CRITIQUE OF PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION AS A SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH METHOD

BY

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SUMMARY

The work examined critically the benefits and limitations of participant observation, and offer guidance as to how to manage the challenges inherent in this technique. It discusses the issues and concerns resulting from participant observation. It also examined the historical development of participant observation, different views on the methods/types of participant observation, ethical concerns in participant observation as a problem, then offer guidance on how to manage the challenges. This article is based on the experience of the author while carrying out his doctoral thesis, a year-long participant observation among Saipem Staff, an oil and gas company in Nigeria. The Researcher’s interactions with the culture-bearers went on without any trouble but the more the researcher became integrated in the host community where Saipem Operates, human-relations problems that are hard to ignore arose. Methods adopted in
this work are the use of related literature. Views of different authors were used and critically analyzed in line with how participant observation is done. The researcher concludes that Low literacy rate and peculiarities of social structure of host communities both make the use of participant observation compelling in many cases despite current innovations in qualitative research.

INTRODUCTION

Participant observation has been associated with qualitative methods, as the data collected by this technique tend to be predominantly qualitative. It is a widely used methodology in many disciplines, particularly cultural anthropology, sociology, communication studies, human geography and social psychology. It involves participating in a situation, while, at the same time, recording what is being observed. It is potentially rewarding but presents unique challenges to the researcher. It offers the chance to obtain unique insights into the organisation or social group. Challenges for the researcher include obtaining access and agreeing his/her role within the organisational or social setting. Its aim is to gain a close and intimate familiarity with a given group of individuals (such as a religious, occupational, sub cultural group, or a particular community) and their practices through an intensive involvement with people in their cultural environment,
usually over an extended period of time (Evans-Pritchard 1940:67).
This work critically analyses participant observation, bringing out its pitfalls and then offer recommendations on the suggested best methods. Everett (2018:7) defines participant observation as "observation of people; finding them where they are, staying with them in some role which, while acceptable to them, will allow both intimate observation of certain parts of their behaviour, and reporting it in a way useful to social science but not harmful to those observed. For him, good social observation requires that one be close to people living their lives" and the observer must live his life "and must also report. The problem of maintaining good balance between these roles lies at the very heart of sociology, and indeed of all social sciences. Hughes (2017) regards participant observation not merely one among several, but the paramount method of social study. It first appeared in sociology in the form of social surveys when social surveyors such as Charles Booth in England, Le Play in France and W.L. Thomas and Robert E. Park in the United States went out into the slums to observe the life of the new urban industrial lower classes. The essence of what participant observation as a research method is all about comprised the following: First, the objective is not to impose preconceived categories on the people, behaviour, and interactions that are observed. Rather it is to learn to see the world as it is seen and experienced by the subject of study.
Secondly, in order to be able to do so, the researcher must be perceived as having a legitimate role in the system, though not an authority role. Finally, the method is not "scientific" in that it does not employ" usual methods of measurements and controls
Nell and Errouaki (2017) have it that the quality of results obtained from participant observation during research work depends on the data gathered in the field. The data in turn, depend upon the researcher, his or her level of involvement, and ability to see and visualize things that other individuals visiting the area of study may fail to notice.

An ongoing issue in fieldwork in the social sciences is the dilemma of distance. This dilemma arises from the contrasting stances of the investigator as both the participant and observer (Mays de Perez 2012 and Tedlock 2012). As a participant, the researcher attempts to get as close as possible to the group that he or she is studying to best understand it. Such an intense effort, however, could result in “going native” or triggering reactivity (i.e., changing the setting by being in it). Furthermore, deep involvement may also limit the scope of observation for an alternative view (Bernard 2014:323).

On the other hand, while a detached observer, by maintaining a distance, may have the advantages of greater objectivity, less reactivity, and a broader perspective, he or she is not likely to achieve the quality of observation of a full participant. The richness of the data is likely to suffer (Mintzberg,
2014: 45). A pure observer is “essentially an outsider, a stranger to the field” (Baker 2018:23). In an attempt to overcome the fear of being either too close or not close enough, textbooks on methods typically recommend a balance between observation and participation—the oft-cited participant-observation. In the same vein, Spradley (2018) discusses participant observation in terms of degree of involvement. Likewise, Bernard (2014: 321) makes a case of two possible variations, “observing participant” and “participating observer.” However, none of the combined procedures, including the balanced strategy of “moderate participation” actually avoids the dilemma of distance; they simply shift the conflicting demands onto the researcher—“a tension that many researchers feel within themselves” (Lofland and Lofland 2016:16). Some authors are more pessimistic in arguing that participant-observation is an “oxymoron” or a “paradox” (see Dewalt, Dewalt, and Wayland 2016:263).

All research methodologies have limitations, and each - be it a randomised controlled trial or ethnography - is based on certain assumptions about the world which it seeks to explain or explore.

2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
Participant observation can only do so much for the researcher because the sole presence of the researcher in the field will influence the participants' behaviour. Researchers engaging in this type of qualitative research method must be aware that
participants may act differently or put up a facade that is in accordance to what they believe the researcher is studying. The problem with participant observation which this paper addressed is that once you are in the field, it is difficult to ascertain the point of equilibrium. Consequently, researchers inevitably end up being either a participant-as-observer or an observer-as-participant. As participant-as-observer, the researcher places more centrality on participation than on observation, and as observer-as-participant, more emphasis is placed on observation than on participation (Gold 2017).

This study assesses the benefits and limitations of participant observation, and offer guidance as to how to manage the challenges inherent in this technique. It discusses the issues and concerns resulting from participant observation.

3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
3.1 General Objective
The general objective of the study was to see the benefits and pitfalls of participant observation as research method and offer guidance on how to manage the challenges.

Specific Objectives
- To examine the historical development of participant observation.
- To see different views on the methods/types of participant observation.
- To see ethical concerns in participant observation as a problem.
To critically examine the limitations of participant observation.

To offer guidance on how to manage the challenge

4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
The critical analysis of this work encourages the reader to rethink of the use of participant observation. Its significance is on the fact that other research methods can be used together with participant observation so that objective research findings will be obtainable. There are two main significance of study in this work as stipulated below.

4.1 ACADEMIC SIGNIFICANCE
The academic significance is embedded in the help it renders to students, researchers and lecturers that have the concern to know and research on issues related to limitations and benefits of participant observation. This research takes a broad view of the development of participant observation, types of participant observation, ethical concerns in participant observation, and guidance on how to manage the challenges. Therefore, it will be useful for academic purpose since individuals can have a hand in the work as reference materials during research.

4.2 PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE
It is useful to the general public, research institutes, government, organisations and society at large. It is
also useful because issues that can enhance objective research findings in using participant observation were analysed.

- **Significance to Government**

  It is of great importance in planning and research development. High-quality research of this type can help government solve ethical problems in research and boost research development of the nation.

- **Significance to research institutes**

  This work will bring tremendous improvement in the quest for expertise, competency and objectivity in research organisation. It will be of great help to reduce bias, uncertainties, prejudice, and personal idiosyncrasy in research. Research institute can use this work as inquiry into more research. They can use this work to make further research relating to the problems of participant observation.

- **Significance to NGOs and Individuals**

  This work will serve as a source of reference to Non-governmental organisations who want to write or research on issues related to participant observation.

### 5 METHODOLOGY:

Methods adopted in this work are the use of related literature. Views of different authors were used and critically analyzed in line with how participant observation is done. Historical trend of participant observation was traced. Different critical views of writers/authors were also looked into. On these,
generalizations were then made on how to manage the challenges.

6. HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, (2001) stated that participant observation was used extensively by Frank Hamilton Cushing in his study of the Zuni Indians in the later part of the nineteenth century, followed by the studies of non-Western societies by people such as Bronisław Malinowski, E.E. Evans-Pritchard, and Margaret Mead in the first half of the twentieth century. It emerged as the principal approach to ethnographic research by anthropologists and relied on the cultivation of personal relationships with local informants as a way of learning about a culture, involving both observing and participating in the social life of a group. (Whyte, and William 2017) By living with the cultures they studied, researchers were able to formulate first-hand accounts of their lives and gain novel insights. This same method of study has also been applied to groups within Nigerian society, and is especially successful in the study of sub-cultures or groups sharing a strong sense of identity, where only by taking part may the observer truly get access to the lives of those being studied.

Geertz, C (1984) posited that since the 1980s, some anthropologists and other social scientists have
questioned the degree to which participant observation can give veridical insight into the minds of other people. Glaser, B G., and Anselm L. S (2017) have it that at the same time, a more formalized qualitative research program known as grounded theory, initiated by Glaser and Strauss, began gaining currency within American sociology and related fields such as public health. According to DeWalt, and DeWalt, (2011) in response to these challenges, some ethnographers have refined their methods, either making them more amenable to formal hypothesis-testing and replicability or framing their interpretations within a more carefully considered epistemology. Collier and Malcolm (2017) maintained that the development of participant-observation as a research tool has therefore not been a haphazard process, but instead has practiced a great deal of self-criticism and review. It has as a result become specialized. Sociological field work can be viewed as a subset of methods of participant-observation, as the central questions in that field have to do with how to take a camera into the field, while dealing with such issues as the observer effect.

7   METHOD AND PRACTICE IN PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION
Abu-Lughod (2018) holds that participant observation as research method involves a range of well-defined methods: ranging from informal interviews, direct observation, participation in the life
of the group, collective discussions, analyses of personal documents produced within the group, self-analysis, results from activities undertaken off or online, and life-histories. Marek and Kaminski (2014) opined that although the method is generally characterized as qualitative research, it can (and often does) include quantitative dimensions. They also stated that participant observation is usually undertaken over an extended period of time, ranging from several months to many years, and even generations. An extended research time period means that the researcher is able to obtain more detailed and accurate information about the individuals, community, and/or population under study. A strength of observation and interaction over extended periods of time is that researchers can discover discrepancies between what participants say—and often believe—should happen (the formal system) and what actually does happen.

Howell and Joseph (2017) have it that in participant observation, a researcher's discipline based interests and commitments shape which events he or she considers are important and relevant to the research inquiry. According to Howell and Joseph (2017), the four stages that most participant observation research studies are establishing rapport or getting to know the people, immersing oneself in the field, recording data and observations, and consolidating the information gathered.
### 7.1 Howell and Joseph (2017) 
**Participant Observation Phases**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Observation Phases</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establishing Relationship</td>
<td>Get to know the members, visit the scene before study. It is important to become friends, or at least be accepted in the community, in order to obtain quality data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the Field</td>
<td>Do as the locals do: It is important for the researcher to connect or show a connection with the population in order to be accepted as a member of the community. This form of Relationship establishment is called “talking the talk” and “walking the walk”. Also he mentioned that the researcher must strive to fit in with the population of study through moderation of language and participation. This sets the stage for how well the researcher blends in with the field and the quality of observable events he or she experiences.</td>
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**Recording Observations and Data**

Researchers are encouraged to record their personal thoughts and feelings about the subject of study. They are prompted to think about how their experiences, ethnicity, race, gender, sex, sexual orientation, and other factors might influence their research. Researchers must be aware of these biases and enter the study with no misconceptions about not bringing in any subjectivities into the data collection process.

**Analysing Data**

- **Thematic Analysis**: organising data according to recurrent themes found in interviews or other types of qualitative data collection and
- **Narrative analysis**: categorising information gathered through interviews, finding common themes, and constructing a coherent story from data.


### 7.2 Types of Participant Observation,

Participant observation is not simply showing up at a site and writing things down. On the contrary, participant observation is a complex method that has many components. One of the first things that a researcher or individual must do after deciding to
conduct participant observations to gather data is to decide what kind of participant observer he or she will be using. Five types of participant Observation as proffered by Schwartz and Schwartz (2017) are stated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Participant Observation</th>
<th>Level of Involvement</th>
<th>Limitations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-Participatory</td>
<td>No contact with population or field of study</td>
<td>Unable to build relationships or ask questions as new information comes up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive Participation</td>
<td>Researcher is only in the bystander role</td>
<td>Limits ability to establish rapport and immersing oneself in the field.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Moderate Participation</td>
<td>Researcher maintains a balance between &quot;insider&quot; and &quot;outsider&quot; roles</td>
<td>This allows a good combination of involvement and necessary detachment to remain objective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Participation</td>
<td>Researcher becomes a member of the group by fully embracing skills and customs for the sake of complete comprehension</td>
<td>This method permits the researcher to become more involved in the population. There is a risk of &quot;going native&quot; as the researcher strives for an in-depth understanding of the population studied.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete</td>
<td>Researcher is</td>
<td>There is the risk of losing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participation completely integrated in population of study beforehand (i.e. he or she is already a member of particular population studied) all levels of objectivity, thus risking what is analysed and presented to the public.

**Source:** Schwartz and Schwartz (2017) "Problems in Participant Observation", *American Journal of Sociology* 60 (4).

**8 CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION**

The first criticism is that participant observation, while useful for describing settings or situations, is compromised when it comes to trying to generate theoretical understanding which can help to explain more than just the specific instances observed. One recent proponent of this critique is Hammersley (2012:28) who argues that: commitment to the goal of theoretical description on the part of participant observers had led them to adopt what I call ... the reproduction model. From this point of view, participant observation must simply portray the phenomenon of interest ‘in its own terms’. However, this presumes that there is a single objective description of each phenomenon, and this is not the case: there are multiple, non-contradictory, true descriptions of any phenomenon. How we describe an object depends not just on decisions about what
we believe to be true, but also on judgments about relevance. The latter relies, in turn, on the purposes which the description is to serve. Much the same is true of explanations: what we take to explain a phenomenon depends not just on our ideas about what causes what, but also on the purposes for which the explanation is being developed. Participant observers’ commitment to the reproduction model obscures, from readers and perhaps even from participant observers themselves, the relevance that structure their accounts. As a result, the rationales for those accounts may be incoherent; and wittingly or unwittingly, participant observation may become a vehicle for ideology’.

Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, (2011) stated that participant observation as a research method has a problem of value-laden character of interpretations based on observational studies meaning that it cannot be considered as a scientific technique and must either be abandoned in favour of more rigorous methods such as the survey or experiment, or limited to ‘simple description.

Davidovich (2013) stated that it is not as easy to check out competence and objectivity of a participant observer as it is of a researcher using the usual empirical research methods, such as questionnaire, surveys, scales, or "t" tests, etc. Another check on the researcher's objectivity is the social research system itself which, tends to be conservative and homeostatic. Any findings submitted by a researcher are not likely to be accepted without the most minute
scrutiny for any tendency on the part of the researcher to have "an axe to grind," unconscious bias, or scientific defect. There is a far greater danger that reports will be tempered to make them acceptable rather than that they will be revolutionary and irresponsible. Evered, and Reis Louis (2010) posited that the researcher can become influenced by the group under study so there are chances that his research might be in their favour or prejudiced against them. It also depends where the researcher is overt or covert, the disadvantages will be different for them. If the observer is doing overt participant observation, then the group under study might alter or modify their behaviour accordingly, as people just do not act normal if they know they are being observed. This is known as the Hawthorne Effect. Therefore, the research will be invalid. Moreover, if identity of the researcher is revealed then there could be serious consequences for them. If the researcher is engaged in covert participant observation, then there comes in the problem of ethics as you are deceiving the group by not telling them the true purpose of your research. Data collection can be time consuming and tedious, and can result in the accumulation of large amounts of data. Subjectivity in the data collection and analysis process is considered one of the main disadvantages of participant observation. Bias arises from two sources: the influence of the researcher over participants’ behaviours and the impact of the researcher’s own beliefs. The last part of the
procedure - reporting - can be difficult, as the researcher needs to establish the rigour of the process followed and the validity of the findings (Darke, Shanks & Braodbent, 2008:87).

Dalby, (2010) holds that a major criticism levelled at participant observation is the potential lack of objectivity, as the researcher is not an independent observer, but a participant, and the phenomenon being observed is the subject of research. The notion of participant observer does presuppose a degree of emotional detachment from the subject matter, the clear objective of the researcher being the conduct of the research.

Cavaye, A (2016) in his view holds thus: Inevitably participant observation raises ethical dilemmas: the investigation should not be conducted in a covert manner; informants should be informed of the nature and scope of the investigation. On the other hand, participant observation carries with it the concern that the presence of the investigator may influence the way informants behave. Informants may be suspicious of the researcher and reluctant to participate or be eager to please; they may interject their own impressions and biases etc. The personal relationship between researcher and informants may also influence the interaction (e.g. the researcher may empathise with his/her informants and vice versa). This ought to be taken into consideration when conducting the fieldwork. It is incumbent upon the researcher to build a relationship based on trust,
and collect, analyse and display the evidence objectively.

9 Limitations to Participant Observation (According to Schwartz, and Schwartz)

- The recorded observations about a group of people or events are never going to be the full description. This is due to the selective nature of any type of recordable data process:
  - It is inevitably influenced by researchers' personal beliefs of what is relevant and important.
  - This is also plays out in the analysis of collected data; the researcher's worldview invariably influences how he or she interprets and evaluates the data.

- **Observer-expectancy effect**: The observer-expectancy effect (also called the experimenter-expectancy effect, expectancy bias, observer effect, or experimenter effect) is a form of reactivity in which a researcher's cognitive bias causes them to unconsciously influence the participants of an experiment. It is a significant threat to a study's internal validity in social research work.

- **Observer effect**: One problem encountered throughout participant observation is that the observation may affect the process being observed, resulting in a different outcome than if
the process was unobserved. This is called the observer effect.

- Human sense impressions are subjective and qualitative making them difficult to record or compare. In participant observation, subjective or personal idiosyncrasy is not lacking.

- Senses are limited, and are subject to errors in perception such as optical illusions.

- **Observational paradoxes:** In participant observation the results of observation differ depending on factors which are not important in everyday observation. These are usually illustrated with "participant observation paradoxes" in which an event appears different when observed from two different points of view, seeming to violate "common sense".

- **Observational Bias:** David Freedman (2010) holds that an observational bias occurs because in participant observation, researchers only look where they think they will find positive results, or where it is easy to record observations. This is called the "streetlight effect". Fung, (2016) maintained that human senses during participant observation do not function like a video camcorder, impartially recording all observations. Human perception in participant observation occurs by a complex, unconscious process of abstraction, in which certain details of the research data are noticed and remembered, and the rest forgotten.
• **Confirmation bias** Human observations in social research work using participant observation are biased toward confirming the observer's social expectations and view of the world; we "see what we expect to see" (Shermer, M 2012: 299).

• **Deliberate falsification of results (Cargo cult bias or pathological problem of participant observation):** This is bias in favour of the researcher's favorite observable fact in research; we "see what we want to see". (Kosso, 2011:86) This can happen in the researcher’s good-faith. Researchers can intentionally misinterpret or misjudge results, or even persuade themselves they have seen something they haven't. In this case, all data not acceptable to the researcher may not be included in his research work.

• The greatest difficulty in participant observation is in giving the researcher a legitimate role that could take him into particular place/area/community of study. Scott (2012) considers the legitimisation of the role of the researchers an important issue. He says, "With an increasing number of field studies of formal organisations being carried out, it is important that more attention be given to the role of sociological observer as it functions in this context since this role in part determines the kind and quality of data collected.

## 10 ETHICAL CONCERNS IN PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION AS A PROBLEM
Shipman, Jerry and Aaron (2009) have it that as with any form of research dealing with human subjects, the researcher must ensure the ethical boundaries are never crossed by those conducting the subjects of study. The researcher must have clearly established boundaries before the outset of the study, and have guidelines in place should any issues cross the line of ethical behaviour. One of the issues would be if the researcher is studying a population where illegal activities may occur or when working with minor children. In participant observation, the ethical concern that is most salient is that of informed consent and voluntary participation. Shermer, (2012) stated that there is the issue of deciding to obtain informed consent from every individual in the group of study, obtain the informed consent for participant observation from the person of leadership, or not inform anyone of one’s true purpose in fear of influencing the attitudes of members, thus skewing the observations recorded. The decision is based on the nature of the study and the researcher’s own personal thoughts on the cost-benefit ratio of the situation. Spring and Grimm (2017) posited that participant observation also brings up the issue of voluntary participation in events the researcher observes and records. There may be instances when members do not want to be a part of the study and request that all data collected pertinent to them be removed. In this case, the researcher is obligated to relinquish data that may identify the members in any way.
11 SUMMARY/CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATION

11.1 SUMMARY
Critical examination of the benefits and limitations of participant observation were made in this work. It offered guidance as to how to manage the challenges inherent in this technique. It discussed the issues and concerns resulting from participant observation. It also examined the historical development of participant observation, different views on the methods/types of participant observation, ethical concerns in participant observation as a problem, then offer guidance on how to manage the challenges. Views of different authors were used and critically analyzed in line with how participant observation is done.

11.2 CONCLUSION
We can only conclude that while the method of participant observation has a number of unique advantages, it also gives rise to some serious difficulties. To begin with, it is important not to start with false expectations. Participant observation does not generally yield precise, quantitative results. In contrast to the laboratory method, it is often impossible to control variables. There are no experiments to be performed which can be repeated at will. It has been found that it is best for a participant observer not to have any pre-formed ideas as to the nature of the system he is to study.
But this does not mean that he should be ignorant of the various aids to effective participant observation. On the contrary, many problems can be forestalled if the observer makes it his business to learn the theory and practice of the technique.

11.3 RECOMMENDATIONS
The following recommendations may prove to be helpful.
First, the participant observer should make sure that the nature of his own role is clear to all those with whom he comes into contact. Deception will breed mistrust; the consequences of mistrust are false or distorted conclusions. But while the observer's role should be under-stood by the members of the system, it should not be conspicuous. The less disturbance the observer's presence causes, the better. His role, therefore, should be legitimate in terms of the system under study.
Secondly, it should be understood by the members of the system that the findings of the study will not threaten them. This is especially important if the study is operational and is likely to have immediate application. If possible, the anonymity of the members of the system should be guarded.
Thirdly, bias on the part of the observer, or on the part of the data at his disposal, can be avoided by many of the usual methods. If the observer is otherwise known to be competent, there should be no serious doubts. In any case, a critical examination
of his findings for conscious or unconscious bias provides an effective double-check. Finally, we cannot escape the conclusion that the role of participant observer carries with it a built-in dilemma. The friendships developed while the observer is in the field may easily keep him from being objective; but the motive for "protecting" friends disappears if both observer and subject are assured that anonymity will be preserved. It appears that if participant observation is carried out skilfully, it can become as important to the social sciences as the laboratory method is to the natural sciences.

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JOB SATISFACTION INDICES AS CORRELATES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT OF LIBRARIANS IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN SOUTH-SOUTH, NIGERIA

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SUMMARY

The study examined the relationship between job satisfaction factors, namely nature of work, salary/fringe benefits, promotional opportunities, supervision, interpersonal relations and physical work environment, as well as organisational commitment of librarians in university libraries in South-South, Nigeria. One research question and one hypothesis (posited in null form and tested at 0.05 level of significance) were formulated to guide the study. The study adopted correlational survey design. The entire population of professional librarians in the twelve federal and state-owned university libraries in the South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria was surveyed. Two complementary sets of questionnaire: librarians’ job satisfaction questionnaire and librarians’ organisational commitment questionnaire, both developed by the researcher based on available literature, were used
as instruments for data collection. The instruments were validated by three experts and trial-tested for reliability and the scores obtained were calculated using Cronbach Alpha method. Mean, standard deviation, Pearson-Product Moment Correlation statistics and regression analysis were used to analyse the data collected. The findings of the study indicate that: relationship between nature of work and organisational commitment of librarians in the study area was high positive; relationship between salary/fringe benefits and organizational commitment of libraries was moderate positive; relationship between promotional opportunities and organisational commitment of librarians was low positive; relationship between interpersonal relations and organisational commitment of librarians was high positive; and relationship between physical work environment and organisational commitment of librarians was high positive. The study indicate that overall, there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction variables and organisational commitment of librarians. The implications of the findings are also highlighted. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that: management of Nigerian university libraries should improve the level of librarians’ job satisfaction so as to ensure greater commitment, higher retention and utilisation of available professionals.

INTRODUCTION
The modern day academic library environment is characterized by unprecedented rates of job mobility, transfers and turnover, as employees constantly seek to satisfy their diverse individual demands, leading to growing concerns among organisations about retention of highly skilled and experienced professionals. Ebru (1995) maintains that high job mobility and transfers often occur in harsh economic environment when people experience poor working conditions and receive inadequate monetary compensation.

Ebru (1995) further observes that a situation where a librarian does not receive adequate monetary compensation in the form of salary and benefits to provide the basic needs of his family, he is likely to be frustrated and dissatisfied, and lack of satisfaction may compel him to quit his job in search of a better alternative.

Labour market trends in library and information science have continued to present increased career opportunities for library professionals, as well as recruitment and retention challenges for employing organisations. As a result, research focusing on employee retention in the university library environment has received considerable attention over the past years. Pors and Johannsen (2002) posit that social and psychological factors in the work environment would interplay a pivotal role in recruiting and retaining professionals in workplaces such as university libraries. Unfortunately, shortage of funds is hampering the efforts of university
libraries at recruiting, training, developing and retaining competent library professionals. Inspite of the daunting challenges, university libraries in Nigeria, as indispensable support organs for the actualisation of the four cardinal objectives of the universities (teaching, learning, research and community service), are expected to carry out their statutory mandate of providing essential manpower, material resources, facilities and services.

Generally, they are expected to generate, acquire, organise and disseminate a variety of information resources in both print and non-print formats to cater to the diverse needs of their various patron communities, which comprise students, lecturers, researchers and non-academic staff. To achieve these laudable objectives, university libraries in Nigeria would require a full complement of efficient, vibrant, competent, loyal, committed, highly motivated and satisfied workforces, particularly in the professional cadre. Librarians as information providers in the various academic library environment strive incessantly to maintain high performance standards in information service delivery. The steady influx of electronic (e) resources and facilities, such as the internet, web-based and digital resources, as well as the advent of networked information services in the university library environment has prompted the need for well trained and highly skilled library professionals to adapt to these emerging trends in Information and Communications Technology (ICT).
It can be deduced from the foregoing that the effectiveness and efficiency of the university library as a service-oriented organisation within the university system hinges principally on the quality of its service, which in turn, depends on the attitude of the professionals working in a given library. Research indicates that at work, two job related attitudes exert the greatest potential influence on the quality of service rendered by university libraries. These are: job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Job satisfaction, a multi-faceted work variable, has a variety of definitions in the scholarly literature. Knoops (1995) defines job satisfaction as a person’s general attitude towards his or her job, or towards specific aspects of the job. Spector (1997) posits that for researchers to better understand this job-related attitude, they need to first of all appreciate the complex and interrelated facets or dimensions of job satisfaction. A facet of job satisfaction in this context is any aspect of a job that produces feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997). Similarly, Luthans (1998) opines that job satisfaction represents several job-related attitudes which are most important characteristic of a job which people have affective response. These, according to Luthans are: the work itself, pay, benefits, promotional opportunities, supervision, relationship with co-workers and work environment. It can be inferred that, although job satisfaction is an overall
attitude about the job, a number of factors influence it.

This implies that for a professional librarian working in a university library, for instance, to be satisfied with his or her job, he or she has to be satisfied with the various aspects of the job situation. Organisational commitment, the second work-related variable also has several nuanced definitions in the scholarly literature. Becker, Randall and Riegel (1995) define organisational commitment as an employee’s strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong desire to retain membership of the organisation. The term is also defined as the extent to which an individual employee develops an attachment and feels a sense of allegiance to his or her employer (The Pennsylvania State University, 2011). Meyer and Allen (1997) describe organisational commitment as a multi-dimensional construct comprising three basic components, namely affective, normative and continuance commitment.

Evidence in the literature suggests that job satisfaction has a degree of correlation with organisational commitment. Most researches carried out on the relationship between librarians’ job satisfaction and organisational commitment seem to indicate that if employees are satisfied with their job or aspects of their job, they are more likely to be committed to the job and organisation than if they
are not satisfied. Abdulkarim (2010) found a strong correlation between librarians’ job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and that satisfaction was a reliable predictor of organisational commitment. Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007) also reported a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians.

Similarly, Gowda (2009) describes a satisfied library professional as a productive professional, who not only renders quality service to his or her users, but also ensures commitment to the parent organisation in which he or she is serving. However, several studies have been carried out to establish a correlation between high job satisfaction and organisational commitment, with some of them reporting negative correlations (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992). Hodson and Sullivan (2002) submit that job satisfaction may not necessarily translate to higher organisational commitment, owing to certain critical factors, such as differences in personal characteristics, as well as differences in individuals, values and needs they bring to the job, which may be determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectation.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Employee retention poses a critical challenge for most public institutions in Nigeria, including the university libraries, as they grapple with increasing rates of staff mobility, transfers and turnover.
University libraries in Nigeria commit huge financial resources in recruiting and developing their professional staff through regular training and retraining in order to equip them with requisite knowledge and skills for optimal job performance. Unfortunately, however, these highly trained library professionals are often not retained for considerable length of period in their organisations, as they are often forced to quit their job in search of better alternatives, culminating in low retention of experienced staff, productivity loss, skills transfer, financial losses and massive disruptions in the provision of vital information services, among other undesirable organisational outcomes, while those who are unable to secure alternative jobs elsewhere, and who are compelled by circumstances to remain in their present job often display reduced commitment to their job and organisation.

The pertinent question arising from the foregoing are: what factors are responsible for the declining commitment of Nigerian university library professionals to their job and organisation and the increasing tendency to quit their job? Could it be as a result of the fact that they are not satisfied with their job or certain aspects of their job? The objective of this study was to provide answers to these vital questions as review of literature reveals that very few empirical studies exist which seek to determine librarians’ job satisfaction in relation to their levels of organisational commitment, with most of them concentrating mainly on the antecedents of
job satisfaction and organisational commitment among male and female librarians. Also, most of the studies focused on correlating librarians’ job satisfaction and organisational commitment with their work experience and job status, and only a negligible amount of research effort has been made to examine human and organisational factors in the university library environment that directly contributed to librarians’ job satisfaction in relation to their levels of organisational commitment. The present research effort is a major advance specifically aimed at filling the gap in knowledge as review of literature reveals that no research has so far been carried out on the topic.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The general purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians in universities in South-South, Nigeria.

Specifically, the study sought to:
1. Determine the relationship between nature of work and organisational commitment of librarians.
2. Determine the relationship between salary/fringe benefits and organisational commitment of librarians.
3. Asscertain the relationship between promotional opportunities and organisational commitment of librarians.
4. Ascertain the relationship between supervision and organisational commitment of librarians.
5. Find out the relationship between interpersonal relations and organisational commitment of librarians.
6. Find out the relationship between physical work environment and organisational commitment of librarians.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

The following research question was formulated to guide the study:

1. What is the relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians?

**RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS**

The following research hypothesis, posited in null form, was formulated to guide the study and tested at 0.05 level of significance:

There is no significant relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians.

**METHODOLOGY**

Correlational research design was adopted for the study. Correlational research design seeks to measure the strength and direction of relationship or the degree of association existing between two or more variables (Nworgu, 2006; Kalu, Ogbuabor and Ajaero, 2015). This method has been adopted for the present study because it allows the researcher to
study how several variables, either singly, or in combination might affect a particular pattern of behaviour.

**POPULATION OF THE STUDY**

The population consisted of the entire professional librarians in the twelve federal and state-owned university libraries located in the six states that make up the South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria.

**SAMPLE**

The entire 226 librarians serving in the twelve university libraries that make up the South-South Zone of Nigeria were surveyed, thus, there was no sampling.

**INSTRUMENT FOR DATA COLLECTION**

Two complementary sets of questionnaire: Librarians’ Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and Librarians’ Organisational Commitment Questionnaire, developed by the researcher based on available literature, were used for data collection. Librarians’ Job Satisfaction Questionnaire contained 33 items on a 4-point rating scale of Completely Satisfied (CS), Satisfied (S), Dissatisfied (D) and Completely Dissatisfied (CD), while Librarians’ Organisational Commitment Questionnaire contained 16 items on a 4-point rating scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD).
VALIDATION AND RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENT

The questionnaire was subjected to face validation by three experts – two from the Department of Library and Information Science, and one in Measurement and Evaluation, Department of Science Education, all from the Faculty of Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. The validated instrument was trial-tested for reliability on 20 librarians drawn from the University of Education, Port-Harcourt, Nigeria who did not constitute part of the present study. The scores obtained from the trial-testing were calculated using Cronbach Alpha method to determine the internal consistency of the items contained in the questionnaire. The value for each cluster is as follows:
Cluster A = 0.86
Cluster B = 0.66

While analysis of the data yielded overall reliability coefficient value of 0.87, and was considered high and reliable enough for the present study.

METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Pearson-Product Moment Correlation statistics was used to analyse the data collected for the study. To determine the relationship between the variables of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of librarians, the following guidelines by Otu and Eseadi (2015) was used:
Correlation Coefficient | Interpretation for Correlation Coefficient
---|---
0.81 – 1.00 | Very high relationship
0.61 – 0.80 | High relationship
0.41 – 0.60 | Moderate relationship
0.21 – 0.40 | Low relationship
0.00 – 0.20 | Very low relationship

Regression statistics was used to test the hypothesis at 0.05 level of significance. The decision rule for testing the hypothesis was to reject the null hypothesis if the exact probability value (p-value) was less than a priori probability value (at 0.05 level of significance).

**RESULTS**

The results of the study collected and analysed are presented according to the research question and hypothesis that were formulated for the study.

**Research Question:**
What is the relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians?

**Table I:** Pearson correlation analysis of the relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians (n=226).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>r-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Nature of Work</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>High positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Salary / Fringe Benefits</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>Moderate positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Promotional Opportunities</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>Low positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>Moderate positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Interpersonal Relations</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>High positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Physical Work Environment</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>High positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table I above, it is observed that the relationship between nature of work and organisational commitment of librarians is high positive; relationship between salary/ fringe benefits and organisational commitment of librarians is
moderate positive; relationship between promotional opportunities and organisational commitment of librarians is low positive; relationship between supervision and organisational commitment of librarians is moderate positive; relationship between interpersonal relations and organisational commitment of librarians is high positive; and relationship between physical work environment and organisational commitment of librarians is high positive.

**Hypothesis I** further address the research question: There is no significant relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians.

**Table II:** Regression analysis showing the relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Ss</th>
<th>d.f</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>7.015</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.015</td>
<td>109.187</td>
<td>.000&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>14.391</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>572</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21.40</td>
<td>225</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Predictors: (constant), job satisfaction; dependent variable: organisational commitment. The results in Table 2 above indicate the overall relationship between job satisfaction and
organisational commitment of librarians: \( R^2 = .33, F (1,224) = 109.19, B = .57, p < 0.5. \) Since the exact probability value (.000) is less than the a priori probability value (0.05), the null hypothesis, which states that there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction indices and organisational commitment of librarians, is rejected. The \( R^2 \) value of .33 shows that job satisfaction accounts for 33% of the variance in organisational commitment. The Beta (B) weighing of .57 confirms that for every standard deviation unit change in job satisfaction, organisational commitment will rise by .57 (57%).

**DISCUSSIONS**

The results of the study indicate a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction indices of nature of work, salary and fringe benefits, promotional opportunities, supervision, interpersonal relations, physical work environment and organisational commitment of librarians in South-South, Nigeria. These results are consistent with the findings of Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007), Ekere (2010), as well as Allen and Meyer (1997), which reported strong positive relationships between job satisfaction variables and organisational commitment of librarians. The findings also corroborate the findings of Abdulkarim (2010), which revealed a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of librarians.

**IMPLICATIONS**
The positive associations observed between variables of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of librarians suggest that respondents who are satisfied with the various aspects or dimensions of the job seem to feel more emotionally attached and involved with their respective organisations. It also implies that job satisfaction was a major determinant, as well as predictor of organisational commitment of librarians.

RECOMMENDATIONS
Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:
1. There is need for improvement in job content through provision of a variety of challenging and meaningful tasks, as well as effective job assignment and work design with a view to increasing organisational commitment and enhancing employee retention.
2. In order to create a work environment that encourages people to maintain a longer tenure in their respective organisations, there is need to review regularly existing conditions of service that will not only result in retention of highly skilled and experienced library professionals, but also prove useful in the attraction, selection, placement and development of new competent professionals.
3. There should be excellent prospects for library employees of all cadres to advance regularly on the job in order to accord them a sense
of belonging and sustain their desire to retain membership of the organisation.

CONCLUSION

The results of the study indicate that librarians in the study area are satisfied with their job and the various aspects of their job. The positive correlation between indices of job satisfaction and organisational commitment underscores the fact that job satisfaction was a reliable predictor of organisational commitment of librarians in Nigerian university libraries. It is also an indication that librarians value certain conditions of work, and if these conditions are evident or congruent with individuals' own needs and expectations, they will be more satisfied and committed, and less likely to leave the organisation.

Overall, the study could make important contribution to the extant research in library management and organisational behaviour, and the perspectives gained from observing the relationship between specific job satisfaction factors and organisational commitment of librarians would prove immensely useful in the attraction, selection, placement, development, remuneration, retention and utilisation of highly skilled library professionals in Nigerian university libraries.
REFERENCES


TOWARDS OVERCOMING THREATS TO MONUMENTS AND SITES PRESERVATION IN NIGERIA

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SUMMARY

World Heritage Day was usually set aside to remind the World of the value of historical monuments and sites, and the need to preserve them for now and for posterity. There is abysmal destruction of monuments and sites in Africa and in Nigeria in particular. However, there are several factors that encouraged the destruction of these historic valuables. The most common factor is urbanization, which no doubt ushered in economic development and benefits that enhanced the well-being of the citizenry. The paper believes that most of these destructions could have been avoided if there were adequate planning on ground by the government and the town planning officials. Religion and its belief system and most especially the influence of ISIS in Syria and Iraq as another factor militating against the preservation of monuments and sites in Nigeria. The paper recommends outright disregard for the
impediments and improve monuments and sites for future generation.

INTRODUCTION

Foreign countries came into Third World with religion and different beliefs which spurred the wanton destructions of monuments, sites and artifacts. These days not only christian missionaries, but Islamic system for example in Iraq and Syria (ISIS) destroy cultural monuments, sites and artifacts. The paper which looked at some of the activities of the Christian missionaries, found that they were not all about destructions, they provided infrastructures as well, like schools and hospitals. The area of destructions of African traditional religion and some cultural institutions by Christian missionaries were mainly through ignorance, a people must have their way of life. Consequently upon this, Willett (1967), a foremost scholar in history of art in Nigeria has written that some Christian missionaries even up to the present day have been culpably ignorant of indigenous African religious. Therefore, in attempting to undermine them they have often attacked the sculptures which gave expression to their ideas, in the mistaken belief that they were idols and objects of worship. Blamires (1988) has argued that “engaging in secular (Worldly material) activities does not make anyone a secularist (Worldly person), an exponent or adherent of secularism as a philosophy, a worldview, is a different matter.
The paper in line with the position of Blamires, that engaging in secular activities does not make a person a secularist, some people sometimes mask themselves, and become masquerades (a play) just for the fun and the joy of it. In spite of the looting of Benin artifacts in 1897 which was a great loss to the people of Benin and to the country Nigeria and which Britain treasured surprisingly up till today some people are still brain-washed to believe that these art objects are fetish. This paper’s opinion is that cultural objects and artifacts of any kind should be seen as important monuments and sites preserved for historical and aesthetic purpose. The paper recalls that the Wanton destruction of cultural and religious objects is a repetition of the Byzantine iconoclasm. Cormack (2000) observed that there were two periods of iconoclasm or image destruction in the Byzantine Empire, in the mid eighth and ninth centuries. The arguments of the iconoclasts remain rather obscure as almost all their writings were destroyed after the “Triumph of Orthodoxy”. The Byzantine period believed that images were idolatry, as the present religious groups believe they are idolatrous today.

Opoku (2015) states that churches supported the establishment of colonial regimes, especially through the destruction of societal, cultural and religious systems in Africa. Currently racist and imperialist views about African cultures inform the justification of keeping artifacts that missionaries looted from Africa to create collections and museums
in Europe. However, the paper argues that it was not all protestant groups that were hostile to the use of religious images. Martin Luther taught about the importance of images as tools for instruction and aid to devotion, stating: “If it is not a sin but good to have the image of Christ in the heart, why should it be a sin to have it in my eyes” (Naake, 2006).

Researches reveal that J. Gresham Machen (1881-1937) posed the key question in the controversy: “Are Christianity and Culture in conflict that is to be settled only by the destruction of one or the other of the contending forces”. He followed with his own response to the question: A third solution, fortunately, is possible, consecration. Instead of destroying the arts and science or being indifferent to them, let us cultivate them with all the enthusiasm of the humanist, but at the same time consecrate them to the services of our God (The Princeton Theological Review 1913). The Benin loot of 1897, is no longer news. This bears testimony to the rate and extent of loss Nigeria incurred till today by those who pretend not to value such artifact.

The Benin loots the exact number of the pieces is uncertain, but most sources speak of a thousand pieces or several thousand pieces. According to Nevadomsky (1994) there were between 3,000 and 5,000 pieces in total. Plundering of Nigeria’s artifacts is also supported by Dark (1982) an anthropologist who stated in 1970 that over 6,500 Benin artifacts were outside the territory of Nigeria in 77 Museums and collections in Europe and America.
It is observed that with modernity, Christians appear more liberal now and see themselves as progressive and insist that reformation and not destruction is more acceptable solution to artifacts in Nigeria. They realize that reformation is the key to the dispute over supremacy and legitimacy between Christianity and Culture of the land. This set of Postmodern Christians, insist that religion and clean culture can and must be encouraged to exist side by side in harmony, especially as the Europe based, the Born-again Christians and the Christian missionaries who introduced them to Christianity did not become religious fanatics.

The paper reasons that, these same missionaries had looted artifacts from Africa and Nigeria and other countries and preserved them in the Vatican museum and other museums and collections for aesthetic and not for idol worship. They looted the artifacts while making the Africans to believe the objects are of no value.

In all these arguments, Catholic Church is always a very strong advocate on the use of sacred images. The church has always defended the use of sacred images in churches, shrines and homes, encouraging their veneration but condemning anyone who would worship them as if they were gods themselves. There is an article titled “Vatican owes Africa the truth”, written by Opoku. (1915). In this article Pope Pius XI, in 1925 organized a missionary exhibition extolling works all over the non-Western world. In the exhibition about 100,000
items were exhibited, but only half the number were returned. The paper is concerned with the non-return of all the items to the owner countries.

What types of artifacts were returned after that exhibition? Did those returned meet or did not meet the standard the curators want? As observed by Opoku (2015), Catholic Church from it very beginning has had and continues to have respect towards all cultures around the world. The sentiment here is reciprocal:

“"It is not by chance that the majority of works held in the Ethnological Museum are the result of donations to the pontiff throughout the centuries by people belonging to the most diverse cultures and religious, from anonymous Australian Aborigines to famous heads of states” (Opoku, 2015).

“"It is seen that Vatican Museum Ethnological collection is a complex and refined works reflecting the complexity and refinement of the cultures of the entire world, and the respect that the Catholic Church has for cultures”. Kwame Opoku states the short account of the history of the Vatican Ethnological Museum.

The wish to culturally reconnect the objects with the peoples who donated them in the past, ideally closing a circle, means exactly the wish to give a voice to every people and culture on Earth the
wealth of works held in the Ethnological Museum (Opoku, 2015).

The paper argues that if indeed these objects are fetish, why are they prominent in European public, private museums and homes of art collectors. It was based on this unanswered question that some Africans especially those that are widely traveled and who saw the display of these artifacts become apprehensive. They saw the need to stop further trading on African artifacts, mostly those that are in the museums already. The UNESCO in 1995 in its resolutions supported the stoppage of illegal trading on antiquities from any country, especially from member countries.

Okeefe (2000) restates the UNESCO convention, which was re-enacted currently in 2012 which 33 member states are party to the 1995 convention. The convention reaffirms prohibition, prevention of illicit import, export and illegal transfer of ownership of cultural resources. The agreement of the convention does not mean that states who are not yet party to the convention disagree with its position.

**Heritage for Generation:** World Heritage Day is celebrated yearly on every 18th of April, the theme for the 2018 celebration was tagged “Heritage for Generation”. As a precept, it is important to understand these two words, “Generation” and “Monuments”. Merriam-Webster (2015) an on-line Dictionary defines “Generation” as a group of people
living during the same time. The paper believes that there is no generation that exists without leaving behind legacies in culture, tradition, artifacts, monuments and sites for a successive generation. These heritage products are those inherited, preserved, and others are those produced by them in their time, and to pass them to the next generation. The meaning of the word “Monument” is a structure built for commemorative or symbolic reasons, or as a memorial. It can be seen as an important site owned by the community as a whole. The paper approaches this theme under this sub-titles:

**Theoretical Framework**

**Sustainable Development and Monuments Conservation:** The paper views sustainable development and conservation of monuments here theoretically in terms of developing environment without destroying it cultural resources for present and future generations. Development of towns and cities most often lead to destruction of monuments and sites. The relocation or replacement of monument is acceptable, if it is man-made-monuments such as sculpture, architecture and the like. The destruction of natural heritage is a loss and irreplaceable forever, therefore, there is need to be cautious and have alternative plan to avert unacceptable destruction of monuments. In many towns and cities, the threat of urban degradation requires a physical and economic restructuring. In the end, the situation is often at the detriment of the
cultural heritage being pulled down and destroyed. Despite the many debates in this situation, so far no uniformly acceptable urban development paradigm has emerged. While it is generally acknowledged that urban development means the creation of new assets in terms of physical, social and economic structures, it should be borne in mind that each development process often ends up destroying traditional, physical, local and cultural assets derived from our common heritage. The paper advised that for avoidance of this conflict and destructions, it is pertinent for the management of National Museum and Monument in all the States of the federation to partner with the state developers and have a common plan of action so as to avert unnecessary destruction of monuments and sites. A people or race is distinguished or recognized by the culture and tradition, Any history about a race that is not supported by artifacts or monuments is hard to believe, therefore it is important to preserve our way of life for posterity.

The Role of Museum in Preservation: Museum preserves cultural, archaeological and artistic heritage. Uwah (2017) defined museum as a place for preservation and exhumation of hidden facts of the past and present for further development of humanity through researchable idea derivable from it. There are various definitions of museum by different scholars, but the most commonly acceptable definition of museum is that promulgated by the International Council of Museums (ICOM);
which defines museum as a non-profit making institution in the service of society and its development, and open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates, and exhibits for purposes of study, education and enjoyment, material evidence of people and their environment.

**The Place of Museum in Preservation of Monuments and Sites:** Museums can assist in the preservation of archaeological sites and monuments; by helping to preserve them in-situ or by preserving the records of their investigation ex-situ and by promoting the preservation and appreciation of archaeological site through their displays. The philosophy of in-situ preservation is by protecting the sites from depredation in this case, it is preserved for future generations. As a result of their importance, archaeological resources management philosophy is seeing the option of preserving site in-situ as the preferred mitigation strategy in the face of urban development pressures. The yearly celebration in support of protecting the monuments for today and for the future generations was well thought of.

**What is National Monument:**

National monument is defined in section 2 of the National Monuments Act (1930) as “the preservation of which is a matter of National Importance by reason of the historical, architectural, traditional, artistic or archaeological interest attached
thereto, Code of arms and the National flag of Nigeria are examples.

In Nigeria in the year 2013, the Director General of National Commission for Museums and Monuments (NCMM), Malam Yusuf-Abdallah in Dutse, Jigawa state, said the commission had listed 100 new monuments and sites across the country. The commission proposed 18 national monuments in the North West Geo-cultural zone. 6 of the monuments were proposed in Kano State, 4 in Kaduna, 3 in Katsina State, 2 in Sokoto State and 1 in Jigawa, Kebbi and Zamfara respectively. As in the year 2013, Nigeria had a total of 65 declared national monuments in 23 States of the Federation of Nigeria. Let us look at some of the monuments and sites in Akwa Ibom State.

**Akwa Ibom State Monuments and Sites:**

In the spirit of the 2018 “World Heritage Day Celebration2”, let us look at some monuments and sites in Akwa Ibom State:

1. The Mary Slessor Memorial erected stones and the Slave Master’s lodge in Use Ikot Oku in Ibiono Ibom Local Government Area.
2. Amalgamation House which now serves as Administrative Office for Ikot Abasi Local Government Area.
3. The Cenotaph of the women of 1929 and the Hall of Fame built in remembrance of those brave women who died in the struggle resisting imposition of taxes on the women in
1929 by the colonial masters, all in Ikot Abasi Local Government Area.

(4) Keith Nicklin’s Monument, (a man who reconstructed the Qron Museum).

(5) The Ibom Connection and Plaza, the Akwa Ibom State Sport Stadium, the E-library, and Akwa International Airport, and many other Monuments in Uyo Local Government Area.

(6) The Obio Ubium Heritage Grove and Shrine was recently declared by National Commission for Museum and Monuments (NCMM) in Nsit Ubium Local Government Area. In Akwa Ibom State, there are many undeclared monuments and sites, with the yearly celebrations those sites will be documented and declared.

The World Heritage Day is celebrated yearly to commemorate the historical monuments and sites and use the occasion to preserve and protect these monuments and sites for now and for the future generation. Nigeria up till now many people, may not see the need to remember mere sculptures personified, or architectural edifice or a certain square or grove in the communities. It sounds ridiculously right? But by recognizing and marking these important monuments and it sites it stands to remind us of our origin, our struggles, our past involvements and contributions to the successes of recreating our environments.

As a matter of semantics, museum is doing the same thing that monumental images or objects do. This is so as both preserve history for posterity.
Museum contains artifacts of various types and records of documents which are preserved in confined houses and spaces, whereas most monuments are found on their natural sites which are in the public view day and night.

These monuments are exposed to hazardous weather conditions and needed retouching at least once in a year. Yearly celebration creates an opportunity for them to wear a new look. In the cause of the celebration, the monuments are visited and showcased to be public in their best aesthetic condition.

During this yearly celebration there is bound to be cross fertilization of ideas and new methods of conservation and preservation.

- Organizing debates for school children as well as cultural and art exhibitions
- Create awareness on the need to preserve cultural objects.
- Creating awareness for tourism and its potentials.

Tourism is a new market that the world is exploring and it helps in boosting any country’s GDP. In 2005 Israel received a total of 1.9 million international visitors, in 2015 a total of 3.1 million tourists visited Israel, (Umana, 2010), This report is credited to Israel Central Bureau of Statistics by Michael Bachnor (2015). The minister of tourism Yariv Levin announces the successes in Israel tourism sector, he says in 2017 a total of 3.6 million
tourists visited the country leading to 20 billion dollars revenue earnings. There is another thinking that contrary to the belief that urbanization and religion destroy the monument sites, urban facilities such as good road, hotels and industries, increased cultural awareness should lead to the discovery and sighting of monuments in more areas. True awareness based on the knowledge of the usefulness of museum, monuments for cultural preservation of the people will not be against religious values.

Conclusion
Development should entail preservation of artifacts that are valuable to Nigeria because generation shall cherish them. Again, let everyone be involved in the search for possible discovery of new monuments or sites, such discoveries should be made known to the State museum. Zealous Christians should be enlightened to stop destruction of artifacts and cultural resources in Nigeria, they should borrow a leaf from foreign missionaries who preserved artifacts in museums and homes.

Recommendations
The paper outlines these few recommendations deemed expedient for preservation, protection and sustainability of monuments and sites in Nigeria.
- Do not paste or placed any advertorial materials on monuments it will deface them.
Do not channel any waste of any kind to block heritage sites.

Museum staff should have constant check on monuments and site to forestall their abuse.

Government should put in place laws to protect these monuments

All local government in all the States should support as well as invest in their museum.

Regulars exhibitions for the public awareness and to keep the museum lively, its stocks, monuments and sites in good condition

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YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AND EMPOWERMENT AS PANACEA FOR FIGHT AGAINST CRIME AND CRIME PREVENTION IN NIGERIA.

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SUMMARY
Youth development and empowerment is a panacea to winning the fight against crime in the society. The study adopted library method. The study made use of role theory as the framework. The outcome of the study indicate that the crime situation is on the increase, the increase is not caused by lack of facility but because the formal and traditional
machineries have often focused on short-term solutions. It is important to note that conflict promotes disorder and jeopardizes the effort to combat poverty, hence it should be prevented. It is globally acknowledged that underdevelopment, poverty, and violent conflict, crime and insecurity reinforce each other. In order to provide support for development in Nigeria, there is an urgent need for a paradigm shift in favour of youths’ involvements in conflict resolution programmes. The paper recommends among other things the improvement on human security, which is all embracing.

**INTRODUCTION**

Globally, crime and criminal activities particularly amongst the youths seem to be a permanent feature. It varies from society to society while advancing in degree and means of operation as time changes. Crime ranges from robbery, thuggery, illegal possession and sales of illegal drugs, cyber-crime, human and drug trafficking and money laundering among others prescribed by law (Jacob, 2017).

Sociologists and other philosophers are greatly concerned with finding answers to the questions: why do things happen the way they do? How did it happen? And when did it happen? And how is it going to be controlled from further occurrence? The likes of Auguste Comte for example saw society from his own lens as a type of organism having biological structures and functions.
Similarly, Herbert Spencer also saw society as an organism and noted specifically that:
(a) Both society and organisms can be distinguished from inorganic matter, since both grow and develop.
(b) In society as in organisms, an increase in size means an increase in complexity and differentiation.
(c) In both, a progressive differentiation in structure is accompanied by a differentiation in function.
(d) In both, parts of the whole are interdependent with a change in one part affecting other parts.
(e) In both, such part of the whole is also a micro-society or organism of itself.
(f) In both societies and organisms, the life of the whole can be destroyed but the parts will live on for a while.

The functionalist’s perspective conceives society as an organism. The conception as such presents us with the following assumptions:
1. Social reality is visualized as a system.
2. The process of a system can only be understood in terms of the inter-relatedness of its parts.
3. Like an organism, system is bounded, with certain processes operating to maintain both its integrity and its boundaries. The society as a bounded system is self-regulating, tending toward homeostasis and equilibrium.
As a self-maintaining system, similar to an organism, society has certain basic or requisite functions/goals which must be met if survival is to be ensured, if homeostasis is to be preserved, or if equilibrium is to be maintained.

The scientific analysis of society should therefore focus on the function of parts in meeting system needs; this must ensure certain structural existence in order to ensure survival homeostasis/equilibrium (Akpan, 2006).

**Youth and Development**

The need for youth to contribute to the socio-political and economic life of the nation state is not in doubt. The transformation of any society from lower standard of living to a higher one is demanding and thought provoking. The youth of Nigeria needs support for them to come to terms with themselves first. This is an important aspect of development; without self-realization every other development will not stand. This self-realization has been the priority of government through education. The effective utilization of all the available resources, which also includes human resources, the free and compulsory education in the state is a step at the right direction. However, some of the modifications introduced by the present government should be reconsidered in line with its original mandate.

The development of human resources in the development process plays vital roles in the overall actualization of the general dream. The people must
be given a foundation that guarantees hope, tolerance and direction to a dream, which makes individuals to pay the ultimate price for nation building. The special position of human resources in the development process is due to its unique role in the society (Essien, 2005). Every development process takes human beings to plot the actual direction of development and also involves the ability to harness and deploy other resources like capital and technological feats necessary for the actualization of the task (Essien, 2005).

Similarly, the human resources are necessary for the effective distribution and supplies of the technological know-how needed in the society. The ability to develop the human capital provides the needed capacity for the production of goods and services. The human development also guarantees that the socio-political atmosphere will be conducive for sustainable development to thrive. It is therefore important to note that the future of the Nigerian nation is in our youth; to ignore youth development is a great impediment to the security of the society at large.

The following should be considered with respect to youth development:

(a) **Beliefs**

“The quality of the human resource elements manifests in the nature of production, distribution and consumption of goods and services” (Essien, 2005:240). Youth development involves the capacity
or ability to function effectively in production of goods and services. This involves those involved in the distribution and consumption process. The major problem of the Nigerian society today is that most of the youth are in the habit of consuming rather than producing and distribution of services. They prefer to be called Personal Assistants than to do any other thing that will generate wealth, nor idea of savings and reinvestments.

Furthermore, for the youths to take their rightful position, they must receive relevant training, not accidental but purposeful, such strategic training will generate effective capacity building which will also give rise to development oriented behaviours in the lives of the youths.

(b) Capacity Building and Youth Development

All through life and societies, it has been discovered that lack of capacity building can never guarantee a glorious future. Any society that neglects the capacity building of its citizens, cannot guarantee the succeeding generation. Capacity building is always based on skills that are transferable, skills that can be learnt and taught; this will involve government taking action which will promote youth capacity building and development, by sponsoring the training of youths in relevant areas within and outside the shores of the country.

It is pertinent to note that it is right that every youth development effort should begin with capacity building through formal and non-formal education.
This is not just based on schooling but it is also based on acquiring new skills and competencies, it is wrong for any young person, not to have good knowledge of computer. The skills will permit the youth to know what business to start and how to manage them to grow and expand. It also involves knowing how to relate with the environment for effective growth and sustainability (Essien, 2005).

(c) Economic Security and Youth Development

Employment that guarantees good income serves as economic empowerment and socio-political empowerment. According to Klassen (2002), gender inequality in education undermines development of the youth since it affects them directly by lowering their human capital development and growth. He maintained that equal right to education will advance economic prosperity and efficiency; promote other essential developmental goals, like lowering both fertility and death rate. This underscores the need to have youths with needed skills in the society. It is also important to note that youth skill acquisition can be done at different levels depending on the focus of the societal needs.

Ubangha (2000) recommended rational and positive self-statements, which includes the following:
(a) I can make it (dakkada philosophies, emphasis mine)
(b) I am the architect of my future
(c) Although the past is important, the present could be changed.

(d) There is no truth except in action (Faith without work is dead, (Hebrews 11:6, emphasis mine).

(e) Calculated risks are worth taking.

The points above indicate that getting a positive and a proactive attitude to life is necessary pre-requisite to effective participation in socio-political and economic arena. Empowerment must therefore, start from within. “Apart from developing a general positive orientation, it is also important to curb extreme and self defeating individuality (Essien, 2005:245).

(d) Empowerment and Youth Development

It is pertinent to note that there is a limit to how an individual youth personal empowerment and development can go. (a tree cannot make a forest (eto idagha ikpong ikappa akai the Ibibio translation). Therefore, raising capital through personal savings or loans or raising money from relatives and friends are limited. The ability to develop cooperative ideologies could be an added advantage (Osusu). (Akpan 2012)

Across the world, youths have been in the forefront of promoting positive changes, in such societies, they depend so much on youths that are psychologically ready and who are also determined to impact their society. However, such psychological readiness and determination must be able to attract
necessary support necessary for the actualization of the set goals.

The youths in Nigeria face the challenges of raising investment funds for a smooth take off in their chosen careers/entrepreneurs. This is where the issue of partnership is needed seriously. Similarly, another impediment to youth development and empowerment has to do with securing collateral requirements, such conditions contributes to death of vision, some of the commercial banks demands for interest rates that cannot support the survival of the established businesses. Youth should also form groups that can pool their resources together. Crime is rampant among the youth who constitute the vast majority of the unemployed in the society (Jacob, 2017). The unemployment rate accounts for people actively looking for job and are willing to work but there is no job. National Bureau of Statistics (2016 in Jacob, 2017) shows that the national unemployment rate in Nigeria has risen to 13.9% in the third quarter of 2016 as compared to 13.3% previously recorded. This rise is believed to be the highest since 2009 as the number of unemployed rose. The unemployment rate was highest for persons in the labour force between the ages of 15 – 24 (24%) while persons between 25 – 35 years was 20.5%, this shows that over 80 million representing over 60% of the total population of the country are youths (unemployed/underemployed).

It is imperative to note that youth empowerment in politics and economy is desirable
for economic growth and development. It is crucial to note that one of the basic development and empowerment processes is education. Education is the master key to freedom from crime prone society. This is because, it bestows upon individuals the required skills and technological know-how to survive in the modern economy.

Any plan of development or empowerment must begin with the grassroots youths, who form the significant majority of the youth population in the country. The collective empowerment of Nigerian youth will energize and promote positive economic recovery and a secured environment. The promotion of education both in formal and informal setting will plant an enduring seed of development and empowerment in the lives of the youths. The planting of such seeds demands faith in the future and the ability of the adult population to live by example. This supports the biblical assertion, which says, we reap what we sow (Galatians 6:7).

Historically, over seventy percent of Nigerians live in the rural areas and depend on subsistence agriculture for survival. However, such rural areas remain truly disadvantaged. Such disadvantaged positions was characterized by lack of infrastructure and social amenities, low purchasing power, low level of literacy and, therefore, have little or no voice in the governance of the country. Comparatively, the urban areas have overwhelming percentages of the economic infrastructure, industrial establishments, trade and commerce, banking, health and

According to the World Commission on Environment and Development (1987) sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. This calls for effective cooperative efforts towards preserving the environment and resources available. This cannot be achieved if crime rate is not checked. If individuals and groups are allowed to do and say what they like, then, the security of the Nigerian state will be threatened.

Similarly, governments in Africa are however advised to allow specialists like criminologists to be part of the advisory committees on crime control and prevention.

**Economic Problems of Underdevelopment**

In every culture of the world, underdevelopment has the same tendency of creating a mass of economic difficulties. The most visible problem has to do with inequality and the unequal distribution of resources within the country. The way forward must incorporate a policy that will guarantee social, political and psychological advancement.

There is high level of extreme inequality of income distribution in underdeveloped countries. If government focuses its attention on development,
the unemployment rate and crime will also reduce tremendously. The 31 proposed industries, one in each local government of Akwa Ibom State Nigeria will solve the problem of the youths in Akwa Ibom State as promised by the government. We are expectant and we believe that it shall be fulfilled in no distant time.

**National Unity**

At the top of the list of internal political problems in most Third World countries is that of building a nationally integrated political system. A medium of national unity is essential both to the implementation of programmes instituted by government and to the expression and involvement of the interests and needs of the people in politics (John, 2001). Though nationalism may also be an effective stimulus to national integration, it has also proven to be a threat to peace and international cooperation or threat of war & disunity.

**Issues on Crime Prevention**

Crime is a social problem that exists because of laws that criminalize some human behaviour. If we want the end of crime, then we should eliminate such laws altogether by decriminalizing all behaviour which is currently defined as criminal and the crime problem is solved and will not require any law enforcement machinery (Friedman, 1992, Okorie, 2012). It is imperative from the above statement that
without law, there is no crime, this also justifies biblical injunction, which states that where there is no law, there is no transgression (Romans 4:15). The criminalization process only shows societal approval or disapproval.

It is the law that specifies who is a victim of crime and the offender. Wrobleski and Hess (2003) are of the opinion that crime essentially is a local problem which must be dealt with by state and local government, if it is to be controlled effectively. But we must agree with Okorie (2012) who asserts that crime is crime no matter who commits it. Crime control and prevention must be everyone’s business, not only the business of the criminal justice system. This paper supports the view of Klockars (1991:250) which asserts that: Police can do nothing about the age, sex, racial, or ethnic distribution of the population. They cannot control economic conditions; moral, religious, family or secular education, or social, cultural, or political change.

It was such realization that gave rise to community policing system. This system is anchored on the partnership between the Police and the community. Its emphasis is on the bid to tackle the causes that give rise to norm violations. Clinard and Meier (1979) see crime in terms of norm violations. This view contradicts the legal definition of crime. Peak and Glensor (1996) are of the view that crime has reached an epidemic level, this has forced the centres for disease control to view crime as an important public health problem. Accordingly, “nearly...
half of all Americans have areas within a mile of their homes where they are afraid to walk alone at night (Peak and Glensor, 1996:xvii – xviii). Crime is in every society and it is societal definition that bestows such act the status of deviance or crime (Okorie, 2012). Becker (1973) defined deviant as the person to whom the label “deviant” has been successfully applied, while deviant behaviours are those behaviours that people so label. Reid (1999) emphasized that crime has both legal and non legal definitions. This perspective asserts that “crime is an intentional act or omission in violation of criminal law (statutory and case law), committed without defense or justification and sanctioned by the state as a felony or misdeanor” (Reid, 2004:6). “This clearly states that only acts are not sufficient to constitute a crime, that the law requires intent, which is the mental element to establish criminal culpability” (Okorie, 2007: 31). Crime is define as “those wrongful acts or omissions considered, acting through parliament and judges, as being so injurious as to warrant a particular and special procedure, known as criminal procedure” (Okorie, 2017:). Crime in society always attracts sanctions. Charles (2008) opines that those sanctions are both positive and negative in nature. Akpan (2003) attributes the causes of crime to rural/urban migration, that migration leads to over-representation of the urban centres. He maintained that the acquisition of a large scale of land by government resulted in a widespread displacement of villagers and urban
dwellers. He further added that the monetary compensation often paid to the owners of the lands is insufficient to solve the problems caused by such development. In view of this situation, family separations, development of migratory habits, broken homes and joblessness become so rampant in the society. The displaced individuals find themselves unfit into the social structural which is a means of achieving social goals. They realize they are structurally blocked from access to the legitimate opportunity for attaining success goals. The above view point shows that crimes in Nigeria are by-products of industrialization and urbanization. Those who migrated to urban cities in search of non-existing job opportunities as a result of previous displacement, later realized their inability to secure a job which will guarantee them access to success goals legitimately. They later resorted to illegitimate means (Okorie, 2012). Odekunle (1988) noted the chronic nature of crime in Nigeria, and asserts that the occurrence of crime is very systematic rather than random, its incidence is high because many actors of the economy are participating in its perpetuation.

Clark (1970) stated that crimes are consequence of unemployment. McMulan (1961) linked crime to corruption in the society. Dambazau (1997) was of the opinion that crimes are aftermaths of drug abuse and high technology. Palen (1993) sees crime as an activity of the young with about
ninety percent of arrests for violent crimes being of male (Brown, 2005).

**Typologies of Crime**  
(a) **Conventional or Street Crime:** This involves all violent crimes  
(b) **Occupational Crime:** This is also known as the illegal activities or actions which are committed by people in the course of their employment and financial affairs.  
(c) **Organized Crime:** This is a business operation, which supplies illegal goods and services for profit.  
(d) **Political Crimes:** This refers to illegal and unethical acts which involve the usurpation of persons by government officials or against the government by outsiders seeking to make a political statement, undermine the government or by overthrowing it.

Similarly, Reid (1999) enumerated crime types to include violent crimes which the FBI’s Uniform Crime Report (UCR) selected seven crimes, their choice was based on their seriousness and frequencies as the index include murder, and non-negligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny (The unlawful taking of personal property as an attempt to deprive the legal owner of it permanently).

**Theoretical Framework**
Theories are bedrocks upon which scientific researches are built. It is a set of propositions arranged so as to explain some phenomenon or to establish the relationship between phenomena. Turner and Beeghley (1981) see theory as a set of interrelated and tested propositions or hypotheses, which explicitly specify the condition under which certain forms of behavior will occur. It is constructed from concepts (which have series of interrelated prepositions), which seek also to explain why certain phenomena exist and why they reveal certain processes and properties (Okorie, 2012:144).

Theories are therefore the attempt at synthesizing and interpreting empirical data for maximum clarification and unification (Osuala, 2001 in Brown, 2005).

A theory is a system of assumptions, accepted principles and rules of procedure devised to explain, analyze or predict the nature of behavior of a specified set of phenomena based on the interactions between and among the various parts of the phenomena under study. Finally, a theory is a set of interrelated concepts, definitions, and propositions, which present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relationship among variables with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomenon (Kerlinger, 1986) in order to advance knowledge.

**Role Theory**
The thrust of the role theory as it flows from a mixture of Park’s Simmel’s, Moreno’s, Linton’s, Parsons and Mead’s insight has been captured by William Shakespeare’s work “As you like it (Acts 2, Scene 1) in Akpan (2006).

All the world is a stage and all the men and women merely players. They have their exit and their entrances, and one man in his time plays many parts.

According to Akpan (2006), role theory assumes that each stage in the social organization has its own nature, and the individual players have their own nature too. The theory views the social world as a network of various interrelated positions or statuses within which individuals act and play their roles in order to achieve specific goals in the society. There are expectations attached to any position occupied by an individual. The evaluation helps people in a relationship to determine whether an occupant of a social position has performed or not. The role theory sees the Nigerian Police Force as an organization bestowed with the responsibilities of maintaining peace and order in the country. The role theory therefore, explains these roles and the expectant commitment thereof in all embracing situations. The script in this context indicates that the police officers have to act and use the Nigerian constitution and other lay down rules contained in the police acts, which guide both their behaviours as
officers and their responsibilities to the states. The scripts specify that the individual police officer must act within the law.

Furthermore, they must play their roles so that the end result will guarantee a reduction of crime to a minimal level, since total elimination of crime is not humanly possible (Okorie, 2007). They must also work with the community, for a tree cannot make a forest. In the light of the above, the role theory is chosen because it has proved to be relevant to this study, in terms of police and community, youth development, government responsibilities to security questions in Nigeria. The Role Theory is a perspective in Sociology and in social psychology that considers most of everyday activity to be acting out of socially defined categories for instance mother, manager, teacher, nurse and doctor. Each role is a set of rights, duties, expectations, norms and behaviours that a person has to face and fulfill. It is generally based on the observation that people behave in a predictable way, and that an individual’s behavior is context specific, which is based on social position and other factors.

**Methodology**

The study adopted library method of study, which involves the use of available relevant published materials.

**Who is a Youth in Nigeria?**

According to the National Bureau of Statistics (2012) survey, the population of youths (15 - 35) in Nigeria is estimated to be 64 million where females
were 51.6 percent. The same survey maintained that 46,838 youths recorded against different types of crime, 42,071 (75.5) percent were male while the remaining 24.5 percent were female. The survey also shows that among the thirty two different crimes committed, Marijuana (Indian Hemp) smoking had the highest figure, representing 15.7 percent. It was followed by theft and murder with 8.1 and 7.4 percent respectively. The least committed crime was immigration/emigration representing 0.04 percent (NBS, 2012:9).

Accordingly, “about 32.4 percent of the total population is below the age of 18 years and given a total population of 140 million people (NPC, 2006 in NBS, 2012).

The National Youth Policy defines youth as a Nigerian citizen between the ages of 18 – 35 years. Between 1991 and 2006, the youth groups are taken together, the population of Nigerians below the age of 35 years comprises 60 percent of the entire population of the country. In absolute terms, there are more young people in Nigeria today than any other segment of the population, and this comes with its peculiar social and economic implications”. (NBS, 2012:11). The survey report acknowledged that the youths are key actors and a driving force for global development and peace. They are critical partners in the development of nations and their contribution to society must be measured in terms of productive pursuits of service to humanity. The youths are Nigeria’s foremost social capital and require proper
monitoring (NBS, 2012:11). The available data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) shows that unemployment rate was highest for young people aged 15 – 24 years which represented 34.2 percent, which is about 3 times the global unemployment rate of youths.

“Youths make up an increasing share of the world population, and yet the youths are often excluded from national and international decision-making structures that affect them. Nigerian’s liberation struggle from colonialism benefitted immensely from the contributions of Dr. Herbert Macaulay, Ernest Ikoli, Chief H. O. Davis, J. C. Vaughan, Oba Samuel Akinsanya, Dr. Nnamndi Azikiwe, Tafewa Balewa and Obafemi Awolowo among others at their youthful age. The efforts of these youths led to Nigeria’s independence and again contributed in driving the struggles of democracy in the 80s and 90s. The youths have been in the forefront of good governance and demand for credible leadership in the country since the restoration of democracy” (NBS, 2012:32).

**Youth and Crime Prevention**

The crime and conflict situation is on the increase, the increase is not caused by lack of facility but because the formal and traditional machineries have often focused on short-term solutions. It is important to note that conflict promotes disorder and jeopardizes the effort to combat poverty. It is globally acknowledged that underdevelopment, poverty, and
violent conflict, crime and insecurity reinforce one another. In order to provide support for development in Nigeria, there is an urgent need for a paradigm shift in favour of youths involvements in conflict resolution programmes (NBS 2012:42).

The Way Forward
The way forward to youth development, empowerment and crime prevention is human security. Thus far, security can be defined as an all-encompassing condition in which individuals, groups and the citizens and non-citizens live in freedom, peace and safety and also participate fully in the process of governance. They enjoy the protection of their fundamental human rights, having access to resources and the basic necessities of life and inhabit an environment which is not detrimental to their health and well-being (South African White Paper on Defense, 1996). The word security is not only limited to only internal security of the nation-state but it involves a secure system of food, health, money and trade (Okorie, 2012).

The duties of the police are so numerous and the officers cannot satisfy them all alone without the cooperation of the community. Community policing should be fully adopted nation-wide by involving the youth. Community policing is “a new mindset which must be imprinted in the hearts and minds of people which must include the following: discretion, innovation, participation, initiative, change, teamwork, and team learning, experimentation,
problem management and decentralized decision making (Amos 3:3, Okorie, 2012:67). Proverbs 18:19 says “An offended brother is more unyielding than a fortified city and disputes are like the bared gates of a citadel”. Similarly, Proverbs 19:4 says that “Wealth brings many friends, but a poor man’s friend deserts him”. This should not be our attitude, rather we should allow justice to prevail in our dealing with the public. Our finding the abnormal as normal only indicates how far we have sunk (Tell, No. 15, 2004:4). This by implication shows that poor public police community relation will have adverse effect on the police performance; it will generate lack of confidence in the police. Community policing is a linkage between law enforcement and communities, a strategy that emphasizes that the police should work together with the community. It is also anchored on interdependence, mutual understanding and of mutual responsiveness and support (Gross, 1975, Wexler and Marx, 1986; Yearwood, 1968 and Okorie, 2012). The central position of the police in the community critically affects all sections of society. The multiple duties of the police at all times and in all areas of the community dictate that they must influence the daily life of each citizen (Cox and Fitzgerald, 1983).

However, the development of youth and their empowerment should be positive and result oriented, not on short term gains, these should focus on the human security which includes: Economic security,
environmental security, personal security and community security.

Security is all embracing and all encompassing, there is synergy between security and democracy, without adequate security, the survival of democracy will be threatened. Similarly, Mijah (2007:7) maintained that: in modernizing society, security means development, security is not military force though it may involve it…security is development and without development, there can be no security.

**Conclusion**

Development and empowerment of youths guarantee crime prevention and reduction, security involves the creation and maintenance of conducive atmosphere necessary for the promotion and realization of individual, group, states and nation’s aspiration without threats. From human security perspective, it is imperative to note that security means far more than the absence of conflict, lasting peace requires a broader vision encompassing areas such as education, health, democracy and human rights, protection against environmental degradation, and the proliferation of deadly weapons. The society cannot be secure in the midst of starvation, poverty, high rate of unemployment. Similarly, we cannot have a peaceful environment when the vast majority (youths) are not trained and freedom cannot be guaranteed either in a society which lays it foundation on injustice (Annan, 1998).
Human security stressed much on state security and the security of citizens. It is all about the protection of both human and resources. This emphasizes that the security of the state is not an end on itself; instead it is a means of ensuring the security for its citizens. National and human security is mutually supportive in nature, since the improvement of citizen’s security also strengthens the legitimacy, stability, acceptance and security of the state (Okorie, 2012). Obasanjo (1999) maintained that national security can be conceived to mean the security of the interest of individuals, political bodies and other groups in the country and also the prosperity of individuals and corporate Nigerian institutions within the country.

In Nigeria, insecurity and social disorder are not far from the inability of young graduates and youths who are willing and ready to work to obtain a job. As a consequence, they adopt means which advertently and inadvertently create security problems. The findings maintained that mere equipping of the police and other security agents without the assistance of the community would remain a difficult task. Crime is a universal phenomenon; it indicates a decline of personal and public security and escalation of social chaos.

This study would assist to develop interest of policy makers related to youth development and empowerment, and create awareness for improving access to career oriented employment as well as
provide an evidence based advocacy tool on behalf of the youth.

**Policy Implications**

This study provides government and other relevant organizations with useful data that shall lead to developing young people’s employability to ensure their successful transition to adulthood. It encourages government and relevant authorities to develop programmes that will directly or indirectly impact more and bring better jobs for young men and women of this generation in Nigeria.

It also serves as an advocacy tool for the national, state and local government on the need to develop and empower youths.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

i. The paper recommends compulsory education for all categories of youths all over the country. NBS (2012) sees education as a form of learning in which knowledge, skills and habits are transferred from one generation to the next through teaching.

ii. Government should invest more on human security which covers food security, health security, economic security, environmental security by creating job opportunities since unemployment has been identified as one of the root causes of crime in the society.
iii. The establishment of community policing system should be encouraged.

iv. Recruitment exercise in the security agencies should involve the village chiefs; this will curb the infiltration of criminals into the system.

v. The institutionalization and change should not be limited to law enforcement agents and youths alone, because terrorism, insecurity and national security are not simply law enforcement problems. The law enforcement agents can serve as catalysts for the institutionalization in concert with other first responders and preventers.

However, this can only be achieved if every member of the Nigerian society understands and is able and willing to fulfill are vital role in the prevention of crime and social disorders. These combined efforts of all Nigerians will better ensure the most efficient and effective use of time and scarce resources and talents while making Nigeria’s communities safer places to live, work and play and invest. Crime prevention could be achieved if the sources and the wealth of the citizenry are subjected to social and moral justification. The war against joblessness (unemployment), underemployment, cultism, kidnapping etc. could only be won with the cooperation of the youths.

There is need also for a strong political will to empower the agents responsible to curb crime through proactive measures. This will go a long way to loosen the opportunity structure. This paper
agrees with Okorie (2012) that man is the problem of Nigerian society and man remains the solution of Nigerian problems. Human security and community policing remains the positive and endurable strategy towards crime prevention in Akwa Ibom State and Nigeria.

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RITUALS OF ROYAL INTERMENT AND MAUSOLEUM IN MBUM LAND, NORTH WEST REGION OF CAMEROON

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SUMMARY
In black African kingdoms as well as those of the Western Grasslands in Cameroon, the king (Fon) always lived even when he transcended into the world beyond. He was treated and venerated at all time as king. The royal mausoleum (fum) continued to remain secret and sacred that has survived the transmutations of Mbum tradition by foreign religious influences. At no point in time since the Mbum came in contact with these religions or the Fons who adopted a foreign religion has the practical mechanics of their funeral rituals distorted but highly respected and followed meticulously by kingmakers. This paper argues that the rituals of royal interment in Mbum land have considerably survived the influences of foreign religions on its practices as compared to marriage and farm rituals.
INTRODUCTION
The Mbhum upon migration from Kimi and settlement in the Nkambe plateau, North West Region of Cameroon, established a centralised system of government just as other Tikar groups of the region. This society had well defined political institutions with the traditional ruler (Fon) at the helm of government. The Fon in Bamenda Grasslands in general and in Mbhum land in particular is an extra-ordinary figure bestowed with divine powers in his community and all things about him are special from enthronement to death. He is the administrator and ritual leader of his people and serves as the intermediary between the living and the dead. It is never said literary that he is dead but he has gone on a journey to meet his ancestors or disappeared.

He enjoyed special privileges as he was served and venerated by the citizens throughout his life on earth and beyond. He was metaphorically called names of animals and referred to as lion, tiger, and leopard and was never called by his real name once enthroned. In pre-colonial era, he was buried in the tomb with two life male slaves who were to be serving him while on his journey. The interment of traditional rulers in Mbhum land just like in other fondoms of the Bamenda Grasslands was secret and followed prescribed procedures as demanded by the traditions and customs of the communities. One issue which remains certain is that “the calm and subsequent sitting of the sun in the palace” was never disclosed until the enthronement of a new Fon.
Burial rituals were done in secret without the knowledge of the Fon’s wives, children in particular and people of the community at large. This paper opines that the royalty of Fon in Mbum land was not significantly influenced by foreign religions. Once he was enthroned, his status automatically changed as he was venerated and buried like his predecessors no matter the religion that he adopted. The rituals of interment were highly respected and his rightful position in the royal mausoleum was accorded to him. The main objective of this paper is to discuss and show the significance of royal interment as a cultural heritage of the Mbum.

**Preparations of Royal Tombd**

The rituals of royal interment began with the terminal ill health of the Fon. When the Fon is declared to be incurably sick, all contacts with people are cut including his family members. The illness is kept secret. In fact, by tradition, the fon is not sick but it is referred to as “the palace is soft”. The only people in the royal bedroom were the Ya- a, woman co-regent to the Fon who held and supported the Fon in his administration, Fai Tawong and Fai Kuh with some of the kingmakers. As the situation degenerated, the Ya hands over to Fai Tawong. During the period of sickness only the three persons mentioned above and the kingmakers knew about the situation and possible outcome. Food for the Fon was brought and handed to Fai Tawong at the door post as access to
the Fon was highly restricted. (Fai-Ndimbe, 2013; Fai Tarla S. L., 2015).

As the conditions of the Fon deteriorated, secret emissaries were sent with a fowl to sister fondoms and other fondoms of the different clans to repair any break in relations so that all fondoms would attend the celebrations if death eventually occur. (Nformi-Nchanji, 2012).

During this period, the Fon would make his will by nominating his successor. There are tense arguments during the investigation to the fact that the kingmakers could later change the late Fon’s choice. But the alternate must come from among his children; otherwise the new Fon would not succeed on the throne because he will always be at variance with the ancestors. The Fon usually revealed the name of his successor in confidence to the kingmakers of his fondom to avoid forgery in case of rivalry (Tamfu Nchanji. 2012).

**Royal Interment**

As soon as the Fon passes on, Fai Tawong and Fai Kuh would come out and lock the door and inform the Ya-a in a Limbum idiom that “He has gone”, “the fire is quenched”, “he is lost” or “the palace is cold” - a euphemism for death.

The royal grave is not dug by ordinary people. In some Mbhum fondoms it was the responsibility of married princes to dig the grave, but it was the exclusive rights of selected nwarong (a regulatory cult) members to dig the royal grave upon an oath to
keep the news of the Fon’s disappearance secret (Niba 1998:7-8).

**Structure of Royal Tomb (Fum)**
The royal tomb is not dug like normal graves. A hole of six metres deep and about eight metres long and three metres wide is dug. One and a half metres from the bottom, a recess is scooped out from the side facing sunrise capable of taking in the corpse in a seated position. This royal chamber called in Limbum *kunde* is dressed. Firstly, a *kabara*, a royal carved stool is placed in the *kunde* and the wall is lined with a traditional regalia (*langlang*). In front of the *kabara* is laid a *ngubmba*, a leopard skin on which he will place his feet. Meanwhile before the corpse is ready for burial, it is first bathed thoroughly and rubbed with *birr* (camwood) and dressed in the same royal regalia as at coronation (Mbunwe, 2015; Ngenge, 2011).

**Plate 1:** Samples of royal stool (*Kabara*) on which the crowed Fon sits after coronation

Source:
The Fon is then moved into the tomb and he is placed on the royal stool facing the direction where the sun rises. He is supported by a piece of camwood, split from the back to keep the body steady. A cap is then put on his head. His right hand is raised midway up and a kote (a creeping liana) is tied round the wrist and is brought to the surface by wrapping round and round the ndip (hollow Indian bamboo) which is inserted into his cur on his left and it passed through a hole to the surface through which libations will be poured. (Mbunwe, 2015; Ngenge, 2011). A bush-cow horn was equally fixed into his left hand.

At the end of all these dressing process, the shaft was filled in with soil and the Fai Kuh removed the cap thus dethroning the dead Fon by calling his personal name and saying a prayer. The cap will be used by the successor as the link between him and his ancestors. The Fai Tawong blessed the body using a plant dipped into water or wine known in Limbum as bwoo. The water or wine is always in a pot or calabash (Fai-Ndimbe, 2013).

The chamber where the Fon sits “is not lined with anything but the entrance is curtained off with a Bikom cloth which is backed by a wall of raffia palm leaf midribs” (Jeffreys, 1962 : 205). The account given by Jeffreys is false. In the Mbum land, the chamber is lined with langlang and the recess entrance is completely covered with split camwood so that soil could not enter the chamber. The shaft is then filled-in making sure that the ndip and kote were
held in place. It was Fai Tawong who lays the *kote* along the ground on the surface so that a goat will be sacrificed on it when the shaft is completely covered with soil.

When the filling of the shaft was completed, a sacrifice was conducted. A goat was brought to the tomb and slaughtered over the *kote* so that the blood goes over it. The blood was equally smeared on the “*soosi*” or royal tomb stone and a pot was placed to cover the *ndip* while the *kote* was left to grow spreading all over the place. The remaining camwood was poured on the “*soosi*” and “pot” on the tomb. Finally a hurt, thatched with grass, was constructed to cover the tomb. All subsequent Fons are buried in this royal cemetery, a very secret and sacred place which similarly very few people visit. It is called *fum* in Limbum. In the past, a Fon was buried with a life slave who was to continue serving him in his journey to meet the ancestors. Commenting about the sacrifice of a goat by Fai Tawong on the tomb of Fon Jibirr of Tabenken, who died in 1946, Chilver affirms that:

As he cuts the goat’s throat, he calls the dead chief by his personal name saluting him and asking him to guide them and to seek the help of God for his people, since he is “near God” now. Then wine is poured on the *kote* and down the channel and there is a small calabash filled with wine
left by the grave until the death is made public (Chilver, 1960).

Kaberry’s field notes quoted here and compiled by E. M Chilver summarises succinctly a lot of the details at the tomb site in Mbum land except for the fact that in some fondoms, the calling of the Fon by his personal name is done in the tomb when the cap is being removed and he is technically dethroned. It is also worthy of note to say, firstly that the Mbum do not take delight in keeping corpses for long, so burial is done shortly after death if those charged with the responsibility are around. Secondly, that the Ya-a co-regent to the deceased Fon sitting on the throne is the recognised Fon until a new one is enthroned. Thirdly there are seven kingmakers who know or take part in the burying a Fon.

**Plate 2: Kote (liana) plant growing over the Fon’s tomb**
Another important fact is that when the “fire is quenched”, all activities of burial or buusinkfu (get him lost) are done in perfect silence. This “silence” and “secrecy” at the fum (royal tomb) can be maintained for up to four weeks or more in order to allow people to complete impending work like refurbishing of the palace and harvesting.

Very few people are allowed to enter the fum. The Fon, Fai Tawong, the senior Fais and the Ya-a, were the only people who could enter inside the fum (Chem-Langhee 1989: 4-10). While in the fum the Fon will “dress” the stone with oil and camwood. Fons were buried in chronological order and the ruling monarch must know all his predecessors and their histories and achievements. This would help him in appealing to them during sacrifices, so that he does not make mistakes in chanting praises and assigning achievements to his ancestors or bkubshee..

The stability of many traditional societies in Mbum land had much to do with political institutions and the strict adherence, belief and the near adoration and dogged loyalty without questioning their traditions. The major role fum was to ensure the stability of the society in the context of fostering peace. Side by side with the fum’s objective of ensuring the stability of the society, the Mbum had another institution, ndap-ngong (house of the land)
which was the shrine of Nyu-ngong (the supreme God).

The *ndap-ngong* is the highest ranking government unit and a repository of *nyu-ngong*, whereas the *fum* is the abode of the ancestors or *bkushee*. Religious rituals and sacrifices were performed in the *ndap-ngong*. The sacrifices were a seasonal exercise and were done according to the issue at stake. Sacrifices were offered not only to honour the gods but to equally appease them. At the beginning of each planting season, sacrifices were performed in order to have high yields and during times of impeding calamities like rampant deaths and diseases to appease the gods (Nforba, 2016). It should be noted that the *ndap-ngong* and *fum* have similar functions, the only difference being that *fum* is used as an intermediary for the *ndap-ngong*. If you cannot approach the master directly, you go through the servant. They serve as institutions and places where the people receive blessings, pour libations and offer various sacrifices.

**Plate 3: House of the land (Ndap-ngong)**
The ritual called *busitunkfu*, turning the Fon’s head was conducted five years after the burial of the Fon. In performing this ritual, the mausoleum was opened, and the skull of the Fon was removed by the kingmakers headed by Fai Tawong. It was rubbed with camwood and carefully wrapped in a new *njap* (royal cloth). This was done in secrecy in *ndap-ngong* just the interment was done. After certain rituals have been performed, the skull was reburied in the royal mausoleum (*fum*) of about 2 metres deep (Chilver 1960; Jeffreys 1962). A well-shaped black stone was placed on the new tomb next to that of his predecessor in chronological order. The first stone on this line indicated the skull of the first Fon, who
founded the fondom. One of the most important ritual sites in the Fon’s palace precincts (Nto’) was that of the royal mausoleum. This shrine actually represents an important heritage and power base in all traditional political institutions in the Mbhum land. It is regarded at high esteem as a result of its functions.

Plate 4: Royal Tombs (Fums)

Source:

The Functions of Fum
The Source of blessings
The Fum which acted as an ancestral shrine was equally a source and channel of blessings to Mbhum people. Good health, fertility, high yields, peace were believed to be derived from the fum after the performance of rituals. Once a year, the Fon would give instructions to the chief priest to perform sacrifices requesting for the blessing of the land and general well-being of the population. Cleansing rituals were equally carried out in the fum in order to purify the land and community. This was usually
done when too many atrocities like murder, suicide by hanging and sicknesses were rampant in the community. If was highly believed if the cleansing rituals were not performed, the people would be vulnerable to misfortunes.

**The Pouring of Libation (Rkur)**
The fum was equally a sacred site for the worshipping of the gods. It was the place where the ancestors were honoured through the pouring libation and offering of sacrifices. Bawe (1991), opines that libations and sacrifices which were done in the Ndap-ngong were not different from those performed in the Fum. Libation in the Mbhum land, denoted the giving off of some valuable material substances like food stuff and wine to the ancestors, Bkubshee and the gods. This was done as a gesture of honour, oblations and supplicates for assistance in times of danger, adversity and needs. It was believed that the pouring of libations brought about noticeable peace and calmness over the Land. The Mbhum people share this regarding libation as a means of courting divine and ancestral favours with the Bayangi’s of the South West Region. It was conceived that after getting their share of the food and drinks, the ancestors would be pleased and then protect the community. Being a form of prayer, libation constituted an essential and daily rite of the
taa-bga-nyu (owners of the god) and played a central role in the religious lives of the people.

The offering of sacrifices
Among the people of Mbum land, a sacrifice or Tanchi is an offer of something precious. Concerning the case of sacrifices which were offered to the ancestors in fum, it was a religious ceremony involving the shading of blood of fowls and goats as expiation for wrong doings (Bawe, 1991: 14). The main reason for the sacrifices was to restore harmony between the ancestors and society. Failure to offer these sacrifices it was believed that the people were to be punished by the ancestors. This is in allusion to a similar sacrificial rite among the Yoruba of Nigeria found in play, Everyman by jimeie in which a character Babalawo condoles with [the] fact that awaits a traditional rebel. Bawe affirms that:

The father was asked to sacrifice but he did not sacrifice so when the son planted, the Birds came to scatter the fruits and the rats came to eat the roots and poverty shall sit on his head and debt will hang his neck and nakedness will expose his bottom (Bawe 1991:14).

Since nothing in this universe happens without a cause as the Mbum believed, the birds, rats and the suffering are the attribute non-compliance with the rules, thus the father face the divine wrath. Sacrifices were performed in the Fum yearly to avoid the wrath of the gods. Fowls were offered to the
Foosi or tombstone and the feeders stuck to the soosi with blood. The skulls of sacrificial animals were displayed in the Fum.

The significance of Fum

- **Fum** is the ancestral abode, a sacred shrine in which sacrifices and libations are poured for the health and well-being of the group.
- It represented the historical time line of Mbhum people because many events were dated from when a particular Fon disappeared. Since they were buried in a chronological order, the history of the Fondom and or clan could be easily dated. In the past, it was recorded in the mind and was passed on from generation to generation by words of mouth.
- Each ruler must go through all the rituals in the Fum otherwise he will not be recognised by the ancestors or bkupshee with whom he has to take an oath of office by swearing to rule and not to do anything against the tradition of the Land (Mzeka 1978 : 48-49). This is important for continuity and good governance.
- The growing plant (kote) on the grave is likened to a telephone wire, enabling the lost Fon to hear prayers. It is also believed that the attention of the gods can be obtained by striking a nkeeng before performing sacrifices in the Fum.
The Ya-a performs some important functions in the fum whereas in Ndap-ngong she would “only ordinarily watch”. Regarding the functions of the Ya-a Chilver (1990:25) states that “if a prince comes from afar with a fowl (for an intercessory title) then it is the Ya-a who takes it to the Fum and make prayers to the ancestors. She prays for good food, many children and that people be happy.”

The Fum as the highest sacred and secret shrine is where anybody accused of treason or subversive activities against his people of fondom would swear and take an oath if he claims not guilty.

The Fum shrine is regarded as a place where Mbum people especially political leaders and business people go there to obtain blessings, prosperity in their careers and protection against all evil forces that may come their way. This aspect of Fum is liking to Ngondo tradition of the Sawa in Douala.

CONCLUSION
This paper has demonstrated that kingship institutions in the western grasslands in general and Mbum land in particular are very unique and usually considered as mystical. The findings reveal that the royal mausoleum and the grass-thatched bamboo huts which covered all the royal tombs acted as the secret and sacred sites in the palace precincts for
the worshipping and honouring of the ancestors and gods. They were equally places for the offering of sacrifices and pouring of libations for the growth and prosperity of the people. These royal interment and mausoleum were common features of traditional political institutions in Mbum fondoms which were held at high esteem. The conservation of the fum remained remarkable as it was a source of dating chronology for the fons who had governed the fondoms. All the rituals connected with the royal interment and mausoleum (Fum) have been held tenaciously intact against the barrage of modern civilization, and interference mounted against the Mbum tradition by political pundits and religious leaders. The fum demonstrates the cultural heritage of Mbum which is worth valourising as a people with their own civilisation.

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POLITICAL ECONOMY CONSIDERATIONS IN DIVERSIFICATION OF THE NIGERIAN ECONOMY

BY

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SUMMARY

The paper sought to examine some political economy considerations in diversification of the Nigerian economy using the historical–materialist method. The desire to diversify the Nigerian economy, though imperative, is not new; it has only been reinvigorated by the steep fall in oil price and its attendant fiscal imbalance Nigeria has experienced for about five years now. It is apposite, therefore, to note that the quest to diversify the Nigerian economy through industrialization was the thrust of industrial policy in the First National Development Plan (1962–1968) and the Second National Development Plan period (1970–1974). Precisely, Nigeria then sought to diversify its economy to non–oil sector by adopting import substitution industrialization (ISI) and exports
promotion (EP) strategies. However, the expected desire was not achieved due to inadequate industrial cum technological preparations. The present urge to diversify the Nigerian economy to non-oil sector is pressing. Nevertheless, it is important to note that economic diversification is not possible without industrialization, which is driven by a development oriented state.

INTRODUCTION

Building of a virile economy and sustaining same is the focal point of every country. In the relatively recent past, some countries have restructured their economies and altered their approaches to economic development while some have diversified their economies, all in a quest to have fortified and virile economies. Precisely, in the 1970s, some South East Asian countries, namely, Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan sought to practically develop and strengthen their economies, and this they pursued through developmental-oriented (that is, state-led) industrialization approach. Their conscious pursuit and rapid achievement in the area of industrialization has given their economies the necessary leap ahead, and has attracted global recognition, thus, they have been christened “the Asian Tigers” or “the Miracle Economies”.

Recently, the US has also diversified its economy the more to the oil sector, and this has surged its crude oil production to 8.97 billion barrels
a day. Consequently, the US, a major buyer of Nigeria’s oil (about 40% of total oil exports), has largely reduced the volume of its oil imports, and this has drastically affected global oil prices, and has impacted negatively on Nigeria’s fiscal position. For instance, Nigeria’s oil revenue dropped from N8879.0 billion in 2011 to N8026.95 billion in 2012. It further dropped to N6809.23 billion in 2013 and to N6793.72 billion in 2014 (CBN, 2014).

The steep drop in oil revenue has resulted in sharp drops in gross federally collected revenues accrued to the federation account. For instance, in July, 2014, gross federally collected revenue was N630.32 billion as against N784.80 billion in the previous month, about 20% drop. In August, same year, revenue further dropped by N28.67 billion, from N630.32 billion in July to N602.65 billion. In October 2014, the Federation Account Allocation Committee (FAAC) shared N593.34 billion among the three tiers of government against N693.33 billion in September, 2014, a decrease of N20.29 billion (Enebeli-Uzor, 2014). In the last quarter of 2015 the value of merchandise trade dropped by 38.8% when compared to the corresponding period in 2014, while oil exports dropped by 18.8% in the third quarter of 2015. In the first quarter of 2016, FAAC shared N378 billion in January, N345 billion in February, and N297.75 billion in March among the three tiers of government. Nevertheless, crude oil is still dominant in the export basket of Nigeria accounting for about
69.1% of total value of domestic exports in third quarter of 2015 (NBS, 2015).

On the contrary, non-oil revenue in Nigeria has been increasing steadily since 2003. Non-oil revenue was N500.82 billion in 2003. It increased to N1336.0 billion in 2008, and in 2010 it was N1907.6 billion. It further increased to N2628.77 billion in 2012, thence to N2950.56 billion in 2013, and to N3275.12 billion in 2014 (CBN, 2014). The continuous drop in federal revenue due to the steep fall in oil prices, and the steady rise in non–oil revenue, is indicative of the dire need to diversify the productive base of the Nigerian economy. In this paper attempts are made to examine some political economy considerations in diversification of the Nigerian economy with a view to providing some insights into the prime–movers of effective and sustainable economic diversification for policy consideration.

The approach used in this study is the historical – materialist method. It is eclectic and all embracing. This method subsumes the classical and the Keynesian approaches and their outgrowths. It commingles anthropology, economics, econometrics, history, sociology, etc in the analysis of any social phenomenon. In the rest of the paper, we give an overview of some concepts, followed by the attributes of a state capable of driving economic diversification in section two. In section three we present our analytical framework. Some political economy issues that should be taken into consideration in diversification of the Nigerian
economy are highlighted in section four. Section five gives recommendations and denouement.

2 Overview of some Concepts

2.1 Political Economy Considerations

Political economy, succinctly, is a synthesis of economic and political forces that shape the inner laws which influence productive forces (the overall productive capacity), social relations of production (the relations which people enter into with each other in the course of production, e.g., the relations between the peasants and the feudal lords under feudalism, and the relations between the capitalists and the workers in capitalism), and production in a given society (Ake, 1981). Broadly, political economy is about the management of socio-economic and socio – political claims on the production, distribution and consumption of societal resources and output (Soludo, 2005). Political economy considerations in any socio – economic or socio – political phenomenon are, therefore, political economy issues which have claims on the phenomenon in question. In our study, political economy considerations are those socio-economic and political issues which have bearings on diversification of the Nigerian economy.

2.1.2 Diversification

Diversification is the act of branching out into diverse lines of activity. It is the act of developing a wider range of products, skills and interests in order to be more successful or to reduce risk in business.
Diversification, as argued by Black (2003:126) “is a spread of the activities of a firm or a country between (or among) different types of markets”. There are multiple objectives a country seeks to achieve in diversifying its economy. These include: (i) to broaden the productive base of its economy by developing another or other profitable sector(s) in addition to the existing one(s) so as to make the economy virile and invulnerable to sudden price drops at the international market, which, if achieved, will reduce the dominance a particular product has had in the structure of the country’s exports basket. (ii) to earn more foreign exchange from the diversified structure of its exports basket and increase its gross income, and (iii) to use the increased income to meet the socio-economic needs of its citizenry so as to improve their standard of living. A diversified economy bears less risk at the global market as all the markets for its products are unlikely to slump at the same time (Black, *ibid*).

In this study, from the above expositions, we, therefore, conceptualize diversification of an economy as the developing of other profitable sectors, in addition to the existing one(s) for the economy to be virile, and to reduce risk at the world market. Economic diversification, as we know, is a process and, as argued in the literature, (Thompson, 1996; Woo-Cumings, 1999 and Chang, 1999), is largely a function of industrialization—“the procedure of increasing an economy’s capability to process raw materials and to produce goods for consumption and
or further production given its skills and efficiency, that is, technological adequacy” (Essien, 2004). The above processes are successfully driven by a developmental state (Chang, 2010).

2.2 A Developmental State: What is it?

In recent times, the concept of a developmental state has assumed a centre stage at the national, regional and international development-focused fora. Many development analysts, (Thompson, 1996; Woo-Cumings, 1999; and Chang, 1999), have prescribed it to less-developed countries as a viable approach to developing their economies. The prescription is largely due to market failure, especially in the area of industrialization in less-developed-capitalist economies and the success stories of some South East Asian economies namely, Hong Kong, Singapore, Taiwan and South Korea, also referred to as the Asian Tigers in the areas of industrialization and macroeconomic management, which lend credence to the capacity of a developmental state to trigger a country’s development. This, then, has lured the Nigerian government, in recent times, to allude to its desire to build a developmental state which it believes will lay the necessary foundation and give the needed support for restructuring the productive base of the economy to non-oil. The pertinent quest, therefore, is to know what a developmental state is, and what it takes to build it.

A developmental state, according to Johnson (1982) is “a state that is focused on economic
development and takes necessary policy measures to accomplish that objective”. However, Jonson (ibid) pointed out two possible ways by which a state can develop, namely, the regulatory approach and the developmental approach. The regulatory approach, according to Johnson (ibid), applies when a state governs its economy through regulatory agencies that are empowered to enforce a variety of standards of behavior to protect the citizenry against market failure of various sorts while developmental approach involves the state itself driving industrialization, as in the case of states that were late to industrialize their economies. United States, for instance, according to Johnson (ibid), follows regulatory orientation while Japan follows a developmental orientation because of its lateness to industrialization. Specifically, Johnson (1982:24) argued that “[t]he very idea of a developmental state originated in the situational nationalism of the late industrialisers and the goals of the developmental state which were invariably derived from comparisons with external reference economies”.

Also, Pempel (1999) conceptualized a developmental state as a government with organization and power to achieve its development goals. The government in question must be able to give consistent economic guidance and efficient organization to the economy. It must pursue its long-term economic policy with vigor and steadfastness. As argued by Castells (1992), a state is said to be developmental if it establishes, as its principles of
legitimacy and sovereignty, its ability to strategize, promote and sustain development. Mkamdawire (2001) defined a developmental state as ‘one whose ideological underpinnings are developmental and one that seriously attempts to construct and deploy its administrative and political resources to the task of economic development”. Evans (1989) fully agreed that the state has an active and positive role to play in industrialization process, and attributed the success (or failure) of a developmental state to the capacity of the state to establish, promote and sustain a healthy relationship between the state and private enterprise. A developmental state, according to Chang (1999), is “one that pursues policies focused on coordinating investment plans; has a national development vision, and engages in institutional building to promote growth and development, and plays a crucial role in resolving the conflicts that arise out of the development trajectory between winners and losers. Specifically, Chang (ibid) argued that “economic development requires a state which can create and regulate the economic and political relationships that can support industrialization” This implies that the leader in a developmental state must be au fait with the economy and the polity, and generally, the state must be capable of providing a vision for the society and creating new institutions required to achieve the vision (Chang, 2003a). Leftwich (2000) in an analysis of a developmental state gave primacy to politics: that is, a developmental state is centrally predicated
on political considerations. Leftwich (ibid) argued that
the dominant variable that determines the concept of
a developmental state as well as its success or
failure is politics. Leftwich (ibid) emphatically argued
that “development inescapably is political”. In other
words, “…the explanation for the different
development capabilities and records of the third
world democracies turn crucially on the primary role
of politics in shaping the character and capacity of
the state”.

According to Leftwich (2000), as contained in Meyns
and Musamba (2010), there are six major factors
responsible for the emergence and consolidation of a
developmental state. They are:

i. The developmental state is governed by
political elite which is developmentally- oriented
and which demonstrates high levels of
commitment and will in attaining economic
growth (and development). The state must
possess sufficient capacity to influence, direct
and set the terms of operation for private
capital.

ii. The developmental state is managed by a
powerful, professional, highly competent,
insulated and career-based bureaucracy.

iii. The emergence of a developmental state is
associated with social contexts in which the
presence and role of civil society has been
weak, negligible and subordinate.

iv. Developmental states must exhibit high levels
of capacity for effective economic management
of both domestic and foreign private economic interests.

v. Developmental states exhibit a record of an uneasy mix of expression and poor human rights adherence (especially for undemocratic development states), and

vi. The legitimacy of the political elite to govern is tightly linked to the state’s ability to perform.

Leftwich (ibid) observes that most of the regimes in developmental states were undemocratic; however, they tended to be developmental. The argument is that “the development performance of a particular country is not a function of the regime type, but rather, it is decisively influenced by the character of the state and its associated politics.” As such, “developmental states cannot be constructed out of institutional kits devised in western capitals or think tank”. Therefore, “it seems unlikely that it is possible in the modern world for any society to make speedy and successful transition from poverty without a state that in some respects corresponds to (the above) model of a developmental state (Leftwich, 2000).

3 Analytical Framework

There are various approaches to examining any social phenomenon. In this article, we uphold a developmental state, functional institutions and industrialization, among other factors, as catalysts to economic diversification. Our framework is based on two approaches. First, the Institutional Political Economy (IPE) approach – an alternative to
Economic Neo-Liberalism, and we draw largely on the works of Ha-Joon Chang of Cambridge University, UK; and second, the false paradigm model. The IPE approach serves two major purposes. First, it consolidates an alternative theory of state intervention in the economy and, second, it provides an alternative framework to Neo-Liberal paradigm. The role of the state in economic development of developing countries according to IPE and we fully agree, is unrivaled; it is not only to regulate the market but to actually construct and directly influence its operations (Chang, 2000b). The IPE expressly argues that “virtually all today’s developed countries (including the champions of free trade and free market, that is, Britain and United States) became rich on the basis of policies that are contrary to the neo-liberal orthodoxy espoused under the Washington Consensus. It was state that coordinated investments, made economic decisions, financed industries, disciplined recipients of state-created rent, and provided development vision in today’s more-developed countries (MDCs) when they were developing; and this role by the state becomes even more important in the case of LDCs (Chang, 2003b).

The success stories of the Asian Tigers, on unbiased evaluation, would lend credence to alternative approaches to the ones prescribed by the Washington Consensus. Wade (2004), on this note, argued that the economies of the highly praised Asian Tigers were not market oriented as advocated
by the neo-classical economists, rather the state championed the development of many new industries and supported them to grow and become internationally competitive. “In contrast, all developing countries that have placed great faith in the primacy and the total freedom of market have attained unsatisfactory development outcomes” (Chang, 2000c). According to DosSantos (1993), who had observed the ‘placing of great faith on the (free) market’ by the LDCs’, the unsatisfactory outcomes can only be changed through “a qualitative change in less-developed countries’ internal structures and external relations” This is because, the persistence and exacerbation of the unsatisfactory outcome (underdevelopment) is largely due to the historical evolution of a highly uneven international capitalist system of rich country-poor country relationship (Todaro and Smith, 2003: 124). In the process of climbing the ladder of development, we agree with IPE that today’s high income countries never adopted the neo-liberal doctrines they are pressurizing the LDCs to adopt, they fully protected their infant industries through trade restrictions. On this note, we consent to IPE’s argument that “economic development requires a state which can create and regulate the economic and political relationships that can support (and sustain) industrialization” (Chang, 1999), for market is not a ‘free’ and ‘neutral’ institution, but all markets are created. In other words, “markets are political constructs” as such it is not possible to depoliticize
them, thus, they need a state – a developmental state - to regulate them if they are to serve the desired purpose of development.

The false paradigm model is a variant of international-dependence approach to development. It attributes

*Underdevelopment* to faulty and inappropriate advice provided by well-meaning but often uninformed, biased, and ethnocentric international ‘expert’ advisers from developed country assistance agencies and multinational donor organizations. These experts offer sophisticated concepts, elegant theoretical structures, and complex econometric models of development that often lead to inappropriate and incorrect policies (Todaro and Smith, 2003:125).

4 Political Economy Considerations in Diversification of the Nigerian Economy: Historical and Contemporary Perspectives

It is a known fact that economic diversification is a process driven by industrialization, which in turn, is propelled by technology–scientific knowledge used in practical ways in industry. The process of industrializing an economy is not a domestic-bound affair; rather it attracts both internal and external economic and political forces (agents), which have claims on the process. A discussion of political
economy of diversification of the Nigerian economy would, therefore, focus on the internal and external economic and political agents (forces) and the roles they have to play in the industrialization cum diversification process which will together shape the outcome of the process. In our discussion, it is reasonable to apply both historical and contemporary perspectives.

4.1 Historical Perspective

The urge to diversify the Nigerian economy is not new; it has only been reinvigorated by the steep fall in oil price and its attendant fiscal imbalance Nigeria has experienced for about five years now. More so, the continued increase in non-oil revenue relative to oil revenue since 2003 has fanned the embers of the urge. However, it is apposite to note that the quest to diversify the Nigerian economy through industrialization was the thrust of industrial policy in the First National Development Plan (1962–1968). Precisely, Nigeria then sought to diversify its economy to non-oil sector by adopting import substitution industrialization (ISI) strategies, which aimed at encouraging foreign exchange savings by producing locally some of the imported consumer goods such as textiles, shoes, food, detergents and toiletries and industrial appliances (Ndebbio, 1991). Specifically,

*Industries such as textiles, wearing apparels, paints, tires and tubes, cement and other building materials producing*
units as well as grain milling factories were established as joint stock ventures between local and foreign trading companies, which originally imported the goods but had to diversify their business interest (CBN, 2000:61).

Moreover, a wide range of incentives was given to the private sector by the government, who also erected tariff barriers to protect competing imports. These were the thrusts of the industrial policy of the First National Development Plan. The ISI failed to achieve the expected objective because adequate preparation was not made. On this note, Essien (2004), in an evaluation of the ISI strategies argued that the ISI yielded unimpressive results because:

i. The foreign companies, which originally imported the goods, experienced a shrink in their market, and slashes in their profit as their interest (profit making) was diversified and, therefore, gave Nigeria inadequate supports to produce the goods.

ii. Nigeria provided a porous base for ISI as indigenous technological capabilities associated with the production of the goods in question were not developed, and

iii. tariff barriers or quotas on the imported goods (which were to be produced locally) though erected, were not enforced, as such those foreign goods and their close substitutes continued to flood Nigerian market.
In the adoption of ISI strategies, it is expedient for a country to develop its technological base, first to a level that would aid smooth take-off (Prebish, 1950; Todaro and Smith, 2003:563), and second, erect and enforce tariff barriers or quotas on the importation of now – locally produced goods. Moreover, one very vital reason for the failure of ISI strategies in Nigeria and many other LDCs, as observed by Helleiner (1972: 69 –70), was that the bulk of capital goods inputs needed for the production of the now-locally produced goods were imported from the more–developed countries, whose products LDCs tried to produce locally. Helleiner’s observation suggests that the MDCs probably had experienced reductions in profits and increased unemployment in their economies due to import restrictions, so, they would likely export the capital goods–inputs to LDCs at relatively higher prices to cushion these negative effects of import restriction on their economies. With high cost of capital-goods inputs, the final products by the LDCs, characterized by low technology, would likely be placed at the market at prices dearer than their foreign counterparts. This state of affairs would accord LDCs’ products low patronage.

Interestingly, Nigeria did not relent in its pursuit of industrialization, though ISI failed to give it the necessary leap ahead. In 1972, Nigeria adopted another approach - exports promotion (EP) – to industrialize its economy. One major objective of EP approach was “to increase the level of intermediate
and capital goods production. Precisely, in the second National Development Plan period, 1970 – 1974, the promotion of indigenous participation in industrial activities became one of the prominent policy instruments designed to encourage industrial development (CBN, 2000). Exports promotion, as industrialization strategy, involves “governmental efforts to expand the volume of a country’s exports through exports incentives, decreasing disincentives, and other means in order to generate more foreign exchange and improve the current account of its balance of payments or achieve other objectives” (Todaro and Smith, 2011:776). In a broad perspective, exports promotion and economic diversification seek to achieve one major objective: expansion cum diversification of the structure of a country’s export basket in order to generate foreign exchange. That being the case, it seems reasonable to glean, though cursorily, from the EP industrialization strategy so as to be more informed and guided in our diversification process. A country that prepares to diversify will likely diversify into the production of goods or services other economies have been producing and placing at the international market. For instance, the USA in 2013 finally diversified into the oil sector, producing petroleum products, which Nigeria, Libya, Saudi Arabia, for example, have been and are still producing for exports. Exports promotion, therefore, calls for competing with other countries that have been in the production of the product(s) in question. The new
entrant-producer, therefore, will have to place its product(s), in quality, packaging, delivery and maintenance, at par with their counterparts. This calls for finesse which is tacit only in adequate industrialization (Essien, 2004). It is important to note that, like ISI, EP Strategies were mainly for the development of the non-oil sector of the economy. However, it is obvious that EP, like ISI, could not achieve its objective of increasing the level of intermediate and capital goods production. Nigeria, since the 1970s, has been depending heavily on MDCs for capital goods and raw materials (see Table 1).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th>Capital Goods and Raw Materials*</th>
<th>Percentage of Capital Goods and Raw Materials in Imports**</th>
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<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>756.4</td>
<td>640.3</td>
<td>84.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>990.1</td>
<td>844.7</td>
<td>85.3</td>
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<td>1,440.2</td>
<td>82.9</td>
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<td>5,148.5</td>
<td>4,347.2</td>
<td>84.3</td>
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<td>6,703.3</td>
<td>81.6</td>
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<td>7,190.5</td>
<td>79.1</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>7,178.3</td>
<td>5,247.0</td>
<td>73.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>5,983.0</td>
<td>4,806.3</td>
<td>80.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Import ($M)</td>
<td>Export ($M)</td>
<td>Trade Balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
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<tr>
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<td>18,532.5</td>
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</tr>
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<td>61.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>9439424.71</td>
<td>5238518.02</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
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<td>2014</td>
<td>10538780.58</td>
<td>5987313.23</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *Capital goods and raw materials comprise: manufactured goods, machinery and transport equipment, miscellaneous manufactured goods and chemicals*

**Computed by the Author from the Table

Sources: 1. CBN Statistical Bulletin, Vol. 13


As mirrored in Table 1, capital goods and raw materials in total imports of Nigeria, between 1970 and 2014, accounted for more than 77 %. Exports promotion strategies failed to give the Nigerian economy the expected industrial spark due to some reasons. Major among them, according to Essien (2004) and Cohn (2012: 308 -309)) were:

i) the ISI which would have laid the foundation for EP had failed. A definite reasoning here is, if a country could not first produce locally the basic things it used to import, due to inadequate technology, it would not be possible for it to produce for exports.

ii) Products for exports under EP were more difficult to produce because they were capital intensive and depended on economies of scale and advanced technology. Nigeria had to import technology and raw materials from MDCs. EP increased Nigeria’s dependence on MDCs. Due to shortages in capital and technology, Nigeria encouraged inward foreign direct investment (FDI) as part of its EP policies to promote industrialization. The
expectation was that the MNCs would transfer their technologies to indigenous companies involved in production of goods for exports. Thus, multinational corporations (MNCs) from MDCs established subsidiaries behind the (Nigeria’s) trade barriers, and continued to spread without the expected technology transfer.

On this note, Kwanashie (1994) argued that:

*The assumption that technology can be transferred, either at a micro or macro level, ignores (the fact) that at present, the balance of forces in the international order is predicated on the relative strengths of countries in terms of their mastery of modern technology. The monopoly of new technology and the speed with which existing stock becomes obsolete make it difficult for dependent countries to compete. Under this circumstance, it is difficult to expect any meaningful transfer of technology to peripheral countries.*

1.2 Iron and Steel Projects in Nigeria: Tips for Diversification of the Nigerian Economy

The role of iron and steel industry in the industrialization process of modern economies is unrivalled and indispensable. Economic
diversification, indubitably, is a function of industrialization, which in turn is predicated on, and animated by, a functional iron and steel industry. A well–developed and functional iron and steel industry, as argued by (Diji, 2004) , will produce essential raw materials such as: (i) cast iron (different categories), (ii) flat sheet (light, medium and heavy), (iii) rods and bars (high tensile and mild steel), (iv) structural sheet (light, medium and heavy), (v) stainless and other special alloy steels, (vi) rails, pipes and plates, and (vii) wires. These raw materials are the essential elements in the production of light, intermediate and heavy equipments. Nigeria indeed acknowledged the indispensability of iron and steel industry in its quest for industrialization, thus, between 1972 and 1987, Nigeria established nine steel producing organizations, which were:

i) Ajaokuta Steel Project, Ajaokuta (1979),
ii) Delta Steel Company, Ovwian – Aladja (1981),
iii) Katsina Steel Rolling Company, Katsina,
iv) Jos Steel Rolling Company, Jos
v) Oshogbo Steel Rolling Company, Oshogbo,
vi) National Iron Ore Mining Company, Itakpe,
vii) National Metallurgical Development Centre, Jos (1972),
viii) National Steel Raw Materials Exploration Agency, Kaduna, and
ix) Metallurgical Training Institute, Onitsha (Diji, 2004).

The first six were incorporated as limited
liability companies, and were expected to be self-funding while the last three were fully funded by the government. With the nine laudable iron and steel projects, one would have thought that by now Nigeria, industrially, would be christened “the miracle economy of Africa”. But this is obviously not so; presently, none of the iron and steel projects is functional to a near level of giving the Nigerian economy the necessary leap in its yearning for industrialization.

The dysfunction of the various iron and steel projects in Nigeria can be largely attributed to what Diji (2004) referred to as “world politics on steel”. Diji (ibid) argued that the domination exercised by Europe and America in the area of science and technology “has rested on the tripod of steel, chemical and energy industries”, hence, Europe and America have, by stratagem, discouraged the establishment of these industries outside their clan. More so, the two supranational financial institutions, the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), have usually advised any country outside the Euro-American group against setting up any steel industry. For instance, in 1968, when South Korea started the construction of its steel plant, Pohang Steel Company (POSCO), the World Bank did not welcome the project. In 1976, the World Bank, in its reports on the steel development efforts in India, South and North Korea submitted that “the steel industry in these countries were not viable and advised the project to be
discontinued”. The Asians rejected the advice and passionately forged ahead with the project. Consequently,

"Today, Asian Tigers are net exporter of steel products such as auto-mobiles, refrigerators and home appliances. North Korea and South can now build submarine ship and venture into space programme to boost their military capability. North Korea is intensifying effort[s] in that region to reinforce her military might vide nuclear sciences; all these are possible because there is a steel industry [through which it] actualizes its dreams. (Diji, 2004)."

Today, more than 35 percent of world steel is produced by the four major Asian steel producers – China, Japan, ROK, and Taipai, with China as world’s largest steel producer. The POSCO project that faced discouragement from the World Bank is the 10th largest steel company plant in the world (Roberts and Azubuike, 2004). The World Bank also dissuaded Nigeria from pursuing its steel development.

"In 1989, the World Bank requested Messer Hatch Associates of Canada…to advise the Federal Government of Nigeria on how to discontinue with her steel programme. The adoption of the firm’s 182 – page report by [the] Babangida administration led Alhaji Abubakar Alhaji to declare at IMF
conference…in New York that “Nigeria has accepted to abandon its steel programme”(Diji, 2004).

In another attempt, Hatch Associate was introduced to BPE in 2001 by the Breton Woods Institution to minister as “Technical Adviser” to the organization. Messer Hatch Associates was asked to take a comprehensive appraisal of all steel projects in Nigeria. On 31 August, 2001, Hatch Associates made its final report for strategic assessment of Nigeria steel industry available to BPE and recommended on page 86 of 90 the “option 9: convert ASCL (Ajaokuta Steel Company Limited) for corex and a power plant” (Diji, ibid).

The above claims by the World Bank on steel development projects in Nigeria suggest that Nigeria’s efforts to industrialize has been, by sleight of hand, undermined by the supranational institution, WB.

4.2.1 Contemporary Perspective
Thinking of diversifying the Nigerian economy in the present state of the nation, considering the elements for successful diversification, may raise doubt about the possibility. The reasons for the doubt are multifarious. However, we shall summarize
some of the reasons under the following sub-headings, which are not arranged in order of importance. (i) Leadership, (ii) The “Nigerian democracy”, (iii) Square pegs in triangular holes, (iv) Power sector dysfunction, (v) The “Nigerian mode of production”, and (vi) Low technological capability

i) Leadership

Leadership and development in a country, at any given time, are interdependent. The characters and personal examples of the people in leadership, at a given time, largely influence the nature, dimensions and spread of either vices or virtues in the society they lead. Leadership in Nigeria since independence has been largely characterized by self-centeredness and cupidity. Little attention has been paid to development. If some development programmes were to be implemented, corrupt leaders would use the process of programme implementation to drain the public treasury the more. Corrupt leadership in a society will influence a great number of citizens towards corruption. If leadership in a country is successively corrupt, then corruption will not only become an essential and integral part of the dynamics of the society but also a viable and unavoidable means for accumulation of wealth, power and influence. When the leadership is corrupt, it (the leadership) will be unwilling, even unable, to make effective efforts to restrain, detect and punish those who involve in corruption. However, to cajole the people,
efforts to fight corruption may be made, but will be grossly effete.

ii) The “Nigerian democracy”

Democracy, as it is known, is a system of government which holds that the state should be controlled by all the people, each sharing equally in privileges, duties and responsibilities, a system of government which offers fair and equal treatment to everyone within a country that practices it (Webster’s, 2010). Cursorily democracy is explained, and globally accepted as “the government of the people by the people for the people”. This implies that the people have the right to select people to lead the people. In Nigeria, the bourgeois elite at the Federal, State and Local Government levels often use money, influence and thuggery to twist electoral processes and deprive many of the “the people” (the propertyless electorate) their right to vote. Sometimes political thugs of one political party would confront an opposing political party with words which breed acrimony in the process of electioneering, and this usually leads to fierce physical combats, which sometimes, result in homicide. More so, kidnapping and assassination of opposition aspirant cum his or her close relative(s) are part of election process in Nigeria. These vices, and many others, characterize the “Nigerian democracy”. This state of affairs, if not curbed, will hinder Nigeria’s transition to a
developmental state.

iii) **Square pegs in triangular holes**
In Nigeria, academic discipline (that is, area of specialization), cognate experience and integrity, seem not to play an important role, in some cases, in the political appointment into the Federal and State Executive Councils. Sometimes, some chieftains in winning political party may impose their preferred party members on the winning candidates of their party at different levels for appointment without recourse to the expected appointees’ integrity, specialties, cognate experience, and the capability to deliver. In such situations, it may take the appointees a time longer than necessary, because they are not au fait, to understand and get acquainted with the rudiments, dynamics and requirements of their new ministries, boards or parastatals. If proven integrity, tested commitment, and cognate experience are trivialized in the process of appointment of people into executive council and other positions of responsibility, be it at the local government, state, or federal level, the expected contributions from the various ministries, boards, and parastatals towards Nigeria becoming a developmental state would tend to be effete.
iv) The “Nigerian mode of production”
The concept of mode of production, as applied in this article refers to the way in which the major (or decisive) means of production are owned, managed, and the pattern which the distribution of income takes. In other words, mode of production is a socio-economic system the society has adopted, and is defined by the decisions it has somehow taken about ownership and allocation of resources, and income distribution. Nigeria’s mode of production since 1970s has been more of capitalist. Ekpo (1991) argued that “the relations between Nigeria and the developed countries have integrated Nigeria into the structure of the advanced capitalist countries of Western Europe. The capitalist mode of production, fondly called capitalism, encourages and promotes private ownership of means of production. Capitalism, as practiced in Nigeria is crude and highly parasitic. It creates and encourages a series of sinecure (offices or jobs having emoluments but few or no duties) to the detriment of committed and dedicated workers. It also encourages synergy between extractive economy and political institutions, a relationship inimical to a developmental state. Ake (1981), Toyo (1991, 1997, and 2001), and Essien (2004) variously argued that the Nigerian economy is characterized by high level of uneven distribution of means of production to
the point that for all practical purposes, the society is divided essentially into a small group of people, who monopolizes the means of production and national income, yet is driven by avidity to the detriment of the propertyless majority. This state of affairs polarizes the population into the have and have-nots, and the latter, majority of which is the Nigerian workers, usually expresses its pains and disapproval of the parasitic system by embarking on strikes intermittently. Strikes are toxic to any economy; they are inimical to emergence of a developmental state. On this note, Hodgskin (1787 – 1869), in Akpakpan (1999:54) argued that:

*till the triumph of labour be complete; till productive industry alone be opulent, and till idleness alone be poor,….till the right of property shall be founded on principles of justice and not those of slavery (and parasitism)…there cannot and ought not to be either peace on earth or good will among men.*

v) Power sector dysfunction

A functional power sector in a country, together with iron and steel, and chemical industries form the needed foundation for industrialization, and provide the springboard for economic development. Advancement in science and technology rests on them. Of the three, Nigeria can lay claim on only one – the
power sector, which is dysfunctional. Table 3 provides information on installed generating capacity, capacity utilized, electricity supply, etc in Nigeria, for selected years, between 1970 and 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Installed Capacity (MW/h)</th>
<th>Electricity Generation (MW/h)</th>
<th>Capacity Utilized (%)</th>
<th>Electricity Supply (MW/h)</th>
<th>Power Lost in Transmission (MW/h)</th>
<th>Power Loss as % of Electricity Generated</th>
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<td>2008</td>
<td>7,011.6</td>
<td>2,403.2</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>2,108.00</td>
<td>295.2</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>7,816.1</td>
<td>2,257.6</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>2,060.71</td>
<td>196.9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>8,820.7</td>
<td>2,981.9</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>2,383.08</td>
<td>598.8</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>9,287.0</td>
<td>3,086.1</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>2,703.00</td>
<td>383.1</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>9,937.0</td>
<td>3,268.0</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>2,898.50</td>
<td>369.5</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>12,323</td>
<td>3,350.3</td>
<td>Na</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>12,323</td>
<td>3,300.0</td>
<td>Na</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>na</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 CBN Annual Report (2014), pp.. 145 -147  
3.Ekpo and Bassey (2016)

From Table 2, in 1970, electric power installed capacity in Nigeria was 807.47 MW/h, out of which 21.9 percent capacity was utilized with 176 MW/h
electricity generated. Out of this, 31.3 MW/h was lost in transmission while 145.3 MW/h was actually supplied. In 2000, installed capacity was 5580.0 MW/h, out of which 31.2 percent was utilized. This generated 1738.3 MW/h of electricity with 721.0 MW/h lost in transmission. In 2010, installed capacity rose to 8820.7. Of this, 33.8 percent was utilized, and 2383.08 MW/h electricity was supplied, out of which 20.1 MW/h was lost in transmission. In 2012, installed capacity increased to 9937.0 MW/h from 9287.0 MW/h in 2011. In 2012, 32 percent of the installed capacity was utilized which generated 3260.0 MW/h electricity, with 369.5 MW/h (11.3 percent) lost in transmission. Between 2013 and 2014 installed capacity remained at 12323 MW/h. However, electricity generated dropped from 3350.3 MW/h in 2013 to 3300 MW/h in 2014. The highest electricity power installed capacity in Nigeria between 1970 and 2014 was 12323 MW/h installed in 2013 and 2014. When Nigeria’s highest capacity of 12323 MW/h is compared with 31.000 MW/h, which South Africa installed in 2006 (Damme and Zwart, 2003), Nigeria’s inadequacy in public supply of electricity is beyond doubt. Between 1970 and 2014, the highest capacity utilized of all installed capacities was 40.5 percent in 2005. The very low capacity utilization, which engendered inadequate electricity supply may have contributed to the below 55 percent average manufacturing capacity utilization since 1970 (CBN, 2014). The dysfunction of the power
sector in Nigeria actually raises doubt about the success of diversification in Nigeria.

vi) Low technological capability

Technological capability (that is, invention and innovation adequacy) of a country, according to UNESCO Institute of Statistics, UIS, (2009) can be measured using five major indices, namely: (1) number of researchers (per million people) in research and development, R&D, (2) number of technicians (per million people) in R&D, (3) number of scientific and technical journal articles, (4) expenditure on R&D (percentage of GDP), and (5) value of high technology exports (expressed in both $ million and percentage of exports). Table 2 provides information on the above technological indices for Nigeria and other selected countries of the world.
### Table 3: Major Indices of Technological Capability of Selected Countries, 2000 – 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Researchers in R &amp; D (per million people)</th>
<th>Technicians in R&amp;D (per million people)</th>
<th>Scientific and Technical Journal Articles</th>
<th>Expenditure on R&amp;D (% of GDP)</th>
<th>High Technology Exports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>n.a</td>
<td>n.a</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>n.a</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>5287</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>60067</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>122680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea Rep.</td>
<td>3,187</td>
<td>567</td>
<td>13746</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>83527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>708</td>
<td></td>
<td>29186</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>214246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>1,564</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>n.a</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>94,808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>3,065</td>
<td>1473</td>
<td>6,604</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>22,809</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Nigeria          | n.a                                      | n.a                                     | 427                                       | n.a                         | 46                       | 3                        |
| Korea Rep.       | 4627                                     | 720                                     | 18,467                                    | 3.21                        | 1003400                  | 32                       |
| China            | 1,071                                    | na                                      | 58,806                                    | 1.44                        | 348295                   | 31                       |
| Hong Kong        | 2,650                                    | 459                                     | n.a                                       | 0.81                        | 1,849                    | 31                       |
| Belgium          | 3,435                                    | 1,407                                   | 7071                                      | 1.92                        | 29,6276                  | 10                       |
| United Kingdom   | 4,269                                    | 895                                     | 47,121                                    | 1.88                        | 57,178                   | 23                       |
| Sweden           | 5,239                                    | 1,871                                   | 9,914                                     | 3.75                        | 17,089                   | 17                       |
| Singapore        | 6,088                                    | 539                                     | 3,792                                     | 2.52                        | 97,207                   | 49                       |

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<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea Rep.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table: Education Expenditure (as a % of GDP) for Selected Countries (2013-2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>1089</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>89,894</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>560,058</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>6442</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>4543</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>135,602</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea Rep.</td>
<td>6457</td>
<td>1168</td>
<td>25593</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>30460</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>4003</td>
<td>1379</td>
<td>7484</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>36504</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>5576</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>4777</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>4826</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: 1. Researchers in R&D are professionals engaged in conceiving of or creating new knowledge, products, processes, methods, and systems and in managing the projects concerned. 2. Technicians in R&D are people whose main tasks require technical knowledge and experience in engineering, physical and life sciences and humanities. They engage in R&D by performing scientific and technical tasks involving the application of concepts and operational methods, normally under researcher supervision. 3. Scientific and technical journal articles are published articles in physics, biology, chemistry, mathematics, clinical medicine, biomedical research, engineering and technology, and earth and space sciences. 4. Expenditure for R&D are current and capital expenditures on creative work undertaken to increase the stock of knowledge in the society, and the use of knowledge to devise new application. 5. High technology exports are products with high R&D intensity, such as aerospace, computers, pharmaceuticals, scientific instruments, and electrical machinery (World Development Indicators, 2011: 317).

From Table 3, in 2003, Nigeria got 384 scientific and technical journal articles while Korea Rep. and China got 13746 and 29186, respectively. In 2005, the value of technology exports by Nigeria was $ 8 million, which accounted for only 2 percent of its total manufactured exports. China in the same
year exported high technology products worth $214,246 million which accounted for about 31 percent of its total manufactured exports. In 2009, Nigeria’s exports of high technology products valued $46 million, a great improvement compared to that of 2005. However, when compared with $1003400 million worth of China, Nigeria’s technological incapability becomes clear. In 2010, Nigeria got 39 researches (per million people) in R&D, while Singapore and Hong Kong got 6307 and 2925 researchers (per million people), respectively. Between 2010 Nigeria invested 0.2 percent of its GDP on R&D, whereas Singapore invested 2.0 percent of its GDP while Sweden, an MDC, invested about 4.0 percent of its GDP on R&D. Between 2013 and 2014, the number of researchers (per million people) in R&D in Nigeria was still 39, with 13 technicians (per million people) in R&D. China, Singapore, and Korea Rep, between the same period, respectively, got 1089, 6442, and 6457 researchers (per million people) in R&D. Nigeria invested 0.22 percent of its GDP in R&D between 2013 and 2014, while China invested 2.01. Singapore and Korea Rep invested 2.00 and 4.17 of their GDP, respectively. Nigeria’s high technical exports, in 2014, were valued at $84 million, which accounted for 2.7 percent of its total manufactured exports. In 2014, Singapore exported high technical products worth $135,602 million; while China’s high technical products exported were valued at $560,058.
Among the five technology indicators, percentage of GDP invested in R&D is the commonly used indicator to measure resources invested in R&D. From the above exposition, Nigeria has not given adequate attention to R&D; this, then, suggests why Nigeria’s industrial cum technological capability is still in its embryo.

5. **Recommendations and Conclusion**

5.1 **Recommendations**

It is evident that adequate foundation has not been laid for meaningful industrialization in Nigeria which would trigger economic diversification. We, therefore, offer the following as prime-movers for effective economic diversification in Nigeria.

a) Nigeria needs functional iron and steel, and chemical industries along with viable power sector for sustainable industrialization. So, Nigeria should challenge its teams of engineers both at home and abroad to these tasks in collaboration with those companies that executed the same projects in the “Asian Tigers”. The need for this is pressing.

b) Research and development (R&D), and innovation are the tonic that sustain the economies of more developed countries, and are indispensable elements in diversification process. Nigeria should treasure innovation and R&D, and invest substantially in them.

c) Government should direct the various research centers and institutions to recruit
more researchers and technicians of diverse specialties in R&D. This will broaden the scope of research and quality of findings, which are necessary for technological development.
d) People of tested commitment and proven integrity who have knowledge about the functioning of the Nigerian economy and the global economy should be appointed into the leadership of Nigeria, and other posts of responsibility. This is necessary for the emergence of a developmental state. With sound and visionary leadership, the various sectors of the economy will contribute effectively to the diversification process.
e) Sinecure should be discouraged, and commitment and dedication to duties should be adequately rewarded. This will bring about synergy between an inclusive economy and political institutions: a tonic to diversification process.

5.1 Conclusion
The paper sought to examine some political economy considerations in diversification of the Nigerian economy using the historical–materialist method. The desire to diversify the Nigerian economy, though imperative, is not new; it has only been reinvigorated by the steep fall in oil price and its attendant fiscal imbalance Nigeria has experienced for about five years now. It is apposite, therefore, to note that the quest to diversify the
Nigerian economy through industrialization was the thrust of industrial policy in the First National Development Plan (1962 – 1968) and the Second National Development Plan period (1970 – 1974). Precisely, Nigeria then sought to diversify its economy to non–oil sector by adopting import substitution industrialization (ISI) and exports promotion (EP) strategies. However, the expected objective was not achieved due mainly to porous technological base. The present urge to diversify the Nigerian economy to non–oil sector is pressing. Nevertheless, it is important to note that economic diversification is not possible without industrialization, which is driven by a developmental state.

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World Bank *World Development Indicators*, (2011), pp. 314 -31

World Bank *World Development Indicators*, (2015) , Table 5.13
RESOURCE CONTROL AGITATION IN NIGERIA
THE NIGERIAN FEDERATION: A
MISUNDERSTOOD PHENOMENON

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Department of History & International Studies
University of Uyo
&
EKAETTE UMANAH EKONG
Department of History & International Studies
University of Uyo

SUMMARY
The clamour for resource control has generated tremendous attention in Nigeria since 1999. However, in spite of the growing interest generated, there seems to be grey areas of this phenomenon which the majority of Nigerians have indeed not understood. In other words, resource control is a misunderstood phenomenon. Some people neither understand its meaning nor distinguish it from the principle of derivation. The largely wrong perception held about the subject matter may be the reason why most people narrowly equate the term with crude oil activities believing that resource control means an attempt by states in the oil-rich Niger Delta region to exclusively control the oil resources in their territories. On this premise, they have consistently opposed the idea and equate it as a ploy to break up the Nigerian polity. The twin concept of resource control and federalism complement each other even though they are often
used independently, the concepts are interchangeable. This is because true federalism guarantees resource control and resource control is an indication of true federalism. Adopting historical and comparative analytical methodologies, the paper examines the concept of resource control, its practice in pre-military Nigerian era and the benefits the practice could generate in the Nigerian federation.

INTRODUCTION

One of the major challenges confronting Nigeria in contemporary times is how to devise an equitable and generally acceptable revenue sharing formula for all the major stakeholders in the federation, especially, the 36 states, which are the component units of the federation. The apparent failure to devise one, in spite of several attempts in the preceding decades, has led to the increased friction in inter-governmental relations and the rising pitch of the demand for resource control by some communities and states in the federation, which have gone a long way to weaken the already tattered fabrics of the Nigerian federation, threaten the basis for national cohesion and unity and significantly constrain the foundations of stable growth and socio-economic development (Jega, 2007: 122).

The centrality of the idea of resource control is the revision of the current relations of fiscal centralism where the Federal Government is pre-eminent where the states would predominate. The
The Meaning of Resource Control

As noted already, the term resource control has become very popular in Nigeria but there has been no consensus on its real meaning. Osipitan (2004) has expressed the view that “within the
context of the current contest between some states and the Federal Government of Nigeria, resource control signifies the legal authority by states to manage natural resources within their territories in terms of defining the manner and mode of exploitation as well as utilisation of proceeds accruing thereto.

At the summit of the Governors of the South-South region of Nigeria, in Benin City, Edo State, on the 27th of March 2001, resource control was defined as the “practice of true federalism and natural law in which the federating units express the right to primarily control the natural resources within their borders and make agreed contributions toward the maintenance of the government at the centre (Odu, 2008:60).

According to Sagay (2001: 2), resource control involves three major components:
(i) The power and right of a community or state to raise funds by way of taxation on persons, matters, services and materials within its territory.
(ii) The exclusive right to the ownership and control of resources, both natural and created within its territory.
(iii) The right to customs duties on goods destined for its territory and excise duties on goods manufactured in its territory.

Sagay (2002: 2) adds that the central issue in the concept of resource control is beyond the quest for increased revenue from the proceeds of one’s resources, but rather, it is the right of states and
communities most directly concerned (that is the producing states and communities) to have a direct and decisive role in the exploration of, the exploitation and disposal of resources, including sales of the “harvested” resources. In terms of crude oil production, he opines that it is those who live with the devastating consequences of greedy, cheap, crude, reckless and irresponsible exploitation practices and procedures, who must control the mode and management of commercial production in order to ensure an environmentally friendly production process, elimination of pollution, protection of the lands, forests, rivers and atmosphere. It is they who will insist on planned and controlled production to ensure the progressive replacement of the non-renewable resource, by a renewable product that is free of pollution and other environment hazards. Mere increase in revenue without control and management is short sighted and deadly and it condems the peoples of the Niger – Delta to a present without a future.

Dafinone cited in Akpan (2006: 48), views resource control as a basic economic theory grounded in the fact that land, labour capital and entrepreneurship are factors of production. He notes that Adam Smith, an early economist outlined the concept in his book The Wealth of the Nations. Just as the price of labour is wages, capital has interest; entrepreneurship is driven by profit, while rent and royalties are rewards for land ownership. Rent is retention for the use of the original and indestructible
properties of the soil. Whoever owns land expects some form of compensation from those hiring the very important factor of production. He points out further that the clamour for resource control from the Niger Delta perspective is a call for adequate compensation by the Niger Delta oil producing states, a cry for the redistribution of the revenue allocation formula.

Odu also views the concept thus:

Resource control refers to the possession by individuals, communities and states or the natural host (s) owner (s) of the right of ownership, control, use and management of land and natural resources in or on them. To fully contextualise the meaning of the above, it is essential that ownership is limited to the natural inhabitants of the geographical area bearing the resources. Also the control over resources must be assumed as an inalienable right. The demands for resource control, although at present mainly associated with the oil bearing communities of the Niger Delta region, is not limited to the control of oil resources, but extends to other kinds of natural resources located in different communities. The issue of resource control in Nigeria is an aspect of the national question that has its roots in the pre-independence period. The current
demand follows series of unilaterally established formal instruments and legal enactments by the Federal Government, for the appropriation or the extinguishing of the rights of ownership and control of natural resources as against those agreed to by the founding fathers of the Nigerian federation. There is a marked difference between resource control and the principle of derivation which is a way of assuaging loss of ownership and control of the exploitation and utilization of own geographically located resources (Odu, 2008: 61-62).

Attah (2005: 9) notes that resource control does not mean keeping 100 percent of revenue derivable from resources but it means keeping back what the constitution permits, but controlling the circumferences of the operation. He submits strongly that resource control is a compelling necessity for the practice of true federalism and that the concept can only be fully appreciated and understood under federalism. Drawing his backing from the scholarly opinion of Venkataranganya, he describes federalism as a constitutional system under which people of any particular territory are politically united in subjection to the control, not of one government supreme over them in all matters and for all purposes, but a number of governments, each supreme in a definite sphere of its own, free
completely from possibilities of encroachment from the rest.

The concept implies that in all true federal arrangements, no level of government is subordinate to another, but rather, all tiers of government are co-ordinate, one with another and financial subordination which can only exist in the absence of resource control makes mockery of federalism. Resource control to Attah is therefore, rooted in the desire of some Nigerian patriots to promote the practice of true federalism as the most efficient means unbinding all sections of Nigeria from the shackles that have weighed them down since the first military misrule thus, ensuring the harnessing of the vast economic potentials of the nation towards rapid development (Attah, 2005: 10).

Attah (2005: 10) insists that resource control will develop skills and abilities, local content and entrepreneurship will also be substantially increased and encouraged. The environment will be better protected, the rage of the local communities will be assuaged, and peace and progress entrenched. He recalls that on the occasion of the signing of the Farm Out Agreement by the Akwa Ibom State Government, the Group Managing Director of the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC), appreciated the tangible effort of the deal, stressing that by the conservative estimate, 12,000 new jobs would be created and in addition between 100,000 to 150,000 barrels of oil will be added daily to national production. The tangible benefits are equally
immeasurable. To this end, the assertion is that it could be great if Kaduna, Niger, Nasarawa, Bauchi and other states with rich mineral deposits could now embrace resource control, form their own states and indigenous companies and obtain federal licences to explore and exploit these mineral deposits that at the moment lie waste in the ground. That would be a glorious manifestation of resource control.

The desire of states in the federation of Nigeria to control and manage the natural resources located therein is not an attempt to seize the oil, but to participate in the process. By no stretch of imagination thereof can the concept of resource control be equated with crude oil only. It surpasses the same in a million fold. This is because resource control transcends the narrow confines of crude oil to include coal, hides and skin, tin, limestone, groundnut, rubber, cotton, palm oil and solid mineral on earth. Consequently, any state that is endowed with any of these resources should be empowered to control and manage same upon payment of taxes to the Federal Government. Above all, he adds that resource control will stimulate healthy competition between the states and eventually lead to even development of the country. New barriers would be broken, more resources would be discovered and managed for the benefit of the Nigerian federation (Okumagba, 2002: 491).
**Mineral Resources Available in Each of the States of Nigeria and the Federal Capital Territory**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Mineral Resource (s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>Gold, salt, kaolin, silica, limestone/zinc, oil and gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akwa Ibom</td>
<td>Crude oil, gas, kaolin, limestone, clay, limestone, lead/zinc, uranium, Salt, lignite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adamawa</td>
<td>Bauxite, kaolin, bentonite, gypsum, magnesite, barites, bauxite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anambra</td>
<td>Kaolin, salt, lead/zine, clay, limestone, iron-ore, lignite, glass-sand, Phosphate, gypsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bayelsa</td>
<td>Crude oil, gas, clay, gypsum, limestone, uranium, manganese lignite, Lead/zinc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bauchi</td>
<td>Phosphate, limestone, iron ore, columbite, molybdenum, tantalum, amethyst, gypsum, lead/zinc, uranium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Minerals/Commodities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benue</td>
<td>Limestone, gypsum, salt, barites, fluorspar, iron ore, lead/zinc, marble, bauxite, barites, gemstone, oil and gas, coal clay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borno</td>
<td>Diatomite, feldspar, soda ash, iron ore, clay, limestone, oil and gas, Gypsum, kaolin, bentonite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross River</td>
<td>Kaolin, limestone, salt, diatomite, clay, oil and gas, gypsum, uranium, Manganese, lignite, lead/zinc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delta</td>
<td>Kaolin, silica, oil and gas, marble, glass-sand, clay, gypsum, lignite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekiti</td>
<td>Asbestos, molybdenum, tattium, zircon, kaolin, feldspar, syenites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edo</td>
<td>Kaolin, gypsum, marble, clay, iron-ore, glass-sand, gold, dolomite, Phosphate, bitumen, oil and gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enugu</td>
<td>Limestone, iron ore, coal, gold, lead/zinc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gombe</td>
<td>Limestone, marble, wolfram, gemstone, gypsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>Kaolin, limestone, salt, lead/zinc, lignite, phosphate, marcasite, Gypsum, oil and gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jigawa</td>
<td>Columbite, garnet, barites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>Soda ash, tantalium, wolfram, pyrochlore, cassiterite, copper,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Minerals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>Feldspar, asbestos, marble, kynaite, iron ore, columbite, wolfram, tourmaline, ruby, sapphire, amethyst, sapphire, kaolin, gold, clay, serpentine, sillimanite, mica, aquamarine, ruby rock, crystal, topaz, fluor spar, tourmaline, gerstone, tantalite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katsina</td>
<td>Kyanite, Chromite, zircon, marble, salt, kaolin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kebbi</td>
<td>Salt, garnet, gold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kogi</td>
<td>Feldspar, iron ore, kaolin, gypsum, coal, marble, dolomite, Talc, tantalite, limestone, gemstone, bitumen, gold, iron-ore, mica, Kaolin, gypsum, feldspar, coal, dolomite, tantalite, bitumen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwara</td>
<td>Talc, marble, silmanite, iron ore, cassiterite, columbite, tantalite, Feldspar, mica.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>Silica, asbestos, oil and gas, glass-sand, bitumen, tar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasarawa</td>
<td>Asbestos, magnesite, aquamarine, beryl (emerald, aquamarine &amp; heliodor), dolomite/marble, sapphire, tourmaline, quartz, amethyst (garnet, topaz) zircon, tantalite, cassiterite, columbite, ilmenite,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Minerals and Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>Marble, talc, gold, iron-ore.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogun</td>
<td>Limestone, silca, phosphate, asbestos, kyanite, gold, feldspar, clay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>Silica, talc, columbite, molybdenum, bitumen, oil and gas, gemstone, Granite, clay, glass-sand, bauxite dimension stones, coal, kaolin Gypsum, feldspar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oyo</td>
<td>Talc, marble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>Baytes, tin, bauxite, iron ore, molybdenum, zircon, emerald, rock Crystal, topaz, fluorspar, tourmaline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>Kaolin, limestone, silca, oil and gas, glass-sand, clay, marble, lignite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sokoto</td>
<td>Limestone, phosphate, gypsum, salt, iron ore, chromite, kaolin, gold, limestone, silca-sand, clay, laterite, potash, flakes, granite,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taraba</td>
<td>Bauxite, clay, kaolin, lead/zinc,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yobe</td>
<td>Diatomite and soda ash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamfara</td>
<td>Phosphate, limestone, gold</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Resource Control in the Immediate Post-independence Nigeria

The 1960 Independence and 1963 Republican Constitutions enshrined fiscal federalism and resource control. For instance, section 134(6) and 140(6) respectively ensured resource control. Similarly, the aforesaid sections considered the Continental Shelf where there are large mineral and petroleum deposits as part of the Region were same was situated for the purpose of 50 percent derivation. The regions where entitled to exclusively benefit from the Continental Shelf. Resource control is therefore not a new concept in Nigeria but a resuscitation of idea that was truncated by the military in the late 1960s.

However, following the incursion of the military into the nation’s governance in 1966, the existing equitable principle of “true federalism” and resource control were altered and the nation tilted to a unitary system. According to Odje (2002: 82) some of the laws which the Federal Government has deliberately issued over the years to ensure its control of natural resources include:

- Decree No. 51 of 1969
- Decree No. 9 of 1971
- Decree No. 6 of 1975
- The Land Use Decree of 1978
Exclusive Economic Zone Act, Cap. 116 of the Federation, 1990 as amended by Act No. 42 of 1998
Oil Pipeline Act Cap. 333 of the Federation, 1990
Territorial Waters Act, Cap. 428, Laws of the federation, 1990 as amended by Act No. 1 of 1998
National In-land Water Ways Authority Act 13, of 1997
Mineral and Mining Act No. 34 of 1999
Section 44(3) of the 1999 Constitution
Item 39 on the Exclusive legislative List of the 1999 Constitution

An exhaustive analysis of the implications of these laws is not possible, but it appears that these artificial laws were designed by some individuals from the majority ethnic groups to checkmate the potentials of the people of the oil producing region. Consequently, the root of the problem can be linked with issue of national question, which could be summarised as the minimum desire which if met, will reasonably assuage the anxieties of the mineral bearing communities and ensure their commitment to the continued existence of the Nigerian nation.

The changes that have been made with respect to ownership of land, off-shore oil, revenue allocation etc. are major departures from the constitutional provisions operated when agriculture was the mainstay of the nation’s economy. During that dispensation, none of the regions was unfairly discriminated against and none lacked the necessary funds with which to undertake projects and
programmes beneficial to the people. They were also not deprived of the ownership of resources and revenues as is the case with the oil producing area today (Akpan, 2017: 94).

Legal Justification to Resource Control: A Comparative Analysis

The normative basis for the Federal Government’s claim and control over natural resources found in the territories of the nationalities/states in the Nigerian Federation are the constitution and other law by the provisions of which the central government is endowed with relevant powers. These legal instruments have their socio-political dimension and they cannot be considered sacrosanct to the detriment of some communities and people whose interest and aspiration have been suppressed through their implementation (Ibanga, 2002: 626).

Ibanga (2002: 627) also notes that the demand for resource control is founded on the right of the people for self-determination. The international human rights law concept initially derived from the moral and political imperatives of decolonisation with a focus to granting independence to colonial territories. This doctrine could also be viewed as representing the right of people within a country to a mechanism of governance that reflect their wishes and is protective of their needs and interests. He cites the 1960 United Nations General Assembly Declaration adopted on the granting of independence to colonial countries and people, the
declaration states that “all peoples have the right to self-determination by virtue of which they are to freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development”.

The 1966 International Covenants describe self determination as the “right of a people within a state to a government or machinery of political administration that reflects their wishes and right of a people or peoples organised as a state to freedom from external domination. The first aspect identified above is applicable to the domestic situation in Nigeria in which peoples (Yoruba, Ibibio, Ijaw, Ogoni etc.) are agitating for the control of resources within their territories. In view of the fact that revenue accruing to the central government of Nigeria derived from mineral resources exploitation have been largely and unjustifiably mismanaged, the affected people now demand that they should take part in the process of exploitation which they exercised in their pre-Nigerian state right to control their land and resources in them (Ibanga, 2002: 628; Akpan, 2006: 65).

As explosive as the agitation for resource control may seem especially with regards to the nation’s corporate existence, it is very likely that whenever resource control becomes a reality, non-oil areas particularly the Northern states may benefit more in the long-run than even the oil producing areas. This is because as the list of minerals in the respective states of the federation has shown, there
are large solid mineral deposits across the nation in addition to other resources like million areas of fertile land, abundant food crops with possibilities of producing millions of tons of exportable cash crops, millions of cattle, sheep, goats, chicken and other products. Exploitation of these vast resources has either been abandoned or is given lackluster attention for a long time now by successive governments in Nigeria. It is instructive to note that there are many countries around the world, which are doing extremely well and in many cases doing better than oil-rich Nigeria, but are not producing a single barrel of oil (Okumagba, 2002: 492).

Some African countries such as South Africa, Egypt, Ghana and Cote d’voire, which are said to be enjoying higher quality of life and per capita income higher than what is obtainable in Nigeria, are not known to be oil producing states. Most of these countries depend almost exclusively on solid mineral like diamond, gold etc. as well as the exploitation of agricultural produce like groundnut, cotton, cocoa etc. which similarly have been abandoned in Nigeria. Mention must also be made of countries like Japan, Germany and France that have no oil but are rated among the richest and seven most developed countries of the world referred to as G7. The argument advanced based on the above fact is that even if the oil producing states were to assume exclusive control of the oil, states that do not have oil would still develop the resources available to them
such as land and mineral resources (Okumagba, 2002: 493).

Okumagba (2002: 493) and Ndon (2006: 126) have extensively highlighted the need for the nation to diversify revenue generating base. They observe that the revival of the oil palm industry sector has become increasingly imperative in view of the dwindling economic situation. They link the abandonment of the oil palm industry to the oil boom and describe oil palm as an alternative to crude oil. This is because countries like Malaysia and Indonesia have successfully used this crop to boost their economies; hence, this becomes a clear challenge to Nigeria which is reputed to have the largest resource of the oil palm tree. The resource if properly developed and managed could result in the reenactment of the “Malaysian magic”. Before the emergence of the oil boom in Nigeria, Malaysia’s revenue from oil palm exceeded Nigeria’s revenue from crude oil and even the fact that at present, a litre of oil palm is higher than a litre of crude oil in the international market. Indeed, it could be recalled that Malaysia got its first oil palm seedling from Nigeria, at present; oil palm is the cornerstone of Malaysia’s industrial growth. Driven by the desire to remain on top, Malaysia has developed about 3.2 million hectares of oil palm plantations, milling 9 million tons of oil palm with earnings of more than 57 million dollars from its export.

Just as the issue of resource control has generated a lot of controversy in Nigeria, it has also
generated similar volatility in other countries of the world, whether developed or under developed. In most countries, it is the general practice to decentralise mineral resources development from the control of provincial governments and the resources from rents shared. A comparative analysis of resource control in Indonesia, Philippines and Malaysia and in most countries of the Economic and Social Commission of Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) region shows that major development projects concerning metallic and non-metallic materials did not formerly bring economic benefits to the local people. Resistance to such development intensified with the occurrence of the Asian economic crisis which reduced resource allocation to provincial authorities by the national government (Okumagba, 2002: 495).

In Indonesia and Philippines, the issues of decentralisation and revenue sharing are receiving attention as studies are being conducted on how to equitably share resource rentals such as royalties and rent payment for use of infrastructure. In Philippines, the legal instrument to decentralisation of resource rent revenue sharing is contained in the provisions of the Local Government Code of 1991, some of the problems of decentralisation include allocation of resources between Cities/Barangays and Provinces/Municipalities. While in Indonesia the government enacted two major laws in 1999, the law of regional autonomy and the law of inter-governmental fiscal relations. The first law grants
extensive authority to 26 provinces in all matters including small-scale mining, except defence, foreign, judicial, monetary and religious affairs. The second law to be enforced by the government provides a specific share of revenue from oil and mining development to mineral resources (Okumagba, 2001: 495).

Further analysis is Malaysia’s new mineral policy spells out how the national mineral policy replaced a combination of federal and state government laws. This resulted in the Federal Mineral Act, which defines the powers of the Federal Government and the State Mineral Enactment which delineates the powers and rights of the state governments in respect of the issuance of mineral tenements, (Prospecting and exploration licences and mining leases) and provided a standard model. The Federal Government has continued to enhance federal-state coordination through the establishment of the National Mineral Council under the chairmanship of the Deputy Prime Minister. The framework which resulted in the entrenchment of some level of resource autonomy for the state is said to have led to the massive in-flow of foreign and local investment which could be a major incentive to Nigeria considering her present economic predicament (Ibanga, 2002: 628; Okumagba, 2002: 496).

Contemporary constitutional developments in Canada have further strengthened and widened provincial ownership and control of natural
resources. In 1982, the Parliament of the United Kingdom passed the Constitution Act of 1982, which was based on proposals from the 10 Provinces and the Federal Government (the only exception being the Province of Quebec), changed aspects of the British North America’s Act of 1867. The new law gave the Provinces greater control over natural resources and taxation (Lazarus, 1997: 41).

Lazarus (2002: 16) notes that each province, the legislature may exclusively make laws in relations to:

(i) Exploitation of non-renewable natural resources in the Province.

(ii) Development, conservation and management of non-renewable natural resources and forestry resources in the province including laws in relation to the rate of primary production thereof, and

(iii) Development, conservation and management of sites facilities in the province for the generation of electric energy.

In other plural societies notably New Zealand and Australia, the conflict between state law and communal claims have led to some interesting judicial cases in which the pre-state right of the peoples have been recognised. In the celebrated Australian case of Mabo vs. the State of Queensland in 1991, the court decided, for the first time in Australian law, that a form of native title to land based upon indigenous law and custom could survive the transfer of sovereignty to the British
Crown at colonisation. It recognised the right of a people based on anthropological claim which the concerned people had been denied for more than 20 years on the basis of enacted law (Ibanga, 2002: 628).

Ibanga (2002: 629) has also cited another landmark case from a foreign jurisdiction as the New Zealand’s case of Re-Marlborough Sounds of 1997 in which a confederation of eight tribal peoples claimed that the foreshore and seabed of Re-Marlborough Sounds are Maori customary land and not subject to ownership or deposition by the Crown. The issue before the court in the case was whether, since the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840, Maori customary rights to the foreshore and seabed in and around the Re-Marlborough Sounds had been extinguished.

After reviewing an earlier relevant case of Re-Ninety Mile Beach of 1963, the court held that where a tribal people had not been expressively separated from their customary lands adjacent to the foreshore by statute of purchase, their customary rights remained intact. The court reached this decision after discountenancing the argument of the government that the customary rights of the tribal people had been extinguished by territorial Sea Contiguous and Exclusive Economic Zone Act of 1977, which provides in its section seven that:

Subject to the grant of any state or interest therein, (whether by pursuant to the provisions of any enactment or
otherwise and whether made before or after the commencement of this Act), the seabed and submarine areas bounded, on the landward sides by the low water mark along the coast of the New Zealand including the coast of all islands and the seaward side by the water limits of the territorial sea of New Zealand shall be deemed to have vested in the Crown (Ibanga, 2002: 630).

A point to note is that some statutory provisions in Nigeria by which ethnic peoples have been denied their customary rights to their ancestral lands are couched in similar terms as the provision quoted above. In the case cited above, the “tribal” peoples argued that in order not for customary rights to be extinguished, the statute in question had to refer in unequivocal terms to the extinction of such rights. Following an historical investigation of the relevant legislations, the court found that, the assumption of sovereignty (by the Crown in 1840), has in no way disturbed, diminished or extinguished any title or rights Maori may have had to the sea bed (Ibanga, 2002: 630).

Legal evidence shows that the Supreme Court had in 1965 upheld the natural rights of the inhabitants of tidal waters based on the principle of prior beneficial interest in spite of the provisions of Mineral Acts of 1946 Cap. 226, which states:

The entire property in and of all minerals in, under or upon any land in Nigeria,
and of rivers, streams and water courses through Nigeria, is and shall be vested in the state (Cited in Odje, 2002: 68).

An examination of the United States of America’s experience is relevant to Nigeria’s situation because the USA is a federation of states, indeed, an older federation. Nigeria has a lot to learn from USA, a fact that underscored the decision during the Constituent Assembly proceedings that midwife the Second Republic to opt for the presidential system of government modelled after the American system.

In the USA, the Outer Continental Shelf (OCS) has been the source of enormous oil and gas revenue. Consequently, it has continued to attract public and private interest so much that the 105th and 106th Congresses visited the OCS and introduced bills seeking funding for the Coastal State Impact Land and Water Conservation Fund (LWCF) and wildlife programmes. Legislation introduced in the 106th Congress sought to capture half of the oil and gas revenue from the OCS for coastal states. The OCS is the federal portion of the Continental Shelf, extending outward from three nautical miles offshore to 200 mile territorial limit. Offshore lands within three nautical miles belong to the states, exception of Western Florida and Texas, where state lands extend to nine nautical mile line (Okpong, 2002: 156).
Okpong (2002: 157) also observes that the United States government enacted the Outer Continental Shelf Lands Act (OCSL) in 1953 as a response to the increasing interest in developing OCS oil and gas resources. OCL as amended was derived at providing orderly leasing for those mining rights, while affording protection for the environment and ensuring the federal and state government each receives affair value from the resulting production.

Determining an acceptable division of revenue from the OCS between adjacent coastal states and the Federal Government has proven to be difficult. Although the OCS is a federal territory, coastal states argue that they bear the brunt of remediating environmental impact and infrastructural wear and tear accompanying the OCS oil and gas activity. Three states also harbour concern about rapid development in shore side communities possibly needed to support off-shore activity, concerns that are equally at the root course of the current agitation by the coastal states of Nigeria to control their resources.

The history of disputes between the United States Federal Government and states over OCS revenues and the reluctance of Congress to appropriate authorised funds led to the introduction in the 105th Congress, the allocation of half of the OCS rents, royalties and bonuses to coastal states. This allocation has a parallel in the offshore revenue programme for production from Federal lands. Even with onshore revenues, 50 percent is allocated to the
state in which the lease is located and 40 percent is earmarked for the reclamation funds, only 10 percent goes to the treasury (Okpong, 2002: 167).

While it is not being suggested that only 10 percent of off-shore revenues should actually go to the Federal Government of Nigeria, the United States situation contrasts with what is obtainable in Nigeria. In Nigeria, the Federal Government collects all oil mineral funds and distributes about 13 percent to the states from which the resources are derived. In the case of the off-shore “lands”, the existence of unjust legislations makes it impossible for the Federal Government to benefit more. It is clear from the United States’ experience that in order for the Federal Government to have a fair share of leasing in off-shore waters and territories, Congress had specifically passed the OCS Land Act of 1953, as amended. The essence of this act was to reserve some off-shore territory exclusively to itself. This is understandable as the law protects vested interest and rights, which can only be extinguished by very clear and unambiguous statutes. In Nigeria, the reverse is the case, despite the fact that both the United States and Nigeria are generally regarded as common law jurisdiction. In Nigeria, the Federal Government simply assumes that it has exclusive propriety right over the off-shore land. Also, in the USA, the State of Alaska owns all the lands in the state currently producing oil and collects more than 1.1 billion dollars annually in royalties on production on its public lands. Local governments in several
parts of America collect property taxes on deposit of natural resource (Okpong, 2002: 168).

In Canada, the Province of Ontario, Alberto and British Columbia have oil but they export their oil directly while the neighbouring provinces in Canada still imports oil from America and Mexico. This is the essence, and in fact the beauty of federalism and democracy. Of course, these oil-rich provinces pay adequate taxes and tariffs to the central government (Akpan, 2004: 130).

However, the opinion leaders from the Northern part of Nigeria do not appear to believe in the clamour for resource control. Their position is that resources of the country belong to all Nigerians irrespective of their state of origin. They argue further that the North has contributed to national development in the past through the production of food and cash crops without agitating for resource control. The Northern Governors Forum made up of the 19 Governors of the Northern part of the country also opines that the resource control is not practicable. According to them, instead of supporting the devolution of powers to the states, they prefer the existing arrangement with a powerful centre but the federal government should be alive to its responsibilities. The fear is that the federating units could become very powerful and eventually decide to declare independence for themselves. This situation, they maintain, will threaten the peace and stability of the country. Thus, they prefer a Federal Government
that will be strong enough to hold the country together (Akpan, 2004: 131).

CONCLUSION

As noted earlier, resource control and fiscal federalism are natural features of democracy and the moment they are subtracted from the system, what may be achieved is internal colonialism. Democrats are supposed to be champions of liberty, egalitarianism and equity, while despots are supposed to toe the line of oppression and forcible expropriation of the natural resources of people without commensurate compensation. When resource control becomes operational, it will spark off competition and development endeavours. If the federating units were independent nations, they would have still survived on their own. For instance, Plateau can survive with agriculture and tourism. With the exploitation of their solid minerals, it could embark on wonderful development projects. Why this has not happened yet is because every Nigerian looks up to the proceeds from petroleum for succor (Akpan, 2004: 132).

Akpan (2004: 132) notes that one way of complimenting resource control is for the Federal Government to act as the “father of all” and use the proceeds that are supposed to be paid as taxes from the federating units to beam development searchlight on states that are less endowed and less developed as a result of lack of funds. In other words, if the states of the South-South, because of their
resources, are buoyant, and the states in the North-East are not rich, then the Federal Government should allocate more funds to the states of the North-East than the South-South. The expectation is that with superfluous resources, the South-South states can develop at a faster rate and allow a part of their resources (in form of tax) to be used to develop the North-East, in order to achieve the target of balanced development in the country.

There seems to be a dominant view however that the more financially autonomous or self-sustaining the component units in a federation are, the more viable it is that it will survive over time. This perhaps explains why in most viable federations, some which have been discussed, the component units have high degree guaranteed source of financial autonomy even though some co-operation and assistance from the centre cannot be ruled out completely. That, in most cases is achieved through some measure of control over their resources. This tends to be the practice in the United States of America where mining, minerals and oil are largely properties of the states. This also seems to be the case in Canada, where all lands, mines, minerals and royalties belong to several provinces (Okoko and Nna, 1997: 17).

This means that the ownership, control and management of resources and proceeds thereof, rest with the provinces rather than the central government. In addition, in view of the apparent sharp discrepancies in wealth between the oil
producing and non-oil producing provinces in Canada, the oil rich provinces are allowed to sell their oil at OPEC’s price in the international market. However, the Federal Government set a domestic price of about two third of OPEC’s price for domestic sales while at the same time charging tax on all oil exports. It is the proceeds of such taxes that the Federal government subsidises the cost of oil in non-producing provinces. This system, if adopted in Nigeria will prove more viable and equitable than the present practice whereby the central government arbitrarily appropriates all resources from the oil producing minority states (Okoko and Nna, 1997,: 18).

Nigeria cannot pretend to operate federalism and democracy and at the same time be unitary in orientation. It has to toe the path of modern justice and equity. The revelation by some Niger Delta leaders creates some justification for the oil-producing states to continue in their agitation. According to Edwin Clark, the North-West, North-East and North-central contribute less than one percent to the national coffers. The South-East contribute 2.5 percent, the South-West contributes 3.6 percent, while the South-South geo-political zone contributes 91.5 percent. He reasons also that it is therefore unjust for the areas that do not make any contribution to the national coffers to now decide what should be given to the owners of the resources while the reverse ought to be the prevalent norm. The South-South is therefore justified to demand for
resource control, in the interim, have 50 percent of the contributions to the national treasury.

REFERENCES


Delivered at the University of Lagos, November 24.


THE PARADIGM FOR ACCELERATED DEVELOPMENT OF NIGERIA

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SUMMARY

Nigeria recently earned the inglorious status of containing the highest number of the poorest people in the world in the face of available human and material resources. This has made the need for a change in the development paradigm in Nigeria a categorical imperative. This study then identified an accelerated development paradigm anchored on ‘the plantain theory of development’ as the driver of accelerated development for Nigeria. The problem was addressed through the descriptive approach where secondary data were obtained from the available published materials for application and directive analysis. The study canvassed that all projects selected for development in Nigeria should be those, which have the quality of the plantain plant. It further proposed for the robust involvement of the state in the economy in spite of the current ideology of ‘Washington Institutions’ that the private sector
should be the drivers of the economy. It was revealed that the private sector in Nigeria are mostly SMEs hence Nigeria cannot ignite accelerated development through a weak private sector. The study further prescribed that projects selected for inclusion in the accelerated development plan, should have the nature of the plantain plant. A purposeful leadership driving the accelerated development plan as enunciated herein would lead to the development of Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION
The lack of development of the rural areas and economy in Nigeria since independence is legendary. Nigeria’s enormous resource endowment, measured against its level of development seems a great paradox. The USAID Website described Nigeria as one of the largest economies in sub-Saharan Africa, but it must overcome significant development and governance challenges by adopting and apply the appropriate paradigm for accelerated development. According to the UNO, the country has one of the world’s lowest per capita social spending levels resulting in 65 per cent of the 186 million citizens living in extreme poverty (USAID Website, 2018). This situation is complemented by negative instances of unwarranted displacement, destruction of agricultural farmland and lack of agricultural practices in many areas as a result of the constant security threats. These combined with the poor initiatives towards rural, urban and general
economic development has placed Nigeria in backward position in all the UN development scale.

Since 1990 when the UN Human Development Report (HDR), was launched, Nigeria has often found itself in the bottom rung of the scale. The global report used indices such as Human Development Index (HDI), Gender-related Development index, Gender Empowerment Measure, Human Poverty index, Gender Empowerment Measure and Human Poverty Index. The top 10 Mover countries highlighted in the 2010 Report out of 135 countries that improved most in HDI, did not include Nigeria. In all the reports Nigeria had fared poorly, none had Nigeria even in the 50th position. Nigeria had about 10 million out-of-school-children (UNICEF, 2007). This was before the before the Boko Haram insurgency and the incessant herdsmen attack on agricultural locations. All these put together have pushed Nigeria to overtake India as nation with the highest number of the poorest people in the global scale. Nigeria had performed poorly all through the reports, making the need to review Nigeria’s development paradigm a categorical imperative.

This study was conducted to explore a paradigm for accelerated development pattern for Nigeria, given the failure of all the past approaches to lead Nigeria out of the state of underdevelopment given that her contemporaries have been able to pass the level of
providing basic existential amenities to its citizens. It aimed at identifying the approach that would not only aid the development of the state but would also assist in achieving sustainable growth and development in the country. It thus, was an exploratory study which adopted ‘plantain theory as a means of accelerated growth’.

**Statement of the Problem**
The problem of this study was about the fact that Nigeria has not been able to define and adopt an appropriate paradigm of development for its growth, which would create public values and progress in Nigeria. Consequent upon this, Nigeria with so much resources, has just been crowned the nation with the largest concentration of the poorest people in the world, ahead of India. It has recently been reported, that Nigeria has 92.1 per cent of its population living under 5.5 dollar per day. India has 86.8 per cent and Ethiopia 84.7 per cent (World Bank, & Brooking Institute, 2018)

It is instructive to note that without an appropriate development paradigm, it would be impossible to guide the state towards achieving any of the United Nations defined development trajectory such as the Sustainable Development Growth (SDG). Therefore, the proposed paradigm considered suitable in the face of dwindling natural endowment would be ‘the plantain theory of sustainable development’ developed by Frank (2015).
Plantain is a common food plant dominant in Africa, Latin America and many parts of the world and serves as a stable food crop for some countries, some of which are; Uganda, Rwanda, Ghana, Cameroon and Nigeria. Its scientific name is ‘musa paradisiaca’. Musa being the genus name and ‘Paradisiaca’ being the specie name. They are large perennial, herbaceous plants that consist of underground stem the ‘corm’, ‘bulb’, or rhizome with 200-500 fibrous roots from which it propagates by sprout or suckers. This is an illustration of sustainability. Thus, any policy pursued by the state, and investment meant for Sustainable Development, should have the capacity for reproduction like the sucker of ‘musa paradisiaca’, for sustainable human development.

It is lower in sugar and rich in protein contents (it is recommended as staple food for diabetic patients). Its process of fruit production is known as parthenocarpie that is, without cross-pollination. Genetically Plantains are triploid with three (3) sets of chromosomes which aid its propagation by suckers. It has the ability to regenerate from the corms and quickly recover when damaged by fire, flood and even wind (sustainability). Each corm (bulb, rhizome, and tuber) of the plantain is able to propagate between three and nine suckers. This is an illustration of sustainability. Thus, any policy pursued by the state, and investment meant for
Sustainable Development, should be able to act like the sucker of ‘musaparadisiaca’ that is, augment itself, for sustainable human development (Frank, 2015). The theory was meant to attempt to balance the development equation where there is a growing population which is faced with degrading environment, decreasing food index and finite natural resources.

The principal issues are that; (i) the current development approach in Nigeria is not sustainable because the major source of income is but expendable, that is, it would finish someday. (ii) It requires an educated and selfless leadership which would understand the economics of sustainable investments devoid of politics. (iii) The investment decisions should select the sectors for investment which would reproduce itself in all conditions such as the plantain plant, example education. (iii) The investments would augment itself as capital does hence accelerated development would be attained within a specific period. (iv) The accelerated paradigm of development would require strong state institutions for public value creation. These should be created and operated on merit while being insulated from political interference.

**The logic of the Plantain Theory: An Analysis**

The logic of sustainable Development derivable from the nature of *Musa Paradisica aka*Plantain, stressed the situation in which a leader generate and execute social and economic development policies in which
every project duly implemented serves as the plantain ‘bulb’ or ‘rhizome’ and sprout into several other positive indices in terms of human development which are beneficial to the society. Thus; by fixing the stem in the environment (this imply leadership, which planned to keep hunger away), because it is perennial, it last, for a very long time before it could be destroyed. Each stem of Plantain has 200-500 fibrous roots, which feeds it from the soil, rich in protein and low in sugar. Plantain is a crop, which illustrates the concept of Sustainable Development. Anything done in the name of Sustainable Development should be enduring and exhibiting the property of a Plantain tree. As stated earlier, it withstands adverse conditions such as flood, wind and fire, and sprout to continue to feed its own with high protein content as diet.

Consequent upon this, a state in pursuit of accelerated and Sustainable Development should produce a leadership with along-term plan, which would serve as the Plantain roots. The Planning or ‘forethought’ for this purpose should generate the elements of Sustainable Development being human capital accumulation from educational institutions (well -funded, where its human inputs would not be selected by ascription- strong institutions). As the Plantain is planted, as the Government, it initiates a programme of intervention in all the sectors of the economy, which would extract resources and create a value-chain. This would lessen the pressure of
extraction. The right technology would be supplied from the intervention in the educational sector (it is expected that, the first step, in the theoretical processes of sustainable development would supply this).

The leadership should have good governance as its ideology and practically manifest this by mobilizing everyone along this line. All these in the long run would lead to the attainment of ‘Pareto Optimality’. Inequality would have been reduced considerably, while Self-reliance on the economy would be incrementally realised. In all these, the state should be the initial driver along with private concerns to show the way to go and continually supervised by occasional interventions. The domestic consumption would be centred on the goods produced locally in order to minimise the rate of foreign exchange flight through the excessive consumption of imported goods. There can be no accelerated developmentin Nigeria without the State playing significant role in the very globalised economy.

**Framework of Analysis: Operculum Metaphor**

The concept of operculum metaphor means that, all those who reside in the coastal zones or regions of most states within the littoral zones have one similar occupation. This is fishing. In the fishing community, when people go to the market to buy fresh fish, what they do often is to lift the mouth cover of the fish or open the operculum of the fish up by the side of the mouth, to check the colour of gill of the fish.
When the gill of the fish is reddish, it means the fish is still alive and the blood is circulating. However, when it turns grey, the fish is bad because the blood is no longer flowing through it. This is because the gills of the fish are the blood vessels. When it is red, blood is still circulating and when grey, blood had stop to circulate and the fish is soft and may be bad. The spectacular thing about the operculum is that it is located at the head. Thus, when the head of the fish is bad or rotten, it affects the entire body of the fish. Accordingly, when it becomes bad, it starts from the head and affects the entire body. When an organization is not effective, it requires a change in leadership. Similarly, it is the leader who shows the way, which the country should go, and provide for the welfare of the entire citizens, and lead the country right. This is leadership. One of the conditions for accelerated development is to have the right leadership, that is, the type who is committed to the welfare of the entire citizens and not a section of it. One who is ready to share the pains and gains of development of the state equitably. The second condition is the capacity to identify and select investments projects which have long lifespan and which are able to augment itself like the plantain plant. Another is the clear definition of the goal of the accelerated development. It must be defined with clarity, while the capacity and commitment to the goals would have to be developed. In all things the society would be mobilized along the line of the goals set. The political
economy of the state is the direct sector that should be subjected to this paradigm of development because it would direct all other sectors and invariably the entire economy.

**Method of Study**
The descriptive approach was employed in the study, whereby the three main components of the technique, observation, case study and survey were deployed to obtain and analyse data. In this regard, the observations reviewed secondary resources, the past and current approaches to development were observed. It revealed that; fiscal and monetary policies manipulations, exchange rate adjustments, balance of payments and income policies deficits. These never accelerated the economy. The National Development Plans, which spanned from the ten-year plan of development and welfare for Nigeria, (1962-68) colonial strategy of development, to the second National Development Plan 1970-74, 1975-80, the third, 1981-85 being the fourth, and 1986-89 as the fifth. It was further observed that Nigeria adopted Perspective Planning with a three (3) year Rolling Plan 1989-1990-1991 (Ayo, 1988). In all these attempts, the principles plantain theory was hardly adopted hence the projects were not sustainable. The case study, revealed that the observed strategies could not be sustained because of shortage of professional planners, financial constraints, plan indiscipline, paucity of data for planning, lack of mass commitment to the plan and
inadequate public/private sector consultation (Ayo, 1988) among others. The survey component showed Nigerian preferred the return of National Development Plan as a guide to accelerated national development. The survey exposed the inadequacy of all previous and current approaches to development.

**Accelerated Development Paradigm**

The first step to accelerated development is to ensure that the state is robustly present in the economy, in order to stimulate the economy through investments in all the sectors along the line of ‘the plantain theory’. This would involve selecting certain programmes in each sector for investment. The state is to drive the process because of the weak private sector, most of which are ‘Small and Medium Enterprises’.

The State should drive the process because the money governments spend over the budget would eventually come back to the national treasury in the form of enhanced tax revenue collected from increasingly profitable businesses and a rising number of well-paid employees as the economy grows (Sodaro, 2008:354). This is against the backdrop that market forces and private enterprise alone are not enough to generate accelerated increase. The state would occasionally intervene in the market either as direct fiscal cost of subsidies or as forgone revenue in the form of implicit taxation. Thus, where taxes are collected through effective tax
administration, the State inadvertently recovers its investments.

Project selection is yet another element of the accelerated development paradigm suggested herein. This is because only projects which have the nature of ‘musaparadisica’ (plantain) that is appropriate for accelerated development style. The state should go for projects which can augment itself through the years.

Another element of accelerated increase of production in the economy would be the sourcing of high calibre manpower into the public sector. In order to stem the dearth of competences in the public sector to manage the numerous State Enterprises (Parastatals) that are in existence and may be created, public sector salary of ministers/politicians/top civil servants are to be harmonised with that of top professional in order to recruit and retain the best brains in the public sector as it was done in Singapore by Lee Kuan Yew. This is one way of ensuring strong institutions rather strong men, in order to drive the public service sector.

The funding of science-based education and techniques is a sine qua none to fast-tracking development. This is required for scientific knowledge to manage the degraded environment, seed multiplication, create genetically modified seedlings towards food security, and redress the
imbalance in the growing population on the one hand and decreasing food index on the other. It would be recalled that Nigeria has already become the world capital for very poor people. The corollary of this, is that education must be funded. The institutions must be monitored to ensure the proper use of the funds allocated to them.

An additional factor in the paradigm to activate accelerated development is the establishment of industries, which would process the various natural resources into finished goods in each sector of the national economy. Where this is done, the agriculture sector of the economy would have meaning thereof when the value chain is created to process raw materials into more value goods. This generate income into the economy and would reduce the population of those in the poverty class.

In all these, the project selected should assumed the form of ‘*Musaparadisiaca*’ (plantain) with an elaborate value-chains to generate public value creation at all levels. In so doing, the projects selected would ignite the ‘Spinoff effect when deliberately sited in the rural area to generate development in the area from where it would cause changes in the environment which would aggregate into development (Frank 2015:3). The logic is that proper planning prevents poor performance which would build up development and prevent the creation of ‘rural-urban migration’ and aim at balance development. This is the ultimate aim of the
application of the ‘plantain theory of sustainable development’ towards the accelerated growth of Nigeria.

The Challenges
The proposal to choose an accelerated development system for Nigeria in a globalized world cannot be without challenges but we must always find a way around these trials. First, it is imperative to note that everything rises and falls on leadership. The greatest challenge is to have leaders who understand the essence and principles of the paradigm of accelerated increased development. Leadership is having the authority to evolve vision, take initiative and go ahead of others. For the society to fulfil its purpose in an orderly manner. Leadership has responsibility to ensure that vision is drawn out and pursued with a sense of purpose, discipline and commitment. The leadership being implied in this context are those leading the country and in corporations, organization, state or government who, are perceived as assuming the position of authority... can provide direction for other people. It is about giving direction, coordinating people and providing the motivation to move towards a destination. It is about steering people to provide the cooperation required in the pursuit and realizing of specific objectives from which they will equally benefit (Akinkuowo, 2013). Nigeria is, however, bereft of leaders with these qualities who could understand and follow the paradigm of accelerated development
as discussed herein towards its development. The reform of the leadership recruitment system in politics would address this challenge.

The second challenge is that of seeing the private sector as the only driver of development to the detriment of strong State-Owned-Enterprises (SOEs) which often are the catalysts for public value creation. One author has posited that no matter the philosophy of development that the SOEs would remain an enduring element in all polities hence they must not be discountenance, no matter the recommendations of donor institutions (Frank, 2018). Leadership initiative is required here, given the fact that the private sector is dominated by Small and Medium Size companies, many of which do not have the capacity to mobilize fiscal resources for investment on their own.

Industries are necessary for both upstream and downstream utilization of all crude products extracted from the earth and to produce others from the laboratories to meet the basic needs of the people and move them towards self-reliance. According to the Lagos Plan of Action, Nigeria like other African countries has been classified as non-industrial countries, in which industry accounts for less than 10 per cent of the Gross National Products (GNP). By these standards, in 1977 no African country was industrialised, 16 were in course of industrialisation, 21 were non-industrialised and the
rest semi-industrialised (Lagos Plan of Action, 1982). This situation is compounded by the prevailing ideology of the Washington Consensus, which sees the private sector as the engine of growth in the economy, yet the bulk of the private sector is made up of mostly Small and Medium-Term Enterprises (SMEs). The demonstration of leadership and understanding of the issues would balance the pressure of globalization and national development, just as the High Performing Asian Economies (HPAEs) had done in the past. The investments here should have the character of ‘plantain’ which would sprout out with advantages to the economy.

The other challenge is that of corruption which could therefore be termed ‘arrested development’. This is because each time resources are corruptly taken away, then development is arrested from taking place. Deliberate effort must be made to arrest and prosecute those who are involved in this, to serve as deterrence to those who might be contemplating it. This is one way of freeing resources for accelerated development of the Nigeria state, and not doing so pretentiously. The current Auditor General of the Federation Report, indicate enormous loss of resources which are investible. Corruption must be reduced in the economy through the creation of strong institutions.

Finally, all projects selected for accelerated development of the state should be predicated on the basis of ‘plantain theory’ to generate ‘Return on
Investment’ (ROI). All projects selected for funding in this context, must be one which would create ‘a Pareto Optimality’ improvement defined as a change in economic organization that makes everyone better off—or more precisely, that makes one or more members of society better off without making anyone worse off. It is in other words, a change, which produces gains that exceed in value the accompanying losses (Mishan, 1974). The point here is that projects selected should have multiplier effect and catalyst public value creation. Citizens would then build on this to increase their salary and income, increase their spending and improve their savings. These challenges are surmountable because the high performing Asian economies did and Nigeria can do so too.

CONCLUSION
It is a truism that one cannot do the same thing all over and expect a different result. In order to drive the processes of development in Nigeria, there should be a paradigm shift. This is the only way to get Nigeria to try to pull the bulk of its citizens out of the poverty bracket which they have graduated into, and get close to the level of development of its contemporaries. The accelerated development approach to development base on the ‘Plantain theory of Sustainable development’, entails critical steps which must be taken as a nation because it’s shameful that given all the human and material
resources available, Nigeria has become the poverty capital of the world. The simple details include; leadership, robust state investment in the economy, selection of projects for investment which have the character of ‘musaparadisica’ and of course the creation of strong institutions that are insulated from political interferences as well as deliberate reduction of corruption. In the globalized environment, the leader would balance the options and approaches available. The leadership recruitment system needs a redefinition, while governance must change along the lines prescribed herein to obliterate the present conspiracy of the political elites to misgovern in their common interests, thereafter, every area of development should select projects and programmes with life as the ‘musaparadisica’, the plantain plant. This is to take Nigeria to the level of development its peers have attained especially in the Asiatic regions of the world and in Africa to be specific.

REFERENCES


