain unripe for over ten years due to lack of these facilities and developers are forced to eventually put these basic facilities themselves. Such state of affairs puts pressure on available development land and further escalates the costs of building and worsens the state of the urban environment.
Housing affordability is a function of house hold incomes. So if house hold income is not increasing commensurately with the rising costs of housing affordability problem will continue to worsen. Similarly, the ability to buy or rent a house out of house hold income depends on the savings the house hold can make and is a function of their income. High inflation in the economy has made savings very difficult and with the high housing cost only a tiny urban population can afford mortgage installmental payment to be able to get decent housing.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

Urban housing development has been a thorn in the flesh of government and in order to overcome this problem there is need to encourage private participation in housing delivery. The various ways developers could carry out estate development from inception to maintenance have been highlighted. The various problems facing development of estates in Nigeria, notwithstanding, if there is willingness on the part of private developers. These problems are not insurmountable if the proposed land reform will make land more accessible, the NHF is made more sensitive to developer, PMIs are encouraged to grow and thrive developers rely more on their own local source of funds. The professionals are there waiting to make your dreams of estate development a reality.

**Recommendations**

i. Developers should seek professionals’ advice at every stage of development to achieve minimum cost.

ii. Governments should provide sites and services schemes to encourage private developers to go into estate development.

iii. Governments should champion and encourage the use of local building materials such as lateritic blocks, bricks in order to encourage private developers to bring down cost of housing development.

iv. There is the need to bring down the current high interest rates by banks to encourage borrowing by developers wishing to go into real estate development.

v. The intended land reform should solve the problem of land acquisition in the country by removing all the current impediments to right of occupancy.

vi. The National Housing Fund should be reformed to make it more sensitive to the yearnings of developers looking for fund.

**References:**

Amama, V.O (2008): Mass Housing Development through Public – Private partnership, a paper present at a CES National Seminar Kaduna on the “theme the seven point Agenda the current Environment issues held at CES lecture Theatre Barnawa Kaduna. October 8-10


NIGERIA’S EDUCATION POLICY AND THE PROMOTION OF TECHNOLOGY PROWESS

BY
GARBA MOHAMMED KADEMI
Department of Education (Technical)
College of Science & Technology
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna Nigeria

Abstract
The basis for technological know-how and ability to apply skill and techniques in problem solving for innovations and inventions so as to bring about significant changes at all levels of national development, be it energy, food, health, transportation etc is technology education policy from grassroots to all levels. The paper attempted to see the relevance of the present education policy, framework or otherwise in the promotion of the technological prowess for national development. And the paper recommended ways such as improved curricula content funding and full implementation of the policy framework.

Introduction
All human advancement in the past, present and future is never achieved without sound education policy framework. And for nation building technology education is the bedrock that will bring about desired changes. It is the potent source for social and economic changes in contemporary history of mankind. It has contributed so much to make life comfortable for people. Hence, the Nigeria policy on education (NPE) tend to spelt out the general policy and a particular section for technical education which is design to promote technology education.

In clear term technology is an activity as old as man, wherever man has lived, he has practice technology whether simple or sophisticated and has thereby altered environment. It is an activity that forms or change culture which is used presently to bring about significant innovation and changes at all levels. According to Wikipedia (2010) technology is a term referring to whatever can be said at any particular historical period, concerning the state of the art in the general field of practical know-how and tool use. It therefore encompasses all that can be used about arts, crafts, profession, applied science and skills.

In complementary, technology education as defined by wikipedia (2010) is a study which provides an opportunity for student to learn about the processes and knowledge related to technology. It covers human ability to shape and change the physical world to meet needs by manipulating materials tools with techniques, as education the goal is to teach the knowledge and techniques to develop technological literacy. It is accomplished by bringing laboratory and workshop activities to students. Although technology education and technical education are interchangeably used, goal of technology education is different and more broad from that of technical education (Wikipedia 2010). Technical education teaches specific skills directed towards a specific type of work. For example carpentry, automotive maintenance welding or computer network administration while technology education has a more generalized approach. From the above definitions, it shows that pursuance of technology education policy objectives is what will lead to the promotion of technological prowess. It is also what will lead the country to be identified with advanced nation. In fact all available literature shows that technology education is the bedrock for an enviable national development. And technology advancement is
one of the criteria used to classify nation while the so called third world countries are regarded as either developing or under developed due to their low level of technology, advanced countries have acquired their immense power over land, sea and air because of development in technology.

It is therefore, imperative to look inward and more critical the country’s paces of technological advanced in the last fifty years (golden jubilee) if any and improve its capability and ranking among nations.

**Nigeria Education Policy Framework**

Oranu and Ogwo (2006) indicated that prior to the introduction of formal education in occupational training of the youth, though unwritten, the training pattern of most trades in Nigeria did posses consistent innovation in response to the technological advances. Gradually elements of technology education training were introduced into the public schools system. Thus public school ever since has continued to restructure its content and pattern of educating its entrants; in order to equip them towards adjusting to the perpetual changing technological world.

Oranu & Ogwo (2006) continue to lament that prior to 1959, little was heard about this type of education at the national level. Some efforts made towards introducing vocational/technical education in the public schools were restricted to the regional levels. This continued through the years up to 1981 in which national policy was formulated and outlined the aims of technical education as follows:

- To provide trained manpower in applied science technology and commerce, particularly at sub professional grades
- To provide people who can apply scientific knowledge to the improvement and solution of environmental problems for the use and convenience of man;
- To give an introduction to professional studies in engineering and other technologies.
- To give training and impart the necessary skills leading to the production of craftsmen, technicians, and other skilled personnel who will be enterprising and self-reliant and;
- To enable our young men and women to have an intelligent understanding of the increasing complexity of technology.

The above listed statement is a general one but at the grassroots, level Ajeyelami (1990) indicated that the aims and goals at secondary level seek to promote; Scientific and technical manpower to foster technological development; A vocational guidance to produce vocationally competence citizens; Practical training skills in science and technological practitioners to master the use of tools equipment, apparatus to produce report or design a kind of trade that will earn Nigerian citizens a living.

**Improvisation, innovation, thinking, creativity and resourcefulness**

The use of knowledge and skills acquired in science and technology to provide national needs and solve personal, societal and other problems (NPE 2004).
The 6-3-3-4 system of education and the present 6-9-4 indicated the willingness of the government to enhance technological education from the grassroots by offering of the introductory technology, though with implementation problems (Kademi 2010).

In more recent times, technical education is used as a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the studies of technologies and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life (FGN 2004, UNESCO and ILO, 2002). According the UNESCO and ILO, TVE is further understood to be:

- An integral part of general education
- A means of preparing for occupational fields and for effective participation in the world of work;
- An aspect of lifelong learning and a preparation for response citizenship.
- An instrument for promoting environmentally sound sustainable development;
- A method of facilitating poverty alleviation. (Oranu and Ogwo 2006)

An attempt to implement technology/technology education policy framework are the establishment of craft schools, technical colleges, polytechnics, special universities of technologies and engineering/ technology faculties in conventional universities at various levels of developmental pace. The government policy of 60/40% admission policy in favour of science and technology courses, and the participation of student in industries for skill acquisition (ITF).

Other endeavours are the creation of National Council of Science and Technology in (NCST) 1970, the science and technology development agency (NSTDA) in 1977, which metamorphosed into full pledge Federal Ministry of Science and Technology (FMST) in 1979 (Kademi 2008). To supervise, develop and realize the goals and objectives, National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) was established in 1977, Science and Technology Research Centres such as Raw Material and Research Development Council (RMRDC) in 1988 and National Board for Technology Incubation (NBTI) in 1985. Adekempe (2008) added that information from NBTI reveal that the board has twenty one (21) Technology Incubation Centres (TIL) located at different part of the country.

From the above institutional and the policy framework everything is put in place for successfully achievement of the desired technological advancement/breakthrough. But the true pursuance of goals and missions of the general framework lead to the present apparent pathetic situation, in which there is no stable power supply, insufficient food production, low capacity utilization of manufacturing sector, unequipped workshops and laboratories and many more problems.

**Value Reorientation**

Values are usually obtained from the norms and culture of society; such values vary from society to another. Tangaiya (2009) in Haralambos (1980) defines value as “a belief that something is good and desirable. It defines what is important, worthwhile striving for.”
Kajang (2009) see re-orientation as a means to give additional training or information with the hope of making someone do something well or make the person change focus or direction, or position from the earlier position or direction.

Then, value reorientation is to improve the way people think so that their approach is changed towards doing something good and desirable. In essence present policy focus need to be improved and re-oriented on the much desired positive values. This will lead to patriotism, national consciousness and loyalty.

The unfortunate situation today is that most parents, young men and women think that is more privilege and honourable/pride to read management courses, a lawyer, or medicine than a technician, technologist or engineering, hence the government policy on 60/40 in admission, because citizens failed to understand that technological prowess is the only knowledge that will give the ability to produce and use tools and machines in order to solve real life problems.

**Challenges for Promoting Technological Prowess**

As earlier mentioned, the policy framework is there both at lower and higher level. Although the lower level cannot be over emphasized, but the higher level is where the end product will be apparent or manifested, whether positive or negative. At present, Nigeria has over 60 faculties of science engineering and technology in monotechnics, polytechnics and universities. There are about 80,000 graduate produced annually from those 60 faculties in 136 disciplines (Sangodoyin and Oguntunde 2010).

However, the quality of the graduates is being questioned based on the following:

a. Versatility in theory and lacking in practical orientation
b. Lack of innovation and motivation
c. Lack of entrepreneurial skills
d. Graduate are produce in older discipline at the expense of new emerging disciplines
e. Training received in out-dates and non-functional laboratories and workshops;
f. Too much temptation from information technology gadgets.

Other major challenges include:

a. Learning in outdated and sub-optimal facilities like classrooms and libraries
b. Poor access to internet facilities
c. Outdated curriculum
d. Poor funding and
e. Graduates in engineering and technology movement to other professional areas.

(Sangodoyin and Oguntunde 2010)

More challenges that undermined the effective promotion of technological know-how as lamented by Kademi (2010) are:

i. Poor level of technological innovation among the populace
ii. Weak indigenous technology capability and infrastructure due to poor policy implementation
iii. Poor linkage between research development institution and manufacturing industries 
iv. The lack of incentives for local manufacturing industries as well as internal transfer of technology.

Recommendations
From the foregoing the writer recommends improvement in policy framework and implementation that shall encourage adequate funding and prudent utilization and spending. The Strengthening of invention and innovation made by institutions and research centres as well as the promotion of interaction programmes between industry and academia is strongly suggested. This it is expected shall facilitate the establishment of technology innovation fund, establishment of a committee on commercialization of research result in higher institution and provisions of internet facilities in all monotechnics, polytechnics and universities which shall boost adequate linkage, collaboration and easy access to various stakeholders such as education trust fund, PTDF etc for purchase of laboratories/workshop equipment and scholarships.

Conclusion
Largely, the paper has tried to highlight the laid down technology education policy framework and its relevance towards the promotion of technological prowess. In conclusion it is to note that the country’s invention/innovation capability that is, the ability to create and/or apply knowledge to solve practical problems greatly depends on four indices, the country’s level of technological advancement, the formal and informal institutions as well as the physical infrastructure and the advanced knowledge infrastructure. It is therefore, a great challenge upon the citizen and the government to pay more attention to those key areas so as to effect positive changes for the present and future generation in order to always think technology, talk technology, and try technology.

References
REPOSITIONING INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING IN NIGERIA TO COMBAT HIV/AIDS PANDEMIC

By

ABU MUHAMMED ONIMISI
Department of Public Administration
Kaduna Polytechnic,
Kaduna, Nigeria

Abstract:
This presentation will reflect and ponder on the concept of reproductive health and sexual rights of women with a view to examine to what extent women are being discriminated against to violation of their Fundamental Human Rights as enshrined under Chapter Four particularly sections 34,35,37,42, of the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and in the light of the provisions of international laws, treaties, conferences etc. The paper will also trace the use of biotechnological methods such as dysfunction, vitro fertilization (IVF) test tube baby, sperm/ova Bank, artificial insemination and surrogate parenting as an alternative remedy to problem of barrenness or childlessness. It shall equally appraise the position of Islamic Law on those biotechnological methods as well as the approach of African culture and human ethics towards them. The paper will finally proffer suggestions on the ways and manners those violations can be remedied within the ambit of laws.

Introduction
The United Nations Organization, UNO, gave birth to the proclamation of UN charter in 1945. The UN charter therefore clearly and unequivocally posits men and women to have equal right. Thereafter came the UN’s Universal declaration of Human right, UDHR which represented the first international instrument to clearly prohibit discrimination of all forms against women.

The idea of reproductive right was first proclaimed and adopted at the international conference on Human Right in Teheran in 1968 this conference maintained that “parents have a basic human right to determine freely and responsibly the number and spacing of their children”. In the year 1979, the convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against women CEDAW was adopted by the UN.

A committee was established by UN on CEDAW to monitor strict compliance with the provisions of the convention. This committee in a 2000 Reproductive Rights Report, while making a general recommendation on women and health, declares that state parties should “ensure access for all women to a full range of higher quality and affordable care; including sexual and reproductive health services”.

Reproductive rights attained its highest status in 1994 at the Cairo of international Conference on population and Development (ICPD) with the proclamation that reproductive rights entail certain human rights already existing in both national and international human right instruments. According to the conference, the right envisaged includes “the right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health and the right to make decisions concerning reproduction free of discrimination, coercion or violence.”
Consequently, reproductive rights can be described as material health and reproductive health i.e. the right to freedom from interference in reproductive decision making in relation to principle of bodily autonomy often referred to as physical integrity it is further opined that the principle is rooted in the right to respect for human dignity, right to liberty and security of the person and the right to privacy.

To this end International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) suggests that reproductive self-determination covers the following right:

- The Right to plan one’s family
- The Right to freedom from interference in reproductive decision making
- The Right to be free from all forms of violence and coercion that affect a woman’s sexual or reproductive life.

Reproductive right therefore entails bodies of rights that are already recognized under the international legal human right frame particularly the World Conference on Women, Beijing, China 1995, the international Conference on Population and Development, Cairo, Egypt, 1994 the UN Convention on the elimination of all types of discriminations against women 1973 e.t.c. consequently, reproductive right in the light of all these convention/conferences can be viewed from the following perspectives:

- The basic right of all couples and individual to decide freely the number of spacing and timing of their children and to have informative education on the means to do so.
- The right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health without hindrance on legal, social, cultural and religious ground.
- Right to make decisions concerning reproduction free of discrimination, coercion and violence as expressed in all human rights documents.

The reproductive right therefore are narrowed down and perceived from two dimensions namely reproductive Health and reproductive self-determination. Reproductive Health care however is rooted from the international human right instruments that protect life and Health such as the universal declaration of Human Rights 1978, the international Covenant on human and political right 1966, international covenant on economic and social right 1966 etc.

Reproductive health is a state of complete physical mental and social well being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters relating to the reproductive system and its processes. Reproductive health therefore implies that people are able to have satisfying and safe sexual life and that they have the capacity to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so

It is implicit however in this right that men and women have the right to be adequately informed and to have free and unperturbed access to safe, effective, affordable and acceptable methods of family planning of their choice, as well as other methods of their choice for their choice of regulating their fertility which are not against the law and the right to access appropriate healthcare services that enable women to safely go through pregnancy and child birth and provide couples with the best chance of having a healthy infant relationship including sexual
health, the purpose of which is the enhancement of life and personal relations, and not merely counseling and care related reproduction and sexually transmitted diseases.

It has been observed that linking fertility regulation to other positive goal of reproductive health was seen as a call for change in the focus of population policy and for commitment of resources to meet previously neglected health needs. According to Dr Nafis Sadiq, the Executive Director United Nation Population Fund, women health status is affected by complex biological social and culture factors which are interrelated and can only be addresses in a comprehensive manner, hence the reproductive health is determined not only by the quality and availability of health care’ but also by social – economic development levels’ life styles and women’s position in society.

According to Ana Elano Obando, 2003, bodily integrity rights are deeply rooted in the most basic principles of human rights; general rights in relation to sexuality and reproduction cover two basic principles; the right to sexual and reproductive health care and the right to sexual and reproductive self-determination.

According to her position, the term “reproductive right” emerged to refer to human rights related to reproductive i.e those rights pertaining to human reproduction, including rights that undermined in the context of population development policies. Although these rights have no specific provisions in most international legal instruments of human rights, they are implicit and are defined in a range of non – treaty human rights declarations and action platforms, thus, reproductive rights are internationally recognized rights, which are legally binding.

Women’s sexual and reproductive rights under international law on human rights are outcome of a combination of, political, social, cultural and economic rights of women which include the right to health and family planning; the right to life, freedom, integrity and security, the right not to be assaulted or exploited sexually, the right not to be tortured or to be the object of cruel, inhuman, degrading punishment, or treatment, the right not to be subject to sex discrimination, the right to privacy, the right to intimacy and the right enjoy scientific progress and the right to consent to be an object of experimentation.

**The World Health Organisation’s Definition of Reproductive Health**

Reproductive health is defined. By World Health Organization as a state of Physical, Mental and Social well-being in all matters relating to the reproductive systems at all stages of life. Reproductive health implies that people are able to have a satisfying and safe sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and freedom to decide if, when, and how often to do so. Implicit in this are the right of men and women to be informed and to have access to safe, effective, affordable and acceptable methods of family planning of their choice and the right to appropriate health-care service that enable women to safely go through pregnancy and childbirth. Reproductive health care is defined as the constellation of methods, techniques, and services that contribute to reproductive health and well being preventing and solving reproductive health problems. It also includes sexual health, the purpose of which is the enhancement of life and personal relations, and not merely counseling and care related reproductive and sexually transmitted infections.
In support of this aim, WHO’s reproductive health program has developed four broad programmatic goals:

a. Experience health sexual development and maturation and have the capacity for equitable and responsible relationships and sexual fulfillment.

b. Achieve their desired number of children safely and healthy, when and if they decide to have them.

c. Avoid illness, disease and disability related to sexuality and reproduction and receive appropriate care when needed.

d. Be free from violence and other harmful practices related to sexual and reproduction.

The Right to Freedom from Interference in Reproductive Decision Making

This right is to relate to such principles of bodily autonomy bordering on the right to physical integrity. This principle is said to be traceable to the right to respect for human dignity, the right to liberty and security of the human person and of course the right to privacy as contained in sections 34, 35, 37, and 42 of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria. From a clear reading of the above, it is established that it is the invasion or intrusion of their bodies and other non-consensual restrictions on women’s physical autonomy. Denying a woman the option of avoiding pregnancy or childbirth clearly interferes with her right to decide on a matter with tremendous implications for her body and personal liberty. The U.S Supreme Court, in the case of Einstad VC Baird also posits this right to privacy to include reproductive freedom where it states that:

“if the right of privacy means anything, it is right of the individual, married or single, to be free from unwanted government instruction into matters so fundamental affecting a person as the decision whether to bear or beget a child”

Different UN conferences and instruments opined that women could only effectively enjoy the right if they are not discriminated against by denying them access to effective reproductive health care services. From the reading of the Preamble and Article 1 of CEDAW, the use of the phrase “all forms of discrimination” has the effect; according to experts; of removing any discrimination against women in whatever form it manifest itself, it is further explained the given this reproductive freedom, thousand of.

Women will avoid pregnancy and childbirth. Article 16 (e) of CEDAW established that state parties “should, without discrimination grant the same right (to women) to decide freely and responsibly, the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means (methods) to enable them to exercise these right”. The right to have what number of children but also by which method and also the right not to have any children at all. A reading of Article 9(1) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights implicitly showed also that states are prevented from interfering in an individual’s pursuit of means to limit or promote fertility.

The above analysis of the provisions the various conventions goes, to show that women (in equality with men) enjoy the use of these biotechnological methods as of right. It is their right to reproductive self-determination and reproductive freedom. It is no that the right is to be enjoyed
when they are infertile, have a medical condition that can prevent childbirth or fertility, NO, they simply enjoy it as a human right,

According to the American Society for Reproductive Medicine, medically, sexual dysfunction can either be a cause or a consequence of infertility. Sexual dysfunction infertility occurs when sexual relations have not cannot occur to achieve a pregnancy.

**In Vitro Fertilization (IVF) or Test Tube Baby**
This is a biotechnological method that is used to manage women’s infertility problem where her fallopian tubes are either absent or damaged. *In Vitro* is a Latin phrase meaning ‘*in glass*’. It stands as the opposite of ‘*in utero*’ or ‘*in the uterus*’. Ordinary, human fertilization occurs in the fallopian tubes – ‘*in uteru*’ when a sperm cell unites with an ovum. However, in vitro fertilization is one artificially performed in a test tube’ in laboratory- outside the women’s body, so simply put, IVT is a medical technique through which a women’s egg is combined with the husband’s sperm in a laboratory environment to promote fertilization.

The advantages of IVF have been considered to be that it meets up with the desire of the women to have her child. The born child can be certain to only bear the genetic makeup of both (married) parents and that no risks of strain will ensure since no any contribution came from another women. Some scientist, however, strongly opined that fertilization in foreign environment to the women’s uterus runs against risk of deformity.

Muslim Jurist raised one fundamental question as regard this method. They asked the question. Since only a single fertilized ovum is selected for implantation, what is the position of all the other fertilized ova? It is argued that the only way an IVF can be accepted as a legitimate method of combating infertility is if the fertilization process occurring outside the uterus is restricted to a single ovum. In 1999, the world association of sexology met in Hong Kong and adopted a declaration of sexual rights as follows:

 i. *The right to sexual autonomy and safety of the sexual body is respected*
 ii. *The right to sexual pleasure which is a source of physical, psychological, intellectual and spiritual well –being must be protected.*
 iii. *The right to sexual information generated through unencumbered yet scientifically ethical inquiry must be readily available.*
 iv. *The right to sexual health care which should be available for prevention and treatment of all sexual concerns problems and disorders.*

**Artificial Insemination**
This is another biotechnological method of infertility management. It is a process whereby semen spacemen is taken from the husband and injected into the uterus.
Sperm is usually obtained for this procedure via two ways:
 i. By inserting the penis inside a special sheath (condom) like prior to intercourse.
 ii. By masturbation.
Sperm Donors/Ova Bank
Scientifically, the term pregnancy is only said to result when the sperm from man fertilizes the female ovum. The fetus or finally child resulting is to be a product of the union of the man and women whose sperm and ovum coupled and fertilized. In an infertile couple, it may be that it is the husband who is suffering from disease condition e.g. inability to produce any sperm at all – medically referred to as azospermia, or he may be a carrier of a genetic disorder that makes ejaculation impossible or he may be out rightly important due to certain disease – in all these conditions, he either produces no sperm or not viable sperm. It could also be that the woman produces no egg but have all features that can carry pregnancy to maturity.

The whole of the process can occur in the other way with the woman donating her eggs (ovum). Where any of the above conditions is obtained, modern medical intervention came up with a biotechnical idea of sperm or ova donation. It is situation where the wife is artificially inseminated with the sperm of another man other then her husband called a sperm donor or where she donates her eggs (ovum) to a man other then her husband. This without mincing words, is clearly objectionable, haram and unacceptable under Islamic Law. Hence, the existence of sperm banks and ova banks is clearly unlawful under Islamic Law.

It is an unambiguous teaching of the Holy Qur’an in Surah Al-Muminoon that believers are not ones that misused their sperm. Its emission, Islam establishes, should only occur in permissible sexual union with one’s wife or slave. So the use of sperm of anyone other than that of the husband is clearly forbidden. Shaihul Azhar, Mahmud Shaltut, in giving a fatwa on this issue stated:

“Artificial insemination with the sperm of a foreign person is, under the Shari’a, a grievous crime and a great sin and is tantamount to adultery, for their essence is the same and their result is also the same. For it is the insertion of the sperm of the foreign person internationally into a tithe, which has not been legally tied to him through the bond of marriage. The legal verdict for artificial insemination in that way in the same as that of adultery, which has been condemned and prohibited by the Divine Shari’ah”.

Surrogate Parenting
Surrogate parenting has raised the most ethical and legal problems of all the biotechnological methods. Surrogate parenting refers to a situation where a woman bears a child for another woman who is not in a position to bear children as a result of either a blocked fallopian tube or complete absence of a uterus. It is sometimes referred to as ‘womb leasing’

Originally, two types of surrogacy existed:
Classical surrogacy: this was the first and original form of surrogacy. It is a process whereby the surrogate is inseminated with the sperm of the father to be. In this situation, the surrogate automatically becomes both the genetic and biological mother of the child (who is then given to the intended parent after delivery) – this is because it was the surrogate that contributed the genetic egg. This type of surrogacy was widely used before the discovery of in vitro Fertilization Technology. It is now very rarely used and outdated.
Gestational Surrogacy: this is now viewed as the most appropriate and acceptable type of surrogacy. Here, the surrogate is not the genetic mother of the child. This type involves certain processes. First, the genetic mother is made to undergo in Vitro Fertilization to collect egg. The eggs. The eggs are collected and fertilized in a libratory with her partners (whether husband or not) sperm. At the time this is going on, the surrogate-is having her uterus artificially prepared with hormones. The fertilized egg develops into an Emryo, which is usually cultured in the laboratory for 3-5 days. At the end of these days, the ensuing embryo or embryos are then selected and inserted into the prepared uterus of the gestational carrier. At birth, the surrogate transfers the child to the intended parents.

Conclusion and Recommendations
From the foregoing, it could be observed that we have taken up an analysis of the concept of reproductive self-determination as a human right issue. We also undertook a review of biotechnological innovations as some of the rights to be enjoyed under this right to reproductive self-determination. A review of these biotechnological methods as a modern answer to infertility was also made. The various forms of biotechnological innovations were reviewed within the context of religion, culture, and ethic and community acceptability. Consequently, it is asserted that even though Nigeria is a state party to most of the international convention and conference where the reproductive rights were proclaimed as an internationally recognized human right yet much is still needed to be done domestically by way of amending the provisional of sections, 34,35,37, and 42 which have bearing with the reproductive right of women in the light of the international law provisions for the Purpose of enforcing the reproductive rights of Nigeria women.

References:
UNRISD Publication-reproductive and Sexual Right Charting the Course of Transnational Women’s NGOs htm. 16/10/2007.
Similarly, public awareness by the government should be intensified for the purpose educating Nigerian woman on the available reproductive rights and how to enforce them.
DETERMINING SUFFICIENCY OF SAMPLE SIZE IN MANAGEMENT SURVEY RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

By

HASHIM, YUSUF ALHAJI
Department of Business Administration,
College of Business and Management Studies,
Kaduna Polytechnic,
Kaduna-Nigeria

Abstract:
This paper describes the procedure for determining sufficient sample size for both continuous and categorical data. Tables for determining the sufficient sample size were given as adapted from Krejcie and Morgan (1970) and Bartlett, et al., (2001). The main objective of this study is to explore the procedures for determining a sufficient sample size for management survey research activities. The study recommends that researchers should endeavour to use sufficient sample size in conducting survey studies to minimize errors in inference back to the population.

Introduction
Management involves the effective and efficient utilization both human and material resources in achieving organizational goals and objectives. In the pursuance of organizational goals and objectives, management encounters problems in terms of resources constraints, dynamism in the operating environment. Therefore, most of the problems that management encounters are found in all functional areas: finance, human resources, marketing, production, research and development.

In order to solve managerial problems, managers engage in research. The purpose of research is to collect data that will help management solve problems that have been identified and defined. Data can be collected in a variety of ways. One of the most common methods is through the use of surveys. Surveys can be done by using a variety of methods. The most common methods are the telephone survey, the mailed questionnaire survey, personal interview, surveying records, and direct observation (Bluman, 2004).

Management research reports require reliable forms of evidence from which to draw robust conclusions. It is usually not cost effective or practicable to collect and examine all the data that might be available. Instead it is often necessary to draw a sample of information from the whole population to enable the detailed examination required to take place. Samples can be drawn for several reasons: for example to draw inferences across the entire population; or to draw illustrative examples of certain types of behavior. Bluman (2004) argues that in conducting the research, management use samples to collect data and information about a particular variable from a large population. Using samples saves time and money and, some cases enable the researcher to get more detailed information about a particular subject. A simple survey of published manuscripts reveals numerous errors and questionable approaches to sample size selection, and serves as proof that improvement is needed. Many researchers could benefit from
a real-life primer on the tools needed to properly conduct research, including, but not limited to, sample size selection.

Landman (1998) points out that, when a test sample does not truly represent the population from which it is drawn, the test sample is considered a bias sample. It then becomes impossible to predict the population. The argument by Landman (1998) raises the question: How large a sample size is required to infer research findings back to the population? This question is at the heart of the problem of this study.

The main aim of the study is to explore the processes of determining a sufficient sample size for management survey research activities. The specific objectives of the study are:
- describe sufficient sample size required given a finite population,
- describe maximum sampling error for samples of varying sizes,

Sample Design
Bluman (2004) argues samples cannot be selected in a haphazard way because the information obtained might be biased. To obtained samples that are unbiased (i.e. give each subject of the population an equally likely chance of being selected) management use four basic methods of sampling: random, systematic, stratified, and cluster sampling.

Sample design covers the method of selection, the sample structure and plans for analyzing and interpreting the results. Sample designs can vary from simple to complex and depend on the type of information required and the way the sample is selected. The design will impact upon the size of the sample and the way in which analysis is carried out. In simple terms the tighter the required precision and the more complex the design, the larger the sample size.

The design may make use of the characteristics of the population, but it does not have to be proportionally representative (VFM Studies). It may be necessary to draw a larger sample than would be expected from some parts of the population; for example, to select more from a minority grouping to ensure that we get sufficient data for analysis on such groups.

Many designs are built around random selection. This permits justifiable inference from the sample to the population, at quantified levels of precision. Given due regard to other aspects of design, random selection guards against bias in a way that selecting by judgment or convenience cannot. Sampling can provide a valid, defensible methodology but it is important to match the type of sample needed to the type of analysis required (VFM Studied). The first step in good sample design is to ensure that the specification of the target population is as clear and complete as possible to ensure that all elements within the population are represented. The target population is sampled using a sampling frame. Often the units in the population can be identified by existing information; for example, pay-rolls, company lists, government registers and so on. A sampling frame could also be geographical; for example postcodes.

Determining Sample Size
A common goal of survey research is to collect data representative of a population. The researcher uses information gathered from the survey to generalize findings from a drawn sample
back to a population, within the limits of random error. However, when critiquing business education research, Wunsch (1986:31) stated that “two of the most consistent flaws included (1) disregard for sampling error when determining sample size, and (2) disregard for response and non response bias”. Within a quantitative survey design, determining sample size and dealing with non response bias is essential. “One of the real advantages of quantitative methods is their ability to use smaller groups of people to make inferences about larger groups that would be prohibitively expensive to study” (Holton & Burnett, 1997:71).

Standard textbook authors and researchers offer tested methods that allow studies to take full advantage of statistical measurements, which in turn give researchers the upper hand in determining the correct sample size. Sample size is one of the four inter-related features of a study design that can influence the detection of significant differences, relationships or interactions (Peers, 1996). Generally, these survey designs try to minimize both alpha error (finding a difference that does not actually exist in the population) and beta error (failing to find a difference that actually exists in the population) (Peers, 1996).

**Foundations for Sample Size Determination**

**Primary Variables of Measurement**

The researcher must make decisions as to which variables will be incorporated into formula calculations. For example, if the researcher plans to use a seven-point scale to measure a continuous variable, e.g., job satisfaction, and also plans to determine if the respondents differ by certain categorical variables, e.g., gender, educational level, and others, which variable(s) should be used as the basis for sample size? This is important because the use of gender as the primary variable will result in a substantially larger sample size than if one used the seven-point scale as the primary variable of measure. Cochran (1977:81) addressed this issue by stating that “One method of determining sample size is to specify margins of error for the items that are regarded as most vital to the survey. An estimation of the sample size needed is first made separately for each of these important items”. When these calculations are completed, researchers will have a range of n’s, usually ranging from smaller n’s for scaled, continuous variables, to larger n’s for dichotomous or categorical variables.

The researcher should make sampling decisions based on these data. If the n’s for the variables of interest are relatively close, the researcher can simply use the largest n as the sample size and be confident that the sample size will provide the desired results. More commonly, there is a sufficient variation among the n’s so that we are reluctant to choose the largest, either from budgetary considerations or because this will give an over-all standard of precision substantially higher than originally contemplated. In this event, the desired standard of precision may be relaxed for certain of the items, in order to permit the use of a smaller value of n. The researcher may also decide to use this information in deciding whether to keep all of the variables identified in the study. “In some cases, the n’s are so discordant that certain of them must be dropped from the inquiry; . . .” (Cochran, 1977:81).

**Error Estimation**

Cochran’s (1977) formula uses two key factors: (1) the risk the researcher is willing to accept in the study, commonly called the margin of error, or the error the researcher is willing to accept,
and (2) the alpha level, the level of acceptable risk the researcher is willing to accept that the true margin of error exceeds the acceptable margin of error; i.e., the probability that differences revealed by statistical analyses really do not exist; also known as Type I error. Another type of error Type II error, also known as beta error. Type II error occurs when statistical procedures result in a judgment of no significant differences when these differences do indeed exist.

**Alpha Level**
The alpha level used in determining sample size in most educational research studies is either .05 or .01 (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1996). In Cochran’s formula, the alpha level is incorporated into the formula by utilizing the t-value for the alpha level selected (e.g., t-value for alpha level of .05 is 1.96 for sample sizes above 120). Researchers should ensure they use the correct t-value when their research involves smaller populations, e.g., t-value for alpha of .05 and a population of 60 is 2.00. In general, an alpha level of .05 is acceptable for most research. An alpha level of .10 or lower may be used if the researcher is more interested in identifying marginal relationships, differences or other statistical phenomena as a precursor to further studies. An alpha level of .01 may be used in those cases where decisions based on the research are critical and errors may cause substantial financial or personal harm, e.g., major programmatic changes (Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins, 2001).

**Acceptable Margin of Error**
The general rule relative to acceptable margins of error in educational and social research is as follows: For categorical data, 5% margin of error is acceptable, and, for continuous data, 3% margin of error is acceptable (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). For example, a 3% margin of error would result in the researcher being confident that the true mean of a seven point scale is within ±.21 (.03 times seven points on the scale) of the mean calculated from the research sample.

For a dichotomous variable, a 5% margin of error would result in the researcher being confident that the proportion of respondents who were male was within ±5% of the proportion calculated from the research sample. Researchers may increase these values when a higher margin of error is acceptable or may decrease these values when a higher degree of precision is needed (Bartlett, et al., 2001).

**Variance Estimation**
A critical component of sample size formulas is the estimation of variance in the primary variables of interest in the study. The researcher does not have direct control over variance and must incorporate variance estimates into research design. Cochran (1977) listed four ways of estimating population variances for sample size determinations: (1) take the sample in two steps, and use the results of the first step to determine how many additional responses are needed to attain an appropriate sample size based on the variance observed in the first step data; (2) use pilot study results; (3) use data from previous studies of the same or a similar population; or (4) estimate or guess the structure of the population assisted by some logical mathematical results.

In many educational and social research studies, it is not feasible to use any of the first three ways and the researcher must estimate variance using the fourth method (Bartlett, 2001). A researcher typically needs to estimate the variance of scaled and categorical variables. To
estimate the variance of a scaled variable, one must determine the inclusive range of the scale, and then divide by the number of standard deviations that would include all possible values in the range, and then square this number.

When estimating the variance of a dichotomous (proportional) variable such as gender, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) recommended that researchers should use .50 as an estimate of the population proportion. This proportion will result in the maximization of variance, which will also produce the maximum sample size. This proportion can be used to estimate variance in the population. For example, squaring .50 will result in a population variance estimate of .25 for a dichotomous variable.

**Basic Sample Size Determination**

**Continuous Data**

Before proceeding with sample size calculations, assuming continuous data, the researcher should determine if a categorical variable will play a primary role in data analysis. If so, the categorical sample size formulas should be used. If this is not the case, the sample size formulas for continuous data described in this section are appropriate. Cochran’s (1977) sample size formula for continuous data is:

\[
\frac{(t)^2 \times (s)^2}{(d)^2}
\]

Where \(t\) = value for selected alpha level in each tail (the alpha level of .05 indicates the level of risk the researcher is willing to take that true margin of error may exceed the acceptable margin of error.)

Where \(s\) = estimate of standard deviation in the population

Where \(d\) = acceptable margin of error for mean being estimate (number of points on primary scale * acceptable margin of error)

Cochran’s (1977) correction formula should be used to calculate the final sample size:

\[
\frac{n_0}{n_1} = \frac{(1 + n_0 / P)}{n_0}
\]

Where \(P\) = population size

Where \(n_0\) = required return sample size according to Cochran’s formula

Where \(n_1\) = required return sample size because sample exceed required % of population.

These procedures result in the minimum returned sample size.
However, since many educational and social research studies often use data collection methods such as surveys and other voluntary participation methods, the response rates are typically well below 100%. Salkind (1997:107) recommended oversampling when he stated that “If you are mailing out surveys or questionnaires, . . . . count on increasing your sample size by 40%-50% to account for lost mail and uncooperative subjects”.

However, many researchers criticize the use of over-sampling to ensure that this minimum sample size is achieved and suggestions on how to secure the minimal sample size are scarce. Fink (1995) argues that Oversampling can add costs to the survey and is often necessary. If the researcher decides to use oversampling, Bartlett, et al., (2001) suggest that four methods may be used to determine the anticipated response rate: (1) take the sample in two steps, and use the results of the first step to estimate how many additional responses may be expected from the second step; (2) use pilot study results; (3) use responses rates from previous studies of the same or a similar population; or (4) estimate the response rate.

Estimating response rates is not an exact science. A researcher may be able to consult other researchers or review the research literature in similar fields to determine the response rates that have been achieved with similar and, if necessary, dissimilar populations (Bartlett, et al., 2001).

**Categorical Data**

The sample size formulas and procedures used for categorical data are very similar to continuous data, but some variations do exist. Cochran’s (1977) sample size formula for categorical data is:

\[ n_o = \frac{(t)^2 \times (p)(q)}{(d)^2} \]

Where \( t \) = value for selected alpha level in each tail (the alpha level indicates the level of risk the researcher is willing to take that true margin of error may exceed the acceptable margin of error). Where \( (p)(q) \) = estimate of variance (maximum possible proportion * 1 - maximum possible proportion produces maximum possible sample size).

Where \( d \) = acceptable margin of error for proportion being estimated (error researcher is willing to except).

Cochran’s (1977) correction formula should be used to calculate the final sample size. These calculations are as follows:

\[ n_1 = \frac{n_o}{(1 + \frac{n_o}{\text{Population}})} \]

Where \( n_o \) = required return sample size according to Cochran’s formula
Where \( n_1 \) = required return sample size because sample > required % of population.
(These procedures result in a minimum returned sample size).
Methodology
The paper adopts the descriptive research design in explaining the processes and requirements of determining sufficient sample size for management survey research activities. The choice of the method is informed by the fact that we intend to primarily describe the sufficient sample sizes required for management survey research activities. The emphasis is on describing rather than judge or interprets. Klopper (1990) argues that researchers use descriptive research design with the aim of recording in the form of a written report of that which has been perceived.

The paper relies purely on secondary data collected from e-books, online journal articles and textbooks.

Determining Sufficiency of Sample Size
When we sample, we are drawing a subgroup of cases from some population of possible cases. The sample will deviate from the true nature of the population by a certain amount due to chance variations of drawing few cases from many possible cases. This is called sampling error (Isaac & Michael, 1995). The issue of determining sample size arises with regard to the investigator’s wish to assure that the sample statistic (usually the sample mean) is as close to, or within a specified distance from, the true statistic (mean) of the entire population under review (Hill, 1998).

A crude method of checking the sufficiency of data is described as split-half analysis of consistency (Martin & Bateson, 1986). Here the data is divided randomly into two halves which are then analysed separately. If both sets of data clearly generate the same conclusions, then sufficient data is claimed to have been collected. If the two conclusions differ, then more data is required. True split half analysis involves calculating the correlation between the two data sets. If the correlation coefficient is sufficiently high then the data can be said to be reliable (Hill, 1998). Martin and Bateson (1986) advocate a correlation coefficient of greater than 0.7.

Alreck and Settle (1995) dispute the logic that sample size is necessarily dependant on population size. They provide their analogy as follows: suppose you were warming a bowl of soup and wished to know if it was hot enough to serve. You would probably taste a spoonful. A sample size of one spoonful. Now suppose you increased the population of soup, and you were heating a large urn of soup for a large crowd. The supposed population of soup has increased, but you still only require a sample size of one spoonful to determine whether the soup is hot enough to serve.

A formula for determining sample size can be derived provided the investigator is prepared to specify how much error is acceptable and how much confidence is required (Roscoe, 1975; and Alreck & Settle, 1995 in Hill, 1998).

A significance level of 5% has been established as a generally acceptable level of confidence in most behavioral sciences (Hill, 1998). Roscoe (1975) seems to use 10% as a rule thumb acceptable level, while Wersberg and Bowen (1977) cite 3% and 4% as the acceptable level in survey research for forecasting election results. Further, Wersberg and Bowen (1977: 41) provide a table of maximum sampling error related to sample size for simple randomly selected samples. The table insinuates that if you are prepared to accept an error level of 5% in survey, then you require a sample size of 400 observations. If 10% is acceptable then a sample of 100 is acceptable, provided the sampling procedure is simple random.
Table 1: Maximum sampling error for samples of varying sizes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample size</th>
<th>Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>750</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Krejcie and Morgan (1970) have produced a table for determining required sample size given a finite population. The table is applicable to any population of a defined (finite) size.

Table 2: Required sample size, given a finite population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N-----n</th>
<th>N-----n</th>
<th>N-----n</th>
<th>N-----n</th>
<th>N-----n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10------10</td>
<td>100------80</td>
<td>280------162</td>
<td>800------260</td>
<td>2800------338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15------14</td>
<td>110------86</td>
<td>290------165</td>
<td>850------265</td>
<td>3000------341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20------19</td>
<td>120------92</td>
<td>300------169</td>
<td>900------269</td>
<td>3500------346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25------24</td>
<td>130------97</td>
<td>320------175</td>
<td>950------274</td>
<td>4000------351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30------28</td>
<td>140------103</td>
<td>340------181</td>
<td>1000------278</td>
<td>4500------354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35------32</td>
<td>150------108</td>
<td>360------186</td>
<td>1100------285</td>
<td>5000------357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40------36</td>
<td>160------113</td>
<td>380------191</td>
<td>1200------291</td>
<td>6000------361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45------40</td>
<td>170------118</td>
<td>400------196</td>
<td>1300------297</td>
<td>7000------364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50------44</td>
<td>180------123</td>
<td>420------201</td>
<td>1400------302</td>
<td>8000------367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55------48</td>
<td>190------127</td>
<td>440------205</td>
<td>1500------306</td>
<td>9000------368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60------52</td>
<td>200------132</td>
<td>460------210</td>
<td>1600------310</td>
<td>10000------370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65------56</td>
<td>210------136</td>
<td>480------214</td>
<td>1700------313</td>
<td>15000------375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70------59</td>
<td>220------140</td>
<td>500------217</td>
<td>1800------317</td>
<td>20000------377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75------63</td>
<td>230------144</td>
<td>550------226</td>
<td>1900------320</td>
<td>30000------379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80------66</td>
<td>240------148</td>
<td>600------234</td>
<td>2000------322</td>
<td>40000------380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85------70</td>
<td>250------152</td>
<td>650------242</td>
<td>2200------327</td>
<td>50000------381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90------73</td>
<td>260------155</td>
<td>700------248</td>
<td>2400------331</td>
<td>75000------382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95------76</td>
<td>270------159</td>
<td>750------254</td>
<td>2600------335</td>
<td>100000------384</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Where N= Population size, and n= sample size required.
Krejcie and Morgan (1970) state that, using the above calculation, as the population increases the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains, eventually constant at slightly more than 380 cases.

According to Gay and Diehl (1992), generally the number of respondents acceptable for a study depends on the type research involved- descriptive, correlational or experimental. For descriptive research the sample should be 10% of population. But if the population is small then 20% may be required. In correlational research at least 30 subjects are required to establish a relationship. Hill (1998) suggests 30 subjects per group as the minimum for experimental research. Isaac and Michael (1995) provide conditions where research with large samples is essential and also where small samples are justifiable. Accordingly Isaac and Michael (1995) opined that large samples are essential:

- When a large number of uncontrolled variables are interacting unpredictably and it is desirable to minimize their separate effects; to mix the effects randomly and hence cancel out imbalances.
- When the total sample is to be sub-divided into several sub-samples to be compared with one another.
- When the parent population consists of a wide range of variables and characteristics, and there is a risk therefore of missing or misrepresenting those differences.
- When differences in the results are expected to be small. Isaac and Michael (1995) provide conditions where research with small sample sizes is justifiable as: In cases of small sample economy. That is when it not economically feasible to collect a large sample.
- When computer monitoring. This may take two forms: (i) Where the input of huge amounts of data may itself introduce a source of error- namely, key punch mistakes. (ii) Where, as an additional check on reliability of the computer program a small sample is selected from the main data and analysed by hand. The purpose of this is to compare the small data and the large sample data for similar results.

In cases of exploratory research and pilot studies. Sample sizes of 10 to 30 are sufficient in these cases. When the research involves in-depth case study, that is, when the study requires methodology such as interview and where enormous amount of qualitative data are forthcoming from each individual respondent.

Table 3: Table for determining minimum returned sample size for a Given Population Size for Continuous and categorical Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population size</th>
<th>Continuous data (margin of error=.03)</th>
<th>Categorical data (margin of error=.05)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alpha = .10, t=1.65</td>
<td>Alpha = .05, t= 1.96</td>
<td>Alpha = .01, t= 2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Accordingly, researchers may use this table if the margin of error shown is appropriate for their study, however, the appropriate sample size must be calculated if these error rates are not appropriate (Bartlett, et al., 2001).

Conclusions

Although it is not unusual for researchers to have different opinions as to how sample size should be calculated, the procedures used in the process should always be reported, allowing the reader to make his or her own judgments as to whether they accept the researcher’s assumptions and procedures. In general, a researcher should use standard factors in determining the sample size. Using adequate sample along with high quality data collection efforts will results in more reliable, valid, and generalizable results, it could also result in time saving and other resources (Bartlett, et al., 2001).

From the foregoing, it appears that determining sample size is not a cut-and-dried procedure. Also the nature of methodology used is a major consideration in selecting sample size (Hill, 1998). Due to problems arising from getting enough respondents and generalization of findings, Gay and Diehl (1992) opined that there is a great deal in the replication of findings. Hill (1998)
suggests replication of findings to mean: (i) increase the subject pool, and (ii) create greater validity for generalizability.

**Recommendation**

Having described the procedures involved in determining sufficient sample size for management survey research activities, the following recommendations are proffer:

Researchers should endeavour to use sufficient sample size in conducting survey research to minimize errors in inference back to the population;

Sample design should be built around the method of sample selection; and

When estimating the variance of a dichotomous (proportional) variable such as gender, researchers should use .50 as an estimate of the population proportion (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970).

**References:**


HIGHER PRODUCTIVITY: A PRECEDENCE FOR ENTREPRENEURAL SUCCESS IN NIGERIA

BY

IBRAHIM B. SARDAUNA
Department of Management Studies,
College of Business and Management Studies
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Nigeria

Abstract:
The prosperity of organizations is recognized as being dependent on their comparative productivity. Productivity entails the ability of firms to produce enough goods and services with less input resources. It is a problem of the Nigerian economy in which the process of governance requires the backing of entrepreneurs to enable government attain economic growth and prosperity. The success of any entrepreneur lies in higher productivity and this can not be divorced from the technique of production adopted by individuals and managers who are involved in the use of resources of economy. This paper presentation takes a look at the strategies for enhancing productivity and its attendant influences on the economy of the nation. Concepts are discussed and conclusion given that an effective and efficient entrepreneurship is attainable in an economy where infrastructural facilities are adequate for accomplishment of objectives.

Introduction
Entrepreneurially, there are connection between the enterprise and its environment due to the type and variety of product produced for the market. There is the need to justify the implementation of untried ideas based on conventional knowledge of how jobs are carried out. Thus, there is a challenge for an enhanced performance which will bring on board competitive advantage by bringing a linkage between customers and products produced through the discovery of a new application for distribution and marketing activities.

In most cases entrepreneurial breakthrough is a product of innovation while the entrepreneur exerts effort towards matching his or her skill with the environmental threat and opportunity (ETOP) bearing in mind his or her strategy.

The capacity to resume risk can be seen as a pre-condition for productivity to be enhanced. The risk taking may be for either the owner of the enterprise or a manager who has the prerogative to take decision on investment portfolios using the resources of the company. Many successes have been recorded by entrepreneurs embracing this method of achieving results.

Entrepreneurial quality has strived on the ability to meet customer demand within the confines of co-ordination of the 5Ms in the organization which include men, machine, money, materials and management. The significant factor to grow production in the firm is the minimization of cost while maximizing the customer’s satisfaction in a perfect competitive market which has been the most recent trend in Nigeria based on privatization deregulation and commercialization.

The inadequacy in the policies to singer the nation’s economic, technological, socio-cultural and political spheres has been anathema to feasible entrepreneurship by the public who are not sensitized.
In this regard, the call is to protect and improve on the present effort of the government of entrepreneurial attainment for higher productivity in the nation’s economy.

**Productivity and Efficiency**

The efficiency with which resources are transformed in the effective delivery of customer services is referred to as productivity according to William (1997). This entails both quantity and quality of the product produced from factories. The goods produced must be of value to give value to efficiency. According to T.J. Hills (1983), while productivity measures the amount of input required to achieve a given output and thus concentrate on that relationship, efficiency shows how well the input resources have been utilized. Thus, it compares the actual output achieved the expected or standard output that should have resulted from the use of the resources involved. Productivity therefore integrates the value of all resources employed as inputs through conversion process to the final output of the product encompassing adequate services for attaining the goals of the organization.

Enhanced productivity achieves more and better services for a similar unit cost and similar quantity and quality of product and services at less unit cost.

In the word of Starr (1989), that the adequacy of industrial productivity accounts for effectiveness and quality in the presence of a competitive market which reflects in the breath of entrepreneurship definition.

Innovative target of entrepreneurs has led to the development of indicators of total factor productivity which include capital, manpower and technology.

As put forward by Amrine (1994) entrepreneurial productivity could increase most frequently from input such as:

i. Better design.
ii. Precise identification of need.
iii. Avoidance of reputable laws, regulations and standards.
iv. Improve technology.
v. Transformation from manpower to capital and technology.
vi. Improve quality raw materials.
vii. Highly trained, equipped and motivated worker.
viii. Better use of manpower, equipment capital.

These inputs are improved upon by grouping and assessing their degree of usefulness in the strategy of the organization.

According to Aderati and Oludimu (1996), productivity measures at a single point in time can be used to compare the efficiency and effectiveness of similar operation in different business. Which indicates that productivity data obtained over time may be used to monitor performance, identity problem areas, established standards for better performance, assess the benefits for
alternative improvement strategies and refine input needs relative to the forecasted demands. In the view of Arowomole and Adegoke (2001), that for customers, productivity data provide a means for holding entrepreneurs accountable for quality product

The needs for the entrepreneur to recognize productivity measures as the only one source of information that must be reviewed in conjunction with the company’s objectives and other existing sources of management data cannot be overemphasized. Based on this, analyzing data of operational changes and policy implementation becomes the pre-requisite for meaningful productivity increases.

**Approaches to Improving Productivity**

There are three basic approaches at which productivity improvement can be made which includes; scientific, technical, and operational. Organizations can avoid themselves of various methods in establishing a broad based productivity improvement programme. The government of the federation has not rested in her efforts through the National productivity centre to muster the executive and legislative commitment to initiate a verse productivity programme. The overall objective is to draw attention to the need for efficiency and effectiveness in the increase of product quality and services. Despite the 1987 designed major objective of national productivity center which ensures stimulating consciousness towards the attainment of higher levels of productivity in all the industrial sectors of the nation’s economy, well prepared programmes could provide more benefits for entrepreneurship development as seen thus:

- Re-allocation of savings
- Increased support by employees
- Shared responsibilities and cost for mutual and beneficial improvements among departments.
- Better designed improvement strategies.
- Synergy.

Enhanced entrepreneurial goal can be achieved through the following key variables:

- Implementation and improvement recommendations and the resilience of the entrepreneurs and depoliticising rejections of technological biased recommendations.
- Deficiency must be acknowledged and to justify result.
- Organisation performance must be monitored.
- Management by objective (all carried along in decision making).
- Ensuring job security (from cradle to grave).
- Determining customer’s need, desired service levels and satisfaction.

Minimizing the extent of strike (trade dispute) through effective communication. Quality is very body’s business in the organisation; hence there must be an understanding that both the entrepreneur and staff have a responsibility for improving productivity. This will have a multiplier effect of productivity gains in technology, human resource and alternative delivery vehicles to customers.
Strategies for Prospective Entrepreneurs

Ventures evolves from the articulate and conscious mind of the entrepreneur with the effort he undertakes a new business which requires watering until the tree bears edible fruit, that is, the optimum target being achieved. In a star-up business, in general five interesting areas of focus can be seen at a glance:

1. Studying the immediate environment to identify unmet market needs.
2. Planning, development and producing a product that meets the market need.
3. Initiating a marketing and financial plan to meet the selected product or service concept.
4. Determining the suitable level of business risk that will be accommodating within the precut of business.
5. Mobilizing the requisite resources to start-up the business. Identifying unmeant market needs. While huge rewards waits

Novel break through ideas, modifying an existing product or service in a way that satisfies unmet market needs of majority of entrepreneurs is not of place. Through understanding of economic, social, demographic, technological and political trends that reshape the environment is a strong factor in identifying unmet market needs. The likelihood of success depends on a new business concept that responds to emerging geographic and social trends

Scan of entrepreneurial preparation throws more light on the choice of product or service to be embraced. According to Bhide (1994) initiative links the firms’ production services to its environment when he proffered that the microvolt, the computer software giant, was created by the entrepreneurial impulse of its founder bill gates. Gate created a powerful, difficult to defeat linkage with his firms’ customers, leaving his competitors in dismay whose focus was strictly geared towards product novelty.

Entrepreneurial strategy can equally be seen in courier method of postal service. The customers need here, was speed which was lacking by the bureaucratic performance of the government managed postal service. The same goes to the global system of communication have taken over NITEL customers. In line with this, Osborne (1995) suggests that start-up entrepreneurs must know in dept not only how their industries work but also what their capabilities are. Hence, a successful venture is a product of evolving a concept of grand innovation or an adaptation to serve a customer’s need. In Nigeria to be specific, many small companies totaling more than 3,000 close shop, annually after existing for fewer than five years.

Entrepreneurial skills, training and relevant prior-experience that has determinative influences on the viability of new business appears to be weak for pursuing entrepreneurial goals in Nigeria and the effort of the government of the day to prepare youths especially in the Niger-Delta and recently in Katsina state where skill acquisition villages are built will be an icing on the cake.

Marketing and Financial Plan

In order to capitalize on the identified opportunity or idea, the entrepreneur must create a marketing and financial plan. In doing this, the entrepreneur will gain control over the needed resources thereby establishing a structure that is appropriate.
According to Herron and Sapienza (1992), state that about one third of start-up entrepreneurs do create a comprehensive marketing and financial plan, those who optimize the use of resources thus, business success. Planning process refines the creativity concept and the strengthening of the entrepreneur’s ability to execute the plan thus integrates variables such as resolve, resources, responses, results. According to Hisrich and Peter (1995). Hence, the most useful start-up plan will focus on a few core success factors rather than a detailed discussion of all the elements that may affect the firm in the industry. In this perfective, the planning process facilitates entrepreneurial impulse rather than a delay.

Suitable Level of Business Risk
The ability to avoid huge gamble and calibrating the level of risk that matches potential reward and personal capacity of managing uncertainty engenders a successful entrepreneur. Hence, start-up entrepreneurs must honestly evaluate their level of training and their appetite for risk taking behavior, and in that light realistically compare these calculations with both rewards and risk represented by the selected entrepreneurial strategy. In the view of Hoffman and Preble (1991), sorting out the suitable level of personal and business risk is a quality usually neglected in the new business process of production.

Acquiring the Financial Resources
The nature of the proposed business determines the requisite financial resources needed. When would the entrepreneur decides to outsource the ventures main function, the necessity of major initial capital investment will be curtailed. In order to start-up a business, the entrepreneur will have to raise fund, either through personal savings, loans or gifts from relatives or banks and other financial institutions including business capitalists or government agencies. The source of money employed by the entrepreneur requires ingenuity and persistence of the entrepreneur. The onus, therefore, is for the business owner to consider the cost of found among many options and in the same vein the pressure, to share control and ownership. According to Kumar and Wallet (1991), review the direct cause of most start-up failures as inadequate capital due to high interest rate in the economy or the dearth of found. Hence, the entrepreneurial strategy succeeds only if initial and subsequently generated revenue is sufficient to carry on the business.

The importance of original business concept quality with the environmental threat and opportunity differentiates entrepreneurial strategy. Notwithstanding, the ability to combine required resources at their rightful proportions and implement the business plan ultimately determines the success or failure of the business venture.

Engendering Entrepreneurial Strategies in Nigeria
Successful entrepreneurs always exhibit a characteristics profile despite notable exceptions, Osborne (1993) notes that entrepreneur, display a strong need for achievement. They seem comfortable with consequences of their activities; their risk taking behaviour seeks to avoid high probability for failure, regardless of rewards. Mostly their businesses are rewarded with financial success. This indicates therefore, money is more of a measure than motivation. Capacity to deal with ambiguity and the need for independent action are some of the frequent characteristics associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. In the light of this, it is advised that potential
entrepreneur should measure himself or herself against this profile before undertaking, individual and professional risks of start-up business venture.

The above notwithstanding, entrepreneurial strategies is the one conceived devoid if past practices which entails welcoming work and method study that is an offshoot of the conceptualization of revolutionary and revolutionary in a specific business environment for entrepreneurial accomplishment.

It is worthy of note that once a business has passed through the growth stage, rules should be developed to improve the entrepreneurs vision. The lackadaisical attitude to change existing practice can affect even the most adventure as the business matures.

In large scale businesses, managers structure their plan towards hierarchical decision process centralized control system and encounter specialized challenges in accomplishing entrepreneurial strategies. There is the need for managers in this category to define their boundaries in both the issue of internal structure, managerial and resource constraints that appear barriers to opportunistic action instead of targeting opportunities external to the company despite the fact that the externalities must be given due recognition to avoid friction. Osborne (1993) solicited that the perceived need for compatibility with existing strategic and operational commitment narrow the range of opportunity in the concern.

Aversion to risk taking in large organization may be due the inherent job loss. This is incompatible with the new environmentally draw strategies in entrepreneurship. In this regard, establishment of management evaluation centre to identify and develop managerial skills to complement technocrat is essential despite the incentive on small and medium industries equity investment scheme by bankers. Equally the ten percent of profit before tax will manifest as structural change in the business environment.

The small scale business must create conditions that foster and reward entrepreneurial behaviour unlike the bureaucratic process that affects organizational maturity in large companies. A well nurtured business enterprise develops in to medium and subsequently large ones. This can be seen in India’s effort where small scale businesses have transformed into a large one. According to Tokede (2001), the positive functioning of small scale industries to India economy is judged from the fact that ninety five percent of total industrial units, forty percent of total industrial output, eighty percent of employment in the industrial sector and thirty five percent of value added by the manufacturing concerns emanates from ventures or industries brought about by the effort of entrepreneurs.

It is not out of place that entrepreneurial strategy is achieved by establishing units in business and enabling the development of management structures that recognizes management by objectives, regardless of rank. Using this approach, successful risk taking is rewarded and the inevitability of mistakes are therefore acknowledged by all concerned. Facilitating entrepreneurial behaviour can be achieved by re-inventing certain business culture. According to Ostgaard and Birley, (1994) opined that reinvented culture attempts to remove boundaries between company and environment which indicates that, customers are expected to
participate indirectly in decision making, since their attitudes and ideas seem to be an extension of the research development parameter.

In line with the above, it is a plus to create interdisciplinary team to connect market focused employees with technical product. Enterprise owners often empower team or group to appropriate organizational resources. Hence, it is not enough for managers to leverage existing business strengths and skills but thirst for acquisition of talents or training staff to develop capabilities that are of relevance to creating and pursuing entrepreneurial strategies effectively.

In a changing environment needing improved technology, the potential entrepreneurs who have been used to centralized or decentralized economic systems must learn to blend along with and select appropriate business and personal risks associated with the trend. In doing this the risk sought should be assisted by studying the profile of successful entrepreneurs which may improve on models that have initially been prepared for future achievement. The entrepreneur must accommodate legal, political and socio-cultural practices.

Indeed, the venture owner must have the prerogative and the resources to start risk bearing actions. The target here is to link the company’s concept with the environmental treat and opportunities discovered and that need to revolve around customers, perception, competitors plan, technology, public policy, social trends and demographic patterns.

Finally, the bedrock of satisfying customer’s needs had wants is the attitude evolved by the entrepreneur in strategizing. A successful business strategy benefits all stakeholders. For example, customer’s life styles are productivity enhanced, new jobs are created and opportunities abound for entrepreneurs who create and re-invest capital for themselves and other participants in the economy. The above not exhausted the government has a role to play through feasible policy of incentive packages like tax holidays and low interest rate on investable found for the would be entrepreneurs to promote and stimulate entrepreneurial success given the sectors of the economy in question.

**Conclusion**

The term productivity denotes the efficiency with which resources are utilized in the delivery of customer’s need effectively. Entrepreneurs strive to meet the need of customers through the use of machine, materials money and management which must be hinged on cost minimization. In improving productivity, the National Productivity Centre has not rested on its efforts to enforce legislation guiding job of work to assist in the improvement of product quality and service. The Standard Organization of Nigerian entrepreneurs and bring about quality and standard that will catapult Nigerian entrepreneurs and their product to lime light and hence competing in the global market. Strategies for start-up business are not far-fetched which are in five areas involving identifying unmet market needs, planning and developing viable level of risk selection, marshalling the needed resources. These areas can be seen as effective strategic approach in achieving higher level of productivity as a precedence achieving entrepreneurial success in Nigeria.
References:
EFFECTIVE HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT AS THE STRATEGY FOR SUSTAINABLE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

BY

OLATUNLE, MATTHEW AYODELE

And

HARUNA, ISMAILA MAIKUJERI
Department of Management Studies,
College of Business and Management Studies,
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Nigeria

Abstract:
Many organization has witness various form of development in form of physical (structural) or qualitative (as it affect human resources) but a lot of these have been base on growth rather than improvement or changes in quality of human resources and even in the physical development or growth has not been sustainable and so there is no continuity and this subsequently affect their operation. The aims of the study were to ascertain the strategic roles of human resources management (HRM) in developing an organization for national development. To achieve this, the study employs the use of secondary data. The study ten makes recommendations as how to achieve sustainable national development through improves favourable organization climate characterized by better employees/executive development and reduce resistance to change.

Introduction
Developing countries aiming to join the ranks of the advanced nation must acquire a capacity for producing sophisticated products and services. High technology products required long-term research, expensive and sophisticated production equipment and precise quality procedures, above all, they required skilled human resources capable of performing effectively in this environment. At the organization level, enterprises need people with appropriate skills, abilities and expertise. These qualities can be bought from outside the organization through recruitment, consultancy and subcontracting, or grown by training and developing existing employees. This paper focuses on the second approach. The strategic choice between buying and growing is made on the basis of cost-effectiveness, urgency of requirement and the need to motivate staff.

Political, cultural and historical elements also influence the decision. Organizations with the internal job market orientation, for example most large German and Japanese companies, have made a practice of growing their own talent. Many organization has witnesses, various form of development in form of physical (structural) or qualitative (as it affects human resources) but a lot of these have been base on growth rather than improvement or changes in quality of human resource. The tragedy is that even the physical development or expansion or growth has net been sustainable and so there is no continuity in the organization’s development thus consequently affects their operation and ultimately leading to closure of business activities, which affect national growth.

Worse still, once there is no sustained human resource development, there cannot be business organization development and no national development since national development is a function

Nation Development (ND) = F (Strategic Human Resources Management (HRM) development, organization and performance, environment).

Furthermore, for business organization to developed and performed profitably there by creating employment and pay their taxes for national development, it must create a positive change in her human resource and it must be sustainable. To this end, the idea of national development should be seen from the perspective of sustainable human resources development. Business organization have always had some, kind of strategy though not necessarily a successful one and have always engaged human labour in order to form a useful purpose, and to pursue desire out comes, organization inevitably rely on the talent of people.

This paper therefore intend to explore ways in which human resource development is strategic to sustainable national development and also examine the goal-setting in HRM for purpose of developing an organization for national development. This paper also attempts to outline the contemporary debate on high-performance work system for sustainability.

Examples of various methods of developing human resources like training, learning and education are stressed. Strategic foe effective HRM are advance. If the vision 20.20.20 of becoming one of the largest economy in the world is to be achieved and the federal government re-branding project is to achieve any meaningful result, self development, training programme and career progression to meet the nation’s future needs of advance technology must be a prime approach to national development. Investment in human resources skills needs must be effectively and efficient pursued.

Conceptual Framework and literature:
Before defining HRM, it seems pertinent to first define the term human resources. In common parlance, human resource means the people. However, different management experts have defined human resources differently. For example, Michael (1980) defined Human Resource (HR) as “whole consisting of inter-related, inter-dependent and interacting physiological, psychological, sociological and ethical components”. According to Leon (2001) from national point of view, HR are knowledge, skills creative abilities, talents and attitude obtained in the population, whereas from the view point of the individual enterprise, they represent the total of the inherent abilities, acquired knowledge and skills as exemplified in the talents and aptitude of its employees”.

Human Resources (HR) can also considered as a human capital and can further be classified into three categories:- Intellectual capital, social capital and emotional capital. Intellectual capital consists of specialized knowledge, tacit knowledge and skills, cognitive complexity, and learning capacity. Social capital is made up of network of relationships, sociability, and trust worthiness.

Emotional capital consists of self confidence, ambition and courage, risk-bearing ability, and resilience. Now it is clear from above definition that HR refers to the qualitative and quantitative
aspects of employees work in organization and this is important in including us into the understanding of the framework of human resources development (HRD) for sustainable national development.

In simple words, human resource development (HRD) is a strategic approach to investing in human capital. It draws on other HR processes, including resourcing and performance assessment to identify actual and potential talent. HRD provides a framework for self development, training programmes and career progression to meet an organization future skill requirement. According to Becker, (2001) human resource development HRD has its roots in the early organization development interventions of the 1940s, but the term was first used by Nadler in 2002. Nadler described HRD as organized learning experiences provided by employers, within a specified period of time, to bring about the possibility of performance improvement and/or personal growth.

What is the Relationship between Human Resource Development (HRD) and Training? The two terms are sometimes used to mean the same. However, Goss (1994) observes that they are regarded often as mutually exclusive activities. He attributes this to the hierarchical nature of most organization in which training is something done to lower-lever workers where development is a process experience by the executives-hence management development.

This approach is incompatible with the central principles of human resources management, which hold that all employees are asset, whose competencies need to be developed. According to Hendry (1995): “increasing, we are getting away from two divisive notions that executive are developed” while shop flour are merely trained “it is appropriate therefore, to regard training as an integral aspect HRD.

**Effective Human Resources Development**

Organization development programme literally is development that is enduring. It is the ability of the organization to enjoy tomorrow what the organization enjoy today. It is the ability to plan to maintain human resource flow to support development needs of the organization. It is a way organization strives to keep surviving and discharge its function on continuous basic despite any environmental constraints. It can be seen as a ways to maintain its capacity adequate enough to deal with inputs from the environment.

There are three primary perspective of HRD viz: the (i) Training (ii) development and (iii) Education.

The training is the process of teaching the new and or present employees the basic skills; they need to effectively perform their jobs. Thus, training refers to the teaching and learning activities carries on for the primary purpose of helping members of an organization to acquire and also to apply the require knowledge, skills and attitude to perform their jobs effectively.
According to Flippo (2001) “training is the act of increasing the knowledge and skills of an employees for doing a particular job” while Armstrong (2000) posits that “training is the systematic modification of behaviour through learning which occurs as a result of education, institution, development and planned experience.

In the opinion of Michael, J (2001) training is any process by which the attitude, skills and abilities of employees to perform specific jobs are improved.

Thus, it can be concluded that training is a process that tries to improve skills or add to the existing level of knowledge so that the employee is better equipped to do his present job or to mould him to be fit for a higher jobs involving higher responsibilities. In other words, training is a learning experience that seeks a relatively permanent change in an individual that will improve his/her ability to perform his job.

**The Need for Human Resource Development**

Perhaps a good starting point for examining the relevance of human resources development is to ask the question why the need for human resource development? Every organization provides for training and development of its employees for a number of reasons which according to Banjoko (2006) include:

- To remove performance deficiency
- To match the employees abilities with the job requirements and organizational needs
- To enhance organization viability and transformation process
- To reduce cost of production and minimize waste
- To increase productivity and efficiency in the organization.

The realization of the above mentioned training and development needs in the organization. Undoubtedly translate to efficiency and the effectiveness of the national workforce which invariably constitute the mainstay of sustainable national development.

**Areas of Training**

**Knowledge:** training aiming at imparting knowledge to employees provide for facts, information and principles related to his/her job. In general, training imparted in the knowledge area considers three aspects namely: job context, job content and quality of work.

**Teaching skills:** the training in this area aims at teaching the employees the physical act or actions like operating a machine, working with a computer, using mathematical tools to take decisions etc. it is somewhat like induction training.

**Social skills:** the training in this area in broader is scope embracing many aspects. This category of training aims at the development of individuals and team work.

**Techniques:** training in this area involves teaching employees the manner how to apply knowledge and skills to dynamic situation.

**Attitude:** this involves orientation or induction programme that help change the employees attitude favourable toward the achievement of the organizational goals. Through training programmes, employees attitude are molded together to render support for the effective
completion of company activity and inculcate the spirit of better co-operation and greater loyalty among the employees.

**Experience:** is not and cannot be taught or imported in the classroom. It is gained putting knowledge, skills, techniques and attitude into the use over a period of time in difference work situation. Experience makes one perfect.

**Development**
Development will be seen as any learning activity which is directed towards future needs rather than present needs and which is concerned more with career growth than immediate performance. The focus of development tends to be primarily on an organization’s future manpower requirement and seriously on the growth need of individuals in the workplace. Example of development needs might be the need for manager to be able to utilize the facilities offered by micro computers in the operation of the business, the need for replacing senior staff with potential candidates from within the organization and need for preparing employees to accept change.

**Education**
Education plays a key role in causing and potentially, curing institutional discrimination in advance countries. As early as the 15th century, the sociologist Weber held that people should be promoted solely on the basic of relevant qualification. He proposed this condition in order to overcome the nepotism and patronage that prevailed in the public and private sector. Since then qualification have become significant, it not essential, requirement for successful career. The focus of education is primarily on individual and his or her needs and secondly on the community as a whole, i.e. on society’s needs. Society’s needs can include the need for respect of law and order, the need for variety of talents to sustain economic activities and the need to protect itself from external oppression Khanka (2007).

The following are highlight of principal elements of HRD:

- Effective resourcing, induction and development of high-quality people
- Identification and improvement of skills and motivation among existing and longer serving employees
- Regular job analysis in relation to organizational objective and individual skills
- Reviewing the sue of technology in particular in replacing routine tasks
- Performance management and assessment through identification of key tasks
- A focus on skills and general abilities rather than paper qualification
- Training need identification
- Provision of training programme to improve current performance and support career development
- Helping people to manage their own careers.
- Encouraging the acceptance of change as normal and an opportunity.

Systematic human resource development maximizes the human capital of an organization, devoting time, money and thought to improve the pool of essential competence among its staff. It
has general impact on business performance by enhancing product knowledge and service expertise. HRD emphasizes people as people than numbers and motivates staff, drawing on their talents and demonstrating that they are valued by the organization. It is also claimed to empower staff, allowing individuals to take a measure of control of their own careers and develop life pattern that offer increase opportunity and satisfaction.

**Executive Developments**

Executive, manager run organization. It is executive who plan, organize, direct and control the resources and activities in every organization. An organization is like a vehicle of which managers are drivers. Without competent executive, other valuable resources such as men, material, vehicle, money, technology and other remain of not much significance for the organization. Thus, manager is a vital cog in the success of any organization. That is why executive development has become indispensable to modern organizations. The importance of executive development is appreciate in more in the succeeding paragraph.

Change in organization has become sine qua non with rapid changes in the total environment. An executive, therefore, requires to be imparted training to abreast of and cope with ongoing changes in his / her organization. Otherwise, the manager becomes obsolete. In this context, dale Yoder (2002) views that “without training, the executive lose their punch and drive and they die on the vine. Training and development the only ways of overcoming the executive dropouts.

Given the knowledge as am labour management relations are becoming increasingly complex. In such situation, executive not only need job skills but also behavioural skills in union negotiation, collective agreement, grievance redresses etc. these skills are learned through training and developments.

Trained executive/ manager are vital to the economic development of a country particularly developing nations like Nigeria. This business of executive training and development has been on the crucial, essential end, same time one of the most difficult elements in providing continuity and efficient management for national development.

As regards to management development, the renowned behaviourial scientist Peter Ducker (2000) opines that an institution or nation that can not produce its own employees / manager will die. From an overall point of view, the ability of an organization to produce manager is more important than its ability to produce goods efficiently and cheaply. In short, the importance of executive / management development in an organization can best be put as anything minus management development in an organization amount to nothing.

**Training and Development Methods**

Training methods are means of attaining desired objectives set for a training programme. In practice, a variety of training methods are employed for achieving these objectives. But, an organization cannot use all types of training methods for the reason like cost involved and also their relevance to organizational needs. Hence, organization needs to select a method or mix of methods to meet its training needs. The choice of training methods would depend on a variety of
factors, such as purpose of training, nature of contents, relevance to the participants, level of trainees, competence of trainers/instructors, cost, etc.

Depending on the training results and the process employed to attain these, the various training methods can be broadly categorized into four groups as under;

- On the job oriented training methods
- Simulation methods
- Knowledge-based methods
- Experience methods

The study now describes these one after the other.

**On the Job Training Methods.** As the name itself denotes, methods included in this cluster are those whose main objectives are centered on the job, i.e. learning on the job itself by a variety of methods. The main methods which fall into this category are discussed here under:

**On the job training (OJT):** on the job training is probably the most common approach to training which can range from relatively unsophisticated “observe and copy” method to highly structured courses. In this method, the new employee is placed on a job and taught the skills necessary to perform it.

**Job instruction training (JIT).** In this method, a trainer or supervisor gives instructions to an employee how to perform his job. This method of training is appreciated for acquisition or improvement of motor skills and routine and repetitive operations. There are four steps involved in this form of training.

Preparation; presentation; performance; follow up; coaching and job rotation.

**Simulation Methods:** simulation is a technique which duplicates, as nearly as possible, the actual conditions encountered on a job. These methods have been most widely used in the aeronautical industry. The methods falling under this category are discussed as follows:

- Role play; case method; management games; in-basket exercise and vestibule training.

**Knowledge base method:** in this method, an attempt is made to impart employees knowledge in any subject area covering the aspects like its concepts and theories, basic principles and pure and applied knowing of the subject. The common methods that fall into this category are described here under

- Lectures; conferences/seminars; and programmed instructions.

**Experiential Methods:** the objective of these methods is to help an individual understand oneself and others. This is done through attitudinal change. Such understanding helps an individual understand the dynamics of human relationships in a work situation, including at times his managerial style. Some of the methods used for this purpose are sensitivity training and transactional analysis.

**Human Resources Development and Organization Viability**

The most critical challenges, that organization faces is that of becoming viable in its chosen market. Unless the organization has the savoir faire to compete in its chosen market, it is not going to be taken seriously by potential customers and investor. Another way of putting this is to say that all organization require “table stages “a stage of goals, resources and capable people through human training and development that are appropriate to the sector concerned. Hamel, G. (1999). Decision about these table stages is strategic. They are make or break factors. Get the
system of these choices right or right enough and the organization will be viable. Miss a key piece out the organization will fail. In other world, when the word “strategic” is used to describe something, it is survival, it is seriously consequential. Common sense, view that the word strategic should indicate something of genuine significance for the future of the organization. For organization to be credible at all, it must have that same kinds of technology as other competitors, smaller profile of product or services, the necessary level of funding, system of internal control, skilled staff who can make it happen “with the gear” on the day and a management team who assemble these resources and focus the organization’s energies on objectives that will satisfy its investors. Without an effective cluster of goal, resources and human capabilities, it is over before it starts.

A model is developed here to highlight the relationship among resources that have to be managed, fundamentally, the model highlight there is o viability without capable people. Appropriate for the human are strategic to the success of every organization. It is only people that pose the question, what goals are appropriate for the business and what resources are relevant to our goals? And take interest in making the answer a reality. Also highlight the fact that the three elements of goal, people and their resources are interacted over time while founding leaders are the first to develop goals for the organization.

Becker, B (2001), the sort of identity an organization acquire, and the sort of objectives it pursues. Will attract people to it and repel others from it.

**Model:** the three critical elements for viability of an organization

Source: John, 2007. Strategy and HRM
How to Achieve Effective HRD for Sustainability

Human resources development programme and methods have become unsuccessful for the following factors:

- Coaching
- Cost
- Individual disinterest
- Weak links between training and performance

These factors actually transform into the condition necessary for sustainable development. Policies, method/techniques will become successful if there is top management commitment. Specifically, the prerequisites for effective human resources development are people orientation, personnel skill, persuasion influence, leadership, persistence in goal achievement, consistence under pressure, creative resources management.

Priority and objective-setting planning and organization and decision making

People Orientation: promote team working and cooperation. Taken other interest and views fully into account. Support and enable employees to achieve their objectives. Manager in an open manner, establishing good relationship with range of staff.

Personal Skills: Compromising (a) communication and (b) Interpersonal skills.

Persuasion/Influence: Ability to influence people and. Persuades people to accept and implement controversial decision. Assist others to see issues in a wider context

Leadership: Takes control and manages a situation. Draws on strength and weakness of other. Act as catalyst giving direction and energy to, learn. Gives clear instruction.

Persistence in Goal Achievement: Organization should remain focused and willing to confront difficult issues with energy to resolve them. Employees should accept the organization’s goal and show high level of personnel commitment continuous to pursue goal despite setbacks.

Consistency under Pressure: Organization should accepts pressure and always meet deadlines organization to keep sense of humor and resilience, organization should remain accessible to staff.

Creative resource Management: Organization should think independently and have original ideas. Organization should find entrepreneurial solution but recognize organizational culture organization should manage creatively in crisis. Creative use of budget/cost enables achievement of goals. Organization should response to shifting priorities by changing use of resources for sustainability.

Priority and Objective Setting: Organization to set clear priority. Recognize implication of priorities for Organization and staff.
Planning and organization: Think ahead and plans practical actions to achieve objectives. Recognizes needs and take action to meet them, ensure staffs are aware of and pursuing plans.

Decision Making: Organization should make good decision without unnecessary consultation or delay, recognizing where further information/support is necessary. Recognize implication of decision for long term goals. Willing to make unpopular decisions if necessary.

Conclusion:
To this end, it is incontrovertible the fact that human resources development, especially in this modern world of work enhances Organizational growth and national development. The aforesaid methods combined lead to an improved and favorable Organization climate characteristics by better employers/executive development. Better industrial relations and discipline, reduce resistance to change, reduce absenteeism and turnover of employee and improve stability of Organization.

There is no doubting the fact that the human resource development perspective is an important set of spectacles for sustainable national development. Development people in an Organization are not ends in themselves but are useful when they create value markets and have positive impact on national development. Human Resources Development should be viewed therefore as an integral part of the total quality management for sustainable national development.

Reference:
MOTIVATION THEORIES, PROFESSIONAL MANAGER AND EMPLOYEE PRODUCTIVITY

BY

ABDULHAMEED A. YAHAYA
Department of Management Studies
College of Business and Management Studies
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Nigeria

Abstract:
In management studies it is revealed that theory without practice is meaningless and practice without theory is blind. People work because they are motivated to. Therefore, motivation is viewed as most popular and important in management of workers all over the world. Are the various motivational theories relevant in today’s organizations practice? This paper intended to find out that and come out with the outcome of, motivation practices on organizational performance. Some researchers were covered on the literature of motivation theories. Primary source of data collections was all so used by administering questionnaire to find out the perception of motivation factors and their impact on productivity of employees using three organizations as sample. Organization all over the world are concerned whit that should be done to achieve their goals by using people and that process is motivation. With relevant and adequate motivation of employees, performance and consequently productivity will always rise up. It is recommended that any organization must use dynamic motivational polities in order to obtain and retain the best workers that can deliver at any given time and situations.

Background of the Study
The knowledge of theory is useful in understanding the historical context of management and influencing the way organizations are managed. However, varieties of theories have resulted in much confusion and chaos as to what management theory should be used in modern organization. Does this mean management theory has no relevance in modern organizations?. This paper intends to bring out the relevance of theories if any. One of the management theories is one on motivation concept.

Motivation is the act of providing encouragement either as a result or a means to a result. It can also be defined as a positive acknowledgement of a task or a plan. The former definition state the fact that a staff can be motivated when we want him to put up a good job: it also says that motivation can be used as a reward of a job well done. Whichever way, motivation of whatever sort radiates encouraging action from motivator as an acceptance of the deeds of the motivated. In other words according to Straus an Sayles (1985) motivator can be pre-established ever before a job is done. Motivation is a strategy used staff would put all their efforts we need towards achieving our objectives.

Nwachukwu, (1988) explained that motivation is an internal psychological process whose presence or absence is inferred from observed performance. He added that motivation is an energizing force that induces or compels and maintain behaviour.
Motivation Theories
Motivation involves triggering needs in a way that will arouse effort and direct behaviour. The problem of motivation according to Ille (2001) has for a long time occupied the minds of management theories, and writers. Researchers have sought to explain how and why people are activated to behave as they do and why they can be made to behave in a manner supportive of organization’s goals. It is popularly stated in management that theory without practice is meaningless and that practice without theory is blind.

Motivation theories can be subdivided into two types: The content and the process theories. The content theories are those that explain the ‘Need’ theory of employees. They assume that all employees have same type of needs and that needs can be prioritized to all. These theories are non-cognitive in nature.

Tamkin, Baber, and Hirsh (995) wrote that content theories of motivation identify the needs that employees might seek. He further explained that process theories on the other hand explain the process by which behaviour is aroused and then directed. These are cognitive. All motivation theories are culture bound to some degree. There are however some limitations to the efficacy of these theories.

Abraham Maslow (1954) is the architect of all content theories. Abraham put it that employees are motivated by five basic needs which he arranged hierarchically starting from physiological needs to safety, belongings, (esteem) growth and needs like self actualization. Yahaya (1994) also pointed out that Alderfer compounded the five hierarchical needs to three – The ERG – 3 way system – Existence, Relationship and Growth, which we linked with Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs.

These are needs for Existence moves with the two major needs, in Maslows theory, the physiological and safety, Relationship of Alderfer goes for Maslow’s esteem and self-Actualization ranks.

Herzberg (1953) as cited by Armstrong broke same needs theory to two factors the hygiene and motivators i.e. the Hygiene factor which are pays; while working conditions, challenges, and responsibilities can cause satisfaction and thus motivation. The limitations to the content theories are the assumption that all employees have same needs. Some culture like early marriages brings the belongingness rank to next after the hierarchical needs. Some people and employees will after the first rank ‘need’ jump to the fifth the highest rank through embezzlement or criminal operations. Not all staff aspire to the highest level due to background or natural attitudes. This then teachers that motivators should be able to identify which type of motivation tool can particular work(s) before using the type motivation tool for him.
Fist of the process theories is the Equity theory which states that motivation is a function of comparisons we make with others. Adams as cited by Ile, (2002) says that equity theory added that is about comparing pairs of input/outcome ratios. If the ratio are balanced employees are motivated, if not they are demotivated. Employee believes that what they get back from employees as their output should be commensurate with their own input, their labour. Payment to individual employees according to ranks and contributions/productivity on basic and variable pays should also be seen as justifiable. Equitability in rewards demands that there should be no discrimination in whatsoever means on employee appraisal and hence the rewards. Another theory the Reinforcement theory is a way using consequences.

Desirable behaviours can be strengthened by reinforcing it with praises in writing or orally, recognition or award. Tamkin, Barder, and Hirsh (1995) stressed that managers have four options to choose; Positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction and/or punishment. Positive reinforcement is generally the most desirable option and a variety of partial reinforcement strategies are available for implementation purposes. In 1997 one of the divisions
of a multinational companies paid thrice of all workers salaries in December as employees rewards for the company high performance (profit) in that year, a reinforcement method of motivation (Yahaya, 1994).

Goal setting theory another process theory was developed by Lathan and Locke (1979) and states that motivation and performance are higher when individuals are set specific goals, when goals are difficult but accepted and when there is a feedback on performance. Participation in goal setting is important as a means of getting agreement to the setting of higher goals. Difficult goals must be agreed and their achievement reinforced by guidance and advice. Feedback is vital in maintaining motivation particularly towards the achievement of the goals. When there is through feedback on supervision towards the achieving goals, it is then possible to even achieve then the set goals.

It is relevant that managers must make sure that the set goal/target is clear to the employee and the process should be made participative with the employees. The reward for achieving the target must be stated whether it is intrinsic or extrinsic or both types of rewards. Above all for the goal setting to be motivating, it should be achievable (Porter and Lawler, 1978).

Another cognitive theory is the Expectancy theory, compounded by Victor Vroom (1964) which says that except employees are sure that their effort will lead to performance and performance will be rewarded (expectancy) they may not be motivated. Will there be conducive environment and the necessary tools than can be used for the efforts to give the performance? Employees will also measure up the value (valence) of the reward promised by managers before the given job can be motivating (Ile, 2000).

Process theories are not free some limitations when managers applied them practically. Equity theory for example did not explain the human errors through bias in measuring employees’ performances. This error can distort the equitability on payment between individuals, and as soon as employees discover this they can reduce their inputs or change jobs. Reinforcement strategies can be effective only if they are justifiably applied. Target achievements may not be possible if both environments, equipments are not adequate. Same things go for the expectancy theory.

The Laws of Motivation

Yesufu (1978) as cited by Yahaya (1994) stressed the nine source or laws upon which motivation can exist. First, a professional manager-supervisor of whatever level is responsible for identifying motivational factors of his employees and giving them appropriately; he himself (manager) must be motivated to do that job meaning that motivator must be motivated first. Secondly, there must be a goal or objective for motivation to be effected. Next, motivation is always in two stages-stage of setting goals and stage of attaining the goals. If set goal is not attainable, that is a demotivator.

Motivation is never last, once an objective is met and reward is given, a worker soon feels he wants something more. When a need is no longer felt as a necessary need is has seized to be a motivator. Recognition in one of basic requirement for motivation. It is when an an achievement
is recognized by the organization and or by general public that the achievement is motivating. Participation in a good of elevated group is a very stimulating method of motivation. For any worker to be motivated he should be able to observe own personal progress in his work life e.g. personal materials and promotion. Some worker like to be given challenges and lack of it may demotivate them according to McGregor theories X and Y of 1957, lastly group identification is a source of motivation. Every normal employee wants to be identified with successful group like blue chip companies or reputable success organizations.

Application of Motivation Theories
Ocho, (1984) argued that organizational theories developed in Europe and America to explain organizational behavior in Europe and American cultures can never work for Nigerian workers on their organizational attitudes and behaviour. He believed that the Nigerian culture and environment will make the difference. He added the it was better that Nigerian elites should propound theories to fit into Nigeria characteristics. However, a study conducted by Eze, (1988) on ethic group and work motivation revealed that there was no difference between European and Nigeria managers in the level of needs in a structured Nigeria work environment. He therefore, maintained that the motivational theories are relevant in Nigeria. The aim of these theories is to develop motivation process and work environment that will help to ensure that individuals deliver result.

All organizations all over the world are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high levels of performance through people. This is about giving close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through such means as incentives, rewards, leadership and importantly the work they do. Armstrong (2007) further explained that motivation theory examine the process of motivation, these theories can therefore be applied towards organizations achievement by the managers.

Motivation as a Professional Duty for Human Capital Managers
Hayes Committee (1972) defined professional work as work done by specialists with experience rather than by impromptu reaction to events or the application of laid down procedures. Motivation is one of the basic functions of Human Capital Management. The specialists in the HC department are responsible for laying down all motivational guidenes for the organization. They also assess the results that are attained through the motivational by appraising the costs against the additional rate of performance achieved through the motivated workers. The department also organizes training workshops higher. In addition all managers and supervisors at all levels are trained by the specialist department on how to appraise employee’s appropriately and reward them justifiably both extrinsically and intrinsically. Let us use banking industry as a case study for motivational activities.

In recent time Nigeria banks had used fat pay structures to woo the best among our graduates. The fat basic pays (extrinsic factors) was used competitively among the banks. Internally, each bank adopted performance recognition (intrinsic factors) by placing pictures of best performing worker in their banking halls monthly; and gave opportunity of training to enhance their performance and skill development. The other major extrinsic factors used are staff car, loan,
housing allowances and decent working environment. All these led to employees’ commitment to work for very long hours.

**Data Discussion and Analysis**

This study used primary source of data to be able to establish the impact of motivation on organizational productivity. 340 questionnaires were served to employees of Conoil, Beniue Cement Company and Afribank, 310 questionnaires was correctly completed and submitted. First, the paper sought to know which of the motivational would move employees to perform best. Indices used on questionnaire were pay package, working equipments, training and other motivational benefits. Results are as follows:

Table 1: Causes of High Productivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes of High Productivity</th>
<th>No. of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay package</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working equipment</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other motivation benefits</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>310</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey, 2010*

Above table shows that 48% of respondents pointed to training as best factor that can cause higher productivity. Training gives confidence in skill and source for development. Other motivational tools do not necessarily lead to better performance/productivity as training. The above result was cross-examined with question training impact on employees’ productivity,

Table 2: Effects of Training on Employees’ Productivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>No. of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substantial</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Effectives</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>210</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey, 2010*

We could deduct from above table the 146 respondents which represents 47% opined that training of employees is very effective on employees’ productivity. We further decided to test these deductions through an analytical method using Chi-square.

Thus, hypothesis is as follow:

$H_0$: Motivation through training has not made any significant impact on the perception of employee productivity.
$\text{H}_1$ motivation through training has made significant impact on the perception of employee productivity.

We use chi-square formula to test hypothesis, thus:

**Chi-Square Tests**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of training on employees productivity / Effectiveness of training on employee.</th>
<th>To very great extent</th>
<th>To great extent</th>
<th>Just average</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Effective Expected</td>
<td>10 (24.6)</td>
<td>5 (12.4)</td>
<td>21 (13.3)</td>
<td>23 (8.8)</td>
<td>59 (59.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substantial Expected</td>
<td>10 (24.6)</td>
<td>5 (12.4)</td>
<td>21 (13.3)</td>
<td>23 (8.8)</td>
<td>59 (59.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Expected</td>
<td>37 (30.0)</td>
<td>20 (15.1)</td>
<td>15 (16.3)</td>
<td>0 (10.7)</td>
<td>72 (72.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nil Expected</td>
<td>72 (49.9)</td>
<td>35 (25.2)</td>
<td>13 (27.1)</td>
<td>0 (17.8)</td>
<td>120 (120.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Expected</td>
<td>129 (129.0)</td>
<td>65 (65.0)</td>
<td>70 (70.0)</td>
<td>46 (46.0)</td>
<td>310 (310)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Value d.f Sign (2-sided)

Pearson’s Chi-Square 134.003 9 .000

Decision Rule: Reject Ho if sig-value is less the $a=0.05$ and do not reject if otherwise.

**Result:** We observed that sig-value 0.000 is less the $a = 0.05$ we reject Ho. And accept $H_1$. We therefore, conclude the Motivation through training has made significant impact on the perception of employee productivity. This is because purposeful skill training and orientation, and training on work attitudes have all led to higher productivity of the workers.

**Conclusion**

There are various ways motivating employees, these ways have been captioned by various motivation theories propounded by management scholars. The most notable theories on motivation, the content and process types are used in organizations worldwide.

A basic law of motivator reveals that the motivators must also be motivated. All managers and supervisors that are responsible for subordinates are expected to be motivators. They deal more on intrinsic motivation because they are directly responsible for their employees job performance appraisal and thus recommend for these employees promotion or otherwise that translate to reward that must be given to them.
Human capital department in any organization is responsible for designing its motivation policies which should be competitive to other organizations especially within the business sector/industry. The same department should be in charge of training all managers including directors and the supervisors on how to implement the organization’s motivation policies at the various levels.

It was found in this study that most effective motivation tool is training as it appeals to the trainees, enhances his skill and leads to his development on the job.

Appropriate motivations tools both extrinsic and mostly intrinsic types lead to employees’ high performance/productivity.

**Recommendations**
Most expected motivators (managers and supervisors) may not be conversant on how to employ the motivational tools on their subordinates, they need to be trained. What makes employee motivation to be worthwhile is that he benefits (tools) need for motivation should be implemented on employees equitably. The motivation policies should also be competitive.

Human Capital department should have a unit which will always conduct pay survey in its industry and decide to either leader or matcher but not a laggard in all respects of motivation tools.

Employees desires for working are dynamic so motivational tools used by organizations must be dynamic. If competitors resort to extrinsic rewards on their upper policies, then an organization especially in the same industry must follow suit.

A new way of motivating worker is by using the Quality of work Life (QWL) concept. This is the way of getting concerned about how employees progress personally along with the organization. Adequate preparation for workers’ retirement and pension life should also be paramount.

**References**
THE RELEVANCE OF SALES PROMOTIONAL ACTIVITIES ON CONSUMERS BUYING DECISIONS (A STUDY OF SOME SELECTED CONSUMERS IN BIDA TOWN)

BY

MOHAMMED, ABUBAKAR NDALIMAN
Department of Business Administration and Management,
Federal Polytechnic Bida,
Niger State, Nigeria

And

ALKALI, LARAI FATI (MBA, BSc)
Department of Business Administration and Management,
College of Administrative and Business Studies,
Niger State Polytechnic, Zungeru,
Niger State, Nigeria

Abstract:
The main concern of this study is on sales promotional activities used in enhancing buyers decision. Looking at the varieties of businesses/sales person within the society one will wonder what motivates products purchases among the consumers in bida town. The major objective of the study is to determine whether sales promotional activities will actually influence purchase by the consumers in bida. Both primary and secondary data will be used to generate information’s on this study. However, questionnaire method will be specifically used to extract information from the consumers. One of the major findings this study shows that consumers because of their educational attainment purchase products/services based on sales promotional activities run by businesses. The researcher however recommends that series of sales promotional activities should be used to stimulate more and rapid buying.

Introduction
The Ultimate purpose of production is consumption. Consumption is an important economic undertaking that could means the total expenditure in an economy on goods and services that are used-up within a specified period of time, usually a year. This expenditure includes spending on raw materials, labour etc in production processes. Consumption also represent the actual physical process of using a good and services; for example, a consumer that consumes the service of a bed by sleeping on it; the services of a house by living in it; and the service of a pair of soccer boot by wearing them (Bannock, 1978). Promotion therefore facilitates these consumptions. Businessmen/Salesmen in the face of imperfect competition can only achieve there objective through differentiation. This allows business to identify their products or services by giving it some distinctions. It is often at times aimed at creating a preference among consumers and users to seek patronage. A number of approaches are used by businessmen in differentiating their products to gain consumers patronage. Some of them includes: (a) Physical differentiation, (b) Psychological differentiation through communication, (c) Differentiation in the purchase environment, (d) Differentiation by virtue of physical distribution capability etc. (Staudt et al 1976).
To increase the relevance of sales promotional activities on consumer buying decision, Ammer and Ammer (1977) observed that: “Nothing sells itself, not even the most vulnerable and tantalizing of all commodities or products such as sex. It has to be embellished, elaborated, amplified, enriched, perfumed, styled, corseted, colored and cosmeticized” for it to get the necessary appeal to consumers to influence their decision of buying. Also, (Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Bergh 2001) also agreed that “sale promotional activities should be aimed to deliver messages that will assist in promoting business products as a whole”. Based on the foregoing, the study strictly examines sales promotional activities and its resultant impact on consumers buying decision.

**Meaning of Promotion/Sales Promotion**

(Ammer & Ammer 1977, Brassington & Pettit 2000), define promotion as the overall activity furthering or advancement of a business particularly through increasing the sales of products or services. The statement: “Nothing happens until somebody sells something” express succinctly the place of promotional activities in today modern business operations and buying decisions. He notes that the primary concern of promotion is therefore to bring about exchange. Stanton (1978) also sees promotion as the design and management of a marketing subsystem for the purpose of informing and persuading, present and potential buyers or consumers to purchase the products. Promotion therefore is a key element in marketing strategy. While, sales promotion being one of the important methods of products/service promotion also plays a vital role in the marketing of a product in order to have voluminous sales that may positively or negatively influence consumers buying behavior.

Unlike promotion, they again affirm that that sales promotion represents any of several specific activities such as store-signs and displays, booklets and leaflets, premium offers and catalogues etc. Such efforts tend to be custom-tailored to particular selling situations and complement large-scale general advertising and personal selling. Kotler (2001) likewise sees sales promotion as a programme consisting of a diverse collection of incentive tools, mostly short-term, designed to stimulate quicker or greater purchase of particular products or service by consumers or the trade.

In another perspective, both (Schiffman, 1997 and Brassington & Pettit 2000) also sees sales promotion as an activity undertaken to gain favorable reply or response from the evidence or a set of potential buyers and purchases made by the audience as the desired response. To them, it shape the perception of the product and the producing organization by creating awareness, providing information, arousing interest, producing favorable attitudes aimed at reinforcing the purchasing behavior. These confirm why Hart and Stapleton (1981) describe sales promotion to be any non-face to face activity concerned with the promotion on sales of particular products.

This definition presupposes the author’s opinion of sales promotion as below the line of advertising function, which does not allow for payment of commission to be made to the agency. To further buttress the usefulness of sale promotion, Kotler (2001), referred it to be a special way or technique adopted by marketers to continuously stimulate immediate purchase through the use of premiums, coupons, trading stamps, price offs etc. It shows therefore from the above that sales promotion is the most important promotional tool used today by most industries to create awareness reminds customer and father stimulate immediate buying behaviour.
It is in the light of the above different perspectives, “American marketing association” sums the intentions of the various authors on sales promotion as: “Media and non-media marketing pressure applied for a predetermined, limited period of time at the level of consumer, retailer, or wholesaler in order to stimulate trial, increase consumer demand and/or improves products availability (Belch, 1995)”

Factors to Consider in Developing Sales Promotional Activities
Colley (1961) argued that developing any sales promotion programme must put certain factors into consideration such as: setting objectives, selection of the right sales promotion tools, developing of the best sales program, pre-testing/implementation of objective, and finally evaluation of the results. These are further discussed below:

1. Setting sales promotion objectives
Generally, sales promotion objectives vary widely. For instance, seller at times may use consumer promotion to increase short-term sales or help build long-term market share. Objectives setting therefore helps in enticing consumers to try a new product, lure consumers away from competitor’s products, get consumer’s to “load up” on a mature product, or hold and reward local customers. Objectives settings are expected to be measurable specify the level of increase, state the main targets, and whether increased sales are expected to come from new consumers or from current consumers who are loading up or bringing forward their purchase.

2. Selecting sales promotion tools
There are many sales promotion tools that can be used to accomplish sales promotion objectives. In choosing a sales promotion tool, the promotion planner should consider the type of market, the sales promotion objectives, the competition and the cost-effectiveness of each tool as described below:

   - **Consumer promotion tools:** This are the main consumer promotion tools and includes samples coupons, cash refunds price packs, premium, advertising specialties, patronage rewards, point-of-purchase display and demonstrations, and contests, sweepstakes and games.

   - **Trade promotion tools:** These are the type of promotion tool that can persuade retailers or wholesalers to carry a brand, give it shelf spaces, promote it in advertising and push it to consumers.

   - **Business promotional tools:** This is a business promotion tool used to generate business leads, stimulates purchases, reward customers and motivates salespeople. Examples of this type of tool are conventions, trade shows and sales contests.

3. Developing the sales promotion programme
This is an objective that ensures marketers make several other decisions to help define the full sales promotion programme. In ensuring this, decision regarding creative idea and the mechanics of the promotion are made to add some value to the product. A certain minimum incentives are necessary if the promotion is to succeed and might be offered to everyone or only to selected
groups meeting the set conditions for participation. Also, a plan on how to promote and distribute the promotion programme should be put in place pulling into consideration the length of promotion and the sales promotion budget.

4. Pre-testing and Implementation objective
Pre-testing is an objective that tends to find out whether the sales promotion tools employed are appropriate and of the right incentive size. In addition to pre-testing, Implementation plan for each promotion tools should be put in place to cover the lead-time and self-off time. While, lead time is the necessary time to prepare the programme before launching it. Sell-off time begins with the launch and ends when the promotion ends.

5. Evaluation of Result
This stage of objective setting is very important. Although many businesses do not evaluate their sales program while others do them superficially. The most common method in evaluating result is to compare sales before, during and after a promotion. Again, consumer’s research should be conducted to know the kind of people that respond to the promotion and things they did after it ended.

Classification of Sales Promotion Activities
Sales promotion is any initiative undertaken by an organization to promote an increase sales usage or trial of a product or service (i.e. initiative not covered by other elements of the marketing communication or promotion mix). However, sales promotion can be classified based on the primary target audience to whom the promotion is directed (Heather, 2010). Below are the major classifications of sales promotion: -

A. Consumer Sales Promotion
This is possibly the most visible types of sales promotion and is undertaken to achieve objectives like reinforcing and serving as a complement to advertising and personal selling efforts, to induce consumer to try the products, to react to competitors effort, to reward consumers for brand loyalty, and to encourage consumer to trade up or purchase larger size of a product etc. The major tool used in the pursuance of the objectives of consumer sales promotion are: -

Sampling: This is a tool that presents offers of a free amount or a trial of a product for customers. Usage of this type of tool offered consumers regular or trial sizes of the product either for free or at a nominal price. It is often delivered door-to-door, sent by mail, hand out in stores, attached to another product or featured in an advent. Sample are often claimed to be the most effective and most expensive way to introduce a new products.

Coupons: These are certificates that give buyers a savings when they make purchase of specified products. They are probably the most familiar and widely used of all consumer promotions because its involve naira/kobo-off or added-value incentives. Coupons can be relied upon to stimulate sale of mature brand and induce early trial of new brand.
**Bonus Packs:** This is also known as price packs, or naira/kobo –off deals. It consists of additional amount of products that a company gives to the buyers of the product. They are often at times offered in the form of a reduced-price pack, which represents single package sold at reduced price or a banded pack. In general, bonus packs are very effective in stimulating short-term sales.

**Free trials:** This involves inviting prospective purchasers to try the product without cost in the hope that they will end up buying the product. For example, auto dealers encourage free test drive to stimulate purchase interest. For example, manufacturers of condiments seasonings like (Magi, thyme, curry etc) distribute free samples.

**Premiums:** This is a tool that offered consumers rewards or gifts from purchasing a product. They are generally a merchandise chase. Premium has many options that accompany the product inside or on the package. Premiums differ from samples and free product in that they often consist of the actual products, with some connection. For example, a cell phone manufacturer may offer access to free downloadable ring tones for those purchasing a cell phone.

**Product warranties:** The general purpose of a warranty is to give the buyer some hope that he/she will be compensated (by way of replacement, cash or repair) in event the product is not up to required expectations (Stanton, 1975). This promotional tool is very important especially as consumers become more quality conscious. They also serve as promotional devise to stimulate purchase by reducing the consumer’s risks.

**Rebates and refunds:** This is a consumer promotional tool that gives cash reimbursement for purchasing products. Typically, cash refunds offers provide/ give a price reduction after the purchase rather than at the retail shop. However, when rebates become so common and competitive, buyers postpone purchasing until rebates is announced, and the benefit becomes uncertain.

**B. Trade Sales Promotion**

This is a type of promotion used by marketers to target all customer’s including partners within the channel of distribution. It is basically used to entice channel members to carry marketer’s products towards building relationships with channel partners/members. Below are some types of tools used in trade sales promotion:

**Point-Of-Purchase Display:** This is a tool that is specially designed for placement in retail stores. These displays allow product to be prominently presented, often in high traffic areas, and to increase the probability of products to standout. It often came in many styles, though the most popular ones are these that allow products to stand alone

**Buying allowance:** This is a promotional tool offered to the dealers to induce them to buy a new product, carry merchandise or to increase company’s sales effort. It is a temporary device of offering price reduction to resellers on each products purchased during the stated period. The allowance however is normally deducted from the face value of the products invoice. Using this type of tool, if is mainly geared towards stimulating buyers to buy considerable layer quantity’s than those normally purchased.
**Buy-Back-Allowance:** Buy-back-method is a secondary incentive that allows the total amount of money dealers receive to be proportional to their purchases during the first deal. Its major drawback is that it is very expensive for the manufacturers but strengthens dealer’s motivation to co-operate on the first deal. It is also effective in clearing an old product and increasing stocks by retailers.

**Free Goods or Merchandise:** This is another buying incentive but in the form of tangible goods. An offer is normally made of free merchandise, in addition to those purchased by the dealer. Example, one crate of coke (coca-cola) for every twenty crates purchased.

**Merchandise Allowance:** These are short-term in character given to compensate the dealer’s promotion expenses. This is given for the manufacturer’s products. The retailer has to provide proof of the promotion, before any compensation is effected. Manufacturers pay retailers for such activities, with the hope that the additional promotional efforts will lead to increases in sales at the retail level. Products suitable for this method are high-volume, high-profit and easily handled products.

**C. Salesmen Sales Promotions**

Skinner, (1994) posits that salesmen promotion is aimed at ensuring direct stimulation of distributors, dealers and manufacturers, sales persons. The aim is that, they are in a better position to recommend the sponsoring company’s products to customers and prospects. This is because of their close and constant contact with customers.

**Bonus to Salesmen:** In these types of sales promotion method, a quota is normally set for each salesman, based on his territory for a year or even shorter period. Bonus is offer to salesperson who sells in excess (over and above) the set quota. The objective here is that, sales persons sell more when they are given a target. It therefore serves as a means of stimulating or motivating them to aim higher and improve on their selling skills.

**Sales Force Contests:** These are contests that take the form of competition to induce salesperson to re-double their efforts. Performance is measured over a given period and prizes are given to top performers. Competitive spirit in men usually responds favorably to this stimulus. Generally, sales contests make personal-selling efforts more productive, prizes to be won could be cash awards, merchandize prize, travel and special honor or privilege awards.

**Sales Force Meetings:** Sales meeting are important both for purposes of communication motivation. These are conducted in the form of conventions and conference or on regular basis for all salesman of the company with the top brass of the company. Some of its objectives may include educating salesmen on new skills in selling, changes in consumers’ attitudes and buying behavior, or information on a new product to be launched.

**Methodology of Research**

This study used both primary and secondary data sources during the investigation. The population of the study constitutes of some people (i.e. consumers) in Bida metropolis. However, the absence of a reliable census data of consumers made it difficult to know exactly what the
total population of the study is. However, a sample of about one hundred and forty (140) consumers within the study area was chosen as the sample size of the study. The researcher also employed the use of questionnaires to gather necessary information on different sales promotional activities which were tabulated and analyzed.

Data Presentation and Analysis of Findings
During the course of the study, a total of one hundred and forty (140) consumers were administered questionnaire to within Bida town. However, one hundred and twenty (120) were received by the researcher at the time of this presentation and upon which the analysis was made.

Table 1: Distribution of respondent according to age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible responses</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-25 yrs</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35 yrs</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-above</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Questionnaire administered.

Table 1 shows that 25% of the respondent are between the ages of 18-25yrs, 42% of the respondents are between the ages of 26-25yrs while, about 33% of the respondents are between the ages of 36 and above.

Table 2 shows distribution of respondent by educational qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible responses</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OND/ND/NCE</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.SC/HND</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>45.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MASTERS</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Questionnaire administered.

Table 2 shows that 42% of respondents have OND/ND/NCE, 46% of the respondents have B.SC/HND certificate and 12% of the respondents have MASTERS certificate.
Table 3 shows whether free sample motivates in buying decision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible responses</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>83.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Questionnaire administered.

Table 3 shows that about 83% of the respondents believe that free samples of products influence their buying decision. While, 17% of the respondents do not believe that it does.

Table 4 shows whether coupons stimulate buying decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible responses</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agreed</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagreed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: questionnaire administered.

Table 4 shows that about 33% of the respondents strongly agreed that coupons stimulate them to buy. 42% of the respondents strongly agreed, while none of the respondents strongly disagreed. 25% of the respondent disagreed that coupons stimulate them to buy goods and services.

Table 5 shows whether free trial of products stimulate purchase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible responses</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very well</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often times</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Questionnaire administered.
Table 5 shows that 50% of the respondents believe that free trials of product can stimulate purchases very well, about 33% of the respondents believe that they stimulate purchases oftentimes, while 17% of the respondents do not believe that they stimulate purchases.

Table 6 shows whether discounts is instrumental to buy products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible responses</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>83.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not often</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Questionnaire administered.

Table 6 shows that about 83% of the total respondents believes that discounts often is an instrumental to their buying of products, while 17% of the respondents believe that discount does not often motivate them to buying a product.

Table 7 shows whether free gifts push consumers to make purchases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible responses</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>83.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Questionnaire administered.

Table 7 shows that about 83% of the respondents agreed that free gifts encourage them to make purchases, while 17% of them disagreed.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it is convenient to conclude that sales promotional tool used by businesses/sellers assist greatly in influencing consumers buying decision in bida town. In addition to this, consumers within the town have preference to the type of sales promotional tool that will be used to effectively influence their buying decision.

Also, the following recommendations were made based on the findings of the study. It is sincerely hoped that the adoption of these recommendations will contribute immensely towards improving consumers buying decision through different sales promotional tools in Bida town.

1. There should be continuous use of sales promotional tools such as free samples, free trials, free gifts, coupons, and discounts within Bida town. This will thus, aid in stimulating consumers to make more purchases.
2. There should be series of sales promotional activities. This will positively impact on consumers buying decision within Bida town.
3. Efforts should be made to introduce and use other sales promotional tools like rebates and refunds, premiums, product warranties, and sweepstakes, which the consumers are aware to further stimulates their buying decision.

4. Lastly, adequate care should be taken to find out the type of sales promotional tool that motivates them most in making decision to buy products. This will also assist in ensuring that the desired objectives are attained at all times.

References
Heather, P (2010), Components of Sales Promotion Mix; SalesreferenceComponentsofSalesPromotionMixhow.com.mht
ELECTRONIC PAYMENT SYSTEM: TYPES, BENEFITS AND CHALLENGES
TOWARDS THE MARKETING OF PRODUCTS
(A Case Study of Immigration Services, Maiduguri Command)

By

ODUA, ABDULFATAH
Department of Marketing,

And

VANDIBE NGADDA DRAMBI
Department of Consultancy,
Ramat Polytechnic, Maiduguri,
Borno State, Nigeria

Abstract:
An electronic payment system involves the provision of payment services and transfers through such devices like telephone, computer, internet, Smartcards, ATMs, etc. As a paperless system of making payment, it offers an alternative to the traditional system which involves the use of cash and cheque. E-payment is a subset of an e-commerce transaction to include electronic payment for buying and selling goods or services offered through the internet. The study therefore is intended to find out electronic payment system in relation to its types, benefits and challenges towards the marketing of products. A sample of sixty (60) was drawn from the rank and file of Nigerian Immigration Services, Maiduguri Command using random sampling technique. Table and simple percentage were used for data analysis. The result indicated among others that electronic payment is appropriate for marketing, very reliable than other means and that there is great benefit in using the e-Payment system in transacting business. It was therefore recommended that for e-Payment to be effective there should be proper planning and control of the system consolidation of the necessary components should be carried out and there must be no power failure.

Keywords: Automated Teller Machine, Smart Card, Electronic Data Processing, Electronic Fund Transfer,

Introduction
Many businesses and consumers are still wary of conducting extensive business electronically. However, almost everyone will use the form of e-Commerce in near future. Electronic payment can therefore be seen as a wholesale payment system which exists for non-consumers transactions such as banks, government and financial services. Similarly, Peter (2002) sees electronic payment “as a payment that automatically deducts or save an amount to a customer’s account without the use of paper payment such as cheques, cash, etc”.

Internet is creating a borderless world. The internet economy is a global economy, which requires coordination between countries to take advantage of large opportunities on a global scale. The innovation of internet has major impact from both technology and business point of view. According to the World Bank report (12th December, 2004) which defines e-payment as any digital financial payment transaction involving currency transfer between two or more parties” Business Dictionary com defines “electronic payment as one in which monetary value is transferred electronically or digitally between two entities as compensation for the receipt of goods and services”. Also Snel (1999) define “electronic payment as the use of electronic technologies and systems to facilitate and enhance transaction via the net which could be done
electronically or digitally”. According to the Financial Times (2003) I defines electronic payment as a paperless payment which can be made through the internet, telephone, smarty cards and many others for payment of goods and services”. Furthermore, A-Z Encyclopaedia (2002) defines e-payment as a payment that is done via the web, phone, interbank, networks, etc. Finally, Steve and Querry (2002) defines e-payment as a multi-user friendly which allows customers to transaction business digitally or electronically. E-payment can be categorised into either card based or network/software base. Sanusi (2002) defines electronic payment “as a system which involves the provision of payment and transfers through the use of such devices like telephones, computers, internet, ATMs, SmartCard, etc”.

Therefore, the types of instrument used in e-payment ranges from (i) **Cards:** Credit cards, debit cards, smart cards and prepaid cards currently represent the most common form of electronic payment. For all 3 types of cards, the consumer of the business must often use a plastic card, commonly with a magnetic strip. (ii) **Internet:** Internet online payments involve the customer transferring money or making a purchase online via the internet; (iii) **Mobile Payments:** Mobile phones are currently used for a limited number of electronic transactions. However, the percentage seems likely to increase as mobile phone manufacturers enable the chip and software in the phone for easier electronic commerce; (iv) **Television set-top boxes and Satellite receiver:** The set top box attached to the television and a keyboard or other device and customers can make purchases by viewing items on the television. Payment is made electronically using a credit card or other account; (v) **Biometric Payments:** Electronic payments using biometrics are still in their infancy. Most biometric payments involve using fingerprints as the identification and access tool, though companies like visa international are piloting voice recognition technology and retina scans are also under consideration; (vi) **Electronic Payment Networks:** ACH (Automated Clearing House) in the U.S., domestic EFTPOS networks in Australia and Singapore and other networks enable electronic payments between businesses and between individuals. The consumer can go online to a financial service kiosk or use other front and devices to access their account and make payments to businesses other than individuals; (vii) **Person-to-Person (P-2-P) Payments:** Person-to-person payments enable one individual to pay using an account, a prepaid card or another mechanism that stores value; and (viii) **Financial Service Kiosks:** These kiosks are fixed stations with phone connections where the customer usually uses a keyboard and television like screen for transaction or to access information

Punch (2003) observed some of the benefits of e-Payment system which are the electronic method of payment comes with a lot of convenience and save people a lot of trouble; electronic payment has high speed information network; electronic payment is efficient in expanding business operations because it can cope with more products and customers; consolidation of payments infrastructure allowing scale economies; it is essential for long term competitiveness and electronic payment increased investment in mobile payment technology amongst banks and telecommunication.

Furthermore, Vanguard (2007) pointed out some of the challenges the e-Payment system is going to face especially in developing country like Nigeria which include the lack of basic infrastructure such as power, security, etc; there is also the issue of lack of awareness because the
The e-payment system is still new, the needed awareness is not there, again, there is lack of acceptability, out of about 140 million Nigerians only few people have cards. The objective of this work is to among others include to ascertain the impact of e-Payment in marketing of products; to know the importance of electronic payment; to explore whether it is cost-effective using e-payment or traditional payment; to recommend solution to the identified problems in order to help enhance effectiveness of e-payment in marketing of products; and finally to know the advantages and disadvantages in using electronic payment; based on the research objectives identified above, the following research problems were raised and answers sought after. And to what extent can a product manufacturer and service provider rely on electronic payment system? How effective is electronic payment system in marketing of product? Does the benefit derived from using electronic payment outweigh traditional ways of payment? Does the development of electronic payment has meaningful impact on marketing of product? And is customers’ attitude towards e-payment system favourable or unfavourable?

**Materials and Method Area of Study**

Maiduguri has long been the dominant city in the north-eastern Nigeria and is located close to the Republic of Chad, Niger and Cameroon gives it an increasing international recognition as the centre of commerce, transport, education, religion and administration (Maxlock, 1976). Maiduguri is located in latitude 11°51 north and longitude 13°5’ east and it stands some 370.1 metres above sea level within the country. It is bounded by Yobe and Jigawa States in the north-west and Gombe in the west. Therefore, its geographical location gives it the advantage of increase in activities. The 2006 census figure gave the population of Maiduguri as 521,492 with 290,449 male and 231,043 female (NPC, 2006).

**Sampling Technique**

The population of the study area are the rank and files of Nigeria Immigration Services, Maiduguri Area Command. Sample selection was by random selection which is why the study employed both primary and secondary source of data collection. Information were gathered through the administration of eighty (80) questionnaires which was designed to reflect the objectives outlined in the study which include the impact of e-payment to marketing, its importance, cost effectiveness etc.

**Analytical Technique**

The analytical technique adopted for the study was descriptive statistics such as percentages, frequency, table etc.

**Data Presentation and Analysis**

Question 1: How convenient is electronic payment in transacting business in your organisation?

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appropriate</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not appropriate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010
Question 2: Does the use of e-payment system by your command more reliable

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Question 3: What are the methods used mostly in transferring money?

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electronic transfer</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional system</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Question 4: How effective is the use of e-payment in marketing of products?

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Question 5: How would you rate the use of e-payment towards enhancement of your services?

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Question 6: Do you derive any benefit from using electronic payment?

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010
Question 7: How would you describe the acceptability of e-payment system among customers?

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highly acceptable</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptable</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not acceptable</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Question 8: Do you accept e-payment as a permanent means in making money transactions?

Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WAEC</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OND/NCE</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HND/B.Sc.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Question 9: Is your (staff) attitude on e-payment favourable or unfavourable?

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

Question 10: What are the criteria used in measuring the effectiveness of e-payment in your organisation?

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE</th>
<th>NO. OF RESPONDENT</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Net profit</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales volume</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return on investment</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of the above</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2010

**Research Findings**

The results of the findings revealed the following:

i) Most officers (66.7%) indicated that electronic payment in transacting business or operation is appropriate.

ii) The officers (83.3%) are of the opinion that the use of e-payment is more reliable than other means of payment.
iii) Again, majority of the officers representing 50% of the respondents prefer the use of e-payment to other methods of transferring money to other means.

iv) 58.3% of the respondents are of the view that e-payment enhance their product, 66.7% also of the respondents believe that there is great benefit in using the electronic payment in their transactions. Another 50% of the immigration staff are of the opinion that electronic payment system is acceptable to customers. 56.7% of the senior staff of Nigerian Immigration Service believed that electronic payment should become a permanent method for transacting business.

v) Majority of the respondent (60%) were of the general opinion that return on investment was used as criteria for measuring the effectiveness of electronic payment.

Discussion of Findings
The findings of the study based on the results obtained in Table 1 suggests that most officers of the Nigerian Immigration Services are of the opinion that the electronic payment system is appropriate as compared with other means of payment irrespective of the little challenges associated with it. Again, it revealed that the respondents believed that the electronic payment system is more reliable because of its security and easy transaction method which is why they termed the electronic transfer effectiveness as excellent and also termed their attitude towards electronic payment as favourable.

Furthermore, the Nigerian Immigration officers who serve as respondents for this study are of the conclusion that the electronic transfer method should be adopted by the Command because of its efficiency and corrupt-free attributes attached to it.

In addition, the research finding also indicated that the respondents prefer the electronic payment system because it enhances their services. The implication of this is that it allows for the workers to get satisfaction from their jobs and be willing to work well. The findings also confirm that the respondents are of the opinion that there is great benefit in using the electronic payment system and should confirm this when a large portion of the respondents described as acceptable the use of e-payment by both them and the customers and further summed up their feeling about it by accepting that it should be made a permanent means of transacting business between them and the customer. The research findings again revealed that the major instrument for measuring the effectiveness of the electronic payment was return on investment.

Conclusion
Electronic marketing describe company efforts to inform buyers, communicate, promote and sell its products and services over the internet. Despite the fact that e-payment is of great importance to marketing, it also has its lapses and limitation which include power outage and shortage. In the same vein, for the organisation to have an effective e-payment system, there must be a huge amount of spending from the introductory stage to implementation stage.

Recommendations
For management to have an effective e-payment system: There should be a proper planning and control of the system. There should be an effective and efficient consolidation of the necessary components of e-payment in order to achieve the objectives of the organisation. The platform
security must be intact and well coordinated. For e-payment to be successful there must be no power failure; and There must be available and adequate funds to guard against uncertainties.

References
Punch Newspaper (2003). Vision for e-Commerce Thriving in Nigeria, June 3rd
Vanguard Newspaper (2007). Challenge of e-Payments in Nigeria , July 17th
Abstract

The relevance of Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) in the drive for economic development of any nation in our contemporary global economic setting cannot be overemphasized. More importantly is the planning for the establishment, survival and growth of MSEs especially in a developing economy like Nigeria. This article thus discusses and reviewed literatures on the concept of MSEs, their planning, growth theories, categorization, growth determinants, growth problems and constraints, as well as strategies for overcoming such challenges in Nigeria.

Introduction and Overview of concepts

In her doctoral thesis Ogboru (2005) rightly captured the significance of micro and s/mall enterprises (MSEs) as the “engine of growth” like many others scholars Ogboru argued that MSEs believed that a healthy small and medium enterprises sub – sector is “sine qua non for inclusive and socially sustainable development” it is against this background that we shall be exploring the concepts surround this term paper, which include planning, micro and small enterprises and their characteristics, theories and process of growth, and planning for MSE growth blue prints in Nigeria.

Definition of Planning

According to Nwachukwu (2007) planning is the determination of control, direction and methods of accomplishing the overall organisational objectives. By this Nwachukwu sees planning for MSEs in Nigeria as a process that involves the establishment of objectives, strategies to achieve the objectives and a step-by-step determination of activities resource necessary to achieve them. Boone and Kurtz (1999) describe planning as the process of anticipating the future events and conditions and determining course of action for achieving organizational objectives.

Therefore, in Nigeria where many of the businessmen are inexperienced and the academic preparation is by no means very impressive, planning to avoid waste of money and other resources is very compelling. Every business involves some risk. No matter how experienced, informed or the level of intuition a manager possesses there is an uncertainty surrounding his decision. Planning function minimises uncertainty of results, thus enabling management to take a calculated risk.

Micro Enterprises:- The small and medium enterprises development agency of Nigeria observed that in Africa, over 90% of micro enterprises exist and operate from households in rural
areas. These enterprises are usually informal and by definition are enterprises that operate from households largely in rural communities; their primary purpose of existence being subsistence (see www.enterprisepromotion.org/view.php?abstract=892). According to European Union (2003) Micro Enterprises are enterprises which employ fewer than 10 persons whose annual turnover and/or annual balance sheet total does not exceed 2 million euro.

**Small Enterprises (SEs):** In most economics, smaller enterprises are much greater in number. In the European Union (EU), SMEs comprises approximately 99% of all firms and employ between them about 65 million people. According to European Union (2003) Small Enterprises (SEs) is described as an enterprise which employs fewer than 50 persons and whose annual turnover and/or annual balance sheet total does not exceed 10 million. It is estimated that in terms of value, the sector accounts for about 39% of the manufacturing output and around 33% of the total export of the country. The MSE sector has consistently registered higher growth rate compared to the overall industrial sector.

**Definition of Growth:** Growth involves increase in size, number, strength or quality. Growth in MSEs has to do with expansion of size of the micro, small enterprises.

**Characteristic of MSEs**
Mkandaivire (1999); Cook and Nixson (2005) found in Green, Kirkpatrick and Murinde (2006) highlighted the following factors.

1. Value of fixed assets of the enterprise
2. Enterprise turnover
3. Number of employees

While Ryan (2005) found in Green et all has pointed out that the term may be used to cover a wide range of economic activities such as:

1. **Number of employees**
2. **Household activities**
3. **Micro enterprise sector with less than 5 employees**
4. **Small emergent enterprise with less than 25 employees**
5. **Growth business with less than 100 employees**
6. **Micro enterprises.**

**Enterprise Growth Theories and Processes**

**First Theory: Labour Surplus Theory**
The main theory, which goes back to the seminal work by Lewis (1955) in the labour surpluses theory, it is argued that the driving force behind MSEs development in excess labour supply which cannot be absorbed in the public sector or large private enterprises and is forced into MSEs inspite of poor pay and low productivity. Arguably, the MSEs sector develops in response to the growth in employment, functioning as a place of last resort for people who are unable to find employment in the formal sector.

It has been further observed that MSEs are expected to grow in periods of economic crisis, when the formal sector contracts or grows too slowly to absorb the labour force. However, when formal employment grows the MSE sector in assumed to contract again and thus develops an
anti-cyclical relationship with the formal economy. Particular attention has been paid to the behaviour of the MSE sector before and after the introduction of structural adjustment policies; examples includes Daniel (1994) and Brand et al (1996) for Zimbabwe and Meagher and Yunusa (1996) for Nigeria.

**Second Theory: Output Demand Theory**
The second theory for explaining the development of the MSE sector in developing countries is the output demand theory. The theory postulates that a prerequisite for the development of MSEs is that there is a market for their products and services. Therefore, the MSE sector will tend to develop a cyclical relationship with the economy as a whole. However, MSEs will also develop in competition with the large enterprises in the formal sector and their development will be constrained by formal sector monopolies.

These studies propose strengthening of the MSEs through networks or via the creation of forward linkage with the formal economy. for example franchising and sub-contracting. This approach has not had much success in Africa due to problems of poor infrastructure and lack of trust between both parties. This creates an unstable environment and reduces the efficiency of the formal sector and access to factor markets for MSEs; for example Liedholm and Meed (1993) and Grierson and Meed (1995).

**Third Theory: Firm Growth Theory**
The third theory known as the firm growth theory contends that as a result of industrialization and economic growth, MSEs are likely to disappear and be replaced by modern large scale industry. This theory has however been shown to be inaccurate in the sense that MSEs do not normally compete directly with large enterprise; rather, they often tend to remain micro and small co-existing with large multinational companies which phenomenon to world bank (1989) has identified as the missing middle (Ryan,2005).

**Growth Process (Growth Cycle)**
A successful new entry provides the opportunity for the entrepreneur to grow his/her business. For instance, introducing a new product into an existing market provides the opportunity to take market share from competitors; entry into a new market provides the opportunity to service a new group of customers; and a new opportunity to service a new organisation has a chance to make and build upon its first sales. Although it is difficult to provide direct guidance to entrepreneurs on a step-by-step process for generating a highly attractive opportunity.

**The Growth Strategies are:-**
1. Penetrating strategy
2. Market development strategies
3. Product development strategies
4. Diversification strategy

1. **Penetrating Strategy:** The strategy focuses on the firm’s existing market. The entrepreneur attempts to penetrate this product or market further by encouraging existing customers to buy more of the firm’s current products.
2. **Market Development Strategies**: These strategies involve selling the firm’s existing product to new groups of customers. New groups of can be categorized in terms of geographies or demographics and/or on the basis of new product use.

3. **Product Development Strategies**: Product development strategies for growth involve developing and selling new products to people who are already purchasing the firm’s existing products.

4. **Diversification Strategies**: Diversification strategies involve selling a new product to a new market. Even though both knowledge basis appear to be new. Some diversification strategies are related to the entrepreneur’s (and the firm’s) knowledge.

**Growth Stages and Categorization for MSEs in Nigeria**

By and large, growth which involves an increase in size, number, strength and quality of product in MSEs is closely associated to and used in explaining the organisational life cycle. Growth of Nigeria MSEs can be categorized into and achieved first internal growth involving the introduction, development of new products. This includes increasing product lines and departments. Secondly external growth-this involves acquiring additional business branches, expanding the network of the business and new markets. Thirdly, through diversification involving buying up competitors, formation of new ventures and acquisition of enterprises that are related to current products or new areas.

**Categorization Of Firm’s Growth**

Categorization of entrepreneur and firm’s growth is limited to the micro small enterprises (MSE) growth as clearly depicted by Hisrich, Peters and Sherpherd (2009). These categorization of firms growth are as follows:-

**Actual Growth Of The Firm**

This category involves the entrepreneurs who are the most likely to achieved firm growth. The entrepreneur passes both the necessary abilities to make the transition to a more professional approach to grow their businesses

**Unused Potential For Growth**

In this categories the entrepreneurs posses both the necessary abilities for transaction but do not aspire to do so. The entrepreneurs have the unused potentials.

**Constrained Growth**

Entrepreneurs in this category aspire to grow their business but do not have sufficient abilities to successful satisfy this aspiration. These entrepreneurs are must likely to be trusted by the firms lack of growth and are in the most danger of failures because the firm may be pushed toward the pursuit of growth opportunities and beyond the entrepreneurs ability to cope.

**Little Potential For Firm Growth**

Entrepreneurs at this stage possess neither the necessary abilities to make the transition to a more professional management approach nor the aspiration to grow their businesses. These businesses have little potentials for growth but due to the limited abilities of the entrepreneurs to manage growth these firms may actually perform better if they remain at a smaller scale.
The above categorization of growth which Nigerian MSEs agree encouraged to carefully study, understand and apply of their business shall be further explained using the organizational life-cycle model. The model consists of four stages namely growth, rapid growth, maturity, and decline stages each is considered succinctly below:

**Early Growth Stage**: This stage is the initial development period involving the inception of the business, show growth, attracting customers and much tasking by managers. No wonder Hatten (2006) described it as the entrepreneurial process, comprising innovation, triggering event and implementation/entrepreneurial event.

**Rapid Growth Stage**: The stage depending on the nature of business varies in terms of period and intensity, where it seeks to expands its cluster base, consolidating on existing clusters and markets, suppliers investors and increasing exploitation of resource.

**Maturity Stage**: At this stage Hatten (2006) documented that MSE is considered well established where its survival seems fairly well assured albeit maing other problems and challenges. The stage is characterized by more stability when compared to previous stages, in addition Hatten (2006) interjected another stage he coined as harvest stage, where the owner removes himself from the business. He steps aside and pricks the fruits of his labour after years of services. This harvest can be in the forms outright sale of the business to another person; transfer of ownership to employees via employee stock ownership plan; sold to the public through initial public offer; merging the business with another existing business to form an entirely new strong venture.

**Decline Stage**: Hatten while discussing the harvest stage included decline into if he argued that harvest could be prompted by failure, in which case the doors are closed, creditors paid, and assets liquidated. On a comparative note another model of enterprise explaining the key challenges and life cycle involving five stages could be used in explaining key challenges and strategies which Nigeria MSEs require in order to plan for their growth. The stages in model are start up, expansion, consolidations, revival and decline.

**Start Up Stage**: At this stage the entrepreneur is involved in daily struggle for survival targeting narrow market hitches. He is engaged in continuous product modification to meet customer demands/needs, the stage is characterized by firefighting, centralized authority in the owner and a personal expression of the owner senior entrepreneur.

**Expansion Stage**: This is similar to rapid growth stage in the previous model discussed. It involves growing from a single product line enterprise to a multi-line product company. Penetration into new market and product innovation and improvement. Common features are departmentation i.e. having multiple departments like production, marketing and finance, authority is dispersed through delegation to experts in various functional areas. The MSE are thus expected to develop very good growth strategy Robbins and Coneter (2009) the whole enterprise taking into account to need of each department or functional area.
Consolidation Stage: this stage involves intensified competition, which sees weaker enterprises either failing, merging with others sold out enterprise do consolidate by reducing operations, unprofitable product lines, reducing staff, retreating from unprofitable markets, other features of consolidation stage is rationalization of decisions, Learner and Meaner structures powerful middle managers and more delegation of authority by higher managers the enterprise at this consolidation stage further intensify and strengthen its position in product lines and markets that are profitable.

Revival Stage: this stage involves the rekindling of an enterprises product performance. It consists of such activities like repositioning, purposeful market segmentation, product diversification, innovation, motivation of human resource, experimentation and flexibility for divisional managers.

Decline Stage: Basically this stage is characterized by failures in business strategies, dwindling sales and profit diversification too widely short lived or effective plans and strategies. Managers are thus required to develop strategies called renewable strategies argued Robbins and Coulter (2009) to deal with declining performance. These renewal strategies have been divided into two namely. Retrenchment strategy and turnaround strategy. On both strategies mangers are expected to do two things cut costs and restructure organizational operations. In any case Robbins and Coulter further contend that retrenchment strategy focuses on short run renewal strategy used for minor performance problems through stabilizing operations, revitalizing organizational resources and capabilities and preparing it to compete once again. Turn around strategy on the other hand focuses on more serious problems requiring more drastic and intensive actions and measures respectively.

Growth Stages
Hatten (2006) cited out that the stage of a business life that involves growth, maturity and harvest is known as growth stage. Entrepreneurship is the creation of a new organization. By defining the entrepreneurship in term of the organization rather than the person involved, entrepreneurship ends when the creation stage of the organization ends. This is the point where the small business management process begins. According to Hatten (2006) that growth stage started from the incapity of entrepreneurship process and ends with small business management process which includes:-

- Innovation
- Triggering
- Implementation
- Growth
- Maturity
- Harvest

Innovation Stage: This stage has to do with innovation of new idea for a new product, process or service which boost the MSEs growth.
Triggring Stage: This stage involves an events or occurrence that sparks the entrepreneur to proceed from thing to doing.

Implementation Stage: This is the stage entrepreneurship process in which the organization is formed. Risk increased at this stage because a business is formed. Implementation involves the followings:-
1. Introducing new products
2. Introducing new methods of production
3. Opening new markets
4. Opening new supply sources
5. Industrial re organization

Growth Stage: This stage does not mean that every small business manager is attempting to get his or her business to fortune 500 size. A common goal for growth of small business is to reach the critical mass, a point at which an adequate living is provided for the owner and the family, with enough growth remaining to keep business going.

Maturity Stage: The maturity stage of the organization is reached when the business is considered well established. The survival of the business seems fairly well assume, although the small business manager will still face many other problems and challenges.

Harvesting Stage: In this stage the owner removes himself or herself from the business. Harvesting a business can be thought of as picking the fruit after years of labour.

Characteristics of MSEs
In this paper the basic characteristics of MSEs, following UNIDO (1997) and DANNIELS (1999) studies found in Green et al (2006) contends that MSs are:
- An integral element of the informal sector in most developing countries.
- Initially informal but gradually goes of the survive and become formal, business and provide foundation for modern private companies see (MKANDAWIRE, 1999; COOK and NIXSON, 2005; found in GREEN et al 2006). GREEN et al further disclosed that the growth of MSEs is part and parcel of a dynamic growth process in the corporate sector as supported by studies of LIEDHOLM and MEAD (1994) and PRASAD et al (2005).

MSEs Growth Determinants in Nigeria
In a bid to come-up with effective plan for MSEs growth in Nigeria, we need to take a look at and understand the key factors that are crucial to its growth. Okpara and Wynne postulate these factors also known as determinants of MSEs growth include: policy issues finance, physical infrastructure, export market opportunities insufficient institutional guidance and insufficient framing opportunities fight import regulation each of these determinants and its effect on MSEs are discussed below.

Policy issues:- it involves issues like registration of business, tax requirement, and other regulation from various government agencies like BOI national agency for food drug
administration and control (NAFDAC) standard organization of Nigeria (SON) federal inland revenue service (FIRS) NIDB NEXIM NEPC and other such bodies of the state and local governments levels. OKPARA and WYNNE noted that the Nigerian government puts in place measuring which include monetary, fiscal and export incentives. Some of the implication and challenges arising from policies establishing these bodies include constraining take off/growth of SMES, unnecessary and undue closure of businesses and/or its premises, truncating of operation and sales of the enterprises, exerting of financial stress on the enterprises. Collectively these challenges determine the growth rate of MSEs in Nigeria. No wonder fax holiday as fiscal measure for first 6yrs of MSEs operation.

Finance /Financial Issues:- It has long been established that inadequate access to credit and other financial services from formal financial institutions is a constant to the expansion of MSEs, as noted green, Kirkpartrick and Murunde (2006) this position was further supported by the world bank group’s approved of more than $ 10 billion in MSEs support programmes of which some 80% involves direct financial assistance. The above is in response to what has been described as failure of the market to provide small firms with adequate access to external finance, observed GREEN et al (2006). Under monetary policy C B N issued credit guidelines requiring banks to allocate portions or their loanable funds to micro and small enterprises.

Physical Infrastructure Issues:- In a swift reaction to this issue as a determinant to MSEs growth international monetary fund (IMF) has agreed to support more economic growth in Nigeria by helping to finance infrastructural improvements as documented Akwani (2007) found in Okpara and Wyune(2007). The decay in infrastructural facilities, such as roads, power/energy educational institutions etc. indeed determine the pace of MSEs growth in Nigeria. This is evident in the huge editorial cost the MSEs have to contend with like cost of fueling and maintaining generators to power machines and equipment.

Export Market Opportunities:- There is no arguing the fact that MSEs are facing high competition in both domestic and external market due largely to liberation of the investment require of the 1990s, world trade organization in 1995 forcing member countries to scale down restrictions on import and domestic economic reforms (Ghatak, 2009). In any case MSEs in Nigeria must exploit export market opportunities in order increase their chances of survival and subsequent growth. To this extent the federal government of Nigeria established various export processing zone as rightly reported Ogboru (2005).

Institutional Guidance and Training Opportunities: - Empirical studies have shown that MSEs suffer from inadequate institutional support and insufficient training as evidenced in the study conducted by Furolumbi and Olujede (2003) entrepreneurship development in micro enterprise in the Nigerian federal capital city-Abuja. Lack of government attention and assistance, low level off technical and managerial skill, poor record keeping, among others were cited them as impending entrepreneurial growth in micro enterprises.

Problems of MSEs Growth in Nigeria
Ogburu (2005) in her PhD dissertation pointed out the following problems of MSEs growth in Nigeria. A closer examination of these problems is revealed that they are not distractively different from the determinants of MSEs growth in Nigeria earlier discussed. They include:

- Management
- Access to finance
- Infrastructure
- Government policy
- Bureaucracy
- Environmental factors
- Multiple taxes and taxies
- Access to modern technology
- Unfair competition
- Marketing problems
- Non-availability of raw materials locally

Thus though among all the problem mentioned the managerial problems represent the greatest problem facing MSEs in Nigeria while non-availability of raw materials locally s the least problem.

The above enumeration of problems facing MSEs especially as it affects them growth was further supported by FOLORUNMBI and OLUJIDE (2003) when in the result of their study, they highlighted the following as impeding entrepreneurial growth in micro enterprises:

1. Low level of literacy which is reflected in poor record keeping, low technical and managerial skill and low capacity for opportunity identification.
2. Low capital base arising from low propensity to save, straight lending policies of financial institutions and lack of government attention and assistance.
3. Harassment by task force for environmental sanitation, and
4. Lack of business site.

**Strategies for Overcoming MSEs Growth Problems & Constraints in Nigeria**

Putting into mind all that have been discussed in this term paper from the meaning and definitions of planning, growth, MSEs through theories of enterprise growth to determinants and problems of MSEs in Nigeria, the following strategies for overcoming MSEs growth problems and constraints were arrived at. As succinctly supported by various scholars (Ogboru, 2005; Forohumbi and Ohijede, 2003; Chuta, 1985; and King, 2003); theses strategies are:

1. **Improving Management Competencies & Skills:** The owner mangers of MSEs have to improve their competencies and skills of managing their firm through capacity building, management, development sessions, experience shoring syndicate sessions etc. The essence is to effectively utilize available resources and exploit opportunities to ensure survival and growth of the MSEs in Nigeria. The entrepreneurs must realize the value, of tools and techniques of effective management as well as effectively apply same for the purpose of sustainability and growth of MSEs.
2. **Finance & Financial Issues:** The owners/managers of MSEs need to improve on a number of issues regarding finance. The issues being adequately informed about availability of and access to find; negotiating for conditions and terms that favor MSEs in securing credit; deciding on the optimal capital structure, effective allocation and judicious/prudent utilization of such funds, all must be carefully nurtured and brought to bear on the operations of MSEs in Nigeria.

3. **Physical Infrastructural Improvement:** this represents one of the external problems that MSEs must adjust to since it is outside their control. Never the less, through formation of clusters and use of bodies and associations such infrastructural anomalies can be overcome. Indeed as a body or group they can lobby, campaign and pressure the relevant government agencies to provide improve on the necessary infrastructure.

4. **Government Policies:** the various policies rolled out by government a well as their attendant inconsistencies especially as it directly affects MSEs need to be addressed. In this direction fiscal incentives and protective fiscal policies should be promoted by the government monetary policies, especially as it credit policies of financial institutions that favour MSEs must be consolidated by the central Bank of Nigeria. High interest charges must be regulated by the CBN, so that loanable funds from SMEIS, banks and other financial institutions can be accessed by MSEs. On the same note rigid/stiff requirements must be watered down and made more compatible with the needs of SMEs. The problem of multiple taxations and levies on MSEs by various government agencies from the federal state and local governments, equally deserve to be addressed through joint consultation and deliberation by all parties involved.

5. **Access to capacity building:** Business development services (BDS) through strong institutional support UNDEOCHI (2005), reported that transformation 75% of targeted household enterprises into MSEs was achieved by SMEDAN through intensive capacity building through BDS provision. Another dimension of capacity building developing MSEs owner managers to have competencies in business plan development; basic marketing and selling techniques; taxation, legal and regulatory framework; banking and finance; book and record keeping; cash flow analysis; team building; and effective negotiation skills. Consulting services as BDS equally has large potential in promoting MSEs growth.

6. **Strong Networking:** Relations trust, fostering of enterprise linkage and formation of clusters and associations/cubs provides MSEs, strong potentials for growth. This has tendency to encourage more flow of micro credits through non-governmental organizations and micro finance institutions. The free flow of information exchange between various groups, clusters and associations increase as the quantum of experience and contacts for professional business or social purpose as supported by Wanjohi (2007). Clustering and forging of linkage had been prove to hasten MSEs growth and development. (Tulus; 2005 cited in Wanjohi (2007).
7. **Enabling Environment:** This shall provide MSEs in Nigeria, as is evident in other developing economics, an opportunity that should be utilized to achieve expansion and growth objectives (WANJOLI IBOD). Under this legal and regulatory factor, modern information and technological development, economic factors, bureaucracies, unfair competition and insufficient supply of raw materials are expected to be addressed. Changes in leadership and government policies should aim to develop MSEs capabilities through supportive institution and conducive enabling environment (Ngalu, 2000; King and McGrath, 2002). These scholars argued good enabling environment should aim to promote develop local technologies local tools, and reduce reliance of import.

8. **Strategic Planning For MSEs:** Time has come when MSE owners/entrepreneurs must embrace strategic planning as a very effective for enterprise sustainability and growth. Planning defines where the organization wants to be in future and how to get there. This necessarily involves defining goals for future organizational performance and deciding on the tasks use of resource to attain them (Daft 1994).

Strategic planning therefore comprises all functional areas of MSEs operations requiring strategies in the following areas:-

- Marketing strategies which should provide the products marketing mix, market segmentation and target market, and product innovation, packaging design.

- Human resource strategy where the MSEs must begin to put in place policies and incentives that shall attract, and enable retention of qualified competent human resource for the envisaged growth more hands are required an deck, especially that at a point in time the owner manager must delegate authority and responsibility, when additional department are created.

- Diversification strategy is another avenue for MSEs to grow, since it inherently constitutes a networking reaching out in terms of services and products, and/or having variations. Thus MSEs can move into new range of products; have a backward linkage of source of raw materials supply of other firms of services; moving into new related markets with new products (Wanjoli 2007).

- Franchising refers to an arrangement whereby a party (franchisor) who has developed a product or way of running a business successfully, licenses to another the rights to operate that system using either his/her trade name or/and other rights (JIM 2007, cited in Wanjoli, 2007). This encourages acquisition of benefits like training, management experience, building personal and opening up new horizons in the market place not to talk of proceeds from licensing.

- Financial strategy is another factor under strategic plan worth considering. Here the MSEs owner managers must decide on financing policies, identification of ways of financing new investments i.e. retained earnings borrowing through debt instruments or
issue new shares in other words the strategy should state the standard capital structure of
the MSEs for avoidance of doubt (La-Porta et al 1999 cited in Green et al 2006).

Conclusion
The MSEs Sub-sector of the Nigerian economy holds great potentials for the nation’s economic
development. It is in this guise that MSEs were referred to as the country’s engine of growth.
Never the less attention must be paid to the MSEs Growth determinants and the attendant.
Problems they face. The writer attempts to proffering blue prints or strategies for overcoming
these problems base on empirical studies across developed and developing countries including
the federal republic of Nigeria. Nevertheless, to say that only true and committed entrepreneurs
can lead their MSEs to rapid, sustainable growth and development.

Reference
Boon and Kurtz (1999) found in Mukulu, E. (2011) Being a PhD Lecture Working Material on
Planning for Entrepreneurship Growth, JKUAT-KDPOLY Programme, Kaduna, Nigeria.
Sector Trade in Harare. In structural Adjustment and the Working Poor in Zimbabwe,
In Finance and Development: Surveys of Theory Evidence and Policy. Green CJ,
Kirpatrick, C.H and Murinde, V. (eds) Edward Edgar: Cheltenham
(retrieved from http://www.fao.org/dvcrep/s8380E/s8380e07.htm)
Daft (1994) found in Mukulu, E. (2011) Being a PhD Lecture Working Material on Planning for
Entrepreneurship Growth, JKUAT-KDPOLY Programme, Kaduna, Nigeria.
Development Alternatives Inc: Bethesda. MD
Daniels L.(1999) The Role of Small Enterprises in the Household and National Economy in
Kenya: A significant Contribution or A last Resort? World Development. 27 (1). 55-65
Issue. Vol 1 March 2003 Journal of the Faculty of Management Science, University of
Dev 18,1017 – 1030. Published online in Wiley Interscience (www.interscience.wiley.com)
(Retriever from zunia.org/uploads/media/knowledge/small_and_medium....
Hatten, T.S. (2006) Small Business Management: Entrepreneurship and Beyond Houghton
Publishing. Great Britain, Glasgow


LOGISTICS MANAGEMENT (A PANECE TO NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT)

By

Innola Ode
Department of Marketing
College of Business and Management Studies,
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna Nigeria

Abstract
Logistics Management has a great potential in contributions to the National Economic development of any nation, if the right logistic mix, processing order, effective warehousing packaging inventory management, transportation among others is properly applied. Getting goods and materials to be delivered at the right place and time with minimum cost, will require an effective logistics management. The need to plan and blend the available modes of transport-road, rail, inland water ways, air, etc to achieve desired objectives cannot be overemphasis. Transportation plays a major role in any economy and more attention should be placed on this sector. Government at all levels needs to develop the enabling infrastructure and encourage user to patronize the available modes that will reduce cost and at the same time enhance, timely delivery of goods and materials.

Introduction
Logistics and the management of supply chains are not new ideas. They have been with us since the beginning of mankind. From the building of the pyramids in Egypt, the great walls of China to the ancient walls in Kano, Zaria and Katsina, the impact of logistics management was never in doubt. History has shown that wars are won and lost on the basis of the ability of field marshals and generals to marshal their resources together and prosecute the wars. Men, equipment, weapons, vehicles and other resources must be moved to achieve any positive results. Just as important as moving men and materials is to the military in executing wars, so it is to business organization. The reason is simple-most goods are not consumed at point of production, they have to be moved where the intended consumers are located.

Getting products to the right place and at the right time is central to successful implementation of marketing strategy. This paper looks at one important element of the distribution task; which is logistics. The term logistics is all-pervasive and all-encompassing. For this reason, there is some confusion of thought, as to what it is or who is responsible for business logistics management of firms. Logistics is the process of anticipating customer needs and wants; acquiring the capital, materials, people, technologies and information to meet those needs and wants; optimizing the goods and services producing network to fulfill customer requests; and utilizing the network to fulfill customer request in a timely way.

Simply, integrated logistics management is a coordinated activity of all firms (suppliers, wholesalers, retailers) and functions (procurement, production, marketing etc) responsible for determining needs of customers and establishing a system for ensuring that goods get to their final consumers at the right time and place. We will restrict our discussion on the basics of logistics.
Simply, Logistics is the work that is required to move and position inventory throughout a supply chain.

**Logistics Components**

We have stated that logistical activities spans across the length and breadth of the business chain. As a system, logistics is made of several units that must be managed individually and collectively to be able to provide service to customers at a profit. Generally, logistics activities include but surely not restricted to the following:

- Order Processing;
- Warehousing;
- Packaging;
- Materials handling;
- Inventory Management;
- Transportation, and;
- Customer Service.

In this paper, we are mainly concerned with transportation.

**Transportation**

Transportation management is a major important element of logistics management. It is an important branch of business that has developed rapidly over the last three decades. From the viewpoint of business, it is increasingly becoming clear that time means money, and cannot be wasted. Reaching the customer with want satisfying service or getting goods to reach customers require an adequate transport system. Therefore businesses cannot afford to spend valuable hours
on antiquated systems or even on wrong choice of means of transport. Today one can reach every angle of Nigeria or any other part of the world in one day.

Transport is crucial to the success of trade and economic development, since wants cannot be satisfied unless goods are transferred from the producer to the end user. The word transport is derived from the Greek words Trans, meaning across and Port, meaning to carry. We will define transportation as the movement of men, machines and materials from one destination to another. It involves the transfer of goods from the manufacturer or distributors to the consumer.

**Importance of Transportation**
The importance of transportation in business logistics and to the society is better understood and appreciated if we imagine the possibility of life without it; that is, the problems that will result from the inability to move from one place to another. Chief among the important roles that transportation plays in business and society is that it makes goods and services available to customers wherever they are and at the time they need it. Thus, transportation ensures that there is time and place utility for goods and services. It enabled large and bulky commodities to be easily moved and distribute. Transportation has also contributed in shortening the length of the distribution channel. Transportation is one of the major forces transforming our world into a global village because it helps to create a world of interdependence, where no country or business can live apart. Other important roles that transportation plays include:

- The construction of roads assists in the development of many countries, thereby bridging the gap between the cities and rural areas and between people and businesses.
- Transportation helps businesses to widen its market area by moving both men and materials from one market to another.
- Reduces the rate of damages to perishable goods, since goods arrive on time.
- It also assists in reducing the cost price of items.
- It affords the consumer a greater choice of items and opportunity to choose goods.
- Transportation also helps in areas of job creation. On one hand, for those who work for road construction firms and on the other, for those that works for transport carriers.

**Modes of Transport**
Several means through which goods and other resources can be moved exist for the use of business organizations. However we classify them into two; that is, single-model transport made up of road and rail transport (land), shipping (water), and airlines (air), and inter-modal or multimodal transport comprising of piggybacking, fish-backing, roll-on-roll-off, sea-air combination and pipeline combination. We commence our discourse on single-mode transport.

**Single-Mode Transport**
**Land**
Transport by land constitutes to about 85% of the transport activities of Nigerians. By land transport we imply the use of human, animals cars and motorcycles (achaba).

- Road Transport
- Rail Transport
Water (Shipping)
Rivers, Seas and Canals are natural means through which goods are transported to and from coasts, and have been used for these purposes since early times. Shipping is a very important aspect of transportation especially due to the ability of ships that carry wide range of goods, and of whatever size. It is also very important when dealing with countries or companies based on islands. Shipping refers to movement of men, goods and materials by means of ships, boats, tramps, liners, steamers, cargoes, vessels etc.

- **Liners**: A liner is a ship that travels regularly between ports. It embraces both passenger and cargo services. It travels according to fixed routes and schedules. It charges standard rates within individual trades and areas. It may also be designed to carry limited number of passengers and more cargo. Liners are classed into ocean and coastal.

- **Ocean liners** are large ships that move from one sea port to another providing passengers with hotel type accommodation, while, coastal liners (also called steamers) are smaller and move along creeks and from coast to coast.

- **Tramps**: This is a cargo ship that is usually smaller in size than a liner. A tramp has no set route or schedule (timetable). It travels whenever it can find cargo to carry. Tramps are usually owned by companies that “hires” the vessels out to a shipper. Its charges or rates are determined by bargaining. Tramps are simply “Taxis” always ready to go to any place, carrying bulky commodities of low value.

- **Tankers**: These ships carry liquid and grinded materials. They are owned or chartered by large oil and other companies or their agents. Such as NNPC Mobil, Total, Texaco etc.

- **Cargoes**: These are ships that have flat backs. They carry goods outward and or bring supplies of food, raw materials, and goods. Cargoes could be classed as container ships or training steamers.

Airfreight
This is one of the most recent means of transporting men, equipment and products by air through aero planes and air cargoes.

Pipelines
Pipelines are mostly used to transport liquids and gaseous materials. They are a specialized means of shipping liquids or grinded materials, such as water, gases, chemicals, petroleum, coal etc, from source to designation (markets and industries) using pipes. The benefits of using pipelines as a means of Transportation.

Inter-modal (Multimodal) Transportation
Organizations do not to use one mode of transport for the entire distance; especially considering that none of the modes of transport is problem free. Plus, most goods that are transported across the supply chain (from point of origin, to the producing firm and out to the consumer) require more than just one mode of transport. Whether we refer to the situation described above as intermodal or multimodal transportation, we are referring to the process by which firms combine two or more modes of transport to move products from origin to destination. This may be way of simultaneous or sequential movement of goods.
Simultaneous Movement
By simultaneous movement, we mean using more than one means of transportation at the same time.

Sequential Movement
Sequential movement of goods, on the other hand, explains a situation where goods are transferred from one mode of transport to another, from origin until hey get to their final destination.

Types of Intermodal (Multimodal) Transport
Various combinations are used to ship goods from origin to destination. The most commonly use method of multimodal is to combine two or more of trains, trucks, ships and containers; resulting in any two-mode or three-mode or four combinations, between rail, road, air, water and pipeline using trains, planes, ships, trucks/trailers, cars, pipelines, and containers. If you are in the third world, the multimode will also include motorcycles. We will consider the following combinations:

Piggyback
The piggyback system is a specialized form of transporting goods using containers (discussed below) in which rail transport and road (trailers) transport coordinate to facilitate movement of goods. Piggyback can take any form; either a truck on a rail, that is trailer-on-flatcar (TOFC); or container on rail, that is container-on-flatcar (COFC); that is a container on a truck on the flatcar. The term flatcar is used to mean to mean a train with a flat back made for carrying trucks, equipments, heavy machinery and containers.

Fishyback
The fishyback system is another form of multimodal transport. It combines ships and trucks and/or containers to move goods from origin to destination. Just like piggybacking, fishy backing is designed to take full advantage of the advantages of other modes of transport. The most common is the combination of containers and ships. This combination is a common sight in seaports. Most of the goods transported by sea are first of all packaged in containers before loading onto ships. Another form of Fishyback is roll—on-roll-off, which is discussed next.

Roll-on-roll-off (RO-RO)
In the roll-on-roll-off (RO-RO), a truckload of goods drives into the ship and remain in the ship for the distance goods will cover. Once the ship gets to the port of destination, the truck will roll out of the ship; no direct loading-on or loading-off required. The truck will just drive into the ship with the loaded goods and once they get to the seaport of destination the truck will just drive out of the ship with its wares.

Air-sea combination
Another military invention that is making inroads in industry is the air-sea combination. In this multimodal combination, ocean transport is combined with air transport to move shipment. Originally, the military used their warships that are fully equipped with airstrips (runways), and
large enough to take anywhere between five to fifteen warplanes or more. The warships are strategically positioned in high seas around the world to make for easy management of logistics. Through this combination the military is able to supply personnel with food, munitions and other supplies. Businesses soon caught on. Today industrial planes land on specially designed cargoes to collect or deliver goods.

**Pipeline combinations**
We have seen earlier that pipelines are used to transport goods. Used in multimodalism, goods are transferred from pipelines and loaded onto ships (Sea tankers) and trucks-tankers, or from ships and trucks into pipelines; or from pipeline to ships and truck-tankers. One goods example of this practice is by the Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) that pump refined oil from its refineries down to its depots from whence it will loaded onto truck-tankers for onward shipment to filling stations and industries.

**Containerization**
A common assumption is that a container is a mode of transport. This author thinks otherwise. Containerization is more of packaging equipment than a means of transportation. By definition, containers are large steel framed boxes used to store goods for movement from one location to another. Containers can be classed as open-top, that is, those without cover; refrigerated designed for carrying frozen goods, dry cargo used for boxed goods; tanks that are made for liquids and grains, and; ventilated for goods likely to be damaged as a result of absorbing heat while in transit. By itself, the container is not a means of transportation; it requires to be facilitated by other means of transportation, such as ships, trucks trains etc. a very simple fact is that the container itself is been transported along with the goods it is containing. You cannot load goods in a container and expect it to move either manually, electronically or mechanically, as you would on a donkey, in a car, ship, train or airplane or through pipelines.

**Transport Carriers**
The transport industry was among the first major industries to be deregulated in Nigeria. This led to many individuals and groups to own and run transport companies. These companies are one offer to deliver logistics services to whoever asked for it, for a fee. Like warehousing several ownership alternative exist for companies to acquire the service of transport service providers. Aside owning their own transport fleet, the firm may opt for using the services of any one or combination of common carriers, private carriers and contract carriers.

**Private Carrier (Own Fleet)**
A private carrier or own fleet typically transport goods belonging to the owner. For example, Dangote Group has a fleet of trucks that ship goods for all of its business units within Nigeria and to other West African counties. The Group also has a ship it use to transport imported goods/commodities and raw materials into Nigeria and some West African countries. Jamil Yoghurt also has a fleet of refrigerated trucks used to transport its yoghurt and milk across the country. The most common sight of private carriers is the Coca-cola and 7Up trucks we see on our major roads delivering soft drinks to wholesalers and retailers. Own fleet is not restricted to carriers that are owned by he person or organization selling or transporting goods. It also includes carriers leased or rented. The carrier owner’s primary business is not transportation. The
carrier is just used to facilitate the business. Thus, by law, private carriers serve only the purpose of the owner. Principally, the vehicles are tagged with a name, logo or any other sign of the company, showing that the carrier is owned and not-for-hire.

**For-Hire Carriers**

As opposed to own fleet, a firm may opt for for-hire transport carriers, so that they are not making the type of investment commitment that is required in private transportation and the likely problems that comes along with the decision. When firms opt for for-hire carriers, they have any one or combination of the following:

- **Common carriers:** A common carrier is one that publicly holds itself out to carry goods for anyone who engaged it. It does not refuse goods only if it is short of space, or incapable. It is strictly liable for loss or damage to goods. Common carriers render for-hire services and are designed and operated to serve the general public at a reasonable fee. This suggests that are offered to it, provided they have the facility to offer the service. Serving without discrimination means that the carrier must charge the same amount for the same service. The last requirement, charging reasonable fees can be a source of problem especially since it depends on the negotiating power of the individuals that the carrier serves. This requirement was designed to protect the general public from arbitrarily and excessively low rates. Common carriers offer their services to any shipper at stipulated rates from one location to the other. From the legal point of view, for-hire carrier used to be the most regulated. However, with the deregulation of the transport sector in Nigeria, as most part of the world, it became more flexible, offering a range of services, in regards to market entry, mode of transport, routing and scheduling and pricing. Common carriers are held liable for the loss or damage of goods it receive for delivery, unless the carrier can prove that any of the following six acts (or the combination of some) is responsible for the loss or damage:
  - Act of God;
  - Act of robbers and sea pirate etc.
  - Act of public enemy (military attack)
  - Act of shipper (fault of the shipper, such as improper packaging);
  - Act of public authority (goods impounded by customs authority or the police), and;
  - Acts resulting from the inherent nature of the goods (such as rust, corrosion, oxidation etc).

All these can be handled earlier on before they occur by insuring goods before they are transported on land or before they set sail on sea.

- **Contract Carriers** are another form of for-hire transport service provider, but unlike the common carriers, contract carriers transport only a range of services. They are not, by law, required to serve the general public, but specific customers. In other word they serve one or limited number of customer with whom they enter into a specific form of contact. Thus, their services are customized to suit one particular customer or specific set of customers. Stated simply, the services of a contract carrier are tailor-made under some contractual arrangements. The charges of a contract carrier can be high or low depending on the service they are to render. However, their rates tend to be lower than those of common carriers because they are carrying goods they prefer carrying.

- **Exempt Carriers** are carriers who by virtue of their ownership and the goods they deal in or services they render are exempt from economic regulations. By this, we mean that they are
 exempt from some restrictions, and they enjoy certain privileges that the common and contract carriers don’t enjoy. For example, carriers that specialize in rendering services to shippers of agricultural product such as seedlings, crops, fertilizer, farm equipment, and health-related products such as drugs, hospital equipments etc, may be exempt from certain legal and economic restrictions simply for the essential nature of the goods they are hauling. Most public-owned carriers are also example from economic regulations fro the simple reason that they are owned by the government. Vehicles and trucks owned by Kaduna State Transport Authority (KPTA), for example, face little regulations and restrictions as compared to other carriers. This informs why some common and contract carriers may have and provide the state a share of the stakes-they pay certain amounts to the state for the privilege of using its tag. We may not forget the fat that the arrangement has other implicit benefits; which is that the carriers will not be harassed by law enforcement agents with the usual Oga wetin you carry. It provides them with the right of passage at any police check point. A carrier may also get exempt status if its operations are local. Stated differently, if a carriers carries goods meant for local consumption, especially if the goods are essentials, the carrier may benefit from the exemption.

**Factors Considered in Selecting Mode of Transport and Carriers**

**Volume of goods**
This will apply where goods are large or bulky and to be carried over long distance. Therefore for internal trade the rail transport or inland waterway will be considered and ships and canoes for external trade. However, if the area is landlocked trucks must be used. Some firms specialize in shipping large volume of goods while others specialize in moving only goods in small size. Such issues must be considered. Just as well, the manager must also consider which mode is appropriate for voluminous items and small items. This consideration is important in transportation mode and carrier selection decision.

**Value of goods**
For security and safety reason and for common sense, the value of the goods shipped must take precedence over all other considerations. Thus, if items that are shipped are expensive, it may be necessary to us air transport or any other mode the shipper deems appropriate and vice verse. The carrier that will ensure safe delivery of goods is also given special consideration.

**Cost of transport**
Cost of transport is the amount paid for the shipment of goods between two geographical locations. Cost is also related to degree of urgency, distance and volume of gods. The transport company will charge less if distance is close or if goods are in small quantity, and more if the geographical locations are far apart. In the same vein, if the shipper want the goods urgently and serves the transporter short notice, cost will most likely be high. The major consideration is that transport charges must not exceed value of goods. It must also not be seen to be overly expensive. Rates must be reasonable. Some modes are more expensive than others, just as some carriers charge more than others. For example, air transport is naturally more expensive than road or sea. Juggling the cost-benefit factor will result in managers making decision for one mode or carrier against the other. The manager must therefore select a transport mode that is cost-appropriate to the organization.
Distance
In large countries and especially in international trade, goods cover greater distance. Where goods are to be transported to a long distance, whether internally or out of a country, then air transport will be required, especially if the goods are required for immediate use or consumption. However, if goods are not required for immediate consumption or use; then, sea transport may be appropriate. Of course, taking other factors, such as weight and quantity into consideration. We emphasize this statement because, no transport mode or carrier selection criteria or factor operates in isolation. One factor cannot be considered as others are held constant. The factors must all be put to test. Related to the issue of distance is the issue of time, reliability and speed; the subject of our next discussion.

Speed
The speed of transportation is the time it takes a carrier to complete the shipment of goods from the point of origin to destination. By speed, we don’t mean speed for the sake of speed. We imply the consideration of the transportation mode than can facilitate the delivery of goods at the required date and time. If goods are needed on short notice, for example, the manager must put that into consideration and select a transport mode that will ensure that goods arrives on-time. However, if managers have luxury for time then they can choose any transport mode, bearing in mind other factors.

Safety
Safety of goods is obviously a concern to managers. Because transportation mode will ultimately affect the chance of goods arriving safety without loss or damage, manages are considering not only the most appropriate mode that will ensure goods arrive in the right condition, they will also consider the ability of the carrier to move shipment without having to damage the goods. The condition of products is a key customer service requirement. Thus, where the goods to be transported are fragile, perishable and expensive transportation Will be by air or motor vehicles or in containers. Further, the transport carrier’s ability to ensure that shipments arrived safely is a major consideration.

Security
Closely related to safety is the issue of security. While safety concern is about the physical or function condition of the items of shipment, security is having to see what is shipped. In other woe, security concerns the mode or carrier’s ability to deliver the goods in the quantity they were tendered to he carrier. The goods must be protected from theft, pilfering and sea pirates. Sea piracy is a major concern today, especially for shipments passing through Gulf of Eden, Somalia. Over the last two years, transporters and owners of goods have paid over $200 million as ransom to sea pirates before goods, ships and crews hijacked were released. Thus, where goods are vulnerable (i.e. easily attacked or attract the attention of criminals) transportation should be by air, taking other factors such as cost, weight and volume etc, into consideration.

Convenience
This is necessary where the route is flexible and where minimum facilities are required. The shipper is interested in the mode’s or carrier’s ability of taking off at any time without rigid timetable. Where it is a major requirement then transportation will be by road; taking distance
into consideration. In other words, the ability of mode and carrier to move goods at the convenience of the shipper is an important selection criterion.

**Government Policy and Regulations**
Government regulations are a special consideration in mode and carrier selection decision. Governments put in place rules on the conduct of transporters and other legislations on the movement of goods. To the extent that such laws dictate the mode or carrier to be used in transporting certain goods, then owners/shippers have no options than to abide by such regulations. But if there are no regulations, which is very rare, or if the regulations are lax, then the shipper can taken any mode or carrier to be the most appropriate for the situation.

**Reputation of the Carrier**
The carrier that has good regulation (goodwill) attracts more businesses regardless of his or her cost. Reputation is a major criterion in any business decision, because it is directly linked to reliability and trust. Where transport carriers are reliable, shippers will trust and transact with them, and where transport carriers are unreliable, shippers will simply avoid them.

**Benefits derivable**
We have discussed various modes and carriers earlier. The advantages and disadvantages of the each mode of transportation that we discussed over the other will surely be considered by he shipper in making mode or carrier selections, depending on the situation.

**Reference**
World Trade Organization (WTO)1998, Maritime. Transport services Background Note by the secretariat S/C/W/62 Genera.
AN APPRAISAL OF GOVERNMENT ECONOMIC REFORM POLICIES AND ITS IMPACT ON NIGERIAN ECONOMY (1985 – 2010)

BY

DANLADI YAKUBU
Dept of Management Studies
College of Business & Management Studies

And

DAVID JIYA
Department of Social Sciences
College of Administrative & Social Sciences
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna Nigeria

Abstract
Nations across the world are beginning to realize the unquestionable relevance of reform policies in addressing economic, political and socio-cultural crises. The paper examines the various types of reform policies/programmes embarked upon by different Administrations in Nigeria, as a basis for improving the economy and standard of living. In this light the paper outlines the objectives, critical success factors and challenges for economic reforms. The economic reforms in Nigeria were meant to address the economic growth and development challenges the country is going through. Recommendations advanced were based on observed lapses and are aimed at improving the performance of these policies.

Introduction
As the planned accelerated growth of developing economies could not be achieved over extended periods of national economic planning (actually many of them witnessed negative economic growth within the period), Adeyemi (2006) it became inevitable to rethink the role of government in their economic life. This rethink, he further observed, was indeed encouraged by certain developments including:

• The economic deregulation pursued by the Margaret Thatcher administration in Britain.
• The economic deregulation policy of President Ronald Reagan in the USA.
• The pressures by the Bretton Woods institutions (that is, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank) on developing countries with chronic external payments imbalances to undertake economic adjustment.
• The collapse of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and the transition of the former republics to the market economy.

It was argued that without high levels of domestic savings, broadly based human capital, good macro-economic management and limited price distortions, there would be no basis for economic growth (Wilson, 2005). He went further to posit that guided by known economic principles and theories, successive administrations in Nigeria have initiated various economic reform measures that have nevertheless failed to achieve the desired rise in savings and investments. Wilson further contended that not until very recently did research show that
economic policy dependent on classic theories of economic development are no longer enough unless accompanied by legal, institutional and regulatory reforms which have been missing in Nigeria’s reform agendas.

It is against this background that successive administrations in Nigeria embarked upon one form of reform programme/policy or the other.

**Government Reform Policies**
Early economic reforms which received nation-wide attention/debate was first initiated by Babangida’s Military Regime in 1985, known as Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). However during the second term of President Olusegun Obasanjo, another reform programme known as the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) was introduced. The government aimed to improve the macroeconomic environment within Nigeria and to better manage public expenditures. Structural reforms played a large role as well.

**Reasons Advanced for the Reform:**

- During 1999, human development indicators of Nigeria were below average in comparison with other developing economies.
- Nigeria depended strongly on its oil export business, leading the country vulnerable to fluctuations in oil prices.
- Volatile fiscal spending were destabilizing the country's macroeconomic conditions.
- This volatile economic environment deterred private investment; at the same time, government expenditures were rising.
- The unemployment rate in Nigeria was quite high.
- The amount of domestic debt was increasing along with the rate of inflation. In 1999, the inflation rate was 10.4%, whereas in 2003 it climbed up to 21.8%.
- The Nigerian citizens average income per capita was very low, below $300.

The government's plan to tackle these problems included structural, institutional, governance, and macroeconomic reforms. Moreover, the Nigerian government started to extend the reform process to the regional level. They worked to diversify the economy away from oil, in order to improve the domestic business climate.

**The Framework for Economic Reforms**
Adeyemi (2006) further contended that economic policies at any time in a country represent a set of contract between the government and various socio-economic groups that address problems of market failure and demands for redistribution. His argument is based on the premise that conventional economic theory has provided justification for government intervention in economic activities in instances of market failure. Such market failures occur for a variety of reasons, as further documented Adeyemi, below:

- **Market Failure** - A number of commentators posit for instance, that the market will fail when it is unable to provide signals for certain goods (notably public goods) to be produced. This is because market prices usually provide signals to producers as to the profitability of different
lines of production (Adeymi, ibid). A characteristic of public goods is that once they are provided, no one can be excluded from consuming them whether or not such a person contributed to the provision of such goods.

- Another reason for market failure is when the production process is characterized by increasing returns to scale. In this instance, as output expands, costs normally decline such that there is a tendency for monopoly to emerge. This violates one of the conditions, the existence of competition, for a market economy to achieve optimal outcome.

- The presence of externalities is the third reason why markets fail. This is a situation where the activities of an economic agent confer costs or benefits on other agents that market prices do not capture. Externalities lead to either over- or under-production of the good or service in question, depending on whether it imposes costs or confers benefits. In each situation, government action is necessary to restore efficient supply. Modern economic theory thus recommends that government action should complement rather than supplant the market in resource allocation. On the contrary, most developing countries appeared to have sought to supplant rather than complement the market resource allocation function, with disastrous consequences for their economies. This is the problem that economic reforms seek to ameliorate.

According to Compos and Esfahani (1996) sited by Adeyemi, viewed policy reform as, “a renegotiation of contracts that entail direct government involvement in production toward more efficient, market oriented ones”. They add, however, that there is a political dimension to the reform decision because, consenting to the reform package means “interest groups that currently support or could support the ruling coalition must know what they will gain from the reform, how the gains will be distributed, and whether the distribution of rewards will indeed be honoured by the government”. We are thus led into establishing some critical success factors for economic reforms as follows:

- The credibility of the government implementing the reforms.
- The ease of building a strong and broad coalition among the populace to support the reform.
- The speed with which an acceptable scheme can be designed and implemented to compensate those who are bound to suffer losses as a result of the reform.

Camdessus (1990) and Adeyemi (2006) were in agreement when they observed that economic reforms have a better chance of success if they aim at the following:

- Firm macroeconomic policies that establish a framework of financial stability and are conducive to steady, medium-term growth.
- Structural reforms that establish an appropriately decentralized system of decision-making and responsibility, and an effective pattern of incentives-to work, save, and invest.
- A regulatory framework to supervise and maintain the market infrastructure and to decide delicate and complex distributional issues.
- Creation of the kind of social safety net that is used in the Western countries to cushion the impact of unemployment by supporting and retraining the unemployed, and to alleviate the human cost of adjustment for the most vulnerable parts of the population.
Institutional and Regulatory Environment and Economic Growth and Competitiveness: The Intricate Link

Wilson (2005) posited that Economic scholars now accept that formulating economic policy on the basis of classic theories of economic development are no longer enough in framing reform policies. Institutional and regulatory reforms must be integrated into the reform process, his argument continued. That the groundbreaking studies by Late Professor Mancur Olson, founder of Institutional Reform and the Informal Sector (IRIS) identified a strong relationship between institutions and economic development, which be implication economic reforms in Nigeria must take into consideration.

Components of the Reform Programme (1985-2010)

In Nigeria, the need for economic reforms was first mooted in 1983, under President Shehu Shagari. His regime Onyekwere (2011) argued witnessed as its major economic reform package ‘the austerity measure’ which led to closure of many factories. These mounting economic problems forced the country, then, to seek a balance of payments support loan from the IMF as well as a structural adjustment loan from the World Bank. Also, in November 1983, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), in a memorandum to the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) advised the government to initiate economic reforms (CBN, 1983; p.12). However, President Shagari did not have enough time to introduce any economic reform before his government was overthrown on 31 December, 1983.

The succeeding military government of General Buhari/Idiagbon, being more nationalistic, preferred tighter government control and curbing corruption among public officials. The General Babangida’s regime that came to power on August 27, 1985 was more favourably disposed to economic reforms and, therefore, proceeded to build political consensus on the need for it. He allowed Nigerians to publicly debate the desirability or otherwise of taking an IMF loan. Because the conditions attached to the loans tended to relieve the government of some responsibilities for direct economic management since they favoured economic liberalization, the IMF Loan Debate of 1985 was equivalent to a debate on whether to continue with administrative allocation of resources or switch over to reliance on the market mechanism. As a result of the failure of the economic stabilization programme of Sgagari’s regime, Uniamikogbo (2006) observed, Nigeria put in place an adjustment programme (i.e. the Structural Adjustment Programme in 1986 which was designed to fit the standard IMF-World Bank structural adjustment package of getting national policies right.

The IMF Loan Debate ended with a rejection of the IMF loan and its conditionalities. Despite this verdict, the Federal Government under President Babangida drew up an economic reform programme that incorporated all the conditionalities of an IMF loan. The FGN used the 1986 budget to unveil the new economic reform programme. A formal version of the programme, called Structural Adjustment Programme, which was supported by the IMF, took off on July 1, 1986. It was scheduled to last two years. SAP was pursued up to August 27, 1993 when President Babangida left office. The regime of General Sanni Abacha (1993-1998) abandoned some aspects of the economic reforms and pursued what it called “guided deregulation”. In spite of characterization to the contrary, we have the assurance of the then Minister of Finance that the regime continued with the reforms. According to Ani (1998):
“Budget '98 is signal to the global community of investors that our nation is ready and endowed to benefit fully from the wisdom of the market. The philosophy of guided deregulation was never intended to delay the “reign” of market forces as has been unfairly suggested in some quarters. It is our own response to the need to ensure that economic growth did not lead to economic grief”.

General Adulsalam Abubakar (1998-1999) laid the legal framework for the second phase of the privatization exercise that continued under President Obasanjo (1999 to date).

**Economic Reforms Since 1999**

Uniamikogbo (2006) succinctly documented the various reforms in Nigeria as viz. That in recognition of the role of agriculture as the mainstay of Nigeria's economy, the government initiated policies to increase investment in food and agricultural production. He continued to identify government's main policy thrusts to include the provision of the right policy environment and target incentives for private investment in the sector; fostering of effective linkages with industry to achieve maximum value-added and processing for export; modernization of production and creation of an agricultural sector that is responsive to the demands and realities of the Nigerian economy in order to create more agricultural and rural employment opportunities.

To actualize the policy thrusts Uniamikogbo further mentioned the following strategies as being employed:

- The vigorous implementation of the presidential initiatives on cassava, rice, vegetable oil, sugar, livestock, cereals and tree crops.
- The strengthening of agricultural research and the revitalization and streamlining of agricultural training and extension delivery system respectively;
- Adequate capitalization of the Nigerian Agricultural, Co-operative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB) to provide soft agricultural and rural finance and the promotion of integrated rural development involving agricultural and non-agricultural activities.

Indeed cassava and rice initiatives are some of the noticeable key components of the reforms in the agricultural sector. This is due to the fact that Cassava initiative aims at producing more cassava to ensure its ready availability, affordability and accessibility to all Nigerians; as the nation's major stable food; encouraging foreign earning, through the export of its end-products like cassava pellets, cassava chips and cassava starch; developing cottage industries involved in the production of value added products like ethanol encouraging rural industrialization and rural job creation, leading to enhanced rural income and reduction in rural urban migration (Federal Ministry of Information and National Orientation, FMINO 2006a, found in Uniamikogbo, 2006).

It was emphasized that the overall objective of rice initiative was to attain self-sufficiency in local production of rice by 2005 and to produce for export by the year 2007 (Uniamikogbo, ibid). Further details reveals that the project was expected to produce six million tonnes of milled rice from 10.3 million tonnes of paddy by the year 2005, while it was estimated that 15 million tonnes of paddy or 9 million tonnes of milled rice will be produced by the year 2007 (Federal Ministry of Information and National Orientation, 2006b found in Uniamikogbo, 2006).
Also found in Uniamikogbo (2006) is the reform of the telecommunications sector which was motivated by the inability of government to continue to fund public enterprises due to dwindling resources and the identification of the sector as a critical social driver and enhancer. This was encouraged by the recognition that the quality and density of the sector's network and the intensity of the use of its services are major indicators of social and economic development. The above led to a four-phased reform programme was put in place to restructure the telecommunications sector, namely:

- a new telecommunications policy;
- design of new legal and regulatory framework;
- restructuring of the sector (including promotion of a strong and independent Regulator); and
- privatization of Nigeria Telecommunications Limited (NITEL.)

The platform on which the telecommunications reform has been executed is through liberalization, deregulation and privatization (Federal Ministry of Information and National Orientation 2006c, as found in Uniamikogbo, 2006).

The reform of the electric power sector started in 2000 with the formulation of a new power policy. This policy was adopted by the National Council on Privatization (NCP) and approved by the Federal Executive Council in 2001. The Electric Power Sector Reform (EPSR) Act was signed into law in 2005. Among the major reform initiatives being undertaken are as noted Federal Ministry of Information and National Orientation, (2006d, found in Uniamikogbo, 2006):

- Change in legal and regulatory framework with the signing into law the electric Power Sector Reform (EPSR) bill, which repealed NEPA Act and Electricity Act;
- Change in shape of the industry such as the:
- Transformation of NEPA into an Initial Holding Company- i.e. The Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN).
- Subsequent creation from PHCN, six Generation companies, one Transmission Company and eleven Distribution companies.
- Privatization of the Distribution and Generation companies as well as private sector participation in the Transmission Company.
- Establishment of the Nigerian Electricity Regulatory Commission (NERC) to ensure a level playing field for all players and protect the rights of consumers.
- Advent of Independent Power Producers (IPP) in electric power sector, etc.

Before the present democratic dispensation, preceding administrations had successively instituted legal instruments, measures and policies designed to combat corruption in the country. Unfortunately, these remedial measures did not achieve the desired results to prohibit and prescribe punishment for corrupt practices, the Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Act 2000 was enacted while the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) was inaugurated on the 29th of September, 2000. There was also, the establishment of the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) charged with the responsibility for the enforcement of all economic and financial crimes laws, among other things.
In the pursuance of its primary objective of maintaining price and macro-economic stability, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) embarked on monetary targeting and the mopping up of excess liquidity to ensure a non-inflationary macro-economic environment. In the banking industry, the CBN in July 6, 2004 introduced a 13-point reform agenda, which is aimed at recapitalizing and consolidating the sector for efficient service delivery.

A major component of the reform programme was the Banking sector consolidation programme which mandated banks to achieve a minimum shareholders' funds of N25 billion by end-December, 2005. The process of restructuring/reform in the Nigerian insurance industry necessitated an increase in the capital requirement. The reform which commenced in September 2005 raised the capitalization requirement to N 2billion for Life Insurance and N3 billion and N10 billion for General Insurance and Reinsurance respectively. Insurance Companies are expected to comply with the new capital requirement by end-February 2007.

According to former Finance Minister, Okonjo-Iweala's (2003) the new economic policy tagged National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), is predicated on a five per cent gross domestic product (GDP) yearly growth rate. The thrust of the policy include the attainment of macro-economic stability, such as stable inflation, interest and foreign exchange rates, the intensification of the fight against HIV/AIDS, the completion of all abandoned projects, strict budget discipline as well as public sector reforms. On the surface, the strategy looks practicable; 10-year development plan capable of leading to economic recovery.

If complaints by the Nigeria Association of Chambers of Commerce, Industry, Mines and Agriculture (NACCIMA), Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN) and other stakeholders are anything to go by, the gloomy picture painted currently of the economy gives little hope of ever meeting the five per cent (GDP) as the capability utilisation has continued to slide down by as much as 35 per cent. If the policy is to make any meaningful impact, certain economic motivating infrastructure must be put in place.

President Obasanjo continued with the removal of subsidies on petroleum products, right sizing of the public sector workforce and the enthronement of macroeconomic stability. On December 18, 2003, while presenting the 2004 Budget to the National Assembly, he announced a medium term economic reform programme, which is formally set out in the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) document.

The reforms focus on four broad areas, namely:

a) **Accelerated Privatisation, Liberalisation and Private Sector Development** This comprises the following:
  - The liberalisation of the telecommunications sector.
  - The deregulation of the downstream petroleum sector, phasing out of petroleum subsidies and the sale of the refineries.
  - The deregulation of the power sector and the privatization of NEPA.
• Concessioning of the railways, the ports and airports.
• Strengthening of the regulatory framework in the telecommunication, power, petroleum, transport sectors.

b) Anti-Corruption, Transparency and Accountability: This involves the following:
• The extension of the Due Process Mechanism, involving reviews of the unit costs of contracts, to all aspects of public procurement and the establishment of a Procurement Commission.
• The introduction of Running Operational Reviews (RORs) which would allow for operational, logistical and financial reviews and assessments for major activities as they are being implemented.
• The enrolment of Nigeria in the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (NEITI), which commits the country to publishing output and revenues in the oil industry on a regular basis.
• Supporting and strengthening the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) to enable it meet its mandate.
• Supporting and strengthening the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) in investigating and prosecuting cases of corruption.
• Increased capacity for the police to provide security, investigate and prosecute cases.

c) Public Sector Reform: This consists of:
• Restoration of fiscal discipline, with the fiscal deficit/GDP ratio set at a maximum of 3% per annum.
• Monetisation of benefits in the public service with a view to reducing waste and corruption.
• Re-professionalise of the civil service, enthrone a culture of merit in the service and raise the morale of workers.
• Elimination of ghost workers.
• The introduction of a Contributory Pension Scheme to replace the non-contributory pay-as-you-go (PAYG) system that had become unsustainable and led to sizeable arrears.
• Quantifying and clearing contractors’ payment arrears.
• Simplification of the multiple taxes and levies that companies face.
• Strengthening the Customs Service for better revenue collection.
• Introduction of destination inspection.
• Harmonisation of the tariff structure with the common external tariff (CET) of ECOWAS.

d) Governance and Institutional Reforms, involving:
• Reform of the Local Government System to make it more effective and efficient.
• Reform of tertiary institutions by granting them autonomy to choose to their leaders and managers and to raise additional resources through various means.

Overall, these reforms were designed to achieve the following national goals:
• Wealth creation.
• Employment generation.
• Poverty reduction.
• Value reorientation
The reforms are also expected to assist Nigeria realize the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). According to the UNDP (2003), these goals, which are to be attained by 2015 are:

- Eradication of extreme poverty and hunger.
- Achievement of universal primary education.
- Promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women.
- Reduction of child mortality rates.
- Improvement of maternal health.
- Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases.
- Ensuring environmental sustainability.
- Developing global partnership for development.

Impacts of Economic Reform:
The standard of living for the average Nigerian is expected to receive some boost, and unemployment rates to decrease slightly. In agreement with the impact reforms are likely to have on the economy, the Governor, Central Bank of Nigeria, Sanusi Lamido Sanusi called for comprehensive reforms in all the sectors of Nigerian economy with a view to enhancing the wellbeing of the citizenry, eradicating poverty and ensuring national security (CBN, 2010). He stated that economic deprivation and unequal society exemplified by lack of jobs, education, food etc for the teeming youths are mostly responsible for social upheavals; the type witnessed in Nigeria over the years which he said are at the heart of national security. This Obasanjo (2005) argued demands consistency and sincerity in policy formulation and implementation.

Conclusion
The research study was set out to evaluate the effect of government reform policies on the Nigerian economy. This therefore led to some questions being asked and answers sought for them.

- Has reform polices any effects on the growth and development of Nigeria economy in terms of the provision of quality services?
- Is there any benefit to be derived from the reform policies by Nigerians.
- Has reform policies bids been successful in Nigeria etc.

In conclusion, the idea of reform policies is usually based on the need to foster economic growth and development. From the findings this was asserted by the positive responses in agreement to the reform policies bids.

The citizenry will benefit from the exercise in terms of improved staff welfare, health facilities, increase etc. However, it will les to staff rationalization in order to improve productivity as better staff are retained to handle the operations better.

In terms of the success of the reform policies, it can be concluded that the implementation in a proper way and close monitoring is the main key to its success.

From the research study therefore, it is concluded that reform policies have serious positive effects on the Nigeria economy. The effect will lead to better economic growth and development.
Recommendations
Looking at the strategic posture of the reform policies bids on the economic growth and development of the nation, it is pertinent therefore to offer some useful suggestions that will assist in the implementation of the findings and also for further research.

The persistent economic difficulties in the country have no doubt hit several hitherto booming firms and industries, policies reformation therefore has become not only relevant but imperative in order to lessen the effect of the shock on the citizen and the economy as a whole.

Policies reformation bids should be as a survival and expansion strategy in booms and recessions as the economy is heading towards higher growth and development level.

Reference
Keynes, J M (1936), General Theory of Income, Prices and Employment
UNDP (2003), Human Development Report 2003
EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF INVENTORY CONTROL ON THE PRODUCTIVITY OF A MANUFACTURING FIRM (A CASE STUDY OF 7UP BOTTLING COMPANY KADUNA).

BY

NASIRU BELLO WAILARE

And

ABDULWAHAB ANAFI

Department of Business Administration & Management
College of Business and Management Studies,
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna Nigeria

Abstract
This research is on Evaluating the impact of Inventory control on the productivity of manufacturing firm with 7up Bottling Company as a case study its primary aims is to determine the level of inventory control and the way by which movement of goods are documented within the organisation. It is also the aim of the research to find out the methods of issuing, receiving, stock taking and stock control of goods with a view to eliminate the element of waste and thereby minimizing the amount of materials purchased from trying down capital stock out. The researcher divided the project into five chapters. One forms the general introduction, brief history of 7up Bottling Company, statement of general problems, hypothesis, limitations and significance of the study, chapter two deals with review of related literature while chapter three deals with the research methodology chapter four was used to analyse and present the data collected in a tabular form. While chapter five deals with the summary, conclusion and recommendations.

Introduction
Inventory in the form of raw materials, work in progress and finished goods constitute significant proportion of assets of most organization (Kuratko 2009; Hatten, 2006). But why is it pertinent to keep an eye on these items in other words, why do we engage in inventory control? Inventory items cost money to acquire, they cost money to store and to look after, which means storage facilities has to be provided so as to make sure that these materials or items do not get spoilt until they are turned into sellable goods they do not produce money, when stock are held, it means tying down capital that would have been used in other areas, so it all represent cost and should be managed properly to acquire efficiency. We must however, held stocks to meet production need and sales needs. This is because if we do not hold stocks in sufficient quantities, we stand the risk of running out of stocks.

Similarly if we are short of finished goods, we may disappoint our customers, inventory shortages in both of these forms will likely lead to loss of customers and money. For the organization not to have the above problems, they should strike a balance between carrying too much stock (overstocking) and carrying too little stock (under stoking).

This is essentially the importance of inventory control. Managing assets of all kinds is basically an inventory problem, the same method of analysis applies to cash and fixed assets as to inventories themselves (kuratko, 2009). First of all a basic stock must be on hand to balance
inflows and outflows of items, the size of the stock depends on the pattern of lows whether fast moving or regular items or slow moving or irregular items. Secondly, because the unexpected may occur it is necessary to have safety stocks on hand representing extra stock to avoid the cost of not having enough to meet current needs. Thirdly, additional amounts may be required to meet future growth needs. These are called anticipation stocks, related to anticipation stocks is the recognition that these are optimum purchases size defined as Economic Order Quantity (EOQ) (Bittel, Ramsey, & Bittel, 1995)

In borrowing money, in order to buy raw materials for production or purchase plants and equipments, it is cheaper or more economical to buy more than just enough to meet immediate needs. Manufacturing firms generally have three kinds of inventories.(Bittel, et’al, ibid): Raw materials; Work in progress; and Finished goods. These are explained below.

a. **The level of raw materials**: Inventories is influenced by anticipated production, seasonality of production, reliability of sources of supply and efficiency of scheduling purchases and production operation.

b. **Work in progress inventory**: This is greatly influenced by the length of the production period, which is the time between planning raw materials in production and completing the finished products. Inventory turnover therefore can be increased by decreasing the production. One means of accomplishing this is to perfect engineering techniques thereby spreading up to manufacturing process. Another means is to buy rather than make them. The level of finished goods inventories is a matter of coordinating production and sales.

c. **Holding stock in whatever form costs money** (Hatten, 2006): The capital tied down by the stock itself has to be serviced by the payment of interests and the land or warehouse needed for the stock has to be brought oriented. The handling and securing of the stock and any quality deterioration that occurs also cost money. Hatten further observed various forms of costs of carrying inventory to include shrinkages, obsolescence, holding cost and ordering cost.

The sample type of stock control system used in most organizations is two, the bin system of stock control and is of two quantities. The first quantity be placed, the other gives the quantity to be ordered. Under this system, the units of stock are held in two, one and two stock is taken from bin as required until this bin is empty. More are they ordered by the quality being determined by the rate of usage or consumption rate, comprehensive inventory; planning and control system have been successfully installed or established in many organizations. The major objectives of inventory control are to discover and maintain to optimum level of investment in the inventory. Inventories may be too high or too low, if too high there are unnecessary carrying cost and risk of obsolesce, while if too low production may be disrupted or sales permanently lost and loss of goodwill, reputation and customers to other firms in the same industry. The optimum inventory level is that which minimize the total cost associated with inventory.

**Statement of the Problem**

The lifeblood of any organization both private and public sector is material and this has been neglected long ago by various business concerns. The survival of any business set up depends upon sufficient application of materials function, policies involved and recognition according to the function.
Statement Of Hypothesis
The following hypothesis shall guide this study:

$Ho$: Effective inventory control will not reduce material wastages/cost does not improve profitability.

$Hi$: Effective inventory control will reduce material wastages/cost enhance does improves profitability.

Literature Review
Meaning of Inventory Control
Wild 1968 defined inventory control as being concerned essentially with the use and control of the inventories associated with operating system. He went further to explain the need for inventory control which is influenced by capacity management decision. Since the existence of inventories will be determined by the capacity management shortages which are to be employed. If inventories exist he further said they should serve some useful purpose and therefore must be carefully managed.

These purposes include:
1. **For Output Stock** (For manufacturers and related system).
   - To protect the function from uncertainties in demand for instance, permitting stable level of operating of functions despite fluctuating demand.
   - To permit manufacturers and or supply of items in economic batches.
2. **For Input Resources Stock** (In manufacturing, supply, transport and service systems)
   - To permit favourable purchase/provision arrangements (for instance, price discount and economic quantities)
   - To protect the function from uncertainties in supply (for instance permitting stable/undisrupted operations. despite fluctuation/interrupted suppliers)
3. **For Customer Queues** (in transport and services system)
   - To protect function from uncertainties in demand for example permitting stable level of operation.

Lucey (1986) Defined inventory control as a system used in firm to control the firm’s investment in stock. He went further to explain that the system typically involved the forecasting of future demand and deciding when and how many to order he further stressed the overall objectives of inventory control as to minimize in total. The cost also associated with stock.

These costs can be categorized into the following groups:

a. **Carrying Costs**
   i. interest on capital
   ii. store changes (rent, lighting, heating and air conditioning)
   iii. audit stock taking, stock recording costs.
   iv. store staffing equipment, maintenance and running costs.
   v. materials handling costs
   vi. insurance and security
   vii. deterioration
   viii. pilferage evaporation.
b. Cost of Obtaining Stock (Ordering Costs)
   i. Clerical and administration costs of purchasing, accounting and goods reception.
   ii. Transport costs
   iii. Where goods are manufactured internally.

Lyson (1981) and Hatten (2006) all defined inventory as an accounting term for the value or quality of materials component work in progress and finished products that are kept or stored for uses as the need arises. The term they further observed also applied to:

   i. A detailed list of goods or articles in a given place or stock taking.
   ii. Inventory (or stock) control refers to the techniques used to ensure that stocks of raw materials and other supplies, work in progress and finished goods are kept at level that ensure maximum service level obtained at minimum costs. He went further to explain that inventory control involves these approaches viz:

         a. stock replenishment system, order point or statistical inventory, Orlicky defined a stock replenishment system in materials requirement planning as a set of procedures, decisions rules and records intended to ensure continuous physical availability of all items comprising an inventory in the face of uncertain demand.

         b. materials requirement planning. Define by Hatten (2006) as consisting of a set of logically related procedures decisions which depend on computers to coordinate product orders, raw materials in stock, and sequence of production. He sas it as a master schedule rules and records designed to translate a master production schedule into time phase net requirement,(Williams)

         c. Just-in-time inventory control is an inventory control philosophy whose goal is to maintain just enough materials in just the right place at just the right time to make just the right amount of products. Carter (1982) defined inventory control as a process of ensuring that the stock held by the organization supplied to those parts of operations (that requires them [that is production distribution, sales, engineering e.t.c) bearing in mind the factors of time, location, quantity and costs.

He further explained that in modern supply management inventory control is the real control function it encompasses all the basic aims of stores operation. The basic concept of inventory control is quite simple by getting the right materials in the right quantity of the right quality of the right time at the right place and at the right price. The aims of inventory control have to be achieved but bearing in mind the limitation of costs which are many regarding. Stock held Morrison (1986) defined inventory control as the activity of determining the range and quantities of materials which should be stocked and regulation of the receipts and issues of those materials. He went further to explain why organization held stock thus:

   1. Delivery can be exactly matched with usage day by day.
   2. Economics associated with buying or manufacturing in large quantities more than offset the cost of storage.
   3. Operational risks require in the holding of stock to guide against breakdown or programme changes.
   4. for work in progress where a completely balanced production flows in impracticable.
   5. For finished products where the holding of a buffer stock between production and customer is desirable.
6. Owing of fluctuation in the price of commodity is better to acquire stocks when prices are low.

7. In order that materials may appreciate in value through storage e.g. wine, spirit, timber.

8. In order that customer may be attracted by a range of products for which to select.

The right to be given to each of these factors will depend upon the type of organization, the determination of requirements and the approach to stock control will naturally be influenced by the nature of the firms activities. Asaju, a Nigeria author on Production Management and Control saw inventory control as the function of ensuring that sufficient goods are retained in the stock to meet all requirement without over stocking and under stocking. He described inventory control as a system of ordering in which the releases of buying and production order is controlled by the level of stock in the store. Further emphasized on those activities concerning with maintaining correct receipt issues goods storing (avoid deterioration) preserving (to retain its quality at all time until it is issued to users) also maintaining accurate records, accurate physical quantities and all other related task.

**Receipt of Goods**

When goods are delivered, the consignee, is asked to sign a receipt, which may be a copy of delivery note, dispatch note or a consignment note.

Denyer (1982) consignment of goods received in the store must be checked and recorded. He further explained at the time of receipt and this should be indicated on the document if packages or creates are obviously damaged in any way, this should be noted on the document. Furthermore, he explain goods received should be checked as soon as possible to ensure that they are:

a. in good condition

b. in accordance with the order.

Goods can be checked either against a copy of the original order or “blind” that is the goods is listed as they are unpacked. The disadvantage of the former method is that careless checking may not bring to light shortages or in accuracies. Blind checking is time consuming if the list has be hand written but this can be overcome by stock clerk dictating machine. The list is then typed and checked by the appropriate section of the purchasing or account departments. When a consignment arrives. It is common practice to complete a goods receive not which is sent to the purchasing or accounts department. I certify that the above goods were received in good order and condition on store change. The format of goods received notes varies from one organization to another, but usually includes the data, supplier name and address, quantity and description of goods, number of containers or packages, carriage paid or not paid and the signature of the receiving store clerk. Carter [1982] defined stock receipt as all the material and hems supplied to the stores whether form internal transfer [that is from another part of the organization] or from external sources [that is delivery from suppliers] both must be strictly controlled to ensure efficient stores management and smooth operation.

A comprehensive set of documents has been developed to enable this control to be maintained. Each of these documents has an important and specific role to play. Although documents will be designed by individual organizations to accommodate their own needs the logic behind them remains constant. Jessop (1986) goods may be received in a store house from outside suppliers from production shops or from other store house within the organization. They may come by
hand, by post or by road, rail or air. They must be properly looked after when they arrive. The amount of documentation and checking depends greatly on the nature of the goods, and the management techniques of the business of course, if is desirable to avoid the expenses of a lot of paper work if this can be done without undue risks, but the possibility of theft, fraud or mistake is always present similarly, the extent of physical examination, weighting etc of goods received should be arranged in the most economical way to avoid unnecessary delay or expenses.

Stock Issues
Denver (1982) stock issues should be issued only against written, numbered requisitions which have been signed by the persons requiring the goods and when appropriate by the person authorizing the requisition. The purpose for which the items are required should be stated. A job card is kept so that all costs related to that job an be changed to its stock issues for particular jobs must indicate the job number for this purpose. There are many systems for issuing stock items but the success of the system depends very largely on the stores personnel, whose efficiency can be crucial to the successful operation of the production function of the organization.

Every business has its own particular form of records, and its own system of entering them. the record can vary from a sample card containing receipts, issues and balance figures of each item to a computer file which provides number and financial values of receipts issues and balance job coding for issues, maximum reorder and minimum levels for each item, values for major groups of items and any other information required such as location of items by code retraction. In one business, a record of quantities is adequate, In another a price stocked record of quantities is adequate, in another a prie stocked record is necessary the store record, whether a card sheet or computer file must be kept up to date with data from the goods received note and stores requisitions.

Carter (1982) The issues function of stress management is process of reacting to the demands of uses of goods and services held within the stores. The success of this function is often taken as a measure of the efficiency of the whole stores operations. he went further to classify of the whole stores operations, into TYPES OF ISSUES", because of the size and complexity of modern business many stores hold a great variety of items and therefore different types of issues classification exist to cover these varieties.

a. **Replacement Issues** - This is where an item of equipment or a supply of goods has been broken or has become worn out or obsolete. In this case the authorization for a new issues is exchange for the old piece of equipment.

b. **Impress Issues** - These are items that are required by the user to be constantly on hand and therefore the outlying unit store.

c. **Loan Issues** - These are usually tools and equipment that are required by certain department for special jobs. The stores will lend the equipment needed, such loans are controlled by means of the person. Borrowing the items signing out the tools and signing them back in again in the stores on loan book.

d. **Allocated Issues** - This is where stock has been allocated by the production plan to a certain operation in a given department or section (for instance production, engineering, packing etc) in this case the formal production planning document acts as the means of authorization.

e. **General Issues** - These are generally items of stock needed by various departments within the operation for the day to day running of the company. They could range from engineering space to packaging materials.

f. **Capital Issues** - These are the major prices of equipment purchased and issued by the company, in some case large capital items will not be hold stock, so that purchasing department will buy the items and it will
be issued as soon as it is delivered to the factory. Capital issues will always involve senior management in the issue process.

g. Issues Dangerous Materials - In cases where dangerous materials are being handled a special issue procedures have to be followed to ensure that the proper precautions are taken against possible damage. This involves the senior storekeeper becoming involved in the actual issue process. Morrison (1986 defined) stock issues as a service given by the stores department to other departments becomes effective at the point where a store keeper mates issues of goods and users will naturally judged the efficiency of the stores organization by the standard of service provided to them.

Authorization of Issue
Stocks in store represent money and should not be misappropriated. Wasted or improperly used for this reasons issues cannot be made indiscriminately and before gods can be withdrawn from a storehouse. There must be some authority for the transaction. This may be in form of a signed document. A verbal instruction. or a routine arrangement. The normal method is the issues notes signed in the appropriate bin by authorized person, storekeeper should have full details of the names, designations and specimen signatures of all persons empowered to approve issue notes.

Stock Records
Mills and Standing (1981) defined its as a simplest form is record of one line of stock showing the quantitative received, issued and the balance on hand. It can in addition show the value of each transaction and of the balance or it can be elaborate record covering not merely the quantities in stock, but also ordering levels, goods allocated and other items of information which may interest the management.

He went further to explain that “the purpose of stock record can be place under the following headings:

a. To account for the goods which have been purchasing and as far as predictable to trace them through the business until they have delivered and changed to the customers.
b. To report on stock losses and wastages.
c. To report on goods held or on order in relation to requirement for production and selling programme.
d. To provide information for the accurate pricing of goods.
e. To provide information for the accurate pricing of goods if required for departmental changing or costing purposes.

Jesop and Morrison(1986) the operation of the stores functions and the control of stocks cannot be performed in an efficient manner without some means of capturing and storing information, and a facility for the analysis and use of this information. The system of stock recording and the mechanism for use of information must be carefully selected and it may be the case that more than one system is employed by a single organization. Records and techniques should be appropriate to the stores in question and the fact any form of control costs money borne in mind.

It is now wide spread practice to employ computers for the purpose of maintaining and manipulating stock records, indeed stock control is perhaps an ideal area for the application of electronic data processing involving as it does, the storage of large amount of information and performance of a variety of procedure and processes using the information.

Denver (1982) the purpose of stock is:
a. to check on the issuing system
b. To ascertain the balance of any particular stock at any time. (and the value required).
c. To check with the physical stock taking which every business carries out periodically.
It is usually the duty of the storekeeper to maintain bin records of each item on stock and to record receipts and issues, which should agree with the office stock records where possible stock records shall be kept in a separate office, so that they constitute a check on the recorded actions of store keeper [by comparison with the bin cards] which ever system is used. a machine will do the tedious job of posting much quicker than if carried out by hand and provide an automatic check on the accuracy of the postings] at the same time, it will automatically given a new balance on each stock account.

**Store House Location System**
Jessop and Morrison [1986] in a large storehouse, the personnel cannot be expected to remember where everything is kept and some of location system has to be devised. Basically this is merely a question of saying whereabouts in the building each item of stock is kept, but it must be done in a systematic manner.

1- The storehouse area is divided into sections each of which can be given a letter or a number
2- Each stock of storage fixtures in a section is also letter of numbered commencing from one end.
3- Each bay of shelving or racking forming a stock is similarly identified.
4- Finally, each individual bin opening has a number. A system of this kind will provide allocation symbol of the following types A. 24, 3.17 conveying that the item in question is to be found in section ‘A’ stock number 24, bay 3 bin number 17.

**Inspection of in-Coming Goods**
Lockey (1969) the tasks of an inspector were usually taken to be the passive one of sorting out any faulty workmanship or sorting out the good from the bad. Whilst this function is still present, inspection is now thought of as an active device to prevent rejects. This has resulted in the inspection department being concerned, not only with finished production, but also with raw materials, tools piece parts and all manufacturing process. This does not relieve the production supervisor of any of his responsibilities for quality, rather it tries to assist him in this aspect of his duties just as the other control department (budgeting and production control), are concerned to see that all place in accordance with the rules established and the instructions.

**Stock Taking**
Lockey (1969) stock needs to be correctly recorded not only in order that the factory may be run efficiently but also in order that the trading result shall be calculated accurately when goods are continually beings moved in and out of the stocks it is inevitable that in occurrences creep in and thought a control account held by the costing department might indicate probable error in total. It is necessary to minimize the effect of mistakes. This is normally done by carrying out a physical count of stocktaking and the results checked against the entries on stock record cards. Errors found are investigated and if necessary, alternatives are made to the records to bring them into line with the actual stock. Stock checks can either be carried out annually (at the end of the company’s trading year) or continually throughout the years, a few items being checked each day.

Denyer (1982) to avoid dislocation of ordinary business at three-six, or twelve monthly intervals, many organization use the perceptual inventory system. A different section of stock is checked and compared with the stock ledger at frequent intervals throughout the year so that when the end of the financial year is reached, the book figures can be taken as “physical year is reached, the book figures can be taken as “physical stock” every item of stock must have checked at least
once during the course of the year. He went further to explain that, if the perpetual inventory
system is not possible, the inevitable rush and dislocation caused by annual stocktaking is
unavoidable. The stock taking must be under the control of one person who must have reliable
assistance. The following decision must be taken.

i. The time table for the stocktaking (starting and finishing) duties and interim progress check
time/dates.

ii. The order of checking items

iii. The method of checking the stock, depending on the degree of accuracy required (for examples,
checking by individuals count or by weighting).

iv. Any goods not to be included in the stocktaking

v. Deadlines after which invoiced goods should not be included (that is goods received, but not
invoiced should not be included).

vi. Method of recording issues during stocktaking (this is usually done on the special form of that
the item issued before being physically counted can be included in the stock valunted)

All the staff involved in stock taking should be given precise instructions based on the decision
listed above, the method of completing stock taking records (usually inventory forms), and the
procedures to be followed when queries arise, staff not physically involved in stocktaking should
be informed of the dates and asked to co-operate by limited requests for store issues to a
minimum.

Perpetual Inventory
Jessop and Morrison (1986) stock records are expected to show particulars and receipts issues
and balances remaining in stock for each individual item held in the storehouse from day to day
because a system of records of this kind indicate at anytime the quantity of goods on kind it is
sometimes described as a “perpetual inventory” In the view of Mills and Standing ford (1981) a
number of items of stock are counted each day, any differences with the book stocks are reported
and the records are adjusted to agree with the physical stock found. The number of items
checked each day must be such that the whole of the stock is taken over a selected period. Some
item may be checked more frequently than others. He went further to explain that “when stocks
are to be listed for valuation, the balances are taken from the stock records some balance may be
incorrect, but if the frequency of stocktaking is appropriate to risk of errors and discrepancies is
likely to lie within acceptable limits. The purpose of perpetual inventory is to avoid the overtime
and disorganization of work associated with periodic stocktaking.

Lockyer (1970), the advantages of a perpetual inventory are:

i. Dislocation of stress of production.

ii. It is cheaper than annual inventory since the work is usually part of the stores staff normal
activities and will occupy so little time during any quite periods.

iii. Result are produced more quickly during an annual check the comparison of actual with
recorded stock may take some considerable time, during which stock movement may
confuse the results.

iv. Important items can be checked as frequently as desired stock records cards are likely
therefore to be made accurate than in case of the annual inventory.

Stock Valuation
Mills and Standingford (1981), in any business it is necessary to price and value goods for the
purpose of stock valuation and costing, where cost accounts are kept, the pricing of raw
materials, indirect materials and finished product are major operations.
Although the cost value seems a simple enough basis, there are several ways of arriving at what is considered to be a fair cost value for stores issues as follows:

1. Specific method: Each item or batch of items is priced out at the specific cost. The method is most suitable for bulk stock and for every expensive items of stock.

2. First in, First out (FIFO): This is the method which assumes that the goods which comes in first, this ensures that the remaining stock are priced at all level of the more recent purchases and unless cost of replacement is increasing rapidly is quite suitable for many concerns.

3. Last in, First out (LIFO): This is the name given to the method of pricing goods at the earlier purchases, and in times of rapidly advancing prices eliminates stock profit, which might be made under FIFO method. The united kingdom inland revenue authorities have not agreed to this method of stock valuation.

4. Average Costing Method: This method aims at minimizing the disadvantage of FIFO and LIFO and consists of periodically averaging out the cost of stock and subsequent purchase at the beginning of the year. This system is quite extensively used, and is perhaps the most satisfactory system where prices fluctuate although to be successful the averaging should be done at frequent intervals (often once a month).

5. Standard costing method: this system used by manufacturing companies are concerned, where manufactured goods are being budgeted at a predetermined or standard cost, based on values in a normal period.

Finally, Denyer explained when the stock taking has been completed, the items priced out, and the total value of stocks, ascertained. It is usually from the auditors of a company to require a stock certificate in a form similar to the one below.

```
Re-order Quantity
The reorder quantity often called Economic order Quantity (EOQ) it represents that quantity which is ordered under normal circumstances. It is set by considering two, major factors:

A. carrying cost of the material which includes
 i. interest on capital used
 ii. cost of deterioration
 iii. Insurance cost and cost of storage

B. Ordering costs, which includes cost like
 i. transportation
 ii. cost of preparing purchase order
 iii. Cost of receiving and inspecting materials and postage costs.

The other factor to be considered in fixing re-order quantity is the rate of consumption of the material its formula is.

EOQ: \( \sqrt{\frac{2DO}{CK}} \)
```
Where:
\[ D = \text{Annual requirement/demand} \]
\[ O = \text{Ordering cost} \]
\[ C = \text{Cost of material per unit} \]
\[ K = \text{Carrying cost as percentage (％)} \]

EOQ is also described as that point where order cost plus carrying cost are equally and/or the total cost is lowest.

Example.
Find out the Economic Ordering Quantity (EOQ) from the following information using formular approach.
Annual usage = 600 Units
Cost of materials/unit = N20.00
Cost of placing and receiving one order = N60.00
Annual carry cost of one unit = 105 inventory value.

Solution
\[ \text{EOQ} = \sqrt{\frac{2DO}{CK}} \]
\[ = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 5000 \times 60}{(10)(20)}} \]
\[ = \sqrt{3600} \]
\[ = 60 \text{ units} \]

Research Methodology
Generally, in carrying out a study of this nature, the research methods to be used must be a highly applicable to the nature of the study. Therefore the descriptive research method consists of a set of gathering, analyzing, summarizing and interpreting data, was employed. The research population therefore comprises the entire staff of 7up bottling company, Kaduna, as classified thus; the management, the store staff and the production line staffs. The researcher used 100 respondents as the sample size, employing survey approach/random sampling technique. Random sampling is the process of selecting a sample in such a way that all individual in the defined population thus an equal and independent chances of being selected for the sample. If samples are not randomly selected then the needed assumptions are violated and inferences are correspondingly subtle. The researcher decided to use more of primary sources than the secondary sources. The instruments used under primary sources include, questionnaire personal interview and observation administered on the staff of case study, 7up Bottling Company Kaduna.

On the adoption of the secondary sources, the researcher relied much on information that are usually in written form i.e. text book, journal, internet news papers etc
Method of Data Analysis
The researcher will use chi-square method for data presentation and analysis because of its simplicity and suitability. Responses to percentage tabulated and sequentially arranged for easy and more accurate analysis.

The technique is calculated thus:
\[ \chi^2 = \frac{(O-E)^2}{E} \]

Decision Rules:
Since the compute Chi-square (X^2) is 9.6 greater than the Critical value of (X^2) is ……
Therefore reject the statement which says that inventory control does not improve manufacturing productivity.

Analysis and Interpretation Result
Considering the mean rating of 3.4, 2.75, 3.4, 2.8, 3.55, 2.90 and 3.50, it proves that inventory control plays a vital role on the manufacturing productivity.

Table One:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No.</th>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>UND</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Most organization keep store records for accountability</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Organisation purchase requisition originated from the use depth</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Most of organization for purchase is by senior store officer</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Material handling system is a periodic review in most organization</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Manual material handling system is the type of operation used by most organization</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Most of the organization stocking is conducted continuously</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Inventory control of organization reduced material wastage cost and improve profitability</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Likert rating scale will be adopted for the propose of their study to presented the data and analysis of the data:

SA – Strongly Agreed       Rating Scale (5)
A – Agree                     ,, (4)
UND – Undecided                ,, (3)
D – Disagree                  ,, (2)
SD – Strongly Disagree        ,, (7)

Any computed means that is below 2.5, we therefore reject and any mean above 2.5 we therefore accept.
Table Showing Observe Value and Expected Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>UND</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question 7</td>
<td>50 (50)</td>
<td>5 (7.5)</td>
<td>0 (2.5)</td>
<td>25 (20)</td>
<td>20 (20)</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 5</td>
<td>50 (50)</td>
<td>10 (7.5)</td>
<td>5 (2.5)</td>
<td>15 (20)</td>
<td>20 (20)</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square can be computed through the use of formula below:

\[ X^2 = \frac{\sum(O - E)^2}{E} \]

Where: \( \sum \) = Summation; \( O \) = Observed value; \( E \) = Expected value

For the purpose of this paper, particulars/question 7 and 5 will be tested through the use of chi-square statistical instrument at 5% level of significant.

The degree of freedom \( (d.f) = (r - 1) (c - 1) \)
Where: \( r \) = Number of row; \( c \) = Number of column

Therefore,
\[
\begin{align*}
(2 - 1) (5 - 1) &= 1 \times 4 \\
&= 4
\end{align*}
\]

Decision:
Table showing observed valuable for the comparative of expected value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particular</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>UND</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question 7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The formula can be used to compute expected value:

\[ E = \frac{RT \times CT}{GT} \]

Where: \( RT \) = Row Total; \( CT \) = Column; \( GT \) = Grand Total

\[
\begin{align*}
e.g &= \frac{100 \times 100}{200} = 50 \\
e.g &= \frac{100 \times 15}{200} = 7.5 \\
e.g &= \frac{100 \times 5}{100} = 2.5
\end{align*}
\]

**Summary of Findings**

The literature reviewed and data analysis conducted revealed that the inventory control function is an extension of storekeeping. It has a wider scope now than what is used to be. Lack of proper system of control, non-provision of adequate storage facilities and lack of qualified hands to operate the system are some of the factors responsible for poor inventory control in 7up Bottling Company Kaduna. It was found that half of the staff working in the store have not acquired
relevant background of the store functions. This to a large extent has made the stores personnel to be more like rubber stamps in the hands of their superior offices and therefore sign out items anyhow and without following the necessary laid down procedures. There are three stores units in the organization and they are general store, spare parts and finished goods stores and their activities can easily be influenced so called needs of different units. The different storehouse in the organization has been proved with adequate security. Hence items in such stores can be completely guaranteed as being safe as burglary proofs and other security gadgets have been installed on the doors of these stores. Proper record keeping was not mentioned, this make it very difficult to adequately account for items.

The storage facilitates are not in good condition, they need expansion and replacement for accommodation of more items, there are few modern materials handling equipment to ease the handling of stock items are done manually and mechanically among the few materials handling equipment found are cranes trucks, gloves, forklift and the rest of them are found in use, thereby reducing the effect of scraps, waste and obsolescence there are few attendant to clean and tidy up the storehouses. The personnel who manage different storehouses assist in cleaning work in addition to their official duties.

This has a very serious negative effective on the morale of the store staff. There are healthy and safety precautions provided in the storehouses even though they are not adequate.

Combined with level of significance (5%)

Chi-square

\[ X^2 = \sum \frac{(0 - E)^2}{E} \]

Where \( O \) = observed frequency; \( E \) = Expected frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Calculating the expected frequency (E) the total number of size is 20 and 2 response Yes and No.
\[ E = \frac{20}{2} = 10 \]

Step 4 computation of chi-square (x2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>0-E</th>
<th>((O-E)^2)</th>
<th>((0-E)^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = \sum \frac{(0-E)^2}{E} = 3.2 \]
Step 5: Decision Rule and Interpretation of Results
The decision is that the calculated chi-square ($x^2$) is less than the critical value than the null hypothesis it will be rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted at the chosen level of significance. Otherwise, the null hypothesis will be accepted and the alternative is rejected. Therefore from the computation the calculated value of chi-square ($X^2$) is 3.2 which is less than the critical value of 3.84 of 5% level of significance then the null hypothesis (Ho) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (Hi) is accepted. It can therefore be said that inventory control has an impact on profitability.

They are nose masks, gloves, eye goggles etc there are fire extinguishers, first aid boxes and buckets of sand, boots and safety clothes for staff in the storehouse. There is acute shortage of manpower in the store section. As it has been discovered only few personnel manage the storehouse in the organization which is grossly inadequate if the objective of inventory control is to be fully realized in favour of the organization. The shortage however, suggests strongly why the store personnel have not been able to achieve result expected of them in terms of efficient control of inventories.

Conclusion
In view of the fact that the importance of inventory control both of the private and public sector cannot be overstressed. The researcher wishes to conclude that both control and storage system of stocks in 7up Bottling Company need to be improved as a major producer of 7up, Pepsi, Mirinda drinks etc, 7up Bottling Company has come of age and as such cannot afford unnecessary materials wastage. In as much as the application system remains the same, the stock only work satisfactorily when the right caliber of staff are managing the affairs of the organization. If the application of inventory control is allowed into the hands of trained personnel and the organization stands to benefit from the system and it will enhance their profitability.

Recommendations
After a careful study of inventory control functions in 7up Bottling Company Kaduna, the researcher of this project wishes to put forward the following recommendations to 7up Bottling Company managements.
1. It is believed and hoped that accepted and proper implementation in conjunction with all relevant order a lot of wastages, costs and pilferages shall minimized
2. An autonomous purchasing department should be built to purchase whatever items needed to be purchased bought into the organization for safety and to avoid deterioration of material.
3. More hands should be employed in the vacuum already created as a result of shortages of store staff, this hands should be qualified, trained storekeepers. The least pre-requisite qualification for working in the stores should have a certificate course in storekeeping/purchasing and supply.
4. All outside suppliers should be delivered to the general store for proper documentation from where the head of the store section will then assign the responsibility of receiving physical custody and issues to the appropriate storekeeper. Training and re-training of the store staff should be emphasized. These who have not gotten the basic training should
be given the chance to do so and those who have gotten such training should be assisted to enroll for their professional examination.

6. An adequate storage facility conducive for modern inventory control should be provided to help the store perform its service function effectively.

7. It is also recommended that, external stock verifiers should interfere at least once in a year, who has no interest in the activities of the industry to handle stock taking.

8. Also, investigation shows that the industry has not set any fixed stock levels and reorder levels for all the stock that are normally kept by the industry. This means that the industry can at any point in time stock and under-stock its needs.

9. Investigations have shown that the industry is well staffed, but there is no proper delegation of authority and motivation.

Reference
Carter, (1982)
LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION AND THE CHALLENGES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

By

MUHAMMAD NDAS NDAEJI

And

BELLO SANI SAMBO
Department of Local Government Studies
College of Administrative Studies and Social Sciences
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna Nigeria

Abstract
The 1976 Local Government reforms in Nigeria have done justice to the position of the communities in development programmes. The 1976 reforms re-emphasized the need for community as “mobilizing human and material resources through the involvement of members of the public in their local development”. The important roles played by the communities in development programmes cannot be over emphasized. This is the process by which the efforts of people themselves are united with those of government authority to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate those communities into the lives of the nation, and to enable them contribute fully to national programmes and progress. The paper examines the roles of communities on how they contribute to the identification of problems, development of solutions to the problems and implementation strategies for ensuring their sustainability.

Introduction
There are a number of reasons why local government should be of interest to the average citizen of every country. Local government is usually referred to as the foundation of any democratic and responsible government. The expediency for the creation of local government anywhere in the world stems from the need to facilitate development at the grassroot. The importance of local government is a function of its ability to generate sense of belongingness, safety and satisfaction among its populace. All forms of government, regimes or political systems have so far ensured the attainment of this goal. Such strategy for ensuring national administrative development and political efficacy is found in the concept and practice of local government. Whatever is the mode of government; local government has been essentially regarded as the path to, and guarantor of, national integration, administration and development (Arowolo, 2008).

Local government and community development are closely related concepts. Each is primarily concerned with the development of local areas through community effort. However, over the years the two concepts have been institutionally separated. One of the aims of the 1976 local government reform was to integrate community development into local government.

Concept of Local Government
Local government like any other concepts in the social sciences is being defined in different ways by different authors. The 1999 Constitution encapsulates the local government as “a defined spatial (geographical) administrative unit within a state that enjoys some measures of autonomy with respect to its powers, source of revenue and discretion. It is a corporate body of
elected functionaries that perform specific functions. Its administration is directed by the local people through their own representatives for the benefit of the whole people.

From the above definition, it is vivid that a local government has a defined geographical location of the state, administered by elected officials in order to bring government to the grassroots through the execution of their specific functions and those functions are contained in the concurrent list. In other words, this government of the grassroots is charged with the development of the local environment under its authority in such a manner that the greatest good benefits go to the greatest number of the people in the environment within its areas of influence. Such guided development as Vincent (2007) noted embraces the socio-economic and political needs of the people. These socio-economic and political problems usually find expression in public policies.

According to the 1976 Local Government Reforms, local government is a government at the local level exercise through a representative council which is established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. These powers should give the council a substantial control over local affairs, its staff, institutional and financial powers to initiate and direct the provision of services, as well as to determine and implement projects, in order to complement the activities of the state and federal governments in their areas. These will help to ensure, through devolution of functions to these councils and through the active participation of the people and their traditional institutions that local initiative and response to local needs and conditions are maximized.

**Concept of Community Development**

The creation of local government in the country is not only to bring government closer to the people, but to bring government impacts to the common man in the rural areas. In this sense, community development is generally the democratic instrument which provides citizens the opportunity and cooperation in programmes for their social and economic betterment (Odoh, 2010).

**Citizen Participation in Community Development**

It is assumed that citizen participation is a desired and necessary part of community development activities. Citizen participation is the process that can meaningfully tie programmes to people.

Citizen participation in community decision-making can be traced as far back as Plato’s Republic. Plato’s concepts of freedom of speech, assembly, voting, and equal representation have evolved through the years to form basic pillars upon which United States was established. Citizen participation is the essence of democracy.

Citizen participation can be approached or defined in many ways. A citizen participates in community affairs when he pays taxes or obeys the law. This discussion is concerned with voluntary participation in settlement issues that involve community decision-making.

**Importance of Citizen Participation**

Citizen participation can be viewed from the perspective of benefits to be gained and cost to be borne. Implicit in this “penchant for getting involved” is the notion of the relationship between
self and society (Bellah et al, 1985). Involvement on volunteer group is an important science for individuals’ definitions of self-esteem and self identity in American society (Dresbach, 1992; Passewitz, 1991).

Volunteer groups function as link between individuals and larger societal structures. What are the benefits to the average citizen? Bridges (1974) cites five advantages to be gained from active participation in community affairs.

1. The citizen can bring about designed change by expressing one’s desire, either individually or through a community group.
2. The individual learns how to make desired changes.
3. The citizen learns to understand and appreciate the individual needs and interest of all community groups.
4. The citizen learns how to resolve conflicting interests for the general welfare of the group.
5. The individual begins to understand group dynamics as it applies to mixed groups.

Public involvement results in better decisions. It is argued that community decisions that involve citizens are more likely to be acceptable to local people. Citizen participation in community affairs serves to check and balance political activities. Participation allows fuller access to benefits of a democratic society (Wade, 1989). A cross section of citizen participation in the decision-making process reduces the likelihood of community leaders making self-serving decisions.

Community Participation in Local Government

For any meaningful development to take place, the people for whom development is meant, must partake, must be involved in the process if such development is to have meaning to them (Paul Odoh).

Development programmes and policies cannot just be made for people, but will have to involve the people concerned if they are to have a chance of success. Without that, if people are not involved and do not derive a sense that the projects they are in is theirs, the chances that they will not be interested and plans handed down from the centre will remain sterile (Zoaka and Dauda).

The term grassroots participation is not synonymous with the passive sense of a person or social groups taking part in certain deliberations or actions initiated, designed and controlled by others. It implies that the people at the grassroots level take the initiative in organizing and mobilizing groups and individuals to partake in formulating policies, making decisions and executing programmes for their own benefit. Thus, the people do not only share in the benefits of development that are considered as enhancing the quality of life but they also share in the task of creating these benefits.

Perceived from this point of view, community participation takes place when people of a given society are involve in the following activities:
Lele (1974), found the element of grassroots participation to be consistently important when she said, participation involves actions collectively organized and continuous efforts by the people themselves in setting goals, pooling resources together and taking actions which aim at improving their living conditions. It is imperative to state the fact that since not all local needs and wants can be met at the same time, choice and the determination of priorities are important functions that have to be performed on behalf of the community. If agents of the central government perform these functions, the subjective needs of the community may not be accurately reflected. This could produce adverse reactions such as frustration or alienation.

A genuine representative system in the democratic demands consultation and consent in the determination of public policy for the local community. It is on this premise that the justification for local government is anchor. A situation whereby some section of the population of a nation do not have adequate access to decision making and do not actively participate in the development process cannot be said to be healthy by any standard. This is so because the decisions of the representatives of the people regarding the needs and priorities of the local community are apt to be accurate and legitimate rather than if it were made by agents of the central government.

Therefore, for community development to be only effective but efficiently out and sustained, the people must be mobilized and participate in the communal effort that effect them. Thus, the objective for participation of the people in their development process includes the following:

**Self-Empowerment**

The best way to induce development is to empower the people to be able to handle their own development by themselves. Julius Nyerere the former president to Tanzania argues that services that provide human beings comfort such as roads, building, electricity, increase food and nutrition are essential to rural development. But, to him, these things in themselves do not constitute development. He said that availability of these things could facilitate development only when it leads to develop the mind, understanding and competence of the people to have more effective control over their own destiny. He translated his philosophy of development through his ujamaa programme, which was aimed at building “an agrarian society that is equity-based, village and community oriented, participate and democratic, and which places a high value on human freedom”. The self-empowerment principles subscribes to the saying that “if you want a child who love to eat fish you should do him a favor by teaching him how to fish at any time he needed it”. This is to enable him to have access to fish even when you are not around (Mbaya, 2007).
Accordingly, “…power is the central theme of participation and participatory social action widely shared collective power by those who are considered beneficiaries. The people become agents of social action and the power differential, between those who control and need resources is reduced through participation” (Salam, 2003).

Perceived from this angle, empowerment stands out as the ultimate and product of participation in any community. It represents an objective, if it will be understood that the entire community becomes target audience.

**Building beneficiary capacity**
Capacity building is an attempt to improve the capacity of people to perform functions effectively, efficiently and economically on a continuous basis, as well as reduced level of dependence on external assistance. Capacity building cover issues such as;

a. Human resources development for effective planning.
b. Strengthening of institutions (organization and rules) for effective utilization of resources
c. Inculcating the conventions that will properly guide the behavior of implementers of development programmes.
d. Providing the enabling environment (policy and legal) for both private and public sector participation in development (Mbaya, 2007)

Community participation therefore in this sense, serves the more limited objectives of building beneficiary capacity in relation to a project. This makes it possible for beneficiaries to share in the management task of a project by taking on operational responsibilities for some aspects of the objectives because:

(i) Development begins only when people take charge of their destiny.
(ii) Development process cannot be subcontracted
(iii) Development is sustainable when it builds on existing capacity, as no community has zero capacity.

**Costing Sharing**
Another objective for community participation could be the desired to share the costs of project. It should be understood that cost as well be considered as cost shared in the project, the same as money.

**Improving project Efficiency and Effectiveness**
Community participation cold is to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of a project by involving the beneficiaries. A point need to be made, that although, community participation could have any or all of the objectives mentioned, the extent or intensity of participation required depends largely on the king of projects being pursued and the peculiar characteristics of beneficiaries communities.

However, it is important to note that for community participation to contribute to sustainable development, it is essential that followings be given serious considerations;
a. All local governments’ functionaries must see their role as including that of mobilizing the rural population for effective participation in the development process. This is in action to being engaged in health delivery, social welfare work etc. they must consciously seek to educate and encourage the people to become more actively involved in activities that would improve their well-being.

b. There is need to help identify or develop specific groups and organizations through which people can participate in development. In this regards, there is need to encourage the reaction of traditional self-help and mutual aids group where they are no longer functional. As much as possible, they should be multi-functional, self-managing and based on locally accepted principles of associations rather than being induced or imposed from above. The internal organization and management of such groups must be one that encourages open and maximum participation by members.

c. To encourage the groups to function effectively, they should be used from mobilizing support for and participation in projects for channeling inputs such as loans and agricultural capacity. Unless these groups are used in these ways, they will have no appeal for the people and therefore, cannot serve for their effective mobilization.

d. The community participation groups when mobilized should be encouraged to pull their skills and resources together in a way that expends their productivity. They should be encouraged to undertake extra income earning activities so that they can build up and diversity their resources base and in that way are able to contribute to development (Salam, 2003).

Community participation does not only interaction between the Local Governments officials and the local people with their leaders, but helps in examine and solving local problems based on prevailing socio-cultural and economic situations. The effectiveness of community participation in development especially at planning stages must involve coping with the eradication of widespread illiteracy among the people, consequently projects and programmes that requires modern development techniques should not be left in the hands of people who lack the skills and competence to manage them (Ndas, 2002).

On the whole, the concept of participatory development is the involvement of the people (Beneficiaries) in their own advancement such that they become agents of changes by so doing deciding their destiny. This is the fundamental way through which development programmes can be fully executed and sustained.

Approaches to Community Development
By approaches to community development, it simply means the methods of getting people to meet some of their needs. According to Liberty (2007), there are three (3) main approaches to community development. These are:

The Directive Approach
Under this approach as a method of organizing community development, an agency like the government or philanthropic exist to identify the need of the community, plan for how
community can attain that objectives, provide the resources and generally organize the community to meet their expectations. In regard, the people directly participate in the decision-making or the stage of implementation as perceived participants in the development process. Usually, the main objective of this approach is that overtime the people themselves will be able to learn and be in a positive way to do things by themselves. It is also assume that provision of the community needs by an external body will stimulate community to take an action for further developmental needs and aspiration. This approach has the following assumptions:

a. Community members especially in the third world lack the necessary material and human resource to identify plan for action and organize themselves and be found in societies the are not educate enough, and this bring about resistance to change in the dynamic of the evolving world system.

b. This approach also assume that community on their own lack the basic technological know-how and basic sophisticated equipment to be able to translate and implement programmes that requires technical expertise and a lot of in-built resource.

c. It equally assumes that because it is not the community that plans and organizes for the development objective, the issue of apathy does not apply. Squabble and disagreement between community members can easily be eliminated because they are not part parcel of decision-making process.

The Non-Directive Approach
This is where the people in a community are expected to able to identify their felt-need, plan their felt-need, plan their action and execute their programmes that best serve their priority, needs and aspirations. For instance, in a community like Ogbere-Ijebu in Ogun state, all they need from external bodies in technical advice. In planning and designing some projects, the desire to encourage community members by themselves to identify what is considered to be its problems and to work systematically in dressing those problems. Exponent of the non-directive approach insisted that, because experience is the best teacher, allow the community (Ogbere) to identify their felt-need, plant for action, they will necessarily gain experience which will in turn increased their knowledge to solve the problems that will confronts them in future. Non-directive approach relies on the fact that, community best understand their problems and are capable of initiating planning and organizing themselves to solve their problems. Direction in community development is an antithesis of self-reliance which community development itself preaches. Therefore, the people of Ogbere-Ijebu can organize themselves into self-help group. They can decided that a feeder road be constructed from any direction.

The Mid-Way Directive of Mixed Scanning Approach
Under this approach, an agent of the external body in collaboration with the community fashioned out the community problem. They injunction try to identify, plan and provide the resources to meet the felt-need of the community however, under this approach, the initiative comes from the community rather than the external agent. The external agent only comes in as an additional support in terms of contributing idea or providing resources that best suit or address the fundamental problem of the community.
Principle of Community Development
Principles of community development are guiding ideas, a body of ideas that tells the various stages of development. Community must be able to situate the nature of the problem, be aware of the problem, the extent and the repercussion before going into action. Any community organization must have objective, situate the problem, unite and face the problem and have objectives before implementation. The principles according to Liberty (2007), areas as follows:

**Principle of self-help:** The common issue is that after being aware to what extent the repercussions of the problem, people try to transfer the awareness, the extent and repercussions to something tangible. That people must help themselves in solving their problems. The issues of development of community (unity and disagreement) must be there to transform the problems. Community organized themselves into self-group to help themselves. Therefore, the people of Ogbere community can decide that a school should be built where necessary for their collective good. It is in light of this that former president of America, John F. Kennedy said that, “think of what you can do for your country (community) not what your country can do for

**Principles of Attention to be the development of the community:** The issue of being aware of the problem, extent, repercussion and action, the community must be a unit of analysis; unique characteristics of the community must be the unit of analysis. This is the independence of the community to situate their problems, plans and carry out their principle of development.

**Principle of Democracy:** This traces the freedom of all to participate in decision-making and also participate in the implementation. Individuals must be given the freedom of what to be done to the community and how is to be done. The community should be allowed to participate in decision making (blue print) of their community so that they can be a party to it.

**Principles of Awakening:** Community development is a continuous process as to make people to understand that community development is not the accomplishment of one problems but continuous finding of solutions to their problems but when the need arises. Apart from the above situations, the community must be physically and collectively participate towards finding a solution to the problem.

More importantly, in the development of local efforts, communication stands-out as the democratic credentials within the groups. Communication is a basic and regular characteristic of community development. The transmission of ideas within a community and the expectations of responses in desire directions are avenues which usually accelerates the whole process and operation of community development. This become imperative as a road map for youth corps members embarking on community development project/service to imbibe the concept, approaches and principles of community development postulated.

**Conclusion**
One of the most significant events that took place in any major urban and rural areas in Nigeria has been the citizen’s participation or involvement in the physical, economic, social and political development of their area. The citizen’s participation actually started from time immemorial.
People saw the need for economic progress. The contribution of community development to the national plan formulation and implementation is enormous and the contribution can only be analysed based upon the functions attached to community development from place to place. Whatever the place may be, community development performs the roles of gap filling, fore runner, etc.

**Recommendations**

Local government should explore possible fields of development suitable for voluntary enterprises in conjunction with local communities. It is strongly suggested that State Governments examine the programmes for rural development in each local government carry out feasibility studies and determine degree of outside assistance including technical and professional advice required, development potentials and possibility of integration with other development plans. Local government to encourage voluntary self-help, arouse and maintain enthusiasm in country effort.

**References**

POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN NIGERIA AT 50: THE ROLE OF MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS IN ERADICATING POVERTY AT THE GRASSROOTS

By

ABDUL-LATEEF A. LATOPA

And

TUNDE JATTO
Department of Local Government Studies,
College of Administrative Studies & Social Sciences,
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna -Nigeria.

Abstract
This paper is an attempt to assess the roles of Millennium Development Goals in eradicating poverty in Nigeria. Nigeria, being the most populous African nation was declared as one of the poorest nations in the world with about 105 million Nigerians living below poverty line despite its enormous natural resources. Successive Nigerian leaders had introduced various poverty alleviation/reduction programmes from 1967 to date without significant improvement. When the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) was adopted in 2000, some poverty eradication programmes were introduced as a way of tackling this endemic from the grassroots. These programmes include NEEDS and 7-point agenda. Various reasons were given for low performance of these programmes despite billions of Naira (in dollars) that were expended from debt relieves grants and government coffers. This is why this paper tries to examine the roles of 2000 declaration to see whether it has actually made positive impacts on the 70% rural populace, four (4) years to the MDGs 2015 target.

Introduction
The Millenium Development Goals is a product of United Nations (UN). It was consented by 189 heads of government across the globe. MDGs was aimed at reducing (if not eradicate) the high level of poverty, particularly among the third world countries of the world. The concept is so designed that, at a targeted time, there should be a tremendous levels of improvements in the living standard of the have-nots through partnership with the superior nations in technical aid and financial supports.

Poverty as a popular phenomenon in the developing nations, of which the crippled giant of Africa-Nigeria, is a big shareholder have majority of its populace as victims of abject poverty. This majority are inhabitants of the local/rural communities that are faced with gross deprivation of all necessities of life like good shelter, adequate healthcare, drinkable water, efficient transportation, good and affordable education, etc. It is important to state that this category of people constitute over 70%, majority poor are over 80% and the remaining 20% are residents in the urban and semi-urban cities. Among this urban and semi-urban category, we have the “rich, richer and richest”, ten years after the introduction of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).
An Overview of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

The MDGs has its origin in the September 2000 gathering of 189 heads of states and government for the United Nations Millennium Summit where the millennium declaration was ratified. This was the largest gathering of the world leaders in history and they unanimously adopted the declaration. Their adoption indicates commitment of their nations to reduce poverty, improve health and promote peace, human rights and environmental sustainability. According to Socialist International (2005), the MDG is regarded as part of the social democratic approach to governance in a global society. Millennium Development Goals represents an unparalleled global commitment to free human beings especially those in third world regions from the bondage of absolute poverty and wretchedness. The Millennium Development Goals are set of 8 time-bound interdependent goals that set out to commit specific outcomes by 2015. It is in essence a global compact between developed and developing nations. The declared Millennium Development Goals cover the following issues:

i. To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger – this target is aimed to reduce the proportion of people living below $1 daily and those suffering from hunger by 2015,

ii. To achieve universal primary (basic) education – This target is aimed to achieve universal basic education by 2015,

iii. To promote gender equality and women empowerment – this target is aimed at overcoming gender disparity in totality, both in primary and secondary education enrolment by 2005, and achieve equity at all levels by 2015,

iv. To reduce child mortality – this target is aimed at reducing child mortality rate by 2/3 by 2015,

v. To improve maternal health – the basic target is to reduce the number of women dying in child-birth by ¾ by 2015,

vi. To combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases – The main target of this is to stop and commence to reverse the incidence of HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases by 2015,

vii. To ensure environment sustainability – the target is to reduce by half the proportion of people without access to clean drinking water and basic sanitation, and lastly,

viii. To develop a global partner for development – this goal recognizes the importance of collaboration between the have and have-nots to eradicate poverty and extreme hunger.

Conceptualizing Poverty

Poverty can be defined as a condition that exists, when people lack the means to satisfy their basic needs. However, the concept of poverty can be viewed with different interpretations by various writers. A country regarded as one of the richest in the world can be faced with a certain interpretation of poverty. According to Townsend (1974) in a research undertaken in the United States some years back, it was indicated that one fifth of the total population of United States were living in condition of poverty. This is a country that is considered as one of the richest in the world. Therefore, the study of poverty should be based on three basic things;

i. Variations in the degree of development among nations,

ii. The nature of social stratification within these nations, and

iii. The levels of poverty in a country with what is applicable in advanced countries.
It is in this context that some authors have classified poverty into three categories: subsistence, inequality and externality (Rein, 1974). Therefore, looking at these three conditions, Nigeria can be judged and declared, a country embedded with poverty.

**Politics of Poverty Eradication in Nigeria**

The incidence of poverty in Nigeria can be regarded as man-made through bad leadership, lack of vision, selfishness and nepotism. Nigeria has no reason to be poor due to the abundant available human and natural resources. Before the discovery of oil, agriculture was the base of foreign earning which represents 66% of the foreign exchange, it rose to 73.4% in 1968 when the Civil War affected the oil sector between 1967 and 1970 (Rechard, 1978). Nigeria began to scramble for survival after its overdependence on oil and sabotaging the main development drive from agriculture. At this juncture, the leadership lost focus; there was importation of foods which lead the then military government of Yakubu Gowon (1966 – 1975) to launch a national campaign through the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP). Other poverty alleviation programmes and its likes launched by other former leaders include:

- General Olusegun Obasanjo; Operation Feed the Nation (OFN)
- Alh. Shehu Shagari (1979 – 1983); Green Revolution Programme
- Gen. Ibrahim Babangida (1985 – 1993); Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP); Directorate of Food, Road and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRRI), National Directorate of Employment (NDE).
- General Sani Abacha; Petroleum Trust Fund (PTD), Family Support Programme (FSP).

All these programmes, from General Gowon to Sani Abacha recorded failures in one way or the other as a result of policy summersault, selfishness and corruption at highest level. One may not actually adjudged the Buhari Programme of “Go back to land” because, it showed a little sign of progress before he was short-lived by the palace coup of Gen. Babangida, who wasted billions of Naira in phantom projects. Despite all these expenditures, the poverty alleviation programmes could not reach the poor populace and the poverty keeps on increasing. The ruling class failed to formulate and implement policies that will transform the nation to the benefit of the 70% rural populace but rather satisfy the few elites and the quality of life worsen, this results to many Nigerians living below poverty line.

The PTF of Abacha’ Administration under the chairmanship of General Buhari was ambitious and some positive impacts were recorded in the areas of supply of drugs, renovation of school buildings, roads and hospitals, etc. but did not go without one scandal or the other, relating to poor execution of projects and supplies of substandard drugs.

**Poverty Alleviation in the New Democratic Dispensation, 1999 – 2007**

The beginning of this regime was assumed by most Nigerians to be promising because the then elected President Olusegun Aremu Obasanjo was a former Military Head of States who earlier flagged a poverty eradication programme through his Operation Feed the Nation (OFN). In addition to that, he was just released from the prison which made people expected that he had tested the both sides of life, therefore, he will use his experience to make policies that will positively impact the life of Nigerians. Like what seems to be advancement on the previous
poverty alleviation programmes and a technique to implement the MDG, he introduced an all encompassing Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES) called National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). According to NEEDS document, it was established to lay a solid foundation for sustainable poverty reduction, employment generation, wealth creation and value orientation. This programme was structured to be implemented at the other levels of government through State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) and Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS). This social policy framework was aimed at creating jobs and employment for the population from the grassroots.

2007 – Date
As the new government of Umar Musa Yar’adua came into power after Obasanjo’s un-successful 8 years in office, he came up with a 7 point agenda as a development strategy to alleviate poverty and improve socio-economic indices. The seven point programme/agenda are: power and energy, food security and agriculture, wealth creation and employment, mass transportation, land reform, security, qualitative and functional education. In addition and in order to strengthen the 7-point agenda, two other issues were included, these are; Niger-Delta and the Disadvantaged groups. Yar’adua’s government was able to record a noticeable degree of success in the Niger Delta issue through the Amnesty programme and the land reform before his demise. However, his vice who is now the President promised to continue but not much has been achieved so far.

MDGs and Poverty Eradication in Nigeria
The eradication of poverty is a significant objective in policy formulation and implementation in the emancipation of human beings (UNDP, 2004). This assertion can be justified by the various programmes introduced by successive governments to address the poverty problems in Nigeria. However, despite all the manipulations and billions of Naira injected into these programmes, Nigeria after 50 years of independence still have 105 million of her citizen living below poverty line (Sanusi, 2011).

According to the MDGs report (2006), statistics indicates that; 54.4% of the population in Nigeria lives on less than N135 per day which means that this percentage represent those who are poor in relative terms, 35% of Nigerians live in extreme poverty. Over 7 million primary age children are out of school while percentage of girl-child enrolled in primary and secondary schools is still very low especially in the North (34% for primary and 10% for secondary). For every 1000 children born, 201 may die by the age of 5, and out of every 100,000 women in Nigeria, 800 die during child birth. To support the MDGs report, NPC statistics of 2007 on poverty further indicates that poverty is more pervasive in the North than in the south of Nigeria. The analysis was given that, the poverty rate is 67.3% in the North East, 62.9% in the North-West, 62.3% in the Central, 51% in the South South, 42% in the South West, and 34% in the South East.

Process of MDGs in Nigeria
According to SSA to the president, Hajia Amina Az-zubair, on the Millennium Development Goals, the process of MDGs in Nigeria include;
- Negotiation of $18bn in debt relief from the Paris Club,
• Putting improvement in people’s livelihood at the heart of the development agenda by focusing on the MDGs.
• The dedication of the $750m debt-relief gains to the attainment of the MDGs by focusing on strategic investments that address Nigeria’s poor development indices.
• Appropriate funds to provide additionality of funding to existing MDGs investments by MDAs – scaling-up existing high-impact MDG-related interventions.
• A need to restore the confidence in government to deliver public services.
• Supporting public expenditures reform through the tagging and tracking of budget line items.
• VPF originally termed the overview of public expenditure in NEEDS (2009)

Challenges of MDGs in Nigeria
With the little information that is presented in this paper, it can be noted that, the Debt Relief Gains (DRG) provides for a major source of financing the various poverty alleviation programmes in line with the 7-point agenda of the present government. About N320bn was appropriated between 2006 and 2008 to scale up investments in achieving the MDGs. The major beneficiaries of this amount include; health 18%, education 15%, water resources 13% and agriculture 9%. However, despite all these and other Conditional Grants to States (CGS), it can be said that the achievement of these goals by Nigeria four years to 2015 is much doubtful.

It can be stated that the government is overwhelmed by the task ahead regarding reducing poverty through MDGs programmes but there seems not a corresponding achievements vis-à-vis the huge amount of funding on these goals. Some of the challenges as observed could be;

i. Weak mechanism for policy implementation.
ii. Corruption and inefficiency.
iii. Lack of specific emphasis on the engagement of professionals.
iv. Inability to involve grassroots people in the programmes that affect them.
v. Lack of proper monitoring and evaluation of projects.
vi. Lack of political will and insecurity.

The challenges above have serious implications on the realization of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria and as such, poverty eradication may not be achieved as projected through the MDGs. The level of corruption through misappropriation of funds that are meant for poverty alleviation programmes is so much that, the Nigeria House of Representative threatened to stop financial allocation to any ministry or parastatals that failed to implement MDGs (The Guardian, 2009). Presently, it is pertinent to mention that, the 54.4% figure of Nigeria living below $1 per day was actually from a 2004 survey, the 2007 World Bank estimate of people living below $1.25 per day in Nigeria is at 64.4%. This is a disheartening increase in the level of poverty within the target year of actualizing MDGs – 2015. A review published by the UK House of Common Committee based on its 2009 visit states that; Nigeria is not on track to meet any of the Millennium Development Goals with specific reference to the levels of poverty in the Northern Nigerian compare with its southern counterpart. Recently, the Minister of Finance pronounced that, Nigerian economy is growing. This assertion was corroborated by the Central Bank Governor. It could be true that the economy is growing but such economic growth can only be
achieving the MDGs targets only when it is having a proportionate impact in the life of the poor populace who are the grassroots people. Former President Obasanjo stated in the NEEDS document that “we must not continue to stress the pursuit of high growth rate in statistical terms and fail to reduce the socio-economic deprivation of a substantial number and group of our people. We must not absolutely pursue wealth and growth at the expense of inner well-being, joy, satisfaction, fulfillment, and contentment of human being”.

In conclusion, in as much as the Nigeria economic growth has no positive impacts in the socio-economic well-being of the 70% rural populace and the development of human capital, the achievements of MDGs on poverty eradication (if any) and other poverty eradication programme through the 7-point agenda of the federal government are in shamable and therefore cannot meet the 2015 target.

**Recommendations**

In view of all the facts as presented above, and in order to see the need for improvement in the strategies employed to aid the MDGs in poverty eradication programmes, the following recommendations are hereby proffered:

The Nigerian leaders should understand the need to exhibit and practice strong political will, transparency and good governance in order to gain massive support and commitment from the lead and the policy implementers. Favoritism should give way to ideal decision on project locations, appointments into offices, award of contracts etc.

The government should expand its growth indices to human capital development as the economic growth (particularly during Obasanjo regime) did not (and is not) pro-poor. The Human Development Report (HDR) laments that; Nigeria has “focused too narrowly on growth for its own sake rather than as a means to improve human development.” Special attention and support should be specifically giving to the highly affected region in order to accelerate poverty reduction, at least to improve its present level of deterioration in the living standard of the people. This regional issue was noticed by the UK House of Common Committee that visited Nigeria in 2009. They described some states in the Northern Nigeria as the most affected in poverty indices and declared that; Nigeria is not on track to meet any of the Millenium Development Goals.

There should be a re-enforcement in the area of agriculture as an alternative to oil revenue. The importance of agriculture cannot be overemphasized considering the natural endowment of relatively moderate weather in this part of the world. It is very necessary for the government to promote sound policy to increase productivity in agriculture (NPC, 2007). Despite the unimpressive economic impact, agriculture still provides employment for between 60 and 70% of the population… and gainfully engages about 90% of the rural dwellers, of which women constitute the majority (The UN, 2002).

There should also be aggressive approach to infrastructural development at the grassroot level. The grassroot people should have access to portable water, good roads, good and affordable medical care as well as compulsory free basic education. To mention here specifically is power
supply. No excuse from the government is tenable for the failure in power sector, therefore, workable policies should be considered in this sector rather than political promises that have no hope.

It is also of opinion that the government should make use of various professional bodies rather than individual, to monitoring government projects and programmes in order to ensure that quality result is achieved without compromise. This will reduce high level of policy implementation breakdown or imperfection. Also, the professional bodies will be held responsible for any failure arising from its actions or inactions. As a body, there will be a better and standard performance in relation to code of ethics rather than individualism that may encourage personal interest.

References
The Nation Newspaper, Tuesday, January 18, 2011. Pg. 60.
Websites
www.parliament.uk
www.uk.oneworld.net/guide/nigeria/poverty
GENDER DISCRIMINATION: FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN TO REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH CARE SERVICES

By

DAUDA A. AHMED

And

E. E. EDUVIE

Department of Legal Studies
College of Administrative Studies and Social Sciences
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna Nigeria

Abstract
This presentation will reflect and ponder on the concept of reproductive health and sexual rights of women with a view to examine to what extent women are being discriminated against to violation of their Fundamental Human Rights as enshrined under Chapter Four particularly sections 34,35,37,42, of the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and in the light of the provisions of international laws, treaties, conferences etc. The paper will also trace the use of biotechnological methods such as dysfunction, vitro fertilization (IVF) test tube baby, sperm /ova Bank, artificial insemination and surrogate parenting as an alternative remedy to problem of barrenness or childlessness. It shall equally appraise the position of Islamic Law on those biotechnological methods as well as the approach of African culture and human ethics towards them. The paper will finally proffer suggestions on the ways and manners those violations can be remedied within the ambit of laws.

Introduction
The United Nations Organization, UNO, gave birth to the proclamation of UN charter in 1945. The UN charter therefore clearly and unequivocally posits men and women to have equal right. Thereafter came the UN’s Universal declaration of Human right, UDHR which represented the first international instrument to clearly prohibit discrimination of all forms against women.

The idea of reproductive right was first proclaimed and adopted at the international conference on Human Right in Teheran in 1968 this conference maintained that “parents have a basic human right to determine freely and responsibly the number and spacing of their children”. In the year 1979, the convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against women CEDAW was adopted by the UN.

A committee was established by UN on CEDAW to monitor strict compliance with the provisions of the convention. This committee in a 2000 Reproductive Rights Report, while making a general recommendation on women and health, declares that state parties should “ensure access for all women to a full range of higher quality and affordable care; including sexual and reproductive health services”.

Reproductive rights attained its highest status in 1994 at the Cairo of international Conference on population and Development (ICPD) with the proclamation that reproductive rights entail certain
human rights already existing in both national and international human right instruments. According to the conference, the rights envisaged includes “the right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health and the right to make decisions concerning reproduction free of discrimination, coercion or violence. Consequently, reproductive rights can be described as material health and reproductive health i.e. the right to freedom from interference in reproductive decision making in relation to principle of bodily autonomy often referred to as physical integrity it is further opined that the principle is rooted in the right to respect for human dignity, right to liberty and security of the person and the right to privacy.

To this end International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) suggests that reproductive self-determination covers the following right.

1. The Right to plan one’s family
2. The Right to freedom from interference in reproductive decision making
3. The Right to be free from all forms of violence and coercion that affect a women’s sexual or reproductive life.

Reproductive right therefore entails bodies of rights that are already recognized under the international legal human right frame particularly the World Conference on Women, Beijing, China 1995, the international Conference on Population and Development, Cairo, Egypt, 1994 the UN Convention on the elimination of all types of discriminations against women 1973 e.t.c. consequently, reproductive right in the light of all these convention/conferences can be viewed from the following perspectives:

1. The basic right of all couples and individual to decide freely the number of spacing and timing of their children and to have informative education on the means to do so.
2. The right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health without hindrance on legal, social, cultural and religious ground.
3. Right to make decisions concerning reproduction free of discrimination, coercion and violence as expressed in all human rights documents.

The reproductive right therefore are narrowed down and perceived from two dimension namely reproductive Health and reproductive self-determination. Reproductive Health care however is rooted from the international human right instruments that protect life and Health such ad the universal declaration of Human Rights 1978, the international Covenant on human and political right 1966, international covenant on economic and social right 1966 etc.

Reproductive health is a state of complete physical mental and social well being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters relating to the reproductive system and its processes. Reproductive health therefore implies that people are able to have satisfying and safe
sexual life and that they have the capacity to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so.

It is implicit however in this right that men and women have the right to be adequately informed and to have free and unperturbed access to safe, effective, affordable and acceptable methods of family planning of their choice, as well as other methods of their choice for their choice of regulating their fertility which are not against the law and the right to access appropriate healthcare services that enable women to safely go through pregnancy and child birth and provide couples with the best chance of having a healthy infant relationship including sexual health, the purpose of which is the enhancement of life and personal relations, and not merely counseling and care related reproduction and sexually transmitted diseases.

It has been observed that linking fertility regulation to other positive goal of reproductive health was seen as a call for change in the focus of population policy and for commitment of resources to meet previously neglected health needs.

According to Dr Nafis Sadiq, the executive director United Nation Population Fund, women health status is affected by complex biological social and culture factors which are interrelated and can only be addresses in a comprehensive manner, hence the reproductive health is determined not only by the quality and availability of health care’ but also by social – economic development levels’ life styles and women’s position in society.

According to Ana Elano Obando , 2003, bodily integrity rights are deeply rooted in the most basic principles of human rights, general rights in relation to sexuality and reproduction cover two basic principles; the right to sexual and reproductive health care and the right to sexual and reproductive self-determination.

According to her position, the term “reproductive right” emerged to refer to human rights related to reproductive i.e those rights pertaining to human reproduction, including rights that undermined in the context of population development policies. Although these rights have no specific provisions in most international legal instruments of human rights, they are implicit and are defined in a range of non – treaty human rights declarations and action platforms, thus, reproductive rights are internationally recognized rights, which are legally binding.

Women’s sexual and reproductive rights under international law on human rights are outcome of a combination of, political, social, cultural and economic rights of women which include the right to health and family planning; the right to life, freedom, integrity and security, the right not to be assaulted or exploited sexually, the right not to be tortured or to be the object of cruel, inhuman, degrading punishment, or treatment, the right not to be subject to sex discrimination,
the right to privacy, the right to intimacy and the right to enjoy scientific progress and the right to consent to be an object of experimentation.

The World Health Organisation’s Definition of Reproductive Health
Reproductive health is defined. By World Health Organization as a state of Physical, Mental and Social well-being in all matters relating to the reproductive systems at all stages of life. Reproductive health implies that people are able to have a satisfying and safe sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and freedom to decide if, when, and how often to do so. Implicit in this are the right of men and women to be informed and to have access to safe, effective, affordable and acceptable methods of family planning of their choice and the right to appropriate health-care service that enable women to safely go through pregnancy and childbirth. Reproductive health care is defined as the constellation of methods, techniques, and services that contribute to reproductive health and well being preventing and solving reproductive health problems. It also includes sexual health, the purpose of which is the enhancement of life and personal relations, and not merely counseling and care related reproductive and sexually transmitted infections.

In support of this aim, WHO’s reproductive health programme has developed four broad programmatic goals
a. Experience health sexual development and maturation and have the capacity for equitable and responsible relationships and sexual fulfillment.
b. Achieve their desired number of children safely and healthy, when and if they decide to have them.
c. Avoid illness, disease and disability related to sexuality and reproduction and receive appropriate care when needed.
d. Be free from violence and other harmful practices related to sexual and reproduction.

The Right to Freedom from Interference In Reproductive Decision Making
This right is to relate to such principles of bodily autonomy bordering on the right to physical integrity. This principle is said to be traceable to the right to respect for human dignity, the right to liberty and security of the human person and of course the right to privacy as contained in sections 34, 35, 37, and 42 of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria. From a clear reading of the above, it is established that it is the invasion or intrusion of their bodies and other non-consensual restrictions on women’s physical autonomy. Denying a woman the option of avoiding pregnancy or childbirth clearly interferes with her right to decide on a matter with tremendous implications for her body and personal liberty. The U.S Supreme Court, in the case of Einstad VC Baird also posits this right to privacy to include reproductive freedom where it states that:
“if the right of privacy means anything, it is right of the individual, married or single, to be free from unwanted government instruction into matters so fundamental affecting a person as the decision whether to bear or beget a child”

Different UN conferences, and instruments opined that women could only effectively enjoy the right if they are not discriminated against by denying them access to effective reproductive health care services. From the reading of the Preamble and Article 1 of CEDAW, the use of the phrase “all forms of discrimination” has the effect; according to experts; of removing any discrimination against women in whatever form it manifest itself, it is further explained the given this reproductive freedom, thousand of.

Women will avoid pregnancy and childbirth. Article 16 (e) of CEDAW established that state parties “should, without discrimination grant the same right (to women) to decide freely and responsibly, the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means (methods) to enable them to exercise these right”. The right to have what number of children but also by which method and also the right not to have any children at all. A reading of Article 9(1) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights implicitly showed also that states are prevented from interfering in an individual’s pursuit of means to limit or promote fertility.

The above analysis of the provisions the various conventions goes, to show that women (in equality with men) enjoy the use of these biotechnological methods as of right. It is their right to reproductive self-determination and reproductive freedom. It is no that the right is to be enjoyed when they are infertile, have a medical condition that can prevent childbirth or fertility, NO, they simply enjoy it as a human right.

According to the American Society for Reproductive Medicine, medically, sexual dysfunction can either be a cause or a consequence of infertility. Sexual dysfunction infertility occurs when sexual relations have not cannot occur to achieve a pregnancy.

**In Vitro Fertilization (IVF) or Test Tube Baby**

This is a biotechnological method that is used to manage women’s infertility problem where her fallopian tubes are either absent or damaged.

**In Vitro** is a latin phrase meaning ‘in glass’. it stands as the opposite of ‘in utero’ or ‘in the uterus’. Ordinary, human fertilization occurs in the fallopian tubes – ‘in uteru’ when a sperm. Cell unites with an ovum. However, in vitro fertilization is one artificially performed in a test tube’ in laboratory- outside the women’s body, so simply put, IVT is a medical technique through which a women’s egg is combined with the husband’s sperm in a laboratory environment to promote fertilization.
The advantages of IVF have been considered to be that it meets up with the desire of the women to have her child. The born child can be certain to only bear the genetic makeup of both (married) parents and that no risks of strain will ensure since no any contribution came from another women. Some scientist, however, strongly opined that fertilization in foreign environment to the women’s uterus runs against risk of deformity.

Muslim Jurist raised one fundamental question as regard this method. They asked the question. Since only a single fertilized ovum is selected for implantation, what is the position of all the other fertilized ova? It is argued that the only way an IVF can be accepted as a legitimate method of combating infertility is if the fertilization process occurring outside the uterus is restricted to a single ovum. In 1999, the world association of sexology met in Hong Kong and adopted a declaration of sexual rights as follows:

a. The right to sexual autonomy and safety of the sexual body is respected
b. The right to sexual pleasure which is a source of physical, psychological, intellectual and spiritual well –being must be protected.
c. The right to sexual information generated through unencumbered yet scientifically ethical inquiry must be readily available.
d. The right to sexual health care which should be available for prevention and treatment of all sexual concerns problems and disorders.

Artificial Insemination

This is another biotechnological method of infertility management. It is a process whereby semen spacemen is taken from the husband and injected into the uterus.

Sperm is usually obtained for this procedure via tow ways:

i. By inserting the penis inside a special sheath (condom) like prior to intercourse.
ii. By masturbation.

Sperm Donors/Ova Bank

Scientifically, the term pregnancy is only said to result when the sperm from man fertilizers the female ovum. The fetus or finally child resulting is to be a product of the union of the man and women whose sperm and ovum coupled and fertilized.

In an infertile couple, it may be that it is the husband who is suffering from disease condition e.g. inability to produce any sperm at all – medically referred to as azospermia, or he may be a carrier of a genetic disorder that makes ejaculation imposible or he may be out rightly important due to certain disease – in all these conditions, he either produces no sperm or not viable sperm. It could also be that the woman produces no egg but have all features that can carry pregnancy to maturity.
The whole of the process can occur in the other way with the woman donating her eggs (ovum). Where any of the above conditions is obtained, modern medical intervention came up with a biotechnical idea of sperm or ova donation. It is situation where the wife is artificially inseminated with the sperm of another man other then her husband called a sperm donor or where she donates her eggs (ovum) to a man other then her husband. This without mincing words, is clearly objectionable, haram and unacceptable under Islamic Law.

Hence, the existence of sperm banks and ova banks is clearly unlawful under Islamic Law. It is an unambiguous teaching of the Holy Qur’an in Surah Al-Muminoon that believers are not ones that misused their sperm. Its emission, Islam establishes, should only occur in permissible sexual union with one’s wife or slave. So the use of sperm of anyone other than that of the husband is clearly forbidden. Shaihul Azhar, Mahmud Shaltut, in giving a fatwa on this issue stated:

“Artificial insemination with the sperm of a foreign person is, under the Shari’a, a grievous crime and a great sin and is tantamount to adultery, for their essence is the same and their result is also the same. For it is the insertion of the sperm of the foreign person internationally into a tithe, which has not been legally tied to him through the bond of marriage. The legal verdict for artificial insemination in that way in the same as that of adultery, which has been condemned and prohibited by the Divine Shari’ah”.

Surrogacy Parenting
Surrogate parenting has raised the most ethical and legal problems of all the biotechnological methods. Surrogate parenting refers to a situation where a woman bears a child for another woman who is not in a position to bear children as a result of either a blocked fallopian tube or complete absence of a uterus. It is sometimes referred to as ‘womb leasing’

Originally, two types of surrogacy existed:

1. Classical surrogacy: this was the first and original form of surrogacy. It is a process whereby the surrogate is inseminated with the sperm of the father to be. In this situation, the surrogate automatically becomes both the genetic and biological mother of the child (who is then given to the intended parent after delivery) – this is because it was the surrogate that contributed the genetic egg. This type of surrogacy was widely used before the discovery of in vitro Fertilization Technology. It is now very rarely used and outdated.

2. Gestational Surrogacy: this is now viewed as the most appropriate and acceptable type of surrogacy. Here, the surrogate is not the genetic mother of the child. This type involves certain processes. First, the genetic mother is made to undergo in Vitro Fertilization to collect egg. The eggs. The eggs are collected and fertilized in a laboratory with her partners (whether husband or not) sperm. At the time this is going on, the surrogate-is having her
uterus artificially prepared with hormones. The fertilized egg develops into an embryo, which is usually cultured in the laboratory for 3-5 days. At the end of these days, the ensuing embryo or embryos are then selected and inserted into the prepared uterus of the gestational carrier. At birth, the surrogate transfers the child to the intended parents.

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

From the foregoing, it could be observed that we have taken up an analysis of the concept of reproductive self-determination as a human right issue. We also undertook a review of biotechnological innovations as some of the rights to be enjoyed under this right to reproductive self-determination. A review of these biotechnological methods as a modern answer to infertility was also made. The various forms of biotechnological innovations were reviewed within the context of religion, culture, ethic and community acceptability. Consequently, it is asserted that even though Nigeria is a state party to most of the international convention and conference where the reproductive rights were proclaimed as an internationally recognized human right yet much is still needed to be done domestically by way of amending the provisional of sections, 34,35,37, and 42 which have bearing with the reproductive right of women in the light of the international law provisions for the Purpose of enforcing the reproductive rights of Nigeria women.

**References**

Ezeilo, J.N Law, Reproductive Health and Human Right, WACOL (20060).
UNRISD Publication-reproductive and Sexual Right Charting the Course of Transnational Women’s NGOs htm. 16/10/2007.
Similarly, public awareness by the government should be intensified for the purpose educating Nigerian woman on the available reproductive rights and how to enforce them.
THE IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES ON BUSINESS ACTIVITIES IN NIGERIA

BY
NTE, MICHAEL NATHANIEL
Department Of Office Technology & Management
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna Nigeria

Abstract
It is the government that creates the rules and framework in which business compete against each other. These rules are being changed from time to time. These changes impact either positively or negatively on the businesses. It suggests that much challenges facing businesses in Nigeria are caused by the frequent changes in government policy. This paper discusses the types of businesses in Nigeria, role of government in business, government policies, and the impact of government policies on business activities. The paper draws conclusion that Government is a principal player who is directly and indirectly involved. The paper also makes suggestions for efficient policies that will encourage growth and high standard of living in the economy. The suggestions include among others that the legislations should be guided by uncontestable objective and quantitative evidence that they would not affect social and economic contributor, adversely but seek to promote economic growth of the individuals, corporate organizations and the nation at large.

Introduction
Businesses grow and prosper in a healthy environment. The result is job growth and the wealth that makes it possible to have both high standard of living and high quality of life. The wrong environmental condition in contrast leads to business failure, loss of jobs and a low standard of living and quality of life. But when the high business environment is created, the good foundation is laid for social progress of all kinds including good schools, clean air and water, good health care and low rates of crime.

People are willing to start new business if they feel that the risk of losing money is not too great. Part of this risk involves the economic system and how government works with or against business, (Nickeils, Mchugh, Mchugh, 2002). They believe that government can do a lot to lessen the risk of starting business so as to increase entrepreneurship and wealth. This can be done if government keeps taxes and regulations to a minimum. Entrepreneurs are looking for a high return on investment (ROI) including the investment of their time. If the government takes way much of what the business earns through high taxes, the ROI may no longer be worth the risk if the legal environment is harsh, the business activity may dwindle. This paper is therefore concerned with the impact of government policies on business activities in Nigeria.

What business is?
A business is any activity that seeks profit by providing goods and services to others, (Nickeils, Mchugh, Mchugh, 2002). From the above definition, a business is an economic activity an individual or group of persons engage in to earn a living. The profit in the definition becomes the excess of revenue over cost. Nickeils etal state business provides us with necessities such as
food, clothing, housing, medical care, transportation and other goods services that makes lives easier and better. Business also provides people with the opportunity to become wealthy. Business provides high quality of life for everyone. To maximize a high quality of life requires the continued efforts of business, non-profit organizations and government agencies.

**Types of business in Nigeria**
Nigeria engages in different types of business activities. These activities are private-driven with minimal public participation. Other areas of significance are foreign investment and public private partnership (PPP). These are key players in the Nigeria business environment that offer industrial and commercial services at small, medium and large scale level. Businesses in Nigeria ranges from agriculture, manufacturing, banking, insurance, oil and gas, solid minerals, consultancy, trading and other general entrepreneurial activities that drive the economy.

Olusanmokan (2007) in identifying main areas of economic activities in Nigeria to include industrial sector—which comprises of metallurgical/Engineering industries, agricultural (forest based and agro-allied) activities, chemical/petrochemical sector and construction sector. Livestock and fisheries production is also key among Nigerian businesses. Indeed, it is difficult to list all business activities in Nigeria because they are enormous as different people do different things to earn a living.

**Role of Government in Business**
Although Nigeria’s economic development is primarily the product of private entrepreneurship, the government has directly contributed towards the nation’s prosperity. This is evident in the actions which she initiates by creating new industries, easing the effects of economic depression, creates infrastructure and protects the living standards of the citizenry. Country studies (2002) explains that government influences businesses in the economy to attract higher productivity and working within legal framework. The relationship between government and business is that of collaborators rather than mutually suspicious adversaries. The government agencies continue to influence the economy through a variety of ways for a nation to achieve national consensus for a national well being. The government participation indeed provides leadership and authority over the business while the business would look up to the government for guidance with utmost objective to attain a national goal.

The government business relations are conducted in many ways and through numerous organs such as federal ministry of finance—which has operational responsibilities for all fiscal affairs as well as preparation of the national budget. The ministry through its fiscal policies exercises indirect control over the activities of the ministries and government actions relating to investment and national financial management. Another major and very important conduct of government interference on business activities is the central banks. The Central Bank is charged
with the responsibility for monetary policy which regulates interest rate especially inter-bank interest rate as well as monetary money flow in the economy.

The ministry of commerce and industry is responsible for regulation of production, distribution of goods and services. It develops plans concerning the structure of Nigerian industrial and commercial outlook. It controls the trade and supervises commerce in order to ensure smooth flow of goods in the national economy and in relation to foreign trade. The ministry provides enabling environment for the development of manufacturing, mining, distribution industries, procurement and reliable supply of raw materials, and energy resources needed to drive the economy effectively.

The ministry of transport is charged with the responsibility of overseeing the activities of transports in all land, sea and air, and regulate their activities for efficient services with minimal fair to encourage movement of goods and business operators. The ministry of communication handling posts and telecommunication (NIPOS), which is responsible for the postal and electronic communications.

There are three main policies that government use in administrating her influence on the Nigeria business.

1). Industrial Policy
The objective of the industrial policy is to shift industries from entry stage to maturity. The policy also promotes industrial development through operation with private firms. The industrial policy enables the government to measure productivity of inputs through indirect and direct investment in the industrial sector.

One of the principal instruments used by the federal government to prosecute her industrial effort is administrative guidance. This process involves wide spread application of influence, advice, prestige and persuasion. This step encourages the firms and industry. The administrative tool is used by the government officials who are changed with the power to withhold subsidies, which licenses, taxes, concessions, government contracts, import permits, foreign exchange and approval of cartels. The tools anticipated changes in the market as well as enhancing market competition.

The use of labor market policy, competition and tax incentives and other wide spread subsidies are fundamental to the economic and industrial development of a nation. The industry specific assistance may be technical or financial alongside with the promotional activities being carried out by the government agencies for industrial enlightenment and foreign investment attraction is a key factor of administrative guidance which is advanced by the government in favor of the business programs in Nigeria.
Government emphasize the need for higher value-added high productivity, knowledge-intensive tertiary industries and aggressive domestic and international business strategies that will position Nigeria based economy comparatively among the committee of nations. Living standards of a nation is a matter of concern of every nation. This goal can only be attained if proper attention is focused on the productive sector of the economy that will guarantee competitive output for export as against importation of what could be produced locally. This is called import substitution strategy. Other areas which government formulates policies to support business activities are fixed investments in infrastructure to generate new investment or development of infant industries.

**Monetary and fiscal policy:** The monetary policy is concerned with the regulation of cost of credit as well as making available credit in the economy. The ministry of finance and the central bank jointly regulate the allocation of resources in the economy, distribution of income and wealth among the citizenry as well as stabilizing the level of activities and promote economic growth and welfare. A high proportion of government spending is targeted at “growth first” strategy. This is done by making more money available for private investment. This may come in form of loans/growths or micro-credits for the creation of the small and medium scale entrepreneurs. Economic growth that focuses on entrepreneurial development appears to be more crucial for business boom.

**Government Policies**
The word “policy” according to Wikipedia (2002) is described as a deliberate plan of action to guide decisions for the purpose of achieving rational outcome (objectives). It may also be said to what has already been done “the term is used to describe government activities such as presidential executive orders, corporate privacy policies and parliamentary rules of order. Policy may differ from rules or law because while law compels obedience or prohibits behavior such as law requiring payment of taxes on income policy. Income policy also provides guides towards those that are likely to produce results. The government, private organizations (firms) and individuals or group need policies to regulate their actions.

Policy formulation involves stages which may include
1. Agenda setting (problem identification)
2. Policy formulation
3. Adoption
4. Implementation
5. Evaluation

According to Wikipedia, there are 8 listed steps for a policy cycle. These are:
1. Issue identification
2. Policy analysis
3. Policy instrument development
4. Consultation (which demands the entire process)
5. Condensation
6. Decision
7. Implementation
8. Evaluation

**The Policy content**
The content of a policy depends on the issues involved and the type and operations of the organization. Policies are basically promulgated by the government and they are regarded as the official written documents. They must always come with the endorsement, signature of the executive powers within an organization in order to legitimize the policy. The policy always possesses a special format.

The standard components of a policy are in:
1. Purpose Statement: This is an expression of why the organization or government is issuing the policy and what the desired effect is intended to have.
2. An applicability and scope statement: This describes who the policy affects and which actions are impacted by the policy. The policy in its applicability may exclude some people or organizations or actions from the policy requirements. The applicability is used to focus on the desired target more to avoid the unintended consequences as much as possible.
3. An effective date: This explains or stipulates the exact date with which the policy come into effect.
4. A responsibilities section: This section deals with parties and organization charged with the responsibilities to execute the contents or policy statements. Some policies may require that special committee or body be established to handle the affairs of the policy statement. If the policy is a purchasing policy, a purchasing officer may be required to take action or manage the policy statement rather than appointing officers of other professional background.
5. Policy statement: The policy statement is expected to indicate the specific regulations, requirements or modifications to organizational behavior for which policy is created. The policy statement may take any form depending on the size and the operationalities of the organization.

**Government Policies**
Business educators (2010) explain that government policies are controls that the government use to affect the level of activities in the economy. Traditionally, these are two; they are fiscal policy and monetary policy. The fiscal policy as previously discussed relates to government...
expenditure, taxation and credit management while the monetary policy relates to the regulation of interest rate and exchange rate. The following example illustrates the application of the policies. In the food industry, the government may decide to promote organic produce that will benefit the health and environmental impacts. Consequently, she may decide to provide incentives to grow and consume the organic fruit and vegetables. To do this, the government will have to introduce taxation for producing and consuming the goods. In order to protect the supplies of food and the livelihood of farmers, the government may introduce subsidies and make the business activities in the section fix free. This policy is an example of fiscal policy. Cassels (2010) observes a situation where government use fiscal policy to encourage more growers and consumers to go organic.

The interest rates and exchange rates are the monetary tools government use to regulate the economy by controlling the demand for credit in the economy. When the interest rates are low, the government is encouraging the individuals and organizations to borrow more in order to finance their spending and investment. But when the rate is high, the government is discouraging borrowing, spending and investment.

The Impact of Government Policies
Government policies may affect the business positively or negatively. The direction of the policy defines the nature of the impact. The word “impact” here may mean “effect”. This paper is concerned with the negative impact of government policies on Nigerian businesses.

Indeed, government create enabling environment for business to thrive but the conditions that determine the environment may be hostile, creating harsh and stressful atmosphere for the businesses to operate, these conditions are the likes and frameworks called policies and regulatory procedures that enable competition among the operators. These rules faces changes from time to time and they tend to force the businesses to change the way they do their businesses. This is why the Times 100 (2010) states that business is keenly affected by government policy. They identified areas where government policies affect business.

a. Economic Policy
The creation of business or industries by the federal, state and local government as occasioned by national economic policy does not allow for proper competition in the related industry. Taxation affects business costs. An increase in tax means a reduction in net profit and the business pass the increase or tax to consumers. Other business taxes are environmental taxes eg, land fill, VAT which is regularly passed down the line to the final consumer. Interest rate is another area of economic policy that affects business. It raises the cost to business in borrowing of funds. It also causes consumers to reduce expenditure and this eventually leads to a fall in business sales.
Another area is government spending policy. This area affects businesses. For example, if the government spends more on schools, it will increase the income of businesses that supply schools with books, equipment etc. Other business activities are affected by the government subsidies eg. An employment subsidy for the long-term unemployed

**Legal Changes**

The political changes in a nation cause legal changes for business. New leadership with new vision for economic transformation generate new legislation to regulate business activities that will guarantee the realization of the leadership vision. Consequently, the businesses are under obligation to respond to the changes in the legal framework on continual basis. The legal framework may include the following:

(a) The creation of a national minimum wage which may attract higher pay
(b) The requirement for businesses to cater for disabled people or employ a number of disabled persons on their staff list or undertake social responsibilities to meet specific needs of the society or community where they operate
(c) Providing increasingly tighter protection for consumers in order to protect them against unscrupulous business practice.
(d) Creating tighter rules on what constitute fair competition between businesses

**Challenges of Entrepreneurship In Nigeria.**

The challenges of entrepreneurship in Nigeria are critical which comprises: management of organizational change, strategic flexibility, and the implementation process of integrating entrepreneurial and strategic actions. Mari and Karimu (2010) declare that most of indigenous businesses in Nigeria are small-scaled businesses which are often crippled by lack of capital and credit facility for expansion. The inability to access credit facilities in the banks and other government agencies have great influences on the entrepreneurship development in Nigeria. Duniya (2004) observes that a number of federal and state agencies have been charged with providing funds for the promotion of small-scale industries. But the fact is that majority of potential and existing entrepreneurs are not benefiting from these services. This is because the conditions for accessing these funds are stringent. If government policies relating to this funds are flexible enough for massive access, the impact on the economy would be great.

Anugwom (2007) also contributes that the challenges of self employment in Nigeria include how to mobilize capital to start a new business, how to identify feasible business opportunities and exploit them profitably and how to avert threats and overcome competition from other firms in the same industry. In addition to this view, lack of adequate education in the opportuned areas posses challenges to the entrepreneur. Mamman (2008) in identifying problems of entrepreneurship in Nigeria listed among others the following: lack of infrastructural facilities,
use of obsolete technology, lack of incentives, bureaucratic bottlenecks, political and economic instabilities.

Entrepreneurship in a country as a phenomenon is the synergistic outcome of several economic, institutional, technological and socio-cultural conditions. Thus, there are budding entrepreneurs and established business organizations that start new business activities. It would be easier for an established business organization to launch new business activities than it is for a new entrepreneur. Raising finances, organizing resources, managing market entry and dealing with authorities are all handled confidently by established business organizations. It is very clear that a new entrepreneur would require considerable support from the promotional bodies of the government to manage these multifarious tasks efficiently. Experts opinions do not find government policies framed specifically to support new entrepreneurs. In the absence of such initiatives, it is the established business organizations that are favoured for new ventures. (Bhupatkar, 2009).

Many entrepreneurs decide to continue on a gradual growth path on account of the unwillingness to face challenges of growth. When initial success translates into personal wealth, they experience elation and choose to remain in that condition rather than take the risk of losing it all in the name of growth or diversification or expansion. Those entrepreneurs who choose to go beyond initial success of their venture and grow, have to cross an important barrier, that of building an organization to run the business. In the start up phase, the entrepreneur was driving the operations, hitting the market and managing the funds. In the growth phase, he has to build an organization to run the well established part of business activities. That would leave the entrepreneur some free Many equate organization with adding more people. But an organization is both a structure and a process. The process of planning, review and control also calls for management. For entrepreneurs to build an organization, they need to allow other viewpoints to come into play. Openness to other points of view is a very important factor in determining whether the entrepreneur will succeed in building an organization that can take care of itself. Most of the times, the start ups begin and end as one-man ‘shows’ causing growth to be retarded. (Bhupatkar, 2009).

**Conclusion**

The primary engines that are driving the economy of any nation around the world are collective in the form of collaborators and stakeholders. The players are involved directly and indirectly in creating conducive and non-conducive environment. The conditions influencing business activities bordered around government policy and regulatory activity. In both the developed nations and developing nations alike, government policies have largely been fashioned in close collaboration and consultation with the current major operators and players in the various industries.
Government is the principal player in business. Its role is fundamental. It is directly involved in contributing to the nation’s prosperity by initiating new industries, cushioning the effects of economic depression, creating an enabling environment in terms of infrastructures and protecting the living standard and quality of life.

Inspite of the above role, the government applies the tools of public fiscal policy, and monetary policy to regulate the activities of business in the economy. Unfortunately, these legislations and policy statements of government machineries have negative impact on business activities. These are evident in the taxation policy which affect business costs. The economic policy which relates to interest rate increases the cost of borrowing money when it is high. It also causes consumer to reduce expenditure leading to a fall in business sales. Other areas include legal changes which impose restrictions for business and protection for consumers.

Suggestion
(1) The public policy makers should not attempt to rush into formulating precise policy around new businesses development concept.
(2) The legislations should be guided by uncontestable objective and quantifiable evidence that they would not affect social and economic contributor in every situation
(3) Taxation should be moderated to encourage competition in the industry
(4) Tax free situation is ideal for entrepreneurial development to attract local and foreign investors
(5) All draconian law that pose inhibitions to business liberalizations and economic transformation in the country should be repealed.
(6) Framing government policy should be done to see how best to nurture and accelerate the growth of any given sector of the economy
(7) Conscious attempt must be made to minimize economic stress on the industry whether manufacturing or services oriented
(8) Government policies relating to fiscal and monetary policies should always have human face. In order to promote high standard of living and quality of life among the citizenry.
(9) Laws that are exploitative and creating bottlenecks in the wheel of business growth should be abrogated and replaced with business friendly legal policies.
(10) High interest rate that affect the return on investment (ROI) should be moderated (or reviewed) to move capital around the economy for wealth creation.
(11). There is need for government to create enabling environment for entrepreneurial development to strive.
References


CHANGING CORPORATE STRUCTURE FOR SURVIVAL IN A COMPETITIVE ENVIRONMENT

BY ISMAEEL M. ANCHAU
Dept of Business Administration

AND

BALA DZUKOGI
Dept of Management Studies
College of Business and Management Studies
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna Nigeria

Abstract
It is a common knowledge that the business environment is characterized by stern competition. To survive, businesses have employed variety of measures/strategies one of which is shedding internal structure that may constitute impediment to success. This is commonly described as corporate restructuring. This paper is an attempt to explore the approach to corporate restructuring, the consequences of corporate restructuring – intended and unintended – and proffer useful suggestions on how best to implement restructuring program for survival.

Introduction
Organisation are social units i.e. they are composed of individuals working together to achieve the objectives for which the organisation was establish. The activities of these individuals must be co-ordinated and integrated systematically to achieve desired results, hence the need for structures that prescribes interrelatedness of organisational roles.

Organisation structure is describe by Fry et’al (1998) as a framework that prescribes the way businesses organise, arrange, and group the work that needs to be done. It is a pattern of how the business will integrate the various activities of individuals within the organizations Fry et’al further stated that the structure outlines an orderly flow of activities and interactions that keeps the business moving towards it goals. The structure is present to avoid the chaos of employee’s doing their own thing, without any sense of whether it contributes to the overall value for the business and its customers. The structure should arrange activities and interactions so that the business is operating in the efficient manner possible.

There are various types of structures that an organization can put in place to integrate activities of individuals within the organization for results. However, organisations, in cognition of the dynamism of the environment within which they operate, do not choose a structure and then stay with it forever. In fact organisational structures change almost continually to meet the need of changing strategies, technologies, environment etc to enhance organisation performances as well as strengthening a firm’s competitive position. The process of altering the existing structures to meet these changing needs is known as restructuring/re-organization.
Today, we know, that restructuring, becomes critical above all, when a small business grows into a medium size one, and a simply business into a complicated one. The small that wants to grow, even into only a medium size business, therefore, has to think through and work out the right organisation structure which enables it at one and the same time to function as a small business and to be able to grow into something bigger. Similarly, the simple one-product, one-market business faces crucial organisation problems the moment it adds even a little diversity or complexity. In addition, as maintained earlier re-organization/restructuring is particularly important in the face of changing technology, management philosophy and the likes.

Corporate restructuring in the words of Norman (1998) is the process of making a major change in organisation structure that often involves reducing management levels and possibly changing some major components of the organisation through divestiture and/or acquisition. The purpose is to boost efficiency and effectiveness. However, according to Bartol and Martin (1998) restructuring frequently, but not always, involves reducing the size of an organization workforce. Hellriegel, Jackson and Slocum (1996) defined corporate restructuring and reconfiguring – changing levels of authority, responsibility control – the organization. That is when an organisation alters its structure it may change its departmentalization, hierarchical reporting relationship and overall design.

In addition to meeting the changing needs of the business environment altering the existing structure could be a response to demonstrated deficiencies in an existing structure some of which arise from organisational weaknesses themselves – excessive spans of management, too many levels, inadequate communication, poor inter-departmental coordination, slow decision making, failure to accomplish objectives, excessive cost and also personal and structural conflict (Koontz et’al 1980).

In any case, to remain vital and profitable, a company must be prepared to shed its skin and try on something new periodically. It must be prepared to change its structure to enhance performance.

According to Hellriegel et ál the technology based approach to planed organisational change focus on change in workflows, production methods, materials and information systems.

The redesign approach emphasized internal structural change such as realigning departments, changing who makes decisions, and merging or reorganizing departments that sell the company’s product etc.
The task-based approach concentrates on changing specific employee job responsibilities and task. According to Hellriegel et al. (1999), the two dramatically different ways of changing a task are job simplification and job enrichment.

The people-oriented approach includes a wide range of activities intended to improve individual competencies and performance levels. The people-oriented approach offers implications for all components of the human resources management system.

This study focuses on redesign approach to planned organizational change with particular emphasis on altering internal structure, i.e., organizational structure to improve performance.

**Conceptual Explanation (Corporate Restructuring)**

Every organization, whether government department or armed services, research laboratory, catholic diocese, university administration or hospital – in addition to countless business seems forever to be engaged in reorganising and being reorganised (Drucker 1982). According to Drucker even the Bank of England, which had admitted no outsiders through its doors for almost three hundred years, was finally restructured by one of the large American consulting firms. There are reasons, in the words of Drucker for this interest in organisation and for the underlying conviction that inherited organisation structure or structures that “just grew” are unlikely to be appropriate to the needs of the enterprise. Therefore, the best structure that fits the need of enterprises must be designed.

In fact managers at many American companies, according to Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (2004), adopted bureaucratic organizational structures when times were more stable, when companies dominated their business environment, and when assumptions about continued economic growth were held. Thus such companies as Xerox, Exxon, IBM and GM developed multilayered bureaucracies that eventually became too cumbersome when quick responses to rapidly changing times become necessary. The current waves to mergers, divestures and acquisitions, the deregulation of some industries, and an increasing number of new entrepreneurial firms, greatly intensified global competition. In addition far-reaching technological advances further compelled managers at highly bureaucratic companies to adopt less hierarchical structures in order to become more adaptive to their environments. This process of altering the corporate structure to make it more adoptive to the changing needs to the environment is known as corporate restructuring. Changing an organization’s structure involves rearranging its internal systems, such as the lines of communication, workflows, or management hierarchy (Stone, Freeman and Gilbert; 2004).

According to Bartol and Martin (1998) the term restructuring is often used synonymously with downsizing. Downsizing is the process of significantly reducing the layers of middle
management, increasing the spans of control, and shrinking the size of the workforce for the purposes of improving organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Smallwood and Jacobsen 1987; Bailey Szerdy, 1988; Freeman and Camera, 1993). Similarly, Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (2004) defined downsizing as a version of organizational restructuring which results in decreasing the size of the organisation and often results in flatter organizational structure; or ways organisations convert to leaner, more flexible structures that can respond more readily to the pace of change in the global market.

Corporate restructuring has also gone by many other names: rightsizing, redesigning, rethinking and a host of other synonyms (Fry et’tal, 1998). Norman (1988) defined corporate restructuring as the process of making a major change in organization structure that often involves reducing management levels and possibly changing some major components of the organisation through divestiture and/or acquisition for the purpose of boosting efficiency and effectiveness. DeWith (1993) view corporate restructuring as reconfiguring the distribution of authority, responsibility and control in the organization.

Most discussions of corporate restructuring usually associate it with reducing the size of an organisation’s workforce. However, according to Bartol and Martin (1998) restructuring frequently, but not always involves reducing the size of organizations workforce. This is evident in the restructuring exercise carried out in most Japanese firms. In the words of Sugawara (1996) Japanese companies have been able to restructure during the past decade without the major layoffs that characterized many U.S companies. In contrast many large companies in the United States have restructured by laying off large number of workers.

Umunnaehila (2001) viewed restructuring from financial perspective. According to him restructuring is an effort to keep a company alive by adjusting its capital structure. This reorganization he posits involves the reduction of fixed charges by substitution with equity and other limited income securities.

However, this study focuses on restructuring interns of altering organization studies to meet the challenges within the business context, as expressed by scholars whose work were earlier reviewed. In line with their view point Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (2004) described changing an organization’s structure as involving rearranging its internal systems, such as the lines of communication, workflow or management hierarchy.

Structural changes according to Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (2004) can take the form of:

1. **Organizational Design:** They assert that the classical organization design focuses on careful definition of job responsibilities and creation of appropriate divisions of labour
and lines of performance. According to them one of the most significant structural trends is toward the flat, lean organisation in which middle layers of management are eliminated to streamline the interaction of top managers with non-management employees, who are given more responsibilities.

2. **Decentralization:** This involves creating smaller self-contained organisational units that are meant to increase the motivation and performance of unit members and to focus their attention or high-priority activities (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert 2004).

3. **Workflow Modification:** Another form of restructuring i.e. changing corporate structure can take, according to Stoner, Freema and Gilbet, is modification of workflow and careful grouping specialties. One expression of this trend, according to them, is the amount of money employee’s can spend product without going through a slow and potentially painful and humiliating process of getting authorization. Another expression of this idea is the suggestion by Peter (1990) that manager the speed up product development by “Jamming people from desperate function together in the same room or workspace or cubby hub…”

**Approach to Restructuring an Organization**
The overall structure has been outlined as to the design of a new organization structure and also to bring into being. Cross (1990) outlined eight major stages in restructuring exercise, as viz:

1. **Detailed preparation for which launch of a change initiative.** Before embarking upon a detailed and rigorous examination of a particular organisation structure, it is necessary first, according to Cross to gain acceptance that there is need to make improvements and that areas of weaknesses are recognized. This process in the word of Cross creates a level of dissatisfaction with the current situation and can be positively produced by focusing on a desire future and by developing a company mission. The net result of this stage is to achieve a realisation of the need to change and an acceptance of the broad direction in which change should proceed.

2. **Development of terms of reference/roles for the proposed changing.** One of the most important stages in a change process of organisation structure according to Cross is the identification and clarification of key issues. This stage according him allows the surfacing and testing of the assumption of individuals with regards to current situation, and it then encourages the joint development and acceptance of the final terms of reference. It is at this stage that a design team can be formed.
3. **Definition/scoping of the problem/issues to be tackled.** While the careful drafting of the terms of reference can include the scoping of the study, it is useful to draft the terms of reference and then challenge them. It is often necessary to modify the terms of reference as new information comes to light. Moreover, terms of reference might be specific with regard to output of their completion, but more vague as to exact focus of the study-as to what is worth considering in detail in order to improve performance. It is also necessary at this stage according to Cross (1990) to have, as far as possible, a *greenfield* start in the design of organization structure.

4. **Selection of the appropriate method** of redesigning organization structure to suit the changing situation or to solve the existing structural problems.

5. **Data and information collections.** At this stage, according to Cross, information are collected from within and/or outside the organization on the basis of which a realistic assessment can be made of the organisation structure options.

6. **Data analysis.** This stage involves the analysis of the data collected by means of the application of a few broad rules which can further be refined by a detailed reference to each task in the design of the structure. This stage according to Cross, results in developing a series of organization structure option, it rarely, if ever recants in a single option.

7. **Selecting the best option.** This stage is devoted to the selection of a particular option based on a series of evaluation criteria and then a costs and benefits analysis of the selected option. These two evaluation steps mightly then require the option to be changed in some way, and/or have some implications for the option’s implementation. This stage, Cross opined, should be as open as possible, and be a key part of the change process.

8. **Implementation.** This is the last stage in the reorganization process as outlined by Cross. In this stage according to the scholar the specific issue of the various ways in which new organisation structure can be implemented is tackled. This stage requires detailed planning and can make use of the data and data analysis of stages 5 and 6.

However, Umunnachile (2001) summarized the steps involved in the restructuring process are three namely:

1. **Diagnosis:** This, according to Umunnachile involves careful examination of the important causes of the decline in the fortunes of the company before proceeding on any restructuring exercise. This, he asserts, entails a historical assessment of the company i.e.
investigating into the factor or combination of factor responsible for the poor performance of the company.

2. **Prescription**: Having identified the causes of the problem the next step in the process of restructuring, according to Umunnachile, is to proffer the appropriate solution.

3. **Monitoring**: Having proffered the solution(s) the next phase is to monitor its implementation. According to him a well planned restructuring strategy can easily be derailed if it is not constantly monitored. He therefore opined that as the implementation goes on, the restructuring manager needs to constantly review the progress made and effect pivot changes of regular intervals.

**Motivating Forces for Structural Change**

The changing business environment may call for changes in organizational structure. If a company, for instance, has merged with or acquired another company, introduced a new product line, acquired new technology or downsized, the company will probably need to restructure. The views of Daniel (1966) laid credence to the above assertion. Daniel outlined five factors that may provide impetus for structural change as follows:

“There is no mystery about the forces at work behind those changes. There are at least five:

1. The pressures of competition on margins and profits have put a premium on efficient organisation structure. Overlapping departments are being combined, product divisions consolidated, and marginal units eliminated.

2. The growing internationalization of business has compelled more and more companies to supplant export departments by international division, to establish regional management groups and to restructure corporate staff.

3. Mergers and acquisitions - still apparently on the uptrend - have generated strong pressures for reorganization in parent companies as well as in newly acquired subsidiaries.

4. New developments in technology - such as the advanced management information systems... often required new organizational arrangements to realize their ultimate potential for improving corporate performance.

5. Last, but not the least, shear growth is compelling many companies to amend time-honoured organizational arrangements in order to cope with volume increase.....”
From the above, Daniel (1966) identified competition, internationalization (now globalization), mergers and acquisitions as well as growth as the force behind structural change in organizations.

In addition to the factors outlined by Daniels (1966) other factors that may prompt the need for corporate restructuring according to Umunnachile (2001) include:

1. The desire to take advantage of or gain from an emerging lucrative market. This according to him could also be termed repositioning;

2. In the case of conglomerate the need for restructuring could be informed by the desire to have a more trimmed, focused and profitable company through reducing the size of its units and selling some of its subsidiaries; and

3. Privatization – a company need to restructure after privatization.

In all these cases according to Umunnachile (2001) restructuring exercises required a lot of tact and strategies in order to succeed in reviving or revitalizing a company. He asserts that restructuring in not a guess work; rather it is an organized scientific method of revitalizing a company to better structure and focus.

**Changing Corporate Structure for Survival in a Competitive Business Environment**

*Consequence Of Restructuring Effort*

Like any other management actions taken by managers for success assurance, restructuring efforts result into certain outcome(s). These may be internal (anticipated) and unanticipated. Merton (1936) distinguished between intended and unanticipated consequences of purposive action. Intended consequence according to Merton are the objectives of the action, the targets toward which it is oriented and the motives that stimulate it. Unanticipated consequence on the other hand are outcomes of the action that the actor does not expect in advance and therefore does not intend.

As Bowman and Singh (1993) and Bowman et al. (1999) pointed out the intended consequence of restructuring usually include such outcomes as productivity improvement, cost reduction, increased shareholder value, or a better alignment of the organization with a changing environment.

Although corporate restructuring is directed toward anticipated consequences that are commonly know in the business world - consequence like improved financial performance and greater competition - restructuring also has some significant unanticipated consequence (Bowman and Sigh, 1993). However, Masud (1985) identified two major unanticipated consequences that are
considered to a critical role in the perpetration of organizational restructuring through self reinforcing feedback loops.

The two unanticipated consequences identified are:

i. The production of short-term cognitive order in top executives responsible for restructuring decisions; and

ii. The generation of long-term environmental disorder as a consequence of organizational restructuring.

In other words restructuring heats up the business in the environment thereby leading to hyper-competition. This is because when an organization restructures to gain competitive, according to McKinley and Scherer (2000), respond to those initiative with moves of their own, their targets counter respond and so on, leading to a business environment characterized by turbulence chronic change, and high uncertainty about future states.

Conclusion

No organization can afford to maintain a rigid structure in the face of changing and highly competitive business environment. In fact the popular mention associated with change in the business world is “change or die”. Most businesses are forced into extinction for failure to recognize the need to embrace change. Thus, to survive, one of the most daunting challenges the management must confront wisely is the introduction and implementation of change initiatives (one of which is changing internal structure) capable of placing the organization in a comfortable competitive position. In the words of Daniel (1966):

“Undoubtedly the ability to plan organizational change wisely, implement it effectively, and realize its benefits promptly is becoming more and more essential to effective, competitive corporate performance. Indeed, the penalties for dangling a reorganization, both in terms of dollars and of competitive position, are getting higher every year.

Reference


BARRIERS TO ARCHITECTURAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN NIGERIA

By

Arc. ABUJA MOHAMMED SANI
Department of Architecture
College of Environmental Studies
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Nigeria

Abstract
The paper defines the topic and outlines the expected barriers to entrepreneurship in small to medium Architectural Firms in Nigeria experiencing transition. The paper also introduces the barriers to entrepreneurship, characteristics of entrepreneurship on Architectural Firms and topic of business transition. Operational, Financial and General Management, Marketing and Human Resource Management, Strategic Planning Barriers to entrepreneurship for sustainable growth and business development of Architectural Firms in Nigeria are highlighted. The paper concludes that architectural small and medium firms face a number of barriers preventing their sustainable growth and development into architectural businesses which contributed to the stagnated growth and exit. And finally, the paper recommends the integration of entrepreneurship into the study of architecture including training student extensively to meet the demand of Architectural firms and business training of Architects for the success of Architectural small and medium firms.

Introduction
Definitions
Architecture: The American Institute of Architects, (http://www.aia.org) ; defined Architecture as a passion, a vacation, a calling and a business, with Schwennsen (1999) corroborating this by stating that Architecture is a producer-service business, producing services to clients in a volatile construction industry. Winch and Schneider (1993), while agreeing that creativity is important in the practice of architecture, emphasized the importance of organizational and market context in the face of an increasingly competitive environment. These appear to be business concern and further confirm that architectural practice is a business.

Entrepreneurship:
Entrepreneurship is a dynamic process of vision, change and creation that requires an application of energy and passion toward the creation and implementation of new ideas and creative solutions. Entrepreneurship is a critical part of the process of creative destruction that Schumpeter (1911) argued is so important for the continued dynamism of the modern economy.

Architectural Entrepreneurship:
Wiscombe, (2004) in his article, “Emergent Models of Architectural Practice” gave an example of a firm, (Imaginary Forces) that has exceeded in pushing the limits of Architectural practice. Imaginary Forces (IF) in New York is itself spin-off of IF in Los Angeles, which is a group of
special effects gurus and marketing creative’s. IF New York, lead by Creative Director, Mikon Von Gastel has positioned itself somewhere between the film industry and the building industry, leveraging one to open up potentials in the other. IF concentrates on Architectural ‘Special Effects’, all of that which has been latent in 20th century Architecture, but never developed or understood as its own expertise. These special effects cut across the disciplinary boundaries of interactive media, industrial design, animation, art direction, and engineering, and are convergent with, rather than supplemental to, architecture. Peter Frankfurt, one of the founders of IF using the diverse team, he organized for the production of parts of the film ‘Minority Report’ his plan is to develop futuristic products envisioned in that film and bring them to market. Frankfurt has reportedly called on Stephen Spielberg to finance and ‘produce’ this project. This example clearly portrays Architectural entrepreneurship.

**Background of the Paper**

Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are increasingly seen as playing an important role in the economies of many countries. Thus, Government throughout the world focuses on the development of the SME sector to promote economic growth. In the U.S, businesses with fewer than 100 employees represent more than 99.7 percent of all employees; they employ more than half of all private sector workers (54.9 million). Small businesses account for 39 percent of high-tech jobs and create 60 – 80 percent of the new jobs annually. They also account for 52.6 percent of all retail sales and finally they gracefully represent 89 percent of U.S. exports (Small Business Economic Indication, 2003).

Sanni (2009) stated that small and medium sized enterprises have shown their importance in West Africa, they are recognized by policy makers as important reservoir of growth. The African Development Bank regards them as presently over 90 percent of business, providing employment in Africa and representing GDP of approximately 50 percent in Africa. In spite of the consensus on the role of SMEs in these emerging market, Africa’s SMEs still face lots of obstacles in their development.

Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) have contributed to the Nigerian economy in some ways, a few years ago, SME represent about 90 percent of the industrial sector in terms of number of enterprises and furthermore they contribute a scanty 1 percent of Gross Domestic Product (NIPC, 2002). This is insignificant when compared to countries like Indonesia, India and Thailand, where SMEs contributes almost 40 percent of their GDP (Ariyo, 2005).

Architectural firms in Nigeria are mainly small firms. Oluwatayo, (2009) stated that the number of staff in Architectural firms sampled shows that 33.33 percent of the firms had between 6 to 10 members of staff; 27.59 percent between 10 to 20 staff; and 14.94 percent of the firms had between 1 and 5 staff. Lower percentage, (8.05 percent, 6.9 percent, 5.75 percent and 3.45 percent) of the firms had between 21 and 30, 31 and 40, 41 and 50 and above 50 staff respectively. The number of staff in the architectural firm sampled varied from 1 to 80.
Following Symes et al. (1996) classification of firms into small (between 1 to 10 staff); medium (between 11 and 30 staff) and large firms (more than 30 staff), reveals that most (48.27 percent) of the architectural firms sampled were small firms; having between 1 and 10 members of staff. This is followed by the medium sized architectural firms (staff strength of 11 to 30), representing 35.64 percent of the sampled; then the large sized firms (3 and above) constituting 16.1 percent of the sampled firms. This result suggests a predominance of small firms with the highest number of firms having a total number of between 1 and 10 staff (professional and others). Based on these results, most architectural firms in Nigeria can be described as small firms (Oluwatayo, 2009)

Small and medium Architectural firms face numerous barriers preventing their sustainable growth and the development of architecture as a business enterprise.

Although the practice of architecture is rooted in classical antiquity, the name ‘Architect’ first came to be known in Italy during the renaissance in the 15th and 16th centuries (Chauhan, 1994). Chauhan further noted that architectural practice evolved together with the society it served, first being defined as art, then science, and recently being defined as the ‘business of designing building’. The business aspect is buttressed by Symes, Eley and Siedel (1996), who stated that architects define themselves as professionals claiming financial reward for knowledge and skill in the design of built environment.

Overview of Barriers to Entrepreneurship
Entrepreneurship is a dynamic process of vision, change and creation that requires an application of energy and passion toward the creation and implementation of new ideas and creative solutions. This process of innovation and new venture creation is accomplished through four (4) Major dimensions - individual, organizational, environmental and process - and is added by collaborative network in governmental, education and institutions (Kwatko, 2009).

Susan et al. (2004) examined “barriers and business creation to entrepreneurship”. They stated that there may be a variety of barriers to enterprises, depending on the industry sector, region and types of enterprises; identifies a number of common barriers which act to limit enterprises across the EU including:

- Regulatory barriers, such as administrative barriers to entry.
- Cultural and social barriers, such as the ‘fear to failure’ and a lack of entrepreneurial knowledge and skilled and
- Financial and economic barriers, such as, insufficient risk capital, both seed/early stage and longer term financing.

To promote Architectural entrepreneurship, it is important to know the barriers that effect entrepreneurship, to overcome the barriers and promote new policies and measures to create new ventures. The study of barriers to entrepreneurship is not new in the literature. Since the seminal paper by Evans and Jovanovic (1989) that has shown on U.S data the importance of borrowing constraints in entrepreneurial choice, a lot of papers have emphasis that the tighten of credit constraints is a major obstacle to entrepreneurship (Philippe, and Emmanuelle, 2011). Excessive or inappropriate government regulations have also been found to be a significant constraint on entrepreneurship (e.g. Loayza 1996 and Botero et al. 2003 on labour market regulation).

Ogundele (2002) examined “most important problem of confronting indigenous entrepreneur in Nigeria”. He reported the views of those who were sponsored by government and those who were self sponsored. All agreed that inadequate capital is a major problem to them. However, those assisted by government list problem of capital as the most important, while the self sponsored entrepreneurs list it as second, along the acts of indiscipline. Balogun (2004) echoes the same when he stressed that the most important concern of most of potential as going entrepreneurs is that of finance. However, there is literature in this field of study.

**Understanding Architectural Entrepreneurship Problems**

Research has indicated that the economic activity of small firms has increased substantially in the past twenty (20) years (Hughes 1997). However, in Nigeria a few years ago, SME represent about 90 percent of the industrial sector (Architectural firms inclusive) in terms of number of enterprises and furthermore they contribute a scanty 1 percent of Gross Domestic Product (NIPC, 2002). Ariyo (2005) in his study stated that this is insignificant when compared to countries like Indonesia, India and Thailand where SMEs contribute almost 40 percent to their GDP.

From National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), statistics shows the contribution of the following sectors to the national GDP in the year 2009.
From the above data, the building and construction industry contributed only 1.98% to the GDP which is insignificant; whereas, from the same office of the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), statistics shows in the sector by Region table that the continent of Asia placed first in importation with a total value of ₦424.2 billion or 42.7 percent. In the second position is Europe, with a contribution of ₦346.2 billion or 34.8 percent. America followed with the value of ₦177.6 billion or 19.9 percent. Africa placed third, with a contribution of ₦25.5 billion or 2.6 percent. About 25% of the total importation value is in the Construction Industry Sector.

Studies has shown that the poor performance in the development and economic growth of the country by SMEs in the construction and manufacturing industries is as a result of stagnation and lack of growth of SME in these sector. The profession of architecture has been described as a dying profession that requires drastic actions to survive (Stevens, 2005). In the year 1999, there were 286 registered architectural firms in practice and 255 in the year 2009 in Nigeria (ARCON 2009). In line with the foregoing, the Nigerian Institute of Architects (NIA) and the Architects Registration Council of Nigeria, (ARCON) stated to develop a strategic plan for the profession of architecture in Nigeria, with the aim of increasing the sphere of influence, making a greater impact on the society, increasing the ability of the firms to deliver through Continuous Professional Development (CPD), and improving the perceived roles and attitudes of architects. This aim at arriving at a strategic plan is however yet to be realized (A. A. Oluwatayo, 2009). Entrepreneurship is a component of regional development and fostering entrepreneurship is one of the principal measures to accelerate economic and social development. To promote entrepreneurship, we need to know the barriers that affect entrepreneurship (Susan et al. 2004).

**The Challenges of Architectural Entrepreneurship**

The survey by the International Union of Architects in the United States cited by Schwennsen (2004), revealed that nearly 1000 new Architectural firms are started every year, but only 25
percent are still in business 3 years later. Larsen (2005) also noted as cited by Oluwatayo (2009) that sometimes, an Architecture firm in the United States headed by a rising star may win a major coveted award but struggle to meet the payroll. In Nigeria, Oluwatayo (2009) in his findings in the study of characteristics of Architectural firms stated that most of the firms are old with 9 percent between the ages 0 – 5; 12 percent between the age of 6 – 10; 60 percent between the ages of 11 – 25, and 19 percent between the age of 26 and above. These findings are confirmed in earlier deduction that approximately 34 firms exit each year and these firms are mainly those between ages of 0 – 5 who were unable to transit from micro to small and from small to medium. He further stated that only 17.05 percent, 7.95 percent, and 1.14 percent of the firms are Limited Liability Company, on Limited Liability Company and the Public Company respectively. Oluwatayo, (2009) in his findings, stated that most of the architectural firms in Nigeria were found to be more than ten (10) years old, small sized, and owned by a sole principal. They had the culture of innovation, but not the culture of aggression in the pursuit of business opportunities or concern for profit.

Oluwatayo, (2009) in his study found that most of the clients of the architectural firms were private individuals in Nigeria and most of their projects were residential projects. The firms mostly used competence in design, followed by AUTOCAD and Information Technology Literacy as criteria for the selection of staff. The study further found that the external influences on most of the architectural firms were not so strong and the greatest influences were exerted by clients, advances in information technology and the national economy. The characteristics of the firms most affected by these external influences were the staff management culture of the firms, the strategic goals of the firms, and the qualification and experience of the principal.

**Literatures on Barriers to Architectural Entrepreneurship**

**Introduction**

This paper will examine barriers to entrepreneurship as it influences Architectural firm development in Nigeria. This section will also look at the characteristic of barriers to entrepreneurship as well as the characteristics of Nigerian architectural firms and highlight the barriers to Architectural entrepreneurship identified.

The approach proposed in this paper is exploratory and descriptive; exploratory since little research information is available on architectural firms in Nigeria and descriptive since the aim of this paper is to understand and describe the barriers to entrepreneurship as it impact on architectural firms in Nigeria.

While the existing literature point to the impact of barriers to entrepreneurship on SMEs growth and development, there is nonetheless a scarcity of research on barriers faced by SMEs in the Construction industry and in particular architectural entrepreneurship. For this reason, architectural small and medium firms are unaware of the best way to overcome their stagnation.
and transition in to architectural business. To address this gap in the literature, this study will examine the barriers and to identify possible coping strategies for small and medium firm development.

**Characteristics of Barriers to Entrepreneurship**

Michail Kourilorf, (2000) “Exploring Perceptions of a Priori Barriers to Entrepreneurship: A Multidisciplinary Approach” acknowledged that the existing literature in barriers to entrepreneurship is so fragmented that it is of little help in understanding the environmental conditions (Gnyawali & Fogel, 1994). This literature review produced a disparate list of over 150 barriers from which six characteristics were identified. To clarify and elaborate on the gaps, these characteristics are presented and then compared to empirical studies. Some may seem obvious but, as will be detailed later, past studies have not considered many of these.

1. **Range of barriers.** The entrepreneurial environment includes socio-cultural, psychological, and political, as well as economic factors, which concomitantly affect the willingness and ability to undertake venture creation. Some of these are: values, motives (McClelland, 1976), "liability of newness" (Stinchcombe, 1965), political stability (Staley & Morse, 1971), sexual discrimination, and economies of scale (El-Namaki, 1988).

2. **Intensity of barriers.** The intensity of a barrier can range from absolute (which terminates venture creation) to minor (MacMillan, Block, & Narasimha, 1986).

3. **Domain-Specific Barriers.** The environment varies across nations, industries, time (Hannan & Freeman, 1989), cultures, political systems (Shapero, 1984), and levels of economic development (Porter, 1990).

4. **Invisible barriers.** These can be as important as, say, capital availability, but are vague or difficult to define (Gnyawali & Fogel, 1994). Sometimes entrepreneurs are unaware of events in the environment and thus do not report them (Cromie, 1991). Some invisible barriers are intentionally direct, specifically created to impede new entries (e.g., collusion, Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).

5. **Combinations of barriers.** The empirical literature suggests that barriers do work in combinations. MacMillan et al. (1986) noted that success of corporate ventures is particularly beneficial in the presence of three market characteristics: known customer base, firm-customer interaction, and a real market need. Near-linear effects have been suggested by the fact that entrepreneurship is the result of a "summation of... positive and negative forces" (Shapero & Sokol, 1982, p. 79) and, for a given output, increased achievement motivation varied inversely with capital requirements (McClelland, 1976).

6. **Sequential order of barriers.** Is there a sequential order of barriers; do some barriers need to be overcome before others? It is previously noted that people without a definite intention would not have investigated the environment carefully. Even so, perceptions do influence which actions will be seriously considered (Shapero & Sokol, 1982), and how actions are evaluated (Child, 1972); even if the perceptions differ from reality (Dubini, 1989).
Characteristics of Architectural Firms
A. A. Oluwatayo, (2009); “A Critical Study of the Practice Characteristics of Architectural Firms in Nigeria” stated that Architecture is primarily the art and science of designing spaces for serving the multifarious activities of human beings and for meeting their specific needs in a meaningful built environment. Academic American Encyclopedia, (1998), defines Architecture in four ways; first, architecture is defined as an art and method of erecting structures.

The Architects Registration Council of Nigeria (ARCON) definition however, attempting to include all other aspects of the built environment, defines architecture as ‘the art and science in theory and practice of design, erection, commissioning, maintenance and management and coordination of allied professional inputs thereto of buildings, or part thereof and the layout and master plan of such building or group of buildings forming a comprehensive institution, establishment or neighbourhood as well as any other organized space, enclosed or open, required for human and other activities. It involves a social structure that enhances the planning of the built environment to meet shelter needs (ARCON, 1990). This social structure however needs to be understood if it is to be sustained.

The 2004 edition of the register of architects entitled to practice in Nigeria (ARCON, 2004a) revealed that 64.8% of architects in Nigeria work in private firms, 6% in architectural schools, 23.6% in federal, state and local authorities, 1.6% in physical planning authorities of tertiary institutions and 4% in other organizations. The total number of fully architects registered in 2004 (2147) (ARCON, 2004a) versus the firms registered (462) (ARCON, 2004b) also lends credence to the assertion by Arayela, (2001) that one out of every five architects is a principal of a firm. However, this is all that is known about architectural firms in Nigeria.

Operational Barriers
A key internal constraint on growth of SMEs is reluctance or inability of owner managers to diversify control over business functions to professional managers (Storey, 1994). According to Rodney, Christopher, Sherif and Gary (2003) as cited in a study by Wynarczyk et al. (1993) of 150 small businesses, the management and marketing abilities of owner-managers has been shown to have a positive effect upon the financial success of small firms. Kale and Arditi (1998) add that the lack of financial resources and the lack of financial support from creditors compound the problems faced by small firms. It is therefore normal for small firms to be particularly inept in terms of adopting effective marketing and management strategies (Storey 1994).

Rodney et al. (2003) argued that Managerial weaknesses faced by owner-managers of small firms can impact upon survival. In the early stages of a firm’s growth, an owner manager can cope alone with many of the areas of management such as Finance, Human Resources,
Marketing, and Product Development. However, once a firm has reached a certain size, or stage in its life cycle, there is a need to professionalize the management function if a firm is to continue to grow (Rodney et al., 2003). Many small firms fail to effectively manage markets, finance, employees and prices that often result in the firm folding. Small firms often refuse to acknowledge that the environment in which they operate is constantly changing and impacting upon the firm (Kale and Arditi 1998). Construction Industry reports such as Latham (1994) and Egan (1998) highlight the need for the industry to embrace contemporary technologies and processes. Very few publications however investigate the level of technological and process inadequacy of SMEs.

**Financial and General Management Barriers**

In a recent working paper of the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), Francesca Pissarides (1998) has argued that “the findings of (recent) analysis confirmed the believe that credit constraints constitute one of the main to growth of SMEs”. The (UK) Rennes survey (Hankinson et al 1997) as cited by Rodney et al. (2003) argues that owner managers fail to address weaknesses in financial management and spend less than five hours per week extracting data from financial accounts. Storey (1994) offers that many small firms fail to keep adequate financial records and are often unaware of current financial situations. Owner managers also admitted to spending the same amount of time analyzing the firms’ strategic aims and objectives both in the short and long term. Ghosh et al (1993) report that the satisfaction of customer requirements, service, a good management team and good networks were the chief success factors of over 100 manufacturing firms. Rodney et al. (2003) further argued that this can be compared to Smyth (1999) who argues that switching costs are high for contractors and clients if the product delivered is complex, within a complicated relationship.

As payment is regarded as an important variable within contractual relationships, a tenuous link can be made between payment and the type of service provided by all parties within the relationship (Rodney et al., 2003). Smyth (1999) argues that costs can be reduced through the supply chain if the cost of exit from the relationship is high. He fails however, to attach significance to the contractor SME relationship in that financial benefit can be achieved if both parties can understand and accept interdependence.

**Marketing and Human Resource Management Barriers**

Rodney et al. (2003) stated as cited by Hueng and Brown (1999) that developments in research indicate that the primary problems faced by small firms are sales/marketing, human resource and management planning. It is the owner-manager firms employing less than 50 employees that take responsibility for much of the Human Resource Management (HRM) and employee relations (MacMahon and Murphy 1999). In a citation by Thompson (1999), Rodney et al.
(2003) offered that all firms require a committed, well-motivated skilled workforce if they are to survive within a global environment. Whilst large firms are downsizing and consequently losing employees, small firms are facing increasing pressure to retain and train employees (Hall 1995). Human resource issues in large firms differ from small firms but recent research has failed to offer any valid explanations (Rodney et al., 2003).

Practices that are suitable within a large firm environment are not necessarily practicable or beneficial in a small firm environment. There is an absence of data in regard to human resource practices in small businesses (Wager 1998). The study of 1000 small firms conducted by Wager indicated that practices such as employee training and development were not in operation within small firms with less than 25 employees. It is found that firm size is positively associated with the adoption of human resource practices (Rodney et al., 2003). It is interesting to note that many firms have very little understanding of the marketing concept and view it merely as the promotion or advertisement of a product or service (Hueng and Brown 1999). Within small subcontracting construction firms the marketing efforts of owner-managers are usually ad-hoc and are often the only effort made from within the firm (Carter and Dunne 1992). The Rennes survey included construction firms as one of five sectors utilized within the study. Owner managers in general within the study view their management skills, technical ability and leadership as above average. It is therefore contended that the success or failure of the small business is dependent upon the decision-making ability and interpretation of environmental intelligence of the owner-manager (Stokes 2000). It is widely accepted that the decisions of owner-managers can be rarely overridden (Jennings and Beaver 1997). It is therefore submitted that research should address the motivations, aspirations and values of owner managers.

**Strategic Planning Barriers**

Considerable evidence shows that strategic planning leads to increased firm performance. Yet, in the architectural firms, the level of planning in small firms is critically low. This is not to say that planning can categorically increase performance and sales turnover. Weston (1996) argues that formal majority of SMEs do not plan and the reasons why are not well understood (Calvin, Elizabeth and Walker, (2007).

Hall (1995) as cited by Rodney et al. (2003) stated that in the construction industry, planning can undermine the creative thinking owner managers of small firms. Hall (1994) presents that planning in small construction firms and general increases in management expertise may indeed be beneficial. Market Segmentation, Pricing Strategies and Environmental Analyses are strategies that can increase business awareness and increase profitability. It is considered necessary to account for all these factors affecting the survival and development of SMEs, as small firms are heterogeneous in nature (Rodney et al., 2003). It is evident from the literature that small firms are complex and multi-faceted. Westhead and Birley (1995) offer that progress
within the field of Entrepreneurship can no longer assume that there is one truth. The understanding of SMEs is no different in that the owner managers involved are diverse individuals with different levels of problems and opportunities. For development to succeed we must understand owner managers and the firm’s ability to develop.

**Information Technology Implementation Barriers**

Effective IT implementation in SMEs is essential to improve the productivity (Rodney et al., 2003). A study by Love et al. (1996) as cited by Rodney et al. (2003) identified problems and barriers to the implementation of IT. The most significant problems were the lack of system knowledge, with 68 percent of contractors interviewed perceiving this as a problem area, and lack of training associated with the implementation, with 62 percent identifying this as a problem. The lack of knowledge and ignorance of the potential benefits or IT applications is found to extend to contractor’s existing systems, with more than 50 percent of contractors unaware of the capabilities of their existing highly specialized software (Rodney et al., 2003). He further stressed that often, tasks that could be handled by existing systems were externally contracted, as the organisation is unaware that their system is capable of the task. The lack of knowledge is also identified as one of the main reasons why management had little interest in a commitment to the Internet, e-mail and advanced applications such as knowledge-based expert systems and simulation.

Marsh and Finch (1998) as cited by Rodney et al. (2003) conducted a survey of attitudes towards the application of data capture technologies among UK construction firms. The major barriers included a general lack of awareness about the technologies, coupled with uncertainty about how to identify and measure potential benefits. The Computer Integrated Construction Association, CICA (1993), described similar concerns among firms relating to the evaluation of other forms of IT, including EDI, electronic trading and design systems. The problem of identifying benefits of IT investments is not unique to the construction industry. It is a problem experienced in almost all types of business sectors and organisation. However, the problem is more acute in the construction industry as a result of the industry’s structure, fragmented supply chain and under capitalization (Andreson et al 2000). Small and medium sized enterprises are particularly sensitive to cyclical variations in demand, frequency seeking to justify investments in IT within the time constraints of a single project or contract (Marshand Flanagan, 2000).

**Conclusion**

Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) constitute about 70 percent of means of survival in Africa (Sani, 2007). In Nigeria, more than 65 percent of businesses are SMEs including Architectural firms (Oluwatayo, 2009), which obtain the livelihood of small and medium income earners. Entrepreneurship takes place in small and medium size enterprises (SMEs), since the two are often found to be closely related. As Wennekers and Twurik, (1999:29) note: small firms are the
vehicles in which entrepreneurship thrives. Entrepreneurship is a critical component of regional development and fostering entrepreneurship in one of the principal measures to accelerate economic and social development.

Architectural small and medium firms in Nigeria face a number of barriers preventing their sustainable growth and development in the architectural business. Their barriers include: limited strategic planning; financial and management constraints; operational factors; limited marketing and human resource; management expertise and ineffective information technology (IT) implementation. These factors are all contributing to the exit, stagnated growth and transition of firms into architectural business (Oluwatayo, 2009) noted that the register of the Nigerian Institute of Architecture has shown an increase in the number of architectural firms from 38 in 1973, 116 in 1978, and 286 in 1998 to 444 in 2004. There however appears to be a reduction in the number of Architectural firms in 2006, which listed 341 firms. In the year 2009, there were only 255 registered practicing Architectural firms in Nigeria (ARCON, 2009). From the above statistics, there had been an exit of 189 firms from the year 2004 to 2009, approximately 34 firms in each year, mainly as a result of barriers to entrepreneurship.

Recommendation
The Paper concluded that architectural firms need to take advantage of the opportunities provided by Information Technology to operate on a global level. There is a need for architectural schools in Nigeria to fully integrate entrepreneurship into the study of architecture as well as train student extensively in construction methods to meet the demands of architectural firms. Furthermore, there is a need for the business training of architects as this is a factor responsible for the success of architectural firms. Form the above statistics; most of the Architectural firms were unable to undergo the transitional phase of becoming international and Architectural business firms as obtainable in the developed countries through entrepreneurship.

Reference


Architects Registration Council of Nigeria (ARCON, 2009a) *Register of Architects Entitled to Practice in the Federal Republic of Nigeria*

Architects Registration Council of Nigeria (ARCON, 2009b) *Register of Architectural Firms Entitled to Practice in the Federal Republic of Nigeria*


ISSUES AND CHALLENGES IN INDUSTRIAL CONFLICTS RESOLUTION IN NIGERIA

BY

ABUBAKAR MOHAMMED CHATTA
Department of Marketing,
College of Business and Management Studies
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Nigeria

Abstract
The current trends in trade unionism and the uncompromising and insensitive attitude of the government in resolving industrial conflicts in Nigeria is a serious concern for reasonable and patriotic Nigerians. The author belong to these group of Nigerians, and for academic purpose ,the writer think it wise to access the cause and effect of Nigeria industrial conflicts, and also appraise trade dispute resolution strategic options. It is a glaring fact that there are critical and persistent industrial disputes in various sectors of the economy, leading to industrial instability all over the country. The industrial disputes in Nigeria mostly between trade unions and government had become so frequent that in a year, the economic, political and social activities are usually paralyzed for almost three months on the average. The trade dispute strike actions in Nigeria affect almost all spheres of life activities, while it causes Nigeria government a colossal loss in monetary value that cannot be quantified. In these regard workers productivity are not enhanced, and government developmental targets are not achieved. No wonder government budgets are implemented to its fullest; it is either 30% implemented or even lower than that. The sector that is mostly affected is the educational sector, where universities and polytechnics are sometimes short down on the average of six months in a year. The question is, whose interest is the government and its agent serving or protecting? Is it their own parochial interests or the interests of Nigerians? However, parties to industrial disputes are not sensitive to the implications of their actions in prolonging disputes. That is, either of the parties or both are ignorant and lack the required techniques in resolving disputes. Nigeria governments and their agents adamantly and consistently dragged the labour unions into strike actions due to their non-challant attitude and their fraudulent behavior in dishonoring agreements reached with the unions. However, some trade unions lack industrial conflicts resolution techniques, and sometimes exhibit arrogance and non-flexibility in their bargaining activities. This paper x-ray the critical challenges in industrial disputes in Nigeria as it impacts on the economic development and socio-political activities of Nigerians.

Introduction
Contemporary issues in trade disputes all over the world especially in African countries lead to a growing body of literatures fundamentally concerned with the analysis of the travails and compounded issues relating to public relations, work performance, work systems and their impact on company or enterprise performance. Recent studies had shown that the rigid and vertical integrated organizations of work are no long comfortable with the globalised and work competitive markets. This is because these markets now demanded competition on the basis of quality, innovation and customization, and therefore requires a more flexible and skilled work force.

Consequently, companies in the new emerging world are becoming progressively horizontally integrated with less hierarchical levels and more connected between different tasks and functions. The structural organizations of the work place were essentially tailored towards achieving improvement of employment performance and enhancement of public relations at the work place. Firms that currently adopt the new trends, that is, the innovation work systems are classified as high performance work organizations. Invariably, such enterprises are characterized
by a shift from fixed system of production to a flexible process of organizational development, strategically streamlined along the pattern of a more productive, participative and learning organization of work. Basically, firms that wish to excel in the achievement of its company objectives essentially need to maintain cordial industrial relationship in their workplace.

David (1993) supported this view, while he pointed out that “when the industrial relationship between the management and the employee is cordial, the organizations will be unquestionably be able to achieve its objectives through collective and concerned efforts of motivated employees. When employees have negative feelings on the Job, productivity is at stake. That is, it becomes very evident that if an enterprise desire getting the best of the workers and the productivity, then the focus should be on the work environment.

In this regard, managers of firms should be more concerned about the work place environment, and that certain fundamental needs must be satisfied for workers to function at their best. The very central focus of this study is the industrial conflicts resolution as a fundamental variable in creating conducive work environment for achieving optimum productivity in an enterprise.

**Industrial Relations and Conflict Resolution**
The industrial relationship between the management and employees in the workplace is very vital to the success of the organization. When employees work happily and without any grievance, productivity will be at its maximum because they are putting in their optimum efforts. Unfortunately Nigerian employers seem not to recognize this fact. The management of Nigerian enterprise both in public and private business does not realize the effect of trade unions and the implications of their bargaining power in resolving industrial disputes. Understanding of the concept of industrial relations is very vital in resolving disputes arising from work place of enterprises.

However the author is of the view that most executives or managers of Nigerian firms either lack the knowledge of the importance of industrial relations in creating industrial harmony, or they know, but refuse to apply them appropriately. Fashoyin (1990) indentified the importance of industrial relations as a means of determining the general conditions of service, discipline, maintain a stable work force, keeping the production high, adjusting to technological changes and providing welfare for workers”. In collaboration with Fashoyin, Hashion (1990) asserted that industrial relations are “the whole web of human interactions at work which is predicated upon and arises out of employment contract”.

Hence, industrial relations creates good relations and interactions between employers and employees and where there is good relationship between the parties, then industrial conflicts will be eliminated or reduced to a barest minimum. However, industrial conflicts arising between employers and employees are usually handled by representatives of the two parties, trade unions on the part of the employees and management team on the part of the employers. Trade unions are very central to industrial conflict resolutions, and their roles or responsibilities largely depend on several variables at play in this regard.
Brewster and Commock (1993) in their opinion summarized it that “trade union is a monopolistic combination of wage earners who as individual producers are complementary to one another but who stand to the employees in relation of dependence to strengthen their power to bargain with employer” In the same vain and very supportive of this concept of trade unionism,

Yesufu (1984) viewed trade union as “an association of employees for promotion and dependence of terms and conditions of employment of their members, including their standard of living”. Conclusively, it can be stated that trade unions represent the agitations and advocate on behalf of the employees, that is, they purposively regulates relationship between workers and management in an organization, and to impose restrictive conditions in the conduct of any business, and also to provide benefits to their members. Trade union’s responsibilities and actions in terms of industrial disputes and resolutions depend on fundamental factors very specific to the issues and circumstances upon which the issues arise.

Akpala (1984) pointed out the variability in their actions and responsibilities when he asserted that “the functions performed by trade unions depend on the union’s environment which may include economic, political and social system and the kind of social legislation applying in the area”.

Therefore achieving successful industrial conflict resolutions using good industrial relations is very sensitive, strategic and relative to the environment, that is, the workplace variables. In this regard, both the trade union and management team involve in industrial conflict resolution need to be very conscious and also appreciate these facts.

Cause and Effect of Industrial Conflicts
For better understanding and comprehension of industrial conflicts such as strikes and lock-outs, the fundamental knowledge of the nature of the economy is very necessary to provide relevant background information relating to the issues for discussion. The phenomena commonly associated with industrial establishments are that a sizeable proportion of workers in African countries like Nigeria depend on wages for survival. And more so, the production of goods and services may be on private ownership basis or government participatory basis or the combination of both.

This basic economic concept of conducting business activities, impact seriously on the cause and effect of industrial conflicts. The author is of the opinion that economic reasons are very fundamental in industrial conflicts especially when viewed from the perspective of the goals of the parties to the conflicts. Amayak (1991) contribution was very emphatically in this dimension by viewing industrial conflict as social trends from the perspective of goals of parties involve. He said “it is in other words, conflict of goals of the individuals, groups of individuals or organization that make up the universe”.

Naturally and consistently, the goals of workers and the goals of management conflicts usually and in most cases. It should be noted that the causes of conflicts in an enterprise are numerous, some of which are peculiar to respective firms and some located outside the firm. This means
that sources of industrial conflicts are either internal to the firm or external to it, both often influencing one another. Studies had shown that some of the external causes of conflict might not directly instigate industrial conflict but however may influence general expectations, and substantially determine the nature of workers demands, having a bearing on the intensity of conflicts.

Two issues call for emphasis and discussion in terms of source of conflicts in managing enterprise. Firstly, is the issue of worker’s lack of direct control over the future of his job, that is, the desire to establish a right to the job is always a potential source of conflict? And secondly the issue relating to the actual exercise of managerial control generates resistance even from workers who do not ordinarily question its legitimacy. And therefore the exercise of managerial power is a perpetual cause of industrial conflicts.

Industrial disputes in Nigeria sometimes last for a year or more, and on the average trade unions go on strike three times or more in a year. The author viewed the attitudes of governments and their agents in conflict resolution as sabotaging the growth and development of Nigeria in all sectors of the economy. It has been observed that those in governments and their agents are not conscious of the consequence of their actions in relation to the economic development of Nigeria. Sometimes those in governments rather than honoring the agreements reached with trade unions choose the path of blackmailing them, to attract sympathy and support from people.

The implications and effects of consistent strikes by trade unions in Nigeria are immeasurable and very detrimental to the growth and development of all sectors of Nigeria economy. Owoye(1993) in the result of his study states that “the prolonged strike durations would cause aggregate savings and investments to decline, thus hindering capital accumulation and economic development. He went further to emphasise that “one can safely conclude that industrial disputes in Nigeria have negative effects on capital formation and export–oriented growth.

**Industrial Conflicts Resolution**

Whatever may be the causes, whatever the form and whichever of the industrial relations actors, a complete relation system is desired for an organization to function effectively. Issues and conflicts of interests need to be resolved for all parties to have common understanding and agree to work together harmoniously. Conflicts and problems arise in organization form various dimensions, and from any stakeholder or parties.

Martins (2000) pointed out that “many problems face modern organizations, among such are scientific, technical and financial problems”. None of these problems is more challenging than the complex task of understanding people and relating to them in ways that lead to the successful achievement of organizational goals.

It should be noted that employees and other stakeholders in an organization have diverse background, experience, needs and personality. Hence, a manager needs a sound knowledge of human nature to be able to function well in most modern day complex organizations. However, employees actions are very central and fundamental in conflict resolution and their behavior,
attitude, needs, desires and wants must be carefully studied for critical analysis in taking any
decision relating to resolution of industrial conflicts.
Otobo (2000) mentioned this fact when he said that “the employee is a key-point in the industrial
relations system because it is he who initiates the productive capability of the organization. And
he went further to state that employee’s efficiency would improve significantly if employees are
motivated. From the above assertion, it clearly indicates that employee’s motivation is at the
heart of industrial conflict resolution. That is, to reduce industrial conflicts or resolve them,
employee’s interest should be protected while their needs, Wants, drives and grievances must be
addressed accordingly and reasonably.

Most importantly, issues arising from conflicts need to be analysed critically and holistically
from both individual and group perspectives which entails the individual aspect (needs, drives
and goals), and the Job aspect (the work itself and the rewards). The holistic view and
appreciation of the issues in conflicts, need critical analysis, essentially base on the fact that
people either as individual or group differs greatly. Such pronounced differences in intelligence,
skill, interest, personnel traits, motivation and several other attributes tend to influence their
actions, and therefore play fundamental role in trying to resolve conflicting issues. Collective
bargaining as an instrument for industrial conflict resolution cannot be overemphasized, for it
plays strategic role in restoring peace to organizations especially in strikes and lockouts.

Collective bargaining provides room for trashing out critical conflicting issues through serious
negotiation between conflicting parties in trade disputes. It requires negotiation and trading off
critical issues at stake between the parties in conflict which may lead to agreement or not after
serious suggestions and agreements by both parties. David (1993) expressed his view on
collective bargaining and its impact on conflict resolution by saying that collective bargaining is
“that method of determining working conditions and terms of employment through negotiation
between an employers, a group of employers or one or more representative of workers
organization with a view of reaching an agreement.” Analyzing David’s contribution in this
regard we can appreciate collective bargaining as a relevant instrument in regulating managerial
relations and also enhancing peaceful and effective industrial relations.

Ubeku (1975)’s contribution in this regard was specific on what the parties to collective
bargaining should do in resolving industrial disputes. He said “ideally parties to collective
bargaining come to negotiation table with open mind, ready to listen to the suggestions and
agreements of other parties’. They are not supposed to have adamant position but to shift their
stand whenever convincing arguments are adduced by the opposite side”. But this is far from
practice in Nigeria especially looking at the various trade disputes in recent time where Federal
government and state governments, and even the trade unions negotiate not with open mind and
very adamant, and sometimes arrogant and dishonest.

The current trends in industrial disputes and the techniques in resolving the conflicts in Nigeria
indicate our underdevelopment, characterized by frauds and deceptions. The deceptive and
fraudulent behaviours in negotiation and resolution of industrial conflicts in Nigeria is largely
displayed by the governments and its representatives to conflict resolutions, and with non-
challant attitudes they disobey rules, regulations and laws even after signing agreements with
trade unions. These trends are not uncommon today in Nigeria where government at state or federal level will deliberately refused to honor agreements signed with labour unions. The recent prolonged strike by Academic staff union of universities, Academic staff union of polytechnics, Nigeria medical Association, Nigeria union of teachers and to mentioned but few is very fresh in our memory. The situation is very alarming and shameful on the part of governments, while people are forced to ask questions as to whose interest are the governments and their agents protecting.

**Conclusion**

Fundamentally, it is common understanding in academic parlance that organization or states that adopt and apply the innovation work systems are indentified as high performance work organization or state. In this regard such enterprises shift from fixed system of production to much more flexible process which involves the maintenance of cordial industrial relations in the work place of the firms. Essentially, harmonious relationship between workers and management increase organizational productivity, for it builds confidence on the workers, and hence influence the employees to display their skills and talents at work place. Where there is industrial harmony between workers and management, the organization or the state’s operations are not disturb or jeopardized in any way.

To achieve industrial harmony, management of organization need to create conducive work place environment by building confidence on the workers and showing honesty in their agreements and honoring them appropriately. Good industrial relations desire exhibition of good attitudes on the part of the governments or organizations in terms of motivation, prompt payment of workers and adequately appreciating and honoring all agreements reached and signed by parties to industrial disputes. It had been indentified that industrial conflicts resulting to strikes in Nigeria can be avoided through responsive and reasonable collective bargaining. Also flagrant disobey and disrespect of the rules, regulations and laws by parties to industrial conflicts in Nigerian had been observed to be a serious impediment to industrial harmony.

However, Nigerian government and it agents in industrial conflicts resolution have caused more harm than solving the disputes. The effect of industrial disputes in Nigerian is generally agreed to be negative to Nigerian economic development, while several studies had shown that it has direct negative impact on the growth of aggregate savings and investments. The impact is very much pronounced on its hindrance to capital accumulation and economic development.

**Reference**

Akpala, A. (1989) industrial relations model for developing countries. Nigeria, fourth dimension publishing company limited.


Martins, f. (2001) management and motivation


Yesufu, T.M. (1982 & 1984) the dynamic of industrial relations Ibadan, the Nigeria experience, university press limited.

NEW TECHNIQUES IN PUBLIC RELATIONS PLANNING IN AN ORGANIZATION

BY

OCHEJA JOHN SALIFU
Department Of Mass Communication,
Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna

Abstract
This paper starts by explaining that “planning is a process for accomplishing purpose” and goes further to state other factors that make planning unavoidable. The paper lists types of planning; their importance and place in public relations. A specimen budget is also given to emphasise how planning is done today. The paper concludes by commending Public Relations practitioners whom it called “great planners” because they give attention to planning and also makes a case for visibility of Chief Executives of Organisations.

Introduction
Permit me to start by saying that planning is a process for accomplishing purposes; it is a blueprint of business growth and a road map of development. It helps in deciding objectives both in quantitative and qualitative terms. It can be safely said that almost all human activities today are preceded by a plan. A plan helps the person or persons undertaking an activity or activities to establish the goals to be achieved. Similarly, a plan highlights the problems which may be encountered in the execution of the activities. Involving employees in the planning process helps them to understand the goals of the organization, what needs to be done, and how well it should be done. Because of the nature of Public Relations (PR), planning just has to be an integral part of the profession.

As it is now common knowledge among us Nigerians, Public Relations is a management function. Obe and Adebayo (2010), quoting the American Public Relations Association say that Public relations the management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an organization with the public interest, and executes a programme of action to earn public understanding and acceptance.

Public Relations has many definitions, and one of definition states that its activities are planned and deliberate. Other standard definitions are as follows:
- The 1978 Mexican statement: public relations is the art and science of analyzing trends, predicting their consequences, counseling organization leaders and implementing planned programmes of actions which will serve both the organization and the public interest.
- British institute of Public Relations definition: PR is the deliberate, planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain mutual understanding and goodwill between and organization and its publics.
- American PR Association’s definition: PR is the management function which evaluate public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an organization with public interest and executes planned programme of action to earn public understanding and acceptance.
- International Public Relations Association’s definition: PR is a management function of continuing and planned character through which public and private organizations and
institutions seek to win and retain the understanding, sympathy and support of those with whom they are or may be concerned by evaluating public opinion about themselves in order to correlate as far as possible their own policies and procedures to achieve by planned and widespread information more efficient fulfillment of their common interests.

- Nigerian Institute of Public Relations definition tallies with that of the British.

There are many more but the ones listed above are the most widely acceptable definitions of Public Relations.

Because PR activities are carried out “to earn public understanding and acceptance”, the question of IMAGE and/or REPUTATION come in. Planning too is a management function. In fact, according to Nwachukwu (1998), it is the first function of management and permeate all the other management functions. Planning in organization is both the organizational process of creating and maintaining a plan as well as the psychological process of thinking about the activities required to create a desired goal on documents, diagrams, or meetings to discuss the important issues to be addressed, the objectives to be met, and the strategy to be followed. A plan should be a realistic view of the expectations. A plan can be long, intermediate or short range. For management that is looking for external support, plan is the most important document and key to growth. However, preparation of a comprehensive plan can not guarantee success but lack of a sound plan may ensure failure.

**Types of Plans for Planning**
- Architectural planning
- Business plan
- Comprehensive planning
- Contingency planning
- Economic planning
- Event planning
- Family planning
- Financial planning
- Land use planning
- Marketing plan
- Strategic planning
- Succession planning, etc.

**Importance of Planning**
Planning is done main to prepare for and to predict future events. It goes beyond attempting to attain stated organizational objectives. It involves the development of strategies and procedures required for effective realization of the entire plan or goal. Planning should be seen as a concept that entails determination of control, direction and methods of accomplishing the overall organizational objectives. In other words, it involves the establishment of objectives, strategies to achieve the objectives and step by step determination of the activities and resources necessary to achieve them. NIPR Kaduna has a tradition of planning each year and in some cases each tenure of official at the beginning of the year.

Planning is particularly very important in a developing country where resources are relatively scarce. In Nigeria where many business men are inexperienced and their academic preparation is by no means impressive, planning to avoid waste of money and other resources is very compelling.
The importance of planning is so well recognized by the Nigerian government that it engages in National Development Plans. Planning therefore is a blueprint for action

**Place of Planning in Public Relations**
Planning occupies a very high position in Public Relations. It comes next after conceptualization. That is, once an idea is conceived (through of), the next stage is planning.

In public relations, we have a simple acronym, RACE, which guides all activities of public relations.

**RACE means:**
R - Research
A - Action
C - Communication
E - Evaluation

Under R, the PR practitioner conceives the idea (of any programme or activity), plans and undertakes a literature search, including oral interviews, etc. before launching into A which is action. Action and communication have a fine dividing line. That means, the PR practitioner can be taking Action and Communicating with his/her target audience about the going-on.

At all the stages or processes, objective(s) goal(s) must be in focus. If goals are not achieved, the PR programme has failed. It is possible for a programme to be high-jack. We are all familiar with conceived peaceful demonstrations that turned violent with attendant killing and looting.

Furthermore, an exhibition that is planned to bring in sales revenue can end in sight-seeing only. If this happens, the goal will not be achieved. When a PR programme fails, the practitioner must identify the cause of the failure so as to avoid future occurrence. And when programmes succeed, celebrations should follow-giving honour to whom honor is due.

**Plan is Public Relations**
Professionally, when a PR practitioner speaks of Plans, he/she means the three major types of plans used by PR practitioners. These are: Budgets, Campaigns and Standing Plans.

a. **Budgets:** They are probably the most common type of plans in any organization. Generally, they are short range plans designed to project costs through the duration of programme or other period of time. Campaign or project budgets are components of plans to accomplish specific PR activities. They provide structure and discipline in terms of time and money costs. Budgeting for specific activities is a rather straight forward process. PR manager budget, using a simple, three step model. First, required resources such as people, time, material and equipment must be listed. Next, the extent to which these resources will be used is estimated. Finally, the costs of the resources are determined. Projects are campaign budget are the building blocks for annual PR departmental budgets as well as the basis of bids submitted by independent PR
counselors. Budgets are instruments in the competition for organizational resources. This is because annual budgets represent the live wire of each sub unit of an organization

### SPECIMEN BUDGET

**PROPOSED EXPENSES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hiring venue</td>
<td>₦5,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing of 500 copies of invitation card</td>
<td>₦5,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing of programmes (500 copies)</td>
<td>₦2,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production of banners background and site or venue banner (5 yards each = 10 yards)</td>
<td>₦6,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press advertisement and electronic media advertisement</td>
<td>₦30,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coverage, still picture and video lecture, speeches and photocopies (10 copies)</td>
<td>₦10,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ushers dress (buying and sewing for six ushers)</td>
<td>₦5,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police/army band</td>
<td>₦4,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosette (100 copies)</td>
<td>₦3,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous (Certificates of attendance)</td>
<td>₦50,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public address system</td>
<td>₦10,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total estimate</strong></td>
<td><strong>₦132,500.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. **Campaigns**: These are frequent output of PR planning. Because campaigns are usually designed to accomplish unique objectives, they must be planned, using non routine procedures and un-programmable decisions. PR practitioner should allow outcomes to freely surface. No “doctoring” or manipulations. Here are some generally acceptable guidelines for writing the campaign planning document:

Problem Statement: This statement reflect the research that has been done to narrow the task to a manageable size. It should define the scope of the effort and recognize and special requirements of the organization, target audiences and media.

Purpose Statement: This Statement should present a realistic view of what the campaign is designed to accomplish. Clear objectives should be developed that can be measured against results to determine the effectiveness of the effort.
Audience Analysis: Based on preliminary research, the planning document should describe the primary target audience; define audience life styles; and determine the relative strength of each possible appeal.

Action Recommended: The planning document should tell how the purpose will be accomplished for the audience that has been identified. It should discuss specific tactics and alternatives; define expected outcomes; and specify communication media, activities and channel to be used.

Time Frame: A schedule of activities should be developed.

Project costs: Plans cannot be evaluated unless they contain a realistic budget. Enough documentation should be included to demonstrate that the project expenses and fees (income or revenue) are realistic.

Evaluation Design: A method be set up in advance to determine the extent to which the objective of the campaign have been realized. All objectives should lend themselves to an evaluation process that will have credibility with decision makers.

c. **Standing Plan**: within all organization, certain programmable call for a standardized, consistent response. Standing plans provides routine responses to recurring situations. Once set, standing plans allow managers to make more efficient use of their planning time by not having to formulate a new plan for every similar situation. However, this should not be over used or abused or else the organization’s responsiveness to its environment may be limited. Types of standing Plans include Policies, Procedures and rules.

**Conclusion**
Lloyd and Lloyd (1980), summarize all that have been said in these words: Public Relations is today a function of top management. No programme can succeed without its support. Your PR programme may be ambitious or modest. The more time you spend on careful planning the more successful your programme is likely to be. Successful Public Relations practitioners are great planner. In every field of human endeavor, planning should be given top priority.

Another area that should be given top priority is the area of publicity. In fact the professional terminology for this type of publicity is visibility. Organizations ought to make themselves visible through publicizing themselves and their activities. All these have to be planned. NIPR, Kaduna State Chapter, is on the right track, as far as planning is concerned.
References
Agbonifoh, B. A; A.B.; & Iyayi, F. I; (2005); Management: A Nigerian Perspective: Lagos Malthouse Press Ltd

Akande F. A. (1999); In-Road into Public Relation: lagos; FEST Communication.


Buskin, O. W & Aronoff, C.E. (1988); Public Relations: The Profession & Practice; Iowa; Wm C Brown Publisher.

Jefkins, F. (1986); Planning Press and Public Relations; Glasgow: Blackie & Son Ltd.


Nkwocha, J. (1999) effective Media Relations; Issues and Strategies; Lagos: Zoom Lens Publisher.

Nwachukwu, C. C. (1988); Management: Theory and Practice: Onitsha: Africa FEP Publisher Ltd.

Nwosu, I.E. (1996); Personnel Management in Nigeria; Benin city; Ethiope Publishing Corporation


Okigbo, C. (n,d); Advertising & Public Relations; (n.d)


Ubeku, A. K. (1975); personnel management in Nigeria; Benin-City; Ethiope Publishing Corporation
CONTRAINTS TO THE GROWTH AND PERFORMANCE OF MICRO AND SMALL ENTERPRISES IN NIGERIA

By

MARGARET OZIGI – BUTE
Department of Social Science
College of Administrative Studies and Social Sciences
Kaduna Polytechnic, Nigeria

Abstract
Micro and small enterprises in Nigeria have not exhibited much growth as expected contributors to the economy and considering that they employ a vast majority of Nigeria. This paper examines the constraints to the growth of micro and small enterprises. Micro and small enterprises had been limited by constraints which border mainly on planning which in turn affect other areas. The paper makes recommendations as to the way out.

Introduction
Micro and small enterprises have been known to contribute to society in the area of job creation and employment, poverty reduction and revenue generation (Renecke and Simon, 2004). They are also known for creating new industries and attracting other industries. In the United States they create four times more innovation, invention and technology than other enterprises (Zimmer and Scarborough, 2006). Other contributions include advantage of superior customer service, low cost and market niche (Boone & Kurtz, 2005).

Gichira,( 2009) outlines other contributions of Micro and Small enterprises which include the increase in domestic savings and investment, providing goods and services, improving job quality and quality of life as well as sustainable economic growth and the ability to contribute to the gross domestic product of a society.

The Nigerian National Policy on Micro and Small enterprise identifies their significance for the growth, productivity and competitiveness of the Nigerian economy. In addition to providing employment and income, they are seen as source of new jobs, nurturing entrepreneurial and managerial competence and technological innovations.
In Nigeria however research indicates that these enterprises represent about 90% of the industrial sector, and account for 70% of industrial employment, they contributed a meagre percent of the Gross Domestic Product in the past years, and have had no significant impact on national development as experienced in many other countries (Chibundu, 2006). Though start ups are quite many, they are unable to meet and cope with the challenges experienced in their life cycle. Reasons for their failure are lacking of training, government rules and regulations, poor marketing strategy, lack of technical known how, availability and accessibility to credit and lack of business plan.

Micro and Small enterprises are defined based on size, nature of business, number of employees and various definitions are based on country definitions. In developed countries they are those with 0 – 50 workers but in developing countries consist of 1 – 5 employees (Gichira, 2009). In Nigeria, the National Policy on MSEs classifies MSEs by size, sector, organization, technology and location though criteria is used based on employment and assets and by this micro enterprises are those with less than 10 employees and assets less than N5 million, while small enterprises are those with 10 – 49 employees and between N5 million – N50 million worth of assets.

Nigerian (MSES) have problems of low market access, poor access to credit, poor information flow, discriminating legislation, poor access to land, weak operating capacities in terms of skills knowledge, attitude and also lack of infrastructure, poor capacity. A study shows that 6.49 million non agric micro entrepreneurs with employment of 8.99 million (National Policy on MSEs) and are engaged in white sale and retail trade 45% vehicle repair 3.2% transport 2.9%, hotels 2.6%, construction 1.8%, manufacturing 30%. Typically (MSES) are sole proprietor/managers with few incorporated, and initial funding is from individual sources, family members and few from other sources.

According to Mead and Liedhold (1998) the number of enterprises that grow into larger forms are not usually high and whereas start up rate is high, expansion and growth is not much. Within two years 24% die, 52% in four years, 62% in six years and 82% in ten years. Figures reveal that
up to 45% survive the first 5 years and 14.5% up to 10 years. However, many do not experience any form of growth.

**Enterprise Growth**

Growth begins to take place once businesses are established (Timmons and Spinelli, 2007). This makes a firm bigger and is supposed to lead to the advantages of size, income, strength and quality. Entrepreneurs need to understand that growth is a result of positively motivated intentions and actions and as they pass through different stages, there is need to plan for each of the stage. Growth stages could begin from research and development stage where an idea is conceived to start up stage, then rapid maturity and stability stage (Timmons and Spinelli 2007).

Accordingly to Timmons and Spinelli, growth brings about crisis and symptoms which can be dealt with.

- **Prestart up** – The focus here should be on building the company and there should be a team with the skill of making a business plan on time. It is important to have necessary management skills and experience especially in technical and finance. Opportunity here should focus on customer, the business should be market driven by a need, invention or desire to create and customers should be identified with specific names, addresses and phone numbers. At this stage it important to take advantage of suppliers and resources have to be identified here are

- **Start up and survival** - Where enterprises have to focus on opportunities as new entrants, increasing distribution channels.

- **Early growth** - Entrepreneurs manage for results and delegate and take advantage of market through planning, research and design, price and quality improvement, gross margins. Resources require good financial, control, accounting good cash flow.

- **Maturity** - Entrepreneurs focus on team work, though partnership goals may conflict, they have opportunity for new product introduction and resources could get out of control and cause a lag.
• **Harvest/stability years** - The entrepreneur needs a succession plan, goals may change and activities cash flow is solved using bank debt and leverage and for accounting, legal issues are used to tackle wealth building and estate/tax planning.

Badi and Badi (2008) identified stages of enterprises as start up, early growth, rapid growth maturity and stability. This is similar to life cycle of organizations which pass through early growth, rapid growth and expansion and maturity and decline. Growth affects the areas of marketing, operations, time and human resources. Areas where planning impacts on growth are as follows:-

**Planning**

The growth of an enterprise is not automatic but a result of positively motivated business intention and action that helps any enterprise maintain sustainable competitive advantage, thus planning plays a very crucial role in the growth of (MSES) else they remain stagnant or die (Kumar, 2010). “Planning is the process of anticipating future events and conditions and determining courses of action for achieving organizational objectives” (Boone and Kurtz, 2005).

This implies strategic positioning to manage the challenges of growth in a rapidly changing competitive environment. As each business emerges, so do other businesses in the immediate, domestic and international environment, planning will thus set such an enterprise ahead of others.

Political changes around the world reveal the need for planning as these affect businesses, the elections in Nigeria for instance is likely to bring in a government that has programmes in the upstream and downstream petroleum sector, thus enterprises need to strategize to take advantage, another, also the changes in the Arab world signify new opportunities or threats for enterprises for example it could mean that certain goods not allowed will now be allowed. It is important to take advantage of rapid technological advancement/expansion in innovations like Ipad and I-Phones, online presence to reach a wider market effectively, there are also challenges of newly emerging markets, turbulent and challenging business environment and a general shift in the world economy from emphasis on financial to intellectual capital consisting of talents skills and
abilities of companies workforce, structural capital which consist of accumulated knowledge and experience possessed by the company and customer capital which is action based, positive reputation.

According to (Zimmer and Scarborough, 2006) planning begins with vision, thus to prepare for growth entrepreneurs need to look beyond the now to the future, this implies the development of a game plan that guides the company and keeps it from start up and well into the future. This gives an explanation of why the enterprise exists where it is headed and gives the enterprise a sense of purpose and values to unite the employees which would set everyone in the same direction to achieve the goals and objectives of the enterprise. Vision gives a perception of the needs of the market place and methods to satisfy them and serves as target for a firm’s actions and though focused must be flexible (Boone and Kurtz, 2005).

Enterprises need to set goals which are broad long term objectives that they wish to attain and these need to be agreed on through team work and based on mission statement, which guide actions of employees and informs (explains) to customers and helps other stakeholders (shareholders, supplier and general public) understand the aims of the enterprise.

The planning process starts with defining the vision and mission setting organizational goals, developing strategies to reach their goals, determining resources needed, and setting standard (Nickels, McHugh, and McHugh, 1996) evaluating results and reforms and answers the major questions of what is the situation now? What is the state of the economy? What opportunities exist for meeting people’s needs? What products are more profitable? Why do people buy? Who are the major competition? Others are where do we want to go? How much growth do we want? How can we get there? i.e assessing the organizations competitive position and as such planning takes place at different levels.

As enterprises grow, different types of planning are required at different levels. Long term planning which is strategic is the prerogative of the entrepreneur while other types of planning are also required as technical planning which may be quarterly, operational planning which may
be daily, weekly procedures for departments and contingency planning that are ongoing for actions.

Planning is necessary and important to ensure enterprise coordination of efforts within and among the various departments. As they begin to grow and the need for departmentalization arises for example a small school may not need departments at start up but as it grows, departments need to be established and coordination between each of the departments becomes necessary.

Planning gives enterprises ability to prepare for change and to assess their competitive position relative to others and to the opportunities available. The development of performance standard also helps organizations define behaviours and standards expected. It also helps to prevent surprises in the future and prepares the enterprise for succession.

Good planning provides opportunity to increase revenue, reach global markets, provide twenty four hour service, enhance customer service, lower the cost of doing business and provides ability to support new business opportunities and capitalize on them.

**Areas Where Planning is Required**

**Marketing** - This entails carrying out market research to collect data in order to determine consumer needs and opportunities and researching whether such needs can be met by the company as well as determining the target market and producing product at affordable or right price. Marketing strategy also takes the marketing environment into question and this includes communication to increase awareness of product, advertising, promotion i.e marketing mix. A marketing team may need to be put in place for this to ensure repeat customers resources so that while some concentrate on existing and new customers, others diversify into franchising.

**Management of resources** - Enterprises need to have plan and strategizing for the management of resources which must take advantage of technology e.g internet marketing. First is human resource management whose function is of attracting, developing and human capital (Boone and Kurtz, 2005) it recruitment and selection process is properly planned it ensures that qualified
candidates are hired internally and externally and once hired, staff pass through orientation, training programmes and enculturalization. However for each enterprise to motivate staff it must be ready to downsize and outsource. These enterprises must plan training after training needs assessment to help the enterprise minimize costs on staff as they work on the improvement of knowledge skills and attitude of staff. They should plan for interventions where there are gaps which must be in line with the vision and mission of the enterprise.

**Financial planning** is very crucial to the survival and growth of (MSEs). It is important to provide a plan for staffing, sources of funding, equity or debt, cash flow. Book keeping is very important for control, developing budgeting and allocation of funds to finance projects ensure reinvestments, finance assets, banking, balance sheets, income statements, turn over ratios all important aspects of financial planning, repayment strategy for loans, purchase raw materials among many functions. Sometimes there is need to sell assets, renegotiate debts, join cooperatives.

**Information** is a resource and needs to be properly managed. Information is required for decision making, communication of information, assessing external information as it affects the enterprise. Data base planning and management of raw facts and figures as well as management information system needs to be used to organize a way for providing past, present and projected information on internal operation and external intelligence to support decisions (Boone and Kurtz, 2005). With information technology, enterprises could plan e-commerce, process information. At the same time new threats are emerging which they must be aware of in order to plan ahead.

**The Nigerian Experience**

**Changing entrepreneurial roles** - Decision making and leadership roles have no clear cut lines, the entrepreneurs impose decisions, owners managers do not delegate and this wears out the owner manager. The subordinates are not carried along and may not know what decisions affect the enterprise and how the decisions affect the enterprise and the employees themselves. Other (MSE) owners spoken with, have not at any time made serious attempts to learn capabilities that would help them improve their enterprises e.g. those in the tailoring sector and schools business haven’t made attempt to develop marketing skills, product development and
unlike the practice in the developed countries are not outsourcing or bringing experts in those areas into their business.

Financial planning is lacking because of the incompetence in the area of finance especially in managing loans, book keeping and budgeting for which many owner managers do not see any need. To avoid spending money hiring and paying staff Nigerian MSEs usually make use of already existing staff to manage their finance which may not augur well for the enterprise. In addition not much succession planning takes place and so MSEs die after the exit of the owner/founder (Aworemi, 2010). For those (MSES) that have experienced rapid growth especially those in the food sector e.g. food planet, they appear to be coping but need to strategize in order to capture the market so as to maintain a competitive edge.

**Constraints to MSE Growth in Nigeria**

Micro and small enterprises have the following constraints to their growth in Nigeria even though there is a national policy on micro and small enterprises.

The first is implementation of the MSE policy. Inspite of the recognition by the policy of MSES they still have challenges of registration, licensing, high taxation and many times policies change for example community banks are scrapped and micro finance banks now require some form of collateral to give loans.

**Finance is a major problem.** Many started with an initial capital from personal savings but have no access to expansion funds. Added to this is collateral requirements with high interest rate and inexperience for which business development services must be more effective.

Additionally is that the physical infrastructures of roads, transportation, power supply is insufficient. Power supply necessitates the need for generator which negates profitability.
Access to information is another constraint. While other nations rely on management information system, not many of such firms have access to facilities required. This is still linked to infrastructure as cost of accessing such information is high. Not many can access the interest.

The institutions established by government e.g SMEDAN, Bank of Industry, Microfinance banks are really not reaching so many of the (MSES), those interviewed have no contact whatsoever and have no idea as to how to benefit from these government institutions.

Training for staff employees and owners are just not adequate. Many of such trainings are expensive and (MSE) owners and employees do not understand the benefits. Many MSEs have no succession plan which means that as owners age or pass on the same happens to their business.

Recommendations
There is need for deliberate effort on the part of government to bring the (MSES) together to collaborate. Through this they can cushion costs of training as they work in groups. Such groups would make information easy and accessible and workshops can be easily organized for them.

In Nigeria financing through debentures, equity financing and angel investors need to be encouraged to help MSEs in the area of finance. Monitoring and Evaluation is necessary to assess progress made by (MSES) and observe areas of improvement on a continuous basis. This would help them know if they meet performance standard.

In summary (MSES) in Nigeria require the following to experience continual growth expansion and stability. Among these are improvements in capability for strategic management, access to new market, access to new technology and processes, access to additional credit and finance, ability to operate in broader business environment, Developing entrepreneurial and managerial capabilities to manage transactions which involves more functional specialization, decentralization and more delegation (Gichira 2009) Above all they need development of capabilities for human relations and labour management to retain the right staff.
References


National Policy on Micro Small and medium Enterprises, Smedan /UNDP


