UNIQUE JOURNAL OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES (UJHSS) UNIVERSITY OF PORT HARCOURT, PORT HARCOURT, NIGERIA VOLUME 1 NUMBER 2

ISSN: 2992-5304 (PRINT)

E-ISSN:

Telephone: +234-9094503574, +234-8033103959, +234-8033301011.

Copyright: 2023@UJHSS

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or be transmitted in any form or by any means, mechanical, electrical photocopying, recording or any other means or device without the prior written consent of the Editor-in-chief.

Editor-in-Chief

Professor Kinikanwo A. Anele

Deputy Editor

Professor Onyemaechi Udumukwu

Associate Editors

Professor Ikenna Kamalu

Dr Timothy Nte

Dr Olanrewaju Lawal

Call for Papers

The *Unique Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences* (UJHSS) hereby invites suitable research papers from interested authors for its maiden edition and subsequent editions. The journal is published in both print and online versions. A processing fee of N30,000 is charged for each submission after successful peer review process. All papers submissions and relevant enquiries should be sent to: ujhss@uniport.edu.ng.

Aim and Scope

The *Unique Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences* (UJHSS) is quarterly peer-reviewed journal of the Graduate School of the University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Nigeria. The journal publishes high quality articles in every area in the Humanities and Social Sciences. Submissions that adopt interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches to issues are welcome. UJHSS is interested in the exploration of how theoretical insights from disciplines in the Humanities and Social Sciences such as English, literature, linguistics, history, fine arts, music, philosophy, theatre arts, cultural studies, religion, economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, geography, psychology and many others interface in the task of trying to find a common solution to some of the challenges facing our contemporary world.

The journal is conceived to provide a platform for upcoming as well as established scholars in the Humanities, Social Sciences and allied disciplines to develop critical skills in research and publication. It is expected that the journal will make successful contributors and their works visible to the global audience.

Publication Fee

Nigeria: Authors are required to pay a non-refundable Article Processing Charge (APC) of N10, 000. As soon as the manuscript is accepted for publication, authors are thereafter expected to pay a publication fee of N20, 000.

Foreign: Authors are required to pay a non-refundable Article Processing Charge (APC) of \$30. As soon as the manuscript is accepted for publication, authors are thereafter expected to pay a publication fee of \$70.

All payments should be made to:

Account Name: Anti-Plagiarism Account Number: 1100236423 Bank: U & C Micro-Finance

Author's Guidelines

Interested contributors to the journal are expected to note the following:

- 1. Abstract should not exceed 200 words
- Manuscript must be computer-typed, double line spaced, font 12, Times New Roman and must not exceed 6000 words
- 3. All manuscripts must be submitted electronically via the email address provided and accompanied by:
 - a. Author's full name and affiliation
 - b. A maximum of five key words
 - c. A statement of confirmation that the paper is the original work of the author and has not been submitted elsewhere
 - d. Reference should be in the American Psychology Association (APA) style 7^{th} edition or the 8^{th} edition of MLA (for those in literature).
 - e. A reference list of all the works cited in the work. Works not cited in the article should not be referenced

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Audience Perception of Channels Television's *Business Morning* Programme on Investor Relations in Select cities in Nigeria.

Edache-Ochekwu, E. Ojochide; Udoudo, A. Jackson; and Nwachukwu, F. Ginikanwa

2. Kidnapping and Socio-Economic Development in Nigeria.

Anyanwu, U. Samuel; Emmanuel, I. Wonah; and Osaro Obari

3. The Liberalisation of Nigeria's Democracy

Grant C. Amadi and Amadi, O. S.

 Ascertain the Adaptation and Coping Strategies of Residents to Flood Risk in the Study Locations.

Okachi T. E., A. A Obafemi and O. S Eludoyin

5. Nigerian government policies and strategic response to Boko Haram (2013-2022). Nei, Gift Mba; Emmanuel Wonah, and Kialee Nyiayaana

6. Exploring Contagion Hotspots and Coldspots For Epidemic Risk Management in Port Harcourt.

Okagbare, Ufuoma Violet

 Exploring the Connection between Spatial Morphological Metrics, Population Density, Connectivity and Building Volumes in Epidemic Management in Port Harcourt.
 Okagbare, Ufuoma Violet

8. Attributes of Peri Urban Areas Within Capital Cities of South-South States in Nigeria. Ekpo, S. T. and Eludoyin, O. S.

 Spatio-Temporal Accessibility to Public Primary Healthcare Centers in Kaduna State, Nigeria.

Averik, P. D., Obafemi A. A. and Emenike G. C.

10. Dualism in Bantu Philosophy: Affirming a Connection between Causation in African Thought and Causation in Law.

John Justice N. and Ajah, N. G.

11. Metaphysical Dualism as a Philosophical Concept in Peter Alawa's Dumebenata: An Exposé.

Ohaleta A. Celestine and John O. Obineche

12. Accessibility of Support Facilities and Welfare Index across of IDPs Camp Sites Across Northeast Nigeria.

Ogini, Omarite Rita.

Spatial Pattern of IDPs Camp Site across North-east Nigeria.
 Ogini, Omarite Rita.

14. The Promotion of African Cultural Heritage: An Example Of *Goge Africa* Youtube Videos

Quinette N. Madumelu; Walter C. Ihejirika and Obiageli P. Ohiagu

15. Extrajudicial Killings by Government and Anonymous Entities and Violation of Human Rights in Port Harcourt Metropolis.

Obah, Patience and Durueke, Oyinyechukwu

16. Environmental Management Systems Compliance by Oil and Gas Companies in South-South Nigeria: Host Communities Perspective

Warmate T. Onengiyeofori1, Arokoyu S. Bankole1 and Elenwo E. Ikechukwu1

17. Impact of Environmental Management Systems (EMSs) on Oil and Gas Corporations Performance and Environmental Governance in South-South Nigeria.

Warmate T. Onengiyeofori, Arokoyu S. Bankole and Elenwo E. Ikechukwu

- 18. Security management and violent crime in riverine communities of Akwa Ibom State Victor E. Abang; Kinikanwo A. Anele, and O. P. Abu
- 19. Notable Individuals and Events in Ilorin Fawehinmi Hadeezat Omotayo
- 20. SDGs Implementation and UN's Communication Strategy: Implication for Infrastructural Projects in the Niger Delta, Nigeria

Enoc - Ahiamadu, Richman Kasiobu; Omego, C. and Ochonogor, C.

21. United Nationscommunication Strategy And Implementation Of The Sustainable Development Goals In The Niger Delta, Nigeria

Enoc - Ahiamadu, Richman Kasiobu and Omego C. and Ochonogor, C.

Audience Perception of Channels Television's *Business Morning* Programme on Investor Relations in Select cities in Nigeria.

Edache-Ochekwu, Elizabeth Ojochide
Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies
University of Port Harcourt
E-mail: elizabeth.omale@yahoo.co.uk
08103875305
(Corresponding Author)

Udoudo, Aniefiok Jackson
Department of Journalism and Media Studies
University of Port Harcourt

Nwachukwu, Faustinus Ginikanwa Department of Public Relations and Advertising University of Port Harcourt

ABSTRACT

This study examined audience perception of Channels Television's Business Morning programme on investor relations in three select cities; Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt. The study sought to amongst others: find out the extent of exposure of the audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt to Channels Television's Business Morning programme; investigate the perception of the audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt of Channels Television's Business Morning programme and compare the extent of investment decisions in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt as a result of exposure to Channels Television's Business Morning. Three hypotheses were tested. The study was anchored on the perception, agenda setting, and stakeholder theories. The survey research design was adopted for the study with a population of 5,307,391 and 384 as sample size using Keyton table. Among others, the study found out that there were varying perceptions held by the audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt of Channels Television's Business Morning as a valid and objective source of business news and investment information. It was also found out that the extent of investment decisions as a result of exposure to Channels Television's Business Morning programme was highest in Lagos, followed by Abuja and Port Harcourt. The researcher among others recommended that corporate organisations leverage on financial media programmes such as Business Morning, to enhance their engagement with shareholders and potential investors and ultimately lead to the establishment of a robust investor relationship.

Keywords: Audience, Perception, Investor relations.

Introduction

Investors play a significant role in the success and expansion of corporate organisations. Without investors, many businesses would cease to exist rather than grow. Due to the importance of investors to their corporate existence, many corporate organisations in Nigeria today, particularly those in the financial sector, such as banking and insurance, have functional investor relations departments in place to ensure a positive relationship with their current and potential investing public. Today, investors have a plethora of choices to get information. The media, (television, the radio and the internet) have made the search for information easier and more frequent, as new

digital technology has made it easier to disseminate information. The rise in financial media and business programmes can be traced to the Federal Government quest for financial inclusion of the population to enable financial capabilities, boost organisational growth and improve the economy. The National Financial Literacy Framework 2015 formulated by the Central Bank of Nigeria, specifically enjoins the media as stakeholders in national development to produce programmes that would bring about financial education.

The CBN (2015) defines the framework as a process by which consumers and investors improve their understanding of financial products, concepts and risks. The framework considers the media as important stakeholders to build the economy through financial programmes to educate the citizenry and encourage their participation in financial products and investments in the capital markets. Business and financial programmes are media's response to satisfy and add value to the needs of audience on information as it relates to financial and business activities of corporate organisation. Through these programme, the audience are exposed to information on the activities of corporate organisations and their performance at the stock market. Examples of such programmes are *Business Morning* on Channels Television, *Business Express* on the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA) and *Money Talk* on Africa Independent Television (AIT) amongst others.

Channels Television's *Business Morning* is one of such financial programmes. *Business Morning* is a programme which delivers daily business information and analysis of the capital market to keep audience informed about the activities of corporate organisations in the world of business, and also to help the audience make sense of financial data and figures, to guide their investment decisions (Channels TV, 2023). Udoudo (2013) avers that mass media audiences are heterogeneous; they are made of diverse individuals across various classes and ethnic divides. He notes that this class could be ethnic, religious, cultural, educational or professional. This diversity implies that people from these diverse classes could behave in different ways and react to media content differently. Thus, it is possible that audience of Channels' *Business Morning* programme

in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt may perceive the various contents and the programme differently.

Audience perception of financial programmes has not received adequate attention in the existing literature. While there is a wealth of research on financial media and investor behaviour, there is a noticeable gap in understanding how audience perceive and respond to financial programmes, particularly within the context of television broadcasts. It is important to know the audience perception; as such perception can affect their acceptance of the advocacy to improve financial knowledge and investment decision.

Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of the study is to examine the audience perception of Channels' *Business Morning* on investor relation in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt. The objectives of the study are to:

- find out the extent of exposure of the audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt to Channels Television's Business Morning programme;
- Investigate the perception of audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt of Channels Television's
 Business Morning;
- comparatively, establish the extent of investment decision in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt as
 a result of exposure to Channels' Business Morning;

Research Questions

- 1. To what extent are the audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt exposed to Channels Television's *Business Morning*?
- 2. What is the perception of television audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt about Channel's *Business Morning* programme?
- 3. To what extent are investment decisions in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt as a result of the exposure of the audience to Channels Television's *Business Morning*?

Theoretical Framework

Perception Theory

Various scholars have interpreted perception in diverse ways. According to Perreault and McCarthy (2005), perception refers to the way humans process and interpret information they gather from their environment. Humans are exposed to tons of information daily from the events in the world. How they process this information in such a way that it makes meaning is their perception. Feldman (1999) defines perception as the process through which our sense organs and brain classify, interpret, analyse, and integrate input. According to Nelson and Quick (2019), perception is the act of taking in information about another person. In light of this description, it's clear that forming an opinion about another person is highly dependent on the amount of information a person has at their disposal and their ability to interpret that information correctly. As a consequence of individual differences, the ability to evaluate and analyse information may vary. The perception theory is critical to this study considering the fact that members of the audience will react to Channels Business Morning in different ways. The reactions are guided by pre-existing attitudes, opinions, backgrounds, cultures experiences which shape their perception.

Agenda setting theory

The agenda-setting theory became pervasive following the coinage of the term by McCombs and Shaw in 1972. According to them, the media plays a potent role in defining public opinion by influencing what issues are considered important and deserving of attention (McCombs & Shaw, 1993; McQuail 1994). McCombs and Shaw (1972) conducted a study to ascertain the role of the media in the presidential campaign in Chapel Hill, North Carolina in 1968. They discovered that the issues that were regularly or repeatedly presented by the media were the same as the issues that voters considered as important. Thus they concluded that the media has a major role in influencing public opinion and swaying which issues are seen as salient. As to Folarin (1998) puts it, the implication of the agenda setting theory is that the media selects, arranges and presents what issues are considered as important in a society. Hence, by setting the agenda for business-related topics, Business Morning can shape the priorities of their audiences, directing their attention to

specific issues and encouraging them to adopt certain positions, thereby improving investor relations by promoting investment.

Influence of Business programmes on investor Decision-making

Financial markets are significantly shaped by how information is disseminated (Da, Engelberg & Gao 2011). Particularly, investor expectations and attitudes are shaped by financial news, market announcements, business news, or analyst forecasts, which are reflected in the erratic stock market movements (Tetlock, 2015). Investor relations and decision-making procedures can be significantly impacted by business programmes. Business programmes are essential for giving investors information, analysis, and financial education. In line with this, the National Investor Relations Institute (2019) reports that a high number of investors reported that the quality of an organisation's investor relations programme remains a major factor in their investment decision-making process. This shows that financial news plays an important role in shaping the attitudes of investors and the general public in making financial decisions.

As with other types of media, business media are present in our daily lives and have a wide range of effects (Yang, Xiu, Sun, & Ying 2022). Well-designed business programmes place a strong emphasis on accountability and reliable reporting systems. Investors need access to clear and accurate financial reporting, which includes financial statements, annual reports, and investor presentations. Business programmes contribute to the development of investor confidence and trust by providing thorough and trustworthy data. The ability to make informed investment decisions depend on this transparency. This is perhaps why Laskin (2009) aver that increasing the coverage of an organisations financial activity is an important function of investor relations practitioners, particularly because Business programmes give professionals the communication skills they need to interact with investors, answer to questions, and allay fears. By encouraging trust, understanding, and enduring relationships between businesses and investors, effective investor relations can have a favourable impact on decision-making.

Methodology

This study adopted the survey research design. This is because surveys are considered appropriate in conducting opinion based research which looks at the perception, attitude, beliefs and opinions of people on a particular subject. The study area covers Channels *Business Morning* audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt.

The sample size as recommended by Keyton's (2001) table was 384. This was increased to 414 to take care of attrition. The researchers used the probability proportional to size to administer to administer the sample size to each of the cities, while the purposive sampling method in administering the instrument to specific respondents in corporate and business outfits. The researchers ensured that only those who were exposed to Channels *Business Morning* programme were selected for the study.

The questionnaire was the instrument used for gathering data from the respondents in the study. The questionnaire comprised items based on a four point Likert –Scale. The items in the questionnaire were fashioned based on the research questions. A research instrument is considered reliable if consistently produces the same result to the problem. The test-retest method for reliability, using the correlation coefficient was employed to ascertain the reliability of the instruments used for this study.

Data were collected through copies of the questionnaire which were administered to respondents in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt with the help of research assistants. In this study, a total of 414 copies of the questionnaire were administered to the population. A total of 224 were administered in Lagos, out of which 207 were returned valid. For Abuja, 84 copies of the questionnaire were administered in the city. 80 were retrieved and considered valid for the analysis. A total of 106 copies of the questionnaire were administered in Port Harcourt, out of which 99 were properly responded to. In line with this, 386 copies of the returned questionnaire were used for analysis in this study.

Data Analysis

Table 4.1 Extent of Exposure of the Audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt to Channels Television's *Business Morning* Programme

Frequency	Lagos	Abuja	Port Harcourt	Total Percentage
Daily	57(28%)	24(30%)	18(18%) 99	25.6%
Weekly	86(41%)	28 (35%)	39(39%) 15	39.6%
Fortnightly	33(16%)	17(21%)	28(28%) 78	3 20.2%
Monthly	31(15%)	11(14%)	14(14%) 56	5 14.5%
Total	207	80	99 38	36 100

Information provided in Table 4.1 show that Lagos had the highest frequency of exposure to the programme with more respondents watching the programme daily and weekly, followed by Abuja and Port Harcourt.

Table 4.2 Viewership Pattern

Do you only view the programme when you stumble on it?

Item	Lagos	Abuja	Port Harcourt	Total	%
Yes	51(25%)	24(30%)	38(38%)	113	29.2%
No	156(75%)	56(70%)	61(62%)	273	70.7%
Total	207	80	99	386	100

Table 4.2 shows the viewership pattern on respondents in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt to Channels *Business Morning* Programme. The data show that majority of the respondents actively seek and watch the programme with Lagos having the highest percentage of respondents who actively seek out the programme

Table 4.3 Viewership Preference

Item	Lagos	Abuja	Port Harcourt	Total	%
Business news	22(11%)	13(16%)	16(16%)	51	13%
Interview segment	27(13%)	6(7%)	11(11%)	44	11%
Stock market analysis	52(25%)	27(34%)	28(28%)	107	28%
The entire broadcast	106(51%)	34(43%)	44 (44%)	184	48%
Total	207	80	99	386	100

Table 4.3 shows the viewership preference and engagement pattern of audience to *Business Morning* to which a significant proportion of respondents (48%) attest to viewing the entire broadcast of the programme. Among those who preferred to watch the entire broadcast, Lagos had the highest percentage.

Table 4.4: Perception of the Audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt of Channels Television's *Business Morning* programme.

Item	City	SA	A	SD	D	Total	WM S	Remarl
Business Morning is an important source of business news.	LAG	416	195	44	16	671	3.2	Accepte
	ABJ	136	90	22	5	253	3.1	Accepte
	PH	92	57	84	15	248	2.5	Accepte
My perception of <i>Business Morning</i> is that it provides unbiased, objective and in-depth analysis and insight on current business news.	LAG	372	183	58	24	637	3.0	Accepte
	ABJ	112	66	34	13	225	2.8	Accepte
	PH	52	60	78	27	217	2.1	Rejecte
I perceive the information on Business Morning as valid in relation to investment.	LAG	388	213	46	16	663	3.2	Accepte
	ABJ	104	63	40	13	220	2.7	Accepte
	PH	56	51	88	24	219	2.2	Rejecte
The interview with industry experts on the programme provides valuable insights.	LAG	392	186	56	19	653	3.1	Accepte
	ABJ	108	93	24	10	231	2.8	Accepte
	PH	88	72	74	16	250	2.5	Accepte
Business Morning programme is confusing and difficult to follow.	LAG	104	96	204	47	451	2.1	Rejecte
	ABJ	64	42	72	14	192	2.4	Rejecte
	PH	96	57	86	13	252	2.5	Accepte

I perceive <i>Business Morning</i> programme as uninteresting and irrelevant to your needs.	LAG	152	108	168	47	475	2.3	Rejected
	ABJ	52	33	76	18	179	2.2	Rejected
	PH	104	69	68	16	257	2.6	Accepted
My perception is that <i>Business Morning</i> programme has improved your understanding of financial markets and investment opportunities.	LAG	396	174	48	26	644	3.1	Accepted
	ABJ	132	69	20	13	234	2.9	Accepted
	PH	72	51	76	26	225	2.2	Rejected
	LAG	2220	1155	624	195	4194	2.9	Accepted
Weighted Mean Score	ABJ	708	456	288	86	1538	2.7	Accepted
	PH	560	417	554	137	1668	2.4	Rejected

Items 9 - 15, presented in Table 4.4 tackled the issue of the perception held by the audience of Channels *Business Morning* programme in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt. From the Table, it is clear that respondents in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt held varying perception of programme.

Table 4.5: Extent of Investment Decisions in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt as a result of exposure to Channels Television's *Business Morning Programme*

Item	City	SA	A	D	SD	Total	WMS	Remark
		4	3	2	1			
Business Morning programme has influenced your investment decisions positively.	LAG	356	174	72	24	626	3.0	Accepted
	ABJ	112	63	34	14	223	2.8	Accepted
	PH	124	57	54	25	260	2.6	Accepted
Information gathered from <i>Business Morning</i> has influenced my investment decision in stocks.	LAG	352	153	94	21	620	3.0	Accepted
	ABJ	116	54	44	11	225	2.8	Accepted
	PH	104	57	78	15	254	2.5	Accepted

Exposure to <i>Business Morning</i> has influenced my investment decision in mutual funds.	LAG	304	177	86	29	596	2.8	Accepted
	ABJ	64	63	52	17	196	2.4	Rejected
	PH	84	51	76	23	234	2.3	Rejected
Information from <i>Business</i> Morning influenced my decision to invest in banking products.	LAG	364	147	82	26	619	3.0	Accepted
	ABJ	108	72	36	11	227	2.8	Accepted
	PH	124	66	58	18	266	2.7	Accepted
My exposure to <i>Business</i> Morning programme had an influence on my decision to invest in insurance.	LAG	364	90	106	33	593	2.8	Accepted
	ABJ	108	69	34	7	218	2.7	Accepted
	PH	84	72	66	21	243	2.4	Rejected
have increased your investment portfolio as a result of watching Business Morning programme regularly.	LAG	304	201	82	23	610	2.9	Accepted
	ABJ	112	57	34	16	219	2.7	Accepted
	PH	76	96	50	23	245	2.5	Accepted
Weighted Mean Score	LAG	2044	942	522	156	3664	3.0	Accepted
Weighted Wican Score	ABJ			234				•
		620	378		76	1308	2.7	Accepted
	PH	596	399	382	125	1502	2.5	Accepted

Table 4.5 presents data of the investment decisions in Lagos, Abuja a Port Harcourt. Based on the data presented, Lagos had the highest investment decisions among the three locations as evidenced from weighted mean score of 3.0 for Lagos.

Results and Discussions

Research Question One: To what extent are the audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt exposed to Channels *Business Morning* programme?

In response to this question, Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 were used to analyse audience exposure to Channels *Business Morning* programme. The findings show that there is a significant level of exposure of audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt to Channels Business Morning Programme. Comparatively, the level of exposure to the programme was highest in Lagos, followed by Abuja and Port Harcourt. Further findings reveal that the frequency of exposure varied among the three cities, with Lagos having the highest level of exposure followed by Abuja and Port Harcourt.

Research Question Two: What is the perception of television audience in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt about Channels Television's *Business Morning* programme?

Findings from the data presented in Table 4.4, show that audience of Channels *Business Morning* programme in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt held varying perceptions of the programme. The varying position of the respondents was established when Channels *Business Morning* audience in Lagos and Abuja accepted the items that sought their perception of the programme as a valid source of unbiased and objective analysis of current business news and a valid source of investment related information. Contrarily, Channels *Business Morning* audience in Port Harcourt rejected the item that the programme is an unbiased and objective analysis of business news and a valid source of investment related information. The divergent views in the responses attest to the fact that media audience are entitled to hold different opinions or viewpoints on media contents. The fact that audience in Lagos Abuja and Port Harcourt who watched Business Morning programme had distinct perceptions of the programme, could be due to factors such as the cultural, social, and economic differences that existed in these cities.

Research Question Three: To what extent are investment decisions in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt as a result of exposure of audience to Channels' *Business Morning?*

Based on findings obtainable from the data presented in Table 4.5, it was found out among the audience of Channels *Business Morning* across the three cities, that the extent of investment decisions as a result of exposure to programme was high. The heightened extent of investment decisions must have resulted from the fact that Channels *Business Morning* programme provides business and investment related information and opportunities.

Conclusion

The findings of this study have so far shown that the perception of the audience across the three cities translated into investment decisions with Lagos and Abuja having more investment decisions compared to Port Harcourt. The study concludes that business and financial programmes like Channels *Business Morning* programme contribute to building financial knowledge among the audience thereby improving investor relations.

Recommendations.

The study recommends that;

- 1. Channels *Business Morning* audience should leverage on their exposure to financial programmes such as Channels *Business Morning* to continually increase their understanding of finance and investments.
- 2. The financial media should sensitise citizens on the need to develop critical thinking skills, which include evaluating and fact checking information presented to them on financial programmes.
- 3. Corporate organisations should leverage on financial media programmes such as Channels *Business Morning*, to enhance their engagement with shareholders and potential investors by making available accurate and transparent financial and non-financial information, such that can win their trust, improve their perception of the organisation and ultimately lead to the establishment of a robust investor relationship.
- 4. There is need for audience of financial programmes such as Channels *Business Morning* to evaluate Investment opportunities based on various factors beyond past performance when making their investment decisions, in line with their long term objectives and risk tolerance.

REFERENCES

- Central Bank of Nigeria. (2016). National financial literacy framework. https://www.cbn.gov.ng/out/2016/cfpd/financial%20literacy.pdf
- Channels Incorporated Limited. (2023). Corporate Profile. http://www.channelstv.com/aboutus/
- Da, Z., Engelberg, J., & Gao, P. (2011). In search of attention. *The Journal of Finance, 66* (5), 1461–1499.
- Feldman, J. (1999). The role of objects in perceptual grouping. Acta Psychologica, 102, 137-163.
- Folarin, B. (1998) *Theories of mass communication: An introductory text.* Stirling Horden Publishers.
- Laskin, A. V. (2009). A descriptive account of the investor relations profession. A national study. *Journal of Business Communication*, 46 (2), 208–233.
- MCombs & Shaw, D.L. (1972). The agenda-setting function of mass media. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 36 (4), 176 187.
- McQuail, D. (1994). Mass communication theory: An introduction. Sage Publications.
- NIRI.(2019). About NIRI. http://www.niri.org/about/index.cfm
- Nelson D. L. & Quick J. C. (2019). Orgb6: organizational behavior (Student). Cengage Learning.
- Perreault, E. & McCarthy, J. (2005). Basic marketing; A global managerial approach. McGraw-Hill.
- Tetlock, P. C. (2015). The role of media in finance. Handbook of media Economics, 1, 701-721
- Udoudo, A. (2013). The dynamics of newspaper editing. University of Port Harcourt Press Ltd.
- Yang, J., Xiu, P., Sun, L., Ying, L., & Muthu, B. (2022). Social media data analytics for business decision making system to competitive analysis. *Information processing & management*, 59 (1), 10-21.

KIDNAPPING AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Anyanwu, Uchechukwu Samuel; Emmanuel, I. Wonah Osaro Obari

Department of Political Science and Administrative Studies

ABSTRACT

The paper examined kidnapping and socio-economic development in Nigeria. The paper posited that kidnapping is a threat to socio-economic development and the security architecture has exacerbated the issue which threatens not only the peace and security but the socio-economic development in Nigeria. Anomie theory was used as an analytical construct. One of the major assumptions of the Anomie theory is that society creates its own brand of crime and criminals by defining its goals, standards, and values without providing corresponding legal opportunities for achieving them. Regrettably, the prescribed goals and means do not permit all members of the society to pursue only success in legitimate ways. The paper relied on secondary sources of data and the paper noted that there are militating factors responsible for the causes of kidnapping which encumbers socio-economic development. The paper recommended inter alia, the Nigerian Government should take pragmatic steps to provide youths with job opportunities, and revitalization of abandoned firms/companies in Nigeria.

Keywords: Kidnapping, Socio-economic Development, Peace & Security.

INTRODUCTION

The cankerworm called kidnapping has ravaged the nation in recent times. It has not only bedeviled the socio-economic development of the country, it has manifested itself as a social problem that is affecting virtually every member of Nigerian society in one way or the other and has a great devastating effect. The incessant incidents of kidnapping have brought immense threat to the government, the security agencies, and all related stakeholders. The proliferation of kidnapping has brought along with-it problems of insecurity of lives and property and a general fall in the number of economic activities as a result of the fear of the unforeseen. Monday (2015), buttressed further that the issues of kidnapping have taken an alarming dimension thereby creating anxiety among the populace, especially in southeastern Nigeria. It has reduced the economic activities, caused the influential to relocate out of the region, contributed to dwindling the major companies of production, caused insecurity in the region, and reduced foreign investment amongst others.

It is disheartening that upon the stringent laws promulgated (ranging from 10 years imprisonment to life imprisonment in some states), kidnapping seems to triumph unabated. According to Omoleye (2017), the nation witnesses, almost daily, the perpetration of such crimes as kidnapping, hence the need to question law enforcement agencies on the upsurge of such a heinous crime. The term kidnapping is ambiguous and vague to define, however (Asuquo 2009, Ugwoke 2011, Linus 2015, Benjamin et al 2018) defined kidnapping as the forceful seizure, taking away, and unlawful detention of a person against his/her will. However, John, (2020) opined that kidnapping is the crime of seizing, confining, abducting, or carrying away persons by force or fraud and often subjecting him or her to involuntary servitude in an attempt to demand a ransom or in furtherance of another crime. The kidnapping industry in Nigeria now thrives very well amidst concerted efforts by law enforcement agents to control and contain the effect. The business is very lucrative in Nigeria where the perpetrators and the sponsors receive huge sums of money from their victims, sometimes the victims of kidnapping are murdered, raped, drugged, butchered, and even battered in the act whenever the amount of money demanded from them are not met in time or not redeemed. Moreso, the victims are most time kept in deplorable places, exposed to adverse harsh weather conditions. They are maltreated, ill-fed, emotionally and psychologically tortured. Access to medication becomes a serious challenge to the victim and many develop high blood pressure and lots of health challenges in the process. The kidnappers are careful in the acts to make sure they evade arrest, get their ransom, and enjoy their ill-gotten money un-noticed. Many have attributed the cause of kidnapping as unemployment, abject poverty, moral decadence, greed, etc. (John 2020, Yusuf & Abudullahi 2020, and Linus 2015), however, John & Ubong (2013) also attributed the security agencies as the cause, most times they are seen aiding and abetting the crime, more so their ineffectiveness in carrying out their responsibilities is worrisome. What is at stake in this study, is to probe and investigate the effect of kidnapping on socio-economic development in Nigeria.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

There are many theories to explain the correlation between kidnapping and socio-economic development, (Frustration and aggression theory, Human needs theory, System theory, etc.)

However, this study adopted the Anomie theory. The anomie theory was propounded by Robert Merton and it seems best to explain the heinous crime called kidnapping which has ravaged the nation and affected the socio-economic development. The word "anomie" originated from the French language which means normlessness (lawlessness). It was synthesized and conceptualized in the 20th Century by Emile Durkheim (1858–1917), which he summarized as the absence or violation of norms (laws) and core values guiding human actions in society. Nevertheless, the anomie-strain theory of Emile Durkheim was modified to means-end paradigm by Robert K Merton in 1938.

The anomie theory argues that society creates its own brand of crime and criminals by defining its goals, standards, and values without providing corresponding legal opportunities for achieving them. All societies, according to Merton (1938), have a cultural system that embodies socially approved values and goals and the institutionalized means for achieving them. Regrettably, the prescribed goals and means do not permit all members of the society to pursue only success in legitimate ways. This exerts undue pressure on some segments of society in a non-conforming (criminal) way as they struggle to achieve the success goals and values. This happens when the goal of success is over-emphasized more than the acceptable ways of achieving it. Conversely, Merton acknowledges that not all people are deviants or criminals; this he did by identifying five adaptive ways people tend to respond when under structural strains. Merton" 's typology of individual adaptations to structural pressures is referred to as the "plus-minus paradigm", namely, Conformity: (+ +) conformity is non-deviants because they accept both the goals and the means of achieving the goals. The other four are guilty of violating either of the cultural expectations: the goals or means., Innovation: (+ -) they reject the means and accept the goals, Ritualism: (-+) they accept means and reject the goal, Retreatism: (--) they reject the means and the goals, and Rebellion: $(\pm \pm)$ they decided to change both means and goals. The plus (+) sign stands for acceptance, the minus sign (-) represents rejection, and plus and minus ($\pm \pm$) signs signify a rejection of both the institutionalized means and goals and establish their own goals and means (Merton, 1938).

A cursory analysis of the Anomie theory lends credence to many of the heinous crimes witnessed in Nigeria, of which Kidnapping seems to be the most popularized in recent times, which has impacted socio-economic development in Nigeria. Individuals tend to look for a simple means to get to the goal set by society, especially owing to the wide class disparity which exists in society, hence the need for "innovation". The theory explains why some individuals accept the culturally acceptable goals of the society (+) but reject the legitimate means of achieving them (-), which encourages kidnapping and adversely affects socio-economic development in Nigeria. Merton further posited that the "innovators" in particular belong to the lower class, in the class structure, hence the need to make both ends meet because access to legitimate means is limited and the "strain towards anomie" is most severe. It, therefore, means that those in the lower-class structure find it hard to meet their responsibility as a result of lack of access to it, hence the continuous frustration encountered on the way has given way to "innovation". The theory is relevant to the present study as it gives a clearer picture of the reasons why people engage in kidnapping, which affects socio-economic development. Also, an analysis of the type of people kidnaped in Nigeria has shown that the majority of them are influential and wealthy except those kidnapped for rituals, and a cursory look at the perpetrators has shown that they are unemployed, impoverished, used for political gain amongst others. The motivation for the acts is assumed to be embedded in the hard economic means of achieving an acceptable goal and the means, hence the persistent increase in the atrocity with time, since Nigeria is witnessing a continuous economic meltdown. Also owing to the porous value system in the country, as wealth is the criteria for measuring social class, the "retreatism and rebellions" have taken kidnapping as a legitimate means thereby shunning the society's means and goal. More so, the continuous increase in kidnapping has also been attributed to the "rebellions" as they see nothing wrong in the act because many government officials siphon funds and nothing is done about it, hence the use of kidnapping as an acceptable means of making both ends meet, getting their national "cake" and belonging to the upper social class structure thereby affecting the socio-economic development of the society. Kidnapping deters foreigners, scares investors, and causes the abandonment of many firms/companies that produce goods and services in society, thereby affecting socioeconomic development.

CONCEPTUALISING KIDNAPPING

The term kidnapping has generated many controversies in definition and conceptualization. According to Aderibigbe (2014), defines kidnapping as the taking away of a person against the person's will, usually for ransom or in furtherance of another crime. The furtherance of other crimes could be for organ harvesting, rituals, or political purposes amongst others. Asuquo (2009) however argued that kidnapping does not have any straight definition as it varies from state to state and jurisdiction to jurisdiction. Onyejebu (2018) submits that it is the "forceful seizure, taking away, and unlawful detention of a person against his/her will. In the opinion of Seigel (2002), it is a grievous crime and must be dealt with utmost seriousness. Moreover, Thomas &Nta (2009) posited that kidnapping is a robbery of the highest rank". They buttressed that "it is an organized and systematic robbery which is not deadly as armed robbery, but more profitable than the former", However, Nwaorah (2009) in her view believes that kidnapping is an act of an aggrieved man who wants to take a person of value hostage, to be rescued by loved ones. Ogabido (2009), succinctly summarizes kidnapping to mean "to abduct, capture, carry off, remove or steal away a person is". Bello& Jamilu (2017) added that kidnapping is usually motivated by political demand or financial gain. They further stated that political and traditional crimes can resort to the act of kidnapping to gain financial resources or have their request met. Based on the aforementioned views, one can submit that all the definitions are united in some factors which are; Kidnapping is a criminal act that involves the use of force which also violates the rights of the victims. However, many authors believe that kidnapping is carried out to obtain ransom. However, the study borrows the submission of Nnam (2014) who defines Kidnapping as an "Unlawful and coercive taking away of a person or group of persons without their volition to an undisclosed hostile environment often to demand and obtain a ransom, or to settle a political score (political vendetta) before granting them freedom.

Origins of Kidnapping

The phenomenon of kidnapping in its earliest manifestation took the form of child abduction for ransoms. Okoli & Agada (2014) maintained that the practice of kidnapping dates back to the 17th Century in Britain where infants(kids) of wealthy families would be 'napped' (caught in the sleep)

for ransom. However, Linus (2015) maintained that in 1678, the word kidnapping was first recorded to mean kidnappers piled their trade to secure laborers for plantations in colonies in North America. He further posits that kidnapping is a crime of unlawful, forceful seizure and detention of a person or persons against his/her or their wish, in anticipation of payment of ransom or to settle some scores of dis-agreements. Furthermore, Ottuh & Aitufe (2014), highlighted that the crime of kidnapping had been carefully taken into cognizance by ancient Rome as early as (AD 315), Emperor Constantine was so alarmed by the incident that he promulgated 'death' penalty as a punishment for such a crime. Also, Schuller (1985) opined that King Richard I of England was held hostage for years by the Arch Dike of Australia in the Twelfth century. In 1931, Ottuh & Aitufe (2014) noted that the upsurge in kidnapping in the USA led the Senate and House of Representatives to introduce Federal Legislation on Kidnapping. In Columbia, kidnapping has been viewed as a cottage industry, Thom & Blessing (2010). They further posited that the kidnapping in Columbia often crosses over into Venezuela and Ecuador. Over the past two decades, the crime of kidnapping has persistently risen in most African countries, most importantly Nigeria and South Africa, Thom & Blessing, (2010)

Kidnapping in Nigeria

The crime of kidnapping has assumed a new trend and has almost a daily phenomenon in recent times. During the colonial period, kidnapping was vicious in the form of slavery in the 18th and 19th centuries as noted by Kelechi, (2011). He posited that modern-day kidnapping in Nigeria started in the Niger Delta as a means of projecting their aggression and frustration towards the environmental hazard and effects of oil spillage in the area. Furthermore, (Akpan, 2010, Kelechi,2011, Onyejebu 2018) pointed out that the deliberate acts of marginalization, deprivation, and endless accumulation of natural resources and rents have been the driving force of the Niger Delta militants in the act of kidnapping according to (Ngwama2014, John 2020), the first well-known kidnapping after in the colonial era started in 2006 when the militants of the Niger Delta took TOTAL staff hostage to protest the inequality in the Region. The kidnapping started with the expatriates and later condescended to men of God, their children, politicians, religious leaders, lecturers, and students, as it is today, everyone in Nigeria in one way or another is at threat of

being kidnapped. Reuters (2009) in Ngwama (2014), reported that in 2008, a total number of 512 kidnapping cases was reported in Nigeria. Ngwama (2014), noted that most of the kidnapping occurred in the South-east and Niger Delta regions, which contains most of Nigeria's biggest oilwell and gas plant. However, he pointed out that the hostages were released after the payment of ransom and they were not harmed. Okoli & agada (2014), noted that kidnapping has been used for different purposes ranging from political vendetta, rituals, and ransom amongst others. Furthermore, they posited that in the south –eastern state there was a decrease in armed robbery and other social vices with a persistent increase in kidnapping apparently because the majority of the perpetrators have taken to kidnapping.

Causes of Kidnapping

1. Abject Poverty-

The effects of poverty on the livelihood of individuals have been a serious discourse in the academic world. John (2020) postulated that one of the main causes of kidnapping in Nigeria is poverty. He buttressed that poverty encompasses not only deprivation of material possessions, but more so, other deprivation like unemployment, ill-health, lack of education, powerlessness, and social exclusion amongst others. However, Yusuf & Abdullahi (2020), believe the reason why people indulge in kidnapping is to "exit from the track of poverty to riches". They added that the ransom paid for kidnapping makes the perpetrator rich, compared to their miserable poverty state. The high rate of poverty in Nigeria has widened the class disparity between the rich and the poor, hence the consistent increase in kidnapping to breach the gap and live a flamboyant life. In addition, kidnapping helps reduce poverty and meets family needs. Bello & Jamilu (2017) posited that economic deprivation and a sense of desperation have laid the seed of desperation in communities and kidnapping is the alternative. Kidnapping has been a source of income for the perpetrators. They use the ransom to meet the family's needs live a flamboyant life and join the affluents in the society. It is disheartening that Nigeria as a giant of Africa with natural mineral endowment and a large expanse of fertile land for agriculture has a high number of poor people who can barely afford two square meals a day and this has motivated them to do so many crimes which kidnapping is one of them.

1. Unemployment

The persistent increase in the high rate of unemployment has been attributed to the cause of kidnapping in Nigeria, especially Youth Unemployment. Inyang (2009) has described Youth Unemployment as the driving factor encouraging kidnapping just like the maxim "an idle mind is the devil's workshop". Bello & Jamilu (2017) buttressed further that unemployment among youths and adolescents is playing a key role in the consistent increase in kidnapping. Abdulkabir (2017) pointed out that most of the kidnappers convicted confessed that they were unemployed graduates looking for a means of survival and if there are no societal-valued means, the alternative is the other means. Furthermore, he opined that many youths have erred in joining groups of criminal gangs because of unemployment and the search for jobs to earn a living. Ngwama (2014) added that if the level of Unemployment in Nigeria is not checkmated, soon the entire Nation may have to be ransomed at one time or another. Inyang (2009) reiterated that the proliferation of arms and ammunition as a result of godfatherism /patronage of those who were dumped after each election, may likely increase the spate or encourage kidnapping. The youths who were used and dumped by politicians after securing their winning ticket in the election are vulnerable to so many social vices and crimes and most have picked up their arms and engaged in kidnapping, especially, the politicians.

The unemployment index in Nigeria is increasing each year, with the tertiary institutions turning up graduates each year without corresponding companies, organizations, and institutions to gainfully employ them. Many get frustrated after fruitless years of searching for jobs and could engage in different crimes to sustain livelihood. They are easily manipulated as a result of frustration and unemployment and engage in different heinous crimes to make both ends meet.

1. Corruption & Political Leaders

The high rate of corruption in Nigeria's polity has been attributed to the causes of kidnapping in Nigeria. Yusuf &Abdullahi (2020) recounted that the advent of oil in the 1970s ignited heinous crimes in Nigeria, especially in the area of political office holders who were seen spending frivolously on government resources uncounted and the excluded minority in the area took kidnapping as an alternative. Bello &Jamilu (2017) buttressed that political kidnapping evolved

as a result of corruption in politics, where kidnapping was used to further the political aim of a particular group or movement. In this case, ransom are usually paid to fund their movement. Ene (2017) posited that government officials especially top management level loot and spend recklessly government resources which encourages some of the perpetrators of these heinous crimes to engage in it as a way of showing their dissatisfaction and also earning a living. Ogabido (2009) reiterated that social injustice, inequality, unfair distribution of resources, and neglect of the host communities are some of the militating factors of kidnapping. He further stated" He blamed the federal government for lack of equity and fairness in governance as well as lack of responsible leadership. It is this persistent report on abuse of power and continuous embezzlement of government funds while the poor masses suffer that has triggered the persistent rise in kidnapping in Nigeria. In the opinion of Yusuf & Abdullahi (2020), attributed the rise in kidnappings to politicians for ritual purposes and political assassination to attain an enviable height in the Nation's politics. They further opined that at each election children, imbeciles, and mentally deranged people are usually kidnapped for ritual purposes by politicians and officeholders to maintain their position or climb higher on the ladder. Okafor (2005) noted that the sum of 500 billion dollars has been robbed in the country through corruption from the sales of oil in the last 50 years which would have been used to develop the vibrant economy that would have provided jobs for the youths.

Lack of Societal Value/ Moral Decadence

The culture of love for human lives, friendliness, hard work, and receptiveness to foreigners has been mortgaged in exchange for Western and ostentation orientation Ngwama (2014). In a similar vein, Onovo (2009) correlated the persistent increase in crimes in Nigeria as a result of the celebration of fraudsters by leaders. He reiterated that the increase in crimes in the South-East & South-South is caused by the quest for materialism and loss of societal values, people are ready to go the extra length to get wealth or material possessions at all costs, irrespective of whose horse is gored. Inyang (2009) posited that in Nigeria, nobody cares to question how one makes his/her wealth. He noted that anyone can show up with expensive vehicles and no one dares to question the sudden change in status/wealth. Onovo (2009) frowns at the appointment of indicted

individuals as heads of various government agencies and parastatals. The above hurts the youths and poor masses who watch with eagerness and see how the government treasury is looted with impunity and political holders amassing wealth without fear of being arrested, the youths in turn also take law into their hands, hence kidnapping. Umez (2000), attributes the values system in Nigeria as causes of kidnapping. He further stated that Nigeria glorifies and endorses illegal and corrupt means of income as sufficient and necessary means of earning a living which in turn has reshaped most Nigerian's integrity, especially the youths which is a change in value system. No wonder the increase in cybercrime, kidnapping, and trafficking amongst others in society. Other causes of kidnapping are;

- (5) Influence of hard drugs/ substance abuse
- (6) Lack of capital punishment by the government
- (7) Poor Security Infrastructure
- (8) Bad governance/ Leadership failure

Effects of Kidnapping

The menace of kidnapping affects the social life of many, as many promulgations made by the government to checkmate the act affecting the inhabitants of the society. The continuous use of curfew to contain the menace affects the social life of the inhabitants, more so, there is a heightened level of mistrust according to Inyang &Abraham (2013) who posited that very few people in the society extend their African hospitality to strangers as a result of growing awareness of the dangers of talking/sharing information with strangers, who could be kidnappers. Also, kidnapping has restricted movement/visitation as well as limited attendance to important ceremonies like marriage, funerals, birthdays, etc. (Dave et al, 2019). There is also a continuous increase in the demand for escorts which has reduced the capacity and effectiveness of the security agencies to contain and control the menace. This has reduced the security agencies' workforce and also undermined their capability of securing the lives and property of the citizens. Dave et al. (2019), posited that many have lost their lives, belongings, property, etc. as a result of the menace of kidnapping. They portend that where the breadwinner of the family is affected, it could create a serious dangerous gap in the family and be difficult to fill in the long run. Ngwama (2014),

posited that kidnapping could lead to a threat to industrial harmony and destabilization of the labor market which in the long run falls back on the society, which could manifest in unemployment, closure of factories/ companies producing goods and services, migration/movement of people to areas less prone to insecurity, etc. Yusuf & Abdullahi (2020) added that house/ company owners disguise themselves as taxi drivers and okada man in a bid to move freely in society. Moreso, they are of the view that Landlords/Landlady present an unfinished view of their home displaying poverty.

Odoma & Akor (2019), averred that kidnapping affects not only the psychology of the direct victims and their families but also cuts across the economic investment by spreading fear which hinders economic productivity. The use of fear threatens the productive sector of the economy and it impacts negatively on the society. Bello & Jamilu (2017) added that the loss of contact has a traumatic effect on the parents of the victims and the victim. Moreso, they posited that victims may suffer from sexual abuse, especially the girl child, and could lead to the contraction of several deadly diseases. Freeman (2006) buttressed that victims may suffer violence or torture from their perpetrators in the course of the abduction. Many victims have lost their lives as well as their livelihoods while the negotiation of ransom is ongoing. Sometimes, kidnappers end up battering and taking the lives of their victims. There are occasions when victims have been asked to denounce their faith or face death in a (religious kidnapping). In another situation, victims may be forced to sign documents or assent to an agreement for them to live. In some circumstances, victims' vital organs are been mutilated and harvested, and some are held in servitude, forced marriage, and labor.

IMPACTS ON THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Kidnapping has hindered and grossly impacted the socio-economic development of the nation. Socio-economic development as submitted by Michael (2017), "is a process of quantitative, qualitative and structural changes that are as result of actions of subjects taken within social (economic) practice". Michael posited that the changes affect the condition of life in; economic growth, entrepreneurs and economic structures, access to social amenities or public goods and services, habitable environment conditions and satisfaction, material conditions, and relations

within the social system, amongst others. The incessant incidences of kidnapping have incurred immense threats to the government, security agencies, and all related stakeholders, and this has contributed to the dwindling development and security threat in society. The persistent increase in kidnapping has brought problems of insecurity of lives and property and a general fall in the number of economic activities as a result of the fear of the unforeseen. The fear of unforeseen has necessitated unplanned relocation, high population density in the urban, and inflation in the price of goods and commodities. Even the farmers in the rural setting are abandoning the farm as a result of the kidnapping which has a ripple effect in the economic growth and development. Kidnapping defies security and, as such has undermined the security architecture and the essence of the state as buttressed by Olusola (2021), that the core primary duty of a government is to protect the lives, property, society's interests and the citizens from attacks both from internal and external aggression or kidnappers. It has reduced the economic activities in various societies. So many business premises and multi-national companies have closed down in the nation as a result of persistent kidnapping. Moreso, it has deterred the establishment of new companies/firms and further aggravated the need for security escort in the nation. Many companies, and construction firms, have been abandoned by their workers because of the insecurity in the nation generated by kidnapping. This has also caused the influential to relocate out of the nation, contributed to dwindling the major companies of production, caused insecurity in the nation, and reduced foreign investment amongst others. Many philanthropists, professionals, and skilled workers have relocated to other nations because of kidnapping. These are people who would have contributed to the human and capital development of the nation. No wonder the nation lags in technological advances and infrastructure because her skilled professionals have relocated in quest of greener pastures and security, and this negatively impacts the socio-economic development of the nation. The direct cost of kidnapping which has also affected socio-economic development includes money paid for ransom, or other economic properties lost to the kidnapping, Ene (2018). At the national level, kidnapping could result in excess budget/ expenditure on security, Ene (2018). To secure the release of dear ones, properties are sold at face value, and huge sums of money are injected into the economy in the form of ransom, this also causes inflation thereby destabilizing

the market price of commodities and affecting socio-economic development. At the national level, kidnapping could result in excess budget/ expenditure on security, Ene (2018). The excess budget for security could have been used for infrastructural development of the nation and, hence, have been diverted to security, thereby leading to low socio-economic development in the nation. The implications are also witnessed in the area of manpower that produces goods and services for consumption and exports. This can be visible in the closure of some companies/establishments most of which are oil and gas companies as a result of incessant kidnapping, Dave et al. (2019). This in turn has hindered foreign investments, and development in key sectors of the economy and has dented the image of the nation, [Ene 2018, Ekpe 2019, Inyang and Ibrahim, 2013]. In addition, Ene et al 2019 buttressed that the menace of kidnapping could hinder the capital and investment that comes as a result of foreign aid for natural development. Inyang& Abraham (2013) posited that the effects are manifest in the losses that the country experiences when an expatriate is kidnapped oil companies are attacked and the companies are shut down as a result of fear, which in turn reduces the national revenues generated. Bello & Jamilu (2017) averred that about five hundred million dollars [US\$500,000,000] are spent annually for ransom globally. Ngwama (2014) added that kidnapping is threatening the foundation of the Nigerian Economy and if not checkmated could lead the nation into recession.

THE WAY FORWARD

The devastating effects of kidnapping have hampered the social life and the economic development of the nation. The scourge and epidemics of kidnapping have threatened the security architecture and ripple effects are witnessed in the underdevelopment and social malaise seen in the nation. Abject poverty, unemployment, get-rich syndrome, and greed, amongst others, have been adjudged as the causal factors of the persistent increase in kidnapping which affects and threatens the socio-economic development of the nation.

These factors have necessitated the persistent increase in the crime of kidnapping and have impacted the security and socio-economic development, hence the security of lives and property of the citizens have been undermined. The rippling effects are visible in all of the sectors of the economy. The need to provide job opportunities, capital investments, revitalization of abandoned

firms/industry, and good governance amongst others is a sine qua non for the eradication of kidnapping which affects socio-economic development. Many firms/industries that are capable of reducing the alarming unemployment in Nigeria should be revitalized. The refineries which have gone moribund, the railways, and the textile industries amongst others should be reinvigorated to create job opportunities and enhance development in other key sectors. Moreso, the security agencies are to be proactive in the saddled responsibility. Also, the Nigerian State should review and vigorously implement laws/policies relevant to the criminalization of kidnapping, this will act as deterrence to the kidnappers. The fight against corruption in Nigeria should be intensified and should be cut across all the sectors of the nation. Rule of law should prevail, an egalitarian society free from nepotism and favoritism. And security should not be limited to the office holders but to everyone in the society.

Concluding Remarks

Peace is a sine qua non for socio-economic development. Security is a necessary element for socioeconomic development to triumph and peace to be sustained. Security therefore is a necessary element for peace and national development in Nigeria.

This would reduce kidnapping and the security threat that it breeds, thereby giving room for socioeconomic development in society. This will lead to the creation of job opportunities, peace and
stability, and foreign investment in the nation. Unfortunately, due to the insecurity in the nation
as a result of kidnapping which is embedded in poverty, greed, political interference, and moral
decadence amongst others, the peace and socio-economic development of the nation has been
threatened and under siege. This has threatened and deterred foreign investment amongst others.

There is therefore the need to contain and control kidnapping which affects security and hampers
the socioeconomic development of the society and nation. The study therefore recommended that
the government should adequately fund the security agencies, partner with local and Multinational
companies to build companies that will create job opportunities, and stricter punishment should
be meted out to kidnappers as deterrence.

References

- Akpan, E. (2009). UBA Bank Manager Abducted. Vintages Express, December 15, pp. 1 2.
- Asad, D. (2007). National affair, retrieved September 2022 http://www.nigeriavillagesquare.com.
- Asuquo, M. E. (2009). The Upsurge of Kidnapping and Its Influence on Public Order in Akwa

 Ibom State. Unpublished Term Paper, Department of Sociology/Anthropology,

 University of Uyo, Uyo, AkwaIbom State- Nigeria
- Bello, I. & Jamilu, I.M (2017). An Analysis of the Causes and Consequences of Kidnapping in Nigeria. An international multi-disciplinary journal, Bahirdar, Ethiopia Afrrev vol. 11 (4), DOI:http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/afrrev.v11i4.11
- Benjamin, O.A, Bonaventure N. N.&Okpan, S.O (2018). Socio-Economic Implication of Kidnapping and Hostage Taking in Southern Nigeria Journal of Law and Judicial System Volume 1, Issue 1, 2018, PP 51-59. STRYAHWA publication
- Ene, W. R (2018). Kidnapping and the Nigerian Society: A Sociological Insight. International Journal of Development and Management Review (INJODEMAR) Vol. 13 No. 1 June, 2018
- Hazen, J. M. & Horner, J. (2007). Small arms, armed violence, and insecurity in Nigeria: The Niger Delta in perspective. Geneva: Small Arms Survey http://thenewsafrica.com/2010/06/28/in-the-grip-of-kidnappers/ On
- John, D.I & Ubong, E.A (2013). The Social Problem of Kidnapping and its Implications on the Socio-Economic Development of Nigeria: A Study of Uyo Metropolis. Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences Published by MCSER-CEMAS-Sapienza University of Rome.Doi:10.5901/mjss. 2013.v4n6p531
- John, W. (2020) Proliferation of Kidnapping in Nigeria: Causes and Consequences. International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science (IJRISS) |Volume IV, Issue III, March 2020|ISSN 2454-6186. www.rsisinternational.org
- Kelechi, O. (2011). Kidnapping in Nigeria: issues and common-sense ways of surviving. Global

 Journal of Educational Research Vol.1(1) pp.001 008.

 http://www.globalresearchjournals.com/journal/?id=GJER.

- Linus C. N. (2015). Socio-Economic effects of kidnapping in South-East Nigeria World Journal of Management and Behavioral Studies 3 (2): 36-43. IDOSI Publications, 2015 DOI: 10.5829/idosi.wjmbs.2015.3.2.1318
- Michael, L (2017). The evolution of idea of socio-economic development: EKONOMIA I PRAWO. ECONOMICS AND LAW, 16(4): 449–458 https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322815766.
- Monday, U. (2015), Kidnapping and its socio-economic implication on society (A Case Study of Imo and Abia States In South Eastern Nigeria). Doctor Of Philosophy Degree (P.Hd) Proposal In Criminology unpublished
- Ngwama, J.C. (2014). Kidnapping in Nigeria: An Emerging Social Crime and the Implications for the Labour Market. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol. 4 No. 1. © Center for Promoting Ideas, USA www.ijhssnet.com
- Nwaorah, N. (2009). Are kidnappers worst criminals. The Vanguard
- Okoli, Al Chukwuma&Agada, Fakumo T. (2014). Kidnapping and National Security in Nigeria.

 Research on Humanities and Social Sciences.Vol.4, No.6. www.iiste.org
- Omoleye B.O. (2017). Analysing economic crimes in Nigeria: The political economy approach.

 Journal of Law and Criminal Justice.URL: https://doi.org/10.15640/jlcj.v5n2a6
- Onovo,O.,(2010)Security Challenge in South East and South-South, being a speech delivered during south East and South-South Security Summit organised by National Association of Chamber of Commerce, Industry , Mine and Agriculture (NACCIMA) in Enugu.
- Onuoha, F.C. & Ezirim, G.E. (2017). Civil-military relations and national security in a democratic Nigeria. Studies in Politics and Society, 5 (1), 32 52, 2017.
- Onyejebu, D.C (2018). Political amorality and kidnapping for ransom in Nigeria: understanding the intricacies. Available on-line at: www.oapub.org/soc.
- Ottuh, P.O.O & Aitufe, V.O (2014). Kidnapping and moral society: An ethico-religious evaluation of the Nigerian experience. European Scientific Journal May 2014 edition vol.10, No.14 ISSN: 1857 7881 (Print) e ISSN 1857- 7431

- Siegel, L.J. (2002). Criminology (2nd ed.). New York, U.S.A: West Publishing Company
- Soyombo, O. (2016). Achieving community security and safety in Nigeria through community policing. In Touching Lives Through Psychology.

 https://ir.unilag.edu.ng/handle/123456789/5354
- Thomas, T. & Nta, P. (2009). Kidnapped and Persecuted ComanClem"s Wife, a 5 Year Old Girl.

 Community Pulse, August 10, p6
- Ugwuoke, C. U (2010). Criminology, Explaining Crime in the Nigeria Context. Enugu: Great Express Publishers Ltd.
- Wehmeier S, & Ashby M (2002). Oxford advance learner's dictionary. New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Yusuf, K. I & Abdullahi, A.A (2020). The Causes of Kidnapping and its implications on Nigeria.

 Liberal Arts and Social Sciences International Journal. Vol.1.1 (LASSIJ):

 https://doi.org/10.47264/lassij.

THE LIBERALISATION OF NIGERIA'S DEMOCRACY

Grant C. Amadi

Professor O. S. Amadi

Department of Political and Administrative Studies,
University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria
amadigrnat97gmail.com
+2347067911706

Abstract

This paper centers on the liberalisation of democracy in Nigeria. It argues that, like other ancient African societies, the nationalities today known as Nigeria had some form of democratic practices. The advent of colonialism was what liberalised democracy in Nigeria and somehow reduced the practice to a mere struggle for elections, political power and economic resources. Colonialism did not only create some distance between the people and the government, but it also led to the introduction of several anti-democratic forces such as corruption, poverty and state hegemony. These forces destroyed the communal nature of the nations that make up the Nigerian society consequently undermining the development of democracy in Nigeria. The paper recommends that the consolidation of democracy in Nigeria has to be tailored towards the appreciation of the uniqueness of the Nigerian society.

Keywords: Democracy, Liberalism, Imperialism

Introduction

This brief piece tries to trace the problem of the consolidation of democracy in Nigeria to unguided Western liberal infiltration into Nigeria's politics. It is important to note from the outset that democracy is no stranger to the African space; many African societies had evolved one form of a democratic idea or the other before the advent of colonialism (Ake, 2008; Alapiki, 2005; Ohachenu, 1995). The idea of African having an early encounter with democracy should be of no surprise to the careful student of African history. This is mainly because of the communal basis of her social organisation, and partly because of the high level of civilization of her social formation, before the incursion of Europeans. African communal civilization taught the African

people one critical lesson —that is, every man has an intrinsic value in himself, and that value contributes indirectly to the ultimate worth of social existence. It is this ideology that gives many African societies its democratic front and engenders the wide participation of people in the decisions that thrust their societies (Ake, 2008). It is also this communal and participatory democratic nature of Africa that made early naïve European scholars refer to the African social formations as "stateless societies." It was difficult for them to come to terms with the fact that in many African societies, the populace took an active part in framing public policy; they were amazed to see direct democracy in an era declared to be incompatible with participatory governance. This amazement soon turned into a criticism of the African political system as crude and primitive.

Needless to emphasise therefore it is only ignorance and/or extreme ethnocentric bigotry that would make any European term of traditional African societies before colonialism as "crude" or "stateless." Indeed, what Africans expressed was their ability to recognize the essence of humanity and the beauty of democracy. Sadly, at the advent of colonialism in Africa in the 19th century, many of Africa's democratic institutions were eroded by the fierce activities of the colonialists in the search for markets for their finished goods and raw materials for their advanced industries. Africa's civilization was stalled, and there emerged the phenomenon of the development of underdevelopment. When Rodney (1974) argues in his book, *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*, that Africa was developed before the arrival of the Europeans, and that it is Africa's relationship with Europe under colonialism (imperialism) that led to the underdevelopment of the former, he is aptly referring to the issue with which we are here concerned. Colonialism destroyed many African institutions, especially her democratic structures; for colonialism had a divergent cause from democracy. In fact, both are incompatible! Colonialism and its economic corollary, imperialism substituted Africa's communal and democratic institutions for capitalist and liberal democratic institutions.

Granted the above, it is wrong to agree with Maxey (2010, p.687) who inferred that Europe holds a monopoly on the knowledge of politics. The fact that one can easily lay hold of European pieces

of literature containing Western/European political ideas of centuries past even as far back as 1000BC does not by any means imply that Europeans invented political inquiry (theory) as Sabine and Thorson (1973, p.7) argue. The fact is that Europe developed, quite early, effective means of storing information and knowledge outside the individual. Drawing, painting, writing and other forms of written literature were utilized as mediums for recording and transfer of knowledge from one generation to another. It is not to say other continents of the world were not thinking or were not recording ideas.

For Africa, knowledge was passed on orally. Africans had very effective means and methods of socialisation and did not invent many means of recording political ideas and learning outside the individual. Political ideas were stored in each member of the collective, and they were passed from one generation to another via her active socialization processes and institutions. Ideas were embodied in oral traditions, tales, songs, rituals, stories, and folklore, among others, and the individual is considered an embodiment or a compendium of the wisdom of ages past (Uya, 2004).

As it seems, the uncensored profusion of ideas into the African space especially with the aid of the modern wave of globalization, leaves the continent in serious need of re-conceptualising complex phenomena like freedom, happiness, equality, democracy, politics and justice. In fact, defining democracy, politics and justice has become vaguer than ever. And this is more so for countries like Nigeria moulded after colonial patterns and whose present structural configurations are reflections of colonialism. Nigeria's intercourse with Britain for one year short of a hundred years (1861-1960) led to many serious ills in the body of Nigeria's socio-economic and political systems. (The phenomena of neo-colonialism and globalization have also not helped matters at all.)

Western liberal roots in the failure of democracy in Nigeria

What is today called, "Nigeria" is a product of some calculation to reduce administrative inconveniences and cost. People of different origins, cultures, religions and histories were forcefully amalgamated into a political unit without even the narrowest of consultation or regard for their individual sentiments and belief systems. There was never the slightest effort to create the modalities and mechanisms for the harmonious interaction of these different peoples. (Agbodike, 1998; Ekpenyong, 2008; Balewa, 1994). Therefore, "Nigeria" is merely a political experiment of the colonialist.

Indeed, one of the trendiest values or inventions of the West is liberal democracy, a system which has been pompously declared as the final point of human political development (Fukuyama, 1992). As expected, because of her many colonial and neocolonial ties, liberal democracy is currently taking form in the Nigerian social formation. This however holds many implications. As Bako (1997, p.226) notes, "The fact is that our so-called democracy has been nothing but a thoughtless caricature of either the British Parliamentary or American Presidential Models, neither of which can solidly take root in our society. The tragedy is that all through this period, we have neither been able to culturally domesticate...nor have we ever attempted to study, evolve and develop our institutions and our aspirations." Advocates of Western hegemony have even argued that Africa has nothing to offer or contributed to any idea pushed into her space. It is avowed that there exists no link between liberal democracy and its environment, for liberal democracy is already a perfect system. As one renowned liberal democratic theorist avows: "There are, nonetheless, several fallacies about culture and democracy that should be avoided. The first is the notion that cultural factors constitute sufficient conditions for the establishment of [liberal] democracy ... The second and probably more common mistake, is to view cultural factors as necessary conditions for the establishment of [liberal] democracy" (Fukuyama, 1992, p.19-20).

Yet, liberal democratic theorists (Lipset, 1996; Powell, 1992) have been amazed by the difference between the nature of democratic traditions in advanced liberal states and what has taken shape in

most third-world countries like Nigeria. They are astounded that most of the values of liberal democracy in the West are meaningless in much of Asia and Africa. Bako (1997, p.228) has rightly submitted the reasons why there is a disparity between liberal democracy as practised in the West and those of the global south as thus: "Western democracy has failed to function properly because it has ignored and even undermined what contribution the domestic forces and traditional values and norms could make on the processes and formulation of objectives and principles."

It remains observed that what Nigeria needs is not to make Western or liberal democracy workable –but to ensure that her democratization processes become: (a) free from Western or liberal colouration, because of the weak nature of liberal democracy, and; (b) more amendable to her societal specificity.

On the second point, (b), it is important to note that, "The values and principles of democracy have to be customized creatively in consonance with the social realities of Africa [Nigeria]. Otherwise democratization degenerates into another assault on indigenous cultures and becomes alienating. And alienation is not emancipatory." (Ake, 1996a, p.24).

It would have been easier to address the problems confronting the establishment and growth of democracy in Nigeria were the Nigeria post-colonial state a little more hospitable to democratic ethos. In the main, the Nigerian post-colonial state still retains much of the trappings and undemocratic nature of the colonial state; it has continually acted as an oppressive apparatus of an occupying power (Ake, 1996a, p. 6). The character of the state plays a major role in defining the functional relationships and mechanisms for the distribution of societal resources. And being inherently anti-people –because of its over-developed nature – the Nigerian state cannot help but play the fiduciary role of advancing the hegemonic cause of capital. This point needs no serious emphasis as it has been ably dealt with by Ake, (1982); Ake, (1996a); Ekekwe (2015) to mention but three. But what needs some reiteration here is the zero-sum nature of the politics of Nigeria. Of course, in much of Africa, politics is all about the distributive activities of the state in "the determination of who gets what, when and how" (Easton, 1980).

Undoubtedly, the character of the Nigerian state helps to form the cast of the monstrous structure and nature of Nigerian politics. As it appears Nigerian politics represents the culmination of many social ills and entails those processes that orchestrate the problems of inequality and injustice. But to be sure, politics ought to be a means of sorting out and rectifying the imperfections of human interactions and ensuring the harmonious existence of members of a social unit. It is a means by which the problems inherent in social life are resolved or attempted to be resolved. Or as Ekekwe (2015, p.27) describes it, politics is "the process by which individuals as members of a collective, directly or through their agents, act in concert with others to arrive at decisions and take actions concerning what best serves the interest of all parties in the collective."

On the contrary, Nigerian politics is a means of the alienation and the disempowerment of a section of the society – the masses. It remains a competitive struggle among members of the upper class for access and control of the resource-distribution mechanisms of the state. Indeed, the designation of Nigerian politics as a "do-or-die affair" very well captures the realities of the political system of the country. Instead of politics being a means of "serving all interests in the collective," it has been malformed into a means of defeating and subjugating the populace.

Obviously, the nature of Nigerian politics, and especially the challenges democracy now faces, is largely engendered by the huge earnings from petroleum. The control of state apparatuses which is the sure means of gaining access to the large sums of petro-dollar gotten from oil revenues makes Nigeria's politics even more brutal.

Besides Petro, the multiethnic (and religious) nature of the country contributes a huge portion of the resources that form the frames of the fractured nature of Nigerian politics. Nigeria has remained a theatre of ethnic struggles, and as Belewa (1994, p.219) argued, ethnicity is probably the most important and sinister factor in Nigeria's political development. The various people who were brought together by the amalgamation of 1914 are yet to come to terms with the realities of their environment, and they have been very idle in cultivating the culture of tolerance. They have

also been reluctant to ask themselves some very hard questions about the feasibility of the political entity engendered by the "mistake of 1914," namely, Nigeria.

It is highly contestable whether the trajectory of democracy (and justice) in Nigeria can be appropriately pictured without the proper consideration of the effects and consequences of the incursion of the military in the country's political space (Gofwen, 1993; Inokoba, 2005). Quite early into her post-colonial existence, while she was still adjusting herself to the looming hangovers of colonialism (imperialism), Nigeria fell under the siege of the military in 1966. She was precisely only six years old, having gained political independence in 1960 when the military first struck. From 1966-1979 she endured the amoral dispositions of various military juntas and an anti-democratic atmosphere. The prorogue of military occupation and activities only came by way of popular pressures and the benevolence of a military ruler. No wonder it lasted for only four years; and the military who were ready and eager to seize every opportunity to get back into the political arena of the oil-rich country literally strolled back into political leadership. By this time, there had been the oil boom, and the earnings from oil made the control of state apparatuses very attractive, or rather, lucrative.

The second invasion of Nigerian politics by the military in 1984, as against what many hoped, was to last for a long period of time –up until 1999. Put together, Nigeria has spent a large percentage of her 56 years of post-colonial political life in military sieges. Therefore, if democracy is to develop in Nigeria, there must be conscious efforts to dismantle the autocratic structures left by military rule in her social formation. Indeed, the effects of the 29 years of military activities in the Nigerian political arena fuel the complicated nature of the contradictions of her politics. And it is more so for democratic politics. Precisely, while democracy is focused at establishing some level of equality and improving the worth of the human person in society; military sociology is based on strict hierarchy and the value of command. As Amieye-Ofori (2009, p. 26) argues, "the recession of military rule in 1999 has allowed political leaders to emerge through the ballot, but the emergent epoch [as it appears] is without sufficient alluvials for democracy to sprout and flourish anew."

The overarching effect of the prolonged dominance of the Nigerian political arena by the barracks is that the psychological moments of the Nigerian people towards power have been badly injured. The mind of the average Nigerian has been malformed so that it is always power-threatened. Military might have made Nigerians to be predisposed to give undue loyalty and reverence to political authority, to shrink at the instance of the state. They do not consider authority as complementary to freedom; both are seen as opposing forces. The state is never considered a commonwealth; rather it is perceived as a threat to the good life. Military activities in politics have also aided what Alavi's (1976) terms could describe as the "overdeveloped nature of the Nigerian state" –the alienation of the Nigerian state or government from its people. The people and the government have been made strangers, one to another, thereby creating an environment of independence and indifference to the activities and problems of one another.

The government is unconcerned with the welfare and plights of the people, while the people are particularly indifferent about the policies of the government—save for the fact that they are seeking alternative means of solving their problem. There is no sense of ownership of the state, on the part of the people, and the state does not claim actual responsibility of serving the interest of the people. The results manifest in the absence of genuine political obligation and sovereignty.

All these were orchestrated by the sociology of the military. If there is any instance where the colloquial idiom, "Attitude hardly dies" is true, then that instance is in the contribution of the military to the nature of the relationship between the Nigerian people and her government. Moreover, the people have yet to see any significant difference between military and civilian rule except for the regalia of the members of each camp – one with the army uniform and the other with loose brocade. To be sure, even today in 2016, an average Nigerian still worships state power so much as not to dare to rationalize or contemplate its existence or activities. Therefore, for democracy which requires active popular participation to be consolidated in the country, there is a need for the reorientation of the Nigerian populace. Nigerians have to be unlearned of the mentality of servitude in the political process. They must come to the point of knowing that politics is about servicing the interest of every man, every woman and every child in the collective.

The projection of the Nigerian democratic trajectory must, of course, include the proper consideration of the issue of underdevelopment. And by underdevelopment is meant a situation where people are unable to realise their best selves (at a particular time) as a result of their inability to put the forces of their environment into their preferred cause. Conversely, development is a process "by which people create and recreate themselves and their life circumstances to realise higher levels of civilization in accordance with their own choices and values" (Ake, 1996b, p.125). To be sure, the seemingly daunting task of consolidating democracy in Nigeria is largely a product of her underdevelopment. Democracy and development are much related, and it is not plausible that democracy can be consolidated without development. This is why there is a tendency to contemplate whether there exists a need to make a priority choice between development and democracy, that is, between development and democracy which should be pursued first.

However, it seems that the placement of development and democracy on a scale of preference is unnecessary for two reasons. First, at some level, democracy is development; it is the advancement of the human mind to see the intrinsic worth in every man. Democracy is thus concerned with issues of equality, freedom, fraternity and happiness which are very important indices of development. Second, and corollary to the foregoing, democracy and development are mutually inclusive, it is impossible to achieve one without the help of the other. Ake (1996a, p.18) was implicitly referring to the case of the nexus between democracy and development when he wrote, "A society of beggar parasites and bandits cannot develop, it cannot know peace stability, and it cannot be democratic."

Taking poverty, which is a core index of underdevelopment, as a case in point: it is true that a man who is hungry and materially wretched is unlikely to appreciate the idea of political equality and the need for active participation in politics – that is, if he has enough energy to do so. Of course, the poor man would be too occupied with the processes and activities of reforming his economic existence to bother about some somewhat abstract ideas like political rights, political freedom, political equality, political participation or political legitimacy. To be sure, he will be passive about political democratic ideas except they hold some direct positive prospects for his economic

condition. His sole or primary attention would be on his material plights, and he would have the tendency to trade any political value or right for economic salvation. The reason is that man is primarily a material being; he must first satisfy his basic material needs of food, clothing, shelter and security before he can become a political activist, a democrat, or a politically active member of society.

The point is that democracy is incompatible with poverty (Ake, 1996a; Amieye-Ofori, 2009; Verhengen and Wenzel 1993). A society whose populace is still wallowing in the murky waters of poverty, a society whose people are still struggling from the effects of poverty cannot democratise. Poverty is anti-democratic, for a poor man is voiceless, powerless, hapless, helpless and defenceless against the arbitrary use of power! Political participation cannot function under conditions of poverty (Verhengen and Wenzel 1993). Indeed, for democracy to be established and consolidated in Nigeria, there is an urgent need for a positive change in the fortune of the poor wretched masses scattered around its geographic space (Zimako, 2009, p. 32).

However, as against recent policy efforts, the problems of underdevelopment in Nigeria, particularly the issue of poverty, cannot be adequately resolved within the frame of the capitalist mode of production. This is because of the natural tendency of capitalism to (a) disempower the majority of society and (b) divide society into two opposing forces. In such a situation, democracy hardly thrives. The feasibility of democracy in Nigeria is thus tied to the ownership and configuration as well as the nature of the management of her means of production, distribution and exchange. And as Kothari (2005, p.144-146) rightly observed:

There has existed an element of mutual antipathy between democracy and capitalism... so long as the democratic state is structurally operating within the techno-economic framework of capitalism, irrespective of democracy's ideological intent to contain the capitalist threat, it is in reality found to be compatible with high degrees of inequality.

Indeed to democratise Nigeria must put a check on the activities of capital within its geographical space. It is only the liberal form of democracy which is the bourgeois democracy that can survive under the capitalist system. But as has been argued, liberalism cannot easily engender justice, and

thus it is more problematic in the Nigerian political space. While the capitalist mode of production and its politically correlated liberal democracy produce and sustain the spirit of competition, placing the welfare of the populace at the mercy of the invisible hands of the market, Nigerian democracy must be aimed at fostering cooperation, fraternity and the expression of the aspiration of each man while sustaining the values of the community. In other words, "Free, democratic government in capitalist states is an illusion, just one more variety of the consumer fraud that is normal in capitalist ethics. Although professing to serve all the people, it (the capitalist democracy) acts solely in the interest of the corporate and financial elite" (John and Myron 1989, p.307).

In the final analysis, it is important to state that corruption is not just a major obstacle to democracy in Nigeria but to the progress of her entire political and socio-economic development. The effects of corruption are so dire and rumbling in the gamut of the Nigerian society that it threatens the corporate existence of the Nigerian state. Nearly all the current problems of the Nigerian society can be traced to the phenomenon of corruption. At the general level, the simplest way of appreciating the malignant nature of corruption in the body of social existence is by taking a lesson from its etymology. The term "corruption" is derived from two Latin verbs "Com" meaning "together" or "with" and "Rumpere" which means "to break". Indeed, effective, efficient and phenomenal institutions all crumble at the presence of corruption; it renders institutions powerless and purposeless and dismantles social structures and ethos. And unfortunately, democracy is no exception. As Zimako (2009, p. 46) observe "corruption is indeed a malady in Nigeria's nascent democracy." In fact, because of the fragile nature of democracy – that is, its susceptibility to manipulation – corruption constitutes a major threat to the survival of democratic ethos and institutions. However, the ideology of liberalism with its emphasis on private accumulation supports corruption.

Conclusion

It is true that democracy faces a lot of troubles in Africa. But it is a fundamental truth that the West has a huge hand in it. Those who now seek to consolidate democracy in Nigeria are part of those who initially pulled the rug off the feet of democracy in Nigeria. The root of Western colonialism and imperialism are some of the reasons democracy is having a hard time in the country. This paper has shown how the liberalisation of democracy through imperialism and neocolonialism (globalisation) contributes to the problems of democracy in Nigeria by orchestrating state hegemony, corruption and poverty. It is now, therefore, more of the matter of salvaging democracy in Africa from the hands of capital and liberalism, than of introducing democracy into the continent. There is a need to reawaken the communal institutions and wipe them clean of all capitalist, colonial, imperial, neo-colonial and globalisation.

REFERENCES

Ake, Claude (1996a). Is Africa Democratizing? CASS Monograph No. 5, Ikeja: Malthouse Press Limited.

Ake, Claude (1996b). Democracy and Development in Africa, Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.

Ake, Claude (2008). The Feasibility of Democracy in Africa, Dakar: Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa.

Amieye-Ofori (2009). Democratizing without the People: the Story of Nigeria, Port Harcourt: Pearl Publishers.

Bako, Sabo (1997). "Problems of Democracy in Nigeria: Cultural Imperatives and Impediments" in Nasidi, Yakubu and Iyortange Igoil (eds.) Culture And Democracy, Zaria: Ahmadu Bello University Press.

Ekekwe, Eme (2015). Between Power, Parties and Principalities: Where are the People?: University of Port Harcourt Inaugural Lecture Series (118), Port Harcourt: University of Port Harcourt.

Fukuyama, Francis (1992). The End of History and the Last Man, New York: Avon Books.

Gofwen, R. I. (1993) Politicisation of Nigerian Military and Its Implications for the Third Republic, Jos: Salam Press Limited.

Inokoba, Preye K. (2005) "Military and Politics in Africa," in Alapiki, Henry (ed.), The Political Economy of Globalisation, Aluu: Shapee Publishers

Kothari, Rajni (2005). Rethinking Democracy, New York: Orient Longman Private Limited.

Maxey, Chester (2010). Political Philosophies, Delhi; Surgeet Publication.

Powell, Bingham (1992). Contemporary Democracies: Participation, Stability and Violence, Port Harcourt: Sunray Publications Limited.

Sabine, G. and Thorson, R. (1973). A History of Political Theory (Fourth Edition), New Delhi: IBH Publishing Company.

Zimako, O. Zimako (2009) Face of a Nation: Democracy in Nigeria, Foreign Relations and National Image.

Ascertain the Adaptation and Coping Strategies of Residents to Flood Risk in the Study Locations

Okachi T. E., A. A Obafemi and O. S Eludoyin

Centre for Disaster Risk Management and Development Studies, Faculty of Social Sciences
University of Port Harcourt

Corresponding Author: okachithelma @gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The study ascertains the adaptation and coping strategies of residents to flood risk in the study locations. Data for this research was attained from both primary and secondary sources. The primary and secondary data on the socio-environmental changes was generated from the information acquired from the respondents through the administration of the questionnaire, topographical and administrative map respectively. The sampled population was 400 and this was proportionally distributed among the selected communities involved in the entire study area. Descriptive statistics were used for data analysis. According to the findings, it is discovered that safe water for domestic uses are rarely found during the flood and sanitation is not really safe. The analysis on environmental indices has revealed that flood impacts vegetation cover in different ways ranging from abundance to diversity and richness. It is observed that flood has greatly affected the soil properties in various ways and it is an indication that soil health has been affected of which responsible for the low food availability, accessibility and consumption. There is significant variation in the flood vulnerability among the study locations. The study therefore recommended that regular flood assessment and adequate preparedness should be encouraged in areas with high and moderate vulnerability to flood.

Keyword: Adaptation, Coping Strategies, Flood Risk

Flooding is mainly defined as inundation that occurs around low-lying urban area due to a bad drainage of inner water, excess capacity of sewer network, etc. For these reason, floods have long been considered as unpredictable and unavoidable natural and humanly induced disasters (Prudhomme, et al. 2010). Floods and floodplains are dynamic in nature and non-stationary systems River channels and floodplain constantly change as a result of natural erosion, depositions, and channel migration processes. Additionally, they change because of external factors such as increased population pressure and demand for land for various human activities, desire for mitigating and managing floods and climate variability and or human- induced climate anomalies.

These factors can lead to change in flood characteristics, such as flood intensity, velocity, time of peak, risks to which people and property are exposed (Raynard, 2016). Flood is therefore driven by a variety or physical processes. One of the problem to the socio environmental dynamics is caused by absenting of sewer drainage network information under the urban surface and lacking

some monitoring facilities for observing outflow from sewer pipe line. The built infrastructure, industrial and occupational structure, labor markets, social and economic processes, wealth, social, human, and health services, power relations government, race relations, social inequality, cultural practices, the arts, religious institutions, all of which makes up the component of the social environment is also affected by the antecedent of climatic changes (Nema, 2013).

There is evident truth that a better understanding of the relationship between precipitation, surface runoff, climate change, socio-environmental dynamics and flood risk inundation is therefore important in tackling flood risks management and other water-related problems in the developing countries (DCs). The unceasing relationship that exists between precipitation input, output and storage is basal to hydrology, and has made rudimentary contributions towards the development of general flood risk management approaches. Most of the methodologies in the flood hazard literature are based on rainfall-runoff relationship, which often includes urban drainage systems and soil infiltration capacity.

However, some studies have been carried out on flood vulnerability assessment in some Nigerian areas using different approaches (Ologunorisa et al., 2009). Flooding, which has been a perennial problem in the south-south, has caused much havoes and difficulties to the inhabitants of these region, such as destruction of farmlands, destruction of buildings, lives and properties. Roads are flooded thereby making them un-motorable and so restricting the movement of people in the area; also, drastic reduction of human activities such as farming, fishing which are the major activities of the people.

Notwithstanding all coping strategies, most people in some communities in the south-south cannot cope at all and were forced to relocate their dwelling units during flooding to the camp provided by the government. Regrettably, on November 24, 2012, flood victims in Nigeria were forced out of camps, this exposed government's inadequacy in handling flood situation. The more critical and disturbing scenario is that the Niger Delta area is a fast-growing city within which a great deal of the population currently lives within areas prone to flooding. Locally, the majority of these

areas are slums which provide provisional dwelling places to poor urban residents. Adelekan (2011) argued that these residents often do not have the capacity to cope with flood hazard or the ability to quickly recover from losses. Moreover, the vast spatial distribution of such flood-prone areas in the Niger Delta increases the exposure of the human population to flooding.

Focus on structural FRM measures

In tackling flood risk in Nigeria, the main focus has been on structural measures coupled with over dependence on imported expertise and technologies. The propensity to award contracts to build more structural flood defence, canals, embankments, culverts and bridges without sufficient consideration for less costly and more sustainable, non-structural solutions is evident in the budgets of the nation. Unfortunately, these structures are usually handled by foreign contractors and experts with limited understanding of the local situation resulting in the limited knowledge transfer to indigenous experts. Such structures, which are usually copies of the solutions adopted in some distant countries and different socio-ecological settings without sufficient adaption for the local scenario, create other socio-technical problems.

Such projects lack the right mix of soft elements like advocacy, education, stakeholders' participation, and consultation that can engender a sense of project co-production and ownership. For instance, several flood canals and drainages have turned into refuse dumps few years after commissioning. Experience has shown that these capital intensive concrete structures and civil works rarely offer adequate and sustainable defense against the threats of flood. This coincides with major flooding in the United Kingdom and news of the failure of newly built multi-million pound flood defense in many parts of the country.

Cultural defiance to change

Ignorance due to low level literacy, superstitious beliefs such as rivers regarded as deities to be appeased when they overflow their banks are common among many Nigerian tribes. According to Evans (1995) flooding is the most common of all environmental hazards. In Nigeria, flood has been reported to affect and displace more people than any other disaster. It also causes more

damages to property. Etunonovbe (2011) clearly stated that at least 20 per cent of the population is at risk from one form of flooding to another. Flood disaster has been perilous to people, communities and institutions. Recently and specifically in 2012, Nigeria, especially in the Niger

Views on the Ecological Resilience to Flood

Generally, the principle of resilience refers to an individual's capacity to acquire the skills and talents necessary to adapt to and cope with stress (IFRC, 2014). The notion is concerned with people's capacity to recover from stress by reducing their vulnerability in order to advance sustainable development objectives (Frankinberger et al., 2013). Similarly, as stated by Holling (1973), ecological resilience is the capacity for people and the environment to coexist in a sustainable manner. Resilience is a system's capacity to absorb stress and recover from it (Munich, 2014). Folke (2006) indicated that a more acceptable definition of socio-ecological resilience includes the processes of reorganizing, learning and changing.

Conversely, ecological resilience is an effective framework for flood risk management because it focuses on resilience in a world that will continue to experience climate change (Adger et al., 2005). This notion of ecological resilience has developed into a sophisticated resilience theory that tackles the complicated link between man and the environment. It bridges the chasm created by the interplay of riverine and urban cities as a result of flood dangers. Managing flood danger in a resilient manner begins with the recognition of periodic floods as an inherent change in the environment that influences socioeconomic events in floodplains. Second, resilience theory suggests that periods of steady growth accompany abrupt shifts (Folke, 2006).

Methods and Material

Location and Extent

The study area, Rivers, Bayelsa, and Delta States are located in the Niger Delta Basin of southern Nigeria. The Niger Delta region of Nigeria comprises the nine states Abia, Akwa-Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo, Imo, Ondo and Rivers. The Niger Delta is located on the West African continental margin where the east trending Equatorial coast turns south towards the Equator. It is

presently inhabited by about thirty-one million people. High resident population, concentrated in the two urban cities of Port Harcourt and Warri, is attributed to the rapid growth in the oil and gas industries. The development of Niger Delta resulted from the formation of the Benue trough as a failed arm of the rift triple and South American continents and subsequent opening of the South Atlantic (Briggs, 2009). Port-Harcourt are geographically located within between latitude 4° 42'and 4° 49' North of the equator and between 6° 55' and 7° 08' East of the prime meridian. Delta State lies roughly between longitudes 5°00 and 6°45' East, and latitude 5°00 and 6° 30' North. The state presently covers a landmass of 18,050km² of which more than 60% is land. Bayelsa is found between the latitude 4° 15' North and latitude 5°22' North and also within longitude 5° 30' East and 6° 45' East Rivers, Delta and Bayelsa are States found in the south- south geopolitical zone of Nigeria, located in the Niger Delta region. Bayelsa State was created in 1996 from Rivers State, and shares boundary with Rivers State to the east and delta state to the west with the Atlantic Ocean dominating both their southern borders. They all have a total area of 10,773km², 18,050km² and 1,077km² respectively. Bayelsa State is comprised of eight Local Government Areas they are: Ekerewmor, Kolokuma/ Opokuma, Yenagoa, Nembe, Ogbia, Sagbama, Brass and Southern Ijaw. Rivers State on the other hand was created in May 1967 by Lord Lugard who acquired hectares of land from the tribal habitants of Ikwere and Okrika. The town Port Harcourt was later established by the colonial government as a port, it is 66km inland from the Atlantic on the Bonny River while Delta State is named after the delta region of the River Niger and created from the then Bendel State in 27th August 1991 by the then regime of General Ibrahim Babangida (Figure 1).

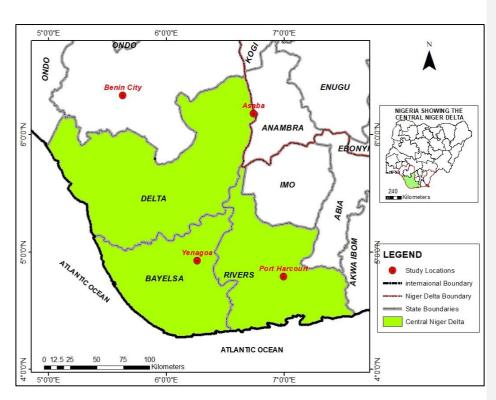


Figure 1: Bayelsa Delta and Rivers State (Study Locations)

Population of the study and Sampling Size and Technique

The targeted population for this study consists of some communities in Port Harcourt, Yenegoa and Asaba that are most ravaged or prone to annual flood. Five communities were purposively chosen in each State and the selection was based on the regular occurrence of flood intensity (Table 1). The population of 1991 of the communities selected for the study was projected to 2022 (Table 1) whereby Taro Yamane sampling size formula was used to compute the population sampled for the study. The sampled population was 400 and this was proportionally distributed among the selected communities involved in the entire study area.

Table 1: Selected Communities in the Study Area

State	Communities	Population (1991)	Projected	Proportional
			Population (2022)	Sampled
				Population
Asaba	Okwe	1546	3639	31
	Koka	1420	3343	28
	Ezensi	2600	6120	51
	Anwai	1214	2858	24
	Iselle Azawa	1762	4148	35
Port Harcourt	Rumu-Woji (Mile Axis)	1568	3691	31
	Rumu Ndukwu (Emenike Axis)	1679	3952	33
	Ayama (Okija Axis)	1014	2387	20
	Oromenezumgbu (GRA Axis)	1317	3100	26
	Orominieke (D	1007		
	line Oluobasanjo Raod)		2370	20
Yenegoa	Obele	1123	2643	22
	Amarata	957	2253	19
	Ovon	841	1980	17
	Ekeki	1047	2465	21
-				

Fangbe	1131	2662	22
Total	20226	47610	400

Results and Discussion

Adaptation and coping strategies of residents to flood risk in the study locations

Table 2 presents the coping strategies to flooding in the study area and it is shown that 68.7% agreed on using sand bags to block the river, 30.8% agreed on blocking the channels of water, 56.0% agreed on travelling or moving out from the flooded area, 58.5% agreed on building of emergency camps while 38.4% of respondents agreed on provision of medical care to flooded areas, 33.6% agreed on building of elevated wooden platform and 28.2% perceived staying together as a positive coping strategy to flooding in the area.

Table 2: Coping strategies to flooding

Coping	Yes		No		Total	
strategies	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
		(%)		(%)		(%)
Using sand bags						100.0
to block the	270	68.7	123	31.3	393	
Blocking the						100.0
channels of water	121	30.8	272	69.2	393	
Travelling or						100.0
moving out from	220	56.0	173	44.0	393	
the flooded area						
Knowing more friends	60	15.3	333	84.7	393	100.0

Renting or	70	17.8	323	82.2	393	100.0
lodging in hotels					373	
Building of						100.0
emergency	230	58.5	163	41.5	393	
camps					393	
Provision of						100.0
medical care to	151	38.4	242	61.6	393	
flooded areas					393	
Providing food						100.0
for the affected	110	28.0	283	72.0	393	
communities					393	
Building of						100.0
elevated	132	33.6	261	66.4		
wooden					202	
platform					393	
Staying together	111	28.2	282	71.8	393	100.0

The hypothesis stating that there is significant variation in the flood adaptations and coping strategies among the study locations is tested in Table 3 whereby it is shown that there is a significant variation in the flood adaptations and coping strategies (F=110.6364; p=0.0029). This shows that the capitals cities that are selected for this study had variation in their vulnerability tendencies on flood. This will definitely affect the level of development in each of the places.

Table 3: Analysis of variance in the flood adaptation and coping strategies among study locations

Sum of	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Squares				

Between Groups	5211.059	11	473.732	110.6364	0.0029
Within Groups	411.060	96	4.281875		
Total	42.119	107			

References

- Adelekan, I. O. (2011). Vulnerability assessment of an urban flood in Nigeria: Abeokuta flood 2007. *Natural Hazards*, *56*, 215-231.
- Adger, W. N., Arnell, N. W., & Tompkins, E. L. (2005). Successful adaptation to climate change across scales. *Global environmental change*, 15(2), 77-86.
- Briggs, C. (2009). Quality counts: new parameters in blood cell counting. *International journal of laboratory hematology*, 31(3), 277-297.
- Evans, W. J. (1995). What is sarcopenia?. The Journals of Gerontology Series A: Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences, 50(Special Issue), 5-8.
- Folke, C. (2006). Resilience: The emergence of a perspective for social-ecological systems analyses. *Global environmental change*, 16(3), 253-267.
- Frankenberger, K., Weiblen, T., Csik, M., & Gassmann, O. (2013). The 4I-framework of business model innovation: A structured view on process phases and challenges. *International journal of product development*, 18(3-4), 249-273.
- Holling, C. S. (1973). Resilience and stability of ecological systems. *Annual review of ecology and systematics*, 4(1), 1-23.
- Lomnitz, C. (2015). IFRC: World Disasters Report 2014: focus on Culture and Risk: International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Geneva, 2014, 265 pp, paperback, ISBN: 978-92-9139-214-8, http://www. ifrc. org/en/publications-and reports/world-disasters-report/world-disasters-report-2014/, Price: Free to download. A print edition and summaries in Spanish, French and Arabic are available.
- Munich, K. (2014). Social support for online learning: Perspectives of nursing students. *International Journal of E-Learning & Distance Education/Revue internationale du e-learning et la formation à distance*, 29(2).
- OLOGUNORISA*, T. E. (2004). An assessment of flood vulnerability zones in the Niger Delta, Nigeria. *International journal of environmental studies*, 61(1), 31-38.
- Prudhomme, C., Wilby, R. L., Crooks, S., Kay, A. L., & Reynard, N. S. (2010). Scenario-neutral approach to climate change impact studies: application to flood risk. *Journal of Hydrology*, 390(3-4), 198-209.

- Ralph-Imoniruwe, E. O. B., & Idama, M. O. (2023). Impact of Flooding in Delta State: A Sociocultural Perspective. *JALINGO JOURNAL OF SOCIAL AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES*, 4(3), 145-160.
- Raynard, M. (2016). Deconstructing complexity: Configurations of institutional complexity and structural hybridity. *Strategic Organization*, 14(4), 310-335.

Nigerian government policies and strategic response to Boko Haram (2013-2022)

NEI, GIFT MBA, EMMANUEL WONAH, KIALEE NYIAYAANA Department of Political and Administrative Studies, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract

This study examined government policies and strategic response to Boko Haram 2013-2022. The study depended on secondary sources of information. The study found that the activities of the Boko Haram in Nigeria constitute very serious challenges to Nigeria and the world as a whole. The study also found that, government policies and strategies such as granting amnesty, negotiations, deradicalization/rehabilitation policy through the "Operation Safe Corridor" of the terrorist group has done more harm than good in the north. Because, the so-called "repentant" have become informants and agents who supply arms to other members in their hideouts, and also are involved in different kinds of atrocities in the northern communities to the extent of killing their biological parents, thus the study recommends that; The Nigerian government should change its juicy strategies to handle the Boko Haram group and rather be proactive strategies in dealing with the insecurity challenges ravaging the entire country, the primordial traditional beliefs that foster terrorist membership and attacks in the north should be reappraised, like the almajiri system and basic formal education is very important in the north to change the behavioural attitudes of the youths to be meaningful for themselves, their families, and the nation at large.

1.0 Introduction

The activities of the non-state armed groups in nations of the world emanated after the Cold War (1947-1991). Non-State Armed Groups (NSAGs), constitute no universally agreed definition in the international treaties. The concept is a global phenomenon and is conceptualized by different perceptions across all fields of study (Tilmen, 2018). The nature of the groupings concerned varies widely. NSAGs may pursue economic, political, religious, or cultural interests. The interests of these groupings often change with time. Even though there have been numerous efforts to define non-state armed groups it lacks a clear definition due to the nature and categories of the armed groups (DWBs, guide.humanitarian.law.org). Non-state armed groups have constituted severe security challenges to the Nigerian state in terms of their impacts on the economic, social-political, and religious structures in the African continent and the entire world in general. Non-state Armed Groups (NSAGs), defined as "entities with distinct political and security agendas, today's armed groups are often fractured, less structured, or operating in loose coalitions and with diverse agendas. There are international rules regulating these groups" conduct but are obeyed by non-state actors (Tilmen, 2018).

The Crisis Watch Nigeria, in May 2019, and the Premium Times, October 2016 reported that African countries have about 220 non-state armed opposition and militia groups. The Global Terrorism Index (GTI), 2017 acknowledged not less than 274 terrorist armed groups operating in the world. The African continent comprises over 82% of terrorist activities across the globe (GTI, 2016). The non-state armed actors are synonymous with the Islamic fundamentalists whose intentions were to overtake the ruling government of the nations and establish its unstructured rule, constituting a great threat and challenges to the international community. Non-state armed groups could be "sizeable groups with clearly defined shared agendas which might include ethnic, religious, geographic, economic, social or political aspirations" (Onuoha, 2018). It was noted

that there had been a high increase in Boko Haram activities between May 2015 and August 2011. Non-state armed groups have risen in Nigeria from two to 20 in number within the period under review (Mayah, E., & Premium Times, October 18, 2016).

Gravingholt, & Klingebiel (2007) defined non-state armed groups as groups that challenge the state's monopoly of power by its actions" This definition sees any group that is in opposition to the state as a Non-state Armed Group whether it possesses armed weapons or not. However, there are situations where groups challenge the state's monopoly of power through their activities without the use of arms. San-Akea sees NSAGs as "any armed opposition group that uses violent means to pursue certain political objectives"

The groups are also regarded as ethnic and religious insurgents, revolutionary movements, and terrorist groups. International Relations, regard non-state armed groups (NSAGs), as individuals or groups that are wholly or partly independent of the state and which threaten or use violence to achieve their goals which are of different categories (Bartolomei, J. 2004). The definition above emphasizes that the armed groups are in opposition to the state monopoly and constitute a threat to the system. Not all non-state armed groups engage in violent opposition with the state as earlier stated.

Keith, & Milliken, (2009) opined that non-state armed groups "have been traditionally limited to those actors with a political agenda that poses a specific threat to the state and undermines its ability to claim a monopoly over the legitimate use of force within its territory". The scholars see the non-state armed groups with the ideology of the instrumentalists. It is a belief system of using political, ethnic, and religious solidarity to gain control over a constituted government authority. Non-State Armed Groups are also defined as the ability of an armed actor to coerce or co-opt people to abide by a set of rules in a specific urban area, which is a relational concept profoundly influenced by the urban space (A TWO Journal, Vol 5, 2020).

United Nations and other international associates view the non-state armed groups as having different motives. Therefore, Non-state Armed Groups (NSAGs) are defined holistically to capture both "organizations that make use of violence to pursue goals as diverse as political power, economic return, social strife, religious mobilization, terrorism, etc. The UN opines Non-state Armed Groups "include organizations whose structure, goals and means are not yet well-defined and are currently referred to by using some of the following and often overlapping terms such as paramilitaries, criminal networks, rebels, and insurgents' groups, vigilante groups, drug cartels, mafias, youth gangs, warlords, pirates, guerrillas, urban gangs, criminal syndicates, terrorist groups and private security companies (UNSSC, Annex B and E 2014). Today's non-state armed groups are often fractured, less structured, or operating in loose coalitions and with diverse agendas. The non-state armed groups are anti-compliance to any international rules regulating wars or violent conflicts. Dingji, M K (2020) has viewed NSAGs as having "no universal definition and interpretation" because NSAGs have diverse networks and channels through which they fund their operations and apply their strategies against innocent civilians, government officials, and the military.

Non-state Armed Groups are bodies that "persistently challenge the state's legitimate monopoly of power" (GDI, 2006). NSAGs are often seen and explained internationally as terrorists to the government they fight. Non-state armed groups vary according to their categories, capabilities and modes of operations. Though their conception includes insurgents, militias, and terrorists or more, some are fostered by the government or non-governmental organizations. These groups

could constitute threats to even the government or citizens of the state. While some like the vigilantes or civilian joint task forces who are recruited by voluntary appointment assist the government in communities to protect the citizenry. However, it was found that in the course of duties and discharge of roles, these same bodies turn up to be unfriendly and non-protective to government and the civilians (Campbell & Banner, 2000; Carey, et al 2012).

Nei A, E. (2016) conducted a study on "Non-state Armed Groups as a Threat to Global Security" What Threat, Whose Security? The study shows that the primary aim of the non-state armed groups is mostly to pose fear and threat to the armless civilian population, rather than focusing on the military agents of the states. It sees the Islamic State (IS) as widely known, as a transnational/global security threat and has increased tremendously since the 9/11 terrorism operation led by Osama bin Ladin in Washington DC, US in 2001.

The study used data on 232 armed groups in twenty-three Asian countries from 1985 to 2014. The research reveals how in August 2014, the Islamic State (IS) embarked on a genocidal massacre of the Yazidi religious minority in Iraq, killing adult males, enslaving and raping women and girl children, and also forcibly converting survivors. The humanitarian havoc inflicted on the Yazidis provoked the US to further action by using airstrikes and its military.

The study is related to this study because both studies describe the devastating and horrible threats posed by non-state armed groups either in Nigeria or across the globe. While Nei researched global security reviewing the massacre of the Yazidis. Both argued that non-state armed groups are synonymous with the Islamic religion extremists. How civilians, adult males, women, girls, and children have been killed and displaced. Pointing out the fact that the Islamic religion involves the use of threats and forceful acts to convert people to become its members. This is the scenario of the situation of Nigerian Christians in the northern part of Nigeria under threat of becoming Muslims or die.

Boko Haram as the name implies in the local Hausa language, means "Western or non-Islamic education forbidden or a sin". In Arabic, it is officially translated as (Jama'atu Ahlis-Sunnah Lidda'awati Wal Jihad), known to the groups "People Committed to the Propagation of the Prophet's Teachings and Jihad" (Adesoji,2010) To actualize these ideological views, it stands to forbid participation in Nigeria's political System except in adherence to the Islamic rules based on Sharia laws (Danjibo, 2009; NCTC, Counter Terrorism Guide; BBC Africa, November 2016, BBC News, 4 March 2015. Retrieved 16 September 2020; CNN Editorial Research, Updated Monday, September 2020).

Ustaz Mohammed Yusuf was the founder of the Islamic sect called Boko Haram in Maiduguri, Borno State in 2002. Yusuf was born on 29 January 1970 and a native of Girgir village, Jalasko, Yobe State, Nigeria. He became involved in religious actions in the early 1990s when he joined the Islamic Movement of Nigeria (IMN) coordinated by the late Ibrahim el-Zakzakky, who was a Shiite. Because he perceived that the movement was led by Shiia Muslims, he broke up and became a member of the Jamaatul Tajdid Islam (JTI) domicile in Borno State. The quest to grow more in Islamic studies made him finally move to another Islamic organization known as Ahlulsunna wal'jama'ah hijra or Shabaab. His influence in the group made him become the leader after Mallam Abubakar Lawan in 2002 and later went on to further studies at the University of Medina.

It was at this period, Yusuf being at the helm of affairs, that the doctrine of the group changed. Condemning Western education as being a sin to Islamic religion and should be forbidden by Muslims. He set up a school and an Islamic religious complex in the northern part of Borno State. He gathered less privileged Muslim families in Nigeria and extended to other nearby nations which he used as members of the group. His purpose was to use the proceeds of the school to unseat Muslim religious leaders he assumed compromising leadership not based on the foundations of Islam and to eventually overthrow the legitimate government of the country. The objective of the group was to create a more perfect society without corruption by the Western civilization. Whoever fails to embrace their ideology of Islamic faith is an infidel. They found the Nigerian state as a failed nation due to the inability of the state to handle its social problems. These include religious intolerance, massive illiteracy, abject poverty, unemployment, etc. But Yusuf died while in Police custody on July 30, 2009, alleged to be as a result of bullet wounds (Abeeb, 2013).

After he died in 2009, Abubakar Shekau became the leader of Boko Haram. This further led the group to announce their allegiance to ISIS on March 15, 2015. Thereafter, Abu Musab al-Barnawi, the son of the late Mohammed Yusuf became the ISIS-appointed leader in Nigeria for its new faction, Islamic State West Africa Province [ISWAP] on 2 August 2016. The declaration was made by the leader of ISIS, Abu Bakr al-Baghdadi, also known by his followers as Caliph Ibrahim (BBC News, March 7, 2015).

The continuous medieval lawlessness approaches of the nonstate armed groups especially Boko Haram have taken the Nigerian state back to the unenlightened era, which Thomas Hobbes, sees as the "State of Nature". A condition whereby, human lives were regarded as being brutal, anarchy, war, hostile, self-centered, short, and self-defensive. The situation according to Chinua Achebe, in his book entitled "Things Fall Apart, the Centre Cannot Hold", is the practical state of northern Nigeria in recent times. The above happenings perpetuated by Boko Haram have created huge losses and a complete decline in the socioeconomic development of northern Nigeria despite the several claims by the government that Boko Haram has been technically defeated, the more they increase in numbers and in atrocious activities, which have impacted negatively on the different segments of the economy in northern Nigeria (Vanguard, 12 March 2020). This paper focuses on "Government Policies and Strategies on Boko Haram Non-State Armed Group in Nigeria 2013-2023.

2.0 Governments' Policies and Strategies on Boko Haram

2.1 President Goodluck Jonathan's Regimes' strategies (2013-2015)

President Goodluck Jonathan's battle with Boko Haram started from his swearing-in as the new President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria on May 29, 2011, when the Boko Haram terrorist group bombed and killed 15 people in Abuja in revolt of the non-Muslim President. We will ask ourselves, for how long will this tribal sentiment continue in the nation of over 250 million persons having about 371 tribal groups (Vanguard News, May 10, 2017)?

President Jonathan went into several negotiations with the Boko Haram group and granted them amnesty on October 2, 2013. But the leader of Boko Haram, Shekau Abubakar, mocked the Nigeria Government at the time and rejected the amnesty offer saying "Surprising, the Nigerian government is talking about granting us amnesty". What wrong have we done? On the contrary, he said, it was them that should opt for grant for pardon" (theafricareport.com, August 31, 2021). President Jonathan did not end there at this point, rather he kept on and lost millions of dollars from the federal pulse negotiating with people posing as leaders of the Boko Haram militant group but were not. When there was no headway, the President ended up saying "Boko Haram has no

face like the Niger Delta Militants that they knew those to deal with" [Newsweek.com, Jan. 12, 2016].

The Northern elders under the aegis of the Arewa Elders Forum (AEF) supported negotiations and amnesty from the Federal Government. Telling the government to refrain from using foreign troops to free the abducted Chibok schoolgirls, still, the amnesty program given to the Boko Haram group by President Goodluck's government was rejected by the then leader of Boko Haram Shekau Abubakar (Daily Independent, May 13, 2014; AllAfrica, Leadership, Abuja, April 17, 2012; Premium Times, April 4, 2013; Fr. Atta Barikindo, Peace Insight, October 2013).

During President Jonathan's regime, Boko Haram preferred five Representatives to negotiate with Boko Haram on behalf of the Nigerian Government. President Muhammadu Buhari was one of those accepted by the Boko Haram terrorist groups to negotiate on their behalf. These 5 (five) persons according to the Nations News, November 2, 2012, were the former Head of State and the current President of Nigeria, Muhammadu Buhari, Dr Shettima Ali Monguno, Senator Bukar Abba Ibrahim, Ambassador Gaji Galtimari, Mrs. Aisha Alkali Wakil and her husband Alkali Wakil. At a time, in the course of the negotiation, the Boko Haram sect officially named the President of the Supreme Council for Sharia in Nigeria, Sheik Ahmed Datti as its lead negotiator, and President Jonathan had secret meetings with Dr. Datti to end the insurgency that has killed a lot of northern Nigeria citizens, displaced millions and also killed several security agents posted to the north to maintain law and order at the regions.

In The Daily Post Nigeria, dated November 2, 2012, it was reported contrary to the news according to National Secretary of the Congress for Progressive Change (CPC), Engr Buba Galadima, who refuted knowledge of this nomination. But he revealed that Buhari, the 2011 presidential candidate of the CPC, was an elder statesman and a patriotic Nigerian, he will continue to pray until peace and tranquillity are returned to Nigeria. Therefore, Nigerians expected the case of insecurity to be over by now having gotten close contact with Boko Haram and much more, appointed by them to stand for them in the Federal Government's Negotiation Team (This Day, Lagos, November 5, 2012).

In response to the brutal killings of innocent Nigerians in northern Nigeria, President Jonathan ordered a state of emergency in three states, including Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa on May 14, 2013. This emanated the creation of a Multinational Joint Task Force [MJTF], where 10,000 troops from Chad, Cameroon, Nigeria, and the Niger Republic were deployed to track down Boko Haram members. This was a follow-up of their rejection to negotiate and continued the killing of innocent Nigerians and the neighbouring nations. This measure made the group retreat for a while, only to reinforce with different terror strategies in 2014 before the 2015 Presidential elections (ICG, 7 July 2020).

Also, despite the killings advancement made by the group over the Nigerian citizens and the military, President Jonathan granted amnesty offer to members of Boko Haram and in addition, the building of 400 (four hundred) Almajiri Integrated Model Schools [AIMS] in the northern part of Nigeria which has been abandoned after his tenure [Daily Trust, November 27, 2017; REMOP, February 19, 2019; Educeleb.com, November 4, 2019].

President Goodluck Jonathan could not win the 2015 presidential elections because of the increasing insecurity situation coupled with the Northern bloc conspiracy theory against his reelection. But President Goodluck Jonathan affirmed that his reasons for spending 15 billion Naira to build 165 Almajiri modern schools programme in the north while he was in office were

to infuse Western education curriculum into Islamic education to make the pupils employable and to check incessant crisis and insecurity. We can recall that the former Boko Haram leader, Shekau Abubakar, was an almajiri street boy. He also formed his group from the Almajiri street gangs who left their homes to beg on the streets (The Guardian, October 5, 2019). According to Falmata, Shekau, the mother of Boko Haram Leader, Shekau Abubakar, that he left the village as a boy to continue his Islamic education in Maiduguri, a centre of religious studies for hundreds of years. She attested that Shekau was an almajiri, which was a generational ethnic tradition. The almajiri are sent off by their parents to study the Quran in schools locally known as a "tsangaya", where a teacher coaches the masses of Muslim youths, sometimes hundreds of male children to memorize the entire Quran.

Almajirai begs on the streets for food, and it is believed that Shekau did the same. At some point in his studies, Shekau, according to his mother, met Mohammed Yusuf, the founder of Boko Haram, who condemned Western education as sinful. According to Falmata, she said her son was brainwashed:

"Yes, he's my son and every mother loves her son, but we have different characters," she said. "He brought a lot of problems to many people. Where can I meet him to tell him that these things he is doing are very bad? He brought many problems to many people, but I am praying for God to show him the good way. "He just took his character and ran away; it is not the character I gave him. I don't know what this type of behaviour is, it's only God who knows" (Sahara Reporters, New York, June 15, 2018).

These are the words of the biological mother of Shekau, the late Boko Haram leader.

The cultural belief system that allows children to be on the street without their parents brought up whereby being exposed to all kinds of societal vices like the almajiry's system in the northern part of Nigeria is another major factor in having youths ready to join any group.

In response to the brutal killings of innocent Nigerians in the northeast and Middle Belt, President Jonathan ordered a state of emergency in three states, which include Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa on May 14, 2013. This emanated the creation of a Multinational Joint Task Force (MJTF), where 10,000 troops from Chad, Cameroon, Nigeria, and Niger were thrown in to track down Boko Haram members. This measure made the group retreat for a while, only to reinforce with different terror strategies in 2014 before the 2015 Presidential elections (ICG, July 7, 2020]. Also, despite the killings advancement made by the group over the Nigerian citizens and the military, President Jonathan granted amnesty offer to members of Boko Haram and in addition, the building of 400 (four hundred) Almajiri Integrated Model Schools (AIMS) in the northern part of Nigeria which has been abandoned after his tenure (Daily Trust, November 27, 2017; REMOP, February 19, 2019; Educeleb.com, November 4, 2019).

President Goodluck Jonathan could not win the 2015 presidential elections because of the uprising insecurity coupled with the Northern bloc conspiracy theory against his reelection. Before the election, which was the first that saw the incumbent president losing to an opponent, APC leaders capitalized on many of the failures of the PDP-led government of President Goodluck Jonathan.

But he made a statement "that his victory is not worth the single blood of any Nigeria" so he consented to the defeat. This singular act has brought him to the table of an international figure of our time. The study looked at how President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan and President Mohammadu Buhari handled the number one challenging issue in the country which is insecurity amidst abject poverty, illiteracy, hunger, environmental crisis, etc.

The insurgent groups were very much available and became vulnerable to the northern politicians at the time. Insecurity was a major part of the campaigns that led to the defeat of former President Goodluck Jonathan in 2015 by Muhammadu Buhari. However, earlier in 2012, Boko Haram had named the same Buhari, then Presidential candidate of Congress for Progressive Change, an opposition party, as one of their mediators. After his victory in 2015, Buhari vowed to crush the insurgency. To date, attacks continue, and those who profess the Christian faith predominantly remain targets. Many have been abducted given the option of converting to Islam or face execution.

2.2 President Mohammadu Buhari Regime strategies (2015-2023)

It can be recalled that President Mohammadu Buhari became the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria after contesting the election three consecutive times. President Buhari was before his election a Nigerian military Head of State from 1984 to 1985 when he was overthrown by Major Gen. Ibrahim B. Babangida. In 2003, 2007, and 2011 Buhari ran unsuccessfully to become the President of Nigeria. On March 28, 2015, however, he defeated the incumbent President, Goodluck Jonathan, and was inaugurated into the nation's highest political office on May 29, 2015. On February 23, 2019, he was re-elected for the second tenure as the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. President Mohammadu Buhari was not ignorant of the serious threat of security challenges faced by the Nigerian government. In his campaign promises and before he became the President of the country, he was a senior statesman on the affairs of security matters bedeviling the nation, between Boko Haram and the Nigeria Government, coupled with his position, especially as a Major General in the military. This gave him an edge during his election campaign. Based on the above activities and policy implementations of his regime to combat insurgency and his assertions to ending terrorism in the northern part of Nigeria (Vanguard News)

During his political campaign, he used religious bigotry and ethnicity as potent tools for mobilizing the northerners, especially the youths. This brings to mind the 62 2015 election campaign promises of Muhammadu Buhari and APC, which made Buhari of the APC defeat incumbent President Jonathan and was sworn in, as the Nigeria's 15th President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The 62-point election campaign promises which were published by The Cable Nigeria on January 17, 2019, published failed campaign promises of the immediate past President Buhari were aimed principally at forestalling Boko Haram any kind of uprising of similar groups from the roots.

Among the campaign promises of President Buhari was that Boko Haram would be defeated in three months of his office but the reverse was the case in the sense that he came up in his two weeks in office and stopped the Ukrainian mercenaries hired by President Goodluck Jonathan to combat Boko Haram. Mohammed Mamu, former Chief of Administration of the Nigerian Air Force, says the office of the National Security Adviser under former President Goodluck Jonathan hired Ukrainian mercenaries to fight Boko Haram due to the huge loss of lives of Nigerians. This made the government push back the insurgents during the third quarter of President Jonathan in 2014. But immediately after President Buhari took over the office within two weeks of his tenure,

he disengaged the foreign fighters. Mamu claimed that the government mercenary pilots carry out air raids on Boko Haram targets in the Sambisa Forest. Mamu said the mercenaries were brought into the country to fly MI35P helicopters. Mamu said the introduction of the mercenaries had a "devastating effect" on the Boko Haram insurgency, but that one of the "soldiers of fortune" died in an air crash. "Sadly too, nearly three months after, one of the Ukrainian fighter pilots, Captain Chup Vasyl crashed while in a night combat and died. In that regard, the sum of \$100,000 was wired to the family of late Cpt Vasyl," in Ukrainian he said. The services of South African mercenaries to fight Boko Haram were also employed by the previous administration of President Goodluck Jonathan but this was also refuted by the present administration of Present Buhari, according to the Senior Special Adviser on Media and Publicity to the President, Garba Shehu who told the Anadolu Agency, that the government is not bringing in mercenaries into the country to fight Boko Haram. He added that the mercenaries came with the previous government and they have likewise, gone with them (ICIR, October 22, 2015).

The reason could be the government of President Buhari had wanted to continue the dialogue with the Boko Haram group. The idea was also suggested by the Northern elders and other Northern organizations like the Arewa group. President Buhari went into several dialogue and negotiations with Boko Haram which brought about the release of 82 Chibok Schoolgirls freed in exchange for five Boko Haram commanders (The Guardian.com, May 7, 2017). Out of the 276 abducted Chibok schoolgirls, 57 girls escaped in 2014 while 107 girls were released in 2018. Three girls were recovered in 2019, then two in 2021, and 9 girls were rescued in 2022, bringing it to a total of 178 girls out of captivity and 98 remaining in the captivity of Boko Haram. Though some have escaped in 2023 (https://Saharareporters.com>98-kid, September 11, 2022).

The Buhari government mentioned about 100 high-risk sponsors of Boko Haram linked to 10 countries of the world, according to Sahara reporters release on November 28, 2022, but up till this day, none of them has been brought to book. This was an in-depth analysis of 18 months by the Nigerian Financial Intelligence Unit (NFIU), on the financiers of the Boko Haram group. 48 of these financiers were arrested to prosecution. Again, the Presidential spokesman, Garba Shehu said on March 2021 that the government has also arrested operators of 400 allegedly funding Boko Haram insurgency in the country by transferring money to the terrorists. Nigerians since then have been requesting the Buhari government to disclose the identities of the suspects, but the request has been ignored by the President. Shehu's assistant, Femi Adesina replied that President Buhari's government was not interested in naming and shaming the financiers of terrorism but in prosecuting them. Even the Attorney-General of the Federation and Minister of Justice, Abubakar Malami (SAN), also said that "the government would not name and shame the suspected financiers of terrorism in Nigeria before their trial". He further states that "shaming and naming in the Nigerian context must be rooted in constitutionalism, striking the balance between constitutional presumption and innocence, evidential proof of reasonable ground for suspicion in making disclosures associated with terrorism funding and financing. In other words, "they are within the context of the Nigerian law, judicial functions which commence with the arraignment and terminate with convictions". The Minister claimed that 285 suspects had been charged before the Federal High Court, but the Sahara Reporters found that only 40 were being prosecuted. What has been the outcome after the report? It has been kept under cooler by the government (Sahara Reporters, November 28, 2022). In addition to the above, Minister of Information and Culture, Lai Mohammed disclosed at a press briefing in Abuja that the Nigerian Financial Intelligence Unit (NFIU) has compiled a list of 96 financiers of terrorism in Nigeria as well as 424 associates and supporters of the financiers. This was followed by the unveiling of 123 companies and 33 bureaus de change linked with terrorism in Nigeria (ICIR, February 3, 2022; The Punch, February 3, 2022).

2.2.1 President Buhari's Policy on Deradicalization, Rehabilitation, and Reintegration

of Repentant Boko Haram Members with Operation Safe Corridor Team

President Mohammadu Buhari's policy of amnesty to repentant Boko Haram members had successfully trained about 2,167 who graduated from Operation Safe Corridor's Deradicalization, Rehabilitation, and Reintegration (DRR) program. Meanwhile, the International Centre for Investigative Reporting (ICIR) reported that more than 83,000 insurgents have surrendered to the Nigerian Army; Operation Safe Corridor Division was launched by the Nigerian government in March 2016. The purpose of the program according to Mr Audu Ayuba, the Assistant Director of Planning, Research, and Strategy (PRS), was to prevent violent extremism, to disengage, disassociate, and rather reintegrate and reconcile violate conflict groups

Federal Government introduced Operation Safe Corridor as a non-kinetic multi-agency approach in support of military actions since 2015 to give amnesty to repentant members of Boko Haram. Killers in the north are pampered, they are dressed in white clothes, carried in new games of chess vehicles, and even paid salaries. They are hardly arrested, and if arrested, do not stay in detention but are released by order from above. The military hands are tight to combat the Boko Haram terrorists because of the government structure put in place to restrict decisive attacks on them. Boko Haram terrorist group has done in their various communities is unimaginable compared to the soft-landing treatment they received from the government. But despite the reintegration of ex-Boko Haram terrorists into society, Governors of North-Eastern States in Nigeria visited the President and told him that the group was recruiting more members in the region. Many of them have gone back to join the groups they left. Some have entered into more criminal groups like armed robbery, kidnapping, and abduction while some have even killed their parents as they returned to society making the environment unsafe for the members of the communities where they reside (Sahara Reporters New York, August 10, 2020).

3. Findings

In the course of this research, we arrived at the following findings:

The study found that the Nigerian two immediate past Presidents, Goodluck Ebele Jonathan and Mohammadu Buhari tried using some notable violent conflict policies and approaches and as opined by Thomas-Kilmann, the "Conflict Mode Instrument" (TKI) on the Boko Haram insecurity threats from 2013 to 2023 such as; the negotiation/collaboration, compromising, accommodating approaches, yet the battles with Boko Haram terrorist group and its affiliates in northern Nigeria kept on increasing and displaying red alerts of incumbent danger to the Nigeria state. The study also found that the appeals for negotiation with the terrorists suggested by some international communities, including some northern organizations and elders to the Nigerian government had not yielded favourable results in ending the menace of terrorist attacks in northern Nigeria.

President Goodluck Jonathan's amnesty programme and the 15 billion naira utilized for 165 almajiri modern school programme were sabotaged in the north; not only by the Boko Haram terrorist group but also by the northern political elites, religious clerics, and other northern organizations who formed it to be a Western drive to shift the attention of the northern youths from Islamic foundation. During his political campaign, the immediate past President Buhari used the insecurity situation as a yardstick to gain popularity and as an edge to defeat President Goodluck Jonathan, especially in the north. He used religious bigotry and ethnicity as potent tools for mobilizing the northerners, especially the youths. The insurgent groups were very much available and became vulnerable as well as being instruments in the hands of the northern politicians. This was fueled by the almajiri northern cultural belief system that allows children to be on the street without their proper parental training. President Mohammadu Buhari's policy of amnesty to repentant Boko Haram members successfully trained but was not sustainable as many of them had gone back to join the groups they left; some have entered into more criminal groups like armed robbery, kidnapping, and abduction while some have even killed their parents as they returned to society making the environment unsafe for the members of the communities where they resided.

4. Recommendations

The ineffectiveness of the Nigerian Government in decisively tackling insecurity challenges in northern Nigeria by formulating and implementing policies and strategies that will reduce the activities of Boko Haram were the main cause of the incessant attacks of Boko Haram in northern Nigeria. Its deradicalization/rehabilitation policy through the "Operation Safe Corridor" of the terrorist group has done more harm than good in the north because; the so-called "repentant" have become informants and agents who supply arms to other members in their hideouts, and also are involved in different kinds of atrocities in the northern communities to the extent of killing their biological parents. The study recommends that; the Nigerian government should change its juicy strategies to handle the Boko Haram group and rather be proactive in dealing with the insecurity challenges ravaging the entire country, the primordial traditional beliefs that foster terrorist membership and attacks in the north should be reappraised, like the almajiri system and basic formal education is very important in the north to change the behavioural attitudes of the youths to be meaningful for themselves, their families, and the nation at large.

5. Conclusion

The study concluded that the activities of the Boko Haram in Nigeria constitutes serious challenges to Nigeria and the world as a whole. The Nigerian government should rise to its responsibility by making appropriate policies and taking decisive strategies to end the menace of Boko Haram, including its affiliation; as regards religious ties as coordinated and targeted population attacks do not regard any religion. Also, ancient traditional belief systems that have no positive impact on the overall developmental interest of the Nigerians should be discouraged and abolished.

References

Adesoji, A.O. (2010). The Boko Haram Uprising and Islamic Revivalism in Nigeria. The Africa Spectrum Journal. Vol 45, P 2.

All Africa, Leadership (2012). Nigeria: Boko Haram Imposes Sharia in Niger State, tells Muslims and Christians that 12-year- Nigeria: Northern Elders Urge FG to Resume Talks with Boko Haram.

- BBC News (2015). IS Welcomes Boko Haram Allegiance: A 30 Minutes Tape delivered by IS Spokesman, Mohammed al-Adnani. March 12, 2015. Retrieved September 16, 2020.
- Campbell John (2021). Nigerian President Buhari Shuffles Military Service Chiefs. Council of Foreign Relations by February 2, 2021.
- BBC News World Africa (2016) . Fact-Check: Buhari Independence Day. . October 2, 2016.
- BBC News (2020). Militant Islamists "Behead More Than 50" in Mozambique.
- CNN Editorial Research (2020). Boko Haram Fast Facts: Boko Haram Has Abducted Over 1000 Children, Killed More Than 2,000 Teachers. By Morgan Winsor, April 14, 2018.
- Daily Independent, May 13, 2014;
- Daily Trust, November 27, 2017; Boko Haram Demands \$500,000 to Free 5 Abducted Aid Workers. Daily Trust, Olatunji Omirin, Maiduguri, Retrieved June 30, 2020; Daily Trust, July 25, 2020.
- Danjibo, N.D. (2010). Islamic Fundamentalism and Sectarian Violence: The Maitatsine and Boko Haram Crises in Northern Nigeria.
- Dingji Maza (2020). Challenges of Combating Terrorist Financing in the Lake Chad Region: A case of Boko Haram.
- Graivingholt et al (2007). Development Cooperation and Non-state armed groups.
- Global Terrorism Index (2016). Measuring and Understanding the Impact of Terrorism: Institute of Economics.
- International Crisis Group (2020). How the Islamic State Rose, Fell, and Could Rise Again
- International Crisis Groups (2020). What Role of the Multinational Joint Task Force in Fighting Boko Haram?
- International Centre for Investigative Reporting (2015). 386 Soldiers Resigned from the Nigerian Army in One Year. https://www.icirnigeria.org, March 3, 2015
- International Centre for Investigative Reporting (2022); Boko Haram: FG Uncovers 96 Sponsors Bankole Abe, February 3, 2022.
- Keith Krause and Jennifer Milliken (2009). Introduction: The Challenge of Non-State Armed Groups. Published Online. August 12, 2009.
- Mayah, E., & Premium Times, October 18, 2016).
- Nations News, November 2, 2012 Neil A Englehart (2016) Non-state Armed Groups as a Threat to Global Security: What Threat, Whose Security? Oxford Journal of Global Security Studies, Research Innovation, Bowling Green State University. New States, University of Oxford, 1965–70.
- Onuaha F and Chris A. M. Kwaja (2018). Non-State Armed Groups in North East
 Nigeria: Challenges and Opportunities for Security Sector Governance. Pub.
 CLEEN Foundation, Abuja Office, Abuja Nigeria.
- Peace Insight (2013). Peace Education: Definition, Approaches, and Future Directions. Ian
 Harris, UNESCO EOLSS Sample Chapters. Peace Literature and Art Vol 1
- Premium Times, April 4, 2013;
- Premium Times (2016). Emir Sanusi Wants Mosques Converted to Primary Schools. Premium Times, 7 February, (2017).
- Sahara Reporters (2020). Insecurity: Pastors, Families in Southern Kaduna Paid N420 million in Ransom in 2019, Says SOKAPU President. Saharareporters.com 23 September 2020.
- Sahara Reporters (2022). Over 500 'Repentant' Boko Haram Terrorists Graduate From Rehabilitation Camp In Gombe, Sent Back To Home Communities, Sahara Reporters, New York News, March 14, 2022.
- The Daily Post November 3, 2012. Boko Haram Did Not Nominate Me as Their Mediator Buhari.

- The Guardian (2019). Promise, Potential and Perdition of Almajiri Schols in Northern Nigeria., The Guardian, 28 August 2019 by Iyabo Lawal.
- The Guardian.com, May 7, 2017). Boko Haram Kept one Dapchi Girl who Refused to Deny Her Christianity. The Guardian News, March 24, 2017.The Nations Nigeria (2012).

 Boko Haram Picks Buhari to Moderate Talks with Government. The Nations Nigeria, March 14, 2012.
- The Punch, February 3, 2022). Borno Resettles 560 Boko Haram Victims. Kayode Idowu, Maiduguri, August 13, 2022.
- This Day (2012). 618 Schools Shut in Northern States Over Abduction Scare. www.thisdaylive.com, March 15, 2012
- TWQ Journal (2020). Third World Thematics: Decolonising Curricula and Pedagogy in Higher Education. A TWQ Journal, Volume 5, Issue 1-2 (2020).
- Vanguard News (2017). Full list of all 371 Tribes in Nigeria, states where they originate Vanguard News (2020). Boko Haram: Buratai 'Relocated Fully to the North East' Army. The Vanguard News, April 11, 2020 by Rasheed Sobowale.

Exploring Contagion Hotspots and Coldspots For Epidemic Risk Management in Port Harcourt

By

OKAGBARE, UFUOMA VIOLET

B.Sc (UNIPORT) M.Sc (UNIPORT) G2017/Ph.D/GEM/FT/020

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES UNIVERSITY OF PORT HARCORT

Abstract

This study examines the spatial pattern of contagion across Port Harcourt. By integrating Geographic Information System (GIS) data, satellite remote sensing, and sophisticated spatial analysis techniques, the research identifies contagion hotspots and coldspots within the city, shedding light on areas of heightened disease transmission risk. The hotspot analysis reveals specific areas of elevated contagion risk, including Woji, Trans Amadi, Diobu, Dline Rumuomasi, and Rumuowaji, while coldspot areas like Eneka, Rumuoqonoma, Mgbuoba, the city center, Rumuola, and Mgbuosimiri exhibit lower contagion risk. Findings suggest that Port Harcourt exhibits distinct patterns of contagion transmission, influenced by factors like transportation networks, socio-economic activities, and population density. The study underscores the importance of data-driven decision-making, emphasizing the need for comprehensive epidemic response strategies, public awareness campaigns, and urban development. This research also enhances Port Harcourt's contagion preparedness while also setting a precedent for urban centers seeking to create a safe environments for their residents.

Keywords: Contagion Risk, Epidemic Management, Geographic Information System.

Introduction

The spatial expansion of epidemics constitutes a critical feature, influenced by the interplay of epidemic mechanisms, human mobility, and control strategies (Gross et al., 2020). The global reach of the COVID-19 pandemic serves as a stark illustration, with confirmed cases reported on all continents. In Africa, the initial case emerged in Egypt on February 14, 2020, primarily facilitated by extensive travel connections with China, Africa's prominent trade partner. While measures have been instituted to curtail case importation from China (Gilbert et al., 2020), the efficacy of controlling local transmission hinges on the rigorous implementation of detection, prevention, and control measures, encompassing heightened surveillance, swift identification of suspected cases, patient isolation, rapid diagnosis, contact tracing, and follow-up (Gilbert et al.,

2020). Despite the urgency of the situation, there remains a dearth of studies examining the spatial spread of the COVID-19 pandemic within Nigeria. Nonetheless, comprehending this geographical diffusion is pivotal for predicting localized outbreaks and shaping public health policies.

The concept of crowding, a condition where population density exceeds available space, has been a recurring concern, particularly concerning its repercussions on public health, including the transmission of infectious diseases. Whether temporary, as in crowded public areas like trains and buses, or long-term, as in densely populated urban informal settlements, worker dormitories, and prisons, crowding intensifies the risk of pathogen exposure and transmission. In long-term crowding scenarios, aggravated by residents' poor health and nutrition, limited access to healthcare, and inadequate water, sanitation, and hygiene services, the risk of transmission becomes even more pronounced.

Historically, pandemics have acted as catalysts for urban revitalization and redevelopment. For instance, the second plague pandemic, which began in 1347 and decimated a substantial portion of Europe's population, prompted the introduction of radical urban improvements during the Renaissance era. Cholera epidemics in 1832 and 1848 in Paris led to the appointment of Georges-Eugène Haussmann, who initiated sweeping transformations, replacing congested quarters with expansive boulevards, erecting iconic "Haussmann buildings," and establishing critical infrastructure, including clean water and sanitation. These developments drastically altered the urban landscape, underscoring the importance of addressing overcrowding and public health in cities.

The COVID-19 pandemic has fundamentally reshaped the urban fabric by making affluent residents acutely aware of their interdependence with those residing in informal settlements, who are particularly vulnerable to disease transmission. This crisis has rekindled interest in urban vulnerability to pandemics, as various factors such as climate change and encroachment into natural wildlife habitats are projected to increase the frequency of pandemics. Consequently, a deeper understanding of pandemic patterns and dynamics, their impact on cities, and the necessary preparations, responses, and adaptations is imperative. The ongoing pandemic presents an unparalleled opportunity to explore how cities can fortify their resilience in the face of pandemics and mitigate their consequences.

Port Harcourt City, a bustling urban center nestled in the heart of Nigeria, has long been a focal point of economic and social activity (Echendu, 2020). With its rapidly growing population and diverse landscape, the city's dynamics are a complex interplay of cultures, commerce, and communities. Amidst this intricacy, the study of contagion patterns takes on a crucial role in understanding the spatial spread of various phenomena, particularly in the context of health and disease. In this article, we delve into the Spatial Pattern of Contagion Index in Port Harcourt City, shedding light on the geographical distribution of contagion factors and their implications for public health and urban planning. By examining the spatial patterns of contagion, we aim to provide valuable insights that can guide policymakers, healthcare professionals, and researchers in their efforts to ensure the well-being of the city's residents and the sustainable development of this vibrant metropolis.

In a study conducted by Mo et al. (2021), the researchers introduced a time-varying weighted PT encounter network to model the transmission of infectious diseases through public transportation systems. They considered social activity contacts at local and global levels and used the

epidemiological characteristics of COVID-19 as a case study. Smart card data from Singapore was employed to illustrate the model at the metropolitan level. They developed a scalable and lightweight theoretical framework that could capture time-varying and diverse network structures, making it feasible to address the issue at the population level with low computational costs. Various control policies from both public health and transportation perspectives were evaluated. The study found that individual preventive behavior is highly effective in controlling epidemic spread. From the transportation angle, while the partial closure of bus routes can slow down the spread of diseases, it may not fully contain them. It's important to note that some model parameters relied on the authors' assumptions, which could affect result credibility. The study recommended the identification of "influential passengers" using smart card data and early isolation as an effective means to reduce epidemic spread.

Walters, Meslé, Hall (2018) conducted a study with the goal of assessing the current state of mathematical models for the global dissemination of infectious diseases. They conducted a literature review, identifying common approaches, good practices, and research gaps. Employing a scoping study method, they gathered information from 78 records, focusing on modeling approaches, input data sources (epidemiological, population, and travel data), and model validation. They observed that epidemiological data primarily came from published journal articles, population data had diverse sources, and travel data mostly relied on statistics, surveys, or commercial datasets. The use of commercial datasets could benefit modelers but might impede critical evaluation by other researchers. They noted that only a minority of records (26) validated their models, possibly due to the relative rarity of pandemics compared to other modeled phenomena. The researchers acknowledged the challenge of modeling emerging infections due to limited data for parameterization and validation, as well as the complexity of the approaches used. They recommended the use of open-access datasets to enhance model reproducibility and transparency and suggested that modelers validate their models when feasible or explain why validation was not possible.

In a study by Hazarie et al. (2021), the researchers explored the connection between population density centers in urban areas and human flows between these centers, affecting susceptibility to contagious diseases. Their study, encompassing 163 cities across four continents, revealed a universal trend: the risk associated with human mobility increased in cities where flows occurred mainly between densely populated centers. This formalism was applied to understand the spread of SARS-COV-2 in the United States, offering insights into the heterogeneity of the disease's spread across cities. Armed with this understanding, the researchers proposed practical mitigation strategies that were less severe than lockdowns, primarily focused on altering mobility patterns in cities. The results indicated that an effective strategy involved asymmetric policies that restricted flows into the most vulnerable areas while allowing residents to maintain their usual mobility.

Research by Christidis and Christodoulou (2020) introduced a methodology for early pandemic stages that used detailed aviation data at the final destination level to assess the risk of disease transmission outside China, particularly during the COVID-19 pandemic. The approach successfully identified countries with a high risk of infected travelers and served as a monitoring tool for the pandemic's evolution in various countries. However, the approach's effectiveness was limited due to the high number of undetected or asymptomatic COVID-19 cases, which hindered the modeling of the complete dynamics. The researchers emphasized the importance of early signals for risk assessment provided by aviation activity, particularly for destinations with a high number of passengers from the origin of the pandemic.

In a study by Huang et al. (2020), the researchers explored the link between the built environment and COVID-19 risk using data from confirmed cases in Hong Kong. They assessed COVID-19 risk and its geographical patterns at the Tertiary Planning Unit (TPU) level, considering incidence rate (R1) and venue density (R2). Their investigation involved associations between built-environment variables (e.g., nodal accessibility and green space density) and COVID-19 risk using global Poisson regression (GPR) and geographically weighted Poisson regression (GWPR) models. The results indicated that COVID-19 risk tended to be concentrated in specific areas of Hong Kong. Using the incidence rate to assess risk sometimes underestimated the risk in suburban areas. The GPR and GWPR models revealed a close and spatially variable relationship between selected built-environment variables and COVID-19 risk, offering insights valuable to policymakers in responding to COVID-19 and future epidemics.

In the work of Peixoto et al. (2020), the researchers analyzed millions of anonymized mobile visit data in Brazil to investigate the probable patterns of COVID-19 spread within Brazilian states. The study aimed to aid public administrators in formulating action plans and allocating resources, while exploring the use of mobile geolocation data as a measure of population mobility during an epidemic. The study focused on São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro during March 2020 when the disease began spreading. They used meta-population models to simulate disease spread, ranking cities by the time it would take for the disease to infect each city. The results revealed that high-risk areas were primarily those close to the capital cities where the outbreak began but also included some vulnerable cities in rural areas. The mathematical framework developed in this study was versatile and could be applied worldwide where geolocation data was available to evaluate disease risk.

In the work of Azevedo et al. (2020), the researchers proposed using direct block sequential simulation to model the spatial distribution of COVID-19 infection risk in mainland Portugal. They used daily infection data from the Portuguese Directorate-General for Health and accounted for the uncertainty associated with municipality population sizes. The daily updates of infection risk maps resulted from an ensemble of 100 geostatistical realizations. These risk maps were updated daily to identify regions with higher infection risks and their dynamics over time. The model aimed to assist health authorities in managing COVID-19 by determining containment strategies and lockdowns for areas with increasing infection risk.

In recent times, numerous studies have concentrated on employing spatial analysis and Geographic Information Systems (GIS) to investigate the COVID-19 pandemic. Others have explored contagion spread, mitigation measures, prevention, and response strategies. Researchers have introduced various models and methodologies to address the challenges posed by rapid urbanization. However, there is a notable lack of research when it comes to assessing urban morphology and contagion risk in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. The identification of contagion hotspots in large cities using remote sensing and GIS technology remains an understudied area.

Numerous studies by researchers have delved into contagion risk prevention, mitigation, response, and recovery in urban environments. Currently, more than 55% of the global population resides in urban areas, and this figure is steadily increasing, projected to reach 68% by 2050 according to the United Nations (2018). Infectious diseases have been a persistent threat, and it is highly likely that we will face another epidemic or pandemic in the near future. Given that epidemics often originate in urban settings and rapidly propagate due to urbanization, the attributes of the built environment play a pivotal role in influencing the transmission of

emerging infectious diseases. Considering these factors, there is a notable absence of analyses regarding the identification of contagion risk and the emergence of disease hotspots for effective disaster risk management in Nigeria. Currently, there is no established spatial framework for managing the emergence of contagious diseases in Nigeria.

Methods

This research was carried out in Port Harcourt which is the capital of Rivers State. The city lies along the Bonny Rivers and at its southernmost edge (Old Port Harcourt town) it is about 34 kilometres to the mouth of the Bonny River. Its current extent spans the Obio/Akpo, Port Harcourt, Okrika, Eleme, Etche and Oyigbo Local government Areas (LGAs) of Rivers State (Figure 1).

2.1 Study Area

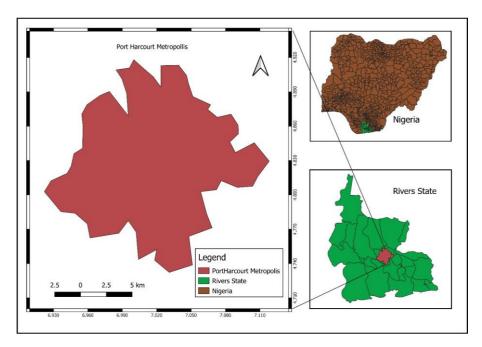


Figure 1Map of Study Area

Port Harcourt serves as a significant industrial hub due to its substantial presence of multinational corporations and various industries, particularly those associated with the petroleum sector (Echendu, 2020). Notably, it stands as Nigeria's primary city for oil refining, with two major oil refineries located in Eleme. Both refineries jointly process approximately 210,000 barrels of crude oil daily and are operated by the Port Harcourt Refining Company

(Odularu, 2008). Rivers State, in which Port Harcourt is situated, ranks among the nation's wealthiest states in terms of gross domestic product and foreign exchange revenue, primarily driven by the crude oil industry as its principal export income source.

In certain areas of Port Harcourt, micro apartment architecture is prevalent. A prominent architectural landmark in the city is the Point Block of the Rivers State Secretariat, an imposing 18-story structure that stands as the tallest building in the combined South-East and South-South geopolitical zones. Port Harcourt is extensively interconnected by pipelines facilitating the transportation of oil and gas. Additionally, it hosts a refinery in Alesa Eleme and maintains a robust presence in boat construction, fishing industries, and freezing facilities. Port Harcourt's economic landscape shifted towards petroleum with the inaugural export of Nigerian crude oil via the city in 1958. This entry into the Nigerian petroleum industry brought about significant advancements in Port Harcourt, fostering its modernization through the construction of features like flyovers, urban blocks, and taller, more substantial structures. Presently, the city hosts offices of major oil companies such as Royal Dutch Shell and Chevron.

2.2 Data & Source

For this study secondary data will be utilized. Geographic Information System (GIS) data and Satellite remote sensed data will provide useful information on urban morphology of the study areas.

The GIS and remotely sensed data were collected via Open Street Map (OSM)The data was collected from open street maps, DLR's World Settlement Footprint 3D product (WSF-3D) that is derived from ALOS World 3D (AW3D30) digital terrain model and the WSF 2015 settlement layer was used, Google Street View images and satellite imageries was also utilized. To check the pattern of Contagion Index across the study area, the Getis Ord Gi* hotspot analysis was carried out.

3.0 Results and Discussion

To assess the pattern of the Contagion Index throughout the study area, a comprehensive hotspot analysis was undertaken. This analysis served as a valuable tool to identify areas that exhibited distinct patterns in terms of contagion risk. The resulting findings were visually represented in the figure provided below, which vividly illustrates the demarcation of Hotspot and Coldspot areas within the study region.

Intriguingly, the Hotspot areas, signifying regions with a notably elevated risk of contagion, were identified with an exceptionally high level of confidence, reaching 99 percent certainty (figure 2). These hotspot zones included Woji, Trans Amadi, Diobu, Dline Rumuomasi, and Rumuowaji. Within these areas, the analysis suggested that certain factors or conditions might contribute to a higher likelihood of disease transmission, thus warranting targeted attention and potential interventions to mitigate contagion risk.

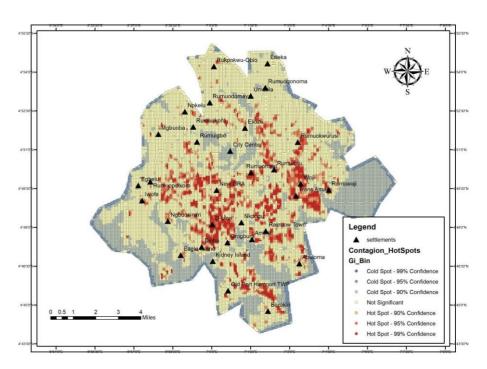


Figure 2. Pattern of Contagion Index Across Port Harcourt City.

Conversely, the Coldspot areas were distinct in that they represented locales with a significantly lower risk of contagion. Within this category, areas such as Eneka, Rumuoqonoma, Mgbuoba, the city center, Rumuola, and Mgbuosimiri stood out (Figure 2). These regions appeared to exhibit characteristics or conditions that made them less susceptible to contagion, although further investigation would be needed to discern the specific factors contributing to this lower risk.

The hotspot analysis not only provided a spatial overview of contagion risk but also offered valuable insights for public health officials and policymakers. By identifying areas of elevated risk, authorities can direct resources, implement targeted interventions, and develop strategies to reduce the transmission of contagious diseases in the most vulnerable regions. Conversely, a deeper understanding of the factors contributing to lower contagion risk in Coldspot areas may inform practices that enhance overall disease resilience within the study area.

3.1 Spatial Pattern of Contagion Index Across the Study Area

Based on the study's outcomes, it becomes evident that within the research area, certain regions are designated as hotspots with a remarkable 99 percent confidence level. Specifically, these hotspots encompass Woji, Trans Amadi, Diobu, Dline Rumuomasi, and Rumuowaji. In contrast, there are areas identified as coldspots, including Eneka, Rumuoqonoma, Mgbuoba, the city center, Rumuola, and Mgbuosimiri. This observation highlights the clustering of the Contagion Index, indicating that specific localities within the study area are particularly susceptible to the rapid transmission of contagious diseases. Various factors contribute to this clustering pattern,

potentially encompassing high population density and heightened socio-economic activities. It is noteworthy to mention that the potential modes of contagion transmission comprise person-to-person contact, airborne transmission, and contact with contaminated surfaces.

The spatial distribution of contagion transmission is subject to the influence of multiple factors. Notably, transportation networks stand out as a prominent contributor, as they facilitate the movement of both infected individuals and pathogens throughout the city. Additionally, social gatherings and communal spaces assume a pivotal role in the transmission of contagion, as they bring people into close proximity, thereby elevating the risk of disease dissemination.

These findings closely align with the research conducted by Huang et al (2020), which centered on assessing Covid-19 risk in Hong Kong. Their study likewise pinpointed the concentration of Covid-19 risk within specific areas, underscoring the presence of spatial heterogeneity in disease transmission. This further substantiates the notion that particular regions within urban settings may exhibit heightened rates of contagion transmission due to specific attributes of the built environment and human activities.

Conclusion

This research offers significant revelations regarding the urban structure and the contagion risk assessment essential for effectively managing epidemics in Port Harcourt. As urban areas experience ongoing expansion and grapple with novel challenges, this study establishes a solid basis for policymaking grounded in empirical evidence. Applying the discoveries from this study has the potential to enhance Port Harcourt City's capacity to handle future epidemics. Moreover, it serves as a blueprint for urban areas worldwide. By incorporating these insights into urban planning and development strategies, cities can cultivate more healthful and secure living environments for their inhabitants, thereby making a meaningful contribution to the collective welfare of society.

Recommendations

- 1. Integrate the insights from this study into urban development strategies. Prioritize urban planning that promotes public health, such as enhancing green spaces, reducing population density in hotspots, and improving sanitation facilities to mitigate contagion risks.
- 2. Embrace data-driven decision-making in epidemic management. Regularly update and analyze contagion risk profiles, incorporating real-time data, GIS technology, and remote sensing to adapt and refine response strategies as needed.

References

Azevedo, L., Pereira, M. J., Ribeiro, M. C., & Soares, A. (2020). Geostatistical COVID-19 infection risk maps for Portugal. *International Journal of Health Geographics*, *19*(1), 25. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12942-020-00221-5

Christidis, P., & Christodoulou, A. (2020). The Predictive Capacity of Air Travel Patterns during the Global Spread of the COVID-19 Pandemic: Risk, Uncertainty and Randomness. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(10), 3356. https://www.mdpi.com/1660-4601/17/10/3356

- Echendu, A. J. (2020). Urban planning—"It's All About Sustainability": urban planners' conceptualizations of sustainable development in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. *development*, 3, 4.
- Gilbert, M., Pullano, G., Pinotti, F., Valdano, E., Poletto, C., Boëlle, P.-Y., D'Ortenzio, E., Yazdanpanah, Y., Eholie, S. P., Altmann, M., Gutierrez, B., Kraemer, M. U. G., & Colizza, V. (2020). Preparedness and vulnerability of African countries against importations of COVID-19: a modelling study. *The Lancet*, 395(10227), 871-877. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30411-6
- Gross, B., Zheng, Z., Liu, S., Chen, X., Sela, A., Li, J., ... Havlin, S., 2020. Spatio-temporal propagation of COVID-19 pandemics. medRxiv 2020.03.23.20041517https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0235732
- Huang, J., Kwan, M.-P., Kan, Z., Wong, M. S., Kwok, C. Y. T., & Yu, X. (2020). Investigating the Relationship between the Built Environment and Relative Risk of COVID-19 in Hong Kong. *ISPRS International Journal of Geo-Information*, 9(11), 624.
- Mo, B., Feng, K., Shen, Y., Tam, C., Li, D., Yin, Y., & Zhao, J. (2021). Modeling epidemic spreading through public transit using time-varying encounter network. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies*, 122, 102893.
- Odularu, G. O. (2008). Crude oil and the Nigerian economic performance. *Oil and Gas business*, 2008, 1-29.
- Peixoto, P. S., Marcondes, D., Peixoto, C., & Oliva, S. M. (2020). Modeling future spread of infections via mobile geolocation data and population dynamics. An application to COVID-19 in Brazil. *PLOS ONE*, *15*(7), e0235732.
- Walters, C. E., Meslé, M. M., & Hall, I. M. (2018). Modelling the global spread of diseases: A review of current practice and capability. *Epidemics*, 25, 1-8.

Exploring the Connection Between Spatial Morphological Metrics, Population Density, Connectivity and Building Volumes in Epidemic Management in Port Harcourt

By

OKAGBARE, UFUOMA VIOLET

B.Sc (UNIPORT) M.Sc (UNIPORT) G2017/Ph.D/GEM/FT/020

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES UNIVERSITY OF PORT HARCORT

Abstract:

The study unveils "Very Low positive correlation" (r = 0.213) between Connectivity and Population Density, indicating a weak positive link between the interconnectedness of city segments and the number of inhabitants in specific locales. Additionally, a "Low positive correlation" (r = 0.450) is observed between Population Density and Building Volume, signifying a slightly stronger, though still relatively weak, positive relationship between population density and the extent of built space across the city. Finally, "Moderate positive correlation" (r = 0.520) is noted between Building Volume and Connectivity, suggesting a moderate positive link between building density and the level of city-wide interconnectedness. Through correlational analysis, the research underscores the importance of optimizing urban infrastructure, particularly in areas with high population densities, to support effective epidemic management. In summary, this study contributes to a deeper understanding of the relationships between spatial morphology, population density, and building volumes in the context of epidemic management.

Keywords: Spatial Morphology, Connectivity index, Epidemic Management.

Introduction

Urban morphology, as defined by Kropf (2018), is the examination of how human settlements take shape and change over time. It involves the analysis of the spatial layout and characteristics of urban areas like cities, towns, or villages, focusing on the arrangement of their elements, ownership, and usage. The rapid global urban population growth is a primary driver behind the significant increase in urban sprawl, particularly in cities, as observed by Shao et al (2021). This population increase leads to greater demands for essential infrastructure like transportation, water supply, sewage systems, as well as housing, commerce, healthcare, education, and recreational facilities, often resulting in urban sprawl Fenta, et al 2017). The rise of urbanization across the world since 1950, as highlighted by Leeson in 2018, has made monitoring and analyzing urban expansion a prominent theme in geoscience applications in various regions (Zhang & Centola, 2019).

In 2020, the global community faced an unprecedented pandemic caused by the novel coronavirus, Covid-19, affecting all corners of the globe. During pandemics, it's easy to become

overwhelmed by the rapid spread of infection and the constant stream of increasingly dire predictions. Pandemics present extraordinary public health challenges that require a coordinated response from healthcare systems and governments (Stam et al., 2020). However, this particular pandemic, almost from the beginning, has raised concerns about the potential failure of healthcare systems to handle the surge in demand, putting not only Covid-19 patients at risk but also individuals in need of other healthcare services (Stam et al., 2020).

Several studies have been carried on the spatial spread of disease across urban area. Laroze et al (2021) conducted a groundbreaking study that introduced spatial contagion into an econometric model, providing a unique perspective on the actual spread of epidemics. Unlike traditional simulations, they estimated the real spatial contagion that occurred during the initial wave of the pandemic. This research offers valuable insights into the essential spatial parameters required for simulating the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. Notably, their work highlights that infectious diseases generate not only interpersonal but also interregional spatial dependence and contagion. New infections within one area are influenced not only by local conditions but also by social connections with neighboring regions and their infection rates.

The study by Li et al. (2021) aimed to uncover variations in COVID-19 confirmed case clusters in the urban district of Huangzhou, Huanggang. Using Geographic Information Systems (GIS), they identified geographic clusters of cases during the early outbreak. Their investigation into the relationship between built environment attributes and case clustering revealed a direct positive impact of commercial prosperity on the risk of contagion clustering. Access to well-supplied medical services indirectly contributed to larger clusters by boosting commercial activity at the community level. This study underscores the significant roles of commercial vitality and transportation infrastructure in the spread of infectious clusters.

Ghayvat and the team (2021) conducted research emphasizing the crucial role of human movement in modeling the spatial transmission of contagious viruses. They introduced the COUNTERACT system, which leverages mobile phone location data to identify infectious sites connected to infected individuals. This innovative approach computed incubation periods and traced the locations visited by potentially contagious individuals during this time. The identified sites were designated as contagious, allowing for the timely notification of individuals who might have been exposed. Importantly, this system does not rely on the installation of an application by all individuals and is primarily designed for healthcare officials. It offers an advanced and technologically sophisticated strategy to manage virus outbreaks, particularly in densely populated developing countries.

Chen et al (2021) explored the relationship between city-level resilience against COVID-19 outbreaks and several influencing factors using data from China in the spring of 2020. Their findings indicate that managing inflow risk pressure, urban agglomeration characteristics, healthcare resources, and urban governance capacity are key factors in a city's pandemic resilience. Large, densely populated cities with significant mobility flows face greater challenges in controlling epidemics, but improved healthcare infrastructure and governance can enhance pandemic control and boost resilience. While the study focused on Chinese cities, the research framework is adaptable to understanding COVID-19 control performance in other countries, contributing to health-related urban resilience and sustainability efforts.

While a considerable body of literature addresses the role of various factors in epidemic management, there exists a notable gap in the understanding of the specific interplay between

spatial morphological metrics, population density, and building volumes in the context of epidemic management, particularly within unique urban landscapes. Existing research predominantly focuses on epidemiological and healthcare aspects, but there is a distinct lack of comprehensive investigations into the urban structural elements' impact on epidemic dynamics. This study aims to address this critical gap by elucidating how spatial characteristics and population-related factors contribute to the effectiveness of epidemic management strategies in Port Harcourt.

Effective epidemic management is a critical aspect of public health, and understanding the relationship between various urban factors and disease spread is vital for the well-being of a city's inhabitants. Port Harcourt, a major urban center in Nigeria, has experienced its share of public health challenges, necessitating a comprehensive analysis of factors influencing epidemic management within the city. This article delves into the complex interplay between spatial morphological indices, population density, and building volume in Port Harcourt, with a specific focus on their role in managing epidemics. Port Harcourt's unique urban characteristics, such as its layout, population distribution, and architectural features, can significantly impact the city's preparedness and response to infectious diseases, including the recent challenges posed by the Covid-19 pandemic.

In this study, the researcher aim to shed light on how these spatial and demographic factors are interconnected and contribute to the effectiveness of epidemic management strategies. By gaining insights into these relationships, urban planners, policymakers, and healthcare professionals can make more informed decisions to enhance public health and epidemic response in Port Harcourt, ultimately contributing to the overall well-being of its residents.

Data and Methods

Study Area

This research was carried out in Port Harcourt which is the capital of Rivers State. The city lies along the Bonny Rivers and at its southernmost edge (Old Port Harcourt town) it is about 34 kilometres to the mouth of the Bonny River. Its current extent spans the Obio/Akpor, Port Harcourt, Okrika, Eleme, Etche and Oyigbo Local government Areas (LGAs) of Rivers State (Figure 1).

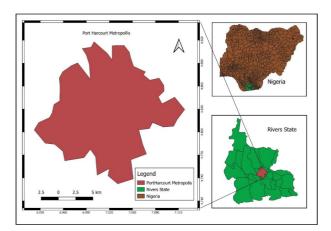


Figure 1. Map of Study Area

Port Harcourt serves as a significant industrial hub due to its substantial presence of multinational corporations and various industries, particularly those associated with the petroleum sector (Echendu, 2020). Notably, it stands as Nigeria's primary city for oil refining, with two major oil refineries located in Eleme. Both refineries jointly process approximately 210,000 barrels of crude oil daily and are operated by the Port Harcourt Refining Company (Odularu, 2008). Rivers State, in which Port Harcourt is situated, ranks among the nation's wealthiest states in terms of gross domestic product and foreign exchange revenue, primarily driven by the crude oil industry as its principal export income source.

In certain areas of Port Harcourt, micro apartment architecture is prevalent. A prominent architectural landmark in the city is the Point Block of the Rivers State Secretariat, an imposing 18-story structure that stands as the tallest building in the combined South-East and South-South geopolitical zones. Port Harcourt is extensively interconnected by pipelines facilitating the transportation of oil and gas. Additionally, it hosts a refinery in Alesa Eleme and maintains a robust presence in boat construction, fishing industries, and freezing facilities. Port Harcourt's economic landscape shifted towards petroleum with the inaugural export of Nigerian crude oil via the city in 1958. This entry into the Nigerian petroleum industry brought about significant advancements in Port Harcourt, fostering its modernization through the construction of features like flyovers, urban blocks, and taller, more substantial structures. Presently, the city hosts offices of major oil companies such as Royal Dutch Shell and Chevron.

2.2 Data & Source

For this study secondary data was utilised. Geographic Information System (GIS) data and Satellite remote sensed data will provide useful information on urban morphology of the study areas.

2.3 Methods

Spatial Design Network Analysis (SDNA) was utilised. This is a toolbox for 3-D spatial network analysis, especially street/path/urban network analysis, motivated by a need to use network links as the principal unit of analysis to analyse existing network data. World settlement footprint building volume was obtained from Earth Observation Centre (EOC) of the German Aerospace Centre (DLR) website. A correlational Analysis was carried out to determine the relationship between spatial morphological indices which are population density, connectivity and building volume across the study area.

Results and Discussion

Spatial Morphology of the Study Area from the Road Network

For the analysis of the Spatial Morphology of the study area, Spatial Design Network Analysis (SDNA) plugin was installed into GIS environment, which aided the computation of the following parameters:

- a. Betweeness
- b. Junction counts
- c. Link Connectivity and
- d. Bi- directional betweeness.

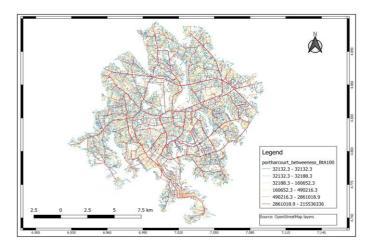


Figure 2 Betweeness Analysis 100 meter radius

Source: Reserarcher's Field Work

Betweenness centrality is a measure of the importance of a vertex in a network to connect two edges, considering the shortest paths. In the context of road networks, betweenness centrality is a static predictor of congestion and load on networks. The higher the betweenness an edge has, the more it provides shortest routes and is likely to contribute to the flow of traffic. Betweenness centrality can be used to identify critical road segments and central points in road networks. It is useful for analysing communication dynamics and can have different implications in social

network analysis. They can be important for the flow of information in a network, as they may hold authority over different clusters or be on the periphery of both clusters

Overlaying settlement areas that are close to road networks with high betweeness (figure 2) would explain that the city centres close to these road networks would have a considerable higher number of influences over other settlement areas, since transportation of goods and services and information passing through these centres (figure 3).

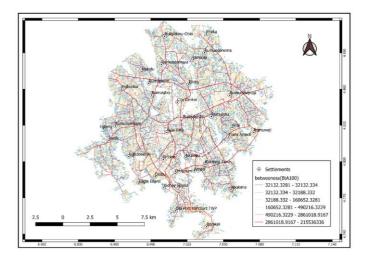


Figure 3 map showing settlements close to Road networks with High betweeness

Source: Researcher's Field Work

Connectivity (Con) is the total connectivity in the radius: sum of number of links ends connected at each junction. The connectivity of a road network refers to the degree to which different parts of the network are connected to each other. In graph theory and network analysis, centrality is the idea that there are relatively more central or important nodes and edges in a network. Centrality can describe how important a road is and on what level a network is centralized on certain roads.

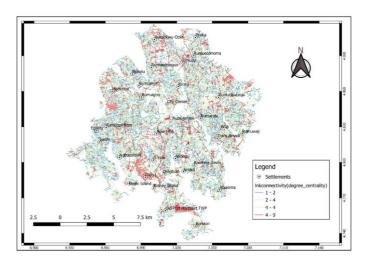


Figure 4 Connectivity of the Study Area

Source: Researcher's Field Work

Distribution of building volume across the study area

From figure 5 it can be observed that areas or pixel values on the map are marked in blue to red which shows the degree of density of the building footprint. Areas in blue are extremely low having values at 0, areas highlighted in green are low, in addition areas marked in yellow are

moderate whilst areas marked in orange and red have a range of high and very high respectively.

To check the pattern of Building volume, and areas or settlements were the building volume are the most. A grid of 100 meter by 100 meter was created in the GIS environment around the study area and centroids created which are still point features; these points representing the centroid of the geometries in an input layer and then assigned the mean raster values in the grid.

The resultant layer is shown in the figure below showing the pattern of building volume in the study area.

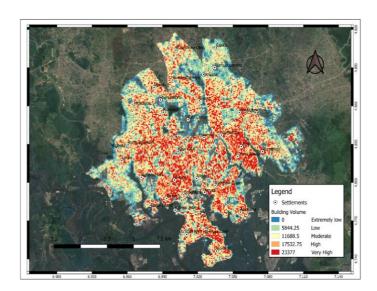


Figure 5 Building Volume across the Study Area

Source: Researcher's Field Work

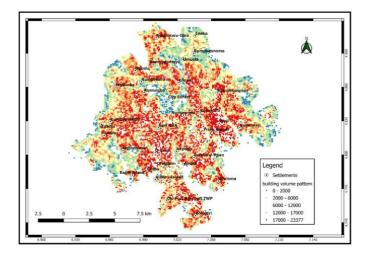


Figure 6 Resultant building Volume showing Patterns of density

Source: Researcher's Field Work

Figure 6 shows the settlements with high building volume as they fall within the 17,000 to 23377 range. They are as follows: D-line, Diobu, Woji, Trans Amadi, Rainbow town, Abuloma, Rumuomasi and Rumuorlu.

Correlational Analysis Between Spatial Morphological Indices

Table 1 offers a comprehensive snapshot of the descriptive statistics for three key variables: Connectivity, Population Density, and Building Volume. These statistics are derived from a dataset consisting of 287 observations and provide crucial insights into the central tendencies and variations inherent in the data.

Firstly, looking at Connectivity, the mean value stands at approximately 2.934. This suggests that, on average, the level of connectivity in the spatial context under investigation hovers around 2.934. However, the standard deviation, which is approximately 1.515, reveals a degree of variability in the connectivity values around this mean. This indicates that there are areas within the study region where connectivity is significantly higher or lower than the mean.

Regarding Population Density, the mean population density is approximately 48.140. This figure indicates that, on average, there are roughly 48.140 individuals residing within a given unit of measurement in the study area. Yet, it's important to note that the standard deviation is relatively high at around 51.923. This signifies a considerable variance in population density across the sample. In essence, some areas are likely to have substantially higher population density, while others may have significantly lower density compared to the mean.

Lastly, concerning Building Volume, where the mean building volume is notably higher, standing at approximately 11,903.370. This suggests that, on average, the buildings within the study area exhibit a substantial volume. However, the standard deviation, which is roughly 8,902.859, signifies substantial variability in building volumes. This indicates that some buildings are notably larger or smaller in volume compared to the mean.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Connectivity	2.934	1.515	287
Population Density	48.140	51.923	287
Building Volume	11903.370	8902.859	287

Source: Researcher's Analysis

Furthermore, the correlation analysis between spatial morphological indices, population density, and building volume revealed the following associations. A very weak positive correlation, which was statistically significant at p < 0.01, was observed between connectivity and population density (r = 0.213, p < 0.01). Additionally, population density and building volume exhibited a weak positive correlation that was also statistically significant (r = 0.450, p < 0.01). Furthermore, building volume and connectivity displayed a moderate positive correlation, which was statistically significant at (r = 0.520, p < 0.01) (Table 2).

Table 2 Corre	elation of the Variables			Building Volume
		Connectivity	Population Density	
Connectivity	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	286		
Population Density	Pearson Correlation	.213**	1	
Density	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		
	N	286	287	
Building	Pearson Correlation	.520**	.450**	1
Volume	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	287	287	287

Source: Researcher's Analysis

Correlational Analysis between Spatial Morphological indices

Finding from this study uncovered a correlation of 0.213 between Connectivity and Population Density. Falling within the range of ± 0.10 to ± 0.30 , this correlation is characterized as a "Very Low positive correlation." This finding suggests a feeble positive association between the city's level of connectivity, which pertains to the interconnectedness of different city segments, and its population density, representing the number of individuals inhabiting a specific locale.

Subsequently, the correlation between Population Density and Building Volume produced an r value of 0.450. Falling within the range of ± 0.30 to ± 0.50 , this indicates a "Low positive correlation." It signifies a somewhat stronger, though still relatively weak, positive relationship between population density and the extent of constructed space (building volume) across various city regions.

Finally, the correlation between Building Volume and Connectivity yielded an r value of 0.520. This value falls within the range of ± 0.50 to ± 0.70 , categorizing it as a "Moderate positive correlation." This observation implies a moderate positive link between the quantity of constructed space (building volume) in a specific area and the level of interconnectedness in that vicinity. In simpler terms, areas with higher building density are more likely to exhibit superior overall connectivity within the city.

This study reveals a positive correlation among the examined spatial morphological indices: Connectivity, Population Density, and Building Volume. However, it's important to note that the strength of these correlations varies. While the correlation between Connectivity and Population Density is exceedingly weak, the connection between Population Density and Building Volume is slightly stronger but still falls into the weak category. Conversely, Building Volume and Connectivity demonstrate a moderate positive correlation.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the study's findings shed light on the complex relationships between these spatial morphological indices in the context of epidemic management. The study revealed distinctive patterns of correlation among these variables. Firstly, there was a very low positive correlation between Connectivity and Population Density, signifying a weak yet statistically significant positive link between the level of city connectivity and its population density. In practical terms, this indicated that areas with better connectivity tended to exhibit slightly higher population densities.

Secondly, the correlation between Population Density and Building Volume yielded a "Low positive correlation suggesting a somewhat stronger, though still relatively weak, positive relationship between population density and the amount of built space in different parts of the city. In essence, areas with higher population densities tended to have slightly larger building volumes. Furthermore, there was a moderate positive correlation between building volume and connectivity implying that areas with denser building structures tended to exhibit better overall connectivity within the city.

Given the positive correlation between Connectivity and Population Density, urban planners should focus on improving the city's connectivity by enhancing transportation networks and infrastructure in areas with high population densities. This would facilitate more efficient movement and better access to healthcare resources during epidemics. The observed correlation between Building Volume and Connectivity highlights the importance of integrated urban planning. Policymakers should consider urban resilience strategies that combine robust building structures with enhanced connectivity, ensuring that densely built areas are well-connected and equipped to respond effectively to health crises.

Recommendations

1. Given the positive correlation between connectivity and population density, urban planners should prioritize the improvement of transportation infrastructure in densely populated regions. This includes expanding public transit systems, creating more efficient road networks, and implementing smart traffic management solutions.

- 2. Policymakers should develop and enforce urban resilience strategies that ensure buildings are not only structurally sound but also well-connected through a reliable transportation network
- 3. Considering the observed relationships among population density, building volume, and connectivity, it is recommended that city planners identify and focus infrastructure development efforts on emerging growth areas.

References

- Chen, J., Guo, X., Pan, H., & Zhong, S. (2021). What determines city's resilience against epidemic outbreak: Evidence from China's COVID-19 experience. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, 70, 102892
- Echendu, A. J. (2020). Urban planning—"It's All About Sustainability": urban planners' conceptualizations of sustainable development in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. *development*, 3, 4
- Fenta, A. A., Yasuda, H., Haregeweyn, N., Belay, A. S., Hadush, Z., Gebremedhin, M. A., & Mekonnen, G. (2017). The dynamics of urban expansion and land use/land cover changes using remote sensing and spatial metrics: the case of Mekelle City of northern Ethiopia. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, *38*(14), 4107-4129. https://doi.org/10.1080/01431161.2017.1317936
- Ghayvat, H., Awais, M., Gope, P., Pandya, S., & Majumdar, S. (2021). ReCognizing SUspect and PredictiNg ThE SpRead of Contagion Based on Mobile Phone LoCation DaTa (COUNTERACT): A system of identifying COVID-19 infectious and hazardous sites, detecting disease outbreaks based on the internet of things, edge computing, and artificial intelligence. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, *69*, 102798. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2021.102798
- Kropf, K. (2018). The handbook of urban morphology. John Wiley & Sons.
- Laroze, D., Neumayer, E., & Plümper, T. (2021). COVID-19 does not stop at open borders: Spatial contagion among local authority districts during England's first wave. *Social Science & Medicine*, 270, 113655. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2020.113655
- Li, B., Peng, Y., He, H., Wang, M., & Feng, T. (2021). Built environment and early infection of COVID-19 in urban districts: A case study of Huangzhou. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, 66, 102685. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2020.102685
- Odularu, G. O. (2008). Crude oil and the Nigerian economic performance. *Oil and Gas business*, 2008, 1-29
- Shao, Z., Sumari, N. S., Portnov, A., Ujoh, F., Musakwa, W., & Mandela, P. J. (2021). Urban sprawl and its impact on sustainable urban development: a combination of remote sensing and social media data. *Geo-spatial Information Science*, 24(2), 241-255. https://doi.org/10.1080/10095020.2020.1787800

Stam, H. J., Stucki, G., & Bickenbach, J. (2020). Covid-19 and post intensive care syndrome: a call for action [Letter]. *Journal of Rehabilitation Medicine*, 52(4), Article jrm00044. https://doi.org/10.2340/16501977-2677

Zhang, J., & Centola, D. (2019). Social Networks and Health: New Developments in Diffusion, Online and Offline. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 45(1), 91-109. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-073117-041421

ATTRIBUTES OF PERI URBAN AREAS WITHIN CAPITAL CITIES OF SOUTH SOUTH STATES IN NIGERIA

Ekpo, S. T. and Eludoyin, O.S

Department of Geography and Environmental, University of Port Harcourt, Choba, Nigeria.

ABSTRACT

One of the most distinguishing characteristics of peri-urbanization is land use fragmentation, which refers to the non-contiguous extension of urban areas into the open, rural areas that surround the city. Second, the most distinguishing feature of contemporary peri-urban areas is the expanding social heterogeneity that can be measured by the presence of various types of social groups having infrastructure of a decent grade and provides good connectivity to the city centres. This study findings shows that peri urban areas gradually develop into cities with high density populations as evident by this study's response of 72.2%; There are few government and public agencies offices as posted by the responses of this research with 57% of the study respondents; A steady decreasing agricultural land use as 95 percent of the land that was converted into urban land use as 66.8% of this study affirms this position; Isolated low quality of housing facilities as responded by 64.2% of the respondents, while the road network is subpar by 63.6% affirmation of the study population; Others infrastructural facilities in the peri urban areas like Educational, Health are not of standard quality and in adequate numbers for the teeming population of the areas as substantiated by scores of 38.5% and 48.9% respectively by the study respondents. These findings are supported by other researchers while investigating the correlation between the growth of infrastructure and the degree to which residents of the south-south region of Nigeria. The following recommendations are for government and city planners: develop regional urban development plans; collaborate with state governments to formulate comprehensive regional urban development plans that consider the unique characteristics and growth potential of each state; implement effective land use policies that promote compact and mixed-use development, protect natural resources, and preserve agricultural land.

Keywords: Peri Urban Areas, Capital Cities, South South Nigeria.

Introduction.

Peri-urban area refers to a transition or interaction zone surrounding built-up area made up of built-up extension of the city, approximately 30-50 km beyond the urban edge. Its landscape features are subject to rapid transformation (McGee, 2009). This rapid urban growth is part of the global concerns and prediction of a continuous urban population growth which will almost double from 2010 to 2050. According to Abass et al (2018), the world is becoming increasingly urbanized, and 45% of the population already lived in urban areas in 2000. It was projected that by 2025, 60% of the world's population would live in cities (Owoeye and Ibitoye, 2019). It is believed that the concentration of social amenities and developmental projects in certain parts of society may have been the trigger for this type of urbanization as investments and opportunities are concentrated in a small number of places (Berliner, 1977).

Key characteristic attributes of the peri-urban areas, particularly in developing countries, include: Changing economic structure, encompassing a shift from an agriculturally based to a manufacturing dominated economy; Rapid population growth and Changing spatial development patterns and rising land costs. According to Adjekumhene (2002), a peri-urban area is distinguished by the emergence of multidimensional physical development as a result of the interaction between urban and rural land uses as more and more land is being used for urban purposes, and majority of the time, these regions serves as the immediate urban-rural interface and has the potential to eventually become urban (Lasisi *et al.*, 2017).

These regions display particular characteristics, which distinguish them from others in terms of development, such as the accelerated growth of urban residential and commercial purposes and the decreasing activity of rural primary pursuits (Buxton, 2007). Consequently, this study is aim at assessing the characteristic attributes of peri urban areas around the state capitals cities of South South Region, Nigeria.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted the Cross-Sectional research design and the longitudinal research design. The survey method was used for descriptive purposes to extract evocative data like residents' comments, beliefs, views and activities of individuals, households, communities and governmental authorities (agencies) concerning peri urbanization at eliciting further qualitative data. The longitudinal research design, which involves where time is considered as a factor responsible for changes in the independent variables such as land use demography as it is in this study.

The South-South region of Nigeria comprises the area covered by the natural delta of the Niger River defined by its geology and hydrology. Its approximate northern boundaries are located close to the bifurcation of the Niger River at Aboh, while the western and eastern boundaries are around the Benin River and the Imo River, respectively. The area is approximately 25,900 square kilometers and consists of six states; Akwa-Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo, and

the target population of this study refers to all residents of the state capitals and its surrounding peri urban areas of South South Region, Nigeria. Thus, this study population is estimated to be 4,949,263 (four million, nine hundred and forty-nine thousand, two hundred and sixty-three) persons as at the time (months) of this study.

To determine the Sample Size for this study, the Taro Yamane (1967) formula for sample size determination was used and research instruments were distributed as shown in Table 1

Table 1: Distribution of Questionnaires in the sampled Locations' of the Study Area.

S/NO	Name of State Capitals	Peri Urbans	Sampled Sizes	
1	Uyo	Uyo Metropolis	60	
2	Yenegoa	Yenegoa	45	
3	Calabar	Calabar Metropolis	47	+
4	Asaba	Asaba	36	
5	Benin	Benin	63	-
6	Port Harcourt	Obio/Akpor, Eleme, Oyigbo	149	-
	TOTA	AL	400	+

Data collected from the surveys is presented using the tabular format and are analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistical tools in use involves nominal, frequency and percentage tables.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 shows that a total of 400 copies of questionnaire were administered but only 374 copies of the questionnaire were returned filled completely and used for analysis accounting for 93.5% response rate.

Table 2: Questionnaire Administration and retrieval

Response	Frequency	Percentage%
Number Administered	400	

Number Retrieved	374	93.5

Table 3 shows that there are more low and middle classes of people inhabiting the peri urban area at high density ratio, with 270 respondents representing 72.2% of the study population answering Yes, while 104 respondents representing 27.8% of the study population responded No.

Table 3: The peri urban area has high density population with more low and middle class of persons.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
YES	270	72.2
NO	104	27.8
	374	100

Table 4 shows that there are fewer or absence of government institutions such as offices of parastatals etc, 213 respondents representing 57% of the study population responded Yes, while 161 respondents representing 43% of the study population replied No.

Table 4: There are fewer or absence of government institutions such as offices of parastatals etc.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
YES	213	57
NO	161	43
	374	100

Table 5 shows that there is a decreasing agricultural farmland as much of the available lands are fenced up by land grabbers and speculators for urban land used, 250 respondents representing

66.8% of the study population responded Yes, while 124 respondents representing 33.2% of the study population replied No.

Table 5: There is a decreasing agricultural farmland as much of the available lands are fenced up by land grabbers and speculators for urban land used.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
YES	250	66.8
NO	124	33.2
	374	100

Table 6, shows that the peri urban areas are dominated with isolated low quality of houses with cheap rental values, 240 respondents representing 64.2% of the study population answered Yes, while 143 respondents representing 35.8% of the study population responded No.

Table 6: The peri urban areas are dominated with isolated low quality of houses with cheap rental values

Response	Frequency	Percentage
YES	240	642
NO	143	35.8
	374	100

Table 7, shows that the roads are usually untarred and without drainage network, making it to be in deplorable state mostly during raining seasons., 238 respondents representing 63.6% of the study population responded Yes, while 136 respondents representing 36.4% of the study population replied No.

Table 7: The roads are usually untarred and without drainage network, making it to be in deplorable state mostly during raining seasons.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
YES	238	63.6
NO	136	36.4
	374	100

Table 9, shows that the popular means of transportation in the peri urban settlements are tricycles and motorizes bikes particularly for the intra-area movements, 215 respondents representing 57.5% of the study population responded Yes, while 169 respondents representing 42.5% of the study p8pulation replied No.

Table 8: The popular means of transportation in the peri urban settlements are tricycles and motorizes bikes particularly for the intra-area movements

Response	Frequency	Percentage
YES	215	57.5
NO	169	42.5
	374	100

Table 9 shows that there are fewer government own educational facilities (secondary and primary) but so many of substandard privately operated once., 230 respondents representing 61.5% of the study population responded Yes, while 144 respondents representing 38.5% of the study population replied No.

Table 9: There are fewer government own educational facilities (secondary and primary) but so many of substandard privately operated once.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
YES	230	61.5
NO	144	38.5
	374	100

Table 10, shows that there are standard operational health institutions such as hospitals, health centres, clinics and pharmacies, 183 respondents representing 48.9% of the study population answered Yes, while 191 respondents representing 51.1% of the study population responded No.

Table 10: There are standard operational health institutions such as hospitals, health centres, clinics and pharmacies.

Response	Frequency	Percentage		
YES	183	48.9		
NO	191	51.1		
	374	100		

Discussion

The process of urbanization has an effect on all sizes of settlements; as a result, peri urban areas gradually develop into cities with high density populations as it is certain that residents of other communities move to neighbouring cities in search of better opportunities as evident by this study's response of 72.2% to item 1 of table 4.7 and this is supported the work of Iyorakpo (2015). There are few government and public agencies offices as posted by the responses of this research with 57% of the study respondents as supported by the work of Ravertz el al (2013). The peri urbans have a steady decreasing agricultural land use as 95 percent of the land that was converted into urban land did so primarily at the expense of agricultural land as 66.8% of this study affirms this position that has been supported by Dan-Jumbo et al. (2018). The peri urbans are also characterized by isolated low quality of housing facilities as responded by 64.2% of the respondents, while the road network is subpar by 63.6% affirmation of the study population being

supported by the findings of Aster (2012) investigation on the state of road infrastructure development in Nigeria. Others infrastructural facilities in the peri urban areas like Educational, Health are not of standard quality and in adequate numbers for the teeming population of the areas as substantiated by scores of 38.5% and 48.9% respectively by the study respondents. These findings are supported by work of Arokoyu et al. (2016) while investigating the correlation between the growth of infrastructure and the degree to which residents of the south-south region of Nigeria were content with their lives as it was suggested that the government should make an effort to improve the quality of the urban environment, as well as the fundamental public infrastructure, as soon as possible, etc.

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study offers a comprehensive and methodical examination of urban expansion within the South-South region of Nigeria, specifically concentrating on Akwa Ibom State, Cross River State, Rivers State, Bayelsa State, Delta State, and Edo State. Over a span of thirty years, the land use patterns in the peri-urban area of Uyo Capital City have exhibited notable changes. The built-up area in 1992 covered 170 sq. km, representing 19.25% of the total land area. By 2012, it had expanded to 212.6 sq. km (24.08% of the total land area), and further increased to 254.32 sq. km (28.80% of the total land area) in 2023. This consistent growth reflects significant urbanization and developmental expansion in the peri-urban areas within the capital city. These findings have significant implications for sustainable development, emphasizing the need for responsible urban planning to manage urban growth, address deforestation and water resource management, and support resilient agricultural practices in the region.

The research findings for Calabar Capital City and its environs reveal substantial changes in land use characteristics over three distinct years: 1992, 2012, and 2023. In 1992, the built-up area encompassed 48.75 square kilometers, representing approximately 12.26% of the total land area. This area expanded significantly to 107.07 square kilometer This continuous expansion signifies urbanization and land conversion, with potential implications for sustainable development and peri-urban expansion.

The research findings for Port Harcourt Capital City and its surrounding areas demonstrate significant changes in land use characteristics across three different years: 1992, 2012, and 2023 Further analysis is needed to understand the underlying factors driving these land use changes and to inform strategies for balanced and sustainable development in the area. The research findings for Yenagoa Capital City and its surrounding areas highlight significant changes in land use characteristics across three distinct years and this dynamic pattern suggests initial urbanization followed by potential urban planning or land-use policy changes, highlighting the complexity of peri-urban expansion and development. These changes in land use patterns over the years in Yenagoa and its environs suggest complex interactions between urbanization, deforestation, alterations in water bodies, and agricultural practices. Monitoring and understanding these land use changes are essential for sustainable land management, environmental conservation, and informed urban and rural planning decisions in the region.

Based on the research results, the following specific and strategic recommendations can be made for government, city planners, residents, and research institutions: Develop Regional Urban Development Plans: Collaborate with state governments to formulate comprehensive regional urban development plans that consider the unique characteristics and growth potential of each state. These plans should guide infrastructure development, land use, and resource allocation to ensure sustainable and inclusive urban growth.: Strengthen Land Use Policies: Implement effective land use policies that promote compact and mixed-use development, protect natural resources, and preserve agricultural land. These policies should prioritize sustainable urban planning, efficient transportation systems, and the preservation of open spaces.

Reference

- Abass, K., Adanu, S.K. & Agyemang, S. (2018). Peri-urbanisation and loss of arable land in Kumasi Metropolis in three decades: Evidence from remote sensing image analysis. *Land Use Policy*, 72: 470-479
- Adjekumhene, I. (2002). The Impact of development on the environment.paper presented at the Annual Seminar of the general practice division of Ghanainstitution of surveyors on 19septenber 2002. KNUST, Kumasi.

- Aster, J. (2012). An Assessment of Road Infrastructure Development in Nigeria: The case of Akwa Ibom State. Sazha Journal of Environmental Studies, 2(1):59-69.
- Berliner, J (1977). International migration: a comparative disciplinary view, In *International Migration: A Comparative Perspective*, ed. A, Brown, E. Neuberger, pp. 443-61. New York: Academic
- Buxton, M. (2007). Change in Peri-urban Australia: Implications for Land Use Policies, Australia: Department of Environment and Heritage Publishing Unit.
- Dan-Jumbo, N.G., (2018). Urban Land-Use Dynamics in the Niger Delta: A Case Study of Greater Port Harcourt Watershed. Urban Sci. 2018, 2, 108
- Iyorakpo, J. (2015). Impact of rapid urbanization on environment quality in Yenagoa Metropolis, Bayelsa State, Nigeria. *European Scientific Journal*, 11(23):255 268.
- Lasisi, M., Popoola, A., Adediji, A., Adediji, O. &Babalola, K. (2017). City Expansion and Agricultural Land Loss within the Peri-Urban Area of Osun State, Nigeria. *Ghana Journal of Geography*, 9(3): 132–163.
- McGee, T. (2009). The Spatiality of Urbanization: The Policy Challenges of Mega-Urban and Desakota Regions of Southeast Asia. Unpublished Lestari Public Lecture. UniversitiKebangsaan Malaysia. June 3, 2009.
- Owoeye, J. O., & Ibitoye, O., (2016), Analysis of Akure Urban Land Use Change Detection from Remote Imagery Perspective, Urban Studies Research, Article ID 4673019, Hindawi Publishing Corporation.
- Ravetz, J., Fertner, C. & Nielsen, T.S (2013): Remaking CitiesContradictions of the recent urban environment. In K. Nilsson, S.Pauliet, S. Bell, C. Aalbers, & S. T. Nielsen (Eds.), Periurbanfutures: Scenarios and models for land-use change in Europe, Routledge Publications, New York, USA, and Canada (2013)

Spatio-Temporal Accessibility to Public Primary Healthcare Centers in Kaduna State, Nigeria.

Averik, P. D., Obafemi A.A., and Emenike G.C.

Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

Corresponding Emails: <u>danjumark@gmail.com</u> <u>averik danjuma@uniport.edu.ng</u>

Abstract

Access to healthcare services is a fundamental human right that contributes to the achievement of good health.Kaduna State domesticated the Ward Health System (WHS) for primary healthcare service delivery, using electoral wards as the fundamental operational unit required by the National Health Act. The State has 23 Local Government Areas (LGAs) with 255 electoral wards and, therefore has 255 PPHCs. The study assessed the spatiotemporal accessibility to public Primary Healthcare Centers (PPHCs) in Kaduna State, Nigeria. The focus was on spatial accessibility in terms offrequency of visits, time of the day of visit to the PPHC, and waiting period at the centers. Four hundred(400) copies of the questionnaire were administered to the residents of the study area. Descriptive statistics were used for the data analysis. Findings showed that 161 respondents, which represents 42.66% of the respondents, live close (< 2 km) to a PPHC facility. The proximity of the respondents from Kudan (87.71%), Kajuru (40%), and Sanga (57.14%) is closer than the other LGAs. Additionally, the study found that most residentsdid not visit the PPHCs frequently, except in Igabi LGA where they visited at night. Accessibility to PPHCs in some LGAs was poor, with long waiting times due to overcrowding. The study recommended thatthe governmentshould build more PPHCs or create additional electoral wards in the underserved LGAs and a prompt referral system to be promoted in the centers.

Keywords: Access, Spatial, Sustainable Development, Temporal, and Waiting Time.

Introduction

According to Kumar & Aithal (2019), time is a precious and irreplaceable resource that is limited in quantity but increases in value. Therefore, effective time management is crucial for everyone, particularly those who require healthcare services. Access to Public Primary Healthcare Centers (PPHCs) must be timely and the services provided must be of high quality, as healthy individuals and communities are essential for sustainable development. Healthcare wait time refers to the delay in accessing care, which can negatively impact both patients and healthcare facilities. Patients may become frustrated due to the prolonged wait, which can have a negative impact on their overall experience. Accessibility, as defined by Geurs and Van Wee (2004) is a function dependent on people, transport, and land use (social activities) and varies across time.

Thus, temporal accessibility refers to the availability of opportunities at different times, such as different hours of the day, seasons of the year, or differences between weekends and weekdays. It also includes the times of actual participation in certain activities. (Lättman, 2018). The study sought respondents' perceptions of temporal accessibility to PPHCs about the frequency and duration of visits and the duration of waiting to be consulted.

Mayaud et al. (2019) highlighted the importance of equal accessibility to healthcare services, with effective spatial access to PPHCs being beneficial to health. The Institute of Medicine stated in 1993 that access to healthcare involves the timely use of personal health services to achieve optimal health outcomes. There are four essential factors to consider when obtaining quality healthcare. These include having suitable health insurance that enables you to access the healthcare system, receiving timely medical attention when required, establishing a reliable healthcare provider with whom you can build a lasting relationship, and seeking immediate medical care when inneed (IOM, 1993).

Access to healthcare is a fundamental human right, and universal health coverage (UHC) guarantees it (Gitahi, 2018). Health inequalities are significant and must be addressed (Dorling etal., 2009). All individuals should have access to healthcare services, goods, and facilities without discrimination. These services should be accessible, acceptable, and of high quality. Failure to provide such services can violate the right to health, negatively impacting other fundamental human rights such as education and work (WHO, 2008; OHCHR, 2002). Geographic accessibility analysis requires three critical components: the population that needs access, the locations of health facilities, and data that helps model connectivity and travel time. This data includes road networks, land cover, streams, elevation, and care-seeking specificities (Dalamater, 2012; Ray & Ebener, 2008). With population growth and migration trends constantly changing, the demand for services, especially healthcare services, is also affected. Due to the rapid growth of the population and socio-economic heterogeneity, providing primary healthcare (PH) services can vary significantly. The adverse impact of such variations is felt more by people in lower socio-economic groups. Therefore, identifying and addressing such variations is crucial to providing adequate service to all people, regardless of their socioeconomic status (Shrestha, 2010).

The Nigerian government has taken several steps to address the challenges facing the Primary Healthcare (PHC) system. These include the implementation of policies and programs, as well as partnerships with non-governmental organizations. Some of the notable programs are the National Health Policy, the National Health Act, the National Strategic Health Development Plan, and the National Health Insurance Scheme. Other initiatives such as the National Routine Immunization Strategic Plan, the Minimum Standards for Primary Health Care in Nigeria, the Ward Minimum Health Care Package, the PHCOUR Implementation, and the One Functional PHC per Ward Strategy have also been put in place (NPHCDA, 2015).

Nigeria used to have a District Health System similar to many other developing countries in sub-Saharan Africa. However, there was no standard definition of a "district," and local government areas (LGAs) created their versions of districts. In 1992, UNICEF and WHO recommended that for effective community mobilization, the health district's boundaries should align with the electoral ward (which comprises 10,000 to 30,000 people) that elects a councilor to the LGA. In response, the Federal Government of Nigeria revitalized the National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) and introduced the Ward Health System (WHS)(WHO, 1992;FMoH, 1988; NPHCDA 1990 cited in Abosede et al., 2012). The implementation of the WHS was in line with the National Health Act of Nigeria, which aimed to achieve Universal Health Coverage (UHC) through community participation. Kaduna State adopted and implemented the WHS for healthcare(NPHCDA 2010&2018; FGN 2014;FMoH 2016). resulting in 255 "model" public Primary Health Centers (PHCs), each located in one of the 255 electoral wards in the state.

According to the Kaduna State Bureau of Statistics (KDBS) report for 2021, only 0.50% of the population in Kaduna State has access to safely managed sanitation services. Additionally, a report on the state of Primary Health Care (PHC) service delivery in Nigeria from 2019-2021 revealed that Kaduna State is one of the worst states in Nigeria for citizens in need of healthcare (Sphcn, 2022).

Averik(2023) observed that some LGAs in Kaduna State are underserved with PPHCs going by the Ward Health System policy(One PPHC per ward). Therefore, it is crucial to prioritize the improvement of access to PPHCs in Kaduna State. The findings highlight the importance of ensuring equitable distribution of services throughout the population, particularly in terms of spatiotemporal accessibility to the PPHCs. Despite these efforts, the planning and distribution of healthcare facilities across the country have not been equitable. Onokerhoraye (1999) notes that this lack of attention to equity has persisted over the years. Yang et al. (2006) also pointed out that equitable distribution of healthcare resources is a crucial goal of health facility planning. Therefore, there is a need for holistic planning that includes temporal accessibility to address systematic variations in healthcare accessibility as matters of social justice and improve accessibility for public PHCs in Nigeria. Health equity research often overlooks location-related issues, with most efforts focusing on describing and analyzing the distribution of social determinants of health (Pons-Vigués et al. 2014).

Empirical Literature

Healthcare accessibility research has given less attention to temporal variations. Moreover, an accessibility model that overlooks such variations is likely to mislead the wise policy decisions of healthcare planners by overestimating or underestimating accessibility levels (Zhang et al., 2022). Existing studies on healthcare service accessibility have mainly focused on the spatial dimension and physical accessibility measurement and their effects on factors like healthcare center attendance, some exclusively on the older population, while some studies have considered temporal variations at the urban, regional or provincial level only (Massoud, 2007; Abbas, 2009; Akinyinka, et al., 2016; Lawal & Anyiam, 2019; Hassan, et al., 2021; Idoko, et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021; Zhang, et al., 2022: Mshana, et al., 2023). However, these studies have limitations for not considering the temporal perspective. The temporal component is significant in determining accessibility because it is closely related to the availability of opportunities, service levels of transport modes, and time availability of individuals (Stępniak et al., 2019). Unfortunately, only a few studies have considered accessibility to PPHCs from a spatiotemporal perspective. while others have ignored them completely. To measure accessibility more accurately, it is crucial to account for spatiotemporal variations. Understanding the accessibility of PPHCs is crucial for improving the welfare of the people. However, a lack of knowledge about the temporal variations in accessibility could lead to a biased understanding of the current situation regarding PPHCs provision.

To address this issue, it is important to examine accessibility from a temporal perspective at the subnational (state) level. This will help healthcare planners make more informed decisions. Thus, this study focuses on spatio-temporal variations at the state or subnational level on the frequency or interval of visits, time of the day of visit to the PPHC, and the waiting period to be attended to by a medical practitioner at the center.

Methodology

The research was conducted in Kaduna state, which lies between latitudes 09° 02' N and 11° 32' N, and longitudes 06°15' E and 08° 38' E. (Please refer to Figure 1 for the study area map.) Kaduna

state is the third most populated area in the country with a population of 6.06 million as per the 2006 census. As of the end of 2020, the state's population is estimated to be 9,476,053. With a geographical area of 45,711.2 km2(NPHCDA, 2015; KDSG, 2010 &2012; KDSDP, 2020; NPC, 2009).

Kaduna State was created on May 27, 1967, and is located in the central part of Northern Nigeria. It shares borders with Katsina State to the North, Nasarawa State and the Federal Capital Territory-Abuja to the South, Kano, and Bauchi States to the Northeast, Zamfara State to the Northwest, Niger State to the West, and Plateau State to the Southeast. The state has 3 senatorial zones, 23 Local Government Areas (LGAs), and 255 electoral wards. Kaduna is the capital of the state.

The population is culturally very diverse with distinct differences in religion, ethnicity, traditions, and social norms between the predominantly Hausa/Muslim population in the northern part of the State and Christians of a variety of ethnic groups to the south. Over 60 ethnic groups namely, Adara (Kudara), Atyap (Kataf), Bajju (Kaje), Fulani, Gbagyi (Gwari), Gwandara, Gwong (Kagoma), Ham (Jaba), Hausa, Igbo, Ninkyop (Kaninkon), Ninzo, Numana, Nyenkpa (Yeskwa), Oegworok (Kagoro), Tsam (Chawai) and Yorubaamong others populate the state (KDSG 2010 and 2017; Hayab, 2015).

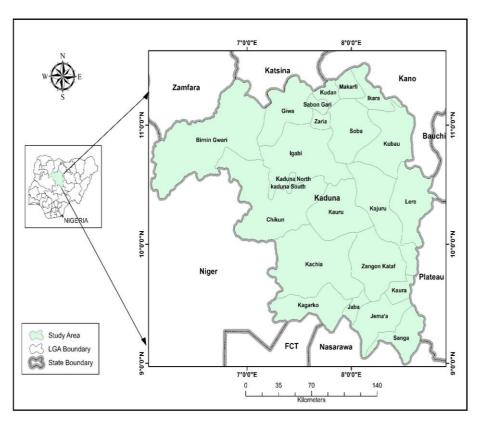


Figure 1: Kaduna State showing Local Government Areas (study area) **Source:** Adapted from the Administrative Map of Kaduna State

The entire Kaduna state is underlain by a basement complex of igneous and metamorphic rocks of mainly Jurassic to Pre-Cambrian ages. The basement complex rocks are essentially granites, gneisses, migmatites, schists, and quartzites (Benett, 1979;13 cited in Kaduna North – Wikipedia, 2023). The typical red-brown to red-yellow tropical ferruginous soils and savannah grassland with a few scattered trees and woody shrubs make up the soils and vegetation in this region (Ogbozige*et al.*, 2018). The vegetation is divided into two areas: the southern Guinea and northern Guinea savannahs (Abaje, 2007). The tropical dry-and-wet type of climate found in Kaduna State is classified as Aw by Koppen. The dry season runs from mid-October of one calendar year to April of the following, while the wet season is from April through mid-October with a peak in August (Abaje, *et al.*, 2015). The state as a whole receives about 1323mm of rainfall on average annually (Oladipo, 1993).

For this study, three Local Government Areas (LGAs) were selected from each of the three Senatorial zones in the study area using purposive and systematic random sampling techniques. The selection was based on population size as the study is focused on demographics. All LGAs in each Senatorial zone were arranged by population size, and the LGAs with the highest, medium (median), and lowest populations were chosen. The LGAs selected in Zone A were Zaria, Soba, and Kudan; in Zone B, they were Igabi, Kaduna North, and Kajuru; and in Zone C,

they were Zangon-Kataf, Kagarko, and Sanga. The researchers gathered information by using a structured questionnaire that had closed-ended questions. They also used data from the Kaduna State Ministry of Health, National Population Commission, fieldwork, and public administrative offices. The data was analyzed using ratios and percentages. The number of health facilities was obtained from Ministry of Health records, while population figures came from the National Population Commission. The data was organized into tables to explain trends. Ratios were used to compare the proportion of variables at a given point in time. Population estimates for 2021 were projected using the 1991 population census figures and the National Population Commission's 3.1 percent growth rate for Kaduna State (Averik, 2023). The researcher handed out 400 questionnaires to willing respondents daily using purposive sampling until they reached the desired sample size.

Results and Discussions

The Spatial accessibility to PPHCs in Kaduna State. Table 1: Approximate Travel Distance to PPHC

Senatorial Zones	LGA	< 2km	(%)	2km - 5km	(%)	5km- 8km	(%)	8km- 10km	(%)	>10km	(%)	Total No of Respondents'	Total Percentage (%)
Kaduna North	Soba	28	62.22	17	37.78	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	45	100
	Zaria	16	25.00	24	37.50	15	23.44	8	12.50	1	1.56	64	100
	Kudan	18	87.71	2	9.52	1	4.76	0	0.00	0	0.00	21	100
	Total No of Respondents	62	47.69	43	33.08	16	1.23	8	6.15	1	0.77	130	100
Kaduna Central	Igabi	26	36.11	40	55.56	3	4.17	1	1.39	2	2.78	72	100
	Kajuru	6	40.00	7	46.67	2	13.33	0	0.00	0	0.00	15	100
	Kaduna North	8	15.38	39	75.00	2	3.85	2	3.85	1	1.92	52	100
	Total No of Respondents	40	28.78	86	61.87	7	5.04	3	2.16	3	2.16	139	100
Kaduna South	Kagarko	17	50.00	3	8.82	7	20.59	4	11.47	3	8.82	34	100
	Sanga	12	57.14	6	28.57	2	9.52	0	0.00	1	4.76	21	100
	Zango- Kataf	30	51.72	10	17.24	13	22.41	5	8.62	0	0.00	58	100
	Total No of Respondents	59	52.21	19	16.81	22	19.47	9	7.96	4	3.54	113	100

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2022.

Table 1 above shows that 161 respondents, which represents 42.66% of the respondents, live close (2 km) to a PPHC. The proximity of the respondents from Kudan (87.71%), Kajuru (40.00%), and Sanga (57.14%), as tabulated, are closer to the PPHCs than the other LGAs. The World Health Organization (WHO) has recommended that a healthcare facility be within 0–5 kilometers (WHO, 1978), while 38.74% of the respondents traveled within the 2–5 kilometers range in the study area. This result indicates that the remaining 18.60% of the respondents live within a five to above tenkilometer radius. This implies that the majority (81.40%) of the respondents in the study area traveled a relatively short distance from their homes to a PPHC, which may reduce their transportation costs and the rigors of accessibility to distant modern healthcare services. Accessibility to the public PHC will improve because of the relatively short distance.

A study on the impact of distance from home on attendance at a health center in rural Papua New Guinea revealed that attendance decreased markedly with distance. Most people will only travel up to 5 kilometers for basic preventive and curative care (Muller *et al.*, 1998). The report reveals that one of the barriers to quality healthcare services is the distance traveled to reach them.

Table 2: Approximate Time taken to reach PPHC based on RoadTransportation.

,	LGA	<30mins	(%)	Greater than 30mins -1hr	(%)	Greater than 1hr - 2hrs	(%)	Greater than 2hrs - 3hrs	(%)	>3hrs	(%)	Total No of Respond	Total Percentage (%)
	Soba	10	22.22	31	68.89	4	8.89	0	0.00	0	0.00	45	100
Kaduna North	Zaria	26	40.63	26	40.63	5	7.81	5	7.81	2	3.13	64	100
	Kudan	18	85.71	3	14.29	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	21	100
	Total												
	No of	54	41.54	60	46.15	9	6.92	5	3.85	2	1.54	130	100
	Respon												
Kaduna Central	Igabi	24	33.33	47	65.28	1	1.39	0	0.00	0	0.00	72	100
	Kajuru	6	42.86	5	35.71	3	21.43	0	0.00	0	0.00	14	100
	Kaduna North	44	83.02	6	11.32	1	1.89	1	1.89	1	1.87	53	100
	Total No of Respon	74	53.24	58	41.73	5	3.60	1	0.73	1	0.72	139	100
Kaduna South	Kagarko	15	41.67	12	33.33	9	25.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	36	100
	Sanga	16	72.73	5	22.73	0	0.00	1	4.55	0	0.00	22	100
	Zango Kataf	35	63.64	18	32.73	2	3.64	0	0.00	0	0.00	55	100
	Total												
	No of Respon	66	58.41	35	30.97	11	9.73	1	0.88	0	0.00	113	100

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2022

The results in Table 2 above reveal that about 50.78% of the respondents spent less than 30 minutes at the PPHC. This is likely to comprise most of those who traveled at most 5 km or traveled on foot or by animal to the health facilities. In addition, other results in the table show that 40.05% spent 30 minutes to 1 hour, 6.49% between 1-2 hours, 1.81% between 2-3 hours, and 0.78% fell into the category of 3 hours and above on a trip to health facilities. Most residents in the categories of 1 hour to 3 hours traveled more than 5 km to utilize the health facilities; the long travel time may be because they patronized their choice of health center. The remaining 0.78% that spent three or more hours are possibly those that traveled out of the study area to utilize health facilities—in a study of locational and population factors in healthcare-seeking behavior in Savannah, Georgia, Gesler and Meade (1988) observed that people who had lived in an area for a short time might have preferred to visit a doctor or clinic closer to their previous residence.

The World Health Organization (WHO, 1978) stipulates that 95% of the population should be able to access healthcare facilities within a 30-minute drive during a business day or within a 30-minute drive during a business day of day or within a 30-minute drive during a business day or within a 30-minute drive during a business day or within a 30-minute drive during a business day or within a 30-minute drive during a business day or within a 30-minute drive during a business day or within a 30-minute drive during a business day of day or withi

minute' walk within 5 km. However, only about 50% of the respondents accessed the PHC facilities within 30 minutes. Buor (2004) asserted that, in developing countries, time, as a barrier to utilization, would be influenced by the season of the year and the nature of the patient's business activities. During the farming season, it would be expected that rural farmers would not like to waste much time traveling long distances for health care. In contrast, a busy entrepreneur may only sacrifice a little time for health care during peak seasons like Christmas. He may prefer using intervening alternatives.

Table 3: Spatial accessibility based on the nature of the route to PPHC

Senatorial Zones	LGA	Tarred but Bad	(%)	Tarred and Good	(%)	Not Tarred and Bad	(%)	Not Tarred but Good	(%)	Bush Track	(%)	Total No of Respondents	Total Percentage (%)
	Soba	10	22.22	0	0.00	4	8.89	31	68.89	0	0.00	45	100
Kaduna	Zaria	17	26.56	24	37.50	10	15.63	9	14.04	4	6.25	64	100
North	Kudan	0	0.00	2	9.52	12	57.14	7	33.33	0	0.00	21	100
	Total No of Respondents	27	20.77	26	20.00	26	20.00	47	36.15	4	3.08	130	100
_	Igabi	37	51.39	19	26.39	11	15.28	4	5.56	1	1.39	72	100
	Kajuru	6	42.86	5	35.71	3	21.43	0	0.00	0	0.00	14	100
Kaduna Central	Kaduna North	25	47.17	24	45.28	0	0.00	2	3.77	2	3.77	53	100
	Total No of Respondents	68	48.92	48	34.53	14	10.07	6	4.32	3	2.16	139	100
_	Kagarko	0	0.00	9	25.71	10	28.57	16	45.71	0	0.00	35	100
17. 1	Sanga	1	4.76	12	57.14	3	14.29	3	14.29	2	9.52	21	100
Kaduna South	Zango Kataf	20	35.09	33	57.89	1	1.75	3	5.26	0	0.00	57	100
South	Total No of Respondents	21	18.58	54	47.79	14	12.39	22	19.47	2	1.77	113	100

Source: Author's Fieldwork., 2022.

As shown in Table 3 above, the respondents in Zaria (37.50%), Kaduna North (45.28%), and Zangon-Kataf (57.89%), LGAs in each of the senatorial zones, enjoy tarred and good routes. In comparison, the respondents in Kudan (57.14%), Kajuru (21.43%), and Kagarko (28.57%) said that their roads are not tarred and are bad. The table further shows that the majority of the respondents, 128 people representing 33.50%, claimed that the nature of their routes is tarred and good, tarred but bad (30.36%), not tarred but good (19.63%), not tarred and bad (14.13%), and 2.35% bush track. The 2.35% are likely those who trek or use animals to commute to the health facilities. The poor road conditions can make it extremely difficult for patients to reach even relatively nearby health facilities on time. Further analysis shows that the fairness of the route condition justifies why the majority of the respondents to health facilities spend less time on the road (Table 2) and travel short distances to the health facilities (Table 1).

Assessment of the temporal accessibility to PPHCs in the study area

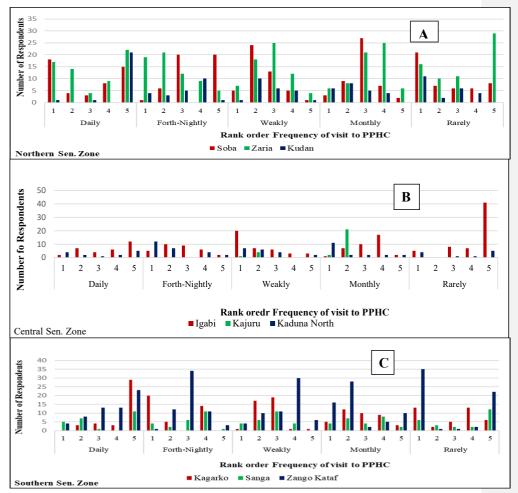
The temporal accessibility to the PPHCs in the three senatorial zones, A (Kaduna North),

B (Kaduna Central) and C (Kaduna South) are presented below;

Figure 2A, B, and C:Frequency or Interval of visits to PPHCs

Figure 3A, B, and C: Time of the day of visit to PPHCs

Figure 4A, B, and C: Waiting period to be attended to by a medical practitioner at the PPHCs.



Figures 2A, B, and C: Household members' frequency of visits to PPHC

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2022.

The results from Figures 2A, B, and C depict that, most respondents in Soba LGA visit the public PHC daily, weekly, and monthly. The people in Soba LGA are mostly farmers and are likely to fall sick frequently, which informs the reason for their frequent visits while in Zaria LGA, they visit forth-nightly and rarely (Kaduna North Senatorial Zone). The poor accessibility due to inadequate facilities, proximity to the facilities, good roads, and the concentration of Artisans are the reasons most of the respondents in Kaduna North LGA visit the facilities daily, forth-nightly, weekly, and monthly. In Kaduna's south senatorial zone, most respondents in Sanga LGA visit

daily and weekly, in Kagarko LGA, they visit forth-nightly and in ZangonKataf, they visit monthly and rarely.

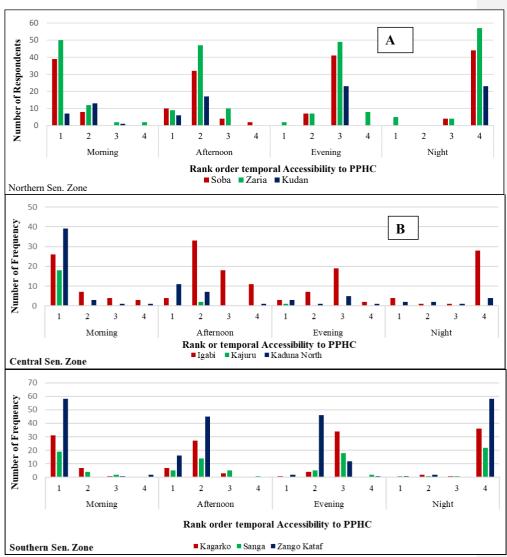
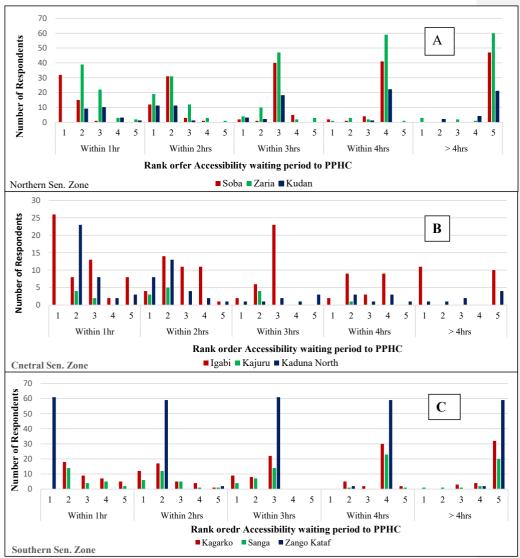


Figure 3A, B, and C: Period of the day Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2022.

Figures 3A, B, and C show the period of the day the most respondents visit the public PHC. In the Kaduna North senatorial zone, most patients in Zaria LGA visit in the morning evening, and night, while in Soba LGA they visit in the afternoon. In the Kaduna Central senatorial zone, respondents

in Kaduna North LGA visit in the morning and afternoon, while evening and night are the periods when they visit in Igabi LGA. This could be attributed to the congestion at the health centers, they go to the Farm and other engagements in the morning and afternoon, then visit the Medic in the evening and night time. Most patients in ZangonKataf LGA visit in the morning, afternoon, and night, while in Kagarko LGA, they visit in the evening (Kaduna South senatorial zone).



Figures 4A, B, and C: Waiting period before seeing medical personnel

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2022.

Figures 4A, B, and C reveal that respondents in Soba and Zaria LGAs (Kaduna North Senatorial zone) wait for a period of within 1 hour and above 4 hours respectively before being attended to by medical personnel. In the Kaduna Central senatorial zone, respondents in Igabi LGA wait for 1 hour or less in some locations, and above 4 hours at some other facilities while in ZangonKataf and Sanga LGAs (Kaduna South senatorial zone), the patients wait for within 1 hour and above 4 hours respectively before being attended to by a Medic. The implication is that, in most of the public PHCs in Zaria, Igabi, and Sanga LGAs where the patients wait for over 4 hours, it is an indication of poor accessibility due to overcrowding. This result corroborates with the study carried out by Joshua et al., (2015) in Igabi LGA, that 41.1 percent of the respondents indicated that antenatal patients wait for many hours (4-8) before they are attended to by a health care personnel. The time spent with the physician is a stronger predictor of patient satisfaction than the time spent in the waiting room. The results of research by Anderson *et al.*(2007) suggest that shortening patient waiting times at the expense of time spent with the patient to improve patient satisfaction scores would be counterproductive.

Conclusion

The study found that 81% of people in the area travel short distances of around 2km to reach a public primary healthcare center (PPHC), and about 50% of them take less than 30 minutes to get there. Most respondents (34%) said their route to the PPHCs is good, with well-maintained roads. The study also showed that people do not visit PPHCs frequently. In Igabi LGA, most of the respondents visit PPHCs at night, likely due to inadequate PPHCs in the area. However, accessibility to some PPHCs in Zaria, Igabi, and Sanga LGAs is poor, as respondents wait for over 4 hours due to overcrowding or inadequate medical personnel.

Recommendations

The study recommended that the government should build more PPHCs or create additional electoral wards in the underserved LGAs and prompt referral systems to be promoted where overcrowding is a major issue.

References

- Abaje, I. B. (2007). *Introduction to soils and vegetation*. Kafanchan: Personal Touch Productions.
- Abaje, I. B., Sawa, B. A., Iguisi, E. O., and Ibrahim, A. A. (2015). Assessment of Rural Communities' Adaptive Capacity to Climate Change in Kaduna State, Nigeria. *Journal of Environment and Earth Science*, 5(20), http://www.iiste.org/
 Accessed: 19/08/2023
- Abbas, S. (2009). An analysis of accessibility and utilization of healthcare facilities in Kachia Local Government Area of Kaduna State. Unpublished M.Sc. Dissertation. Department of Geography, Ahmadu Bello University. Zaria.
- Abosede, O. A., Campbell, P. C., Olufunlayo, T., and Sholeye, O. O. (2012). Establishing a Sustainable Ward Health System in Nigeria: Are Key Implementers Well Informed? *J Community Med Health Educ.* 2 (7):164 Accessed: 12/09/2022

Akinyinka, M. R., Adebayo, B. I., Wright, K. O., and Adeniran, A. (2016). Client Waiting Time in an Urban Primary Health Care Centre in Lagos. Journal of Community Medicine and Primary Health Care. 28(1) 17-24. *Journal of Community Medicine and* Primary Health Care. 28(1) 17-24.

https://www.ajol.info/index.php/jcmphc/article/view/139398

Accessed: 17/10/2022.

- Anderson, R. T, Camacho, F. T, Balkrishnan, R. (2007). Willing to Wait? The Influence of Patient Wait Time on Satisfaction with Primary Care. *BMC Health Serv. Res.;* 7(1):31. doi:10.1186/1472-6963-7-31
- Averik, P. D.(2023). Spatio-DemographicAccessibility of Public Primary Healthcare Centers in Kaduna State, Nigeria. AnUnpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Nigeria.
- Buor, D. (2004). Determinants of utilization of health services by women in rural and urban areas in Ghana. *International Journal of Human Geography and Environmental Sciences* (Geo. Journal), 61(1).
- Chen, W., Cheng, L., Chen, X., Chen, J., and Cao, M. (2021). Measuring Accessibility to HealthcareServices for Older Bus Passengers: A FinerSpatial Resolution. *Journal of Transport Geography*, *93*, 103068. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2021.103068
- Delamater, P. L., Messina, J. P., Shortridge, A. M., and Grady, S. C. (2012): Measuring geographic access to health care: Raster and network-based methods. *Int. J. of Health Geographics*. 11, 15, https://doi.org/10.1186/ 1476-072X-11-15
- Dorling, D., Mitchell, R., Orford, S., Shaw, M. and Tunstall, H. (2009): 'Healthcare Inequalities', in Kitchin, R. and Thrift, N. (eds.) *International encyclopaedia of human geography* Elsevier. https://www.dannydorling.org/?page_id=2457 Accessed: 28/05/2023
- Federal Government of Nigeria, (FGN) (2014). National Health Act. The Federal Republic of Nigeria, Official Gazette.
- Federal Ministry of Health Nigeria (FMoH) (2016). National Health Policy.
- Federal Ministry of Health Nigeria (FMoH) (1988). The National Health Policy and Strategy to Achieve Health for All Nigerians. Lagos.
- Gesler, W. M., and Meade, M. S. (1988). Locational and Population factors in healthcare-seeking behavior in Savannah, Georgia. *Health services research*, 23(3), 443–462.
- Geurs, K.T., and Van Wee, B. (2004). Accessibility Evaluation of Land-use and Transport Strategies: Review and Research Directions. *J. Transport Geogr.* 12, 127–140.
- Gitahi, J. W. (2022). Innovative Healthcare Financing and Equity through Community Based Health Insurance Schemes (CBHHIS) in Kenya. United States International University-Africa Digital Repository. http://erepo.usiu.ac.ke/11732/3654 Accessed: 18/05/2022
- Hayab, P. (2015). People Groups of Kaduna State, North Central Nigeria. https://philiphayab.blogspot.com/2015/08/kaduna-state-north-central-nigeria.html Accessed: 22/01/2021
- Hassan, I., Anazodo, M., Odonye, C., Babatunde, J., Lawal, A. A., Adeyemi, A., Bako, I. A., Sasetu, S. I., and Bello, S. O.(2021). Waiting Time and Client Satisfaction: An

Assessment of Quality of Care in Lafia Nasarawa State Nigeria. *Niger J Health Sci.* 21:19-25. IP: 105.112.226.58 http://www.chs-journal.com/Accessed: 31/05/2023

Idoko, E. O., Mamman, M., and Aribgede (2021). Analysis of Spatial Distribution of Primary Healthcare Facilities in selected LGAs in Nasarawa State Nigeria. *Journal of Agricultural Economics, Environment and Social Science* 7(1):61-77: http://www.jaeess.com.ng/ Accessed: 21/05/2023

Institute of Medicine (IOM) (1993). Committee on Monitoring Access to Personal Healthcare Services. Access to Health Care in America. Millman M, ed. Washington, DC: National Academies Press. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK235882/. Accessed: 16/10/2023.

Joshua, S., Abu, J. I., Laah, J. G., and Ali, A. Y. (2015). An Assessment of the Primary Health Care Services and Utilization in Igabi Local Government Area of Kaduna State. International Journal of Advancements in Research & Technology. 4(7): 2278-7763 https://www.academia.edu/15159403 Accessed: 03/04/2023.

Kaduna North (2023). In *Wikipedia*. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kaduna_North Accessed: 15/07/2023

Kaduna state Bureau of Statistics (KDBS) (2021). Kaduna State SDGs Watch: The Sustainable Goals Report Development 2021.

https://The-Sustainable-Development-Goals-Report-2021.pdf Accessed: 04/04/2023

Kaduna State Development Plan (KDSDP) (2020). *Kaduna State Planning and Budget Commission*, State Development Plan 2021 –2025, Kaduna.

https://www.opengovpartnership.org/wp-content/uploads/gravity_forms/24-6fb2e5a17f4b4b4e72048871008bb9f3/2021/10/KADUNA-SDP-2021-20251.pdf Accessed: 27/11/2021

Kaduna State Government (KDSG), (2017). *Kaduna State Government Demographics*, Kaduna. https://kdsg.gov.ng/demographics/ Accessed: 04/09/2023

Kaduna State Government (KDSG), (2012). Kaduna State Ministry of Lands and Survey, Kaduna.

Kaduna State Government (KDSG), (2010). *Kaduna State Ministry of Health*, Strategic Health Development Plan, 2010-2015, Kaduna.

Kumar, P. M. and Aithal, P. S., (2019). Importance of Time as a Resource in Managing Organizations. Proceedings of National Conference on Recent Advances in Technological Innovations in IT, *Management, Education & Social Sciences* ISBN No: 978-81-941751-6-. pp.45-52. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3513000 Accessed: 17/10/2022

Lawal, O., and Anyiam, F. E. (2019). Modelling Geographic Accessibility to Primary Health Care Facilities: Combining Open Data and Geospatial Analysis, Geo-spatial Information Science, 22:3, 174-184, DOI: <u>10.1080/10095020.2019.1645508</u>

Lättman, K. (2018). Perceived Accessibility-Living a satisfactory life with the help of the transport system. Doctoral Thesis, Karlstad University, Karlstad, Sweden.

https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1258116/FULLTEXT01.pdf Accessed: 14/06/2023

- Massoud, O. (2007). Implementation of Primary Health Care Delivery System in Birnin-Gwari L.G.A, Kaduna State. *Savanna*. (20)2.
- Mayaud, J. R., Tran, M., & Nuttall, R. (2019). An urban data framework for assessing equity in cities: Comparing accessibility to healthcare facilities in Cascadia. *Computers, Environment and Urban Systems*, 78, 101401. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compenvurbsys.2019.101401
- Mshana, G., Hieronimo, P., Mbilinyi, B. (2023). Assessment of spatial distribution and accessibility level of healthcare facilities for a period of 30 years from 1990 to 2020; the case of Morogoro municipality, Tanzania. *Tanzania Journal of Health Research*, 24(1):1-13. https://doi.org/10.4314/thrb.v24i1.4
- Muller, I., Smith, T., Mellor, S., Rare, L., Genton, B. (1998). The effects of distance from home on attendance at a small rural health center in Papua New Guinea. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 27(5): 878-884.
- National Population Commission (NPC) (2009). Population Census, Federal Republic of Nigeria official Gazette, Lagos, the Federal Government Printer Nigeria.
- National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) (2010). Minimum Standards for Primary Healthcare in Nigeria. Abuja, Nigeria.
- National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) (2018). Ward Health System. Abuja, Nigeria. https://nphcda.gov.ng/publications/ Accessed: 05/07/2022.
- National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) (2015). Primary Health Care Under One Roof Implementation Scorecard III Report. Abuja, Nigeria. https://niftng.com/wp-content/.../04/PHCUOR-Scorecard-3-Narrative-Report-final.pdf Accessed: 09//04/2023
- Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) (2002) The Right to Heath: Factsheet 31 https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/Factsheet31.pdf Accessed: 28/05/2023
- Ogbozige, F. J., Adie, F. J., & Abubakar, U. A. (2018). Water Quality Assessment and Mapping Using Inverse Distance Weighted Interpolation: A Case of River Kaduna, Nigeria. <u>Nigerian Journal of Technology</u> 37(1):249-261 DOI: 10.4314/njt.v37i1.33
- Oladipo, E. O., (1993). A comprehensive approach to drought and desertification in Northern Nigeria. *Natural Hazards*, 8: 235-261.
- Onokerhoraye, A. G. (1999). Access and Utilization of modern healthcare facilities in the Petroleum producing Region of Nigeria: The case of Bayelsa State. Research Paper No. 162. *Takemi Program in International Health Harvard School of Public Health.*
- Pons-Vigués, M., Diez, E. and Morrison J. (2014). Social and health policies or interventions to tackle health inequalities in European cities: A scoping review. *BMC Public Health*. 14:198.

https://bmcpublichealth,biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186.1471-2458-14-198 Accessed: 16/04/2023 Ray, N., and Ebener, S. (2008). Access Mod 3.0: Computing Geographic coverage and accessibility to health care services using anisotropic movement of patients. *Int. J. Health Geogr.* 7(63) https://doi.org/10.1186/1476-072X-7-63 Accessed: 15/04/2023

Shrestha, J. (2010). Evaluation of Access to Primary Healthcare A Case Study of Yogyakarta, Indonesia. https://www.semanticscholar.org Accessed: 27/11/2021

Sphcn (2022). The State of Primary Health Care Service Delivery in Nigeria 2019 – 2021. https://sphcn.ng/wp-content/uploads/2022/07/Final-State-of-Primary-Health-CareDelivery-In-Nigeria-2019-2021-v.compressed.pdfAccessed: 07/04/2023

Stępniak, M., Pritchard, J. P., Geurs, K. T., &Goliszek, S. (2019). The Impact of Temporal Resolution on Public Transport Accessibility Measurement: Review and Case Study in Poland. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 75, 8-24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2019.01.007

World Health Organization (WHO) (1978). Primary health care: report of the International Conference on Primary Health Care, Alma-Ata, USSR, 6-12 September 1978 / jointly sponsored by the World Health Organization and the United Nations Children's Fund. World Health Organization. https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/39228 Accessed: 07/04/2023

World Health Organization (WHO) (2008). Closing the gap in a generation: Health equity through action on the social determinants of health.

https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/43943/9789241563703 eng.pdf

Accessed: 29/05/2023.

World Health Organization (WHO) (1992). The Report of WHO Review: 10.

Yang, D. H., George, R., and Mullner, R. (2006) 'Comparing GIS-based Methods of Measuring Spatial Accessibility to Health Services', *Journal of Medical Systems*, 30(1): 23-32

Zhang, Y., Cao, M., Cheng, L., Gao, X., and De Vos, J. (2022). Exploring the Temporal

Variations in Accessibility to Health Services for Older Adults: A Case Study in

Greater London. Journal of Transport & Health, 24,101334.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jth.2022.101334

DUALISM IN BANTU PHILOSOPHY: AFFIRMING A CONNECTION BETWEEN CAUSATION IN AFRICAN THOUGHT AND CAUSATION IN LAW.

BY

Rev. Fr. John Justice Nwankwo
Department of Philosophy
Faculty of Humanities
Rivers State University
E-mail: john.nwankwo@ust.edu.ng

and

Dr. N.G. Ajah

Department of Philosophy

Faculty of Humanities

University of Port Harcourt

Abstract

This study adopted the method of hermeneutics and content analysis to examine Placide Tempels' Bantu philosophy which is rooted in metaphysical dualism and built on it. It discovered that most of the works done by authors in establishing link between African belief in causality and Western account of the concept approach it from the perspective of free will and determinism. The paper argues that such approach tends to limit causation in the law to cause-in-fact, whereas, studies on attribution of responsibility in law strongly show that cause-in-fact is inadequate for causal relations in law. The position of this paper is that Cause-in-law, which, both philosophers and legal scholars see as the most important factor for causation in the law, features in dualism of cause and effect among the Bantus. It calls for a genuine approach to understanding African thought patterns.

Key Words: Causation, Dualism, Law.

Introduction

Placide Tempels was a missionary Reverend Father, who went to Congo in Africa and evangelized the Bantu people in Central Africa. Born on 18th February 1906, Tempels wrote a famous book he titled *Bantu Philosophy* in 1945. In this book, Tempels was out to prove that the African people are humans and reasonable as against the European idea that Africans lack the capacity to reason. In order to do this, he has to x-ray the cosmology of the Bantu people. Originally, the term Bantu philosophy referred to research done in traditional culture between 1950 and 1990 in Central Africa – more specifically, in the Democratic Republic of Congo (called Zaire in 1971 – 97), Rwanda, and Uganda by philosophers and theologians such as Mulago awa (Ikala Musharamina, John Mbiti, Mutuza Kabe, and Alexis Kagame." (Nkulu – N'sengha, 2023, p. 1).

However, with the classical work of Placide Tempels on Bantu philosophy, it seems Bantu philosophy has come to be identified with him more readily than its original scope. In his work on Bantu philosophy, there are certain aspects that connect with the theme of metaphysical dualism.

People in different parts of the world have ways of thinking, reflecting, speaking and acting. The entirety of a people's way of life described as culture in philosophical Anthropology finds their roots in the people's philosophy.

The research led bare a lot of beliefs that were existing among the Bantu people but were hardly reflected upon until this research. One of those discoveries is the inherent belief in metaphysical dualism as was exemplified in different ways. In fact, in the very first chapter, he started by saying that "Life and death determine human behavior" (Tempels, 1959, p. 9). Marie Pauline Eboh Shares same view and claims that it is the fear of death to makes people to conform to certain basic ways of living. According to her, "Death controls most human activities" (Eboh, 2011, p. 215). In like manner, Hegel sees "Death [as]... 'an absolute lord' that levels all persons under its authority" (Eboh, 2011, p. 219). For fear of death, life is well lived, showing the relationship between life and death at even the first instance. Such relationship does not end life and death in Tempels' philosophy. Tempels also noticed the existing relationship between two worlds he described as visible world and invisible world, where the actions of the beings in the invisible world effect the existence of the beings in the visible world and vice versa. He noticed that in every human being, there is a relationship between strength and enfeeblement in human existence, as well as between cause and effect in all things. Thus, Tempels accepts that reality is dual and mutually independent in nature. This work intends to expose Tempels' position on the dualism of reality, especially as it concerns the concept of causality showing the connection it has with Western concept of causality in law.

Literature Review on Dualism in Bantu Philosophy

Placide Tempels Bantu philosophy is a child of necessity. Tempels who was a Belgian missionary in Congo wanted to acquaint other missionaries with reality in Africa, as to aid them speed up their missionary work. The first issues that Tempels addressed in his little book is the issue of life and death and their influence in human existence. Tempels, just like Eboh, but even before Eboh's work had argued that the human behaviour is determined by the reality of life and death. Using the African background of Congo, Tempels made a general assessment on the extent life and death determines the human behaviour. He argued that, "It has been often remarked that an European who has given up, during his life, all practices of Christian religion, quickly returns to a Christian Viewpoint when suffering or pain raise the problem of the preservation and survival or the loss and destruction of his being" (Tempels, 1959, p.9). This means that even those who gave up their ontology still have attributes of them in them, even though it may be passive. This truth is not peculiar to Christians alone, other people of other backgrounds also portray similar traits. "Many

sceptics turn, in their last moments, to seek in the ancient teaching of the West, the practical answer to the problem of redemption or destruction" (Tempels, 1959, p.9). Recall that sceptics deny the reality of knowledge or at least, the reality of certainty in knowledge. Yet, they know at least the need to return to their foundation at such critical moment. So, Tempels concluded that, "Suffering and death are ever the two great apostles who lead many wanderers in Europe at their moments to our traditional Christian wisdom." (Tempels, 1959, p.9). The Europeans who denied their faith returned to their faith before death and suffering. Suffering and death are ever two great apostles that lead many wanderers in Europe at their moments to the traditional Christian wisdom. This return is not from the viewpoint of Christianity in particular, in Tempels' opinion, rather, a return to the foundations of their existence. The fact remains that this truth applies even in other areas. Writing of this Ikechukwu Anthony, says; "Tempels began by arguing that the principles of life and death, survival and destruction and the fear of the unknown give birth to certain behavioural patterns and religion practices." (Kanu, 2002, p.3). And "This is true of the European and also of the primitive person to whom the principles of life and death have made an apostle of fidelity of a magical way of life, a magical way of life founded on a logical system of human thought, although simple and relatively primitive." (Kanu, 2002, p.3). It is based on sameness of such realities that philosophers like Parmenides argue that reality is One, Unchanging, and Permanent. Things share certain foundational similarities that cannot be denied. Temples argues that this truth of returning to the basics at the moment of suffering and death is true also of the Bantu people, who have been civilized. Tempels states with reference to the reactions of the Europeans in the presence of suffering and death, that:

In the same way among our Bantu we see the evolue's, the "civilized", even the Christians, return to their former ways of behaviour whenever they are overtaken by moral lassitude, danger or suffering. They do so because their ancestors left them their practical solution of the great problem of humanity. The problem of life and death, of salvation and or destruction. (1959, p.9).

Tempels just like Aristotle believes that human beings form basics in their existence and only can change superficially. Tempels went further to state that when forces in life push, people irrespective of their place of origin, return to their basics. Therefore, Tempels states that "All human behaviour depends upon a system of principles" (1959, p.9). For him, people's "... reactions are founded upon a compete philosophical system..." (1959, p.9). A people's conception of life which determines their actions and reactions depend on their clear perception of the role of life and death in the existence of the human person, living in the universe. The pleasure of living and the fear of death actually play strong roles in determining people's behaviours.

In the previous works of the earlier three scholars, dualism was discussed relationally; how existence at the physical level relate with existence beyond the physical realm. However, Tempels discusses dualism both as parallel existence of realities and in their relationship. Here, Tempels argues on the reality of both a visible world and an invisible world in Bantu cosmology, the existence of the soul that survives life after death and how the beliefs affect human behaviour.

This view of the visible and invisible world is too deeply ingrained in the spirit of Western culture, not to rise up again irresistibly when the crises of life occur.

It is very possible, both with the individual and with the tribal or cultural group, that the mysteries of life and death, survival and destruction, together with fear arising from all these mysteries, became the psychological agent that gave birth to certain behavioural patterns and to certain redemptive practices (Tempels, 1959, p.9).

Tempels compared the action and reactions of people with different backgrounds; the Christians and primitive people and saw that the believe in these realities influence the human life, the actions and reactions of people in various circumstances.

The Bantu cosmology believes in the existence of the soul in everything, but it is not in the sense of Western cosmology. Writing on this, Tempels states:

When "we" differentiate in man the soul and the body, as is done in certain Western writings, we are at a loss to explain where "the man" has gone after these two components have been separated out. If, from our European outlook, we wish to seek Bantu terms adequate to express this manner of speaking, we are up against very great difficulties, especially if we are proposing to speak about the soul of man. Unless under European influence, the Bantu do not thus express themselves. They distinguish in man body, shadow and breath. This breath is the assumed manifestation, the evident sign, of life, though it is mortal and in no way corresponds with what we understand by the soul, especially the soul as subsisting after death, when the body with its shadow and its breath will have disappeared. (Tempels, 1959, p.27).

From here, it is understandable that there is a large expanse of influence from Western cosmology in different parts of Africa. As we noticed in the cases of Eboh and Alawa, the use of soul also

came from Western influence. Here, Tempels noticed the efforts to have a specific description of soul in Bantu cosmology. He argued that the role of the animation of the body that is apportioned to the soul in Western cosmology is ascribed to breath in Bantu cosmology. The breath is an evidence of life and the shadow is the lesser aspect of the body. Thus, both breath and shadow are parts of the body, but whereas the breath is the higher and animating part, the shadow is the dependent part. This sounds like Platonism in his speculative philosophy of Forms. However, Bantu cosmology has not also debunked subsistence of the human person after death. It rather has a different description and explanation for it.

What lives on after death is not called by the Bantu by a term indicating part of a man. I have always heard their elders speak of "the man himself", "himself", "aye mwine"; or it is "the little man" who was formerly hidden behind the perceptible manifestation of the man; or the "muntu", which, at death, has left the living. (Tempels, 1959, p.27).

From this explanation, the Bantus also believe that there is a part of the human person that survives death, lives beyond the visible world and dwells in the invisible world. This being is hidden from physical perception and continues its existence after death.

Another aspect of metaphysical dualism found in Tempels' Bantu philosophy is on the strengthening or enfeeblement of forces. Force is the potent of life, which could be strengthened or weakened. It is a common thing to hear the Bantu people say that they live for the purpose of acquiring life, strength or vital force, to live strongly.

The Bantu say, in respect of a number of strange practices in which we see neither rime nor reason, that their purpose is to acquire life, strength or vital force, to live strongly, that they are to make life stronger, or to assure that force shall remain perpetually in one's posterity. (Tempels, 1959, p.22).

From this common interest of the Bantus, it, therefore, means that just like forces can be strengthened, forces can also be weakened. Strengthening of forces is positive but weakening of forces is negative. As such, just like the Bantu people strive to acquire positive forces or strengthen their forces, they seek to stay away from negative forces. "Used negatively, the same idea is expressed when the Bantu say: we act thus to be protected from misfortune, or from a diminution of life or of being, or in order to protect ourselves from those influences which annihilate or diminish us." (Tempels, 1959, p. 22). As such, force are object of prayers and actions. People wish, pray and strive to acquire force and also wish, pray and strive not to diminish force. The Bantus go as far as seeking divine assistance to make force stronger. Even God is perceived with force and described with reference to strength. Tempels says "...the Bantu speak of God himself

as 'the strong one', he who possesses force in himself." (Tempels, 1959, p. 22). Speaking further, "He is also the source of the force of every creature. God is the 'Dijina dikatampe': the 'mukomo', as our baluba have it, the one who is stronger than all other (Tempels, 1959, p. 22). Force, therefore, is at the centre of all existence, for God to be described from the point of view of force. He is the source of force and through Him, every other being derives force. The founders of the human race, who are dead are assumed to possess extraordinary force and are highly exalted after God.

The spirits of the first ancestors, highly exalted in the superhuman world, possess extraordinary force in as much as they are the founders of the human race and propagators of the divine inheritance of vital human strength. The other dead are esteemed only to the extent to which they increase and perpetuate their vital force in their progeny. (Tempels, 1959, p. 22).

This sounds more like the hierarchy of beings in African philosophy and exemplified by Etim in this study. God is the source of all force, the spirits of founders of human race are highly revered in the ancestral world also described by Tempels as the invisible world. The other dead also possess spirits, but are regarded according to their impacts. Therefore, even death does not end existence for Tempels. Bad experiences diminish the individuals vital force, unlike good experiences that increase the vital force. "Every illness, wound or disappointment, all suffering, depression, or fatigue, every injustice and every failure: all these are held to be, and are spoken of by the Bantu as, a diminution of vital force." (Tempels, 1959, p. 23). It is therefore, evident that Bantu people avoid these negative sources of diminution and strive for the positive ones that increase the vital force. For the Bantus: "Illness and death do not have their source in our own vital power, but result from some external agent who weakens us through his greater force. It is only by fortifying our vital energy through the use of magical recipes, that we acquire resistance to malevolent external forces." (Tempels, 1959, p.23). Therefore, the Bantus accept any means through which vital force can be acquired, sustained and increased.

Tempels' position that the human vital power is not the cause of evil but evil has its own vital power sounds more like St. Augustine's philosophy on God and the source of evil. "Augustine proposed that evil could not exist within God, nor be created by God, and is instead a by-product of God's creativity." (Wikipedia, Retrieved 16th June, 2023, p.5). a first look at this claim will make it look spurious because Tempels did not deny that God is the source of the vital force for all these but Augustine did. They appear similar from the angle of attributing certain features and denying the negative side of that same features. For instance, Augustine says God is the source of all things, yet God is not the source of evil. For that reason, evil, Augustine says is not a thing, but

a negation of what is. In same vein, Tempels upholds that vital force is the source of everything but it is not the source of illness and death. May be like Augustine, illness and death may not be things in Tempels philosophy but negation of things. In such a case, illness will be the negation of good health and death will become the negation of life. However, as good as this sounds, death cannot be a negation of life, for death is part of life and through death, human beings transform to another level of existence.

Anytime a discussion ensues on cause and effect, it is common for a student of Western philosophy to cast his or her mind back to "Aristotle (who) postulated four causes, namely, the material cause, the formal cause, the efficient cause and the final cause (Omoregbe, 2002, p. 141). Somehow, this distort the mind from embarking on a more comprehensive understanding of reality that the idea of cause and effect is common in many cultures. "What you sow is what you reap" (Gal. 6:7), "What goes around comes around" (Emmons, 2005, p.1), "Whatever goes up must come down" (Newton, 2023, p.1); these are all discoveries from common observations in parts of the world, taken up by some individuals and given scholarly inclinations. Tempels also observed the reality of cause and effect in Bantu cosmology and the fact that the people were conscious of it from the fact that they would consciously avoid anything that would cause the diminution of vital force and incline unto what would strengthen it, is clear evidence to show that the Bantus were conscious that every action has its consequence. In Bantu philosophy, cause and effects is acclaimed even among forces and beings. Higher forces can influence lower forces and the level of the force determines its operations. "Higher and lower forces, therefore, are thought of by the Bantu in relation to living human forces." (Tempels, 1959, p. 31). Tempels insists that "For this reason I have preferred to call the influence of one created being upon another causal agencies of life, rather than causal agencies of being, or of force as we have provisionally termed them." (1959, p.31). On the impact of higher forces, Tempels holds, "In fact, even inferior beings, such as inanimate being and minerals, are forces which by reason of their nature have been put at the disposal of men, of living human forces, or of men's vital forces." (1959, p.31). Etim as stated earlier, seems to see every other created thing to exist at the service of human being. Here, Tempels justifies it from the angle of the quality of forces.

The human person, whether dead or alive can improve or reduce the vital forces of others. "Man (living or deceased) can directly reinforce or diminish the being of another man." One would wonder why the dead were included. The reason is because, for the Bantus, life does not end in death. Eboh captured this in the series of her works on the dead and the idea that they still live, and for the Bantus, death does not stop life; the dead still live, but they live diminished life.

Again, vital forces can be transferred. According to Tempels, "such vital influence is possible from man to man: it is indeed necessarily effective as between the progenitor - a superior vital force, and his progeny – an inferior force." (1959, p. 33). From this angle, it is understood why in Africa, the living on earth, believe the ancestors have greater influence over them and often pray

to them for assistance. In Christianity, it is akin to praying to the saints and angels for their assistance. The living on earth are believed to have descended from the ancestors and as such the ancestors are believed to possess the power to either help or harm the living on earth, just like human beings can also reinforce or diminish the force of inferior beings. The belief in the impact of vital force on another force stems from the belief in cause and effect. Every action has its consequences.

Connection between Causation in African Thought and Causation in Law

Temples has given an articulate account of causation in African thought pattern. However, scholars may not have pondered on the serious connection his account has with the Western idea of causation in law manifest in the attribution of responsibility in law. Most of the authors who have attempted to explain causation in relation to attribution of responsibility approach it from the perspective of freewill and determinism (see Nwigwe 1998:70-76; Udoigwomen 2003:23-33). In causation in law, a distinction is usually drawn between what is referred to as 'cause- in- fact' and 'cause in law'. H. L. A. Hart and Tony Honore an attempt to account for causation in terms of attribution of responsibility in law, advocate for cause-in-law as against cause-in- fact (Hart and Honore 1985:121-126). Cause-in-fact is directly connected to attribution of responsibility in terms of free will and determinism, which tries to account for remote and proximate causes of action and upon which the proximate cause of action is seen as the basis of attribution of responsibility. To establish cause-in-fact, the sine qua non (causally relevant condition or conditions) and the NESS (necessary element of a sufficient set), tests are used (Kramer, et al, 2008:578-584). However, Hart and Honore see these tests as inadequate for attribution of responsibility in law because they focus only on the material cause of actions and inactions (act and omission). Thus, they argue that:

Two sufficient causes of an event of a given kind are present and, however finegrained or precise we make our description of the event, we can find nothing which shows that it was the outcome of the causal process initiated by one rather than the other", (Hart and Honore, p.124).

Hart and Honore therefore affirm the claim that in law, the tests for cause-in-fact serve to establish what Ernest Ojukwu and Chuka Ojukwu describe as 'cause of action'. That is to say that these tests form the reason for an action to be instituted in court, not the reason for passing judgment. According to the Ojukwus, cause of action means any fact or series of facts, which found a claim, that is, the basis of the claim, (Ojukwu and Ojukwu, 2009:103). It implies that an action pertaining

to a case cannot be instituted in the court unless there is cause of action, or the case has passed the *sine qua non* test or Ness test, or the both.

Most legal theorists argue that cause- in- fact cannot be the basis of attribution of responsibility to any agent accused of either crime or tort. As Vilhelm Aubert notes, "...it may be said that law is not unconcerned with causal relationships, but their delimitation and sometimes their interpretation are narrowly defined by normative considerations", (Aubert, 1983:85). What Aubert states is the reason that cause- in- fact is not taken to be conclusive of attribution of responsibility in law. The delimitation of the 'sine qua non' and NESS tests is said to feature in those areas in which our intuitive judgments of responsibility are needed. Thus, the tests are said not to be completely relevant in the attribution of responsibility in cases of over-determination, of joindetermination, and of interpersonal relationships in which the agents are not acting in concert. Cases of over-determination involve the attribution of responsibility to two or more agents whose action if taken individually, can bring about the particular consequence. If, for instance, a woman is raped to death by three men, each of them is responsible for the woman's death. Likewise, the three of them will receive the same kind of punishment because one man can rape a woman to death. The sine qua non test cannot determine that the three men are responsible and that they should be punished equally. It can only see the combined actions of the men as what caused the death of the woman. In cases of joint- determination, two or more events combine to bring about another. An instance is when a person who intended to commit arson lights a match stick and drops it on a building he or she wants to raze down, and a second person pours petrol on the same house and it is razed down. The sine qua non test may employ either the notion of 'proximate' cause, or the notion of 'remote' cause to establish respectively, that either the person who poured petrol or the person who lit the match, was the cause of the arson. However, in law both persons are to be held responsible for the arson. Cases of interpersonal relationships have to do with such issues as parent's responsibility over child, trustee's responsibility over a minor, guardian's responsibility over ward, and others. If for instance a child or a minor commits a crime, and it is found out that his or her action was as a result of neglect, the parents of the child or the trustee of the minor may be held culpable. The sine qua non test, cannot establish that parents or guardians could be held responsible for the acts of their children or their wards, respectively.

Tempels' account of causation in Bantu philosophy clearly indicates that the Bantus have an understanding of the attribution of responsibility similar to the requirement of cause-in-law. According to Tempels, the Bantus believe that vital force, a metaphysical element, could be the cause of not only life but also people's choice of action. This is akin to determinism. However, the Bantus, equally try as much as possible to avoid situations whereby their vital force could be diminished, thereby being unduly influenced by another force, be it superior vital force (ancestors) or inferior vital force (lower beings). This shows a belief that a diminution of vital force which

can manifest only in a person acting in a manner he never freely chooses can still bring upon such a person, some consequences (liability, responsibility, punishment). If, not, the Bantus would not consider avoiding diminution of vital force. Likewise, they believe that the consequences they envisage to follow diminution of vital force cannot be determined through factual means like the cause-in-fact. Hence, in such circumstance, they take recourse to the ancestors. The ancestors form an indeterminate factor just like the indeterminate factor (intuition) Hart and Honore, argue is employed in determining cases of overdetermination, joint determination and interpersonal relationships. Thus, even the Bantu thought pattern reflects Western thinking in law and invariably, in other fields of human endeavour.

Conclusion

The research undertaken on Placide Tempels *Bantu* philosophy is one of those studies that address the reality of the human person. It digs into the metaphysical foundations of realities and realized that reality is dualistic in nature. Tempels discussion on the dualism of cause and effects is compared to the idea of causality in law which is an aspect of Western thought pattern. A deep connection is established between Western thought on attribution of responsibility in law in terms of cause-in-law and the Bantus' belief on the attribution of consequences in terms of diminution of vital force. In both situations, an indeterminate metaphysical factor (ancestors for the Bantus; intuition for Western thought) must be involved. Thus, this paper argues that the so-called distinction between Western and African philosophy is unfounded given a direct reflection of Western thought patterns in thought patterns original to Africans. It recommends that a genuine approach to understanding African thought patterns, believing that such approach could lead to reforming most of the anomalies observed in Western thought such as the object/subject dichotomy.

References

Aubert, V. (1983) In Search of Law: Sociological Approaches to Law, Oxford: Martin Robertson.Eboh, B.O. (1973). The concept of the human soul in Igbo traditional philosophy. Ph.D dissertation. Rome: Pontifical Gregorian University.

Eboh, M.P. (1987). African philosophy and what it can contribute to world culture. *Journal of social sciences and humanities*, Vol. 2, 45 – 51.

______. (2011). Introduction to philosophy and philosophizing. Port Harcourt pearl Publishers.

Emmons, R. (2005). You reap what you sow Obadiah 15 – 16, Israel My Glory. https://israelmyglory.org.

- Eyo, E and Ogar, J.N. (2014). The Socratic "Man know thyself" and the problem of personal identity, *African journal online*, Vol. 15, no. 1. https://www.ajol.info.
- Hart, H. L. A. and Honore, T. (1985) *Causation in the Law*, 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University
- Kanu, I.A. (2022). Book Renlaw of L'apholise and Religious Studies Bantou's Review. *Nasara Journal of Philosophy*, 3(1), 194 201.
- Kramer, M.S., Abound, F., Minonova, E. Vanilovich, I and Platt, R. (2008) "Breastfeeding and Child Cognitive Development: New Evidence from a Large Randomized Trial" in Archive of General Psychiatry, vol.5, No.65, pp.578-584.
- Mondin, B. (1991). Philosophical anthropology. Bangalore: Theological Publications in India.
- Nkulu-N'Sengha, M. (2023). *Bantu Philosophy, Encyclopedia Britannica*. https://www.britannica.com, retrieved June 15th, 2023.
- Ojukwu, E. and Ojukwu, C.N. (2009) *Introduction to Civil Procedure*, 3rd ed. Abuja: Hele-Roberts.
- Omorogbe, J. (2002). *Metaphysics without tears: A systematic and historical study*. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd.
- ______.(2001). *Philosophy of mind*. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd. Ozumba, G.O. (2001). *A concise introduction to epistemology*. Calabar: Ebenezar Printing Press & Computer Service.
- Nwigwe, B.E. (1996) "A Theological Perspective on the Metaphysical Doctrine of Freedom of the Will" in Jim I. Unah, ed. *Metaphysics, Phenomenology and African Philosophy*, Ibadan: Hope Publications, pp.70-76.
- Scheler, M. (1970). La posizione dell'uomo nel cosmo (Man's Place in Nature). Milan: Fabbri.
- Tempels, P. (1969). Bantu philosophy. Paris: Presence Africaine.

The Holy Bible, Revised Standard Version.

Uduigwomen, A. F. (2003) *Contemporary Issues and Problems in Biomedical Ethics*, Calaber: Vision Connections, pp.23-33.

Wikipedia, Retrieved 16th June, 2023. Natural Evil, https://en.m.wikipedia.org.

METAPHYSICAL DUALISM AS A PHILOSOPHICAL CONCEPT IN PETER ALAWA'S DUMEBENATA: AN EXPOS ϵ

 \mathbf{BY}

OHALETA AZUBUIKE CELESTINE

Is a Post Graduate (*PhD*) student of the Department of Religious and Cultural studies,

University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Rivers State

Phone Number: 08037658207, Email: azujoyce@yahoo.com

&

PROFESSOR JOHN O. OBINECHE

Department of Religious and Cultural studies, University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Rivers State

Abstract

The belief in reality as having double dimensions have been reflected upon by a number of philosophers. The world has both a temporary aspect and a spiritual aspect. The human person is also said to be a composite of body and spirit. Within this context, Alawa's work titled *Dumebenata* properly fits into metaphysical dualism. It is the aim of this study, therefore, to properly situate this work into metaphysical dualism as it adopts an expository research method. Alawa's *Dumebenata* treats the issue of human life and exclusively describes it as transcendental as against other forms of life. Alawa affirms that the human life is eternal and its eternity stems from the human possession of the soul, that is naturally eternal. This study contributes to the limited literature on metaphysical dualism and recommends that the study of African realities be taken more seriously, for a more authentic existence.

Keywords: Metaphysics, dualism, dumebenata.

Introduction

Philosophy is a wide discipline that no single definition can sufficiently cover its meaning. In fact, almost every philosopher seems to have his own definition of philosophy. According to Joseph Omoregbe, "If you ask ten different philosophers what philosophy is, you are likely to get ten different answers." (2018, p. 1). A single definition can hardly handle the meaning of philosophy because it is a wide discipline with several areas that sometimes get assembled into an aspect with time. Most philosophers speculate and later their pupils gather their speculations into appropriate branches. It is therefore, a rare opportunity to see philosophers who speculate and situate their ideas into specified areas. This paper happens to be one of those rare opportunities where a philosopher's ideas are situated by either the philosopher himself or by his students while he is still alive. Just like other philosophers, Peter Zabbeh Alawa philosophized on a traditional Gokana (in Ogoni kingdom of Rivers State, Nigeria) word, dumebenata and titled the book after it. Published as a book in 2012, Alawa divided this philosophical work on death and life after death into four chapters. The first chapter is on the nature of life, the second chapter is on the nature of death, the third chapter is on the nature of the soul and the last chapter is on life after life. A philosophical review of this book reveals that this book treated issues on life in this physical world and hereafter. As such, dealt with life from both the temporary and from an eternal dimension. As such, Alawa's work is dualistic in content. However, with greater attention on life after death, Alawa treated issues on transmigration, reconstruction of the body, reincarnation and so on. This

work, therefore, is a philosophical exercise that is aimed at exposing Alawa's *dumebenata* as a work on metaphysical dualism.

Dumebenata as a Philosophical Concept

The word "Dumebenate" is of a Gokana root in the ancient Kingdom of Ogoni land. Brought to the light of philosophical speculation by Peter Alawa, (2012, p. 1) it has assumed a position for critical reasoning coined from three words; "Dum' which means 'life', 'Ebe' which serves as a definite article 'the' and 'Nata' which means 'unending'. According to Patrick Vareba, literally, "Dumebenata" means "life that does not end" (Personal Communication, August 27th, 2021). This is translated into English as eternal life. In his book with this title, Alawa interprets "Dumebenata" as "Life after Life" and gave it a philosophical analysis on that framework. For Alawa at this level, life is exclusive to human beings. In his own words. "Today, when we talk of life, we reflect on human life and not the life of animals, plants or birds" (2012, p. 4) Alawa, therefore considers the human life as operating at a different level from the other beings such as other animals and plants. The differences between the human life and the life of other beings is that the human life is transcendental. Alawa acknowledges the value of human life as primary. According to him, "Human life is valuable; it is a primary value. Your life's value is the same with its essence. Life has an existential value: it is basically existence." ((2012, p. 4). What this means is that the value of human life is existence. For a human being to exist, the individual has to live first. Hence, the overriding value in it lies in life itself. Human life, unlike other commodities in the world, has no components. In itself, it has a great potential value, that even when it seems to have lost its usefulness or meaning, its value still remains unquantifiable. Life in itself is this valuable, irrespective of the state of the person that embodies it. While describing life through living, Eboh says that "the living is perceptive, responsive and active (2011, p. 76). Eboh, thus gives the biology features of life and living. Using the concepts of Heidegger, Francis Etim says "Existentiality is one of the constitutive characteristics of Dasein" (Etim, 2008, p. 9). Therefore, life and existence are both necessary to exist.

However, philosophers like Socrates believes that it is not just enough to live, but to live well.

Writing about Socrates, Robert Paul says:

The unexamined life is not worth living. In other words, it is undignified, not really honourable, simple to live from day to day without ever asking oneself, "what am I doing here? Why am I living as I am?" to be truly and completely human Socrates thought, each man and woman must subject his or her life and conviction to the test of critical self-examination. What is more, by means of this process of self-examination one can live a good life on earth (Wolff, 2000, p. 5).

The examination of human life is worth its self since it hopes to persist eternally; the kind of life being lived becomes necessary. This is necessary because it is the type of life being lived that determines the possibility of living in eternity and how it will be. The right life leads to the right destination, which is eternity.

Dualism as a Philosophical Issue

Dualism is derived from the Latin root 'duo' which means 'two'. Thesaurus Dictionary explains dualism as "the state of being dual or consisting of two parts; division into two" (2021, p. 1). If you perceive the world as being in two distinct parts, you are therefore a dualist. If you believe that the human person is composite of body and soul, you are also a dualist. In fact, a lot of theories are described as dualism. Theories that believe that there are two different aspects of the world, theories that believe that there is the existence of mind as separate from the body, theories that believe in the existence of good as opposed to evil, theories that blood cells have two origins; from the lymphatic system and from the bone marrow. As such, irrespective of the area of study, dualism is the theory that holds the existence of two opposing realities. "In philosophy and theology, any system that explains phenomena by two opposing principles" (2021, p. 3). could be described as dualism. Many philosophers hold on to a dualism of mind and body or matter. Many theologians believe in the principles of good and evil. For philosophy, dualism projects the existence of two mutually irreducible substances such as monism versus pluralism, eternal realities versus temporally realities, divine realities versus mundane realities, good versus evil, body versus mind, matter versus form, material world versus spiritual world, et cetera. For BBC English Dictionary, "Dualism is the state of having two main parts or aspects, or the belief that something has two main parts or aspects" (Sinclair, 1991, p. 349). This most recent definition corroborates the philosophical view of dualism. The Dictionary even made a philosophical example of God and Satan.

In philosophy, an inevitable dualism bisects nature; such that each thing has another half, or suggests another thing to make it whole. The theory of dualism, therefore is a theory that reveals the limitations of existence. For existence to persist, there is a need of the existence of both male and female beings. Neither the male alone nor the female alone can therefore subsist alone. By extension, the philosophy of dualism is the philosophy that says that "it takes two to tango" (Cambridge Dictionary, 2021, p.1). It posits the mutual dependence of each aspect of the opposing realities either directly or indirectly, to maintain an equilibrium.

When the theory of dualism is addressing the cosmos, it is described as cosmological dualism and when it is addressing independent beings in the cosmos, it could be described as ontological dualism. Therefore, metaphysical dualism could be divided into two; cosmological dualism and ontological dualism.

Kinds of Dualism

- a) Cosmological dualism
- b) Ontological dualism

a) Cosmological Dualism

Cosmological dualism is the theory that there are two different worlds of existence. The ideas of cosmological dualism are found in the philosophies of Plato, Aristotle, Augustine, Aquinas, Madhvāchārya, John Mbiti, Peter Alawa, Marie Pauline Eboh, Francis Etim, Placide Tempels and so on. The ideas of cosmological dualism are very pronounced in cultural and religious principles. This is very pronounced in African traditional beliefs and some African philosophers have speculated around it. For instance, in Africa, there is the belief in two worlds, of which one is the physical world and the other is a spiritual or ancestral world. In Christianity, there is the belief in the existence of heaven and earth." In Indian culture there is a belief in Maya (the illusory world of sense experience and multiplicity) and at man-bráhmān (the essential identity of self and ultimate reality)" (Stefon, 2021, p. 5).

Cosmological dualism is divided into two: dialectical dualism and eschatological dualism.

Dialectical Dualism: This "Dialectical dualism ordinarily implies a cyclical, or eternally repetitive, view of history." (Stefon, 2021, p. 5). Dialectical dualism proposes the existence of eternal dialectic, or tension, of two opposed principles, such as, using Western culture for instance, the one and the many, idea and matter, all existing in a cosmic order. Most of these opposites proposed the idea that one is temporally and eternal. As the goes, its foundation is on discussions. Let us see how it goes.

Eschatological Dualism: This is the "...dualism concerned with the ultimate destiny of humanity and the world, how things will be in the 'last' times" (Stefon, 2021, p. 3). It is based on eschatological dualism that the doctrine of transcendence is established. It holds that there is a separate realm of existence or that there are beings above and beyond the visible world of our present existence. This is the opposite of monism, that holds that the ultimate principle is one and inside the world (immanent). In religious dualism, it upholds not only in the existence of God as compared with humans but also it holds that there is a separate world which consists of the primary abode of this divine being.

b) Ontological Dualism

Ontology is the aspect of metaphysics that studies the existence of being. According to Eboh, "Ontology is a branch of Metaphysics that deals with the nature of being" (2011, p.77). Eboh continues by saying that "It studies the nature of being in general, especially essence and existence, how being is one but at the same time many, the general principles of being" (2011, p. 77). In the study of being, Ontology studies being in many ways including its transcendental attributes and the relationship that exists between immanent beings and transcendent beings. Ontological dualism therefore is the theory that there are two classes of beings; beings in the physical form of existence and beings that exist only in the transcendental space called spiritual beings. For instance, any person who believes in the existence of God and humans, angels and demons, is an ontological dualist. There are three kinds of ontological dualism: predicate dualism, property dualism and substance dualism.

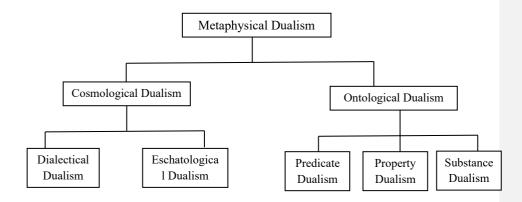
Predicate Dualism: Predicate dualism is the view that the existence of beings in the world are predicated on psychological or mentalistic views of realities. For this kind of dualism, being cannot be reduced to physical predicates, but must transcend it to reach the psychological or mentalistic state which they believe is more reliable. In predicate dualism, the interest is the non - reduction of being, such that every being maintains its physical and spiritual existence. According to Howard Robinson; "For a mental predicate to be reducible, there would be bridging laws connecting types of psychological states to types of physical ones in such a way that the use of the mental predicate carried no information that could not be expressed without it" (2020, p. 6). This simply means that what is predicated in the mind is totally different from what lies physically and what is in the mind cannot be reducible except the mind had no information apart from what the physical reality posits. This is very visible in the philosophy of Descartes who believed that he was based in what was predicated by his mind. Predicate dualism, therefore, draws a clear demarcation by the mind and its contents and the body and matters of the extended world. The example, physics says something is water if and only if it is H₂O, but if we replace the word water with H₂O, it is totally meaningless in other fields that may not understand. Therefore, water cannot be reduced to H₂O, just like the mind cannot be reduced to the body.

Property Dualism: Property dualism posits "... that there are two essentially different kinds of property out in the world" (Robinson, 2020, p. 6). This means that every being shares the property that is natural to its existence. Spiritual beings, therefore cannot possess properties of physical beings and their existence cannot be reduced to matter. That means that spiritual entities possess spiritual properties and physical entities possess physical properties. Until the early part of the twentieth century, life was conceived as a biological phenomenon that exists through a vital force that is independent of the body. Although the mechanistic view of life recently attempts to reduce life to a product of the combination of healthy organs and tissues, but for the tissues and organs to be healthy means they also depend on an external force, which is life itself. As such, the place of beings beyond physics cannot be logically denied.

Substance Dualism: Substance dualism is composed of two key words; substance and dualism. Although a substance is characterized by its properties, but, according to the proponents of

substances, "It is more than the collection of the properties it possesses, it is the thing which possess them" (Robinson, 2020, p. 6). Therefore, "...the mind is not just a collection of thoughts, but is that which thinks, an immaterial substance over and above its immaterial states" (Robinson, 2020, p. 6). Since properties are properties of objects, property dualists wonder what kinds of objects possess the irreducible or immaterial properties in which they believe. It is obvious that some material objects possess immaterial properties, therefore, it is not only the mental state that are immaterial, but the object that possess some degree of immateriality in themselves. Then one becomes a dualist, not just about the mental states and properties, but also about the properties themselves.

Substance dualism is often attributed to Descartes, but some substance dualists also clearly distinguish their theories. For example, E.J. Lowe holds that a normal human being involves two substances, one a body and the other a person. The latter is not, purely mental substance that can be defined in terms of thought or consciousness alone, as Descartes claimed. But persons and their bodies, with different identity conditions are therefore two substances essentially involved in a human person and hence, another form of substance dualism.



Dumebenata as a Philosophy of Life after Life; Alawa's Interpretation

Every scholar intends to achieve a set goal in any academic research work being undertaken. As a scholar in his own rights, Alawa set out to elucidate the idea of life after death in his book titled *Dumebenata*, subtitled Life after Life: A Philosophical Analysis. In this work, Peter Alawa did a

cursory and critical illustration of the track of human life from birth to what happens after death.

While writing the Foreword of the book, Martin Ikechukwu Ifeanacho states that:

In this book *Dumebenata* Rev. Fr. Dr. Peter Alawa makes substantial contributions from a philosophical perspective, to our understanding of life and how it should be lived-the good man, living the good life in a good state. From his analysis, we derive a universal principle- that life is meaningful when it confers on the individual goodness, rights and freedom which extend to others and most importantly, propels the quest for the ultimate source of life. Furthermore, he provides here a lucid and versatile treatise on death- a subject that evokes fear in most people. (Alawa, 2012, p. vii).

A critical look at the above quotation from Ifeanacho reveals a lot on the subject of discussion. First, he identifies that Alawa adopted a philosophical approach in the book, *Dumebenata* and describes his contribution as substantial. Secondly, he posited that Alawa reveals his understanding of how life should be lived. This is important because life does not end in death but continues after death through the survival of the soul, which survives physical death. He also pointed out that Alawa touches on the area of death in this book of metaphysical speculations. He praised Alawa for daring into an area that scares people and acknowledges his stand that death moderate life and makes it purpose-driven. Iheanacho moves forward to identify how Alawa pointed out areas of interest to the discourse, which includes; the nature of the soul, immortality, reincarnation, resurrection and transmigration. According to him, "...another strand of thought preaches immortality, reincarnation, resurrection and transmigration all of which presuppose the existence of life after life." (Alawa, 2012, p. viii). Iheanacho spoke from the angle of the book, *Dumabenata* as covering many aspects, but all of which points to life after life. *Dumebenata* is therefore a book on life after life.

The entire book is divided into six sections; the preliminaries which is composed of Acknowledgement, Foreword and Introduction. After the preliminaries, is the Chapter One which deals with the Nature of Death and it's divided into five sections: What is life? Philosophical understanding of life, Theological understanding of life, African concept of life and Endnotes. Chapter two follows with What is death? Plato on death, Epicurus on death, Martin Heidegger on death, Jean-Paul Sartre on death, Christian's view on death, African's view on death and Endnotes.

The next section is the third chapter which treats the nature of the soul and it is divided into What is soul? Plato on soul, Aristotle on soul, Christian's view on the soul, African concept of the soul and Endnotes. The last chapter being the fourth chapter treats issues around what happens after death. It treats topics such as Life after life, Transmigration, Reconstruction of the body (resurrection), Reincarnation, Immortality through science and technology, Evaluation with conclusion and Endnotes. The book ends with Bibliography.

A careful study of the book shows that Alawa's main targets was to establish the philosophy of life after life and channels every other topic towards the achievement of a plausible illustration of this thesis. He showcased various ideas of life after life as conceived in different parts of the world and at the end, he adopted the Christian view as the most plausible. The Christian view adopts life after life as a reality but through the process of resurrection, not reincarnation, not transmigration but through resurrection and the reconstruction of the body. One thing is that Alawa did not allow the philosophical bias of religion being viewed as mere myth to stop his adoption of the Christian idea as most plausible, most reliable and most logical.

The Philosophy of Transmigration in Alawa's Thought:

One of the theories that postulates the perpetuity of human life after death is that of transmigration. Transmigration of the soul is the belief in the movement of the soul from one body to another body. Alawa traces its origin to Pythagoras and later Plato and noted that it is a common belief by the oriental religions such as Hinduism, Buddhism and Jainism. In his own words; "This theory of "transmigration" or "rebirth" began with Pythagoras than [sic] Plato and it was accepted by the oriental religions believe[sic] in impersonal immortality which means the person or the self is merged with its origin, 'word soul'[sic] or with an absolute" (Alawa, 2012, p. 74). This explains why the theory of transmigration is very common in Oriental philosophy than in Western philosophy. It accrues from the belief of an impersonal immortality of the person. It is on this that the person is merged with his/her maker or soul. The theory of transmigration therefore, proposes the immortality of the soul, irrespective of the individual's kind of life. Alawa continues; "After death, the soul will transmigrate into another body, thus, leaving a prison to another. The next may be worse, because it may be the body of an animal. For this reason, Orphism forbade the

killing of any animals since it could be the soul of a member" (2012, p. 75). Speaking on the transmigration of the soul, Joseph Omoregbe says; "The soul is doomed to the endless process of transmigration and reincarnation, unless and until it achieves liberation and this can be attained through ritual purification." (2002, p.8). Ritual purification entails being good and living a fulfilling life. With a good life and religious rituals, the human soul achieves liberation, otherwise it continues in a series of endless migration from one body to another.

Alawa on the Reconstruction of the Body (Resurrection):

The concept of resurrection has been one of those topics that there is no clear-cut explanation of what it is exactly. Alawa noted that "Christians/Muslims believe that the soul is immortal, but not eternal." (2012, p. 84). The theme itself states "Reconstruction of the body (Resurrection)". (Alawa, 2012, p. 84). From this theme and the position about the immortality of the soul just stated, one asks; is it the body that is immortal through reconstruction of the body or the soul that is immortal? Whereas some Christian thinkers believe that it is the soul that survives, some of them believe the body can wear an immortal phase in glory. St. Paul talks about our dying bodies transformed into bodies that will never die; our mortal bodies must be transformed into immortal bodies (1 Cor. 15:53). So, one is forced to ask: is it the body that enjoys immortality or the soul? Alawa says that the soul does not always exist but it will always exist which means the soul has a beginning but it has no end." (2012, p. 84). The soul is immortal from the angle of not dying but not eternal from the angle of having a beginning.

For Alawa, the soul comes into existence through divine connection. Its source is God as its maker and the maker infuses the soul into the human body but the soul can exist separately from the body and survives even after death. However, Alawa also states that "The Christian doctrine is completed by the notion of the resurrection of the body at the last judgement." (2012, p. 84). Alawa therefore brings together the relationship between the mortality of the body and the immortality of the soul. He puts it thus: "This is made necessary by the Christian view of the unity and interdependence of body and soul." (Alawa, 2012, p. 84). So, when Christian thinkers postulate the immortality of the soul and that of the body, it still maintains the relationship that exists between the soul and the body.

Alawa's Conception of Reincarnation:

Another theme that Alawa took interest in is the topic of reincarnation. Reincarnation is a key theme in African metaphysics. It presupposes rebirth with consciousness and mental capacity to recollect events and experiences that occurred in previous existence. Africans believe in the perpetuity of life and see reincarnation as a medium of doing it. Yet, this medium of life's perpetuity attracts a lot of curiosity and philosophical questions. It is therefore one of those areas in African philosophy that is in need of critical exploration. Peter Alawa makes some scholarly adumbration on the topic of reincarnation in his book, Dumebenata. Etymologically, the word 'reincarnation' is derived from two Latin words: "re meaning again and incarnare, meaning to make flesh" (Vocabulary.com, 2021, p.1) Reincarnation is therefore, "...the belief that the soul, upon death of the body, comes back to earth in another body or form" (Thesaurus, 2021, p. 1). Reincarnation is therefore the belief that the soul does not die at death but rather continues to exist through another body. Thus, reincarnation simply means rebirth. It is the world-view which holds that a person who is physically dead can again be born to live on earth for another span of earthly existence. This presupposes that even if the soul separates from the body at death, it continues to exist and therefore, immortal because it continues to involve another body for another range of earthly life and this process sometimes continues without end. Thus, the belief in reincarnation is akin to the belief in the immortality of the soul. Funeral rites, Alawa points out also point to the belief in immortality of the soul. Still speaking of the African people, Alawa says: "They have funeral rites intended to help the dead first rest in the spiritual world which he has gone." (2012, p. 89). Certain practices such as befitting funeral rites are believed to help the individual to return faster to this earthly life. To frustrate evil people from reincarnation then, the African people deprive people who die 'bad death' funeral rites. Alawa puts it thus: "The Africans deny rites of burial to members who die what we call 'bad death' such as 'suicide', 'death after abortion'..." (2012, p. 89). Therefore, reincarnation is a thing of honour and Alawa also points out the effect of living a good life and also that of living a bad life.

Conclusion

Metaphysical Dualism as a Philosophical Concept in Peter Alawa's Dumebenata: An Exposé is a philosophical work that deals with Peter Zabbeh Alawa's position on the existence of human life on earth and beyond. Alawa built his philosophy of the human life from the angle of its value. For Alawa, the value of human life is as important as existence. As such, it is not what life offers that makes a human life valuable. Its value is itself because it most exist first before a human can achieve any other feat. So, there is no achievement that a human person can make that is more than human life. What this implies is that, Alawa holds the human life in high esteem and values it above every other thing around the human person. He made a connection between the life of the human person on earth and its transcendental state through the existence of the soul. For Alawa, the human person lives in eternity because the soul is eternal. He exposed the various ways people and cultures uphold the belief in eternity such as transmigration, resurrection or transformation of the body, reincarnation and so on. Of all these beliefs, Alawa accepts that of resurrection or transformation of the soul as the most plausible. This exposition of Alawa's work Dumebenata shows that this work, among others are plausible literatures from African descent. It therefore, recommends its publicization and encourages its study for a better understanding of African values and realities.

References

Alawa, P.Z. (2012). *Dumebenata, Life after life: a philosophical analysis*. Port Harcourt: Geocelia Integrated Services Limited.

______. (2013. Heidegger and Hegel on Being: A Comparative Analysis. *Journal of humanities and social sciences*, vol. 12 (6).

BBC English Dictionary (1992). London: Bush House

 $\underline{Eboh, M.P.}\ (2011).\ Introduction\ to\ philosophy\ and\ philosophizing.\ Port\ Harcourt\ pearl\ Publishers.$

Etim, F. (2013). African philosophy: The story so far. Uyo: Comm-watched productions.

Idowu, E.B. (1973). African traditional religion: A definition. London SCM.

Kowalczyk, D. (2003). What is reincarnation in Hinduism? – definition & cycle. *Study.com*. https://study.com.

- Omoregbe, J. (2018). Knowing philosophy. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Limited.
- _____. (2002). Metaphysics without tears: A systematic and historical study. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd.
- Onyewuenyi, I.C. (1996). African belief in reincarnation: A philosophical reappraisal. Enugu: SNAAP Press Ltd.
- Oxford. (2021) Death, Oxford Languages Dictionary. https://www.google.com.
- Plato. (1982). Phaedo. Trans S. A. Sinclair. New York: Penguin Books.
- Robinson, H. (2020). *Dualism*. In *Stanford Encyclopedia of philosophy*. https://plato.stangord.edu.
- Sinclair, J. et al (eds), (1991). *Dualism.* In *BBC English Dictionary: A Dictionary for the world.* London: BBC English and Harpercollins Publishers Ltd.
- Stefon, M. (2021). Dualism. In Encyclopedia Britannica. https://www.britannica.com.
- Stumpf, S.E. (1994). Philosophy: History and problems, 5th Edition. U.S.A: McGraw Hill, Inc.
- Tempels, P. (1969). Bantu philosophy. Paris: Presence Africaine.
- The Holy Bible, Revised Standard Version.

Accessibility of Support Facilities and Welfare Index Across of IDPs Camp Sites Across Northeast Nigeria

OGINI, OMARITE RITA.

Department of Geography and Environmental Management

University of Port Harcourt

Abstract

This study presents a comprehensive assessment of the well-being and living conditions of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Northeastern Nigeria using the Welfare Index. The analysis encompasses multiple factors influencing the welfare of IDPs, shedding light on their quality of life and access to vital services. Findings indicate that, on average, the well-being of IDPs in the region falls within a moderately positive range. This reflects considerable efforts to address their fundamental needs, ensuring access to essential services and relatively satisfactory living conditions despite the challenges posed by displacement. However, disparities in well-being scores among different IDP camps underscore the need for targeted interventions and continuous support to bridge the gap. Recommendations include allocating additional resources to camps with lower well-being scores, tailoring interventions to specific camp needs, establishing a robust monitoring system, prioritizing education and livelihood support, and strengthening collaboration among stakeholders. By implementing these recommendations, stakeholders can work towards enhancing the well-being of IDPs in Northeastern Nigeria, promoting equity and dignity in the face of conflict and displacement.

Keywords: Internally Displaced Persons, Well-being, Welfare Index.

Introduction

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) constitute a significant humanitarian concern, with individuals and groups compelled to abandon their homes and livelihoods due to various threats such as conflict, economic crises, and other perilous situations (UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, 1998). According to these guiding principles, IDPs are defined as those who have been forced or obliged to flee their habitual places of residence, primarily due to armed conflicts, widespread violence, human rights violations, natural disasters, or human-made catastrophes, without crossing internationally recognized state borders. As a result, these displaced individuals require comprehensive support, encompassing necessities like food and shelter (UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, 1998).

To facilitate the well-being of IDPs within camp sites, it is imperative to provide essential services such as Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene (WASH) support, healthcare, education, shelter, and security. The provision of these vital services can help create an environment of stability and assistance, fostering the recovery and reintegration of IDPs into society (UNHCR, 2004). This, in turn, can contribute to the attainment of durable solutions, where displaced persons no longer

require specific assistance or protection associated with their displacement. Achieving such solutions involves a holistic approach that includes voluntary return, local integration, and resettlement (UNHCR, 2004).

Notably, a significant portion of IDPs in Nigeria, particularly in the northeastern region, is closely linked to the insurgency led by Jama'atu Ahis Sunna Lidda'Awatiwal-Jihad, commonly referred to as Boko Haram (Nwokocha, 2017). The Northeast geopolitical zone comprises six states: Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Taraba, and Yobe (Nwokocha, 2017). The emergence of internal displacement in this region can be largely attributed to the activities of Boko Haram, which transformed from a peaceful advocacy group into a violent insurgency, aiming to establish a strict Islamic State in the North (Azumah, 2015).

This insurgency led to widespread violence, attacks, and acts of terrorism, drastically destabilizing the region (Barnett et al., 2022). The conflict in the Northeast has been exacerbated by socio-cultural, economic, ethno-religious, and geographical factors, with particular impact in Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa States (Amnesty International, 2015). The region has experienced a disproportionate number of terror attacks compared to other geopolitical regions in Nigeria (Global Terrorism Index, 2017).

The intensity of violence perpetrated by Boko Haram insurgents has raised significant concerns, making it one of the most active armed groups in Sub-Saharan Africa (Dietrich, 2015). As a response, the Nigerian government declared a state of emergency in Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa states in May 2013 to address the escalating security crisis (Dietrich, 2015).

Central Place Theory, formulated by Walter Christaller in 1933, provides a framework for understanding the spatial organization and hierarchical distribution of services and facilities within a region (Osth et al., 2021). According to this theory, central places, such as IDP camps, are strategically located to optimize accessibility and minimize travel time for surrounding populations. The theory proposes that these camps are arranged in a hierarchical structure where larger, more significant camps are positioned in central locations to serve a wider area, while smaller camps are situated in more remote or less populated regions.

In the context of this study on the accessibility of support facilities and the welfare index across IDP camp sites in North-East Nigeria, Central Place Theory can be applied to analyze how the distribution of IDP camps correlates with the availability and accessibility of essential support services. By examining the spatial arrangement of these camps, the theory helps to reveal how effectively these sites are positioned to provide services and resources to the displaced population. It highlights the importance of strategic placement to ensure that larger camps,

which can offer more comprehensive support, are situated in central locations with better access to infrastructure, while smaller camps are distributed to address the needs of more isolated areas.

Applying Central Place Theory in this context allows for a detailed assessment of the spatial patterns of IDP camps and their impact on the accessibility of support facilities and the overall welfare index. This analysis helps to understand why certain areas may have a higher concentration of camps and how the hierarchical structure influences the delivery of aid and services to displaced individuals across North-East Nigeria.

One of the primary challenges faced in ensuring the accessibility of support facilities within IDP camp sites is the sheer scale of displacement. The region hosts a significant number of IDPs, making it a logistical and operational challenge to provide adequate facilities for healthcare, education, food distribution, clean water, sanitation, and shelter. The rapid and often unpredictable nature of displacement has made it difficult for humanitarian organizations to keep up with the ever-growing demand for services.

Moreover, the diversity of needs within these camp populations presents another layer of complexity. Displaced individuals and families come from a wide range of backgrounds, each with unique requirements based on their age, gender, disability status, and pre-existing vulnerabilities. Ensuring that support facilities are accessible to all, regardless of these factors, is a critical aspect of providing equitable assistance. Healthcare facilities, for instance, must be equipped to address a spectrum of medical needs, from emergency care to ongoing treatment for chronic conditions. Education facilities should be inclusive, catering to the educational needs of children and adults alike, with a focus on providing education for children who have missed out on formal schooling due to displacement. Sanitation facilities must be designed to accommodate individuals with disabilities and ensure gender-sensitive access.

Furthermore, access to livelihood opportunities and psychosocial support services are vital for IDPs to rebuild their lives and regain a sense of normalcy. Adequate housing and shelter are also critical components of the support system, as they contribute to a sense of safety, privacy, and dignity for camp residents. Ensuring the accessibility of support facilities within IDP camps goes beyond meeting immediate needs. It is essential for the long-term well-being and resilience of displaced populations. A failure to address these challenges can lead to overcrowding, inadequate healthcare, and education, compromised sanitation and hygiene, and a lack of basic services, all of which can perpetuate the cycle of vulnerability and dependency.

Furthermore, the accessibility of support facilities within IDP camp sites has broader implications for the overall success of humanitarian efforts in Northeast Nigeria. It impacts the effectiveness of relief organizations, the ability to build trust and cooperation with host

communities, and the prospects for sustainable development in the region. As such, addressing these challenges requires a multi-faceted approach that involves collaboration between government agencies, non-governmental organizations, and international partners.

Therefore, the accessibility of support facilities within IDP camp sites across Northeast Nigeria is a pivotal aspect of the ongoing humanitarian response in the region. It is a complex and multifaceted issue that requires a comprehensive and inclusive approach to meet the diverse needs of displaced populations and foster their resilience. By ensuring access to essential services, we can not only alleviate the immediate suffering of IDPs but also work towards a more stable and prosperous future for the entire region.

Enem (2022) assessed the availability and accessibility of counselling services for trauma victim of insurgency in FCT camp. To achieve this, the authors employed a survey research design comprising of 520 respondents who were selected through a purposive sampling technique from four IDP camps in Abuja. The data obtained was analysed using frequency counts and percentages. Findings showed that the IDPs lack a lot of physical, psychosocial, and counselling/psychological needs. The foregoing situation predisposed the respondents to traumatic feelings of despondency and sadness. Based on the findings, the researchers recommended that Nigerian government should channel majority of its resources towards eradicating the drivers of displacement in the country.

According to Nnadi et al. (2020), a prominent issue confronting Nigeria pertains to the management of the escalating number of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), particularly in the North Eastern region of the nation. Their study sought to scrutinize the primary challenges that have hindered the effective management of IDPs by NEMA, employing the Structural Functional theory as its theoretical framework. The study employed both survey (personal interviews) and documentary methods to collect data and subsequently analyzed the data using content analysis. The research discerned that NEMA's inadequate record-keeping regarding the increasing number of displaced persons in Northeast Nigeria had led to acute accommodation shortages in IDP camps in the region. Furthermore, the study identified the lack of proper coordination by NEMA in the delivery and distribution of relief materials from various aid agencies as a factor contributing to food scarcity and poor health conditions in IDP camps in Northeast Nigeria.

In a related study, Aji et al. (2020) conducted an assessment of the educational and healthcare needs of internally displaced persons in Maiduguri Metropolis, Borno State, Nigeria. Their findings indicated that the educational needs of IDPs were not adequately addressed, and healthcare services were also inadequately delivered. Consequently, it was recommended that the government and non-governmental agencies enhance the provision of these services by

deploying the necessary facilities and professionals to cater to the needs of IDPs in Maiduguri Metropolis.

Chintuo and Egolum (2020) undertook research to investigate the challenges associated with the provision and management of facilities within three selected Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps in Abuja. The study adopted the UNHCR checklist as a framework to assess the essential facilities within each camp, which encompassed administrative offices, sleeping arrangements, gardens, sanitation facilities, water points, medical clinics, food distribution centers, communication tools, security measures, educational institutions, markets, and shops. Four research questions guided the study, which employed a descriptive survey design. The research focused on three distinct IDP camps, accommodating a total of 3,567 residents. A sample of 360 individuals was selected using the Taro Yamani sampling technique. Data collection was facilitated through structured questionnaires, and data analysis involved statistical measures such as the mean, percentages, relative importance index, and statistical tests like one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Z-test, executed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 23). The research findings underscored the inadequacy of the IDP camps in Abuja in meeting the standards established by the UNHCR. Essential facilities were found to be lacking, particularly in sectors such as healthcare, education, and suitable housing. Makeshift accommodations and schools were not adequately managed, exacerbating the inadequacies. Consequently, the study concluded that the existing facilities in the camps did not align with the UNHCR checklist and were insufficient to cater to the needs of the displaced population.

Methods

Study Area

This study employed a descriptive study design. The study area comprised on six states in Northeastern region of Nigeria (Figure 1). Eze et al (2014) characterize Northeast Nigeria as the most diverse among the six geopolitical regions in Nigeria concerning its ethnic, religious, and cultural composition.

In terms of geography, the northeast geopolitical zone shares its borders with the Republic of Chad, Niger, and Cameroon. Unfortunately, this region has been severely impacted by conflicts perpetuated by the Boko Haram group over the years, resulting in the establishment of various IDP camps in the area.

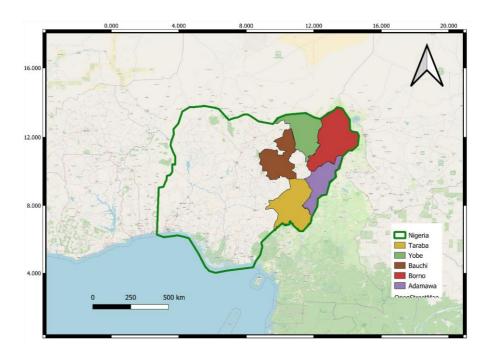


Figure 1 Map of Study Area

Besides playing a pivotal role in the political landscape of the northern region, the northeastern area is home to numerous industrial concerns, primarily concentrated in Maiduguri, the capital of Borno state. However, in recent times, this region has been marked by a series of uprisings in the form of insurgency attacks, largely stemming from the emergence and intensification of Boko Haram's activities. These attacks have not only jeopardized the peace and security of the region's inhabitants but have also significantly disrupted socio-economic activities in the affected states. As a consequence, a significant portion of the population has been displaced and is now seeking refuge in IDP camps, resulting in the fragmentation of families. Additionally, some have sought refuge in neighbouring countries, particularly Cameroon and Niger Republic.

According to findings by Ejiofor et al. (2017), Northern Nigeria exhibits some of the most alarming human development indicators in the country. An overwhelming 71.5% of the population grapples with abject poverty, with more than half suffering from malnutrition. Educational disparities are evident, with approximately 85% of residents lacking basic literacy skills, while 60% are without formal employment. This stark reality underscores the root causes behind the presence of Boko Haram, an insurgent group primarily operating in the Northeast region of the area. Their violence targets civilian populations, resulting in the displacement of

people throughout the entire region. Consequently, it is undeniable that the perpetration of terrorism attacks has been predominantly carried out by young men.

Population of Study

The study's population consists of respondents who meet the established criteria, which, in this case, pertain to internally displaced individuals. Hence, the targeted population profile encompasses males, females, boys, and girls residing in IDP camp sites across the six North-Eastern States of Nigeria. The data utilized for this research will be of a secondary nature. According to the National Population Commission (NPC) in 2006, the total population of this region is reported to be 18,983,299 people. Olagbaju and Awosusi (2019) characterize Northeast Nigeria as the most culturally, ethnically, and religiously diverse among the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria.

Nature and Sources of Data

This study relied on secondary data sources. Quantitative data will be obtained primarily from the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) focusing on Nigeria's North-East and the locations of IDPs, accessible at (displacement.iom.int/Nigeria). This website provides details on available support services and facilities. Additionally, supplementary information will be gathered from various sources, including journals, articles, books, newsletters, and encyclopaedias.

Method of Data Collection and Analysis

This research utilised secondary data sources, specifically gathered from the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, covering the time frame from 2015 to 2019. Nearest neighbour analysis and descriptive analysis was employed, enabling the ascertaining frequencies, mean and standard deviation.

Results and Discussion

Accessibility to Support Facilities Across IDPs Camps in Northeastern Nigeria

Table 1 presents the Accessibility Index to Support Facilities across IDP (Internally Displaced Persons) camps in Northeastern Nigeria, offering a comprehensive assessment of the accessibility of crucial facilities and services within these camps. The Housing Access Index ranges from 7.00 to 28.00, with a mean score of 15.54 and a standard deviation of 4.70. This index measures the accessibility of housing facilities within the IDP camps. The relatively high mean score suggests that, on average, there is reasonably good accessibility to housing facilities across the camps, with limited variation observed.

The Water Access Index ranges from 0.00 to 1.00, with a mean score of 0.94 and a standard deviation of 0.23. This index assesses the accessibility of water sources and clean water within

the IDP camps. The mean score indicates reasonably good access to water facilities, with relatively low variation, reflecting a positive overall situation in terms of water accessibility.

The Hygiene Access Index spans from 0.00 to 2.33, with a mean score of 1.01 and a standard deviation of 0.42. This index evaluates the accessibility of hygiene-related facilities and practices within the camps. The mean score suggests overall reasonable accessibility to hygiene facilities, with some variation, emphasizing the importance of continued attention to hygiene support.

The Food Access Index varies from 2.00 to 12.00, with a mean score of 6.98 and a standard deviation of 1.58. This index assesses the accessibility of food support and nutrition availability within the IDP camps. The mean score indicates relatively good accessibility to food facilities and services, with moderate variation, reflecting positive efforts to address food accessibility.

The Healthcare Access Index ranges from 0.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 3.50 and a standard deviation of 1.02. This index evaluates the accessibility of healthcare facilities and medical services within the camps. The mean score suggests relatively good access to healthcare facilities, with moderate variation, highlighting the importance of healthcare accessibility for displaced populations.

The Education Access Index varies from 0.00 to 3.00, with a mean score of 2.36 and a standard deviation of 0.58. This index assesses the accessibility of educational resources and opportunities within the IDP camps. The mean score indicates reasonable accessibility to education facilities and services, with limited variation, underscoring the importance of continued educational support.

The Income Access Index ranges from 0.00 to 14.04, with a mean score of 1.83 and a standard deviation of 0.90. This index evaluates the accessibility of income-generating opportunities and livelihood support within the camps. The mean score suggests modest access to income-generating activities and livelihood support, with some variation, indicating the potential for further livelihood development efforts.

The accessibility Index to Support Facilities reveals relatively positive access to essential facilities and services within the IDP camps in Northeastern Nigeria. While there is some variation across different categories, the mean scores generally indicate reasonably good accessibility to housing, water, hygiene, food, healthcare, education, and income-related support.

Table 1. Accessibility Index to Support Facilities Across IDPs Camps in Northeastern Nigeria

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Index					
Housing_Access_Index	363	7.00	28.00	15.54	4.70
Water_Access_Index	363	.00	1.00	.94	.23
Hygiene_Access_Index	363	.00	2.33	1.01	.42
Food_Access_Index	363	2.00	12.00	6.98	1.58
Healthcare_Access_Inde	363	.00	5.00	3.50	1.02
Education_Access_Index	363	.00	3.00	2.36	.58
Income_Access_Index	363	.00	14.04	1.83	.90

4.1.7. Welfare Index for the IDP Camp Site Across the Camps in Northeastern Nigeria

Table 2 presents the Welfare Index for IDP (Internally Displaced Persons) camp sites across various camps in Northeastern Nigeria. This index provides an assessment of the overall welfare or well-being of individuals within these camps, offering a comprehensive view of their living conditions and access to essential services. The Welfare Index spans a range from 20.00 to 56.34, with a mean score of approximately 37.79 and a standard deviation of 6.59. This composite measure considers various factors that influence the welfare of individuals in the IDP camps, including their access to essential services, the quality of their living conditions, and their overall quality of life.

The mean score of 37.79 suggests that, on average, the welfare of individuals in these camps is moderate to reasonably good. This means that, in general, the well-being of the internally displaced population in Northeastern Nigeria is at a satisfactory level. However, it is important to note that there is some variation in welfare scores across the camps, indicating that the quality of life and access to services may differ from one camp to another.

In essence, the Welfare Index in Northeastern Nigeria provides insights into the well-being of IDP camp residents. While the mean score indicates a moderate level of well-being, ongoing attention and support are essential to ensure that the welfare of these individuals is continually enhanced, particularly in areas where there is room for improvement.

Table 2. Welfare Index for IDP Camp Sites Across the Camps in Northeastern Nigeria

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Welfare_Index	363	20.00	56.34	37.79	6.59
Valid N (listwise)	363				

Discussion of Findings

Accessibility of Support Facilities Across IDP Camps in Northeastern Nigeria

The Accessibility Index for Support Facilities in Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps across Northeastern Nigeria provides a comprehensive overview of the conditions and services accessible to the displaced populations in the region. The relatively elevated mean score indicates that, on average, displaced individuals enjoy reasonably favorable access to housing facilities within the IDP camps in Northeast Nigeria. This is an encouraging development, suggesting that concerted efforts have been made to ensure shelter for those displaced due to conflict and disasters. The overall trend appears positive, signifying that the basic human need for shelter is being reasonably well-addressed in these camps.

Furthermore, the relatively high average score for the water access index suggests that there is generally excellent access to clean water sources within the IDP camps. This is a promising trend as access to clean water is pivotal for maintaining good health and preventing waterborne diseases, particularly in densely populated camp environments. The relatively low level of variation indicates consistent availability of clean water across the camps, which is a positive sign for the overall well-being of the displaced population.

The findings also reveal reasonable accessibility to hygiene-related facilities and practices within the camps. This underscores the ongoing importance of hygiene support to uphold proper sanitation and hygiene practices. The slight variation observed suggests that efforts to provide hygiene facilities have been reasonably consistent across the camps, which contributes to improved overall health and sanitation conditions in these settlements.

Additionally, the results indicate relatively good accessibility to food support and nutrition services across camps in Northeastern Nigeria. Adequate food access is essential for the nutritional well-being of the displaced population. The moderate level of variation implies that while food is generally accessible, there may be some disparities in the level of food support

provided. This suggests the need for sustained and potentially improved efforts to address potential disparities in food accessibility.

Similarly, the data shows that there is relatively good access to healthcare facilities and medical services across IDP camps in Northeastern Nigeria. Access to healthcare is of paramount importance, especially in conflict-affected areas where injuries and illnesses can occur frequently. The moderate level of variation implies that healthcare services are reasonably consistent across the camps, underscoring the importance of ongoing healthcare support to the displaced population.

The findings also indicate reasonable accessibility to educational resources and opportunities within the IDP camps. Education is crucial for the future prospects of displaced children and adults. The limited variation suggests that educational support is generally consistent across the camps, emphasizing the need to sustain and potentially expand educational efforts to reach more individuals in need.

Similarly, the accessibility index suggests modest access to income-generating opportunities and livelihood support across IDP camps in Northeastern Nigeria. Economic stability is essential for displaced populations to regain self-sufficiency and rebuild their lives. The variation observed indicates some disparities in income support across the camps, highlighting the necessity for targeted interventions to enhance livelihood opportunities.

In summary, the Accessibility Index for Support Facilities reveals several positive trends, indicating that displaced populations in Northeastern Nigeria generally enjoy reasonable access to housing, clean water, hygiene facilities, food, healthcare, education, and income support. These trends suggest that efforts to meet the basic needs of the displaced populations have been reasonably effective. However, there are still some disparities and areas for improvement, such as addressing potential gaps in income support and ensuring consistent access to all essential services across all camps. Continued attention and targeted interventions are crucial to further enhance the well-being and resilience of IDPs in the region.

Additionally, these findings align with the claims made earlier by Emem (2022) regarding the improvement in the accessibility of IDPs to support facilities. While Emem (2022) primarily focused on the availability and accessibility of counseling services for trauma victims of insurgency, this study examined multiple support facilities, including livelihood support, health support, etc., across IDP camps in Northeastern Nigeria and assessed their accessibility to IDPs.

Welfare Index in IDPs Campsites Across Northeast Nigeria

The Comprehensive Well-being Assessment for IDP camps in Northeastern Nigeria, as unveiled in this study, offers a comprehensive perspective on the quality of life and living conditions of

internally displaced individuals in the region. This composite metric considers various factors that impact the welfare of people in these camps, providing valuable insights into their standard of living and access to vital services.

The study's findings indicate that, on average, the well-being of individuals in these IDP camps falls within a moderate to reasonably good range. This implies that endeavors have been undertaken to meet the fundamental needs of the displaced population, ensuring their access to essential services and relatively satisfactory living conditions. This is a positive indication that, despite the challenges brought about by displacement, concerted efforts are being made to maintain a reasonable level of well-being for those residing in these camps.

Nevertheless, it is essential to acknowledge that there is some disparity in the well-being index scores among different camps. This variation signifies that the quality of life and access to services can significantly differ from one camp to another. While some camps may exhibit higher scores, indicating better well-being, others may display lower scores, revealing areas where enhancements are necessary.

The implications of these findings are manifold. Firstly, the Well-being Index sheds light on the overall living conditions and quality of life of internally displaced individuals in Northeastern Nigeria. Although the average well-being score is moderately positive, it underscores the need for continuous attention and support to sustain and enhance the welfare of these individuals. This implies that endeavors to provide essential services, enhance living conditions, and address the unique needs of IDPs should persist.

Moreover, the disparity in scores underscores the significance of targeted interventions. Camps with lower Well-being Index scores may require additional resources and assistance to elevate their well-being closer to the regional average. This suggests that a uniform approach may not suffice, and a more tailored and localized strategy could prove beneficial in addressing the specific needs of each camp.

In essence, the Well-being Index for IDP camps in Northeastern Nigeria offers a snapshot of the overall welfare of the displaced population in the region. While the mean score indicates a moderate level of well-being, the disparities among camps emphasize the ongoing need for support and focused initiatives to consistently enhance the welfare of internally displaced individuals.

Moreso, The findings from the Accessibility Index for Support Facilities reveal several positive trends in the IDP camps across the region. The relatively elevated mean score for housing facilities indicates that displaced individuals generally have reasonable access to shelter within these camps. This aligns with the Central Place Theory's premise that central places (in this case,

IDP camps) are strategically located to provide essential services effectively. The positive trend in housing accessibility suggests that efforts have been made to ensure that these central hubs are well-positioned to meet the basic needs of the displaced population.

Similarly, the high average score for water access suggests that IDP camps are generally well-equipped with clean water sources, which is crucial for health and well-being. This supports the notion that central places are designed to maximize accessibility to critical resources, ensuring that the most essential needs of the displaced populations are met. The relatively low variation in water access across camps indicates that clean water is consistently available, reflecting effective distribution in line with the theory's principles.

The study also shows reasonable accessibility to hygiene facilities, food support, healthcare, and educational resources. These findings align with the Central Place Theory, which suggests that larger, more significant camps, positioned in central locations, are equipped to provide a range of services to a broader area. However, the moderate level of variation in food support, healthcare, and income-generating opportunities highlights some disparities in service provision, suggesting that while central places are generally effective, there may be areas where service delivery needs to be more uniformly improved.

The Well-being Index findings further support this analysis by indicating that the overall well-being of individuals in these camps is moderately positive, though with noticeable disparities between camps. This variation in well-being scores suggests that the hierarchical distribution of IDP camps and their access to support facilities can result in differing levels of service quality and living conditions. Camps with higher well-being scores likely benefit from better access to essential services, while those with lower scores may face challenges that require targeted interventions.

Therefore, the integration of Central Place Theory with the findings on accessibility and well-being in IDP camps across Northeastern Nigeria provides a comprehensive understanding of how the spatial distribution of camps impacts the quality of life for displaced populations. The theory helps to explain the hierarchical nature of camp locations and their role in providing essential services, while the findings highlight the effectiveness and areas for improvement in service delivery. Continued attention to the disparities identified in the Well-being Index is crucial for enhancing the overall welfare of IDPs and ensuring that all camps can adequately meet the needs of their residents.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this comprehensive study of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Northeastern Nigeria, as assessed through the Welfare Index, offers a multifaceted understanding of the well-

being and living conditions of these individuals. The findings reveal that, on average, the well-being of IDPs in the region falls within a moderately positive range. This indicates that substantial efforts have been made to address their basic needs, ensuring access to essential services and relatively satisfactory living conditions, despite the challenges posed by displacement. However, it is crucial to acknowledge the existence of disparities in well-being among different IDP camps. These variations underscore the fact that the quality of life and access to services can significantly differ from one camp to another. While some camps exhibit higher well-being scores, reflecting better living conditions, others display lower scores, highlighting areas that require immediate attention and improvements.

The implications of these findings are multifold. Firstly, the study emphasizes the importance of continuous attention and support to enhance the well-being of internally displaced individuals. This entails the provision of essential services, improvements in living conditions, and addressing the unique needs of IDPs. Moreover, the variations in well-being scores underscore the need for targeted interventions. Camps with lower well-being scores may require additional resources and assistance to bridge the gap and bring their well-being closer to the regional average. Moreso, this study recommends targeted support for camps with lower accessibility index to bridge the disparities and bring their living conditions closer to the regional average. Continuous monitoring and evaluation of well-being indicators in IDP camps is necessary in identifying emerging challenges and measuring the effectiveness of interventions.

In essence, this study serves as a valuable tool for policymakers, humanitarian organizations, and stakeholders involved in the welfare of IDPs in Northeastern Nigeria. While the average well-being score is moderately positive, the disparities among camps emphasize the ongoing need for support and focused initiatives to consistently enhance the welfare of internally displaced populations in the region. By addressing these disparities and sustaining efforts to improve the well-being of IDPs, it is possible to provide a more equitable and dignified living environment for those affected by conflict and displacement.

Recommendations

- 1. Given the observed disparities in well-being scores among different IDP camps, it is essential to implement targeted resource allocation strategies. Camps with lower well-being scores should receive additional resources and support to address their specific needs and enhance their living conditions. This targeted approach involves prioritizing camps that exhibit significant deficiencies in access to essential services, such as clean water, food, healthcare, and education.
- 2. Continuous monitoring and evaluation of well-being indicators across IDP camps are crucial for identifying emerging challenges and assessing the effectiveness of

- interventions. Establishing a robust system for regular assessment will enable policymakers and humanitarian organizations to track improvements, detect any new issues, and adjust strategies accordingly. This process should include collecting data on various aspects of camp life, such as access to basic services, living conditions, and overall satisfaction of displaced individuals.
- 3. To address the disparities in accessibility scores among IDP camps, it is important to implement focused interventions aimed at improving access to essential support facilities. This involves investing in infrastructure and services that enhance the availability of clean water, hygiene facilities, food, healthcare, and education. Specifically, camps with lower accessibility scores should receive targeted assistance to upgrade their facilities and improve service delivery. Such interventions may include building new infrastructure, increasing the availability of medical and educational resources, and enhancing transportation and logistics to ensure that displaced individuals have equitable access to necessary support.

References

- Aji, A. A., Okwute, A. O., Usman, M., & Kwari, K. K. (2020). ASSESSMENT ON EDUCATIONAL AND HEALTHCARE NEEDS OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN MAIDUGURI METROPOLIS, BORNO STATE, NIGERIA. *Journal of Education and Policy Review*, 12(2), 33-54.
- AmnestyInternational. (2015). *Amnesty International Annual Report 2014/2015*. https://www.amnesty.org/en/latest/research/2015/02/annual-report-201415
- Azumah, J. (2015). Boko Haram in Retrospect. *Islam and Christian–Muslim Relations*, 26(1), 33-52. https://doi.org/10.1080/09596410.2014.967930
- Barnett, J., Rufa'i, M. A., & Abdulaziz, A. (2022). Northwestern Nigeria: A Jihadization of Banditry, or a "Banditization" of Jihad? *CTC Sentinel*, 15(1), 46-67.
- Chijioke, C. E. (2013). Crime And Criminal Investigation In Nigeria: A Study Of PoliceCriminal Investigation In Enugu State. *International Journal of African and Asian Studies-An Open Access International Journal*, 1, 66-71.
- Chintuo, A. G., & Egolum, C. C. (2020). Examination of Challenges in the Provision and Management of Facilities in Selected Internally Displaced Persons Camp in Abuja. *ICONIC RESEARCH AND ENGINEERING JOURNALS* 3(8), 171-182.
- Dietrich, K. (2015). When we can't see the enemy, civilians become the enemy": Living through Nigeria's six-year insurgency. *Center for Civilians in Conflict*, 57-58.

- Ejiofor, O. C., Oni, S., & Sejoro, J. V. (2017). An Assessment of the impact of internal displacement on human security in Northern Nigeria (2009-2016). *Acta Universitatis Danubius. Relationes Internationales*, 10(1).
- Enem, U. E. (2022). ASSESSING THE AVAILABILITY AND ACCESSIBILITY OF COUNSELLING SERVICES FOR TRAUMA VICTIMS OF INSURGENCY IN FCT IDP CAMPS.
- Ezeani, E. O., Ani, C. K., Ezeibe, C., & Ubiebi, K. (2021). From a Religious Sect to a Terrorist Group: The Military and Boko Haram in Northeast Nigeria. *African Renaissance (1744-2532)*, 18(2)
- Maslow, A., & Lewis, K. (1987). Maslow's hierarchy of needs. *Salenger Incorporated*, 14(17), 987-990.
- Nnadi, G. O., Ezeani, O. E., & Nnadi, H. C. (2020). The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) and the challenge of effective management of internally displaced persons in north-eastern Nigeria. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 25(5), 1-14.
- Nnamdi, A. C., Sebastine, A. I., Junior, E. O., & Anyanwu, K. (2015). Boko Haram crisis and implications for development in the northern Nigeria. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 3(4), 1-12.
- NPC. (2006). *Nigeria Population Census 2006*. https://nigeria.opendataforafrica.org/xspplpb/nigeria-census
- Nwokocha, C. (2017). The challenges facing the effective implementation of drought and desertification policy in north-east geo-political zone of Nigeria. *Arts and Social Sciences Journal*, 8(4), 289.
- Olagbaju, O. O., & Awosusi, O. E. (2019). Herders-farmers' communal conflict in Nigeria: An indigenised language as an alternative resolution mechanism. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary and Current Research*, 7.
- Oliverio, A. (2019). The importance of models in sociology: The example of Max Weber. *Advances in Applied Sociology*, 10(01), 1.
- UNHCR. (2015). UNHCR Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2015 World. https://reliefweb.int/report/world/unhcr-global-trends-forced-displacement-2015

- Wasonga, J., Olang'o, C. O., & Kioli, F. (2014). Improving households knowledge and attitude on water, sanitation, and hygiene practices through school health programme in Nyakach, Kisumu County in Western Kenya. *Journal of Anthropology*, 2014.
- Yates, T., Vujcic, J. A., Joseph, M. L., Gallandat, K., & Lantagne, D. (2018). Water, sanitation, and hygiene interventions in outbreak response: a synthesis of evidence. *Waterlines*, 5-30.

Spatial Pattern of IDPs Camp Site Across North-east Nigeria
OGINI, OMARITE RITA .

Department of Geography and Environmental Management

University of Port Harcourt

Abstract

This study investigates the spatial patterns of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps in Northeastern Nigeria, shedding light on the intricate dynamics of displacement in the region. The coexistence of formal and informal camps reflects the multifaceted nature of the factors driving displacement, including conflict, insecurity, and natural disasters. The clustered distribution of camps around urban centers underscores the significance of urban-focused

humanitarian efforts and the need for region-specific interventions. Geographic variations in camp distribution emphasize the necessity for tailored responses, considering the diverse needs of displaced populations. The presence of formal settlements within these patterns presents opportunities for long-term development initiatives that promote self-reliance. Furthermore, the spatial patterns highlight regions with potentially higher concentrations of vulnerable groups, emphasizing the importance of specialized protection mechanisms. This study underscores the need for targeted, adaptable humanitarian responses that collaborate regionally to address the unique challenges posed by displacement in Northeastern Nigeria.

Keywords: Spatial Patterns, Internally Displaced Persons, Northeastern Nigeria,

Introduction

There is a growing apprehension that approximately half of the global population faces potential exposure to disasters (CRED, 2017). According to UNISDR (2017), a disaster is defined as a significant disruption of the normal functioning of a community or society. Madry and Madry (2015) have noted that in the past few decades, both natural and human-induced hazards have resulted in the loss of more than 600,000 lives. Being a developing country, Nigeria has encountered various degrees of disasters, both natural and human-caused, owing to its location in a tropical region highly susceptible to the adverse impacts of climate-related hazards (Yahaya et al., 2017). These hazards may manifest suddenly or develop gradually, encompassing events such as floods, structural collapses, acts of terrorism, aviation accidents, and maritime incidents, among others (Krkač, 2023).

The North-eastern region of Nigeria has been mired in a complex and protracted humanitarian crisis, primarily fuelled by the activities of extremist groups such as Boko Haram. This crisis has resulted in the displacement of millions of people, forcing them to flee their homes and communities in search of safety and shelter. In response to this dire situation, numerous Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) camps have been established across the region, serving as temporary sanctuaries for those who have been uprooted from their homes.

One of the key aspects of understanding the dynamics of this crisis is examining the spatial patterns of these IDP camp sites. These patterns are influenced by a myriad of factors, including security considerations, geographic terrain, and the availability of resources. IDP camps are distributed unevenly across the region. Some are concentrated in areas that have experienced intense conflict and displacement, such as Borno State, where the insurgency has been particularly brutal. Others are situated in relatively safer areas or near urban centres, facilitating access to essential services. The spatial layout of IDP camps includes considerations for the construction of shelters, sanitation facilities, schools, and healthcare centres. These amenities are essential for providing a semblance of normalcy and basic services to the displaced individuals and families. Also, security remains a paramount concern in the spatial planning of IDP camps. Camps are often surrounded by security perimeters and checkpoints to protect the vulnerable populations within from potential threats. Humanitarian organisations play a central role in the establishment and management of IDP camps. Coordination among these organizations, government agencies, and local authorities is crucial in determining the locations and resources allocated to these camps.

In every society, as asserted by Avruch (2013), human needs play a significant role in explaining how people connect with one another and behave. This study's primary focus is addressing these basic human needs, particularly those of internally displaced persons (IDPs)

and the host communities. Upon their safe arrival at new and temporary locations, IDPs have basic requirements, including food, clean water, shelter, health support, protection/security support, education support, and clothing support, all of which are crucial for their survival. The theory emphasizes that the root cause of intractable conflicts lies in people's underlying need to satisfy their immediate requirements on individual, group, and societal levels. Human needs are considered essential for individuals to achieve well-being in all aspects of life, encompassing subsistence needs such as food, water, and shelter, as well as other biological needs like participation, identification, understanding and recognition, love, self-esteem, and personal fulfilment (life satisfaction) (Vansteenkiste et al., 2020).

Staub (2003) effectively applies human needs theory to social and political conflicts, highlighting how universal human needs are often overlooked, prompting groups to resort to violence in a bid to reclaim their rights and satisfy their needs. Abubakar (2018) argues that, unlike interests, human essentials are non-negotiable and cannot be suppressed or traded because they are vital. Contrary to the belief that some needs are inferior, Eweka and Olusegun (2016) argue that all needs are significant, with some being more urgent than others. Survival needs such as those for food, water, and shelter take precedence, according to them.

For any social system to remain stable, it must adapt to the needs of the people living within its borders because change is a constant factor within societies (Oladipo & Oyinloye, 2022). Failure to do so can lead to instability or necessitate reform. IDPs often lose their livelihoods, resources, and savings due to man-made or natural disasters, resulting in considerable hardship (Eweka & Olusegun, 2016). Therefore, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), stakeholders, and the government bear the responsibility of providing them with essential needs in various forms of support during their stay in IDP camps. This involves implementing strategies and policies to manage and enhance services, catering not only to their subsistence needs but also their biological needs, as affirmed by the United Nations.

Central Place Theory

Central Place Theory, developed by Walter Christaller in 1933, is useful for understanding the hierarchical distribution of services and facilities in a region (Osth et al., 2021). It posits that central places (such as IDP camps) are distributed in a pattern that minimizes travel time and maximizes accessibility for the surrounding population. This theory suggests that camp sites may be strategically located to serve as central hubs, providing services and resources to surrounding areas. The theory emphasizes the idea of a hierarchical structure, where larger, more significant camps are placed at central locations to serve a broader area, while smaller camps might be found in more remote or less populated areas.

Applying Central Place Theory to the spatial pattern of IDP camp sites involves examining how these camps are distributed across North-East Nigeria in relation to their accessibility and service provision. It helps in understanding why certain areas have a higher concentration of

Boko Haram Insurgency

Boko Haram, an extremist Islamic group in Nigeria, adopted its name from the Hausa word 'BOKO,' meaning 'Education,' and the Arabic term 'Haram,' signifying 'Forbidden.' Hence, 'Boko Haram' translates to 'Western education is forbidden' (Azumah, 2015). Emerging in the early 2000s, Boko Haram started as a small Islamic sect with a mission to enforce strict Islamic laws and teachings in Northern Nigeria. Their ultimate goal is to establish an Islamic caliphate devoid

of Western education, which they perceive as having a corrupting influence on Muslims. They believe that Western education is responsible for fostering a culture of greed and corruption among the elite minority.

The impact of Boko Haram has resulted in a severe lack of safety and security for many Nigerians living in the Northeast region, leading to their displacement and the establishment of various IDP camps. The ongoing violent situation has had multifaceted economic, emotional, and psychological repercussions on displaced individuals, as exemplified by the Dapchi School abduction in Yobe State.

Boko Haram's insurgency has caused tensions between communities, disrupted social and economic activities, and prompted investors to flee to more secure environments, thus stalling business activities. These factors have raised significant concerns and have led to the widespread destruction of lives and properties (Nnamdi et al., 2015).

Numerous related studies confirm that the forceful internal displacement of people is primarily attributed to the Boko Haram insurgency, led by Mohammed (2017) noted that the insurgency, ongoing since 2009, has resulted in the highest recorded number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in the last decade. This crisis has displaced well over two million individuals within Nigeria, with the number of IDPs steadily rising, particularly in Northeast Nigeria. The Boko Haram insurgency intensified over the years, reaching its peak in 2014 and early 2015 when the insurgents seized vast territories in Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa states (Nnadi et al., 2020). The increasing mortality rates and displacement created a humanitarian crisis that overwhelmed the capacity of Nigeria's National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA). Consequently, an urgent appeal was made to the international community and philanthropic organizations for assistance in addressing this humanitarian catastrophe.

Cause of Influx of IDPs in Northeastern Nigeria

The surge in internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Northeastern Nigeria can be attributed to a complex interplay of factors, both natural and man-made, which have created a humanitarian crisis of significant proportions. These factors collectively underline the challenges associated with displacement and human rights abuses in the region.

First and foremost, the Boko Haram insurgency has been a primary driver of displacement in Northeastern Nigeria. This extremist group's activities, characterized by violence and terror, have rendered many areas unsafe for residents, compelling them to flee their homes in search of safety. In addition to the Boko Haram insurgency, incidents of electoral violence and periodic political turmoil disrupt the lives of citizens, often resulting in displacement as people seek refuge from the chaos.

Furthermore, ongoing conflicts between farmers and herdsmen over land and resources have led to displacement. These clashes often escalate into violence, forcing communities to abandon their homes. Communal conflicts, driven by intra-community disputes and tensions, have also played a role in displacing people. When conflicts flare up, communities become divided, making it unsafe for residents to remain in their homes. Ethno-religious conflicts have added to the region's woes, as tensions fuelled by ethnic and religious differences can escalate into violence and forced migration. Instances of rural banditry and cattle rustling, along with other criminal activities, have forced communities to flee from armed groups, contributing to the displacement crisis. Moreover, the region's susceptibility to natural disasters like floods, droughts, and heavy rainfall has led to the displacement of communities, as these events disrupt

livelihoods and force people to seek safer areas. Environmental degradation, particularly erosion, has also contributed to displacement, as communities lose arable land and homes due to environmental factors.

Widespread poverty and unemployment create conditions where people are more vulnerable to displacement, as they lack the resources to withstand crises. Additionally, outbreaks of epidemics can lead to displacement as communities seek to escape the spread of contagious illnesses. The government's inability to maintain peace and security in the region, along with its failure to address the basic needs of the population, including access to education, healthcare, and economic opportunities, further exacerbates the displacement crisis. Addressing these root causes and providing humanitarian assistance to those affected are essential steps in mitigating the suffering of internally displaced persons in the region.

Examining the spatial patterns of IDP camp sites allows us to identify both challenges and opportunities in providing assistance to displaced populations. Challenges may include overcrowding, limited access to education and livelihood opportunities, and the risk of disease outbreaks. On the flip side, it also highlights opportunities for improving camp infrastructure, enhancing security measures, and providing essential services more efficiently. Therefore, understanding the spatial patterns of IDP camp sites across North-east Nigeria is integral to comprehending the complexities of the ongoing humanitarian crisis. It reveals the intricate interplay of geographic, security, and resource-related factors that shape the lives of those who have been forced to seek refuge in these camps. By shedding light on these patterns, we can better address the needs and vulnerabilities of the displaced populations and work towards more effective and sustainable solutions for their future.

Methods

Study Area

This study employed a descriptive study design. The study area comprised on six states in Northeastern region of Nigeria (Figure 1). Eze et al (2014) characterize Northeast Nigeria as the most diverse among the six geopolitical regions in Nigeria concerning its ethnic, religious, and cultural composition.

In terms of geography, the northeast geopolitical zone shares its borders with the Republic of Chad, Niger, and Cameroon. Unfortunately, this region has been severely impacted by conflicts perpetuated by the Boko Haram group over the years, resulting in the establishment of various IDP camps in the area.

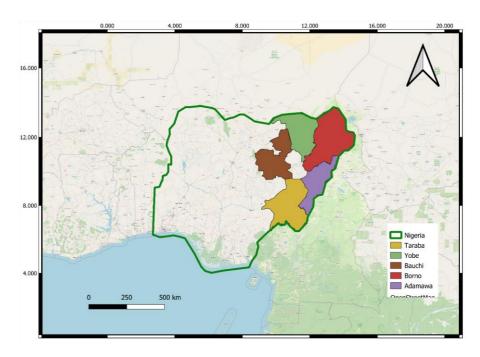


Figure 1 Map of Study Area

Besides playing a pivotal role in the political landscape of the northern region, the northeastern area is home to numerous industrial concerns, primarily concentrated in Maiduguri, the capital of Borno state. However, in recent times, this region has been marked by a series of uprisings in the form of insurgency attacks, largely stemming from the emergence and intensification of Boko Haram's activities. These attacks have not only jeopardized the peace and security of the region's inhabitants but have also significantly disrupted socio-economic activities in the affected states. As a consequence, a significant portion of the population has been displaced and is now seeking refuge in IDP camps, resulting in the fragmentation of families. Additionally, some have sought refuge in neighbouring countries, particularly Cameroon and Niger Republic.

According to findings by Ejiofor et al. (2017), Northern Nigeria exhibits some of the most alarming human development indicators in the country. An overwhelming 71.5% of the population grapples with abject poverty, with more than half suffering from malnutrition. Educational disparities are evident, with approximately 85% of residents lacking basic literacy skills, while 60% are without formal employment. This stark reality underscores the root causes behind the presence of Boko Haram, an insurgent group primarily operating in the Northeast region of the area. Their violence targets civilian populations, resulting in the displacement of people throughout the entire region. Consequently, it is undeniable that the perpetration of terrorism attacks has been predominantly carried out by young men.

Population of Study

The study's population consists of respondents who meet the established criteria, which, in this case, pertain to internally displaced individuals. Hence, the targeted population profile encompasses males, females, boys, and girls residing in IDP camp sites across the six North-

Eastern States of Nigeria. Secondary data was utilised for this research. According to the National Population Commission (NPC) in 2006, the total population of this region is reported to be 18,983,299 people. Olagbaju and Awosusi (2019) characterize Northeast Nigeria as the most culturally, ethnically, and religiously diverse among the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria.

Nature and Sources of Data

This study relied on secondary data sources. Quantitative data were obtained primarily from the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) focusing on Nigeria's North-East and the locations of IDPs, accessible at (displacement.iom.int/Nigeria). This website provides details on available support services and facilities. Additionally, supplementary information will be gathered from various sources, including journals, articles, books, newsletters, and encyclopaedias.

Method of Data Collection and Analysis

This research utilized secondary data sources to gather relevant information for the study. The data were specifically obtained from the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), focusing on records covering the period from 2015 to 2019. These records included detailed information on instances and patterns of internal displacement, providing a comprehensive overview of the situation over the specified time frame.

To analyze the collected data, two primary methods were employed: Nearest Neighbour Analysis and Descriptive Analysis.Nearest Neighbour Analysis is a spatial statistical method used to examine the patterns and distribution of internal displacement events. This analysis helps in determining whether the observed pattern of displacement is clustered, randomly distributed, or dispersed. The procedure involves calculating the distance between each displacement event and its nearest neighbour, and then comparing the average of these distances to what would be expected in a random distribution. This comparison is used to identify significant deviations from randomness, indicating either clustering or dispersion of events.

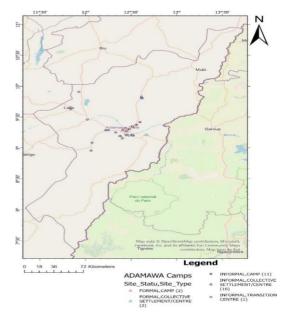
Descriptive Analysis was employed to summarize and describe the main features of the data. This includes the computation of frequencies, means, and standard deviations, providing a clear picture of the central tendencies and variability within the data. The frequencies represent the number of occurrences of various displacement events and categories, offering insights into the most common types and instances of internal displacement. The mean, or average value, of key variables was calculated to understand typical conditions or characteristics within the dataset. Standard deviation, a statistical measure used to quantify the amount of variation or dispersion of the data points, was also calculated. A higher standard deviation indicates more variability, while a lower standard deviation suggests that the data points are closer to the mean.

By integrating Nearest Neighbour Analysis and Descriptive Analysis, the study was able to comprehensively assess the spatial and statistical characteristics of internal displacement events over the specified period. This dual approach enabled the identification of patterns, trends, and anomalies within the data, providing valuable insights into the nature and dynamics of internal displacement from 2015 to 2019.

Results and Discussion

Spatial Pattern of Official and Non-official Camp Sites Across Camps in Northeast Nigeria Adamawa

The prevalence of informal settlement centres and camps is higher when compared to formal camps and settlement centres, as depicted in Figure 2. Nevertheless, there is a concentration of informal camps and settlement centres in the vicinity of Yola. In contrast, there are isolated instances of formal settlements/centres in the eastern regions of Yola, and a clustering of formal camps can be observed in Lafia, particularly in the northwestern part of Adamawa.



Source: Researcher's Analysis (2023)

Figure 2 Spatial Pattern of Official and Non-official IDP Camp Sites Across Adamawa State

Bauchi State

This study revealed that there are only informal camps in Bauchi State. Figure 3 shows that there is a dispersed pattern of informal camps across the State. However, there is an increased number of informal camps in the North and Central Bauchi compared to other areas.

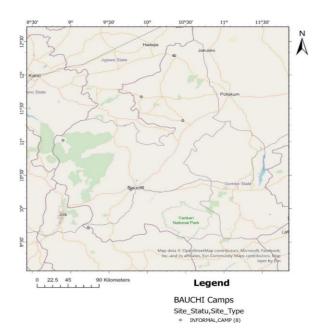


Figure 3 Spatial Pattern of Non-official IDP Camp Sites Across Bauchi State

Borno State

There is a high proportion of both informal camps and settlement centres compared to formal camps and settlement centres in Borno State. Moreso, there is a clustered pattern of both formal and informal camps and settlement centres around the capital Maiduguri (central Borno State) indicating and increased presence of these camps and settlement centres in the State capital. Meanwhile, there are pockets of formal and informal settlement camps and centres in other parts of the State.

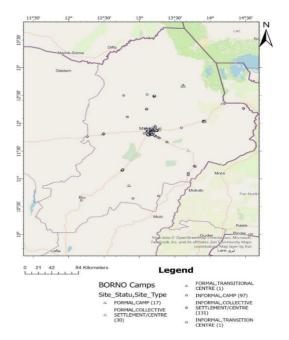


Figure 4 Spatial Pattern of Formal and Non-official IDP Camps Across Borno State

Taraba State

There is significant presence of informal camp and settlements compared to formal camps and settlements in Taraba State. Regarding the spatial pattern, there are clusters of camps and settlements in the Northeast and Western part of the State together with scattered camps across the central regions of Taraba State as shown in figure 5.

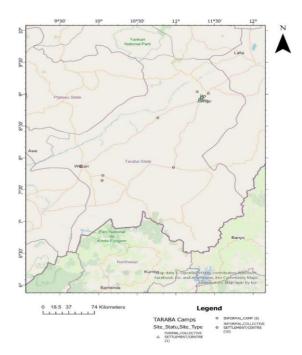


Figure 5 Spatial Pattern of Formal and Non-official IDP Camps Across Taraba State

Yobe State

Similar to Bauchi State, there are only informal camps and settlement centres in Yobe State. However, there is a clustered pattern on more camps and settlements around the centre of the State. While few pockets of camps and settlements are scattered around Northeast, North, and Northeastern part of Yobe State as shown in figure 6.

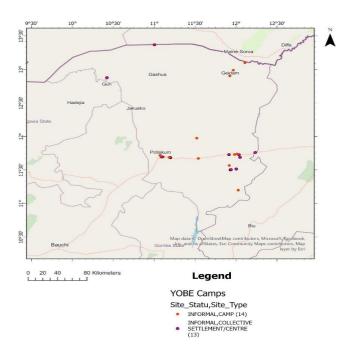


Figure 6 Spatial Pattern of Non-official IDP Camps Across Yobe State

Researcher's Analysis 2023

Discussion of Findings

The spatial arrangement of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps in Northeastern Nigeria carries significant implications for humanitarian response and support efforts in the region. The study's findings shed light on the intricate dynamics of displacement in this area. The coexistence of both formal and informal camps signifies a complex interplay of factors driving displacement, encompassing conflicts, insecurity, and natural disasters. This intricacy underscores the necessity for a nuanced and adaptive approach to cater to the diverse needs of displaced populations.

The clustered distribution of camps, particularly in proximity to urban centers like Maiduguri, Yola, and central regions, indicates that urban areas host a higher number of IDP camps compared to other parts of the region. This clustering implies that these camps are more likely to receive efficient services due to their closeness to urban centers. Additionally, the presence of camps in or near urban areas underscores the significance of urban-focused humanitarian initiatives. Urban environments present both challenges and opportunities for supporting displaced populations, including access to livelihoods and services.

Furthermore, the geographical variations in camp distribution emphasize that the needs of displaced populations differ across regions. Some areas may require an increased focus on healthcare services due to camp concentrations, while others may necessitate support in education or livelihood opportunities.

The existence of formal settlements within these patterns suggests opportunities for long-term development efforts. These areas may benefit from initiatives aimed at rehabilitation and reconstruction, promoting self-reliance and sustainable livelihoods among displaced individuals,

thereby enhancing their resilience and facilitating their recovery. Additionally, the spatial patterns highlight regions with potentially higher concentrations of vulnerable groups, such as children and the elderly. To address their distinct needs and ensure their well-being during displacement, specialized protection mechanisms and support services are essential.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In conclusion, this study on the spatial patterns of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps in Northeastern Nigeria has provided valuable insights into the complex dynamics of displacement in the region. The coexistence of both formal and informal camps signifies the multifaceted nature of the factors driving displacement, including conflict, insecurity, and natural disasters.

The clustered distribution of camps around urban centers highlights the importance of urbanfocused humanitarian efforts, as these areas are more likely to receive efficient services due to their proximity to urban resources. However, it also underscores the need for a nuanced approach to address the diverse needs of displaced populations across different regions.

The geographic variation in camp distribution underscores the necessity for tailored interventions. Some areas may require increased healthcare services, while others may need support in education or livelihood opportunities.

The presence of formal settlements within these patterns presents opportunities for long-term development efforts, including rehabilitation and reconstruction initiatives that promote self-reliance and sustainable livelihoods for displaced individuals.

Moreover, the spatial patterns draw attention to regions with potentially higher concentrations of vulnerable groups, such as children and the elderly. Specialized protection mechanisms and support services are essential to address their unique needs and ensure their well-being during displacement.

In essence, this study underscores the importance of a comprehensive and adaptable approach to addressing the complex challenges of displacement in Northeastern Nigeria. It emphasizes the need for a coordinated effort among humanitarian organizations, government agencies, and local communities to provide efficient and targeted support to IDPs, taking into account the specific characteristics and needs of each region. Ultimately, by understanding and responding effectively to the spatial patterns of IDP camps, we can strive to alleviate the suffering of displaced populations and work towards a more stable and resilient future for the region.

Recommendations

- 1. Develop a more targeted and region-specific humanitarian response strategy. Recognize that the needs of displaced populations vary across different regions, and tailor assistance programs accordingly. Some areas may require more healthcare services, while others may need support in education, livelihoods, or protection.
- 2. Given the clustering of IDP camps around urban centers, prioritize urban-focused humanitarian efforts. Ensure that displaced populations in urban areas have access to essential services, including healthcare, education, and livelihood opportunities. Collaborate with urban authorities to address the specific challenges posed by urban displacement.
- Invest in long-term development initiatives in areas with formal settlements. These initiatives should focus on rehabilitation and reconstruction, promoting self-reliance and

- sustainable livelihoods for displaced individuals. Empower them to rebuild their lives and contribute to the local economy.
- 4. Implement specialized protection mechanisms and support services for vulnerable groups, such as children and the elderly, who may be concentrated in specific regions. Ensure that their unique needs are addressed, including access to education, healthcare, and psychosocial support.
- 5. Foster collaboration among humanitarian organizations, government agencies, and local communities to coordinate efforts efficiently. Establish regional task forces or committees to facilitate information sharing and joint planning, ensuring that resources are allocated effectively and the specific characteristics of each region are taken into account.

These recommendations aim to improve the effectiveness of humanitarian response efforts, enhance the well-being of displaced populations, and contribute to the long-term stability and resilience of Northeastern Nigeria.

References

- Abubakar, M. (2018). Boko Haram Insurgency and Porternally Displaced Persons (IDP) Implications on Good Governance In Nigeria. LAPAI JOURNAL OF POLITICS, 5(1), 153-162.
- Avruch, K. (2013). Basic human needs and the dilemma of power in conflict resolution. In *Conflict Resolution and Human Needs* (pp. 40-58). Routledge.
- Azumah, J. (2015). Boko Haram in Retrospect. *Islam and Christian–Muslim Relations*, 26(1), 33-52. https://doi.org/10.1080/09596410.2014.967930
- CRED. (2017). Brussels: Center for Disaster Epidemiology Research (CRED) of Leuven Catholic University (Belgium): 2018. 8 p. *URL*: https://cred.. be/sites/default/files/adsr_2017. pdf (Last accessed: 2018 Jul 02).
- Eweka, O., & Olusegun, T. O. (2016). Management of internally displaced persons in Africa: Comparing Nigeria and Cameroon. *African research review*, *10*(1), 193-210.
- Eze, T. C., Okpala, C. S., & Ogbodo, J. C. (2014). Patterns of inequality in human development across Nigeria's six geopolitical zones. *Developing Country Studies*, 4(8), 97-101.
- Krkač, K. (2023). Un/natural disasters IV: a philosophy of warning and alarming multiple simultaneous un/natural disasters. *Technological Sustainability*.
- Mohammed, F. K. (2017). The causes and consequences of internal displacement in Nigeria and related governance challenges. *German Institute for International and Security Affairs*, *Berlin*.
- Nnadi, G. O., Ezeani, O. E., & Nnadi, H. C. (2020). The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) and the challenge of effective management of internally displaced persons in north-eastern Nigeria. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 25(5), 1-14.
- Nnamdi, A. C., Sebastine, A. I., Junior, E. O., & Anyanwu, K. (2015). Boko Haram crisis and implications for development in the northern Nigeria. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 3(4), 1-12.

- NPC. (2006). *Nigeria Population Census 2006*. https://nigeria.opendataforafrica.org/xspplpb/nigeria-census
- Olagbaju, O. O., & Awosusi, O. E. (2019). Herders-farmers' communal conflict in Nigeria: An indigenised language as an alternative resolution mechanism. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary and Current Research*, 7.
- Oladipo, I. E., & Oyinloye, O. B. (2022). Food Insecurity and Conflict Dynamics. *ABUAD Journal of Social and Management Sciences*, *3*(1), 30-46
- Östh, J., Reggiani, A., & Schintler, L. A. (2021). Hierarchy, central place theory and computational modelling. In *Handbook on Entropy, Complexity and Spatial Dynamics* (pp. 454-473). Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Staub, E. (2003). Notes on cultures of violence, cultures of caring and peace, and the fulfillment of basic human needs. *Political psychology*, 24(1), 1-21.
- UNISDR. (2017). *UNISDR annual report 2017*. https://www.undrr.org/publication/unisdr-annual-report-2017
- Yahaya, T. I., Emigilati, M., Abdulkadir, A., & Abubakar, A. (2017). Human Activities and Natural Hazards in Areas of Northern Nigeria.

THE PROMOTION OF AFRICAN CULTURAL HERITAGE: AN EXAMPLE OF GOGE AFRICA YOUTUBE VIDEOS

Quinette N. Madumelu (Ph.D)
Walter C. Ihejirika (Professor)
Obiageli P. Ohiagu (Professor)

ABSTRACT

The African cultural heritage has been negatively undermined for several years now thereby damaging its cultural traditions and values. This study however, examines the promotion of African cultural heritage using *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos. The study is hinged on two theories: Technological Determinism Theory and Gregory Constructivist Theory of Perception. It adopted the content analysis. The population for content analysis was 237 *Goge Africa* YouTube videos with a sample size of 25 cultural videos drawn purposively across 4 years from 2016-2019 making it 100 in all. Findings of the study among others revealed that African cultural tourism agencies should maximize the online space in order to promote the African cultural heritage through different platforms as this will help to debunk the stereotypes of the West about the African culture.

Keywords: Promotion, African Cultural Heritage, Youtube Videos

INTRODUCTION

Cultural tourism covers not only the cultural products of the past, but also the way of life of a people or region (Richards, 2001). This simply means that both the tangibles and the intangibles are also put in perceptive. According to Medlik (1996) cited in Yolai and Negrusa (2012), cultural tourism is essentially motivated by cultural interests, such as trip visits and visits to historical sites and monuments, museums, and galleries, artistic performances and festivals, as well as lifestyles of communities. This simply shows that culture could be seen as the main pull factor influencing visitors' initial decision to travel to destinations in different parts of the world (Richards, 2001). Perhaps, this basically summarizes the intentions of tourists whose major idea of visiting a destination may be to understand a particular people, their traditions, histories, ideologies, belief system, etc., based on their one-on-one interactions outside of what historians and the books say.

Cultural tourism could be seen as a combination of all that the culture of a people are made up of and are accepted by them. Interestingly, cultural tourism exports a people's culture. Sirayi and Sifolo (2020), observed that cultural tourism is a global practice that relies on the branding of the tangible (monuments, amusement parks) and intangibles (development of history, science, lifestyle, arts and other human creative achievement) of ethnic groups. In all of these cultures, is the center of this type of tourism

Culture is simply described as the way of life of a people which includes their belief system, values, opinions, ideas, norms and complete worldview. It is the distinctive character of a nation, of a group or a period of history (Hussain, 2021).

In cultural tourism, what is most important is the promotion of the culture of a people to tourists who are interested in having knowledge of other peoples' culture asides their native culture. Infact, tourists are said to be motivated to visit other destinations for different reasons

ranging from educational, medical, religious, commercial, and environmental, etc. It is instructive to note that cultural tourism is basically about the tourists' crucial driving force to be educated, to unearth, encounter, and enjoy the tangible and intangible cultural appeal in a tourism destination. Its attractions/products could relate to a set of distinctive material, intellectual, spiritual and emotional features of a society that encompass arts and architecture, historical and cultural heritage, culinary heritage, literature, music, creative industries and the love of cultures with their lifestyle, value systems, beliefs and traditions (UNWTO, 2001 cited in Richards, 2021).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The ubiquity of the new media, avails a freer and less rigid entrance to media content such as *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos the opportunity to be watched and re-watched as many times as possible hence the millions of views that keep increasing daily for viewers consumption. Meanwhile, it appears that no study has critically examined the role of virtual cultural tourism in the promotion of the African culture using YouTube platform. This necessitates the aim of the present study in examining the cultural indicators of the African culture on *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

This study sets to; analyze the dominant cultural themes used in Goge Africa YouTube cultural videos in expressing the African culture. The objectives set to achieve this aim are to:

- find out prevalent themes of festivals and ceremonies used in expressing the African culture in Goge Africa YouTube cultural videos.
- investigate the prominent indicators of the African fashion as expressed in *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos.
- 3. examine the dominant elements of the African music and dance that depict the nature of the African culture as shown in *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos.
- ascertain the dominant cultural themes used in expressing the African religion on Goge
 Africa YouTube cultural videos.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study will not only extend the frontiers of scholarship on such a seminal research on the cultural indicators of the African culture but will also stimulate further researches on the indicators of the African culture using virtual tourism for its promotion.

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Information and Communication Technology

In human history, there seems to always be that confluence of cultural, economic, political and technical force, which perhaps, triggers profound and enduring societal changes. Although some of these changes are abrupt and eruptive, others are gradual and evolutionary (Lin, 2007). Most of these spontaneous changes could be credited to Information and Communication Technology.

Suleiman, Surajo, and Matinga (2020) believed that the concept of ICT could be assembled to mean the new media apparatuses applied to information administration conveyance, which incorporates to gather, sort out, recover, spread and safeguard information. Information and communication technology (ICT) is said to be the set of activities which is facilitated by electronic means, the processing, transmission and display of information (World Bank cited in Ayoola and Afolabi 2015). In other words, ICT can be assumed to be in the business of creating, transmitting, manipulating and storing of information by the aid of technology.

2.1.2 The Concept of Tourism

One of the major key-drivers of any nation is tourism. It is a sector with many diversities and has global significance. As the world is going through globalization and changes keep occurring in different areas, tourism seems not to be affected as it improves the economy of both the developed and the developing nations especially its host communities. Tourism is big in itself as it has been seen as the largest and fastest industry across the globe. According to the Jewish language, the word "Torah" means study or search and "tour" may have been derived from it (Aditya, 2022). This indicates how old tourism is. Tourism has a part in world peace as it fosters relationship across continents, deals with unemployment, alleviates poverty and brings about the intermingling of people and societies. Over the centuries, man has always travelled from one part of his abode to another for either leisure, business, health, sports, religion or sometimes for cultural experiences, etc. When he leaves his original destination for another, he is said to be a tourist whether temporary or otherwise.

2.1.3 Information Communication and Technologies (ICTs) and Tourism

A whole lot has changed in the way things are done in the 21st century and it has affected virtually every single sector, of which tourism is not an exception. The information and communication technology being behind these huge changes has taken the tourism business into an enviable height unlike when it was being practised in the traditional way. Considering ICTs interactive and user generated content nature which makes it a veritable tool that is deployed for efficiency and effectiveness in the tourism industry. Technologically, innovations are practically endless, since few innovations are shown at the market every day. Tourist organizations, therefore, must constantly follow innovative changes in order to improve their efficiency, capability for direct interaction with the consumers and to increase profitability (Egger and Buhalis, 2008 cited in Lyimo and Barakael, 2022). It has become imperative that for you to stay in business you must go the way of e-tourism.

2.1.4 Tourism and Development

That tourism is seen as a veritable driver in both developing and developed nations is no longer news. This could be due to the fact that it helps in boosting economic growth, agriculture, energy development, stimulated alleviation. Tourism development stimulates growth by attracting new foreign exchange building new facilities (Tang, Selvanathan and Lyu and Babar, 2007 cited in Khan, Bibi, Lorenzo, Kyu and Barbar, 2020). Every country with its government gives all the assistance it can toward tourism because she believes that tourism positively affects

the developmental pillars of any country by providing employment, increase in the foreign exchange, boosting the supply sectors of tourism, and at the same time make a huge impact on the balance of payment, and all these have huge impact on the drastic reduction of poverty.

2.1.5 YouTube

YouTube is a video sharing platform used by content creators to inform, educate, entertain, etc. It is an internet vehicle used in assisting tourists to have a firsthand information about the destination they intent to visit, unlike the traditional practice. Social media platforms like YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, Myspace, etc. are built to give room for interaction. Here, the tourists have the opportunity to interact with not only the tourism business but to get a one-one answer for every question.

YouTube, Trip Advisory and Expedia are all sites where people discuss all things concerning destination and their experiences. Today, people are becoming more aware of destinations of interest even before they visit. Indeed, the tourists want to interact with real people and also to have firsthand information ranging from the price of accommodation, the processing of their travelling documents, cuisine, etc.

2.2. Theoretical Framework:

This study anchored on Technological Determinism Theory and Gregory Constructivist Theory of Perception.

2.2.1 Technological Determinism Theory

This theory was coined by Thorstein Veblen (1857-1929) who is an American sociologist and economist. Here, technology is seen as the driving force of culture in a society and it also determines its course in history (Asemah, Nwamuo and Uwaoma, 2017). This theory is viewed as a reductionist theory that believes that society's predisposed development can be hinged on its technological development which will impact its social structure and cultural values

2.2.2 Gregory's Constructivist Theory of Perception

Though the German polymath, Hermann von Helmholtz (1821-1894), was known as the father of visual perception, Richard Gregory (1970 cited in McLeod, 2023) is however popular with his constructivist theory of perception. He was a British psychologist and Professor of Neuropsychology. He was known for his top-down approach of perception which relies heavily on perception being determined by the construction of the internal hypothesis and mental models (Gregory 1990: 219 cited in Demuth 2013). His idea was that perception is a matter of receptors as well as of the brain which depends on inferences based on prior experiences.

3.1 METHODOLOGY

3.1.1 Research Design

This study by its nature necessitates descriptive content analysis. The justification for content analysis is that it enabled the researcher, to study the manifest content of *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural tourism videos with the view to finding out the elements of festivals and ceremonies, fashion, music and dance as well as African traditional religion (ATR).

3.1. 2 Goge Africa YouTube Cultural Tourism Videos Population

With regard to the population of *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural tourism videos, the African cultural themes were extracted from *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos. This study made use of the *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural tourism videos from 2016-2019. Twenty-five (25) *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural tourism videos were downloaded from each year and for the four years, hundred (100) YouTube cultural tourism videos were downloaded for analysis.

3.2 Sample and Sampling Techniques

3.2.1 Sampling for Goge Africa YouTube cultural Tourism Videos

The focus of this study is on *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos drawn from the *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural tourism channel of 2016-2019. The total number of videos that were downloaded from *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural tourism videos are hundred (100) which stands as the sample size for content analysis in this study. Purposive sampling technique was used to select only videos with cultural contents. This is because the purposive sampling technique gives the researcher the opportunity to select *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos that have the characteristics of units needed for study.

3.3 Instrumentation

Coding sheet and guide, were the research instruments used in this study. Coding sheet and guide were the instruments used in the content analysis which tackled research questions 1, 2, 3, and 4

3.3.1 Coding Guide and Coding Sheet

The coding guide as the name implies is the instrument needed for analyzing the content in *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural tourism videos. This was used to take care of research questions 1, 2, 3 and 4. Wimmer and Dominick (2011) defined unit of analysis as the smallest element of content analysis which could range from a word, symbol, character, act, theme or entire article, story or programme. Based, on this, the units under investigation in this study are the indicators of-festival and ceremonies, fashion, music and dance and religion. These are the categories that define each indicator. In total there were four (4) units of analysis and 38 content categories. The operational definitions of each unit of analysis are as follows:

- Festivals and ceremonies: Drumming, masquerades, fresh palm fronds, African cuisine, shrine and libations, red or white piece of cloth, kolanut, heavily decorated horses and horsemen are clearly evident in every African cultural festival showing the African rich culture. Most festivals in Africa are tied to histories, values, beliefs, rite of passage, initiation into adulthood, conferment of titles etc.
- 2. Fashion: Africans are known for their fashion sense. They are known all over the world for their hand-made fashions and other fashion accessories which ranges from: tye and dye (a local handmade wrapper), silk, batik, akwete, asooke, the tiger, corn rows, leg chain, coral beads, hand-made beads, etc.

3. Music and dance: The African music is a form of communication used for several events and for different purposes. Its rhythmic and metric complexity is expressed all through the African musical system. There are features of the African music: drums which depict the mood of the people, flutes (bamboo), horns from elephant tusks, whistle, trumpets (wood or meet), gongs, the tweaking of the buttocks, rhythmic beating of the chest, chest muscle flexing, acrobatic dance steps, stamping of feet, dance with a horsetail, smiling faces, feet shuffling forward and backward, rocking the body from side to side.

3.4 Validity/Reliability of the Research Instruments

The research instrument were designed and validated by the researcher and to establish reliability of the coding guide and sheet, the researcher served as the first coder and a second was trained to independently code all hundred (100) cultural videos with the African cultural indicators from 2016-2019, evident in *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

The result of the qualitative data was presented and analyzed using Explanation Building Technique (EBT).

4.1 Results and Analysis

Indicators of Festivals and Ceremonies

- i. Kolanuts
- ii. Yam
- iii. Masquerade/Masks
- iv. Drumming
- v. Boat Regatta
- vi. Wrapper-tying/Initiation
- vii. Title-taking
- viii. Cultural-wrestling

Results of the lists above show the indicators of the African festivals and ceremonies as shown in the *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural tourism videos. The indicators afore-mentioned seem to be very significant in the African cultural festivals and ceremonies and these are seen as part of the African cultural heritage, as passed from one generation to another

INDICATORS OF THE AFRICAN FASHION

The above objective helped the researcher to look out for African cultural fashion as expressed in *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos and the following were found:

- i. Indigo dyed textile known as Adire
- ii. AsoOke
- iii. Horse-tail
- iv. Agbada
- v. Batik
- vi. Silk
- vii. Fila
- viii. Ankara
- ix. Gele and Ipele or koko
- x. Bola hat
- xi. George wrapper
- xii. Buba
- xiii. Tie and dye
- xiv. Elephant tusks
- xv. Beads (Coral, glass, etc)
- xvi. Red cap

In the list above, a significant indicator evident in the African cultural heritage is what appears to be the peoples' sophisticated sense of clothing and fashion as shown on *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos. The distinct African cultures and their aesthetically flamboyant attires still hold sway in communal activities, even with the imposition of the foreign fashion.

INDICATORS OF MUSIC AND DANCE

The indicators expressing African music and dance as expressed by *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos are listed out below:

- i. Expressive and captivating
- ii. Participatory in nature
- iii. Use of membranophone, idiophone, chordophones, etc.
- iv. Scale and tonal arrangement
- v. Repetitive rhythm

In response to objective three, data presented above revealed that another very important elements in African cultural heritage showcased on *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos are Music and Dance. This is because music and dance are highly symbolic as it permeates every aspect of the African traditional life. It is highly communicative, interactive and participatory in nature. In the African cultural heritage, music and dance has a vast array of meanings attached to the traditions and culture as well as world views. In the African culture, music as well as dance

seems to be a fundamental aspect or activity that takes place in its communities. Looking at some of the video. There are obvious elements predominant in almost all the African music and dance.

INDICATORS OF AFRICAN TRADITONAL RELIGION

The cultural elements expressing African cultural religion in *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos were ascertained thus:

- i. Observance of Sabbath
- ii. Practice of animism
- iii. Worship of the sacred pythons
- iv. Worship of the thunder/lightening
- v. Worship of the god of war and iron

The lists presented above shows the indicators inherent in the African traditional religion. This implies that African traditional religion is simply an aspect of the African culture. *Goge Africa* producers portray this particular indicator of the African cultural heritage on their YouTube cultural videos as the African traditional religion, as seen during African celebrations.

4.2 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

On the theme of festivals and ceremonies, kolanut, yam, masquerades/mask, drumming, cuisine, boat regatta, wrapper-tying/initiation, esoteric dances and wrestling were some of the dominant element on the videos.

For the African fashion, the pieces, designs, patterns were simply breath-taking as the raw materials were hand-woven into beautiful patterns. On *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos, indigo was showcased as having reputation as a high quality-dye that its colour lasts. Its chief advantage is the metallic sheen (Knaack, 2012)

Moreso, the African music and dance are basically intertwined in nature, so one cannot talk about each without mentioning the other. The traditional music and dance are expressive and captivating in nature. Perhaps, this is the Africans' method of expressing their emotions. On one of the *Goge Africa* YouTube cultural videos, the Izon or Ijaw people of the South-South region of Nigeria showed their music and dance named the 'Owigiri' dance. One can fairly argue that folk music and dance is also a universal nature inherent in the African culture. This is evident in the folk music and dance by the Ugandan' Muwogola dance', located in the Eastern part of Africa. The music and dance is on a folktale that depicts the end of foolishness which is waxed into a song and dance.

Another aspect worthy of note was the African traditional religion Bonus (2016) affirmed that the African people seem to give accolade to a supreme being in everything they do, even in their drumming, dancing, sacrifices, invocations, etc. This assertion resonates with the African traditional religion.

5.1 CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to analyze the Goge Africa YouTube cultural videos. Findings from this study have shown that indicators such as festivals, ceremonies, fashion, music, dance and religion are not only dominant on Goge Africa YouTube cultural videos but are also given explicit description. In fact, these cultural videos expressing the African themes/indicators which for festivals are; Yam, masquerades/masks, kolanuts, drumming, boat regatta, esoteric dance, cultural wrestling. For the indicators of the African fashion are; Indigo-dyed textile known as Adire, asooke, horse-tail, agbada, batic, silk, fila, Ankara, gele and ipele or koko, bowler hat, George wrapper, buba, red cap, while the elements for music and dance are that it is; expressive and captivating, participatory in nature, salutatory, repetitive, use of percussion instruments, structured and patterned, dramatic, call -in- response in nature. Then the themes of the African traditional religion are; the observance of Sabbath, practice of animism, worship of the sacred pythons, worship of the thunder/lightning, worship of the god of iron and war, worship of the god of soil, god of fertility etc. These themes are not only dominant but have gained prominence on the YouTube platform. Specifically, indicators showing masquerades, wearable arts, theatrical movements, pouring of libations, percussions, rhythmic patterns and other indicators are all used in expressing the African culture.

5.4 Recommendations

The researcher suggests that the African cultural tourism entrepreneurs/agencies should be encouraged to massively promote its festivals and ceremonies, African fashion, music and dance, and African traditional religion by showcasing and interpreting its cultural themes using viable audio-visual media platforms especially YouTube, and other internet technologies for a global reach. Maximizing social media platforms will not only promote the themes of the African cultural themes that are viable - but will also combat the stereotypes of the West.

REFERENCES

- Asemah, E.S., Nwamuo, A.N., & Uwaoma, A.O.A (2017). Theories and Models Communication. MATKOL press, pp.204-301
- Ayoola, R. & Afolabi, Y. (2015). The Role of ICT in National Development: A Study of the Educational Sector in Lagos State (Paper presentation). In International Conference on African Development Issues, Information and Communication Technology Track, Lagos, Nigeria. Pp.112-116
- Khan, A., Bibi, S., Lorenzo, A., Lyu, Jiaying & Babar, Z.U. (2020); Tourism and Development in Developing Economies. A Policy Implication Perspective. *In Journal of Sustainability*. 12(4) 162-200.
- Knack, K. E. C. (2012). The Traditions and History of Indigo- dyed Textiles in Sierra-Leone as it Relates to the Art and Life of Haja Kaditu Kamara. Published MA Thesis from the Faculty of Arts in University of Missouri-Kansas City, Missouri

- Lin, C.A. (2007). Communication in Social Change; Theory. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group; New York, pp. 3-35.
- Oguh, C. H. (2015). The Representation of Africa in Western Media: Still a 21st century
 Problem (M.A thesis, Edinburgh Napier University). The University of Edinburgh
 Research Commons. https://researchgate.net
- Richards, G. (2003). What is Cultural Tourism? In: V, Maren (Eds.)Erffgoed Voor Toerisme, Weesp: Contact monumenten (Vol.1 pp.1-15). ATLAS
- Richards, G. (2021). Rethinking Cultural Tourism. Edward Elgar Publishing. Pp.1-7
- Suleiman, M. M., Surajo, A.Z & Matinga, Z.I (2020). Role of ICT for Entrepreneurship Development in Nigeria. *In Inter Disciplinary Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*. 1(2)97-111
- Yolai, M. & Negrussa, A.L (2012). Analysis of Cultural Tourism Motivation: The Case of Turkish. In *Chinese Business Review*. 11(3), 283-291

EXTRAJUDICIAL KILLINGS BY GOVERNMENT AND ANONYMOUS ENTITIES AND VIOLATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN PORT HARCOURT METROPOLIS

BY

OBAH, PATIENCE

Obahpatience165@gmail.com

Centre for Peace and Security Studies Faculty of Social Sciences University of Port Harcourt

DURUEKE, OYINYECHUKWU Ph.D

oyinkem@gmail.com

Centre for Peace and Security Studies Faculty of Social Sciences University of Port Harcourt

ABSTRACT

This paper examined extrajudicial killings carried out by Government and non-state actors in addition to human rights violations and abuses, which have been a major challenge in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. The paper adopted the structural violence theory of John Galtung. This theory posits that extrajudicial killings and other forms of human rights violations are the result of structural inequalities and injustices in society. The method used was document analysis which helped the paper to achieve its aim through searching documents, facts and news about extrajudicial killings by Government and non-state actors in Port Harcourt metropolis. Government and non-state entities alike have been implicated in the perpetration of these violations, resulting in a climate of fear, insecurity, and mistrust among the population. While adopting the structural violence theory, the paper discovered that the causes of extrajudicial killings by Government and non-state actors are; impunity, political repression, corruption, organized crime, inequality, and lack of effective legal systems. Based on the above findings, the paper recommends that the Nigerian government should prioritize the protection of human rights and work to ensure that perpetrators of extrajudicial killings are held accountable, and the law enforcement agencies should undergo training on human rights and the use of force to prevent further extrajudicial killings.

Keywords: Extrajudicial killings, Government, human rights violation.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Over the years, Rivers State and Nigeria as a whole have experienced human rights abuse, violations, and extrajudicial killings by government and non-state actors, which have impinged on citizens' human rights and freedom. Extrajudicial killings by government and non-state actors have been a long-standing issue in the Port Harcourt metropolis. Extrajudicial killings by the

government refer to the deliberate killing of individuals by state officials without due process of law (International Commission of Jurists, 1980).

Non-state actors, on the other hand, are people or organizations that engage in violence, commit crimes, and violate citizens' human rights. These gangs have been linked to land disputes, livestock rustling, and other sorts of criminal activities that have resulted in conflicts and violence with local people. Non-state actors, such as criminal gangs, cult groups, and herders, have been implicated in incidents of extrajudicial executions and other types of violence against civilians (Enukora & Umenwa, 2019) in the Port Harcourt metropolis.

This violation of human rights has alarmed many governments throughout the world (Amnesty International, 2019; US Department of State, 2021), and Nigeria is no exception, particularly in Port Harcourt. Citizens are continually living in fear of violence and abuse, including the killing of innocent people, in situations of assault by these gangs of offenders. As a result, farmers are not in a good mood when it comes to farming. Students are terrified of any cult-related attacks. Security agencies are continuously abusing and threatening motorists (Human Rights Watch, 2010). Mysterious gangs were regularly dressed in security uniforms to commit crimes on highways and other public places.

Furthermore, citizens can no longer exercise their franchise during elections in their respective polling units. Travelers are afraid of kidnapping and killings by arm robbery and rituals. Citizens are in constant fear of rappers as they go about their daily business activities. All these affect the right of citizens to freedom, economic development, and growth in the Port Harcourt metropolis and beyond.

The Nigerian government has a legal commitment to defend its people's rights, especially the right to life, and to hold violators responsible. Failure to adequately apply these rules, on the other hand, has created a culture of impunity, resulting in further abuses and executions. These episodes highlight the prevalence of extrajudicial executions by government employees, mainly the police and military, in Port Harcourt. Human rights organizations have demanded responsibility and justice for extrajudicial death victims. The Nigerian government has taken some measures to address the issue of extrajudicial murders in the nation, including the formation of the Presidential Panel on SARS Reform, entrusted with reviewing complaints of human rights breaches by the police force. The Nigerian government has pledged to solve these concerns and preserve citizens' rights (Daily Trust, 2019). Nonetheless, implementation has been delayed, and concerns have been expressed regarding the lack of accountability for those who commit these often. Therefore, it is crucial for governments and societies to respect and uphold human rights, and for individuals to be aware of their rights and to advocate for their protection.

2.0 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In recent times, Port Harcourt metropolis has experienced some degree of extrajudicial killings by Government and non-state actors, which is an act of human right violation. This type of abuse of human right has been in existence for a while now in Rivers State. The perpetrators of this act are mainly the police and the military; they are responsible for hundreds of extrajudicial executions, unlawful killings and enforced disappearances. Most of these crimes committed by the police and military go uninvestigated and unpunished, many families of the victims have no access to justice or compensation, and at times, they do not know what exactly happened to their loved ones. According to Amnesty International, (2010) many people are killed in police custody. In the case of forced disappearances, the police tell the victims' families that they have been transferred to another state or released on bail, but there is no documentation to confirm such claim. The Nigerian government is yet to achieve its aim of eradicating violence and abuse of human rights as it failed to take appropriate measures to address the issue of extrajudicial killings in Port Harcourt. These issues have prompted this paper to examine how extrajudicial killings by government and non-state actors and violation of human rights have affected citizen's rights and the impact they exert on them.

KEY OBJECTIVES

- 1. Examine the causes of extrajudicial killings by government security forces, non-state actors and human rights violation and abuse in Port Harcourt.
- Investigate how extrajudicial killings, human rights violation and abuse by government security forces and non-state actors construed the rights of citizens in Port Harcourt metropolis.
- Provide suggestions to curb the menace of extrajudicial killings by government security
 forces and non-state actors on human rights violation and abuse in Port Harcourt
 metropolis.

3.0 CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

3.1 Extrajudicial Killings

Extrajudicial killings refer to the use of lethal force by state entities, especially security personnel, outside the legal framework. These executions are usually carried out without due process of law and outside of the context of an armed conflict or war. The following are definitions of extrajudicial murders from various sources: The United Nations defines extrajudicial executions as the arbitrary deprivation of life by state officials or their agents, without the sanction of legal processes (United Nations, 2021). According to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, extrajudicial killings are "unlawful and intentional killings carried out by state officials or with their complicity or tolerance, and the failure of states to prevent, investigate, and punish these acts" (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, n.d.). Human Rights Watch describes extrajudicial executions as "illegal or arbitrary executions carried out by state personnel, frequently in conjunction with law enforcement operations" (Human Rights Watch, 2021). Extrajudicial killings and abuses of human rights are serious concerns in Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

Government and non-state actors have been linked to these breaches. According to a Human Rights Watch investigation, Nigerian security forces, including the police and military, have conducted extrajudicial murders in Port Harcourt and other regions of the nation. The report documents cases of torture, arbitrary detention, and other forms of human rights abuses by security forces in Nigeria (Human Rights Watch, 2010). Similarly, Amnesty International has documented several cases of extrajudicial killings in Port Harcourt, including the killing of 14 people in Abonnema community in 2019. The organization has also reported on the use of excessive force by security forces in the city (Amnesty International, 2019). According to the US Department of State's 2020 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices, security personnel in Nigeria, especially those in Port Harcourt, conducted extrajudicial murders and other human rights abuses during the year. According to the study, security personnel used excessive force, made arbitrary arrests and detentions, and tortured people (U.S. Department of State, 2021).

Studies have also been conducted on the issue of extrajudicial killings and human rights violations in Port Harcourt. For instance, a study by Akpan (2015) examined the impact of police brutality on human rights in the city. The study found that police brutality was a common occurrence in Port Harcourt and had a negative impact on the enjoyment of human rights by the residents of the city. Enukora and Umenwa (2019) conducted another study on the impact of extrajudicial executions on the right to life in Port Harcourt. The report concluded that extrajudicial executions posed a substantial threat to the right to life in the city and suggested solutions

3.2 Extrajudicial Killings by Government

Extrajudicial murders by the government in Nigeria and Port Harcourt explicitly relate to the use of disproportionate force by security personnel, such as the police and military, which results in the deaths of people without a legal procedure or judicial review. These killings frequently take place under the pretence of upholding law and order, yet they violate citizens' human rights and threaten the rule of law. During the 2011 general elections in Port Harcourt, there were multiple reports of extrajudicial executions by security agents and political thugs. At least 22 people were murdered in election-related violence, and many more were injured or forced to flee their homes, according to Human Rights Watch. The organization demanded an impartial inquiry and accused the government of neglecting to safeguard residents (Human Rights Watch, 2012).

According to Amnesty International, between January 2017 and January 2021, Nigerian security services were involved for at least 1,126 extrajudicial murders and forced disappearances, and these killings/-abuses were conducted with impunity, where the perpetrators carry out these killings because they know they will not be held accountable for the crime. (Amnesty International, 2021). These extrajudicial killings can also be seen as an organized crime where a witness, rival or those who refuse to do the biddings of Government are silenced, corruption where individuals who threaten to expose corrupt activities are eliminated, and lack of effective legal systems consisting of inadequate investigation, prosecution, and punishment of crimes.

Extrajudicial executions by Nigerian government troops, such as the police and military, have been a significant problem in-<u>Port Harcourt</u> Nigeria. These murders are frequently committed with little accountability and with little to no repercussions for the killers.

3.3 Human Rights

Human rights are "rights which all human beings have by virtue of their humanity. They provide a common standard of behaviour among the international community." These rights are logical, natural, unalienable, and inviolable; to deny them would be a serious insult to one's sense of justice. Every person is deserving with deference. To ensure that every individual's dignity is duly and equitably respected, in addition to enable them to satisfy their spiritual and other needs, as well as to fully develop and utilize their innate human qualities, such as intelligence, talent, and conscience, humans created the principles of human rights. Humans are aware of one another's value since there are human rights. According to Prof. Obiora Okafor, a Nigerian scholar and expert in human rights law "Human dignity is not a unique, exclusive, or solitary idea; but it is a component of our shared humanity."

Human rights enable us to appreciate and coexist with one another. In other words, they are not just rights that should be claimed or asked for but also rights that should be respected and for which someone should be held accountable. Denying fundamental freedoms and human rights leads to social and political instability, which in turn sows the seeds of violence and war both within and between communities and nations. This tragedy affects both individuals and their personal lives. Human rights are expected to be safeguarded by legislation and are crucial for the dignity and well-being of people and society.

Since 1948, the United Nations has been actively involved in the development of international human rights standards, particularly with regard to specific issues. Examples of freedoms, rights, and limitations associated with human rights include the prohibition against torture and the prohibition against cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment in relation to civil and political rights.

Right to personal freedom and security; right to humane treatment while in custody; freedom of travel as well as the right to a just trial Prohibition of marriage and family planning; right to vote, to be elected, and to hold public office; right to equality before the law and non-discrimination; prohibition of retroactive criminal laws; right to privacy; freedom of thought, conscience, and religion; and freedom of opinion and expression. Prohibition of war propaganda and incitement to national, racial, or religious hatred. Economic, social, and cultural rights include the right to decent and comfortable working conditions.

Furthermore, the right to create and join labour unions; the right to social security; family protection; and the right to a sufficient quality of life, including appropriate food, clothes, and shelter, these examples and others demonstrate the breadth and diversity of human rights and the

importance of protecting and promoting these rights for the well-being of individuals and societies.

3.4 Human Rights Abuse/Violation

Anything that violates someone's human rights is considered human rights abuse. These consist of bodily injury, harm to relationship, economic harm, environmental harm, harm to mental health, and harm to person's identity. Others are, harm to people, communities, and the environment. Human rights violations, such as extrajudicial killings, censorship, and denial of access to education and healthcare, not only violate individual rights but also have far-reaching social and economic consequences. Violations of human rights by states can be either directly or indirectly, and they may also result from the state's deliberate actions or from the state's inability to stop the infraction. A state may violate human rights through the actions of its police, judges, prosecutors, government officials, and other agents. A violation of rights can involve physical violence, as in the case of police brutality, or it can involve no physical violence at all, as in the case of the right to a fair trial. Furthermore, the state fails in its duty to protect the rights of its citizen when it does nothing to stop conflicts between individuals or groups within a society or to protect those who are vulnerable; it's participating in the violations. States are primarily responsible for upholding and promoting human rights under human rights treaties. A government has three responsibilities when it ratifies a treaty; Human rights must be upheld, respected, and fulfilled. It is the responsibility of the government to step in and bring charges against those who violate the law. Everybody, including the government, needs to be held responsible.

3.5 Extrajudicial Killings by Non-State Actors

Extrajudicial killings in Nigeria, notably in Port Harcourt, have also been carried out by non-state actors, including individuals, criminal gangs, armed organizations, and vigilante groups. These killings are frequently committed by the organizations during fights with other groups or against those who are thought to have committed crimes. Non-state actors have occasionally taken matters into their own hands, enacting vigilante retribution against alleged offenders.

In Port Harcourt, there have been instances of extrajudicial executions by non-state actors in recent years. There were multiple claims of political thugs carrying out extrajudicial killings in Port Harcourt during the 2011 general elections, all in the bid to silence political opponents, activists, or minority groups. These and other cases show how vital it is for the Nigerian government to act decisively to stop extrajudicial executions and election violence. This entails holding political and security figures accountable for their deeds, guaranteeing free and fair elections, and offering assistance to victims and their families.

Four university students were killed in 2012; this was a common occurrence of extrajudicial executions carried out by government security personnel in Port Harcourt. The youngsters were charged with robbing a member of the Aluu community of his laptop and phone. The pupils refuted the charges, saying they were based on hearsay. A crowd of locals attacked them, stripped

them naked, and lit them on fire. The event was caught on camera and went viral on social media, eliciting national and worldwide anger (BBC, 2012). The extrajudicial executions were carried out by mobs and vigilante organizations. These murders, along with several more that are not discussed in this research, are frequently committed during conflicts between opposing groups or against those who are thought to have committed crimes. Non-state actors have occasionally taken matters into their own hands, enacting vigilante retribution against alleged offenders.

3.6 Impact of Extrajudicial killings on Human Rights

Extrajudicial executions by government authorities have a severe impact on human rights in Port Harcourt and Nigeria as a whole. This issue of extrajudicial killings havehas a chilling effect on free speech and peaceful assembly because people may be reluctant to voice their opinions or participate in peaceful protests out of concern that they might be targeted by non-state actors. The number-human one of the most essential human rights is the right to life as recognized in international law is also significantly impacted by extrajudicial executions. These executions violate this right and threaten the rule of law, which erodes faith in the government among the populace.

The assassinations, which frequently involve security personnel and political thugs working with the government during elections undermines the legitimacy of elections and violate citizens' human rights.

At least 40 people died during the 2019 general elections, and many were injured or forced to flee, according to the International Association for Civil Rights and Rule of Law (Intersociety). The organization demanded an impartial inquiry and charged the government with involvement in the deaths (Vanguard News, 2019). Human rights abuse and violations in Port Harcourt, as well as the extrajudicial executions of women by both state and non-state actors, are grave problems that have been recorded by several human rights groups and activists. According to a study by Amnesty International in 2020, there were at least 115 instances of extrajudicial executions, torture, and other abuses committed by security agents in Port Harcourt's metropolitan area between 2017 and 2020. These abuses, which included instances of sexual assault and harassment, mostly targeted women. Moreover, the Women's Aid Collective (WACOL), a non-governmental group in Nigeria, has recorded instances of violence against women in the Port Harcourt metropolitan area, including rape, domestic abuse, and forced marriage. Moreover, WACOL has documented instances of women being murdered extra judicially by non-state actors, such as vigilante groups. The Nigerian government has pledged to address these problems and defend women's rights.

In response to these worries, campaigners and civil society organizations have advocated for more action to combat violence against women and secure accountability for those responsible. They have also stressed the need to take steps to stop these abuses from happening in the first place, such as launching education and awareness-raising initiatives on gender-based violence and

supporting women's rights. Furthermore, there is need for government to take action to address the underlying causes of the state's security issues as well as reforming law enforcement and security operations in order to prevent these kinds of abuses from happening in the nearest future.

3.7 The Role of Law in Extrajudicial Killings

The role of law in extrajudicial killings is critical, as it provides a framework for holding perpetrators accountable and ensuring justice for victims. Laws and legal frameworks, such as international human rights law and national criminal law, provide a basis for prosecuting those responsible for extrajudicial killings and providing remedies to victims. Under international human rights law, extrajudicial killings are a violation of the international instruments that safeguard it, such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, include the right to life. States have a duty to ensure that all individuals are protected from extrajudicial killings and those responsible for such killings must be held accountable. In addition, international law provides for the right to a successful remedy for those who have been violated in their human rights, including extrajudicial killings.

National laws also provide for the prosecution of individuals responsible for extrajudicial killings. The Criminal Code and the Criminal Procedure Code provide for the examination, conviction, and sentencing of those accountable for extrajudicial killings. However, the effectiveness of legal frameworks in addressing extrajudicial killings depends on a number of factors, including the political will of the government, the capacity of law enforcement agencies, and the independence and impartiality of the judiciary. In many cases, these factors may be lacking, which can impede efforts to hold perpetrators accountable and provide justice to victims.

4.0 Theoretical Framework

The issue of extrajudicial killings and human rights violations is a complex one, and there are several theories that attempt to explain the phenomenon. This paper is anchored on the structural violence theory. The Structural violence theory as developed by a Norwegian sociologist and peace researcher, John Galtung in his 1969 article "Violence, Peace, and Peace Research", defined structural violence as a form of violence that is built into the very structures of society, often perpetuating inequality, discrimination, and oppression. theory The theory posits that extrajudicial killings and other forms of human rights violations are the result of structural inequalities and injustices in society. According to this theory, marginalized groups are more likely to be victims of extrajudicial killings because they lack access to power and resources, and are therefore more vulnerable to violence. John This theory is supported by Galtung, (1969), who argued that structural violence is the root cause of many forms of violence in society.

5.0 Conclusion

Extrajudicial killings by government and non-state actors, as well as abuse and violation of human rights, are serious issues in Port Harcourt, and Nigeria as a whole. The Nigerian government has a legal obligation to protect the rights of its citizens, including the right to life, and to hold

perpetrators accountable for any violations. However, failure to do so has perpetuated a culture of impunity, leading to more abuses. These incidents demonstrate the prevalence of extrajudicial killings by government officials, particularly the police and the military, in Port Harcourt's metropolis. Human rights organizations have called for accountability and justice for victims of extrajudicial killings, and the Nigerian government has pledged to investigate such incidents and bring those responsible to justice. The Nigerian government has made some efforts to address the issue of extrajudicial killings in the country, including the establishment of the Presidential Panel on SARS Reform, which was tasked with investigating allegations of human rights violations by the police unit. However, human rights groups have criticized the government for not doing enough to hold perpetrators accountable and prevent future human rights abuses. This paper is significant for the protection of human rights; it will help bring to light the extent of human rights abuses in Port Harcourt and draw attention to the need to protect the fundamental rights of all individual and prompt government action to addressing the problem. In terms of accountability, the paper will serve as a yardstick to hold perpetrators of extrajudicial killings and human right abuse accountable. Finally, it will help to provide insight into the root causes of these abuses and identifying measures that can be taken to prevent future occurrence.

5.1 Recommendations

Based on the issues highlighted, the following recommendations were suggested:

- 1. The Nigerian government should prioritize the protection of human rights and work to ensure that perpetrators of extrajudicial killings are held accountable.
- 4. <u>2. Law enforcement agencies should undergo training on human rights and</u>
 the proper use of force to prevent further extrajudicial killings
- 5. <u>Comprehensive reforms should be implemented to strengthen the rule of law</u> and ensure that human rights are respected and protected by all state and non-state actors.
- 4. Civil society organizations and the media should continue to raise awareness about extrajudicial killings and human rights abuses in the Port Harcourt metropolis, as well as hold the government accountable for its responsibilities to its citizens.
 - 7. 5. The Nigerian government should work with international human rights organizations _to provide technical support and assistance in addressing these issues.

Formatted: Left, Indent: Left: 1.27 cm, Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt, Line spacing: 1.5 lines, No bullets or numbering

Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, 12 pt

References

- Akpan, E. (2015). Police brutality and human rights in Nigeria. *African Research Review*, 9(2), 89-105.
- Amnesty International, 2021). Amnesty International Report 2020/21: The State of the World's Human Rights Retrieved from https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/pol10/3202/2021/en/
- Amnesty International. (2019). *Extrajudicial executions*. Retrieved from https://www.amnesty.org/en/what-we-do/death-penalty/extrajudicial-executions/
- Amnesty International. (2021). A State of Fear in Port Harcourt metropolis. Retrieved from https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/afr44/4227/2021/en/
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191-215.
- BBC. (2012). Nigeria mob kills students after lynching spark outrage. BBC News. https://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-19891953
- Channels Television. (2020). *Insecurity: Rivers government set to launch neighbourhood watch*. retrieved from https://www.channelstv.com/2020/02/10/insecurity-rivers-government-set-to-launch-neighbourhood-watch/
- Daily Trust (2019). Trust Latest News in Nigeria and the World.
- Enukora, G. P., & Umenwa, C. S. (2019). Extrajudicial killings and the right to life in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance*, 9(4), 12-24.
- Galtung, J. (1964). The structure of foreign news: the presentation of the Congo, Cuba, and Cyprus crises in four Norwegian newspapers. *Journal of Peace Research*, 1(1), 64–91.
- Human Rights Watch. (2010). Nigeria: *Deadly force against protesters, political rivals*. Retrieved from https://www.hrw.org/news/2010/10/12/nigeria-deadly-force-against-protesters-political-rivals
- Human Rights Watch. (2012). Nigeria: *Killings, disappearances, and torture in Port Harcourt metropolis*. Human Rights Watch. https://www.hrw.org/news/2012/10/18/nigeria-killings-disappearances-and-torture-rivers-state
- Human Rights Watch. (2021). Extrajudicial killings. Retrieved from https://www.hrw.org/topic/justice/extrajudicial-killings
- International Commission of Jurists (1980). Extrajudicial executions. *International Commission of Jurists. Geneva:*

- Office of the high commissioner for human rights. (n.d.). *Extrajudicial killings*. Retrieved from https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/extrajudicial-executions.aspx.
- Onwuazombe, Ifeanyi I. (2017) "Human Rights Abuse and Violations in Nigeria: A Case Study of the Oil-Producing Communities in the Niger Delta Region," Annual Survey of International & Comparative Law: Vol. 22: Iss. 1, Article 8. Available at: https://digitalcommons.law.ggu.edu/annlsurvey/vol22/iss1/8
- Shweder, R. A. (1990). Cultural psychology: Essays on comparative human development, 1-8
- The Guardian Nigeria. (2015). *Nigeria's killing fields in Port Harcourt metropolis*. The Guardian Nigeria. https://guardian.ng/news/rivers-state-nigerias-killing-fields/
- The Guardian Nigeria. (2016). Uniport crisis: One student killed, as police disperse protesting students.
- U.S. Department of State. (2021). Nigeria. *In Country reports on human rights practices for 2020*.

 Retrieved from https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/nigeria/
- United Nations. (2021). Human Rights Council discusses extrajudicial, summary or arbitrary executions. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/press/en/2021/hrc5002.doc.htm
- Vanguard News. (2019). Extrajudicial killings: 22 motorists killed in Rivers in one year NOPRIN. Retrieved from https://www.vanguardngr.com/2019/09/extrajudicial-killings-22-motorists-killed-in-rivers-in-one-year-noprin/
- Vanguard News. (2020). *How five Rivers youths were killed in cold blood* Eyewitness. Retrieved from https://www.vanguardngr.com/2020/01/how-five-rivers-youths-were-killed-in-cold-blood-eyewitness/
- Wilson, J. Q. (1983). Thinking about crime. Basic Books.
- Women's Aid Collective. (n.d.). Our impact. Retrieved from https://wacolnigeria.org/our-impact/

Environmental Management Systems Compliance by Oil and Gas Companies in South-South Nigeria: Host Communities Perspective

Warmate Tuboala Onengiyeofori¹, **Arokoyu** Samuel Bankole¹ and **Elenwo** Ephraim Ikechukwu¹

¹Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Choba, Rivers State, Nigeria

Corresponding Author: warowar200@yahoo.com (09066271818)

Abstract

As global population keeps increasing, production activities would intensify to meet the needs of the population, thereby raising the concern to sustain the needs-production nexus judiciously. Environmental management systems (EMSs) are frameworks which when implemented help companies maximise operational and returns potentials and service their clientele while at the same time reduce their impacts on the environment. This study examines host communities perspective on environmental management systems compliance of oil and gas companies in South-South, Nigeria. All South-South States (Bayelsa, Rivers, Akwa Ibom, Cross Rivers, Edo and Delta), and Capital Cities and some neighbouring local government areas (Yenagoa, Port Harcourt, Obio/Akpor, Eleme, Uyo, Calabar, Calabar South, Benin, Egor, Ikpo-Okha, and Asaba) were purposively selected for this study. Data were collected via key informer interview (KII); questionnaire administration and focus group discussions (FGDs). Sample size of 400 was determined with Taro Yamane formula upon which the questionnaire was administered to household's heads and community leaders randomly. Descriptive and inferential statistics (ANOVA) were used. The SPSS version 22 was used to perform all analyses. Major findings revealed that oil and gas companies in South-South Nigeria have not attained compliance with their EMSs; and thus have not achieve their desired mandate. The study concludes that the EMSs have not lived up to expectations compared to experiences in developed countries, due among others to willful repressive and ulterior motives of the companies. The study recommends that host communities' awareness on EMSs and other environmental concerns should be promoted through regular education.

Keywords: Environmental Management Systems; Compliance, Oil and Gas Companies.

1. Introduction

The world is globalising, human population is still surging up across regions, demands are escalating from the swarming population, and in order to meet and satisfy these demands, production and manufacturing activities have been intensified over the years. In these interplays, the environment is often at the receiving end, given that all the gamut of socio- economic activities is conducted at the expense of the environment. There is therefore the need to balance these trade-offs, because an organisation needs to sustain it operations in order to sustain its organisation and carry along stakeholders in the area of its operation. Environmental management

system (EMSs) is thought a viable framework in realising such goal in this regard.

Though environmental management concerns has been topically challenging problems for oil and gas bearing regions and nations since the 1990s (Okoye & Ngwakwe, 2004; Bassey et al., 2013); the acceptance of EMS by organistions is largely on the rise in developed and economically vibrant regions of the world as well as in developing nations like Nigeria (Kola-Lawal et al., 2014). An Environmental Management System (EMS) is a planned and organised management framework which helps an organisation to recognise and classify the environmental impacts consequential to its business activities as well as improving its environmental performance once implemented (Australian Government, 2004). EMS offers and delivers a systematic methodology to planning, effecting and appraising a company's environmental management aspects (Australian Government, 2004). It is a collection of procedures and applications that support an organisation to diminish the impacts of its operations on the environmental, while at the same time increases its business performance, and as such inspires the organisation to incessantly enhance its environmental performance.

The ISO 14001 established by the International Organisation for Standardisation and the Eco Management and Audit Scheme (EMAS) controlled by the European Regulation EC 1221/2009 are two main contextual standards that established prescriptions for an EMS (Testa et al., 2014), and they have proven to be rightly effective and fruitful. Usually, organisations are at liberty to choose and adopt EMSs practicable to their operations. However, the most popularly used EMS tool is the ISO 14001 standard which is developed by ISO in 1996 and founded on the Plan-Do-Check-Act methodology; while according to Strachan et al. (1997), the EMAS is a deliberate effort by the European Union to enhance the environmental performance of organisations in line with Europe's ambition and determination en route the actualisation of a more sustainable future.

On the global and national scales, several studies have reported different dimensions of the EMSs debate. Hertin et al. (2008) probed whether the presence of an EMS has a positive impact on the

eco-efficiency and environmental performance of European companies in five industrial sectors, and found that presently there is no evidence that EMS have a consistent and significant positive impact on environmental performance; and therefore concluded that policy action based on the simple assumption that companies with an EMS perform better than those without therefore appears inappropriate.

The benefits of ISO 14001 EMS compliant of certified companies in of Poland was conducted by Matuszak-Flejszman (2009). Some of the findings were that though implementing and maintaining an EMS was an expensive process; nevertheless, the management systems brought positive effects in the long term; and the organisations achieved benefits in all areas; hence EMSs was efficient. This finding was reaffirmed by the result reported by Nee and Wahid (2010) in Malaysia. The impact of ISO 14001 EMS on key environmental performance indicators (waste management, noise level, air quality, energy consumption, and number of reported environmental incidents) of two gold mining companies in Ghana (Gold Field Ghana Limited and AngloGold Ashanti was evaluated by Fei-Baffoe et al. (2013). The findings revealed that implementation of certified ISO 14001 EMS by the two companies engendered significant environmental improvements and there was significant increase in the entire amount of reported environmental incidents due to the incident reporting protocol inherent in the ESM. Nee and Wahid (2010) investigated the relationship of certified ISO 14001 EMS implementation to the overall performances of 118 Malaysian small and medium enterprises (SMEs). The result revealed that ISO 14001 EMS implementation had a positive and significant relationship with SMEs' performance, analogous to the result earlier reported by Melnyk et al. (2003) in the USA; but opposed to the result of Hertin et al. (2008) that found no proof that EMS has a significant positive impact on environmental performance of companies.

Back home in Nigeria, Bassey et al. (2013) investigated the impact of implementation of environmental management cost on output of oil and gas companies in Nigeria from 2001-2010, using data from the Central Bank of Nigeria statistical bulletin. The study found that though a significant relationship existed between the parameters that influence environmental cost

management and output of gas produced in the oil and gas industries; there still exist a vacuum in the external reporting of environmental cost which invariably hindered the implementation of environmental cost management in the oil and gas industries. In their study, Chukwuka and Eboh (2018) surveyed the extent to which green business practices affect the manufacturing company's productivity in Nigeria. Their findings showed that green business initiatives had significant and positive effect on the selected manufacturing firms' productivity.

Ojo et al. (2020) examined the grave hurdles to EMS implementation in the Nigerian construction industry, and found three main categories of barriers affecting EMS implementation, namely; knowledge barrier (lack of knowledge of EMSs, difficulty to deal with environmental issues, lack of environmental experts, and high disintegration of construction process); process barrier (complex documentation process, negative attitude of staff, high cost of EMS implementation, ambiguity in interpretations of EMS and multilayered subcontracting bottleneck); and culture and management barrier (limited pressure from stakeholders, organisation resistance to change, and lack of training and education about EMS).

Kornom-Gbaraba and Aenan (2020) examined the impact of environmental cost on the financial performance of international oil companies (IOCs) (Shell and Agip) in Rivers State. The study found that personnel of both companies agreed that environmental cost impact on financial performance of the IOCs in Rivers State, Nigeria. Similar to the orientation of the study of Kornom-Gbaraba and Aenan (2020) and Ojo et al (2020), Nwanwu (2022) probed the effect of environmental management costs on financial performance of ten oil and gas companies listed in Nigerian Stock Exchange for the period of 2011-2018. Findings revealed that pollution cost of the oil companies increased at an average rate of 3.046% over the study period; and net profit of the oil companies grew at an average rate of 5,738% over same period. Thus, pollution cost has a positive and significant impact on financial performance of quoted oil and gas companies in Nigeria.

Elenwo and Dollah (2019) investigated EMS compliance of companies operating within

Nigerian Ports Authority, Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria and found that the EMS of most of the companies at the Port have not been assessed owing to the fact that these companies have not met the international standards. There was also found statistically significant difference between EMS awareness levels and the levels of compliance; which meant that though the staff know about EMS, they do not comply with its standards. The above findings point to the fact that it is difficult to achieve compliance amongst local companies because most of these companies are ill prepared for EMS certification.

Furthermore, apart from these reviewed studies been limited in scope, many of them did not focus on oil and gas companies in the South-South of Nigeria neither did they probe compliance to EMSs by companies; while the few that ventured did not as well evaluate compliance to EMSs by oil and gas companies in South-South of Nigeria nor evaluate the host communities perceptions; but rather these studies only survey the existence of certified EMS in companies and their correlation with output (Chukwuka & Eboh, 2018; Elenwo and Dollah; 2019); whereas these approaches are deficient in measuring existence of EMS and environmental performance indicators. It is thus glaring from the reviewed literature that evaluation of compliance to EMSs by oil and gas companies in the South-South of Nigeria, as well as the host communities' perspective on compliance and gaps thereto by oil and gas companies were ignored by these studies. These are obvious gaps in the literature of the subject matter.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 The Study Area

The study area (South-South, Nigeria) is located within the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria. The area stretches within latitude 4⁰ 12' 30.892'' N and 4⁰ 50' 10.7'' N and longitude 4⁰ 56' 15'' E and 9⁰ 40' 2.654'' E. The South-South zone comprises of 6 States of the 9 Niger Delta States, namely; Bayelsa, Rivers, Akwa Ibom, Cross River, Edo and Delta States, also dubbed the BRACED states of the Niger Delta (Williams, 2018). It is bordered in the south by the Atlantic Ocean, east by the Republic of Cameroon and the North and West by other federating States of Nigeria. The region largely experiences an equatorial climate with monthly mean temperature of

between 25°C and 29°C, annual rainfall of between 2000mm and 4000mm, and relative humidity above 70% (Matemilola et al., 2019).

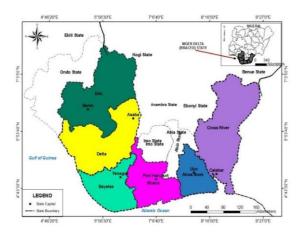


Figure 3.1: South-South of Nigeria Showing States

Source: Cartography/GIS Laboratory, Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Choba.

The Niger Delta has been designated as the third largest delta in the world, the largest in Africa and one of the largest wetlands in the world (Azaiki, 2003; Akuodu, 2011; Amangabara & Obenade, 2015). It has the largest massive fresh water swamp area and is wealthy in biodiversity (Niger Delta Regional Development Master Plan, NDRDMP, 2005). The region is an intricate and brittle network of wetlands and dry lands covering circa 70,000km² of which 20,000km² are seasonally flooded zones, tidal and swamp areas (Asanebi, 2016).

According to the 2006 National Population Census data, the population of the BRACED States is 21,044,081 million (National Population Commission [NPC], 2010), with a projected population of 35,310,432 as at 2022, cutting across about 40 different ethnic groups with over 250 languages and dialects (NDRDMP, 2005; Akuodu, 2011). The region is naturally gifted with abundance of biodiversity, with its mangroves offering carbon sequestration functions and supporting an extensive diversity of flora and fauna life. Most of the population in the region depend on agriculture and fishing for their livelihoods (Stakeholders Democracy Network [SDN], 2020). The abundance of oil and gas industrial activities in the region makes the region the mainstay of

the Nigerian economy.

2.2 Data

Both the purposive and random sampling technique were used for this study. The 6 South- South States (Bayelsa, Rivers, Akwa Ibom, Cross Rivers, Edo and Delta), and their Capital Cities and some neighbouring local government areas, namely; Yenagoa, Port Harcourt, Obio/Akpor, Eleme, Uyo, Calabar, Calabar South, Benin, Egor, Ikpo-Okha, and Asaba were purposively selected for this study, based on the preponderance of oil and gas activities in these States as they are the hub of oil and gas operations in the nation and most national and regional offices of these oil and gas companies are headquartered in their Capital Cities and environs. Both primary and secondary data were employed.

Managers and HSE staff of oil and gas companies and Heads/Senior Officers of relevant government agencies were selected for key informer interview (KII); while the heads of households and community leaders knowledgeable in oil and gas governance were randomly selected for administration of questionnaire and focus group discussions. The Taro Yamane formula (1967) was used to determine the study sample size of 400 which was allotted to the selected study locations using Bowley's proportional allocation technique upon which the study questionnaire were assigned to respondents. The Cronbach's Alpha test was used to achieve the reliability of the questionnaire. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used for the analysis. The weighted mean was used to analyse and interpret the scores from the Likert scaled questionnaire. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 22 was used to perform all the analyses.

2.3 Hypothesis Testing

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the study hypotheses (H_o) at 0.05 level of significance.

3 Results and Discussions

3.1 Socioeconomic and Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

A Table was used to appraise the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the respondents. The variables assessed included gender, age, educational level, occupation, income level, and length of residency. The result shows that majority of the respondents were males (264/66.0%); majority representing 38.5% were 45 years and above, and this was followed in ranking by age brackets 38-44 years (34.0%); 32-32 years (14.0%); 26-31 years (8.3%); and lastly 18-25 years (5.3%). The result on the respondents' level of education showed that majority had tertiary education (51.5%); followed in hierarchy by those that attained secondary (31.0%); and those that attained primary education (17.5%). On occupational of respondents, it was revealed that majority of the respondents were civil servant (29.3%); those in business were 22.0%; politicians were 20.3%; oil and gas workers gulped 11.8%; those engaged in fishing were 6.8%; those engaged in farming were 5.5%; while the self-employed were 4.5%.

On income level of respondents, the findings revealed that majority of the respondents representing 51.3% earn N51,000 and above as income; and this was followed in ranking by income bracket of N45,000 - N50,000 (35.0%); income bracket of N40,000 - N45,000 (6.0%); income bracket of N35,000 - N40,000 (4.8%); and income bracket of N35,000 - N40,000 (3.0%). Regarding length of stay of respondents, it was revealed that majority of them have stayed in their habitats for at least 30 years (40.0%); those that have stayed in their habitats for between 20 years and 30 years respectively were 23.0%; while 20.3% have stayed in their localities for less than 10 years another; 16.8% have stayed between in their environment for between 10 years and 20 years. It is discovered from the result that there were more males (66.0%) in the study area than their female counterparts and the dominant age bracket was found to be 45 years and above (38.5%). This findings on gender is similar to the findings of Sampson

et al. (2021) who in their study on air temperature variability and mitigation in the Niger Delta Region reported greater number of male respondents (63.50%). However, Sampson et al. (2021) found a contrary dominant age bracket of 26-35 years. Predominant level of education among the respondents was found to be the tertiary cadre of education and majority of the population were discovered to be engaged in the civil service. These results on level of education and occupation of the population corroborates the earlier findings of Sampson et al. (2021) in Port Harcourt metropolis.

Majority of the respondents have lived in their current residences for at least 30 years (40.0%); and the prevailing monthly income level in the South-South was discovered to be \$\frac{\text{N}}{2}\$1,000 and above; while the least income earners were found to be those that earn at least \$\frac{\text{N}}{3}\$0,000

(3.0%). Given the current economic realities, it is very unlikely that these levels of monthly incomes are commensurate to the services rendered by the workers or even sustainable for their upkeep and those of their dependants. Meanwhile, the outcome of the interview conducted on workers of the sampled oil and gas companies revealed that the monthly wage of most of them ranges from N500,000 and above.

Hypothesis one Testing

A Table represents the weighted averages across the South-South States from whence that ANOVA was computed; while Table 1 shows the results of the ANOVA test; and Table 2 represents the Duncan Post Hoc Test. The result showed F ratio of 1.350 at 0.05 significance level, degrees of freedom of 59 and p-value of 0.258. Since the calculated P-value of 0.258 was higher than 0.05, the null hypothesis (H_o) was retained for the test. Therefore, there is no statistically significant variation in the environmental management systems (EMSs) compliance by oil and gas companies in the South-South of Nigeria. The result of the Duncan Post Hoc analysis that was used to show the pattern of variation across the selected States (range between 3.43 and 3.79) yielded a value of 0.094; implying that the pattern of variation, that is, difference between means of the distribution were not significant for the study.

Table 1: ANOVA Test Results

	Sum of	Sig	Signif	nificance at		
	Squares	Df	Mean Square	F ratio	-	p<0.05
Between Groups	1.187	5	.237	1.350	0.258	
Within Groups	9.496	54	.176			
Total	10.684	59				

Source: Researcher's Analysis (2020)

Table 2: Post Hoc Results for Pattern of Variation

Duncana		
		Subset for alpha = 0.05
Braced States	N	1
Edo	10	3.43
Cross River	10	3.47
Delta	10	3.47
Rivers	10	3.64
Bayelsa	10	3.74
Akwa Ibom	10	3.79
Sig.		0.094
Means for groups in homogene	eous subsets are displayed	d.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Samp	le Size = 10.000 .	

Source: Researcher's Analysis (2020)

3.2 Environmental Management Systems (EMSs) Compliance by the Oil and Gas

Companies in South-South Nigeria

The host communities' responses, which measured the level of awareness of residents on the compliance gaps of environmental management systems (EMSs) by oil and gas companies in the South-South of Nigeria is displayed in another Table. The results showed that all weighted average values were very low and thereby were rejected for all statements except question 1 where aggregate 62% agreed that they are aware that the companies' EMSs provided for organisational leadership and commitment. However, 16.3% of them disagreed to this assertion; 11.8% were undecided; while 9.8% of them strongly disagreed. It was also shown from the Table that greater proportion of the respondents totaling 183 and representing 45.8% strongly disagreed that the companies EMSs provided for sound environmental policy as part of the leadership role in an organisation; 24.5% of them disagreed; 15.5% were undecided; 9.5% agreed; while 4.8% strongly agreed to be aware. Likewise, on being aware whether EMS provided for organisational roles, responsibilities and authorities as part of her leadership roles, majority of the respondents strongly disagreed (47.3%); 25.3% of them disagreed; 15.3% were

undecided; 9.3% agreed; while 3.0% strongly agreed. Majority again strongly disagreed to being aware that the companies EMSs provided for organisational planning and puts modalities for actions to address risks (44.5%); 28.3% of them disagreed; 14.0% were undecided; while 8.3% agreed; and 5.0% of them strongly agreed. In the same vein, majority of the respondents strongly disagreed having knowledge that the EMSs operated by the companies provided for opportunities for organisations to proactively plan for future opportunities without damage to the environment (45.8%); 24.8% of them disagreed; 15.3% were undecided; 9.3% agreed being aware; while 5.0% strongly agreed.

On whether EMSs provided for good working relationship with the organisation and host communities, majority of the respondents (191) covering 47.8% strongly disagreed; 23.8% disagreed; 15.0% of them were undecided; 9.5% agreed being aware; while 4.0% strongly agreed. Concerning awareness of the companies' EMSs as being futuristic and anticipates growth of the organisation and staff, greater number of the respondents strongly disagreed (182/45.5%); those who agreed were 26.3%; those who were undecided were14.0%; while those that agreed being aware were 9.5%; and 4.8% strongly agreed. Majority strongly disagreed that the EMSs inculcated staff discipline and general environmental aspects for staff welfare and benefits (187/46.8%); 24.5% of them disagreed; 15.5% were undecided; while 8.8% agreed; and 4.4% strongly agreed. It was yet revealed that majority of the respondents covering 46.8% strongly disagreed that the EMSs inculcated the virtue of hard work to staff and engenders good working relationship with host communities; 25.5% disagreed; 15.0% of them were undecided; while 8.8% of them agreed; and those that strongly agreed were 4.0%. The result also showed that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that EMS provisions must be implemented with the best practices without compromise to health, safety and the environment (164/41.0%); those that agreed were 18.0%; those that disagreed were 15.8%; those that strongly disagreed were 14.8%; while those that were undecided were 10.5%.

Collectively, it was discovered that majority of the respondents did not agree to 8 statements (2-9) out of the 10, which is indicative of great level of ignorance on the part of residents of the

host communities to the oil and gas companies. This high level of ignorance may be ascribed to the fact that most of the oil and gas companies do not even announce or make open their adopted and operated environmental management systems (EMSs) which they falsely assume and hold unto as a sacrosanct and secret document. It is arguable that this attitude of concealing EMSs by oil and gas companies is both deliberate and with ulterior motive that would benefit only them. This stance of the oil and gas companies is energised with the aptitude of making it impossible for the host communities to evaluate their policy performance. Besides, it may also be credited to the fact the residents of the host communities may only be interested in the petty development projects offered them by the companies such as pipe borne water, electricity supply, internal roads, health centres, school buildings and other infrastructural facilities, showing no interest in the operational policies of the oil and gas companies.

Also, this failure in terms of closely monitoring and evaluating the activities of the oil and gas companies may also be blamed on the government regulatory agencies which have not lived to expectation for whatever reasons. The condition of not being aware of the EMSs policies of the oil and gas companies may put the host communities at great risks of some detrimental consequences including both not limited to the degradation of the environment. Some of these earlier findings of the study of Agbonifo (2016) which used structured interview to evaluate risk management practices and regulatory failure in the oil and gas industry in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria. The findings reported that environmental degradation is mainly localised whereas the local government authorities are not statutorily empowered to enforce environmental regulations as they fall within the scope of the Federal Government, hence giving no adequate protection for the local people; the activities of the regulatory agencies are confusing and mixed-up, which gives the oil companies too much influence over the environment; and the regulatory agencies are deficient in the required technical ability to effectively monitor oil and gas processes across the Niger Delta region. In the light of these scenarios, more enlightenment would be expected to be carried out in these communities in order to reorientate the citizenry on the need to demand environmental justice.

Hypothesis Two Testing

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was again used to test the study hypothesis two (2). Table 4.8 represents the result of the weighted average of respondents' perception EMSs compliance by the oil and gas companies in the South-South of Nigeria from whence the ANOVA test was computed. Table 3 represents the result of the ANOVA computed for hypothesis 2; while Table 2.10 represents the result of the Duncan Post Hoc analysis which was used to show the pattern of variation using the means of the distribution. The result of the ANOVA test showed that the F ratio value was 0.571 at 0.05 significance level with degrees of freedom (Df) of 71, and significant level of 0.722. This result for the ANOVA test was not significant (that is, p > 0.05).

Since the calculated level of significance of 0.722 was higher than the critical value of 0.05, the null hypothesis (H_o) was retained. Therefore, the awareness of host communities about environmental management systems (EMSs) operational compliance by the oil and gas companies does not significantly vary across the South-South of Nigeria. The Duncan Post Hoc analysis displayed on Table 2.10 was used to show the pattern of variation using their means. Thus, a value of 0.197 was obtained for the mean differences among study groups and this was not significant for the study. Thus, the means of the variable do not significantly vary; hence, indicating that the pattern of variation of the awareness of host communities on the environmental management systems (EMSs) operational compliance in the oil and gas companies do not significantly vary across the South-South of Nigeria.

Table 3: ANOVA Computed for Hypothesis 5

Sum of Squares		Df	Mean Square	F ratio	Sig.
Between Groups	0.325	5	0.065	0.571	0.722
Within Groups	7.521	66	0.114		
Total	7.846	71			

Source: Researcher's Analysis (2023)

Table 2.10: Post Hoc Results for Pattern of Variation

Subset for alpha = 0.05		
N	1	
12 3.7825		
12 3.8750		
12 3.9183		
12 3.9433		
12 3.9567		
12 3.9892		
0.197		
	N 12 3.7825 12 3.8750 12 3.9183 12 3.9433 12 3.9567 12 3.9892	

Source: Researcher's Analysis (2023)

4 Conclusion

This study examined host community's perspective on environmental management systems (EMSs) compliance of oil and gas companies in South-South Nigeria. It establishes that the EMSs operated by oil and gas companies in the area have not lived up to expectations. This is impelled mostly by the willful repressive and ulterior motives of the companies, inherent lapses in environmental laws and their enforcement, and ignorance of most of the host communities. These scenarios constitute the major bane to compliance to environmental laws and the reason for the EMSs compliance gaps by oil and gas companies in the area, thus the alibi under which the oil and gas companies operate their EMSs off the norms. In view of the findings, this study recommends that the host communities' and other stakeholders' awareness on EMSs and other environmental concerns should be promoted through regular education and enlightenments; regular manpower training, requisite equipment and adequate funding should be provided for the regulatory agencies to enable them carryout their tasks.

REFERENCES

Agbonifo, P. E. (2016). Risk management and regulatory failure in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria: Reflections on the impact of environmental degradation in the Niger Delta Region. *Journal of Sustainable Development, 9*(4), 1-10. DOI:10.5539/jsd.v9n4p1

- Akuodu, G. E. (2011). Oil exploitation and challenges of development in the Niger Delta Region. (Unpublished master's thesis), Department of Political Science, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.
- Amangabara, G. T., & Obenade, M. (2015). Flood vulnerability assessment of Niger Delta States relative to 2012 flood disaster in Nigeria. *American Journal of Environmental Protection*, 3(3), 76-83. DOI: 10.12691/env-3-3-3
- Asanebi, D. H. (2016). A concise view of Niger Delta Region of Nigeria: An interpretation of a Nigeria historian. International Research Journal of Interdisciplinary & Multidisciplinary Studies (IRJIMS), II(X), 56-63. https://oaji.net/articles/2016/1707- 1480920397.pdf
- Australian Government (2004). Environmental management system tool. Australian Government Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts (DEWHA). http://www.yooyahcloud.com/MOSSCOMMUNICATIONS/B6j6w/Environmental_Management System tool.pdf
- Azaiki, S. (2003). Inequalities in Nigerian politics: The Niger Delta, resource control, underdevelopment and youth restiveness. Treasure Books, Yenagoa.
- Elenwo E. I., & Dollah, O. C (2019). Environmental management system compliance of companies operating within Nigerian Port Authority, Port Harcourt Rivers State, Nigeria. *ASJ: International Journal of Health, Safety and Environments (IJHSE)*, 5(2), 357-367.
- https://www.academiascholarlyjournal.org/ijhse/publications/mar19/Elenwo_and_Dol lah.pdf
- Chukwuka, E. J., & Eboh, E. A. (2018). Effect of green business practices on organizational performance of selected manufacturing firms in Nigeria. *International Journal of Development and Management Review (INJODEMAR)*, 13(1), 1-26. https://www.ajol.info/index.php/ijdmr/article/view/172242
- Fei-Baffoe, B., Botwe-Koomson, G. K., Mensa-Bonsu, I. F., & Agyapong, E. A. (2013). Impact of ISO 14001 environmental management system on key environmental performance indicators of selected gold mining companies in Ghana. *Journal of Waste Management*, 2013, 1-6. http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2013/935843
- Hertin, J., Berkhout, F., Wagner, M., & Tyteca, D., (2008). Are EMS environmentally effective? The link between environmental management systems and the environmental performance of companies in European companies. *Journal of Environmental Policy & Management*, 51(2), 259-283. DOI: 10.1080/09640560701865040
- Kola-Lawal, C., Wood, M., Alo, B., & Clark, A. (2014). Factors in organisational environmental management system implementation Developed vs. developing country contexts. *Journal of Sustainable Development of Energy, Water and Environment Systems, 2*(4), 408-421. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.13044/j.sdewes.2014.02.0032
- Kornom-Gbaraba, M. E., & Aenan, J. (2020). Impact of environmental cost on the financial performance of international oil companies (IOCs) in Rivers State, Nigeria.
- Matemilola, S., Adedeji, O. H., Elegbede, I., & Kies, F. (2019). Mainstreaming climate change into the EIA process in Nigeria: Perspectives from projects in the Niger Delta Region. *Climate*, 7(2), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.3390/cli7020029
- Matuszak-Flejszman, A. (2009). Benefits of environmental management system in Polish companies compliant with ISO 14001. *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies*, 18(3), 411-419.

- Melnyk, S. A., Sroufe, R. P., & Calantone, R. (2003). Assessing the impact of environmental management systems on corporate and environmental performance. *Journal of Operations Management 21*(3), 329-351. DOI: 10.1016/S0272-6963(02)00109-2
- National Population Commission [NPC] (2010). 2006 population and housing census priority table volume III: Population distribution by sex, State, LGA & Senatorial District. Federal Republic of Nigeria, Abuja, April, 2010. https://catalog.ihsn.org > catalog > download
- Nee, G. Y., & Wahid, N. A. (2010). The Impact of ISO 14001 Environmental Management System (EMS) implementation on SMEs performance: An empirical study in Malaysia. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 3(2), 215-220. DOI:10.5539/jsd.v3n2p215
- Niger Delta Master Plan (2005). Niger Delta Region, land and people. Niger Delta Regional Development Master Plan (NDRDMP). Federal Republic of Nigeria.
- Nwanwu, P. O. (2022). Environmental management cost and financial performance of oil and gas companies in Nigeria. *International Journal of Innovative Finance and Economics Research* 10(2), 119-134. https://seahipaj.org/journals-ci/mar-2013/june-2022/IJIFER/full/IJIFER-J-12-2022.pdf
- Ojo, L. D., Oladinrin, O. T., & Obi, L. (2020). Critical barriers to environmental management system implementation in the Nigerian construction industry. *Environmental Management*, 68(2), 147-159. DOI: 10.1007/s00267-021-01473-y
- Okoye, A. E., & Ngwakwe, C. C. (2004). Environmental Accounting: A convergence of antecedent divergence. Accountancy; Management Companion, edited by Ezejelue,
- A.C & Okoye, A. E. Nigeria: Nigerian Accounting Association (NAA).
- Popoola, O. O. (2013). Integrating EMS to improve sustainable development in Nigeria. *IAIA13 Conference Proceedings of the 33rd Annual Meeting of the International Association for Impact Assessment*, 13-16 May, 2013, pp. 1-7.
- Sampson, A. P., Weli, V. E., Nwagbara, M. O., & Eludoyin, O. S. (2021). Sensations of air temperature variability and mitigation strategies in urban environments. *Journal of Human, Earth, and Future, 2*(2), 100-113. DOI: 10.28991/HEF-2021-02-02-02
- Schylander, E., & Zobet, T. (2003). Environmental effects of environmental management systems: Evaluation of the Evidence. Division of Quality and Environmental Management, Luleå University of Technology, Luleå, Sweden. https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1013434/FULLTEXT01.pdf
- Stakeholders Democracy Network (SDN) (2020, January 29). Overview of the Niger Delta. https://www.stakeholderdemocracy.org/the-niger-delta/
- Strachan, P. A., Haque, M., McCulloch, A., & Moxen, J. (1997). The Eco-Management and Audit Scheme: Recent experiences of UK participating organizations. *European Environment*, 7(1), 25-33. DOI: 10.1002/(SICI)1099-0976(199701)7:1<25::AID- EET97>3.0.CO;2-2
- Williams E. S. (2018). Environment of the Niger Delta Region Nigeria. In E. I. Elenwo & F.
- U. Uchege (Eds.), Environment, Resources and Sustainability in the Niger Delta Region, Nigeria. University of Port Harcourt Press Ltd.
- Yamane, T. (1967). Statistics, an introductory analysis (2nd Ed.). Harper and Row. New York.

Impact of Environmental Management Systems (EMSs) on Oil and Gas Corporations Performance and Environmental Governance in South-South Nigeria.

WARMATE Tuboala Onengiyeofori¹, AROKOYU Samuel Bankole¹ and ELENWO

Ephraim Ikechukwu¹

¹Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Choba, Rivers State, Nigeria

Corresponding Author: warowar200@yahoo.com (09066271818)

Abstract

The growing desire to integrate environmental management systems (EMSs) in companies' overall business policy is in response to the recognition of the need to cushion the impacts of companies' activities on the environment without inhibiting returns. This study examines the impact of environmental management systems (EMSs) on oil and gas corporations Performance and environmental governance in South-South, Nigeria. The South-South States (Bayelsa, Rivers, Akwa Ibom, Cross Rivers, Edo and Delta), their Capital Cities and some local government areas (Yenagoa, Port Harcourt, Obio/Akpor, Eleme, Uyo, Calabar, CalabarSouth, Benin, Egor, Ikpo-Okha, and Asaba) were purposively selected for this study. Data were collected with questionnaire. Taro Yamane formula was used to establish sample size of 400 upon which the questionnaire was randomly administered to heads of households, community leaders, and companies' personnel. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used for data analyse, which was aided with SPSS version 22. Findings indicated that EMSs compliance impacted the companies' operations more positively, though the ANOVA result showed that the impacts significantly varied across the study locations. Also, regulatory agencies were found lagging in their environmental governance responsibilities owing to inherent and induced factors. The study concludes that the failure in environmental governance is a factor for agitations and underdevelopment in the study area. It is recommended that ineffective environmental laws and regulations should be reviewed to reflect current realities and citizen's participation in environmental governance should be promoted.

Keywords: Environmental Management Systems, Oil and Gas Companies, Environmental Governance.

1. Introduction

Prior to the 1990s, discourse on the connection between environmental practices and business performance was unknown. However, corporations became conscious of the multifaceted nature of environmental concerns by the late 1980's alongside their consequences for company management, coupled with rising awareness by government authorities, categories of

stakeholders including the general public.

Subsequently, the conservative attitude towards environmental safeguard gradually faded off for a novel paradigm that recognizes the fact that addressing environmental issues and impacts have potentials to bring greater benefits to a firm (Zilahy, 2017). One of such paradigms is environmental management systems (EMS). Regardless that the idea of EMS antedates the approval of the ISO 14001 EMS standard, meagre attention was accorded the study of these systems, until in 1996 that the International Organisation for Standards (ISO) published the standard and associated guidance books (Melnyk et al., 2003). Henceforth, most business orientation and their attention for EMS gradually grew as a practicable business-environment model, especially recognising the impact of their operations on the environment. Environmental management system (EMS) is as vital as its role in aiding firms manage and address their environmental issues and reduce their damaging impact on the environment, and also guarantees compliance with environmental regulations, and pollution prevention and control (Elenwo & Dollah, 2019). EMSs offer companies a systematic approach to managing the impacts of their activities on the environment premised on the "plan-do-check-act" sequence. As a series of procedures and practices that deals with the interface between a company and the environment, the goal of EMS is to achieve and maintain enhancement of the environmental performances of the organisation, cause a decline in its environmental impacts and raise its operational productivity (Perotto et al., 2008). Beyond this, EMS is the part of an organisation's management system that is used to develop and implement its environmental policy and manage its environmental practices (Granly & Welo, 2014). In this sense, it could be argued that EMSs are pro-environmental and pro-sustainable development. Nonetheless, it is a question for debate or probe the role of EMS in ensuring compliance to extant environmental laws and regulations in the context of Nigeria and particularly the oil and gas companies in South-South, Nigeria.

From its emergence till date, numerous studies have contributed to the debate in the literature of EMSs. Hertin et al. (2008) investigated the nexus between EMS and firms performance and reported that presently there is no evidence that EMS have a consistent and significant positive impact on environmental performance, hence the impression that firms with an EMS perform better than those without EMS seem incorrect and misplaced. This finding contradicts the results obtained by the studies of Obamen et al. (2021) on 5 manufacturing companies in South East Nigeria; Atsu and Maaza (2022) on manufacturing companies in Abuja, Nigeria; and Melnyk et al. (2003) on manufacturing companies in the USA, in which instances certified EMS was found to have positive and better impact on companies' performance. Similar result was earlier reported by Maier and Vanstone (2005). In a cross-regional empirical study, Ronalter et al. (2022) examined quality management systems (QMSs) and environmental management systems (EMSs) as business tools to enhance environmental, social and governance (ESG) performance using a data sample of 4292 companies from Europe (EU, UK and EFTA states), East Asia (China, Japan and four tiger states) and North America (USA and Canada). The sampled companies were classified into four sample groups. Group 1 was made up of Companies without a QMS or an EMS; group 2 comprised of companies with a QMS but no EMS; group 3 consisted of companies with an EMS but no QMS; and group 4 comprised of companies with both a QMS and an EMS. Their results showed that companies with QMSs and/or EMSs achieved statistically significant higher ESG scores than companies without such management systems; therefore operating both types of management systems concurrently increased performance in the environmental and social pillar even more, while their governance aspect seemed to be affected chiefly by the adoption of EMSs alone.

Mohammed (2018) examined the mandatory social and environmental disclosure requirements of 8 oil and gas companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange, using their annual reports and accounts. The study found that while there is proven rise in quantity of disclosure on all

mandated social and environmental aspects; these disclosures do not reflect actual social issues such as providing alternates to lost traditional platforms of survival, income to mitigate poverty, medical and health facilities that could alleviate health challenges occasioned by oil and gas production activities, information on environmental issues such as gas flaring, oil and gas spill as reported in the literature.

Agwu et al. (2020) appraised barriers to compliance with EMS in manufacturing companies in Kano State, Nigeria from 2016-2018 and strategies to conquer same. Their findings showed that requirement of high investment, lack of awareness and education, top management reluctance, and lack of government support were the major barriers companies experienced in complying with EMS standards; while financial support (tax breaks and or other economic relieves), training and awareness, technical consultancy and technology transfer were found to be major support needed to overcome the barriers in complying with EMS - ISO 14001 in Kano State. The finding on lack of awareness and education is in variance with the earlier result reported by Elenwo and Dollah (2019) who in their study found that respondents were aware of EMS in companies operating within NPA Port Harcourt. Obamen et al. (2021) probed the effect of environmental management practice tools on the sustainability of 5 manufacturing companies (Guinness Nigeria Plc, Coca-Cola, 7up Bottling Company, SUB Miller, and Nigeria Brewery) in South East Nigeria, on the basis that they have existing formal environmental management practice policies; have received ISO14001 certification; have an existing structure of the management of EMP to guarantee sustainability; and are among the best-developed and most environmentally conscious firms in Nigeria. They discovered that environmental management practice tools were significantly and positively related to sustainability, and thus contribute significantly and positively to companies' social, economic, and environmental sustainability.

The study of Okonkwo and Ekekwe (2017) explored the impact of environmental management on sustainable development in the Niger Delta Region and found that weak enforcement of environmental regulations is the primary cause of environmental and social-economic issues such as loss of agricultural land and nutrients, extinction of wildlife and aquatic species, deforestation and ecosystem destruction, loss of sustainable livelihood, youth agitations and high violence experienced in the region. In Abuja, Nigeria, Atsu and Maaza (2022) examined the effects of EMSs on environmental performance of manufacturing companies for the period of 2011 to 2015, and found that a positive relationship existed between green manufacturing systems, pollution prevention systems, management systems and pollution control systems and environmental performance of manufacturing companies.

The reviewed literature suggests that scholarly endeavours had been committed to the subject of EMSs generally and particularly to their impacts on companies' economic and environmental performance. However, studies on the impact of EMSs on environmental performance of oil and gas corporations and environmental governance in the South-South of Nigeria is virtually overlooked; neither has the host communities' perceptions of their impacts and environmental governance been explored in these regards. These are clear lacunas in the literature that this study endeavours to fill.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 The Study Area

The study area is the South-South zone of the Niger Delta of Nigeria. It is located between latitude 4° 12′ 30.892′′ N and 4° 50′ 10.7′′ N and longitude 4° 56′ 15′′ E and 9° 40′ 2.654′′ E. Six States out of the nine Niger Delta States make up the South-South of Nigeria. They are Bayelsa, Rivers, Akwa Ibom, Cross River, Edo and Delta States, and are also labelled the BRACED states of the Niger Delta (Williams, 2018). As a major component of the Niger Delta

Region, the South-South States share and exhibit common geographic features which are characteristic of the Niger Delta Region. Its climate is generally equatorial climate and it experiences monthly mean temperature that ranges from 25°C to 29°C, annual rainfall of between 2000mm and 4000mm, and relative humidity above 70% (Matemilola et al., 2019).



Figure 3.1: South-South of Nigeria Showing States

Source: Cartography/GIS Laboratory, Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Choba.

The region is branded the biggest delta in Africa and the third biggest in the world, as well as one of the largest wetlands in the world (Azaiki, 2003; Akuodu, 2011; Amangabara & Obenade, 2015), and it is rich in biodiversity of flora and fauna species (Niger Delta Regional Development Master Plan, NDRDMP, 2005). The study area has a population of 21,044,081 million people as at 2006 (National Population Commission [NPC], 2010) and a projected population of 35,310,432 as at 2022. There are about 40 different ethnic groups in the region speaking over 250 languages and dialects (NDRDMP, 2005; Akuodu, 2011), and agriculture and fishing activities are the main occupations of most of this population (Stakeholders Democracy Network [SDN], 2020). However, the abundance of oil and gas reserves,

exploration and production in the region makes it the bedrock of the nation's domestic earnings and foreign exchange.

2.2 Data

The six (6) States of the South-South zone, namely; Bayelsa, Rivers, Akwa Ibom, Cross Rivers, Edo and Delta), their Capital Cities and some local government areas, namely; Yenagoa, Port Harcourt, Obio/Akpor, Eleme, Uyo, Calabar, Calabar South, Benin, Egor, Ikpo-Okha, and Asaba were purposively selected for this study, due to the fact that oil and gas activities are prevalent in these States which are the centre of oil and gas operations in Nigeria. Both primary and secondary data were employed. The primary data were obtained with key informer interview (KII); administration of questionnaire; and focus group discussions. The questionnaire was structured in the 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

Managers and HSE staff of oil and gas companies and Heads/Senior Officers of relevant government agencies were selected for KII; while the heads of households and community leaders knowledgeable in oil and gas governance were randomly selected for administration of questionnaire and focus group discussions. The sample size of 400 was established with the Yamane formula (1967) which were distributed to the selected study locations with respect to their population strength using the proportional allocation technique, upon which the questionnaire were assigned to respondents. The reliability of the questionnaire was determined with the Cronbach's Alpha test. Both descriptive and inferential statistics aided the analysis data collected. The weighted mean was used to analyse and interpret the scores from the Likert scaled questionnaire, and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the study hypothesis (Ho) at 0.05 level of significance. The Duncan Post Hoc analysis was used to show

the pattern of variations using means for groups in homogenous sets. All the analyses were carried out with the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 22.

3 Results and Analysis

3.1 Socio-economic and Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The results on the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of respondents are shown on Table 1. It is observed that there were more male respondents than their female counterparts (66.0%); and majority of the respondents were 45 years and above (38.5%), seconded in ranking by age brackets 38-44 years (34.0%); 32-32 years (14.0%); 26-31 years (8.3%); and lastly 18-25 years (5.3%). The analysis also revealed that majority of the respondents had tertiary education (51.5%); followed in order of ranking by those that attained secondary (31.0%); and those that attained primary education (17.5%). It was revealed that greater proportion of the respondents were civil servant (29.3%); those in business were 22.0%; politicians were 20.3%; oil and gas workers were 11.8%; those engaged in fishing were 6.8%; those engaged in farming were 5.5%; while the self-employed were 4.5%.

The result on the level of income of respondents showed that majority of the respondents representing 51.3% earn N51,000 and above as income; and this was followed in order of hierarchy by income bracket of N45,000 - N50,000 (35.0%); income bracket of N40,000 - N45,000 (6.0%); income bracket of N35,000 - N40,000 (4.8%); and income bracket of N35,000 - N40,000 (3.0%). With respect to length of stay of respondents, the resulted indicted that greater number of the respondents have stayed in their habitats for at least 30 years (40.0%); those that have stayed in their habitats for between 20 years and 30 years respectively were 23.0%; while 20.3% have stayed in their localities for less than 10 years another; 16.8% have stayed between in their environment for between 10 years and 20 years.

3.2 Impact of Environmental Management Systems (EMSs) Adoption and compliance by Oil and Gas Companies in the South-South Zone

The result from the responses from respondents sampled in the oil and gas companies as lifted on line revealed that statements 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 10 were accepted; while statements 6, 7 and 9 were rejected. Hence, the result showed that all the sampled respondents (100%) agreed that the EMS adopted by oil and gas companies enhanced performance improvement of the company's operations; 79.0% of them agreed that EMS ensures sustainable development as it complements sustainable development tool such as EIA; 78.0% agreed that EMS adoption engendered more eco-efficient/friendly practices and gains in their organisations that adopted it than those without EMS; all the sampled respondents (100%) agreed that EMS adoption has implanted a modest level of environmental effectiveness than organisations without EMS policy; 83.0% of them on the agreement continuum indicated that the application of EMS in the organisations policy reduced pollution cost and risks on financial obligations of the organisations; 71.0% also agreed that EMS provides for easy certification on environmental deliverables because of its robust components; and all the sampled respondents (100%) from the oil and gas companies agreed that EMS adoption by their companies has helped to benchmark point to point continual improvement in environmental management.

On the other hand, majority of the sampled respondents representing 62.0% disagreed that environmental management systems (EMSs) bridged the gap between environmental cost and real management running cost in their organisations; 67.0% also disagreed that EMS adoption assisted their organisation in corporate environmental management; while 69.0% of the respondents on the disagreement continuum indicated that EMS adoption did not assist their organisations in human resource and natural environment management. The overall implication of these result obtained in the disagreement continuum is that the adoption of

environmental managements (EMSs) by the oil and gas companies has no positive impact on the environment of the South-South zone of the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria.

Hypotheses Testing

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the study hypothesis. The results of the ANOVA test for the hypothesis are displayed on Table 1; while Table 2 represents the result of the Duncan Post Hoc test. The result on Table 1 showed F ratio of 3.415 at probability level of 95% (0.05) and degrees of freedom (Df) of 59, and p-value of 0.009. Since, the calculated p-value of 0.009 was lower than the critical value of 0.05, the null hypothesis (Ho) was rejected for the test while the alternative hypothesis (H1) which states that "there is statistically significant variation in the impact of environmental management systems (EMSs) adopted by the oil and gas companies" was accepted. This therefore implies that significant variation on the impact of EMS compliance by oil and gas companies and other government regulations in the study area existed, thus resultant impacts of compliance to EMSs by oil and gas companies in the south-south of the Niger Delta Region are different among the various companies. The Duncan Post Hoc analysis displayed on Table 2 was used to show the pattern of variation using their means for groups in homogenous sets and the means ranged between 3.8350 and 4.1880. The analysis yielded a value of 0.052. This thus, infers that the pattern of variation, based on differences between means of observations was not significant for the study (0.052).

			ANOVA Test Results		
Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F ratio	Significance at p<0.05	
748	5	.150	3.415	.009	
2.364	54	.044			
3.112	59				
	Squares 748 2.364	Squares Df 748 5 2.364 54	Squares Df Mean Square 748 5 .150 2.364 54 .044	Squares Df Mean Square F ratio 748 5 .150 3.415 2.364 54 .044	

Source: Researcher's Analysis (2023)

Table 2: Post Hoc Results for Pattern of Variation

Duncana		
		Subset for alpha = 0.05
Braced States	N	1 2

Akwa Ibom	10	3.8350				
Bayelsa	10	3.9810	3.9810			
Edo	10		4.0790			
Rivers	10		4.0850			
Cross River	10		4.1030			
Delta	10		4.1880			
Sig.		.125	.052			
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.						
a. Uses Harmoni	ic Mean Sampl	e Size = 10.000 .				

Source: Researcher's Analysis (2020)

3.3 Performance of Regulatory Agencies Responsible for Enforcement of Environmental Laws and Governance of other Environmental Concerns Such as EMSs

The analysis for the responses from both respondents sampled from both the oil and gas companies and the communities are displayed on Table 3. The result on Table 3 revealed that all weighted mean average values were high enough for all stated questions probing the performance of regulatory agencies to be accepted. Hence, majority of the sampled respondents strongly agreed that enforcement agencies lack the expertise and equipment to enforce laws (145/36.3%); and this is seconded by those that agreed (140/35.0%); while 13.0% of them strongly disagreed to the assertion; 11.8% of them disagreed; and 4.0% of them were undecided. The result also showed that majority of the respondents agreed that overlapping exists in the functions of the agencies charged with enforcement (159/39.8%); 32.8% agreed; 17.0% disagreed; while 6.5% strongly disagreed; and 4.0% of them were undecided. It is also observed from the Table that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that lack of funding by the government to the environmental enforcement agencies hamper their performance (141/35.3%); those that agreed were 34.3%; 13.3% of them strongly disagreed; 12.8% merely disagreed; while 4.5% were undecided. Again, greater proportion of the sampled respondents agreed that weak enforcement mechanism and lack of continuity by government hinder the performance of the agencies (27.2%); 25.6% strongly disagreed; 20.0% disagreed to this assertion; and 18.8% strongly agreed; while 8.3% of them were undecided. Furthermore, the result showed that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that the proliferation of agencies and over bearing influence of one agency over the other pose enforcement challenge (23.8%);

however at the other extreme 23.3% disagreed to the claim posed by the question; 21.8% strongly disagreed; while 16.8% agreed; and 14.5% of them were undecided.

Again, majority of the sampled respondents agreed on attitudinal-problem and poor policy implementation by government agencies (159/39.8%); 25.3% of them strongly agreed; 12.8% strongly disagreed; 12.0% of them were undecided; 10.3% disagreed. The result yet revealed that greater number of the respondents (123) constituting 30.8% agreed on corruption and poverty among staff of agencies of government; 26.3% of them strongly agreed; 20.8% strongly disagreed; while 14.3% were undecided; and 8.0% disagreed. From the Table, it is revealed that obsolete-laws and regulations; weak sanctions and penalties on defaulters' especially the oil and gas companies was strongly agreed to by majority of the respondents (180/45.0%); while 30.8% of them agreed; 9.0% strongly disagreed; 8.5% disagreed; and 6.8% of the respondent were undecided. Also, majority of the respondents strongly agreed that lack of stakeholders and team spirit by staff of enforcement agencies in Nigeria is bane of enforcement (143/35.8%); those that agreed were 32.5%; those that strongly disagreed were 15.0%; those that disagreed were 11.3%; while those that were undecided were 5.5%. The findings finally showed that greater proportion of the residents agreed that prolonged legal cases and difficulty in prosecution of oil pollution cases (185/46.3%); 23.0% of them agreed; while those that strongly agreed were 15.0%; 12.8% were undecided while those that disagreed were 3.0%.

A closer look at the results showed that the agreement continuum pulled greater proportion of the response strings as majority of the respondents agreed to all the 10 statements that interrogated the performance rating of agencies charged with the responsibility of enforcement of environmental laws and regulations and governance of other environmental concerns such as environmental management systems (EMSs) in the South-South of Nigeria; to wit on the aggregate: enforcement agencies lack the expertise and equipment to enforce laws (statement 1) (71.3%); overlap in the functions of the agencies (statement 2) (72.6%); lack of funding by the government to the enforcement agencies (statement 3) (69.6%); weak enforcement mechanism and lack of continuity by government (statement 4) (46.0%); proliferation and duplication of agencies and over bearing influence of one agency over the other (statement 5) (23.8%); attitudinal problem of staff and poor policy implementation by government agencies (statement 6) (65.1%); corruption and poverty among staff of agencies of government (statement 7) (57.1%); obsolete laws and regulations and weak penalty on defaulting oil and gas companies (statement 8) (75.8%); lack of stakeholders' mentality and engagements and lack of team spirit by staff of enforcement agencies (statement 9) (68.3%); and prolonged legal cases and difficulty in prosecution of oil pollution cases (statement 10) (69.3%) (Table 6).

Some of these findings, especially on statements 1, 2 and 5 are in agreement with some of the results reported by Agbonifo (2016) who in his study on risk management practices and regulatory failure in the oil and gas industry in the Niger Delta Region found that the activities of the regulatory agencies are confusing and mixed-up, therefore the regulatory agencies are deficient in the required technical ability to effectively monitor oil and gas processes across the region. Also, some of the findings reported by Brown (2021) in his review of the legislative and institutional framework for compliance and enforcement in the petroleum sector in Nigeria are in consonance with parts of these result. For instance, Brown (2021) reported that the environmental laws in Nigeria lack the capacity to punish culprits.

Not surprised that Ekhator (2013) who examined the roles of government agencies in environmental protection in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria and found that regulatory agencies in environmental protection in Nigeria are hampered by both institutionally and politically induced problems, advocated for repeal and/or amendment of the laws establishingthe regulatory agencies to reflect the prevailing people-centred sentiments of the indigenes of the Niger Delta, otherwise the agencies will continue to be barking without the requisite bite to enforce fines or authority on oil multinational corporations (MNCs) in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria.

Table 3: Performance of Regulatory Agencies Responsible for Enforcement of Environmental Laws and other Environmental Concerns Such as EMSs

S/N	Performance Rating	SA	A	D	SD	UND	WA	R
1	Enforcement agencies lack the expertise/equipment to enforce	145 36.3%	140 35.0%	47 11.8%	52 13.0%	16 4.0%	3.87	Accepte
	law	00.070	221070	111070	10.070			u.
2	Overlapping in the functions of	131	159	68	26	16	3.91	Accepte
	the agencies charged with enforcement	32.8%	39.8%	17.0%	6.5%	4.0%		d
3	Lack of funding by the government	141	137	51	53	18	3.82	Accepte
	to	35.3%	34.3%	12.8%	13.3%	4.5%		d
4	the enforcement agencies Weak enforcement mechanism/lack	75	111	80	101	33	3.24	Average
7	of	18.8%	27.2%	20.0%	25.6%	8.3%	J.27	Tivelage
	continuity by government							
5	Proliferation of agencies and	95	67	93	87	58	3.13	Average
	over bearing influence of one	23.8%	16.8%	23.3%	21.8%	14.5%		
	agency overthe other							
6	Attitudinal-problem/poor	101	159	41	51	48	3.54	Accepte
	policyimplementation by	25.3%	39.8%	10.3%	12.8%	12.0%		d
	government agencies							
7	Corruption and poverty among staff		123	32	83	57	3.34	Average
	of agencies of government.	26.3%	30.8%	8.0%	20.8%	14.3%		
8	Obsolete-laws/regulations/weak	180	123	34	36	27	3.98	Accepte
O	sanctions/penalty on defaulters'	45.0%	30.8%	8.5%	9.0%	6.8%	5.70	d
	oil and							
	gas company)							
9	Lack of stakeholder/team spirit by	143	130	45	60	22	3.78	Accepte
	staff	35.8%	32.5%	11.3%	15.0%	5.5%		d
10	of enforcement agencies in Nigeria	92	185	12	60	51	2 52	Agganta
10	Prolonged legal cases/difficulty in prosecution of oil pollution	23.0%	46.3%	3.0%	15.0%	12.8%	3.52	Accepte d
	in prosecution of on politicion	-5.070	.0.570	2.070	10.070	12.070		u

Source: Researcher's Computation (2023)

NB: SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Agree; Und = Undecided; WA = Weighted Average; R = Remark; NESREA = National Environmental Standards and Regulatory Enforcement Agency, NOSDRA = National Oil Spill Detection And Response Agency.

Conclusion

The impact of environmental management systems (EMSs) in oil and gas companies and environmental governance in South-South Nigeria was investigated by this study. The results indicate that the impact of adoption and implementation of environmental management systems by oil and gas companies in the South-South varied across the study locations. However, the regulatory agencies are lagging in their responsibilities owing to both inherent and induced factors, which is evidence of failure in environmental governance in the region and Nigeria atlarge. This study therefore recommends that comatose and outdated environmental laws and regulations should be re-enacted to reflect current realities; the regulatory agencies should be energised with requisite funding, manpower training and equipment to be able to function optimally; and citizen's participation in environmental governance should be promoted throughstakeholder's engagements and enlightenment programmes. This would equip host communities in checkmating activities of the oil and gas companies in their environments.

REFERENCES

- Agbonifo, P. E. (2016). Risk management and regulatory failure in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria: Reflections on the impact of environmental degradation in the Niger Delta Region. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 9(4), 1-10. DOI:10.5539/jsd.v9n4p1
- Agwu, J. O., Ogboi, K. C., Chinedu, A. D., & Okoro, G. C. (2020). Overcoming Barriers to Compliance with Environmental Management System (ISO 14001-EMS) by Manufacturing Companies in Kano, North West, Nigeria. *International Digital Organization for Scientific Research (IDOSR) Journal of Applied Sciences*, 5(2), 63-71.
- Akuodu, G. E. (2011). Oil exploitation and challenges of development in the Niger Delta Region. (Unpublished master's thesis), Department of Political Science, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

- Amangabara, G. T., & Obenade, M. (2015). Flood vulnerability assessment of Niger Delta States relative to 2012 flood disaster in Nigeria. *American Journal of Environmental Protection*, 3(3), 76-83. DOI: 10.12691/env-3-3-3
- Atsu, D. E., & Maaza, M. M. (2022). Environmental management systems and manufacturing companies' performance in Nigeria. *Journal of Environmental and Geographical Studies*, 1(1), 40–55. DOI: https://doi.org/10.58425/jegs.v1i1.64
- Azaiki, S. (2003). Inequalities in Nigerian politics: The Niger Delta, resource control, underdevelopment and youth restiveness. Treasure Books, Yenagoa.
- Brown, C. T. (2021). The legislative and institutional framework for compliance and enforcement in the petroleum sector in Nigeria: A review. *International Journal of Advanced Multidisciplinary Research and Studies (IJAMRS)*, 1(2), 23-33. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/356087365
- Ekhator, E. O. (2013). Environmental protection in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria: The roles of governmental agencies. *International Energy Law Review*, 2013, 1-11. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/280645610
- Elenwo E. I., & Dollah, O. C (2019). Environmental management system compliance of companies operating within Nigerian Port Authority, Port Harcourt Rivers State, Nigeria. ASJ: International Journal of Health, Safety and Environments (IJHSE), 5(02),357-367.
- Granly, B. M., & Welo, T. (2014). EMS and sustainability: Experiences with ISO 14001 and Eco-Lighthouse in Norwegian metal processing SMEs. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 64, 194-204. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2013.08.007.
- Hertin, J., Berkhout, F., Wagner, M., & Tyteca, D., (2008). Are EMS environmentally effective? The link between environmental management systems and the environmental performance of companies in European companies. *Journal of Environmental Policy & Management*, 51(2), 259-283. DOI: 10.1080/09640560701865040
- Maier, S., & Vanstone, K. (2005). Do good environmental management systems lead to good environmental performance? Ethical Investment Research Services (EIRIS), Research briefing, pp. 1-12. https://docplayer.net/18670237-Do-good-environmental-management-systems-lead-to-good-environmental-performance.html

- Matemilola, S., Adedeji, O. H., Elegbede, I., & Kies, F. (2019). Mainstreaming climate changeinto the EIA process in Nigeria: Perspectives from projects in the Niger Delta Region. *Climate*, 7(2), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.3390/cli7020029
- Melnyk, S. A., Sroufe, R. P., & Calantone, R. (2003). Assessing the impact of environmental management systems on corporate and environmental performance. *Journal of Operations Management* 21(3), 329-351. DOI: 10.1016/S0272-6963(02)00109-2
- Mohammed, S. D. (2018). Mandatory social and environmental disclosure: A performance evaluation of listed Nigerian oil and gas companies pre- and post-mandatory disclosure requirements. *Journal of Finance and Accounting*, 6(2), 56-68. DOI: 10.11648/j.jfa.20180602.12
- National Population Commission [NPC] (2010). 2006 population and housing census prioritytable volume III: Population distribution by sex, State, LGA & Senatorial District. Federal Republic of Nigeria, Abuja, April, 2010. https://catalog.ihsn.org > catalog > download
- Niger Delta Master Plan (2005). Niger Delta Region, land and people. Niger Delta Regional Development Master Plan (NDRDMP). Federal Republic of Nigeria.
- Obamen, J., Omonona, S., Oni, O., & Ohunyeye, O. F. (2021). Effect of environmental management practices and sustainability on some selected manufacturing firms in South East Nigeria. *Sustainability 13*(18), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.3390/su131810372
- Okonkwo, C. I., & Ekekwe, E. (2017). Environmental management and sustainable development in the Niger Delta. *South East Political Science Review*, 1(1), 256-267.
- Perotto, E., Canziani, R., Marchesi, R., & Butelli, P. (2008). Environmental performance, indicators and measurement uncertainty in EMS context: A case study. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 16(4), 517-530. DOI:10.1016/j.jclepro.2007.01.004
- Ronalter, L. M., Bernardo, M., & Romaní, J. M. (2022). Quality and environmental management systems as business tools to enhance ESG performance: A cross-regionalempirical study. *Environment, Development and Sustainability, 25*, 9067-9109 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-022-02425-0
- Stakeholders Democracy Network (SDN) (2020, January 29). Overview of the Niger Delta. https://www.stakeholderdemocracy.org/the-niger-delta/

- Williams E. S. (2018). Environment of the Niger Delta Region Nigeria. In E. I. Elenwo & F. U. Uchege (Eds.), *Environment, Resources and Sustainability in the Niger DeltaRegion, Nigeria*. University of Port Harcourt Press Ltd.
- Yamane, T. (1967). Statistics, an introductory analysis (2nd Ed.). Harper and Row.
- Zilahy, G. (2017). Environmental management systems History and new tendencies. In M. A. Abraham, *Encyclopedia of Sustainable Technologies*. Elsevier. DOI: 10.1016/B978-0-12-409548-9.10529-9.

Security management and violent crime in riverine communities of Akwa Ibom State

Victor E. Abang Email; abvic23@gmail.com

K.A.Anele, Dr O. P. Abu

Department of sociology, Faculty of social sciences, University of Port Harcourt

Abstract

This study examined relationship between security architecture of Nigeria and violent crime in riverine communities of Akwa Ibom state. Strain theories were the main theoretical framework used to explain the frustration of riverine communities due to frequent attacks. Mixed method approach was applied. 630 respondents participated in the sample. Purposive sampling technique was used for the interviews and focus group discussion (36) while multi stage cluster sampling technique was used to fill the questionnaire (594). The respondents were drawn from community leaders, security operatives and victim of crimes from six riverine areas. Frequency tables and simple percentages were used to analyze data from questionnaire, while qualitative data used thematic method. Findings revealed high crime level due to lack of synergy among stakeholders, paucity of equipment and limited intelligence as main factors obstructing security management. The study recommends provision of modern crime detection technologies, training of security personnel and flexible strategy to integrate a community policing model.

Keywords: Security Management, Violent Crime, Riverine Communities, Akwa Ibom State.

Introduction

Internationally, crime-related issues continue to attract immense concerns as several countries wrestle with different forms of anti-social activities that undermine the security of people and properties. Even the most highly-developed societies like the United States, Britain, and France among others are not left out of the global wave of criminal activities that threaten the security of nations. For instance, Claudio (2022) notes that gun and knife violence in the United States and most parts of Europe are major impediments to the security system of these societies. This clearly shows that the level of social development notwithstanding, societies cannot entirely do away with behaviours that promote insecurity. The only difference among societies, is the manifold gradation of the types and intensity of insecurity and the security management potentials of countries.

This fits into Makinde's (2017) understanding that crime is an integral part of a society to the extent that scholars have argued that there is no known human society that is crime free. Perhaps that is why Iwarimie-jaja & Raimi (2019) are of the opinion that societies are left with no choice

but to consciously evolve a system that would regulate deviant or criminal behaviour in such a way that it does not undermine the good of society.

Although security challenges currently have a global spread and outlook, Africa remains at the forefront of global statistics on crime and insecurity with South Africa and Nigeria recording high incidents of violent and non-violent crimes in recent times. According to Africa Check, The South African Police Service's latest crime statistics covering January to March 2023 recorded 6,289 murders. This was an increase of 3.4% compared to the same period in 2022. Of the victims, 5,065 were men and 969 were women.

Violent crimes which generally involve the use of absolute force or threat howbeit intentionally or not against someone or property, has become a huge source of worry for a country like Nigeria as incidences of rape, murder, robbery and kidnapping among others continue to increase. Fagade (2022) shares the opinion that violent criminal activities have increased in Nigeria and this is associated with weak governance systems that put the people in penury especially as young people go without decent jobs. This scenario has increased criminal activities in the country especially kidnapping and robbery cases which has now been integrated into violent conflicts as a way of funding insecurity in the country. The spread of violent crime in Nigeria makes it easy for violent criminals to go unnoticed as people are almost always preoccupied by the fear of these conflict actors such as the Boko Haram and the killer herdsmen in the Northern part of Nigeria, the Unknown Gunmen in the Eastern part and pockets of militants and cult gangs that litter the south-south.

The term security management, is simply that aspect of a nation, community or a business, where a converged set of security, resilience and fraud functions are managed and focused on the protection of the business, lives and properties and its brand of citizens or employees, assets and data by the use of multiple layers of interdependent systems. The main aim of security management is to make the business or communities more successful. This can involve strategies that enhance confidence with shareholders, customers and stakeholders, through preventing damage to the communities' or nations' social and economic well-being. Clearly, every attempt at managing security is expected to address key concerns that are focused on identifying essential assets, conducting threat and risk assessments, publishing and maintaining security policies and procedures, preventing of information and data theft, preventing terrorist or extremist attack, preventing fraud, minimizing service disruption and protecting employees.

The current reality associated with violent conflicts and criminality in Nigeria, especially the fear level that it has generated amongst the general public highlights the importance of an integrated security response that encompasses expanding access to government services, social development, and job creation. This also entails elaborate strategic security synergy. However, several factors continue to limit genuine attempt at coordinating sound security management system to mitigate violent crimes in Nigeria. For instance, age-long structural historical indices such as corruption, ethnicity and religion converge to serve as huge impediments to effective security management in the country and this is particularly disturbing.

Statement of the Problem

The threat to peace and security occasioned by the upsurge in violent crime remains a major focus of discourse in the 21st Century as academics and security experts around the world seek to develop the right security management technique to deal with emerging challenges. The riverine communities of Akwa Ibom State are inundated with a catalogue of woes as insecurity and fear have become the bane of business and threat to life within the neighbourhood in the form of kidnapping, armed robbery attack, rape and piracy. This has affected several aspect of the way of life of the riverine communities. The security agencies have sought ways to deal with the problem with little success. One of such efforts is by deploying more personnel to manned the area, but the heavy presence of personnel causes fear of intimidation and distrust between the security forces and the community without deterring the criminals and negates the doctrine of relative peace in the riverine community. The International Peace Academy (IPA) Report titled 'The Security-Development in the 21st Century is one of the efforts on the pool of researchers and experts in the quest to manage security and build peace. Government on its own has chosen to adopt a 'tough on crime' measure to deal with those apprehended to serve as deterrence but to no avail. The problem is complicated by difficult terrain and porous boarder management (some of the riverine communities are located along the Cameroon border). This is what has necessitated the careful examination of the security management system in the riverine communities.

Anthony (2022) in an on-line article drew attention to the massive increase in sea piracy and other related violent crimes such as kidnapping in some parts of Akwa Ibom state especially the riverine areas. This revelation has called for serious concerns as militia groups viciously ravage the creeks of Akwa Ibom in a bid to make money through hostage taking and illegal bunkering of crude oil through which they acquire various arms/ammunitions for their operations. In a bid to address the problem, the government of Akwa Ibom state has gone into partnership with the military for security management but this has not sufficiently addressed the problem. This is perhaps why a study of this nature that is set to examine the link between security management and violent crime in the state is particularly timely.

Supposedly, this vast violent criminal and conflict ecosystem has huge adverse implications for not just the peace and security of Nigeria, but also the economic development of the country in general. Fagade (2022) noted that high rates of crime and widespread insecurity pose a serious challenge to economic development as it scares away foreign direct investment with the attendant problems of poverty and unemployment that result in what Raimi (2018) refers to as the cycle of violence scenario. This cyclic character of violence which feeds from a ready army of unemployed youths across the country also means that violent conflicts will also be cyclic in nature as long as the security management framework in the country is not properly structured to meet the reality of the problem.

Security management framework or architecture in Nigeria is being confronted with several challenges, which include inadequate intelligence gathering among law enforcement agencies, acquisition of modern crime fighting equipment, training capacity of the trainer, the non

effectiveness of the intelligence unit of the forces in support of security management operation are attributed to inadequate human and technical capacity, intelligence capabilities among others. These are the postulate based on national view of intelligence failure (Ndubisi,2014). Recent event in the Niger Delta particularly the riverine communities of Akwa Ibom state, such as violent crimes, economic sabotage which resulted in the protest by Ibaka boat owners association of Nigeria on 4th October 2022, lend credence to this, and have thrown-up arguments on the level and quality of intelligence provided for Nigeria national security.

However, studies have pointed gaps in the security structure of the country, the capabilities of the various security agencies in terms of tackling the problem (Abegunde, 2013; ICG, 2016; Ijide, 2016; Amnesty International, 2018; Nnabuife, 2019). For instance, Nnabuife believes that the major shortcomings of the security agencies in terms of tackling violent crimes in the country is related to gaps in information gathering, funding, training and equipment (Nnabuife 2019). Further, Nigeria's security agents lack the expected level of professionalism in terms of the knowledge of their code of ethics and constitutional bounds among others (Amnesty International (AI), 2018).

Although studies like those of Essien (2015), IMB (2018); The Economist (2019); Israel and Mbikan (2021) have provided outstanding knowledge of the nature of violent crimes such as armed robbery, kidnapping and rape in the riverine areas of Nigeria and especially in the Niger Delta region, there is still marginal knowledge on how these can be empirically related to the security management architecture of the region. The implication of this is that there is a gap in existing knowledge on how security management of violent crime in the Niger Delta can be handled. Hence, this study is an attempt to fill this gap by examining the link between security management (information gathering, security personnel training, security equipment) and violent crimes (kidnapping, sea piracy and armed robbery) in riverine communities in Akwa Ibom state, Nigeria.

Conceptual Framework

The concept of policing in Nigeria, especially the country's security architecture and practice, either appears to be weakly articulated or comprehensively changing dynamics of security in society or lacks the sufficient support and willingness to implement institutionalized plans and recommended reforms that can drastically reduce insecurity to the barest minimum (Nwagboso, 2018; Nwogwugwu & Odedina, 2018; Agwanwo, 2014; Obeagu 2014; Johnson 2013; Zumve 2012).

The Nigeria Police Force (NPF), which occupies a pivotal role in security management, is still governed by a framework of a law enacted in 1943. The conceptualization has issues with its reactive against proactive orientation prioritization of sovereignty over individual and collective welfare. Consequently, these contributed to the meager human and physical capital allocated to the police. This work was conceived based on the recurrent contradiction existing in the security

architecture of our nation and particularly in our communities as citizens lament uncontrollably due to incessant pirate attacks, kidnapping, and robbery incidences without recourse to help from any quarters.

This led us to the issue of intelligence gathering and structuring. Intelligence could be seen as a structure, a process, and a product. Intelligence is seen as a process incorporating a continuous cycle of tasking, data collection, collation, analysis, dissemination, and feedback before a refined task. This process is known for the generation of intelligence products that are made to shape the thinking of decision-makers. Based on the model described above, intelligence needs effective organizational structures. Effective organizational structures are crucial in both understanding the criminal landscape and distributing a product that can influence the mindset of decision-makers.

Theoretical framework

General Strain Theory by Robert Agnew

Robert Agnew developed his general strain theory (GST) in 1992, and it is practically becoming the leading version of strain theory and one of the major theories of crime. GST focuses on a broad range of strains, including the inability to achieve a variety of goals and aspiration, loss of valued possessions, and unwarranted negative treatment by others. GST has been applied to a range of topics, including the explanation of gender matters, race/ethnicity, age, community, village and societal differences in crime rates. It has also been applied to many types of crime and deviance behaviours, including corporate crime, police deviance, bullying, suicide, terrorism, prostitutions and eating disorders. Much evidence suggests that the strains identified by GST increase the likelihood of crime, although the predictions of GST about the types of people most likely to respond to these strains with crime have received less support. General strain theory (GST) posits that crime and delinquencies are caused by the presence of negative emotion(s), such as fear, disappointment, failures, depression, anger, and frustration, resulting from an array of strains (Agnew, 1992). In turn, these negative feelings lead to a need to cope, with one potential coping mechanism being crime and/or delinquency. General strain theory proposes three types of strain: the inability to achieve positively valued goals (goal blockage), the removal of (or threat to remove) positively valued stimuli, and the presence of (or threat to present) noxious stimuli (Agnew, 1992). Agnew's theory focuses on the causes of crime/delinquency by expanding Merton's (1938) idea of strain by asserting that the causes of strain do not solely derive from

societal pressure to achieve success. General strain theory has been extensively tested and holds strong merit in the field of criminology (Agnew, Brezina, Wright, & Cullen, 2002; Baker & Pelfrey Jr., 2016).

The negative emotions outlined in GST can be caused by either direct or indirect strains. Direct strain refers to personal experiences, while indirect strain refers to anticipated or vicarious strain. Agnew (2002) outlined the importance of considering the effects of direct and indirect victimization on juveniles as a cause of strain. Victimization is of particular interest because of the frequency and prevalence of its experience as well as its salience as an experienced, vicarious, or anticipated source of strain. It is not necessary to measure these three forms of victimization together, but in order to establish the effects of indirect victimization that are independent of direct victimization, one must also control for as many forms of victimization as possible. Moreover, Agnew (2002) stated that victimization is an important concept to measure as it is one type of strain that is most likely to lead to delinquency. Compared to other forms of strain, victimization specifically has been understudied in criminological research, but several studies in the field of psychology have tied victimization to violence and antisocial behavior (Fedina, Howard, Wang, & Murray, 2016; Ford, Chapman, Mack, & Pearson, 2009; Walters & Espelage, 2018).

Research methods

Study Area

Six riverine local government areas of Akwa –Ibom state: Eket Ikot Abasi, Mbo, Oron, Uruan, and Ibeno were selected for this study due to the frequent incidents of violent crime reported. The population of Akwa Ibom State from the projected population of 6, 076,322 in 2020 as projected from the census population of 3, 920, 208 in 2006 (NPC 2006, 2020) from the six local government area selected for the study as projected. The residents were mainly engaged in fishing and trading. Some of the traders buy and process the fish and act as middlemen to prospective buyer from other areas while others sell manufactured goods to the fishermen or barter for fish which they later sell to others. One unique feature of these communities that give them a cosmopolitan character is their closeness to the border between Nigeria, Cameroon and Equatorial guinea. This is also why it attracts many criminal activities and a huge security presence. The Nigeria Navy and the Police Force have their offices located in some of the communities. The topography of the area makes it difficult to regulate entry and exit, in some cases the criminals could easily circumvent detection because they are more familiar with the area than the security

operatives. Smugglers of contraband goods easily infiltrate the area and make formal policing a huge challenge. A lot of cultural diffusion takes place and gives the area a uniqueness that distinguishes it from the non-riverine communities of the state. There are different levels of leadership in the study communities. The village head consists of the chiefs and elders of the communities. Other types of leaders include the youth group leaders and leaders of various associations of people who do business in the area. Some of the leaders were contacted to participate in this study or granted access to their members.

Methods of Data Collection

Data for this study were collected using mixed method (both quantitative and qualitative) following the mixed method approach. , Questionnaire were sent out to participants which were filled and returned

Three in one set of questionnaires were used in this study. 10 % of the total questionnaire was assigned to the sampled household heads (Chiefs) in all the sampled communities in the selected local government area and the other set of questionnaires 90% was administered to the community leaders, members and fishermen. The questionnaire was structured to collect information on socio—economic characteristics of the respondents, types of violent crimes, crimes committed, security management issues and impact of violent crimes on security management.

Personal interview was used with focus group discussions to investigate issues relating to security management of violent crimes committed in the community and the security management strategies on ground to combat the issues.

The instrument was pretested before being administered. The test retest reliability method was used. The data were analysed with simple percentages while the qualitative data were analysed using the *thematic approach*. This involves the identification of patterns of meanings within qualitative datasets, such as interview transcripts, focus group discussion (FGD)s or observation notes. The analytical process largely involved data familiarization, coding, theme generation, refining and reviews, definition and naming of themes and analysis proper.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Demographic Distribution of Respondents by location

Table 1

Location	Copies	Copies	Percentage
	Distributed	Retrieved	(%)
Ikot Abasi (Ikot Akpan, Ette and Ikot			
Usop)	117	117	19.6
Ibeno (Uben-akang and Iwuochang)	53	53	8.9
Eket	152	152	25.5
Uruan (Adadia and Nwaniba)	105	105	17.6
Oron -beach	77	77	12.9
Mbo (Ibaka, Odu Ebughu and Unyenge)	90	90	15.1
Total	594	594	100

Source: Field work 2023

The table 1 above shows the distribution of the respondents. It further reveals that All the copies of questionnaires administered were retrieved in all the study communities namely; Ikot Abasi, Ibeno, Uruan, Eket, Oron and Mbo Local Government areas of Akwa Ibom State.

Result analysis addressing objectives

Table 2 Findings of Research objective One: Examine the level of security management of violent crime in riverine communities in Akwa Ibom state

Respondent's opinion of level of security management of violent crime

Local G. A	Increased	Reduced	Remained	Total
			the Same	
Ikot Abasi	117	0	0	117
Ibeno	51	0	2	53
Uruan	98	0	7	105
Eket	152	0	0	152
Mbo	90	0	0	90
Oron	7	55	15	77
Total	515	55	24	594
Percentage (%)	86.70	9.25	4.04	100

Source: Field Study, April, 2023.

From the table above, 515 respondents (86.70%) were of the view that the level of violent crimes such as sea pirates, kidnapping and armed robbery in riverine areas of Akwa Ibom State has increased. This is against the view of 24 respondents representing 4.04% who hold that the level of violent crimes such as sea pirates, kidnapping and armed robbery in riverine areas of Akwa Ibom State is not increasing, whereas 55 respondents representing 9.25% stated that the violent crimes remain the same.

Table 3 Respondents' opinion of security agencies equipment in confronting violent crime

Respondents	Strongly	Agree	Strongly	Disagree	Total
	Agree		Disagree		
Ikot Abasi	79	38	0	0	117

Percentage (%)	52.8	25.0	16.3	5.72	99.82
Total	314	149	97	34	594
Oron	19	41	0	17	77
Mbo	0	0	78	12	90
Eket	66	62	19	5	152
Uruan	97	8	0	0	105
Ibeno	53	0	0	0	53

Source field work April 2023

Table 3 above indicates that lack and insufficient equipment for security agencies is a factor that causes increasing nature of violent crime in riverine communities of Akwa Ibom state. 314 respondents representing 52.8% strongly agreed to this fact 149 respondents representing 25% agreed that insufficient equipment is a challenge to effective delivery of the constitutional mandate of protection of lives and properties by the security operatives, whereas 97 respondents representing 16.3% strongly disagreed and 34 respondents representing 5.72% disagreed.

The overwhelming percentage of 52.8% is a pointer to the fact that the increment in violent crimes in the Riverine Communities in Akwa Ibom State is sustained upon the inadequate equipment used by our Security officers.

Qualitative Analysis

Theme 1: what in your opinion are the level and attitude of security agencies response rate during emergencies in this community. Participants view of security operatives' attitude to curbing violent crimes such as sea pirates, kidnapping and armed robbery in riverine areas of Akwa Ibom State. FGD: Our positions on the issue of the level of security is regrettable. Our general opinion in these Niger Delta region, is that, security situation is precarious, that the security officers are not doing enough compare to other neighbouring countries. The criminals rule most of the community with absolute impunity. There is serious delayed response to calls during attacks, No action taken to deter criminal efforts in extorting money from the populace, or forcefully taken of engines boat and

other valuables from the members of the community living within the creek and other forms of assault. Even when evidences are provided, security officers do nothing worth noticing towards the amelioration of the security situation rather they even betray the information

Interview Respondent 'A'

The security management level is very pathetic in this area hence the frequent attacked in the riverine communities, we hardly do any meaningful business, as you can see this is a boundary community, from this beach we do sailed to Cameroon, Equatorial Guinea and even Spain however, as we sail through the Gulf of Guinea, we see the Cameroon Soldiers and other security agencies from those countries in the high sea without interference by militant or having any pirate attack, but once we enter our nation territorial waters, the pirate hold sway without refrain. We are tired and do not know what else to do, our lives are in danger every day. Some time the pirates do visit our fishing port and forcefully collected our engines in broad day light without any help from any quarter. Most times we are tempted to ask if we still have security or agencies of government who handle security issues in our state and country Nigeria. Earnestly the situation is worrisome. We have lost count of kidnapping and pirate attack (KII male 37 years old).

Interview respondent 'B' "Every day we held our heart and breath in our hands as we are not certain if we will return from the sea with life or our boats and engines, this is so because we have lost sense of security and freedom due to attacks and kidnapping incidences, even when we reported to security agencies, nothing was done by the police or the Navy, rather we kept spending our money. We have been thrown into huge debt as most of us took loans from the banks to do business only for the boat and engines we bought on hire purchased to be forcefully stolen from us and most of our members in the association. Sometimes in less than a month (30 days) 12 to 15 boats, with 200 horse power engines each and merchandise with money are taken from us. In other scenarios the even kidnapped ladies and rape them. The security personnel seem incapacitated. We are praying for change of order or else we shall be begging to eat in this community" (KII male 42 years old)

Discussion of Findings

This finding agreed with Anthony (2022), and The International Maritime Bureau IMB 2023 that the gulf of Guinea which Niger Delta is inclusive has always been the hotbed for violent crime as militant and piracy have ravage the creek of Akwa Ibom state requiring an urgent intervention and security agencies need to become more strategic to meet up the growing state of affairs

Conclusions

From the findings of this study it is evidence that the security agencies required a robust training, modern equipment and strategic reappraisals to confront the general lacuna in security operation. More so, illiteracy and lack of trust are part of the impediment militating against the eradication or mitigation of violent crime in the riverine communities of Akwa Ibom State. A significant portion of the people who perpetuate Violent Crime (Piracy, Kidnapping and armed robbery) are youths who are unemployed. This is because of the blatant refusal of successive government to deliberately provide veritable platform for employment generation for the youthful population, coupled with the harsh economic realities which made it possible for the youths and unemployed in the society to be lured into violent crimes.

Kidnapping in Nigeria is also becoming a serious business so much so that education and acquiring certificate cannot provide the needed comfort and luxury or carter enough to sustain individual goal through legitimate means, hence the choice to go into deviants behaviour and violent crimes as means of achieving their goals. On this ground therefore, it is no more debatable that the luxury and access to wealth which the kidnappers, armed robbers and pirates are enjoying in Nigeria through their dubious means cannot be eliminated in a hurry. Bribes and kickbacks demanded by security agencies in the riverine communities is in such an overwhelming proportion that most communities no longer require their Services.

Our findings also projected maximum result in security management if cooperation, understanding and corporate intelligence gathering capacity among the various state holders are maintained, also community policing model, modern equipment, regular training of officers and men of the Nigerian Security Management Architecture and building trust will be a veritable tools for the change of order in our security system.

Recommendations

- (1) It is our recommendation in this work to suggest that synergy between the security agencies and the community leadership be instituted to further create the missing link among the various actors in the study area
- (2) We urge the federal government of Nigeria to ensure the speedy implementation of petroleum industry bill to enable the community leaders in the riverine community which are oil producing communities to have access to money and this will empower them to have control of their children

as lack of adequate care and provision of basic amenities causes parents to loose control of their children.

- (3) The government of Akwa Ibom state should endeavour to enforce free and compulsory education to help reduce the level of illiteracy which is one of the leading factors that is fuelling distrust among the citizen and the security agencies stringent policies and punishment be drafted with full implementation team to ensure kidnappers and pirates are kept away from the riverine communities. For instance dead penalty for any culprit.
- (4) A monitoring team should be established to checkmate the activities of security agencies at the sea and the riverine community. This should include men of integrity, pastors, community leaders with proven records of honesty and integrity, and retired security personnel with sound record of uprightness

REFERENCES

A Panel Data Analysis with Twenty-two Africa Countries: A Thesis for Master of Science Requirement. Sheffield: The University of Sheffield.

Adams M. Training Employees as partners. HR magazines; 1999. 70 p.

Adams, 1988, Between the SAS and IRA, London, Pan Books.

Ade Abolurin. Crime Control in Nigeria 1999-2010. 2010. 17 p.

Adebayo A. (2007). A Handbook of Corporate and Industrial Security in Nigeria. Nigeria: Institute of security Nigeria; 19p.

Adegba, Ugwu and Eme 2012; Nwagboso 2012; Katsina 2012). Policing, Police and the feasibility of their reform in Nigeria 7 July, 2020

Amadi, E. N. (2014): A Qualitative Analysis of Community Policing in the United States.

American International Journal of Contemporary Research 4 (1): 119 – 126.

Anthony, I. S. (2014) Journal of south culture and development., 16 (2)

Asagba, O, Ugwu, S C and Eme, O 1 (2012). Activities of Boko Haram and Insecurity Question in Nigeria. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review 1 (9):77-99*.

Asiodu, P., 1980, quoted in Okoko, K., 1997 "Oil Exploration and Niger Delta Minorities", Journal of Oil and Politics, No1 Vol.1 Bangladesh e-Journal of Sociology. Volume 7, Number 1, January 2010. 30 Edet, A.S. (2017). Crime Control and Policing the Nation States: *The Nigerian Police in Focus.*International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Reviews 7 (2):97-102.

EFCC (2020). The Establishment Act Economic and Financial Crimes Commission.

Emah, E. B. (2019). Extinguish the Rising Flames: The Focus of a Security Model in Nigeria. Naija News.com.http://www.naijanews.com/2019/08/21/extinguish-the-rising-flames-the-focus-of-a-security-model-in-nigeria/

Fagade, A. (2008) Urban Poverty and Juvenile Deliquency in Nigeria

FBI. Workplace: Issues in Response. VA, FBI: 2002. 80 p

FRSC (2020). About FRSC. Federal Road Safety Commission. https://frsc.gov.ng/about-us

Makinde, O. O;(2022), International journal of real estate studies

Nnabuife, E, Okaro, S.C. and Okafor, G. O (2021) International journal of business and management

Notable Individuals and Events in Ilorin

Fawehinmi Hadeezat Omotayo Department of History and Diplomatic Studies University of Port Harcourt 08132165905

Abstract

This paper examines notable individuals and events in Ilorin. While the former took into account, notable individuals of Oyo-Ile origin, whichit is intended to encourage the younger and succeeding generations of Oyo-Ile descents to aspire to do even more than what these notable individuals have achieved in their different sphere of endeavors. The latter, which is concerned with events in Ilorin underscored the inseparable nexus between the Ilorin people of Yoruba origin and the events that took place in Ilorin which had affected them in way or the other. The two planks on which this study rests are stemmed from the fact that concerted efforts must be made geared towards ensuring the lessons of history are learnt by understanding our history, culture and values, which makes up our historical experience and domesticating such for national development, patriotism, responsible citizenship and integration. The study has taken a critical look at the roles played by such notable individuals' vis-a- vis the events that have happened in Ilorin, and how each have impacted Ilorin negatively or positively. Both the negative and positive impacts have the tendency to advance Ilorin, arising from its historical significance, the paper, therefore argues that not much have been learnt in an era where histories of individuals are gradually fading into oblivion and the events that could have fast tracked the advancement of Ilorin and Nigeria at large are being treated with contempt.

Keywords: Ilorin, Independence, conquest, colonization, National Development

Introduction

Ilorin is the present-day capital of Kwara State and is home to many ethnic groups among which the people of Yoruba origin as an ethnic group and Hausa-Fulani ethnic group stand out in Ilorin's history. These two dominant ethnic groups in Ilorin have occupied the centre-stage in Ilorin's history. The expedient need for the sense of history not dessert our consciousness is being embodied by the notable individuals of Ilorin that have emerged on the scene. The individuals whose lives are being reconstructed within the context of notable individuals does not take into consideration personalities of Fulani ancestry, as it limited to people of Oyo-Ile origin. In medicine, politics and government, military, etcetera, are nor devoid of notable individuals of Oyo-Ile origin who could as be considered as heroes.

According to Alagoa:

Our hero can only be a hero in the ordinary meaning of the word. That is, a person whose quality and achievements deserve to be critically examined by succeeding generations because of their exemplary character (1989, p.;4).

These notable individuals cut across different spheres of endeavors, which needs to be emphasized.

Politics and government

The importance of politics and government in any given society cannot be overemphasized. This is owing to the fact that it constitutes a crucial arena where the decisions that affect the life a society are being taken. As Maritain has noted, the common good of man in the society demands a network of authority and power for the procurement of its end. This network of authority for the securing of the good in the society is what is often referred to as political authority.

According to Maritan, "A political authority, therefore and so can be defined as an authority that, is exercised by a constituted body for the sake of the common good of the citizens". And and in a plural society such as Ilorin (Maritan cited in, Udoidem, 1988, p.: 86). In other words, the well-being of society is what political authority seek to achieve, as it is where the decisions that affect the life of a society are being taken.

In the light of the foregoing, it is pertinent to point out that either during military dispensation or civilian dispensation, has not been devoid of the non-participation of people of Oyo-Ile origin. — are from Ilorin, cannot be said not to have taken part either in a military dispensation or civilian dispensation. One notable person of Oyo-Ile origin that was privileged to have served as both a Military Governor and civilian Governor at various times in Nigeria's political history could be traced to Muhammed Alabi Lawal.

Mohammed Alabi Lawal

Mohammed Alabi Lawal was born on 24 January, 1946 in Ilorin. He was of Oyo-Ile descent in the present-day Kwara State of Nigeria. He was a Naval Officer and rose to the rank of a Rear Admiral. He was said to be a descendant of Afonja. Until his appointment as Military

Formatted: Indent: First line: 1.27 cm

Governor of Ogun State in 1987 during the military regime of General Ibrahim Babangida, Captain Lawal as he then was, was the Director of Marine Engineering Naval headquarters. He served as military Governor of Ogun State till 1990. In course of his military career, he played a pivotal role in the establishment of the Nigerian Navy Secondary School, Abeokuta. The then Navy Captain was said to have invited the Nigerian Navy to consider a location of the obsolete Saint Leo's Teachers Training College located at Ibara Abeokuta.

Having retired from the Nigerian Navy, the retired Rear Admiral Lawal became involved in politics as a result of the return of democracy in 1999. At the time in Nigeria, there were three political parties in Nigerian's democratic environment. These are namely, People's Democratic Party (PDP), All Nigeria's People Party (APP) and Alliance democracy (AD). Among these trio, Rear Admiral Lawal (Rtd) joined the defunct APP, and contested for the gubernatorial election in Kwara State in 1999. At the end of the gubernatorial election, Lawal was announced as the winner of the Governorship elected that was held in Kwara State.

The emergence of Lawal as civilian Governor of Kwara State meant that he was the first Oyo-Ile son of Ilorin to have been elected Governor of Kwara State and first to have been appointed as Military Governor of a state respectively at different times in Nigeria's political history. Governor Lawal served as Governor of Kwara State between 1999 and 2003. Political authority pertains specifically to government and its instruments (Udoidem, 1988:67). According to Aristotle, Politics has to do with the science of securing the good for the citizens in the polis (cited in Udoidem, 1988: 67).

The forgoing statement credited to Udoidem underscored where Lawal was before the expiration of 1999 whereas the statement made by Aristotle as might have been gleaned meant that in the pursuance of the attainment of good for the citizens for which he was elected should be geared towards the pursuit of excellence with single-minded determination devoid of contempt for securing of the good for the citizens of Kwara State. It could be inferred that a lot of Oyo-Ile citizens across the length and breadth of Kwara State were delighted at his emergence as the civilian Governor of Kwara State. One of those who witnessed the announcement of Lawal as the elected Governor of Kwara State in 1999, Olademeje Tunde remarked that:

When Mohammed Lawal was declared winner of the Governors election, the atmosphere in Ilorin where he hailed from was not without scenes of jubilations as the people of Ilorin danced and sang. Their happiness is not far-fetched. Governor Lawal was the first civilian Governor to have come from Ilorin, and not only that, the fact that he was of Oyo-Ile ancestry might have engendered the extent to which that joyous moment engulfed Ilorin and its environment (oral interview, 2023).

There is no denying the fact that Lawal as a descendant of Afonja did his best in ensuring the people of Kwara State becomes the ultimate beneficiaries of the policies and actions of his regime that lasted between 1999 and 2003. Former Governor Lawal was said to have constructed and rehabilitated many roads in Kwara State, and contributed immensely in the development of the education sector. However, Governor Lawal, was defeated senator Bukola in the 2003 Governorship election that was held in Kwara State, he passed on in 2006. Till date he remains the only Governor of Yoruba origin that hailed from Ilorin.

Law and Judiciary

Justice Muhammed Mustapha Adebayo Akanbi

The judiciary remains one of the crucial sectors that cannot be relegated to the background in discourse of such institution to national development of any society by virtue of its roles. The dispensation of justice is a key element that also shapes human the society where litigation is inevitable, hence the presence of judiciary in any given milieu. Kwara State and in particular Ilorin has not failed to have given the Nigerian nation a judges who have distinguished themselves himself. One of such Judges could be traced to the Honourable Justiceustice Muhammed Mustapha Adebayo Akanbi who lived between 1932 and 2018 readily comes to mind as one of the country's most prominent jurists that hailed from Ilorin.

The Honourable Justice Mustapha Adebayo Akanbi Alabi studied at Ahmadu Bellow University after which he proceeded to the United Kingdom where he studied law, and was called to the English Bar in 1963. A year after, he was called to the Nigerian Bar. He started his legal career in the Ministry of Justice where he became Senior Advocate of Nigeria (SAN). He became a member of the Bench following his appointment as a Judge of the Federal Revenue Court. Before the end of 1977, he moved over to the Court of Appeal. In 1992, Justice Akanbilabi was appointed President of the Court of Appeal, a position he held till 1999. With the return of democracy in

Formatted: Justified, Indent: First line: 1.27 cm, Space After: 8 pt

1999, the then President Olusegun Obasanjo appointed Honourable Justice Akanbilabi as the pioneer Chairman of the Independent Corrupt Practice Commission (ICPC).

His appointment underscored the fact he was a man of fairness and high integrity. -

At this point, it would be recalled that Justice Akanbi was appointed as the pioneer chairman of As he became saddled with the onerous responsibility of fighting corruption in a nation where corruption was endemic marked him out as someone who still fit into the Nigerian discourse of the relevance of such an institution, such as the ICPC to national development. ICPC, this appointment of Justice Akanbi speaks to the issue of the prevalent corruption that has ravaged the Nigerian nation for such a long time. So his appointment was geared towards elimination of corrupt practices in Nigeria. The importance of the ICPC cannot be overemphasized in a nation where corruption has forestalled development, and cannot be relegated to the sideline since the moral development of the citizens as antidote to corruption any Country could be seen as in the statement credited toan integral part of it. In the words of Omoregbe, Omoregbe remarked thus (1990:197):

Suffice it to say that what Omoregbe ((1990, p,197) was talkedking about was what Justice Akanbi led ICPC was set out to achieve to. It is interesting to note that the ICPC was saddled with the

Formatted: Indent: First line: 0 cm

Formatted: Justified, Indent: First line: 1.27 cm, Space After: 8 pt

Formatted: Indent: Left: 4.44 cm, Right: 1.9 cm, Tab stops: 4.76 cm, Left

Formatted: Indent: Left: 4.44 cm

<u>responsibility to</u> investigate, and prosecute all those who have <u>shown</u> contempt for moral rectitude evident by their involvement in looting the treasure of the Nigerian nation. How can there be development in a country in which public funds are embezzled by those who control them and who are supposed to use _them for development projects?

It wasis in the light of the foregoing, that the establishment of that response to the question wtheas embodied by the setting up of the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC), which could be seen as germane in a Nigerian society where corruption has eaten deep into the fabric of the society, and was timely, since prior to its creation, there was no anti-graft agency. and it should be noted that the Justice Akanbi Justice Akanbi led ICPC worked tirelesslyassiduously in securing conviction for corrupt practices by public officials. It could be inferred that such convictions may well have and this could have served served as deterrent, thereby raising the moral rectitude of Nigerians, which was and is an important component of national development desirous by nation that wishes to developed.- All of these fit into the statement made by Mimiko when he upheld that: "High level corruption and indiscipline is another barrier to development. Nigeria state is corrupt, managed by corrupt leaders who have made the state an instrument of capital accumulation, rather than using it to project the interest of the citizenry. A very good plan supervised by a thoroughly corrupt state can hardly do a thorough good job. (cited in Lawal and Oluwatoyin, 2011:239). Lawal and Oluwatoyin (2011) added by saying that "... Corruption and development are antithetical to each other, the two cannot cohabit, and where one is present, the other suffers". This certainly does not negaterepudiate the statement of Albert Schweitzer who stated that: "the prosperity of a society depends on the moral disposition of its members" (Schweitzer cited (cited in Omoregbe, 1990, p.:198).

Health Sector

Dr. Amudu Aluko

There is an adage that says: "Heath is wealth". This underscored the fact it is only people who are healthy that can contribute their quota to the well-being of society. However, illness is inevitable to humanity. Many have died from illnesses that continue to have ravage humanity. The people who are responsible for treatment of patients in any given society to which their presence and role has helped a lot in saving the lives of patience in the society are medical doctors. There

The was said that the first medical doctor of Kwara State, Dr. Amuda Aluko hailed from Ilorin was of Oyo-Ile origin. Borin in Ilorin in 1935, Dr. Aluko attended primary school Ilorin Middle Primary School from where he proceeded to Berewa College, Zaria for his post-primary education. He was one of the pioneer students that attended the first medical school to have been established by the defunct Northern Regional Government. After his training in Nigeria, he attended the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and spent a considerable lenghtlengthh of time in Egypt in continuation of his medical training.

Dr. Aluko served in many hospitals in the then Northern Region such as Sokoto General Hospital, General Hospital, Kastina, Ilorin General Hospital, during colonial Nigeria. It was said that there were only three medical Doctors when Kwara State was created in 1967. Dr. Aluko happened to be the only black medical Doctor amongst the trio. It was reported that many did not believe that he was of Ilorin origin. In an interview, granted in Daily Trust in 2019, Dr. Aluko remarked that:

I was also privileged to be the principal medical doctor in Charge of Jos division. From Jos, I was moved to Maiduguri, <u>a</u>And from there to Makurdi. I was the one distributing drugs to all the hospitals. I had many seniors, but for reasons best known to the authorities, they asked me to handle that division. Probably, they believed that I could handle it better than my seniors.

Dr. Aluko is credited to having established the first private owned hospital in Ilorin where a lot patients were are being treated. The name of the hospital was and is Geri Alimi Hospital, one multiplier effect of the establishment of the first private hospital in Ilorin, is a way, Dr. Aluko contributed to the reduction of unemployment in Kwara State and Nigeria at large. This was owing to the fact other health care practitioners such as nurses, laboratory scientists among others were employed in his hospital. It should be noted that Dr. Aluko is not the only medical doctor of Oyo-Ile origin, but as a pioneer in the medical field, he deserves to be brought to the fore.

Security Services

Major-General Abdulkareem Adisa

The security servoices are one of the vital areas of the life any nation, and Ilorin and in particular, the people of Oyo-Ile has not be relegated to the sidelines over the years, because there are people who have represented Ilorin in the armed forces of the Nigerian nation. Retired Admiral Lawal (now deceased) was one of those who have been brought to the fore in the preceding paragraph. Besides Admiral Lawal (Rtd), there was Major General Abudlkareem Adisa. Born in Ilorin, and his military carreer dates back to 1967 as an officer cadet with the Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna where he was said to have graduated in 1970.

He belonged to the generation of Nigerian soldiers who fought to keep Nigeria united when the Nigerian Civil War erupted in 1967 as a Lietenant. It was reported that during the war he was captured by Biafran troops as providence would have, he was not killed while he was being detained. As time went by, he was appointed Military Governor of Oyo State in 1992, a position, he held till 1992 during the military regime of General Ibrahim babangida.

General Sani Abacha who succeeded Chief Ernest Shonekun appointed Major-General Adisa Minister of Works. The National Housing Policy he inherited from his predecessor was not discontinued by him, which was geared towards providing affordable housing units across Nigeria. He was arrested for and tried for coup attempt, and was on death row, when General Abacha died in 1998 and was granted pardon by General Abubarkar Abdulsalami the then head of State who succeeded Genera Abacha. Adisa passed on in 2005.

Education and human capital Development Professor Yusuf Abdulrahman Maigida

Education plays a vital role in the life any nation, because value to the material growth and maturation of the nation which is made up of men and women who specialize in various sphere of life (Nnamdi, 2010, p.+106). Omoregbe was not averse to Nnamdi as the <u>latterformer</u> sees intellectual development as an integral part of the life of a nation (1990,p.+226). This translates to human capital development, and it is within this context that Professor Yusuf Abdulrahman Maigida is being identified as a notable individual that hail from Ilorin.

Professor Yusuf Abudlrahman Maigida is a high ranking Professor in the Department of Educational Foundation, where he specializes in Comparative Education and and History and Policy of of Education in the aforementioned department. As an academic in the University of Pprt Harcourt, Professor Maigida has been inovolved in teaching and supervising students for many years at the pre-degree, degree and post graduate level, chuming out students who are equipped with the capacities to function in schools and the industries.

This underscored the fact Professor Maigida via his seasoned teaching is contributing his quota to the development of the manpower needs of the Nigerian nation and the development of the Nigerian educational sector for the benefit of the citizens of the Nigerian nation, and as such placed him as a notable individual of Ilorin.

Construction and Architectural

Architect Mahmud Jimoh Faworaja

Muhmud Jimoh Faworaja is an illustrious son of Ilorin and in particular Oyo-Ile. He attended Ahmadu Bello University where he bagged his B. Sc and M. Sc respectively in Architecture. He is the founder FAWACON Consult Limited, a Nigerian architectural and engineering firm known for its innovative designs and constructions. He has been involved in numerous mult-million dollar projects in Nigeria and has won several national and international designs award. Some of his notable architectural works include the design of the Etsako Central Secretatariat and Magistrate Court and the design of new residential building in Abuja. It should be added that he designed the Ilorin Central Mosque and Kwara State University among others. Faworaja is the Chairman of Building Code Advisory Committee (BCAC), Director of Colloquim Architects, Managing Director and CEO of ARCHCON Nigeria.

From the foregoing narrative with respect to Architect Faworaja he has contributed to the well-being of the Nigerian society evident by his status as an employer of labour Even when the secondary part of development as identified by Omorogbe (1990), which he sees as "... the infrahuman dimension. The latter includes the land, the natural resources, the roads, the buildings machines, etcetera", the role of the architectural firm established by Architect Faworaja are still in conformity with the whole idea of national development. Architect Faworaja did the architectural design of the Ilorin Central Mosque, an edifice to behold. Other notable designs of him include; The design of the State house ABUJA and Lokoja Federal Secretariat, Kogi State.

Events in Ilorin

There were events of historical significance that took place in Ilorin. These events that happened are hardily forgotten in the annals of the history of Ilorin. Chiefly, the first event that readily comes to mind eentredcentered on the decision of Afonja to carve out a political independent entity. It would be recalled that Ilorin was part of the Old Oyo empireEmpire. The decision of Afonja to have rebelled against Alafin Awole, the then Alafin of the Old Oyo empire could be interpreted to mean the first major event that took place in Ilorin during the early decades of the nineteenth century. That event was not devoid of external help sought after by Afonji, as there was the incursion of the Hausa-Fulani group led by Alimi, the corollary was the emergent Fulani emirate system, which became an affiliate of the Sokoto Caliphate, this and this was after the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group killed Afonja. This could be seen as a pre-colonial event, the subsequent Fulani Emirs that have emerged on the scene-had had become a legacy in Ilorin. The Fulani Emirs of Ilorin ruled an ethnically distinct majority, in this case, a Yoruba ethnic majority (Duley, 19681968, p.23).

Another pre-colonial event that cannot be relegated to the background revolved around the 1897 attacked on Ilorin by the defunct Royal Niger Company with George Taubman Goldie at the helm of affairs of the RNC. This conquest paved the way for the eventual colonization of Ilorin, the colonization of Ilorin was not only limited to the Hausa-Fulani group in Ilorin as it also affected the people of Yoruba origin in Ilorin. Whilst the colonial government enlisted for the support of the fief-holders in this task of tax collection on its behalf, the colonial government in Nigeria interest aimed at ensuring that tax evasion did not wane. This was evident by the decision of the colonial government to have provided district heads with the authority to enforce tax payment as a way making these district heads to live up to colonial anticipations, it was reported that they were always held responsible for any tax evasion which the administration experienced or recorded in their respective districts (cited in Abdulwahab, 2007;188, 2007, p. ÷188).

Going by such responsibility they were saddled with, the district heads were always ready to ensure that there was no default on the part of the citizens in the payment of their tax to the colonial government. Such preparedness by the districts heads could be interpreted to mean that there was the presence of susceptibility to conflict. As Folola was quoted as saying: "Colonial taxation was not initially an acceptable economic reform policy due to its alien nature in

Yorubaland "(eited in Falola cited Abdulwahab, 2007, p. ÷188). It is in this context that the 1913 tax riot that broke out could be understood.

Besides this, as colonialism was waninstill thriving up, the quest for the people of Oyo-Ile origin to merge with the rest of their kith and ken in the Western region of Nigeria marked West merger was another important events that took place in Ilorin. There have been agitations of the Yoruba people in the Ilorin province to merge with their kith and kin in the Western region. The Final struggle in the Ilorin-West merger came during the 1956/1957 London Conference when through the influence of the ITP/AG alliance in Ilorin, the request of the Yoruba in the province was presented at the conference. But the position of the emirate authorities, which was largely against such transfer, further frustrated the realization of the goal (Abdulwahab, 20077, p.÷ 246).

More so, the creation of Kwara State in 1967 as a result of the abrogation of the regional structure_d-by General Yakubu Gowon_led military regime provided a fertile ground for the agitation of the choice of the capital of the emergent state to have constituted itself as a historical event. The other controversy centered on the choice of the capital. For instance, most of those from the former Kabba province demanded that Lokaja should be chosen as the capital simply because it has previously served as the first capital of Nigeria where the Nigerian flag Union Jack, was first hoisted by Lugard.in 1900 (Crowther cited in Abdulwahab, 2007, p. ;273).

On the other hand, those, those from the old Ilorin province call for the location of the capital in Ilorin. The administrative committee that was established by the government in the midst of this contrasting choice of the capital of the emergent Kwara State resolved that Ilorin should be made the capital. With the recommendation that Ilorin should serve as the capital of the new state, the state administration along with others in the new country became functional as from August, 1967. The first military Governor appointed for Kwara State was Major, later Brigadier General D.L. Bamibgboye, an indigene of Omu- Aran. One of the major events that took place in course of the [post-colonial era in Ilorin was the substitution of the "Native Authority" with local government authorities known as "Division". Not only was the emergent division historic, but the appointment of Yoruba man as the pioneer military Governor of Kwara State by General Yakubu Gowon historic cannot be relegated to the sidelines within historical context.

Of equal importance was the emergence of Rear Admiral Lawal (Rtd) as the Kwara State Civilian Governor in 1999. There The was the first time since the last local government reforms and creation of State in 1996 that an illustrious son of Ilorin was being elected Governor by the vast majority of citizens of Kwara State. The election of Governor Lawal is historic event in the sense that it occurred thirty-two years later after the emergence of General Bamigboye in 1967.

Conclusion

The paper has carefully brought to limelight, the notable individuals in Ilorin from the perspective of Oyo-Ile origin. This approach was as result of the fact that the Ilorin society is not homogeneous society, hence the focus on notable individuals of Yoruba origin that hail from Ilorin town, since Ilorin constitutes the area of study. The paper not only brought these individuals to the fore, but also discussed their various contributions with respect to their different spheres of endeavors. It is the belief that such historical reconstruction of these notable individuals motivate others to aspire to achieve more than what they have achieved.

It is against this backdrop, therefore the paper, argues that not much have been learnt in an era where histories of individuals are gradually fading into oblivion and the events that could have fast tracked the advancement of Ilorin are being treated with contempt The paper also took a delve into the events that has happened in Ilorin, this cut across the pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial periods. All of the historical events have the tendency to ensure that the sense of history does not disappear from the consciousness of the citizens of Ilorin society and becomes a signpost that could engender the collective development of Ilorin.

References Formatted: Font: Bold Alagoa, E.J. (ed.) (1989) Dike Remembered: African Reflections on history, Dike Memorial Formatted: Font: Italic Formatted: Indent: Left: 0 cm, Hanging: 1.27 cm Lecture 1985-1995. University of Port Harcourt Press. Formatted: Space After: 8 pt Abdulwahab, O.O (2007) Political and Ethnic Relations in Ilorin, 1823, 1823-1992: A Historical Analysis (thesis submitted to School of Graduate Studies, University of Lagos). Duley, B.J (1968) Parties and Politics in Northern. Nigeria. Frank Cass-Formatted: Font: Italic Nnamdi, B.S (eds.) (2010) Selected Themes in Logic and Philosophy. M & J Grand Orbit Formatted: Font: Italic Communication Limited-Formatted: Indent: Left: 0 cm, Hanging: 1.27 cm Udoidem, S.I (1988) Authority and the Common Good in Social and Political Philosophy. Formatted: Font: Italic University Press of America

Tolu Lawal and Abe Oluwatoyin (2011) National Development in Nigeria: issues, ehallerngeschallenges and prospects in Journal of Public Administration and Policy Research Vol. 3 (9), pp. 237-241.

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Space After: 8 pt

Omoregbe, Josephy (1990) Knowing Philosophy. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers.

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0 cm, First line: 0 cm, Space After: 8 pt

Sustainable Development Goals Implementation and Uited Nation's Communication Strategy: Implication for Infrastructural Projects in the Niger Delta, Nigeria

Enoc - Ahiamadu, Richman Kasiobu

E-mail: richmadu063@gmail.com
Phone: +2348030902881

Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies
University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Prof. C Omego

Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies University of Port Harcourt

Prof. C Ochonogor

Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract

This study evaluated the communication strategy of the UN for the 2030 SDGs for infrastructural projects. A sample size of 384 in three clusters covering six States of the Niger Delta of Nigeria out of a projected population of 29,630,697 was used. Data was analyzed using tables, weighted means, and percentages. The study found that interpersonal and group communications were employed for sharing meaning with communities. It also discovered that the traditional, mass, social media and the ICT were utilized. It concluded that the SDGs in its current framework for defining development can developed the Niger Delta; if other variables, for which communication serves as a connecting fulcrum, are equally visible. The study recommended that the UN should improve message-medium fit, by adopting more media forms and allow participation at all stages of the project development. It added that proper project arrangements and their corresponding communication mode during execution be used.

Keywords: Sustainable Development Goals Uited Nation, Communication Strategy.

Introduction

Historically, the concept of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were the outcome of the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development in Rio de Janeiro in 2012. The objective was to produce a set of universal goals that met the urgent social, economic, political and environmental challenges facing humanity. However, it is important to note that the UN has consistently neglected the spiritual dimension to development which included the unseen act of nature which man has over the year attempted to align with or dominate for his prosperity and that of the planet.

The SDGs was the replacement for the expired development philosophy of the UN referred to as Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which started a global effort in 2000 to tackle the indignity of poverty and other development aspirations of man. The MDGs was packaged with measurable, universally-agreed objectives for tackling extreme poverty and hunger, preventing deadly diseases, and expanding primary education to all children, among other development priorities. For 15 years, the MDGs measured human development in several areas including reducing extreme poverty, providing much needed access to water and sanitation, driving down child mortality and drastically improving maternal health. These were in addition to free primary education, inspiring countries to invest in their future generations and a deliberate strides towards combatting HIV/AIDS and other diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis.

Globally, the UN report that the MDGs helped in achieving set goals such that over one billion people were lifted out of extreme poverty since its proclamation by head of government of 189 countries in 1990, child mortality dropped by more than half, the number of out of school children

dropped by more than half and HIV/AIDS infections fell by almost 40 percent by the year 2000. Nigeria was among the 189 countries from across the world that endorsed the millennium declaration in September 18, 2000.

While the implementation of the MDGs began worldwide in 2000, Nigeria's march toward actualizing the MDGs began in 2005, following the fulfilment of the agreement by western countries to cancel all debts owed by developing countries, as part of aids to developing countries' implementation of the MDGs. However, the results of the execution of the millennium development agenda by most developing countries, were boxes of mixed performances. On one hand, they used the MDGs framework to improve in some sectors, while on the other hand, very little were achieved in other sectors. Nigeria for instance used the MDGs implementation to improve health, grow gender parity and considerably improved the provision of safe drinking water (MDGN Endpoint Report, 2015, p.49). However, weighed against the overall standard for counting a success in the execution of the related Millennium Development Goals by her performances on the various measurable indicators. Nigeria still did not meet up in the overall achievement of the MDGs. This means, nothing meaningful was done towards the attainment of the other five goals at all. Of the over 30 indicators covering the eight MDGs, according to the 2015 End - Point Report on them by the UNDP and the Office of the Senior Special Assistant to the President on the MDGs, Nigeria was weak in her performance in 20 of them, strong in five, fair in four and did not have need for one of the health indices because of the absence of such disease in the country as at 2015. However, between 2015 and 2020, the nation's economic, social and environmental conditions had deteriorated further.

The deteriorating social, economic and environmental conditions of nations of the world, including Nigeria and the Niger Delta, made the United Nations to repackage its development plans as the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, with goals and targets, generally referred to as the Sustainable Development Goals-SDGs (SDGs Agenda, 2015, p.14). This was adopted to replace the MDGs while carrying over their assets and liabilities. The SDGs resolution was adopted in the General Assembly of the UN on September 25, 2015. Christened "Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development" (ibid, p2), the UN recognized that the eradication of all forms of poverty including extreme poverty is the greatest challenge and an indispensable requirement for sustainable development. Surprisingly, Nigeria became the country with the highest concentration of poor people in 2018 amongst whom were the people of the Niger Delta. As at now, the UN records show that more that 700 million people or 10% of the world's population still live in extreme poverty. The majority of these people living on less than a dollar a day in sub-Saharan Africa and Nigeria the most populated. Fifty-five percent (55%) of the world's population have no access to social protection. Moreover, there are more than 800 million people who are suffering from hunger worldwide; the vast majority in developing countries of which Nigeria is one. The UN estimates that the world will require 267Billion dollars per year on the average to end worldwide hunger by 2030. Most UN member states are still grappling with the burden of ensuring healthy lives and promoting the well-being for all at all age. A billion dollars is required to save a million children through immunization coverage each year. Three hundred and sixty three million children and adolescents remained out of school as at 2015, while 617million could not read and write. Meanwhile, experience has shown that education enables upward socio-economic mobility and is a key to escaping poverty, empowerment for healthy and sustainable living. Gender equality ratio show that only 27% of women occupy managerial position worldwide, yet women and girls represent half of the world's population. Half of the

world's population suffer severe water scarcity for at least one month each year of their lives. The SDGs reckon that the need for water has outpaced population growth, yet access to water, sanitation and hygiene is a human right. Three billion people lack access to clean cooking fuel resulting in four million premature deaths annually. The world needs by 2030, a well-established energy system that can support all sectors including businesses, medicine, education, agriculture, communication and technology. The advocacy for decent work and economic growth by the UN through the SDGs matters because as at 2018 only 20% of the world's youth were engaged in either education, employment or training. Meanwhile, global unemployment rate is still high in developing countries including Nigeria. The UN intended that countries, by the SDGs build resilient infrastructure and sustainable industrialization and to bring 3.8 billion people without access to the internet as a panacea to economic growth, social development and climate change. The SDGs are also an urgent call to shift the world onto a more sustainable path.

The SDGs are a bold commitment to finish what the MDGs started, and tackle some of the more pressing challenges of today. The legacy and achievements of the MDGs provide the UN and member states with valuable lessons and experience to begin work on the new goals especially giving the fact that the MDGs failed in Nigeria due to factors including poor communication. The SDGs is ambitiously intended to "leave no one is left behind" and therefore require a dependable communication strategy for the execution of all projects. This paper focuses the communication strategy used for the execution of infrastructural projects in Niger Delta communities.

The 17 Sustainable Development Goals covered the tripartite sustainability prongs of social, economic and environmental. This study focused on select themes of the socio-economic dimension. Of the 17goals of the SDGs the UN do not yet have projects in all the goals for the Niger Delta. Most of their projects cover Goal 1 on poverty, Goal 3 on education, Goal 4 on health, Goal 6 dealing with water and sanitation, Goal 7 on energy and Goal 9 on infrastructure and industrialization. As a result our scope is limited to project in the afore-mentioned areas. Geographically, the study concentrated on the traditional States of the Niger Delta or South-South geopolitical zones of Nigeria which are: Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo and Rivers State.

Statement of the Problem

The implementation of the sustainable development goals in Nigeria in general and the Niger Delta in particular, if carefully followed will reflect a massive infrastructural development for every sector where human development is expected to be realized. This is because all the goals expressed in term of human needs have accompanying basic material infrastructure that must be in place; without which the capacity of the human input will not thrive. The desire of Goal 1 to end poverty in all its form everywhere is only possible because the SDGs agenda provide for the creation or establishment of meaningful sources of empowerment for income generation; involving employment, self-development and meaningful engagement structures in the society. The expectation of Goal 2 to end hunger, achieve food security and improve nutrition is only tenable because there is the intent to evolve sufficient agricultural infrastructure by which the human capacity to produce food can be harnessed. The same fit between the human capacity and the existence of corresponding infrastructure are hoped for by Goal 3 on health, Goal 4 on education,

Goal 5 on gender parity and empowerment for women and the girl child, as well Goals 6, 7 and 8 dealing with availability of water, energy and productive employment respectively. The UN astutely conversant with these links between human needs and infrastructural development deliberately coded Goal 9 with the task of building resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization in addition to fostering innovation.

If there is a region that is infrastructurally backward in Nigeria, it is the Niger Delta. Its infrastructural backwardness is comical because it has been the source of Nigeria economic main stay for over 60 years, yet more or less remains essentially a traditional society. There are no good roads, hospitals and school facilities are substandard. Infrastructure for water, if they exist are mono pomp which were last used in Europe over 100 year ago. Electric power is yet to reach several place just as modern agriculture is still a mirage to farmer. Factories are none existent and industrialization farfetched while oil and gas exploration continues with attendant environmental degradation. This condition of the Niger Delta has made it development a concern for the UN, the federal, state and local governments in Nigeria. As a result several infrastructural project were packaged as part of the SDGs project implementation for the area. Moreover, information and communication is critical for effective project implementation. The UN wary of the fact that years of neglect accompanied by seasons of violent agitation against the Nigerian state have resulted in categories of groups to be reached with the SDGs development through communication, In what might be regarded the "voice metaphor" these stakeholders in the SDGs in the Niger Delta may fall into the categories of the marginalized, muted, unheard or even silent. Since the UN intends to leave no one of these voices behind, it would require strategic communication that can link these voice with their entitled development. What kind of communication strategy did they adopted in partnership with the government to link these voices for their infrastructural projects already in place in the area?

Aim and Objectives of Study

The study aims at ascertaining the communication strategy adopted by the United Nations in partnership with governments in implementing infrastructural SDGs projects in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The objectives are to:

- 1. investigate the communication form the UN engaged for the implementation of infrastructural projects of the SDGs in the Niger Delta States.
- identify the communication channels used by United Nation for the execution of these SDGs infrastructural projects in the area.
- 3. examine the extent to which the communication strategy of the UN in partnership with the relevant arms of governments of involve people's participation projects implementations.
- 4. examine how adequate were the communication media for the implementation of the infrastructural SDGs projects among Niger Delta inhabitants.

1.4 Research Questions

The above objectives were pursued with the following research questions:

- 1. what communication form did the United Nations use for the implementation of infrastructural SDGs projects in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?
- 2. what communication channels are involved in the execution of infrastructural SDGs projects by the UN in the area?

- 3. what is the extent to which the communication strategy used by the UN for the SDGs involve people's participations for project implementations in the States of the Niger Delta?
- 4 how adequate are the communication media employed by the UN in the implementations of SDGs infrastructural projects in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

Theoretical Framework

There are two theories on which this study is based. These are the Stakeholders Theory and the Participatory Communication Theory.

Stakeholders Theory

For the UN, "the engagement, inclusion, and participation of citizen, better termed stakeholders in various ways, and significantly the owners of the Global Agenda, is pivotal towards the realization of the broad goals of the sustainable development agenda in such a way as to fulfill the intent of the world body in having no are left behind. This makes the stakeholders' theory relevant to this study.

The idea of stakeholders in an organization as in a business, a multinational conglomerate as can be found in MNC, world governing bodies as the UN or government of nations includes identifying universal human right obligations, in addition to the normative thoughts of profitability and corporate social responsibility. In 2011, the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights were endorsed by the UN Rights Council providing basis for respect, protection and remedial framework for businesses in dealing with stakeholders. The UN Global Compact represents furthermore, a practical attempt at delineating the human rights responsibilities of organizations to stakeholders.

The theory results from scholarly work of Berle and Dodd in the 1930s (Asemah 2017, p 311). Later Edward Freeman popularized the concept in his seminal work, "Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach" published in 1984 (Freeman, http://www.stakeholdermap.com/ stakeholder-theory-freeman.html). The theory has its roots in business and the term "stakeholders" describes an organization's relationship and responsibility to all the identified groups linked to the operations of the organization. It is the thinking of proponents of the stakeholder's theory that most time managers are seen to be primarily pursuing the interests of their stockholders or shareholders. Stakeholder's theory insists that there are other interests the organization must integrate in pursuit of its goal, if the organization is to be seen not only to be profitable, but also corporally responsible. A stakeholders is traditionally considered to be any group or individual who can affect or be affected by the achievement of the organization's objective (Freeman 1984 cited in Fontaine et al, 2006). By this conception, the theory departs from the conventional, primarily profit oriented business approach by adopting a broader view of who should be seen as having a legitimate stake in an organization's functioning. As a result of this departure from the stockholders tradition, which referred only to people having financial interest in an organization, the term stakeholders, therefore, includes such groups as customers, contractors, regulatory agencies, government, and host communities. Moreover, the stakeholders view point has been instigated by the understanding of the impact of business, whether profit oriented, human or public service or social, environment in addition to the, erstwhile, economic terms. This implies, stakeholder ship becomes critical when dealing with issues about sustainable development.

Participatory Communication Theory

There are 5ps that have become the 21st century symbol of the pursuits of the SDGs by the UN systems everywhere. These are people, planet, prosperity, peace and partnership (Otila 2019, p.23).

While people represents the experimental element of development, the input of partnership which is akin to participation results in peace and prosperity for people of the planet. As a result without participation the entire SDGs efforts amounts to a no project. Moreover, it is the desire of the UN to have "no one left behind in transforming our world" (SDG Declaration, 2015). This can only be possible through a robust people oriented communication strategy nurtured to be dynamic, pragmatic and proactive. As a result, the development communication principle of participatory communication becomes extremely relevant and the main thrust for this study.

Participatory communication denotes the theory and practice used to involve people in the decision-making processes of development efforts. It intends to return development powered by communication to the original idea which is "communis" in Latin, said to mean, "Common" (Mody, 1991); to make something common or to share. In development literatures, the indications are common that participation and communication are two concepts highly visible in the thoughts and conception of projects, but poorly applied or ambiguously used in different ways. This have made projects that contain far too limited and partial involvement of locales to be listed as having been done in a participatory development manner. Under this arrangement, communication is also considered as an add-on component, often integrated to development projects at a later phase of a project life cycle. In this way both participation and communication becomes more curative tools rather than strategic preventive tools resulting in ineffectiveness in project implementation; even if it were the sustainable development goals projects and programmes.

Thomas McPhail (2009, p.28) suggests that the study of participatory communication emerged in the late 1970s and took prominence in the decades that followed. It emerged as a reaction to theories such as cultural imperialism or modernization which development communication practitioners from around the world considered to have failed to deliver on the anticipated improvements and empowerments for developing countries. Scholars, agree that participatory communication in pursuit of development is critical.

Mefalopulos and Grenna (2008) did a study on "Promoting Sustainable Development through Strategic Communication" in which they delved into the significance of the use of strategic communication for sustainable development in the World Bank development programmes and projects. By strategic communication in this study, the researchers referred not only to communication strategy but specifically was dealing with development communication.

The methodology adopted involved a review of primary and secondary documents. It raveled on a combination of the knowledge and experiences of organizations from the field and the unique operational context of the Word Bank. It was their finding that communicating for sustainable development goes beyond different types of communication interventions. This reason why development communication becomes a more relevant key to their work is the fact that communication is not just an instrument to send or disseminate information. It is first and foremost an analytical instrument based on dialogue. As a result for sustainable development, communication should always be present from the beginning and development communication is the only discipline specifically using dialogue to share and investigate experiences, needs, problems, perceptions and prospects among stakeholders and the variables of development.

For a study on the Niger Delta of Nigeria, the place of community media becomes very important for effective development. As a result, the study on "Making Community Media Work" becomes relevant for our review. The study was undertaken by Nico Carpenter, Reco Lic and Jan Serveres in which they redefined community media using four approaches, instead of the hitherto mono-theoretical approach that has been the lot of the multiplicity of media organizations that are classed as community media.

The study employed the case study approach to research with the aim of first combining the four theoretical approaches in order to capture both the diversity and specificity of these medium. It aimed at showing the applicability of these combined approaches by analyzing and evaluating a mix media project on a North Belgian town, with similar features as some of the ones in which SDGs projects that were sited in the Niger Delta of Nigeria. The study opined that none of the four approaches can be considered as giving a sufficient overview when used independently. They postulated that the only way to capture the diversity that characterize community media is the simultaneous application of all four methods. The approaches are serving the community, community media as an alternative to mainstream media, linking community media to the civil society and community media as rhizome. The nature of this approach to the use of community media for development allows incorporating the high level of contingency that characterizes them. Their uniqueness is in their embeddedness in a fluid civil society and their antagonistic relationship towards the state and commodification of media. All of these approaches to the use of community media for development have advantages and disadvantage. Moreover, the researches recommend that a multi-theoretical approach should be used as a tool box for the analysis of a mixed media project, which aims at improving the social economic texture of society.

Methodology

The research adopted the descriptive survey design method for the study. The population of the study is 29, 630, 697 based on the 2006 National population census using a 2.5% projected growth rate. The Krejcie and Morgan sampling formula was used to determine the required sample size for the study. As a result, a sample size of 384 respondents was drawn from the population. The study employed questionnaire for data collection. The results were analyzed using tables, percentages and mean scores from a Likert scale measuring instrument.

Data Presentation and Results

The communication form the United Nations use in partnership with the Federal, state and Local Governments for implementation of infrastructural SDGs projects in the Niger Delta Region

Table 1: Result of forms of communication AFGN.

S/No	Percentage Rating	AFGN					
	Communication strategy	SA	A	D	SD		
1	Inter-Personal	54.29	29.97	11.86	3.86		
2	Group	47.48	33.03	15.15	4.14		
3	Traditional	46.52	38.04	12.01	3.34		
4	Mass Communication	40.46	41.53	13.15	4.68		
5	Public Communication	40.35	41.54	14.05	4.06		

6	Others not specified	38.97	42.34	14.71	3.98

The date in Table 1 above measure the forms of communication possibilities of the UN in partnership with all the tier of Governments in the Niger Delta.

From the result, it is evident that 54.29% strongly agreed that the UN used interpersonal communication to reach them for projects implementation under the agency of the Federal Government of Nigeria in the Niger Delta. Forty Seven point four eight percent (47.48%) strongly greed group communication was used while 46.12% agreed with their used of traditional means of communication though the project was sited in the rural area, yet there was an indication that 41.54% of their communication used the traditional mass media, 41.54% public communication involving social media and other ICT related communication such as mobile phones, sms, emails and other internet related forms measured 42.34 percent.

The communication channels involved in the execution of infrastructural SDGs projects by the UN in the Niger Delta

Table 2: Channels of communication by Agencies

S/No	Percentage Rating /Channel	AFGN						
	of Communication	SA	A	D	SD			
1.	Face -to- Face	56.94	30.96	9.61	2.49			
2.	Traditional/ Community	43.40	42.74	11.13	2.74			
3.	Mass Media	33.58	46.01	14.92	5.49			
4.	Social/ Public	38.95	35.81	19.69	5.55			
5.	Internet (ICT) Related	35.63	31.07	26.28	7.62			

Table 2: On channels of communication, the UN employed all the channels in the traditional media classification. Face-to-Face had 56.94% of the respondent strongly greed was used, 46.01% agreed mass media was used, 45.40% strongly agreed traditional/community media was used while 38.95% and 35.03% strongly greed that public media and ICT related media were used at the rate of 38.95% and 35.03% respectively.

The extent to which the communication strategy used by the UN for infrastructural SDGs projects integrated people's participation for project implementations in the states of the Niger Delta

Table 3: Result of participatory communication by communities

S/No	Percentage Rating /		AFC	NATURE OF COMMUNICATION		
	Participation Result	SA	A	D	SD	COMMUNICATION
1	Domestication	33.92	32.05	28.41	5.62	Information
2	Assistencialism	27.80	42.90	24.73	4.41	dissemination Based Communication
3	Consultation	34.73	42.90	18.18	4.19	
4	Collaboration	35.72	42.06	16.82	5.40	Sharing of Meaning Based Communication
5	Interactive	34.42	32.80	27.56	31.81	
6	Empowerment citizen control	37.89	42.17	16.35	31.46	

The above data shows that the communication strategy of the UN provided for the people's participation. However, it is either information based kind of participation or communication based. To make the communication information based means, UN in some cases used one way, monologic, information dissemination kind of communication. This is why assistentalism has 42.90% and also consultation. Domestication, another kind of participation that does not require dialogue had 33.92% of the respondent.

On the other hand, collaboration, interactive and empowerment which are participatory communication outcomes that favour sharing of meaning based on dialogue with the aim to give the people the free hand to determine the way to pursue their own development had 42.06% 34.42% and 42.17% respectively.

Adequacy of the communication media employed by the UN in implementation of infrastructural SDGs projects in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria.

Table 4: Adequacy of media and message

a	able 4. Adequacy of media and message											
	S/No	Percentage Rating /		AFO	MEDIA AND							
		Adequate	SA	A	D	SD	MASS MESSAGE					
	1	Adequate	35.41	39.17	21.71	4.75						
	2	Not Adequate	31.69	37.93	24.42	4.71	MEDIA					
	3	Adequate/ Effect	49.00	33.13	13.25	4.62						

4	Achieved SDGs communication Target	45.03	40.64	14.34	4.38	MESSAGE
5	Did not achieve SDGs communication Target	40.69	39.17	13.25	2.25	

The data above measured the adequate of the media and the message. It depicts if the media was adequate, not adequate and effective. The result shows 49.00% of respondent strongly agreed the UN used adequate and effective medium to relate with them on projects. The view that it was adequate had up to 35.41%strongly agreed while 31.69% strongly agreed. The media used for communicating information were not adequate. As for message fitness the research formed 45.03 strongly agreeing the message media fit help achieve the communication result of the SDGs. This is followed by 40.69% agreed. The communication strategy did not achieve the SDGs communication target but was adequate for project implementation.

Extent to which the communication strategy of United Nations succeeded in reaching the people of the Niger Delta with the development intentions of the SDGs for infrastructural projects.

Discussion of findings

The form of communication the UN used for the implementation of infrastructural SDGs projects in the Niger Delta.

The form of communication refers to very broad and narrow divisions of the communication formats available for communicating development in the place. This will include on the broad view, whether the communication is material or immaterial (otherwise verbal or non-verbal), internal or external, formal or informal, personal or impersonal. However, our study of forms of communication was narrowed to interpersonal, group, mass, public and ICT related formats for communication.

The research confirmed that the UN by the Agency of the Federal Government of Nigeria (AFGN) responsible for the implementation of infrastructural SDGs projects has a communication strategy for the SDGs projects implementation. As a matter of face, the researcher sited two communication strategies that were scientifically different in approach, but able to achieve the goals for which they were crafted. The reason for the strategic difference was that one was for projects the AFGN implemented as part of the SDGs which were infrastructural provisions to aid the accomplishment of the SDGs while the other was by the Agency of the UN Country Team in Nigeria (AUNCTN) which did most of their SDGs projects implementation in areas of human capacity development.

The finding, shows that the AGFN of Nigeria used more of interpersonal; followed by traditional group, mass, and ICT related public communication.

As it were, the AFGN dealt with the "hardware" of development. This leads credence to the fact that the UN approach to communication for development insists that information and communication must be made available in forms that are appropriate to the stakeholders. As a result, before the crafting of the communication strategy by their agencies for the implementation of the SDGs, there is usually an in depth stakeholder mapping, relevant ICT identification and an elaborate media survey in a SWOT analysis in order to decide on the best form of communication

for the stakeholders. As a result the UN communication strategy tilted more to interpersonal, mass public, traditional and the group. Other ICT communication such as phone, sms, email camera at 43.81% forms were at times integrated, used in convergence, or transpose from one mode to another depending on the project that were executed. The reason being that while mass media is useful for creating awareness, interpersonal help in mobilizing necessary community involvement in the project cycle. The UN considers the extent of interaction the forms of communication could allow, so as to maximize the people's participation, and the advantage of on media form over another to decide on the form to use.

The communication channels involved in the execution of the infrastructural SDGs projects by the UN in the Niger Delta.

The importance of using a communication strategy become critical when one comes to the channels of communication. The UN, it was discovered agreed there was the availability of myriads of channels and a diverse skill set in Niger Delta in particular and Nigeria in general. As a result the UN communication strategy intended to secure more efficient and effective development and support for Nigeria through improved visibility of UN implementation efforts of the SDGs and proper use of these channels. The research discovered that effective communication was not due to the problem of availability of media but capacity to engage the right channels as it related to the stakeholder or communities being reached with SDGs projects information. The research found that the UN used all the channels to reach various categories of stakeholders. The finding on forms showed they used face-to-face channels which had 56.94% and 43.40% respectively. So social media used measured 58.62%, face to face 48.28%, where traditional and mass communication rested 46.01% and 43.40% respectively.

However, all the channels were used which included face -to -face, indigenous/ community, mass media, social/public media. Other ICT related had similar range of utility; face- to- face had 46.86% strongly agreed, public media, 47.27%, mass media, 42.89% and other internet related media 45.54%. These results related to project communication with the stakeholders.

The choice of channel is one area where professionalism of the community focal was an advantage. The myriad of channels require understanding of the dynamics of the media to mix or integrate and also the form of the messages with which to communicate (Aibarran, 2010, p1).

The extent to which the communication strategy used by the UN for infrastructural SDGs projects integrated people participation for implementation in the states of the Niger Delta.

The review of literature has the participatory communication theory as one of our frameworks under guiding this research. It made us know that participation for a project may take place from the need assessment phase, the project formulation phase, the planning phase, the implementation stage, and in the monitoring and evaluation phase. Apparently, extending and updating the thoughts of Marshall McLuhan that the media could make a global village, the UN believes that communication could make a global community. This is yet to happen because at first, the UN followed the US to imagine that development could be achieved by mere disseminating information of how the western world was developing and thought that economic development, was all that was needed for other nations to modernize. While it was enough for European nations devastated by the World War 2 to rebuild through economic support from the US, it was not so with other societies yet conquering their traditional setting. Referred to as the

third world, the developing philosophy the UN used to engage these nations was modernization; also called the dominant paradigm. The media under this system was used for spreading development and considered a primary instrument needed to achieve, maintain and strengthen modernity. This continued until the aid 20th century when scholars and the UN system discovered that development was not just linear, commutative, evolutionary and unidirectional (serves 1991, p 22). The failure to modernize the third world led to the application of communication for development, not just the media based information dissemination. As a result, participatory communication became the major type of communication used to achieve development. While participatory development is aimed at participation, participatory communication is not synonymous with participatory development. The one-way top down media process of passing messages of science, technology of the emerging society of the West was to give way for an alternative paradigm and the people's participation.

For our instrument to measure participatory communication, it sought to know hour communities were involved in the various stages of the project life cycle earlier mention. The research found that the communities were not involved in the conception and planning stages. Recall we intimated that government, expected to have been consulted, is not part of the stakeholders we studies. It was at the implementation and monitoring stages that participatory communication was better used.

Using a mix of the participatory communication models developed by the Shirley White, the Work Bank and Palo Freire, the researcher employed domestication, assistentialism, consultation as part of what Shirley White designated pseudo- participation processes as against collaboration, interaction, empowerment or citizen control as what he designated genuine participation. From our instrutment as reflected in Table 3, it was discovered that the participatory communication implication of the effort of the UN to "have no one left behind" tended towards assistentialism and consultative at equal rating; as 42.90% of the respondents agreed they were reached during the project either by information or a benefits. This did not empower them as they knew nothing more about the project and their implementation.

The data revealed further that the people were more informed by the agency of the federal government of the UN SDGs projects than communicated. This resulted in the indices measuring the sharing of meaning which included collaboration measuring 42.06% agreed, interactive-ness 34.42% and empowerment and citizen control rating 42.17% agreed. This explains the fact that for communication to be effective, it must not horde information and must have participate in the development project able to reach each other equally and freely. As the data showed, the concern for infrastructural development pitted the information pattern, principally, along one-way, top-down information dissemination. There is very little idea required from a community in which the SDGs project is the construction of a classroom block, a hospital, pipe borne water and electrification which constituted most of these projects making it a conclusion that the UN communication strategy for infrastructural projects was not less participatory.

The adequacy of the communication media employed by the UN in the implementation of the SDGs project in the Niger Delta of Nigeria.

The UNDP, the UN agency that coordinated the implementation of the MDGs and now supervises the implementation of the SDGs has what it called a "Blue Book" which contains "a hands- on-approach to advocacy for the development goals". The content of this book defines the philosophy

of UN communications for most of the projects the agencies do, even when the communication strategy is developed by the UNIC in line with the "Delivery as one" or by an agency or development partners like the Federal government of Nigeria due to specific interests.

This document insists that development is a process and as such success at every stage is important and communication pivotal for the desired resulted, and if so, communication media employed must prove adequate. If, therefore, the stakeholders mapping has been successful, the message relevant, the medium must follow certain principle to guarantee the exceptive outcome. The research findings agreed that "adequacy depended not only on the message to be relayed, but also some demographics like age, gender, literacy level, class and status. As a result, indigenous media may be used to send one message while the internet or social media is deployed for another. Even in the use of the indigenous media, at one time, a town crier (narrowcasting) may be used while at other times stakeholders meetings of chiefs, CDC and women may be used.

As it were, the UN does not agree with the Marshall McLuhan that the media is the message (or in their view) instead the message is everything. However, a message used in a wrong media cannot be everything, making the research to add that there must be a message-media fit for adequacy of communication to result. Even the stage at which the UN is getting involved in a project contributes in the final choice of the media to be used in the communication strategy. As a result, from the community perspective and based on the research instrument, the research found that the UN communication strategy studied reports for adequacy of the media shows 49.00% of respondent strongly agreed the UN used adequate and effective medium to relate with them on projects. The view that it was adequate had up to 35.41% strongly agreed while 31.69% strongly agreed the media used for communication information were not adequate. As for message fitness the research formed 45.03% strongly greed the message-media fit help achieve the communication result of the SDGs on infrastructural projects. This is followed by 40.69% agreed that the communication strategy did not achieve the SDGs communication target.

Moreover, both the UN believes that the media deployed by the communication plan most time are adequate. In view of the possibilities of changing the communication tactics or plan when realities of the project executive dictates, it is only when other variables in the development equation are not befitting that adequacy of media becomes unable to produce the expected communication outcome of sharing meaning.

Summary and Recommendations

The following are the summaries of the findings.

- The implementation of infrastructural SDGs projects the Niger Delta of Nigeria was done
 by the Agency of the FGN with a communication strategy. They used more of
 interpersonal, group, traditional mass, public and ICT communication at one time or the
 other. The projects and the communication component made the UN and SGD more
 valuable to communities.
- 2. The channel of communication included print mass, mass electronic and the mass electronics used to refer to internet related broadcasting. Face-to-face, public media, mass media, and other internet related media were also used.
- 3. The UN agency followed a deliberately participatory communication plan which involved the communities especially during project execution.

4. The study showed that the communication strategy was adequate

Recommendations

- 1 The UN and the FGN believes that the purpose of a media form is to achieve development. Therefore the commitment to strategic communication for project should be strengthen by insisting on communication strategy becoming part of requirement for project delivery
- 2 Encouragement of development communication and professionalism in practical terms by member nations of the UN.
- 3 The creation of relevant community mass media like community radio so that the monitoring, evaluation and how to use projects after completion can continue the communication required to keep users up to date on state of the facilities and ensure their proper uses.
- 4 The research found that participatory communication was adequate during the executive. However, all projects has a needs assessment, conception, planning, implementation and monitoring stages. Participation should begin at the very needs assessment level so that the wisdom of the people are integrated in project conception, planning before execution.
- 5 Though the UN system uses adequate media, it is not true that the message alone make a communication. It is our recommendation that a message-medium fit be established before either message or medium is engaged.
 - 6. The research found that with proper project arrangement and a corresponding communication of it during execution and while in usage, the SDGs can transform the Niger Delta

References

- Albarran A. B. (2010). The media and communication industries: a 21st century perspective. Ames. IA: Blackwell.
- Ascroft, J. & Maslela, S. (1994). Participatory Decision Making in Third World Development. In S. White with K.S. Nair and J. Ascroft (Eds). Participatory Communication: Walk for Change and Development (pp259=294). New Delhi, S Publications.
- Asemah, E.S., Nwammuo, A.N. & Nkwam-Uwaoma, A.O.A (2017). Theories and models of communication. Jos: Matkol Press
- Baran, J.S. & Davis, D.K (2000). Mass communication theory (7th ed). Belmonth: Wodsworth
- Carpenter N., Lie, R., & Servaes, J. (2002). *Making community Media work in Servaes* J (ed). Approaches to Development Communication, Paris: UNESCO
- Casworth, J.W. & Franks, T. (1993). *Managing Projects in Developing Countries*, Essex, UK: Longman Scientific and Technical.

- Cole, R.D. (2008) Threads of Development communication in Servaes, J (Ed): Communication for Development & Social change. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Dansabo, M.T. (2016). Prospects of sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in Nigeria. Paper presented at the Nigeria Anthropological and sociological practitioners Association (NASA) in Kaduna State University, Kaduna.
- Dogan, F. & Ozluk, D. (2016). In pursuit of New peace building: peace, security and Development, https://www.lises.net.
- Imoh, G.O. (2013). Application of Development Community in Africa's Rural Development Need: Need for a paradigm shift. Global Rural of Art and Humanities, Volume 1, No.4, pp.5-33.
- Innis, H.A (1950). Empire and communication. Oxford: University Press.
- Jan, S. & Malikhao P. (2008): Development Communication Approaches in an international perspective in Servaes, J (ed). Communication for Development and Social Change. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Jone, P., Wyan, M., Hilier, D., & Dalphre, P. (2017). The sustainable Development Goals and information and Communication Technologies. *Indonesian journal of sustainable* Accounting and Management. Vol.1, No.1, pp 1-14.
- Katz, E. & Lazarsfield, P. (1955). Personal influence. New York. The Free press
- Klapper, J. (1994). The Effect of Mass communication. New York: Free Press.
- Krejcie, R. V and Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities, educational and psychological measurement, 30, 607-610
- Little john S W and foss K.A (2009) (eds). *Encyclopedia of communication*. London. SAGE Publication Inc.
- Mac Bride, S (1980) (ed). Many voices, one world: Communication and society, today and tomorrow, Paris. UNESCO
- OSSA-SDG (2022). Communication strategy for the implementation of the sustainable development goals. Abuja: The Presidency.
- Roser. E.M (2003). Diffusion of innovation (5th ed). New York: The Free Press
- Roston, W. W. (1960). The Stages of Economic Growth: A New Communist Manifesto. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ruhet G. (2017): The Importance of Communication in Sustainability and Sustainable strategies. www.scienodirect.com.
- Schramm, W (1964). Mass Media and National development: The role of information in developing countries. California: Stanford University Press.

Servaes J. (2008): Communication for social change. Los Angeles: SAGE.

Thomas P.: communication and the persistence of poverty. The need for a return to Basics in Servaes, J (ed): Communication for Development and Social Change. Los Angeles: SAGE.

Tomlinson, J (1991) Cultural Imperialism, Baltimore, Maryland: John HopKins University Press.

Truman, H (1949). Inaugural address of January 20, 1949. Washington DC: Government Printing Office.

Truman, H (1949). The Marshall Plan. New York: Truman Presidential Museum and Library.

Udoakah Nkereuwem (2004). Development Communication. Ibadan: Stirling - Horden Publishers (Nig) Ltd.

UN (1997). Agenda for Development. https://www.un.org.

UN (2000): United Nations Millennium Declaration. www.un.org.

UN (2015): Nigeria's road to SDGs: country transition strategy. www.Nig.un.org.

UN (2015): Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for sustainable Development. www.un.or/sustainabledevelopment/.../transforming.our-world.document.

UN (2020): The sustainable Development Goals report. www.un.org.

UNITED NATIONSCOMMUNICATION STRATEGY AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS IN THE NIGER DELTA, NIGERIA

Enoc - Ahiamadu, Richman Kasiobu

E-mail: richmadu063@gmail.com
Phone: +2348030902881
Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies
University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Prof. C Omego

Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies University of Port Harcourt

Prof. C Ochonogor

Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract

The United Nations intends to "leave no one behind" in the transformation envisaged by the 2030 SDGs agenda; a task which cannot be accomplished without communication. This study evaluates the communication strategy of the United Nations for the implementation of the SDGs in the Niger Delta of Nigeria. Two theories were relevant to the study. These are the Technology Determinism Theory and the Participatory Communication Theory. The study employed the descriptive survey research method, using questionnaire as instruments for sourcing for primary data in addition to secondary sources. A sample size of 384 in three clusters covering six states of the Niger Delta of Nigeria out of a projected population of 29,630,697 was used. Data gathered were presented and analyzed using tables, simple percentages and weighted mean scores. The research found out that the communication strategy of the UN for the implementation of the SDGs in the Niger Delta used interpersonal, mass, public, indigenous and group communication in channels covering face-to face, group, mass and Internet related (ICT) media. Participatory communication with communities was employed and media - message adequacy was maintained. It is recommended among others that both adequate communication and visibility through project delivery be upheld to make communication strategy serve its purpose for the SDGs targets by 2030.

Keywords: Communication, Strategy, Implementation

Introduction

Following the devastations of the Second World War, an earlier generation of world leaders came together and formed the United Nations Organization to save humanity from the scourge of destructive human conflicts, in order to make peace and security priorities. The charter establishing the United Nations did not only provide for the maintenance of international peace and security, it also anticipated that the organization would help to develop friendly relations among nations, achieve international co-operation in solving international problems and be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations. The goal was to establish conditions on which justice, respect and the promotion of social progress with better standards of life in larger freedom would be founded. However, Europe was devastated by the years of the war with millions of people killed and wounded, transportation in shambles, industrial and residential areas ruined across England, France, Germany, Italy, Poland and Belgium among other European nations. There were threats of famine as a result of the losses in agricultural activities between 1939 and 1945 when the war began and ended respectively (ERP, 1952, p1). The only major power in the world that was not significantly damaged by the war was the United States (US). As a result, the United Nations and the United States saw the need to rebuild the world and that was what development was all about.

One of the implications of the dominance of the United States in UN development philosophy in the early years, was the concept of social development, which in the view of the world body, was

synonymous with economic development, as the US thought in her Marshall Plan for Europe. The second philosophy of development was captured in the US President; Harry Truman's claim that the United States must embark on a bold new programme for making the benefits of her scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement of underdeveloped nations (Truman 1949, p4). As a result, and with time, series of economic aid and modernization packages with the aim of helping poor nations advance, were pushed around nations through the agency of the United Nations. This view of development began to change from the time the UN designated 1960-1970 as the "first development decade". It became clears to the world body that the real aims of development and the nature of the development processes concern not only economic wellbeing of the man, but also the improvement of social conditions of his life and his broad aspirations (UN Plenary, 1961, p2). In the wake of strategizing to ensure the success of the third development decade, the UN proclaimed in 1986, for all member nations the declaration on "the right to development". The right to development considers that "...development is an inalienable right by virtue of which every human person and all people are entitled to participate, contribute to, and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development, in which all human rights and fundamental freedom can be fully realized" (Article 1:1, Declaration of the right to development, p5). Instigated by the declaration of the right to development, the evolution of the humans development indicators in the fourth development decade paved the way for the declaration of the Millennium Development Goals that became the icon for the pursuit of development of nations of the world at the end of the fourth development decade and from 2000 and 2015.

Nigeria was among the 189 countries from across the world that endorsed the millennium declaration on September 18, 2000. The declaration climaxed in the adoption of an eight time-bound development goals, otherwise called the Millennium Development Goals which set sustainable development targets to be achieved by 2015. The eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)included the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, achievement of universal primary education, promotion of gender equality, reduction of child mortality, improving maternal health combat HIV and AIDS, malaria and other diseases while ensuring environmental sustainability and fostering a global partnership for development.

The United Nations saw communication as an instrument for rallying communities to participate in development projects in their localities from the points of need assessment, conception, design, implementation, sustainability, monitoring and evaluation. Communication became even more relevant in view of the UN's thought to "leave no one behind" in the implementation of the SDGs and her further belief that communication is pivotal for the transformation of society.

Of the 17 goals which covered the tripartite sustainability prongs of social, economic and environmental, this study focused on select thematics of the socio-economic dimension. Of the 17goals of the SDGs we dealt specifically with those related to Goal 1 on poverty, Goal 3 on education, Goal 4 on health, Goal 6 dealing with water and sanitation, Goal 7 on energy and Goal 9 on infrastructure and industrialization. Geographically, the study concentrated on the traditional States of the Niger Delta or South-South geopolitical zones of Nigeria which are: Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo and Rivers State.

Statement of the Problem

After over 30 years of the UN proclamation of the right to development, most developing countries are still grappling with efforts to rise above their traditional societies. Moreover, after 15 years of the implementation of the MDGs that crystallized from the UN Agenda for Development and the proclamation of the right to development, Nigeria, like most other developing countries, could not advance enough to reach the targets of the MDGs. The Millennium Development Goals End-Point Report of Nigeria, 2015, therefore, concluded that the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which replaced the MDGs as the global development framework are still as much relevant in terms of development needs of the country. Nigeria ranks low on several of the social development indicators; 137 on infant mortality out of 140 countries, 52 years national average life expectancy, a primary school enrolment rate of 54.0 percent with over 15million out of school children, 53.0 percent of children in rural areas unable to read and write and over 32.6million unemployed youths. Nigeria became the country with the highest concentration of poor people in 2018; violence and insecurity is high. Fulani Herdsmen and Bandits, Boko Haram and cult activities have produced a large population of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) with growing hunger and food insecurity. Maternal and child mortalities have not been reduced amidst an epileptic healthcare system. It is on record that apart from the large population of out of school children, the population of adolescents out of school is also high, while a larger population are illiterate. Moreover, various traditional beliefs promote gender inequality and lopsided empowerment of women and girls resulting in gender disparity and social stagnation for the female folk. The Niger Delta environment has been further degraded following decades of oil and gas exploitation, fuelling youth restiveness, agitations and crises, due mainly to the absence of social amenities and other development indicators. (EPR, 2015, UNEP, 2000).

Viewed against the backdrop of these development concerns and the performance of Nigeria on the MDGs, efforts for better social, economic and environmental development have continued. Records show that Nigeria, did not fully accomplish any one of the eight goals of the Millennium Development Agenda after 15 years. This has made the SDGs which targets the world's social problems in 17 development areas imperative for the Sustainable Development of the nation.

Nigeria launched into the SDGs with the call for a national strategy not only in support of a smooth transitioning from MDGs to the SDGs, but also a Nigeria SDGs Information System. The UN has been at the forefront of the advocacy for nations to implement development programmes. The world body regularly evolves communication approaches to provoke the participation of all in the various projects considered to be of critical needs. This is because experiences all over the world have shown that the failure or success of projects and programmes depend on the level of material and immaterial communication inputs and the appropriateness of the participatory processes to development. As at 2021; six years into the set timeline for the SDGs to lapse, 70% of residents of most developing nations, according to a recent survey by the United Nations University, Tokyo in Japan, do not know of the SDGs. The situation is assumed to be the same in the Niger Delta. Giving that the Niger Delta area is practically rural, it is on record that the UN agencies have done some SDGs projects in the area ahead of the 2030 target. How then did the UN, directly or indirectly, communicate with the people of the Niger Delta states to keep to their avowed intent of "leaving no one behind" in the implementation of the 2030 SDGs for the development of UN member states of which Nigeria and her Niger Delta are parts?

1.3 Aim and Objectives of Study

The study aims at ascertaining the communication strategy adopted by the United Nations in partnership with governments in implementing the SDGs in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The objectives are to:

- 1. investigate the form of communication used by the UN agencies for the implementation of their SDGs activities in the Niger Delta States of Nigeria.
- 2. identify the channels of communication used by United Nation's agencies for the execution of these SDGs projects or programmes in the area.
- 3. examine the extent to which the communication strategies of the agencies of the UN in partnership with the relevant arms of governments of the federation involve people's participation in programmes or projects implementations.
- examine how adequate the communication media are for the implementation of the SDGs among the inhabitants.

1.4 Research Ouestions

The above objectives were pursued with the following research questions:

- 1. what forms of communication did the United Nations use for the implementation of the SDGs activities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?
- 2. what channels of communication are involved in the execution of the SDGs project and programme activities by the UN in the area?
- 3. what is the extent to which the communication strategies used by the agencies of the UN for the SDGs involve people's participations for project implementations in the States of the Niger Delta?
- 4 how adequate are the communication media employed by the UN in the implementations of SDGs projects in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

Review of Literature

Theoretical Framework

There are two theories on which this study is based. These are the Technology Determinism Theory and the Participatory Communication Theory.

Technology Determinism Theory

The United Nations' mission is all about the promotion of social progress, better standards of life and the advancement of freedom to realize the worth of the human person. As a result, development in all spheres of life are easily integrated with her tools for promoting the pursuit of her tasks and this includes the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Giving the fact that the UN is a body of 193 countries, with an estimated population of over eight billion; to ensure that "no one is left behind", the world body relies heavily on technology and more so on communication technologies to advance these courses. Moreover, against the background of power and inequality, social integration and identity, social change and development as well as time and space of all her member states, the theory of Technology Determinism goes a long way to create an understanding of how the UN is able to reach her wide, dispersed and heterogeneous population in general and communities targeted for Sustainable Development Goal projects in particular.

Scholars have long agreed that a link exists between the dominant communication technology of an age and the key features of exchange of meaning or even language of a given society (McQuail 2007, p102). Roger (1996), for instance, identifies turning points of a troughed nature at the invention of writing, the beginning of printing in the fifteenth century, the

telecommunication era of the mid-nineteenth century, and the age of interactive communication which began in 1946 with the invention of the mainframe computers. A more detailed discourse of the link between communication technology of an age and the manner of social interaction extending from pre-historic to modern times was done by Schement and Curtis (1995). As a result, the invention of the printing press began the era of modern communication, and subsequently the radio, television, the satellite, the computer and most recently the internet brought the world into an information and communication age. It is against this background that Technology Determinism Theory becomes a major frame of reference for the United Nations systems and their communication strategy in this study.

Participatory Communication Theory

It is the desire of the UN to have "no one left behind in transforming our world" (SDG Declaration, 2015). This can only be possible through a robust people oriented communication nurtured to be dynamic, pragmatic and proactive. As a result, the development communication principle of participatory communication becomes extremely relevant and the main thrust for this study.

Participatory communication denotes the theory and practice used to involve people in the decision-making processes of development efforts. It intends to return development powered by communication to the original idea which is "communis" which in Latin, is said to mean, "to make something common or to share Common" (Mody, 1991). In development literatures, the indications are common that participation and communication are two concepts highly visible in the thoughts and conception of projects, but poorly applied or ambiguously used in different ways. This have made projects that contain far too limited and partial involvement of locales to be listed as having been done in a participatory development manner. Under this arrangement, communication is also considered as an add-on component, often integrated to development projects at a later phase of a project life cycle. In this way both participation and communication becomes more curative tools rather than strategic preventive tools resulting in ineffectiveness in project implementation; even if it were the sustainable development goals projects and programmes.

Thomas McPhail (2009, p.28) suggests that the study of participatory communication emerged in the late 1970s and took prominence in the decades that followed. Among scholars, participatory communication theory of development communication is associated with Paulo Freire; a Brazilian educator and politician who greatly influenced UNESCO's MacBride's report, calling for greater participation of the powerless in their social development and author of the seminal work, "Pedagogy of the Oppressed" published in 1970. He modeled participatory communication as consisting of five key conceptual inputs. These are dialogue, conscientization, praxis, transformation and critical consciousness.

The mental montage of participatory communication is that type of communication which allows effective participation by all interlocutors to a development project. The parties, partners, or stakeholders are free with equal access to the means of sharing their view points, feelings and experiences without fear, intimidation or any form of perceived restriction due to positional disadvantages.

Conceptual Review

The 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is aimed at transforming our world. The agenda is a plan of action for people, planet and prosperity. It also seeks to strengthen universal partnership for world peace and intends to "leave no one behind," making communication and imperative for its implementation. All countries of the world and other stakeholders are involved making a communication strategy unavoidable. The 17 goals and 169 targets focuses on the three

dimensions of sustainable development: the economic, social and environmental. There is however, a fourth dimension; the spiritual that is missing in the UN's concept of sustainable development and the crafting of the SDGs. The declaration of the sustainable development goals was made as part of the 70th anniversary of the UN at a meeting of Heads of governments in New York held from the25th - 27th of September, 2015 and designated the "New Global Sustainable Development Goals" (UN, 2015, p3). Interestingly, the SDGs are acceptable to all countries and applicable to all irrespective of levels of development.

Goal 1 with five targets and two sub targets desires to end poverty in all its forms everywhere. Extreme poverty is currently measured as people living on less than \$1.25 a day. Goal 2 seeks to end hunger, achieve food security, improve nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture; with five targets and sub targets. Goal 3 having nine targets four sub targets is concerned with ensuring healthy lives and promoting well- being for all and at all ages. Goal 4 relates to ensuring inclusive, equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all while Goal 3 deals with achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls. Goals 4 and 5 have three sub targets each and seven and five targets respectively.

At Goal 6, the UN envisages to ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all. It has six targets and two sub targets. Goal 7 has to ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy foe all with three targets and two sub targets. Goal 8 is into promoting sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all, while Goal 9 tackles building resilient infrastructure, promoting inclusive and sustainable institution and foster innovation. Ten targets and two sub targets are in Goal 8, while five targets and three sub targets are in Goal 9. The last sub target of Goal 9 carries a communication component of "significantly, increasing access to information and communication technology and striving to provide universal and affordable access to the internet...."

The remaining eight SDGs covers the need to reduce inequality within and among countries (Goal 10), make inclusive cities and human settlement (Goal 11), ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns (Goal 12), combat climate change (Goal 13), conserve and sustainably uses oceans(Goal 14) and promote the sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystem(Goal 15) Goals 16 deals with promoting peaceful and inclusive societies while Goal 17 is on strengthening the means of the SDGs implementation and revitalizing the necessary global partnership for sustainable development.

Communication Strategy

According to Ohiagu (2005, p22), writing about communication or its strategy and sustainable development is still growing among African Scholars. It is even contended that though it is a much used phase in the international circles, its understanding is still abysmal in the Africa media circles. Some of the reason included the fact that the communication professionals rarely get opportunities to participate in their own right in the processes of project conception and execution. If at all involved, they are only called to tell the world that such and such project considered to be sustainable has begun, been completed or ready for use. This way of using the communicating variable fit strategic communication and may not require a communication strategy. It is Jeremy in Nwagbara (2010, p32) that said that without communication on sustainable development, the people will lack the means to know the true position of their development, making communication strategy a necessity for both corporate and government agencies, including the Multi-National or Transactional Corporations and the UN.

Communication strategy is a document that specifies direction of the media suitable for a purposive communication demand. It is designed to help a nation, multinational, an organization or a specific project communicate effectively so as to achieve core objective. It may be used to pursue objectives, such as effective stakeholders' engagement, demonstrate the successful application of an idea, ensure understanding of rights, responsibilities and obligations or provoke a change in behaviour, or perception where necessary. Communication strategy can be shaped by culture and taboo, legal and religions values. It can be used to influence the pace of development. This is connected with communication within society. Communication strategy may play out in the diffusion of innovation, for the nature of relationship, the authorities as well as for stabilization of societies.

The public relation expert may at one time be strategic in communicating with his publics but at another time may require a communication strategy. The purpose of developing a communication strategy is to address and solve problems at the grassroots level, utilizing communication and media possibilities (SADC, 2004, p8). Communications strategy is used to amplify the chances of empowerment of the people to participation and own development that has come to them. As a result, a communication strategy must be comprehensive and encompassing into all aspect of the pursuit of development or a project, reaching all the stakeholders to the project. It may have to integrate as many communication infrastructures as are available in a place of development and relevant at the time. To develop an effective strategy, a knowledge about the capacity of the people vis-à-vis the existing communication infrastructure that is available, including extent of professional pool available, need to be in place.

Data concerning the level of mass and indigenous media must be obtained to enable the best approach to the development of the links between partners or stakeholders evolve and be adopted. Moreover, the mass media has been an urban privilege for most developing countries. Whereas majority of the people desired to be served with the SDG goals are in the rural area, most of the mass media infrastructure are in cosmopolitan centres. According to Ithiel (1793,p 39), those who are exposed to the media of mass information, education and entertainment tend to be more disposed to adapt to new ways of doing things and appreciate modern things better than those not exposed.

It must be noted that development requires communication and strategy which can only be obtained based on what is available as infrastructure and not as wishful thinking. With the declaration of the right to development by the UN decades ago, several developing countries has endeavoured to catalogue their overall communication need, and to take stock of their capacities, thus making it easier for strategies to address communication challenges of the immediate future. A communication strategy must anticipate what kind of equipment is available to a country, community, or project area. Equipment for communication is capital intensive and highly specialized commodity which only a few country manufacture. Not only does this reflect on the use of the media available, it also places some tilts on information flow.

For the United Nations Systems (UNS), a communication (or dotcom) strategy may be bilateral or multilateral as a result of cooperation between international institutions of the UN systems or other multi-nationals operating in an area where development efforts of the UN drives. Sometimes, the idea of evolving a communication strategy appears time wasting; as a result, the use of standard and more effective communication strategy takes an adhoc nature, become sporadic and poorly integrated into overall development plans. In some countries, where a strategy should logically be secured with ease giving the preponderance of both the human and material

tools for effective communication, the lack of the political will and a plan that sets the tone for harnessing existing potentials become the barrier. Most times, giving its complex, multi-faceted and pervasive nature, the communication sector is usually most affected by poor allocation of development resources. It is important to note that the emergence of the new media has continued to force development agencies to brace up with changes, such that having a communication strategy is becoming an integral part of development initiatives especially with multinationals, international organizations, corporate groups and agencies of the UN.

Empirical Review

Mujammad (2005) studied the "Prospect of the SDGs in Nigeria". The study set out to assess the lessons learnt from the MDGs with a view to proffering way forward for the achievement of the SDGs targets. The study is based on the review of secondary documents relating to the performance of the MDGs and those of the SDGs. Giving the UN had fronted education for all (1978), Health for all (2000), it came up with the eight point MDGs that lasted from 2000-2015, as the global development agenda. The sustainable development goals followed from the MDGs and keeps the world focused on these goals till 2030. The paper evaluated the performance of the MDGs in Nigeria and highlighted the prospect of the SDGs giving the performance of the nation on the MDGs. Its finding includes that while the international community finds Nigeria to have not done well in the MDGs, the Nigeria government assessed itself otherwise, claiming it did well in meeting the MDGs targets. This is despite, studies showing poor performance revolving around such factors as neglect of pro-poor budget, weak institutions, poor policy implementations, insecurity, inadequate and unreliable data system, lack of human capacity, endemic corruption and indiscipline citizenship as factors that failed the MDGs.

Against this background, the study still foresees the inability of the Nigerian government in making any meaningful progress with achieving the SDGs. The study indicates Nigeria is a already lagging behind, though significance progress has been made in other countries. It recommends the need to ensure inclusive growth and diversification of the economy. This, the researcher suggest should include return to development planning era with appropriate implementation strategies in the short, medium and long term. It also suggests the need for harmonization of all the existing sectorial plans into a single implementable plan. With the various development initiatives tried since 1999 which included, NEEDS/SEED/LEEDS (2003-2002), seven-point agenda(2001-2011), vision 2020, transformation agenda(2011-2015), and others in the praxis of the present administration harmonized, an economic state of emergency may help shake up the needed attention to see the SDGs as relevant for more serious attention as 2030 is fast approaching.

A study on "Human Capital Development as a Strategy for Sustainable Development in the Nigeria Education System way jointly done by Njoku and Onyebula in 2017. The study critically examined how human capital could become a catalyst for sustainable development in the Nigerian educational system. This study relied on secondary data to examine the implication of the concepts of human capital development, sustainable development, quality education and how an interplay between these can result to the realization of the sustainable development goal four in Nigeria's Education System. The study identifies lack of the provision of on-the-job training, un-improved infrastructure and in proper manpower planning as resulting in unemployment and underemployment. It considers that if the SDGs that relate to education has

to be accomplished, this existing condition has to be reversed by deliberate policy and investment by the government and the private sector in education which can lead to human capital development. As recommendation, the proper suggest that the government needed to collaborate with the curricular designers to ensure that studies focus more on training of skilful and independent mind. Moreover, the dimensions to quality education and human development such as equity, contextualization and relevance, child-friendly teaching and learning, sustainability etc. should not neglected, as this will help in raising the quality and sustainability of the educational system in Nigeria.

Echendu (2020) carried out a study on "The Impact of Flooding on Nigeria's SDGs". The paper highlighted the impact flooding has on Nigeria reaching the SDGs and enumerates the specific SDGs. The literature review provided an overview of the relationship between flood in Nigeria and the SDGs. It identified the major causes of Nigeria's flooding problem most of which are man-made and advocates spatial planning as a suitable Flood Risk Management Strategy (FRMS) for the Nigerian environment. The paper identifies specific source of flooding in Nigeria as being the rainfall patterns of a raining season. It noted by examining secondary data on the rainfall pattern over the last three decades and suggests that the intensity of rainfall will increase and flooding incidences will subsequently continue to rise with the attendant consequences. This will affect the implementation of the SDGs. As recommendation, the study indicates that progress can only be made on ensuring sustainability development, when the anthropogenic cause of flood in Nigeria is tackled. This may require reviewing urban and environmental planning, putting necessary flood control infrastructure in place. It further suggested that addressing the flooding menace in Nigeria is essential for the achievement several of the SDGs.

Methodology

The research adopted the descriptive survey design method for the study. The population of the study is 29, 630, 697 based on the 2006 National population census using a 2.5% projected growth rate. The Krejcie and Morgan sampling formula was used to determine the required sample size for the study. As a result, a sample size of 384 respondents was drawn from the population. The study employed questionnaire for data collection.

Results

The questionnaires were analyzed as the following tables reveal the results in the order of the research questions.

Table 1: Response on forms of communication by communities

S/N	Statement	SA	Α	D	SD	Cumulative	Mean	Decision
1.	I know of the SDGs Project in the community	576	318	126	41	1,061	3.0	Agreed
	through personal contact.							

2.	I am aware that the community town-crier announced the project.	488	399	126	36	1,049	2.96	Agreed
3.	Playground or stakeholders meeting were held for the project for which I attended.	472	357	152	41	1,022	2.89	Agreed
4.	The Radio, TV, and Newspaper played a role in the dissemination of Information for this project.	408	417	132	47	1,004	2.84	Agreed
5.	The social media was used to share information on this project.	408	420	213	41	1,082	3.06	Agreed
6.	There are other Internet (ICT) Communication not covered by the above that were used in spreading information in the SDGs projects.	392	426	148	40	1,006	2.84	Agreed
	Aggregate					1,037	2.93	Agreed

Table 1 above reveals that the respondents of the communities agree they were reached with information about the SDGs projects through interpersonal communication with a weighted mean score of 3.00.

Table 2: Response on channels of communications by communities

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD	Cumulative	Mean	Decision
1	My interaction with friends, neighbour	668	387	116	30	1,201	3.1	Agreed
	made me to be aware of this project.							
2.	The community town-crier informed	508	450	156	29	1,143	3.0	Agreed
	people about this project and those							
	doing it.							
3	The community group information	480	501	124	35	1,140	3.0	Agreed
-	channel played a role in the executive of					-,		8
	project.							
4	The mass media (Radio, TV, and	356	477	158	57	1,048	2.72	Agreed
7	Newspaper) were used in	330	7//	150	51	1,040	2.12	Agreed
	communication information on the							
_	project at various time.	206	202	100		1.040	2.71	. 1
5	The social media played a role in	396	393	198	55	1,042	2.71	Agreed
	reaching people on this project.							
6.	I exchanged views about this project	332	327	254	65	978	2.54	Agreed
	through email, phone calls, sms and							
	other forms of internet (ICT)							
	communication.							
	Aggregate					1,092	2.85	Agreed

The data above shows that face-to-face, traditional and group communication channels played major roles in the effort to reach communities with the SDGs projects and in the project communication during execution. Interaction with friends which exposed them to face-to-face channels had the highest weighted mean of 3.1 followed by the others with 3.0 weighted mean each.

Table 3: Response on participating communication by communities

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD	Cumulative	Mean	Decision
1.	It was at the project executive phase that some people were co-opted by the UN agencies/government to work	328	342	272	52	994	2.60	Agree
2	on project. The participatory communication channels used for the project should be reviewed because it did not carry all the along from conception to executive except for influential	284	429	246	47	1,006	2.61	Agreed
3.	persons in the community. Every stage of the project implementation enjoyed some measure of consultation with the	372	310	184	44	910	2.37	Disagreed
4	community. People participated in discussion of the project and contributed in the idea, planning and execution of project.	360	450	174	57	1,041	2.71	Agreed
5.	Meetings for project communication with project partners and community stakeholders held regularly.	348	342	266	50	1,006	2.61	Agreed
6,	There were mutual responsibilities and sufficient feedback channels for project communication.	408	474	172	38	1,092	2.84	Agreed
	Aggregate					1,008	2.62	Agreed

Reading the combined effect of the participation of the communities from the above Table 3, their communication agrees they were involved and participated by way of people being co-opted to work directly as employees or informed with certain benefits at 2.60 and 2.61 respectively. Some of the project had the community consulted.

Table 4: Response on media and message adequacy by communities

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD	Cumulative	Mean	Decision
1.	Understanding the messages on the projects was adequate due to the channel of communication.	356	417	216	48	1,037	2.70	Agreed
2.	Participatory communication was partly hindered by the absence of project channels for project communication within the executive framework.	316	399	250	47	1,012	2.64	Agreed
3.	The way information reached the community was effective and adequate in bringing the people to support the project.	560	378	138	49	1,125	2.93	Agreed

4.	The message for the facility helped	440	462	150	45	1,097	2.86	Agreed
	the SDGs target to be achieved in							
	the community.							
5.	The message on the project only	504	471	146	28	1,149	2.99	Agreed
	improved with the implementation							
	of the project.							
	Aggregate					1,084	2.82	Agreed

The communities' respondents as contained in the Table 4 above agreed that the message were adequate and that the target of the communication messages were reached. The result showed a weighted mean score value of 2.70.

Discussion of Findings

The form of communication the UN used in partnership with Federal State and Local Governments for the implementation of the SDGs activities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

The study of forms of communication was narrowed for scope to interpersonal, group, mass, public and Internet (ICT) related communication. The findings show that the UN used more of interpersonal communication while in some projects she relied more on the mass media. So the ultimate measure of the involvement of the forms of communication takes the order of interpersonal, traditional, group, mass, internet (ICT) related, and then, public communication.

The research discovered that before the crafting of the communication strategies of UN agencies for the implementation of the SDGs, there were in depths stakeholder mapping, relevant media technology audit, elaborate media survey, and SWOT analyses in order to decide on the best form of communication the stakeholders can relate with. As a result the UN communication strategy tilted more towards interpersonal, mass, public, traditional and then group. Other internet (ICT) communication such as phone, sms' and emails came in at 2.81 weighted mean in Table 4.6 above. These forms were at times integrated, used in convergence, or transposed from one mode to another depending on the projects that were executed. The reason being that while mass media is useful for generating awareness, interpersonal communication helped in mobilizing necessary community involvement in the project cycle.

Channels of communication used by UN agencies in the execution of the SDGs projects in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

The importance of using a communication strategy become critical when one comes to the channels of communication. The research discovered that effective communication was not due to the problem of availability of media but capacity to engage the right channels as it related to the stakeholder or communities being reached with SDGs projects information. The research found that the UN used all the channels to reach various categories of stakeholders.

The choice of channel is one area where professionalism of the community focal was an advantage. The myriad of channels required the understanding of the dynamics of the media message mix or integration and also the best form of communication with which to communicate the message.

The extent to which the communication strategy used by the agencies of the UN for the SDGs integrated people participation for project implementation in the states of the Niger Delta.

Apparently, extending and updating the thoughts of Marshall McLuhan that the media could make a global village, the UN believes that communication could make a global community though this later thought of the UN is yet to happen.

While participatory development is aimed at participation, participatory communication is not synonymous with participating in development. The one-way top down media process of passing messages of science, technology and the emerging society of the west was to give way for an alternative paradigm with the people's participation.

The research found that the communities were not much involved in the conception and planning stages. It was at the implementation and monitoring stages that participatory communication was better used. This agreed with the answer the interviewee gave when asked about the extent of the community participation in the project life cycle.

Using a mix of the participatory communication models developed by Shirley White, the Work Bank and Palo Freire, the researcher discovered domestication, assistentialism, consultation which are of what Shirley White designated as pseudo-participation processes as against collaboration, interaction, empowerment or citizen control as what he designated genuine participation in the participatory communication skill of the UN for project implication in the Niger Delta. From the data analysis of the instrument as reflected in Table 3 above it was discovered that the participatory communication implication of the efforts to "have no one left behind" tended towards assistentialism indicated by co-optation at 2.60 weighted mean score. They were not fully consulted at every stage of the project either by information or a benefits as this returned a 2.37 weighted mean score. When it is cooptation and not full consultation, it means that the people were more informed by agencies of the SDGs projects than communicated. This amplifies, another UN assertion that "information is power, while communication empowers" which the people lacked.

The adequacy of the communication channel or media employed by the UN in the implementation of the SDGs projects among Niger Delta inhabitants. From the community perspective and based on our research instrument, the research found that the UN communication strategy studied, reported a 2.70 weighted mean score for adequacy of the media, correspondent to accepting the appropriateness of the media used and 2.6 as to message fitness as shown in Table 4.9. This again supports the fact that agreement that the message was adequate and effective had a 2.93 weighted mean score. In measuring the capacity of the message to help in reaching the people for the realization of the SDGs goals, a weighed mean score of 2.86 measures the extent of the people's agreement. It meant more people agreed it did than those that disagreed it did not, while agreement that the message was partially hindered from achieving SDGs message target record a 2.64 weighted mean score. However, it is important to notice the discovery that the adequacy of the media used to communication specific goals of the SDGs with corresponding projects altered for the Niger Delta Communities involved in the study, the assertion by the United Nations University, Tokyo research, which held that awareness of the SDGs was low among the nations. This is because the existence or completion of projects in these communities though in the rural areas, were, in themselves, messages every day such that by the time of this study awareness of the UN or both UN and the SDGs has passed average in line with the principles of the UN message - media fit, that "everything speaks" or materials; like projects, communicates as long as they stand.

Moreover, the UN believe that the media deployed by the communication plan most time are adequate. In view of the possibilities of changing the communication tactics or plan when realities of the project executive dictates, it is only when other variables in the development equation are not befitting that adequacy of media becomes unable to produce the expected communication outcome of sharing meaning.

Conclusion

It is the discovery of this research that the UN is the foremost organization for the propagating the use of communication strategy for specific projects and a narrower communication plan where necessary to ensure effective communication in project delivery. As a result, they insist on the use of communication strategy for project, a practice that is not yet common for most projects, even of government and most organizations in Africa.

The use of the communication strategies for the implementation of projects of the SDGs in the Niger Delta, proved successful as most of the project were executed with the participation of host communities. However, if the SDGs failed to develop the Niger Delta, it will be because of insufficient development project investment whether by the Agency of the Federal Government in the UN directly.

Moreover the evolution of the media system and technology the research observes has reduced the burden of difficulty in accessing terrain both for communication and development. As at now communication is adequate but implementation of the SDGs is still inadequate in the Niger Delta.

Recommendations

- 1. The UN believes that the purpose of the media is to achieve development and the aim of communication is to transform society. Therefore the commitment to strategic communication for projects should be strengthen by insisting a communication strategy become part of requirement for project delivery and the control. Encouragement of development communication in practical terms by government of member nations of the UN.
- 2. The creation of relevant communities' mass media like community radio so that the monitoring, evaluation and use of project after completion can continue to enjoy the communication required to keep users up to date on state of the facilities and ensure proper uses of these facilities.
- 3. The research recommends that participatory communication be guaranteed from the needs assessment, conception, planning and implementation stages of projects.
- 4. Though the UN system uses adequate media, it is not true that the message along can make communication work. It is our recommendation that a message media fit be established before either message or media is engaged since the purpose of media is to provide an avenue for communication to thrive.

References

Albarran A. B. (2010). The media and communication industries: a 21st century perspective. Ames. IA: Blackwell.

- Alghaith, S (2016). Understanding Kuwait women entrepreneurs and their adoption of social media: A study of gender, diffusion and culture in the middle east. A Dissertation Submitted to department of journalism and media communication. Colorado State University, Retrieved from https/www/dspace.library.colostate. edu 10/09/2020
- Ascroft, J. & Maslela, S. (1994). *Participatory Decision Making in Third World Development. In* S. White with K.S. Nair and J. Ascroft (Eds). Participatory Communication: Walk for Change and Development (pp259=294). New Delhi, S Publications.
- Asemah, E.S., Nwammuo, A.N. & Nkwam-Uwaoma, A.O.A (2017). Theories and models of communication. Jos: Matkol Press
- BacDorin, P. (2000): A History of the concept of sustainable Development: http://www.researchgate.net/publication 24245098.
- Balaswany B. (2006) Communication for Sustainable Development. New Delhi: Concept Publishing Company.
- Baran, J.S. & Davis, D.K (2000). Mass communication theory (7th ed). Belmonth: Wodsworth
- Carpenter N., Lie, R., & Servaes, J. (2002). *Making community Media work in Servaes J* (ed). Approaches to Development Communication, Paris: UNESCO
- Casworth, J.W. & Franks, T. (1993). *Managing Projects in Developing Countries*, Essex, UK: Longman Scientific and Technical.
- Cole, R.D. (2008) *Threads of Development communication in Servaes*, J (Ed): Communication for Development & Social change. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Dansabo, M.T. (2016). Prospects of sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in Nigeria. Paper presented at the Nigeria Anthropological and sociological practitioners Association (NASA) in Kaduna State University, Kaduna.
- David, I.C. (1999). Project management, strategic design and information. New York: Mcgraw-Hill companies inc.
- Dimkpa, A. (2011). Nigeria Mass Media and National Development. Port Harcourt: International Institute of Journalism (unpublished lecture Notes).
- Dogan, F. & Ozluk, D. (2016). *In pursuit of New peace building: peace, security and Development*, https://www.lises.net.
- Imoh, G.O. (2013). Application of Development Community in Africa's Rural Development Need: Need for a paradigm shift. Global Rural of Art and Humanities, Volume 1, No.4, pp.5-33.
- Innis, H.A (1950). Empire and communication. Oxford: University Press.

- Jan, S. & Malikhao P. (2008): Development Communication Approaches in an international perspective in Servaes, J (ed). Communication for Development and Social Change. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Jone, P., Wyan, M., Hilier, D., & Dalphre, P. (2017). The sustainable Development Goals and information and Communication Technologies. *Indonesian journal of sustainable* Accounting and Management. Vol.1, No.1, pp 1-14.
- Katz, E. & Lazarsfield, P. (1955). Personal influence. New York. The Free press
- Kiely, R. & Mar Fleet, P. (1998), Globalization and The Third World. London.
- Klapper, J. (1994). The Effect of Mass communication. New York: Free Press.
- Klarin, T. (2018) The concept of sustainable Development: From its beginning to the contemporary issues. Zagreb International Review of Economic & Business. Vol.21, No 1. PP 67 – 94
- Krejcie, R. V and Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities, educational and psychological measurement, 30, 607-610
- Lerner, D (1958). The passing of a Traditional Society: Modernizing the Middle East. Glencoe, IL: The Free Press.
- Littlejohn, S.W (1999). Theories of human communication. (6th ed) Belmont, CA: Warsworth. Mac Bride, S (1980) (ed). Many voices, one world: Communication and society, today and tomorrow, Paris. UNESCO
- Nwabueze, A.U. & Ozoko, R.E. (2011): Information and Communication Technology for Sustainable Development in Nigeria, Libray Philosophy and practice (e-journal). 600. https://digitalcommons.un/.edu.
- Ochonogor C.I.. (2002). The mass media and the adoption of innovations: imperatives for enhancing Rural Development. A Dissertation submitted to the University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria.
- Ohaja, E.U (2003). Mass communication research and project writing. Lagos. John Lettermann.
- Ohiagu, P. O. (2005). Fundamentals of Advertising and Public Relations; Owerri: Screen Manager Media.
- Ojo, J. (2016). *Imperative of a New Nigeria National Communication Policy*. The Punch Newspaper.
- Ojobor, I. J. (2002): Mass communication Theories in Okunna, S.C(ed): Teaching Mass communication: A Multi-dimensional Approach.

- Omego C.U. & Nwachukwu F.N. (2020) *The foundation of man communication*. Port Harcourt. De Masterz.
- OSAG MDGs (2008): Communication Strategy: Guidance and tactics. Port Harcourt. Serak corporate communication ideas.
- OSAS-SDGs (2018): SDGs Communication Strategy for accelerating the Implementation, Communication and monitory of SDGs in Nigeria. Abuja: Presidency.
- OSSAP-MDGs (2015): Millennium Development Goals: End point Report: Nigeria.
- Rahnema, M (1992). Participation. In W. Sachs, (Ed). The Development Dictionary (pp116-131). London: Zed Books.
- Richman K. E. (2016). A study of the communication strategy of the Egi /total Partnership for sustainable Development in Rivers State. Unpublished MA Thesis. University of Port Harcourt.
- Rogers, E.M (1976) (ed). *Communication and development: critical perspectives*. Beverly Hills. California: SAGE Publications