



The Nigerian
JOURNAL OF THE
Social Sciences

Faculty of the Social Sciences
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria

Vol. 8 No 1. (September, 2024)

THE NIGERIAN JOURNAL OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

*Faculty of the Social Sciences
Ekiti State University,
PMB 5363, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria
www.eksu.edu.ng*

2024 @ Faculty of the Social Sciences, Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti

All Rights Reserved

ISSN 0794-6147

Printed by
Lanre JenJe Prints
08032302443, 08146522805
lanrejenje28@gmail.com

**THE NIGERIAN JOURNAL OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES,
EKITI STATE UNIVERSITY, ADO-EKITI, NIGERIA**

Call for Papers

The Nigerian Journal of the Social Sciences (NUSS), is an official quarterly Journal of the Faculty of the Social Sciences, Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti, Nigeria. The aim of the Journal is to provide a forum for the dissemination of findings and reports from theoretical works and empirical researches in Economics, Geography and Planning Science, Sociology, Psychology and Behavioural Science, Political Science, Tourism and Recreation and other areas of Social and Management Sciences.

As a university-based Journal, it is double blind peer re-viewed. It publishes theoretical, empirical and experimental papers that contribute significantly to knowledge in the disciplines of Social and Management Sciences. This, we intend to achieve by using a wide range of research methods, including statistical tools, analytical work, case studies, field research, literature surveys and historical analysis. Articles accepted will be published in the issue of the current volume. The Journal therefore welcomes the submission of manuscripts from both academics and research scholars that meet the general scope and criteria for publication in the Journal. All references must be in the current APA Format. In addition, authors are carried along adequately in all the publication processes in line with our highly rigorous peer-review policy.

Procedure for Submission of Original Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be submitted online as attachment via the Journal's email addresses:

njss@eksu.edu.ng and eksufacultyjournal@yahoo.com

Upon receipt of manuscripts, the Editor-in-Chief will send an email of confirmation to the corresponding author(s) within 3-working days.

In the absence of a confirmation email, you are advised to please contact

The Editor-in-Chief
via these mobile phone numbers:
08033503063, 08033518845, 08034777507

Editorial Policy

The NIGERIAN JOURNAL OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES is a forum for intellectual dialogue among scholars in the field of the Social Sciences and related disciplines especially in developing and Third World countries. Specifically, it is an avenue for the dissemination of research reports in Economics, Geography, Urban and Regional Planning, Political Science, Sociology, Psychology and other disciplines in Social and Management Sciences and Humanities. Comments on current issues and research notes are heartily welcome. Book reviews are also of interest to this forum.

It is very important to note that the views expressed in each of the articles are basically those of the author(s) and not that of the Editorial Board of the Journal, and the authors are therefore responsible and liable for any implications arising from their views and the article in its entirety.

EDITORIAL BOARD

Editor-In-Chief

Prof A.A Agagu

Editorial Members:

Prof Taiwo Owoeye

Prof (Mrs) B.O. Mokuolu

Deputy Editor

Dr. J.A. Olusola

Editorial Advisers

Prof Olu-Olu Olufayo

Prof Femi Omotoso

Prof Lanre Adebayo

Prof A.A. Awe

Prof S. Ogunsakin

Prof C.F. Ogundana

Prof C.T Oluwadare

Prof O.S Ogunleye

Prof J.A Olatunji

Prof A.J Ogunleye

Prof A.E Akinlo

Prof A.A Igbatayo

Prof O.I Orimogunje

Prof O.O Awotoye

TABLE OF CONTENTS

The Nigerian Journal of the Social Sciences	iii
Editorial Policy	iv
Editorial Board	v
Table of Contents	vi
Parental Relationship and Moral Competence as a Predictor of Psychological Adjustments among Adolescents in Ekiti State Aroso Sarah Onome, Adebayo Sulaiman Olanrewaju, Akeredolu Adekunle Yemi & Asoh Favour onyinyechi	1
The Dark side of Cybercrime: Unveiling the link between cybercrime, Psychoactive substance use, and Psychotic Symptoms among Nigerian University Students Ajayi Olubukola, PhD., Dada Olugbenga David, Okporubi Onoriode Joseph & Balogun Ayodeji M.	25
Banditry and Socio-economic development in Nigeria: A case study of Kaduna South Adeoye Adebayo Oyedokun & J. M. Oluwaleye, PhD	42
The role of telecommuting on employee's quality of work life and emotional intelligence among workers in Lagos State, Nigeria Bankole Emmanuel Temitope	63
A causality analysis of Macroeconomic variables and industrial growth in Sub-Saharan Africa Adeyemi Paul Adeniyi, Ajayi Joseph Gbenga & Awe Deborah Folahan	78

Renewable energy consumption and inclusive growth in West Africa: The mediating role of institutional quality Oluwayemisi Kadijat Adeleke, & Kemi Funlayo Akeju	93
The drivers of insecurity and the roles of security agents in Nigeria BABATOLA, ADELEYE MARCUS (Ph.D.)	118
Government expenditure, growth and governance institutions in Nigerian Fourth Republic Idowu, Omowumi .O, Idowu, Olusegun O. & Akode, T. O.	133
Local Government Autonomy as catalyst for grassroots development: Interrogating Inter-governmental fiscal relations in Nigeria. Olufunmi Solomon Likinyo, Ph.D. & Ifeyinwa Arum, Ph.D.	159
The Influence of Marital Status and Job Crafting on the Work Commitment of Professional Women Workers (Case-Study: EKSUTH Midwives) Damilola A. OSEKITA, Oluwatosin T. BABASOLA & Adekunle Yemi AKEREDOLU	181

**Parental Relationship and Moral Competence as a
Predictor of Psychological Adjustments among
Adolescents in Ekiti State**

by

AROSO Sarah Onome

arososarah4@gmail.com, sarah.aroso@eksu.edu.ng

08102405983

ADEBAYO Sulaiman Olanrewaju

sulaiman.adebayo@eksu.edu.ng

Akeredolu Adekunle Yemi

Asoh Favour Onyinyechi

Adekunleakeredolupsy@gmail.com

ABSTRACTS

Research has shown that adolescent period is characterized by various turbulence and maladjustment. To achieve a well-adjusted adolescence, it is important to investigate some predicting factors of positive psychological wellbeing at the adolescent stage. Accordingly, this study was undertaken to investigate the predictive ability of parental relationship, Moral competence on adolescents' psychological adjustments. Adopting a survey design in the study, 287 males and 313 females with a mean age of 15.8 years were selected using multistage sampling method from the three senatorial districts in Ekiti- state, Nigeria. Data were collected by a battery of psychological tests consisting of Parental Psychological Control Scale (PPCS), Parental Warmth Survey Scale, Moral Competence Questionnaire (MCQ) and Wellbeing Manifestation Scale (WMMS). Hypotheses were tested by means of multiple regression and independent t -test. Studies indicated that parents' warmth [$F(2,597) = 3.66, P = .03, R^2 = .06$] and parental psychological control [$F(2,597) = 3.66, P = .03, R^2 = .01$] are significant predictors of psychological adjustment among adolescents. Additionally, adolescents with high moral competence are more

psychologically adjusted than their counterparts who have low moral competence ($M=59.55$, $SD=7.69$ vs. $M=48.17$ $SD=10.67$, $t= -15.16$, $<.01$). Results were discussed in line with previous findings and it was recommended that parents should be friendlier with their children, provide some level of autonomy and dedicate themselves to instilling more positive characters in the lives of their adolescents.

Keywords: Moral Competence, Psychological Adjustments, Adolescents, Parental Relationship

Introduction

Adolescent development has become a primary focus of psychological research since the turn of the twenty-first century. It has long been believed that adolescents are a group of individuals who are looking for themselves and ways to define their identities (Erickson, 1968, Metzler & Scheithauer, 2017). They have also been seen as a distinct group that faces a variety of challenges and issues as they grow up.

The second decade of life is commonly referred to as adolescence. There are many changes that occur during this developmental stage. People progressively move from childhood immaturity to adult maturity as they encounter these major changes (Berk, 2010; Davison et al., 2023). It is challenging to categorize the adolescent stage according to chronological age. However, it is generally speculated that it starts between the ages of 11 to 13 years and it usually ends between the age-ranges of 17 to 22. This period can also be sub divided into early (11 to 13), middle (14 to 17) and late (18 to 22) adolescence (Gouws et al., 2008).

In our contemporary world, it is obvious that women now fully participate in the world of work as men do. This has limited their capacity to fully discharge their traditional rearing function. Consequently, children have been left, to some extent, to do a self-exploration of the events that occur in their biological, psychological and social lives. At the stage of adolescence, this exploration becomes more intense as adolescents find meanings and purpose of their existence. For the adolescents guided by good moral conscience, adequate parental involvements and stable emotions, the adolescent period becomes a smooth path to adulthood possibly because

he/she is well psychologically adjusted. Conversely, turbulence and upheavals at adolescence may be endangered when the adolescent lacks the ideas of morality, are emotionally disorganized and parents fail to form close ties with them as they transit into adulthood. Thus, it is highly pertinent to investigate how moral competence, emotional intelligence, and parental relationship predict psychological adjustment among adolescents.

Parental Relationship

One of the most important relationships that adolescents develop in their lifetimes is with their parents. Parental relationships—that is, parents who build strong bonds with their children and have little conflict with them, provide proper monitoring and supervision, and help adolescents adjust well to life—have drawn more attention from the public and researchers than any other aspect of adolescent development. According to a large body of research, ties with parents continue to be significant social and emotional resources long beyond childhood, even in the face of changed patterns of engagement (Collins & Steinberg, 2006; Smetana et al., 2006).

The literature has long recognised the importance of healthy family interactions for the development of adolescents. Adolescent internalising and externalising issues have been connected to aggressive, uninvolved parenting, while positive parental interactions have been linked to improved psychological adjustment and academic success (Ge et al., 1996). Additionally, studies have shown that maladjustment among adolescents is caused by contradictory parental-adolescent relationships (Inge et al., 2006). The relationship between parents and teenagers is also linked to aberrant behaviour by adolescents that deviates from social norms.

Most teenagers report feeling connected to their parents, respecting them as people, and feeling loved and supported by them, despite the prevalent clichés of "storm and stress" in parental-adolescent interactions (Berk, 2010; Gouws et al., 2008). Adolescence does, however, mark a time of transition in interpersonal bonds and day-to-day family connections.

Adolescents typically become more vocal in voicing their thoughts and negotiating during conversations with their parents as they strive for more autonomy. In the majority of households, adolescence marks a shift from asymmetrical patterns of parent-child interaction to more equal relationships between adolescents and parents (Singh et al., 2021).

Adolescents exhibit social transitions in their connections with their peers as well as in the familial setting. People spend a lot more time with their classmates as they get closer to puberty. In general, peer group experiences for adolescents offer chances for identity exploration and autonomous development. As the process of differentiation starts, family ties change as teenagers become less ready to consider themselves as belonging to a hierarchy led by their parents, want greater independence, and rely more on their peers. Accordingly, there is more conflict and less intimacy in the parent-adolescent connection (Berk, 2010; Watts et al., 2009). However, a parent-adolescent relationship does not become less significant just because it is less tight. Previous research supports this by showing that family relationships are crucial throughout adolescence and that peer pressure increases in families with poor or negative relationships, putting adolescents at higher risk of adjustment issues (Berk, 2010; Gouws et al., 2008).

Adolescents are particularly susceptible to a variety of adjustment issues because of the sense of invulnerability that permeates their thinking at this time. Teenagers face novel and potentially dangerous circumstances for which they lack the knowledge necessary to make wise decisions, in addition to the broader trend towards increased independence and less time spent under adult supervision. For instance, peer pressure to engage in misbehaviour becomes a significant part of the threat that arises during this stage of life, and attachments to deviant peers expand (Steinberg, 2004). As a result, adolescence is now, regrettably, not just a time of transitioning into adulthood and preparing for it, but also a time when adolescents encounter a growing number of obstacles for which they are unprepared. It has been discovered that a positive parent-child bond can effectively shield teenagers from the adjustment issues that arise during this stage of development.

In support of this, Cummings (1995) highlighted the necessity for parents to take on a protective role in raising adolescents who are dealing with mounting pressure to perform, fit in, and effectively manage the quick emotional, physical, and cognitive changes that are common during the adolescent transition. Adolescents who lack sufficient resources and supportive networks are therefore more likely to resort to unhealthy coping mechanisms. Although the individuation process is often regarded as a crucial aspect of adolescence, parents still have a responsibility to establish and uphold boundaries that allow their children to grow through positive parent-adolescent interactions.

Researchers (Cummings, 1995; Fletcher et al., 2004) emphasized the significance of stable parent-child relationships as a protective factor for adolescent adjustment problems, even though the extent of actual disruption in parent-adolescent relations is not as great as one might expect given stereotypes about this stage of life. As a result, it is crucial to keep researching adolescent adjustment and parent-adolescent relationships while taking into accounts a variety of factors or traits of parenting practices.

Moral Competence in Adolescents

Competence is interpreted as a roughly specialized system of abilities, proficiencies, or skills that are desired to arrive at a detailed task or goal (Weinert, 2001) while morality is 'the rightness or wrongness of something as judged by accepted moral standard (Microsoft Encarta Premium, 2009). Consistently, at an advanced level of development, Promotion of moral competence means nurturing the development of fairness decision and altruistic behavior in adolescents. It is the goal of education to help adolescents develop the value of universal justice and universal love. Moral competence has also been defined as the capability or power of persons to distinguish their feelings as they influence what is good or bad in particular situations, and then to reflect on these feelings, to make their decision, and to act in ways that bring about the highest level of benefit for others (Jormsri et al., 2005; Ogunleye & Olawa, 2013). In similitude, Keung Ma (2012) defined moral competence as the affective orientation to perform altruistic behaviors towards others and the ability to judge moral issues logically, consistently, and at an advanced level of

development. Kohlberg defines moral competence as "the ability to make decisions and judgments which are moral (i.e., based on internal principles) and to proceed in agreement with such judgments" (Kohlberg, 1964).

Adolescence is a stage of exciting personality growth and character or moral development. A variety of moral skills that are developed and refined in adolescence, permit adolescents to engage in social life more effectively (Hart & Carlo, 2005). In addition, formal operational thinking allows adolescents to interpret the social environment in new and different ways (Piaget, 1952), which are reflected in advances in perspective-taking skills (Eisenberg, 1986; Kohlberg, 1981; Kohlberg and Candee, 1984), other-oriented moral judgment, pro-social behaviors, and development of altruistic tendencies (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998; Eisenberg et al., 2001; Underwood & Moore, 1982). Given the tremendous personality, cognitive, and moral changes occurring during adolescence, it is not surprising that studies have found that adolescents manifest more character strengths in their behavior (Park & Peterson, 2006a) than young children (Park & Peterson, 2006b).

Character or moral competence in adolescents have been associated with desirable psychological outcomes such as subjective well-being, life satisfaction, fewer symptoms of depression and suicidal ideation (Park 2004; Park & Peterson, 2006a; Gillham, 2011), leadership, tolerance, ability to delay gratification, kindness, and altruism (Scales et al., 2000), and a reduction of problems such as substance use, alcohol abuse, smoking, and violence (Park, 2004).

Moral Competence and Psychological Adjustment

A one-dimensional approach has historically been used by those who are interested in fostering teenagers' psychological adjustment. According to this viewpoint, adjustment and psychological distress are two opposed poles on a same continuum that represent different states of human functioning. According to this viewpoint, improvements in adolescents' adjustment (such as happiness or pro-social behaviour) are equivalent to decreases in their psychological distress (such as emotional or behavioural symptoms), and vice versa (Keyes, 2007). In recent years,

new research has looked at multiple component (e.g., two-continuum or dual-factor) models of competency, raising doubts about whether this classic model—while intuitive and concise—is broad enough to represent adolescents' competence. Multi-component models, as opposed to one-dimensional models, suggest that psychological discomfort and adjustment are connected but distinct components of human performance that should be represented as separate but related.

Numerous researches have demonstrated that both the absence of adjustment and the presence of distress are independently linked to deficiencies in teenagers' academic performance, providing evidence in favour of a two-dimensional model of adolescent competence (Suldo & Shaffer, 2008). It has been demonstrated that both positive and negative competency indicators can be used to predict students' attendance and academic success over time (Suldo et al., 2011). In light of these new discoveries, we suggest that when evaluating teenagers' overall competence, it is important to consider both their personal qualities and assets as well as their distressing symptoms.

The impact of strengths and assets on adolescents' development has garnered more attention from educational scholars and practitioners over the past ten and a half years, especially when presented under the positive psychology umbrella (e.g., Chafouleas & Bray, 2004; Huebner & Gilman, 2003; Huebner & Hills, 2011; Seligman et al., 2009).

This positive-oriented work's nature and breadth have so far followed a multiphase trajectory that is comparable to earlier traditional, negative-oriented work done with teenagers. Positive psychology's initial phase with adolescents (a) aimed to identify and evaluate isolated qualities (e.g., gratitude, mindfulness, and hope), most of which were generalised downward from earlier empirical work with adults, and (b) examined the relationships between these individual qualities and important quality-of-life outcomes (e.g., school achievement, positive relationships, and physical health). The development and testing of interventions aimed at cultivating or enhancing specific positive qualities of adolescents (e.g., the "counting blessings" exercise for cultivating gratitude and the "mindful breathing" exercise for enhancing mind-fullness) has been made possible

by the validation of a number of short instruments for assessing adolescents' strengths and assets, even though this initial measurement phase is still ongoing. A third, more integrative phase of work has also arisen, even if this period of targeted intervention is still ongoing.

For instance, Seligman (2011) proposed that the foundation for a flourishing life is the combination of positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment (PERMA) within the larger field of positive psychology. This model is used in certain educational settings (White, 2013). This phase, which is primarily motivated by prevention logic, has been inspired by the childhood risk and resilience scholarship, which has shown that higher levels of internal (such as achievement motivation and coping skills) and external (such as supportive family and school relationships) assets are predictive of improved school achievement and other quality-of-life outcomes for young people (Scales, 1999).

Psychological Adjustments

A person's affective, cognitive, perceptual, and motivational propensity to react in different life circumstances is known as psychological adjustment (Frick & Kimonis, 2008). Adolescent adjustment issues are defined as issues that impede the capacity to adjust to the demands and expectations of society. Psychological adjustment is a relatively complex concept with a variety of components that may contribute to it. There are various questions that may arise in the minds of adolescents which may contribute to their sense of psychological adjustment. Some of the questions are: how do they decide what values and ideals to stick to in life? How do they decide which way to take in life? What moral ideals will they adhere to in order to achieve their desires?

Establishing an operational concept of psychological adjustment in teenagers is crucial when examining this topic. Numerous researches have been conducted on this topic, and the majority of them examine a more comprehensive definition of psychological wellness that includes two components: psychological adjustment and psychological discomfort. According to Wilkinson and Walford, as well as Masse et al., (1998b), psychological distress is typically measured using indicators of happiness, positive affect, and living circumstances.

They also note that psychological discomfort and psychological adjustment may both be associated with depression. (Masse et al., 1998b). develop their own measures of psychological adjustment, each of which includes a number of proven criteria. Measures of social alienation, depression, irritability, and self-depression are used to characterise psychological distress. Measures of self-control and events, happiness, social involvement, self-esteem, mental equilibrium, and sociability, on the other hand, characterise psychological adjustment. Although the generalised component of psychological health undoubtedly considers both, the focus of this research is on psychological adjustment and does not examine the component of psychological discomfort.

As a result, a more extensive definition of psychological adjustment will be explored. Ryff (1989), quite extensively explore the meaning of psychological adjustment. Her definition is well thought out and furthermore parallels rather closely to Well-being Manifestation Measure scale (Masse et al., (1998b) that will be used in this study.

Self-acceptance, positive relationships, autonomy, environmental mastery, life purpose, and personal development are the main focusses of the adjustment aspects. Self-acceptance, according to her, is the capacity to actualise, perform at one's best, be mature, and have a positive outlook on oneself and one's past. According to her, having warm and trustworthy interpersonal ties, being able to be intimate with others, and being able to learn from others are all examples of having healthy relationships with others. According to her definition, autonomy is the capacity for self-determination, independence, and self-regulation of behaviour. Environmental mastery, according to her, is the capacity to imagine and create environments that are appropriate for oneself and to be adaptable in a variety of environmental contexts. According to her, having direction and purpose in life is what gives people their sense of purpose. She concludes by defining personal growth as the capacity of individuals to both grow and extend as individuals and to continue to develop their potential.

Hypothesis

- 1a. Parental warmth will significantly predict self- control among adolescents

- 1b. Parental warmth will significantly predict happiness among adolescents.
- 1c. Parental warmth will significantly predict self – esteem of adolescents.
- 1d. Parental warmth will significantly predict mental balance of adolescents.
- 1e. Parental warmth will significantly predict sociability of adolescents.
- 2a. Parental psychological control will significantly predict self - control among adolescents.
- 2b. Parental psychological control will significantly predict happiness among adolescents.
- 2c. Parental psychological control will significantly predict self - esteem among adolescents.
- 2d. Parental psychological control will significantly predict mental balance among adolescents.
- 2e. Parental psychological control will significantly predict sociability among adolescents.
- 3. Adolescents who have high moral competence will show better psychological adjustment than their counterparts with low moral competence

Objectives of the Study

The key purpose of this study is to determine the extent to which parental relationship, moral competence predicts psychological adjustment among adolescents. The research work is also aimed at the following, to:

- 1. assess whether parental relationship influences psychological adjustments among adolescents.
- 2. investigate the relationship between moral competence and psychological adjustment among adolescents
- 3. determine whether parental relationship, moral competence will significantly predict psychological adjustment.

Statement of the Problems

Adolescence has been seen as a time of struggle and conflicts (Arnett, 1999; Offer & Schonertreichl, 1992). These struggles and conflicts possibly arise from a search for personal identity and independence from

parents which often result into dependence on peers for information and necessary emotional support. As the child enters into the period of adolescence, so many maladjustments may occur in their psychosocial lives due to the turbulence of this time. These maladjustments may be manifested in form of bad peer group membership, involvement in drugs, rape, school violence, drug abuse, truancy, disobedience to parents and constituted authorities, juvenile delinquencies and poor academic performance. When the period of adolescence is marred with these maladjusted behaviors, the psychosocial lives of adolescents may be adversely affected, thereby limiting their levels of self-esteem, mental balance, social acceptance and capacity to experience happy and satisfied lives in the future.

METHODOLOGY

Research Setting

Some selected secondary schools were used in Ekiti- State Nigeria. The settings chosen for this study is more appropriate to locate adolescents because they are mostly concentrated in secondary schools

Research Design

The study adopts the correlational design because it is aimed at establishing correlational relationships among study variables. That is, parental relationship, moral competence, emotional intelligence, and psychological adjustments among adolescents were determined.

Study Sample

This study sample which consist of 600 students, within the age range of 10 - 18years were drawn from the three senatorial districts in Ekiti- state Nigeria. A multi- stage random sampling technique was employed in selecting the participants for the study. One local government area (LGA) was selected from each of the three senatorial districts in the state by using purposive sampling technique. This process led to the selection of three local governments. In each LGA, three communities were randomly selected. In each community, secondary schools were randomly selected. Nine secondary schools were selected.

Using the random selection procedures above, then the following is obtained:

- Senatorial District Stratum: Ekiti South Senatorial District, Ekiti North Senatorial District and Ekiti Central Senatorial District
- Local Government Area Stratum:
 - Ekiti South Senatorial District: Ikere- Ekiti Local Government Area
 - Ekiti North Senatorial District: Oye Local Government Area
 - Ekiti central Senatorial District: Ado Local Government Area
- Community Stratum
 - Ikere Local Government Area
 - Oye local Government Area
 - Ado local and Ijero Government Area

Variable

The variables of this study are divided into two: independent and dependent variables. **Independent variables:** Parental relationship, moral competence and emotional intelligence. Parental relationship consists of parental psychological control and warmth expressed to adolescents.

Dependent variable: Psychological adjustments in this study consist of control of self and event, happiness, social environment, self- esteem, mental balance, and sociability.

Parental Warmth Survey Scale

Adolescents' impressions of maternal and paternal warmth are measured using the warmth scale, which was taken from the Mother and Father versions of the Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (PARQ/Control; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). In the 20-item 114 Warmth/Affection sub-scale, children are asked to score the veracity of statements about how warm their parents are to them. The Warmth/Affection score may be as low as 20, which would indicate low levels of perceived maternal or paternal warmth, or as high as 80, which would indicate strong levels. It is a four point Likert scale (*Almost Always True = 4, Sometimes True = 3, Rarely True = 2 and Almost Never True = 1*).

Sample items include “My father/mother says nice things about me. My father/mother talks to me in a warm and loving way.” Reliability coefficient for the parental warmth scale Cronbach alpha 0.79 (Bireda 2012).

The Moral Competence Questionnaire (MCQ)

Competency Inventory developed by Daniel and Benjamin (2010) contains 38 items descriptive of their types of moral competence (Integrity/ Honesty/ Authenticity (9) items, Impression Management (20) items and Responsibility (9) items). The items is on a 5-point scale (1) Very Inaccurate, (2) Moderately Inaccurate, (3) Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate, (4) Moderately Accurate, (5) Very Accurate. A cronbach alpha of (0.73) was reported for the moral competence questionnaire. A reliability estimate of (0.72) was reported for the integrity/honesty/authenticity and a (0.55) was reported for the impression management and a (0.66) was reported for the responsibility.\

Wellbeing Manifestation Measuring Scale (WMMS)

For the purpose of measuring psychological adjustment in adolescents, the Well-Being Manifestation Measuring Scale developed by Masse, Poulin, Dassa, Lambert, Belair & Bettaglini (1998b) will be adopted since it is a measure of psychological wellbeing or adjustments. The scale contains 25 items with six factors or subscales which are control of self and events, happiness, social involvement, self-esteem, mental balance and sociability. Masse et.al. (1998a) found an overall Cronbach's alpha of .71 to .85 on the subscales.

Research Instruments

Demographic Survey

This will consist of general information or demographic data of participants. The demographic variables for this study are: class, age, gender, and socio-economic status, parental marital status etc.

Parental Psychological Control Scale

In this study, teenagers' perceptions of their parents' psychological control will be evaluated using the Chinese Paternal Psychological Control

Scale (CPPCS) and the Chinese Maternal Psychological Control Scale (CMPCS) (Shek, 2006). Barber's (1996) criteria of psychological control, which include a number of fundamental characteristics such as rejecting one's own emotions and experiences, limiting one's ability to express oneself verbally, attacking oneself, withdrawing from love, and exercising excessive control, served as the basis for the construction of this tool.

For this study, the 10-item CPPCS and CMPCS self-report measures of individuals' perceived psychological control were used. The fundamental characteristics of psychological control were evaluated and it includes excessive control, verbal expression restrictions, personal assault, love withdrawal, and invalidating one's own thoughts and experiences. To represent the relationship between the item score and the degree of psychological control, the measures' items are scored on a 4-point Likert scale, with 1 denoting "strongly agree" and 4 denoting "strongly disagree." The items in the scale include: "My father (my mother) always wants to change my thoughts. When I disappoint my father (my mother), he (she) will stop talking to me." Bireda (2012) reported Cronbach reliability coefficient of 0.81. Higher scores indicate higher level of endorsement of the traditional parenting beliefs.

RESULTS

The data collected were scored and analysed. The following are the results:

Descriptive Statistics

Result presented in Table 1 shows the distribution of social-demographics by gender among adolescents in Ekiti State. It was revealed that the sample consists of 48% males and 53% females, with a total of 600 participants. The majority of participants (46%) fall within the 13–15-year age range, with females being predominant in this group (57%). Most adolescents (80%) live with their parents, with a near-equal distribution between males (51%) and females (49%). Regarding class levels, SS3 has the highest representation (39%), with a slightly higher proportion of males (53%) compared to females (47%). The result indicates a relatively balanced representation across genders, with minor variations influenced by age, living arrangements, and academic levels.

Table 1: Distribution of Social-demographics by Gender

Social-demographics	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
	Male	Female	Total
	287 (48)	313 (53)	600
Age			
13-15yrs	119 (43)	158 (57)	277 (46)
16-18yrs	148 (56)	116 (44)	264 (44)
19-21yrs	13 (41)	19 (59)	32 (5)
No indication	7 (26)	20 (74)	27 (5)
Abode			
Living with parents	242 (51)	236 (49)	478 (80)
Living with guardian	27 (38)	45 (63)	72 (12)
Others	6 (50)	6 (50)	12 (2)
No indication	12 (32)	26 (68)	38 (6)
Class			
SS1	94 (44)	120 (56)	214 (36)
SS2	70 (46)	83 (54)	153 (2)
SS3	123 (53)	110 (47)	233 (39)

The results in Table 2 revealed that the mean and standard deviation scores of key study variables among the adolescents. The mean age of participants is 15.80 years (SD = 1.661), indicating a predominantly mid-adolescent sample. Scores on parental warmth suggest higher perceived warmth from mothers (M = 60.18, SD = 8.125) than fathers (M = 56.31, SD = 10.019), while psychological control scores are slightly higher for mothers (M = 21.70, SD = 3.811) than fathers (M = 20.89, SD = 3.794). Emotional awareness, management, and social emotional awareness show moderate scores, with relationship management displaying the highest mean among these dimensions (M = 18.76, SD = 4.933). Moral competence (M = 72.16, SD = 16.399) reflects significant variability, as do happiness (M = 15.97, SD = 3.832) and self-esteem (M = 11.39, SD = 3.764). From the foregoing, measures of mental balance, sociability, and control of self and events indicate relatively stable but varied psychological attributes among participants.

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of Study variables

Variable (N = 600)	M	SD
Age	15.80	1.661
Parental Warmth Scale (Mother)	60.18	8.125
Parental Warmth Scale (Father)	56.31	10.019
Psychological Control (Mother)	21.70	3.811
Psychological Control (Father)	20.89	3.794
Relationship Management	18.76	4.933
Moral Competence	72.16	16.399
Control of Self & Events	7.66	2.084
Happiness	15.97	3.832
Self Esteem	11.39	3.764
Mental Balance	11.67	2.807
Sociability	7.81	1.936

Correlation Analyses

The result of correlation analyses between studies variables are presented in table above: There was significant positive correlation between expression of warmth by mothers and dimensions of psychological adjustments except self-esteem. Specifically, parental warmth (mother) was positively correlated with control of self [$r(599) = .16, p < .0001$], happiness [$r(599) = .24, p < .0001$], mental balance [$r(599) = .17, p < .000$], sociability [$r(599) = .20, p < .0001$] but not self-esteem [$r(599) = .06, p = .18$]. Similarly, parental warmth shown by father was positively related to control of self [$r(599) = .13, p < .0001$], happiness [$r(599) = .21, p < .0001$], mental balance [$r(599) = .13, p < .000$], sociability [$r(599) = .17, p < .0001$] but not self-esteem [$r(599) = .08, p = .52$].

There was a very weak relationship between parental psychological control and dimensions of psychological adjustments. In particular, mothers' psychological control was negatively correlated with control of self [$r(599) = -.08, p = .04$], self-esteem [$r(599) = -.12, p < .0001$], sociability [$r(599) = -.13, p < .0001$] but not happiness [$r(599) = -.04, p = .31$] and mental balance [$r(599) = -.04, p = .39$]. Fathers' psychological control was only negatively correlated with self-esteem [$r(599) = -.10, p =$

.01] and sociability [$r(599) = -.08, p = .04$] but not correlated with control of self [$r(599) = -.06, p = .13$], happiness [$r(599) = -.02, p = .72$] and mental balance [$r(599) = -.08, p = .06$]. Moral competence showed a very strong relationship with self-esteem [$r(599) = .24, p < .0001$] and was moderately related to other measures of psychological adjustments. That is, moral competence was positively related with control of self [$r(599) = .30, p < .0001$], happiness [$r(599) = .28, p < .0001$], mental balance [$r(599) = .36, p < .0001$] and sociability [$r(599) = .32, p < .0001$].

Table 3: Correlation among Study Variables

Variables (N = 600)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Parental Warmth (Mother)	-												
2. Parental Warmth (Father)	.51**	-											
3. Psychological Control (Mother)	.11**	.01	-										
4. Psychological Control (Father)	.08*	.10*	.50**	-									
5. Relationship Management	.18**	.12**	-.10*	-.10*	.33**	.50**	.57**	-					
6. Moral Competence	.14**	.13**	-.09*	-.09*	.28**	.34**	.36**	.31**	-				
7. Control of Self	.16**	.13**	-.08*	-.06	.17**	.30**	.27**	.33**	.30**	-			
8. Happiness	.24**	.21**	-.04	-.02	.13**	.28**	.26**	.31**	.36**	.57**	-		
9. Self Esteem	.06	.08	-.12**	-.10*	.20**	.24**	.25**	.23**	.80**	.22**	.29**	-	
10. Mental Balance	.17**	.13**	-.04	-.08	.18**	.36**	.34**	.44**	.37**	.54**	.63**	.29**	-
11. Sociability	.20**	.17**	.13**	-.08*	.21**	.33**	.33**	.35**	.32**	.59**	.58**	.23*	.60**

FINDINGS

Findings test whether adolescents with high moral competence will express better psychological adjustment than those with low moral competence. Indeed, the result showed that adolescents with greater level of moral competence reported better psychological adjustment in terms of self-control, happiness, self-esteem, mental balance, sociability. Specifically, better moral competence was a predictor of better self-

control and mastery. This means that adolescents who have good moral standard are more capable in controlling themselves against impulsive behaviors such as drug abuse, sexual promiscuity, gambling and other anomalies that characterize the adolescent period. This outcome supports the suggestion of Kochanska and Aksan (2006) where moral cognition or competence was perceived as a reflection of the child's growing understanding of rules and standards of conduct and the ability to represent consequences of violations of those standards for oneself and others. Moral competence is reflected in the child's growing flexibility and capacity in behavioral and impulse control in a variety of contexts. Moral conduct or competence often requires that the child refrain from an act he or she desires but has been prohibited from performing (Kochanska & Aksan, 2006).

Furthermore, findings also revealed that adolescents equipped with better moral competence reported greater level of happiness than those with low moral competence. In other words, the degree at which adolescents are morally proficient can be an important determinant of inner joy and happiness experienced. The reason that maybe adduced to the nexus between better moral competence and happiness may consist in the idea that, when adolescents display good moral behavior, parents and significant others reinforce such behavior which in turn trigger happiness and joy in their adolescents for been praised for good deeds performed.

Findings also show that moral competence was a determinant of adolescents' self-esteem. In particular, adolescents who are more morally competent reported better feelings of self-esteem than their counterpart with low moral competence. This line of result is not surprising since the display or performance of good moral behavior is a pre-cursor for societal recognition and applauds. That is, the praises received by adolescents from the family, school, and peer group for good moral conduct may go a long way to improve or add to the self-esteem of adolescents. Thus, the adolescent has a conception of positive self-evaluation because of societal acceptance and approval.

Additionally, findings confirmed that good moral competence has positive

influence on mental balance of adolescents. Specifically, adolescents with better moral competence were more mentally balanced as compared with their counterparts with poor moral competence. This shows that being morally sound is contributory to mental balance. This positive relationship established between moral competence and mental balance is a reflection that the two variables are synonymous with each other. In other words, it is nearly impossible for an individual to be morally logical without being mentally balanced. The expressions of positive behavior which is consequential of good moral competence, frees the adolescents from disturbing thoughts which may arise from engaging in socially unapproved behaviors, thereby ensuring positive mental balance.

More importantly it was revealed that moral competence was a determinant of adolescents' sociability. Adolescents who are more morally competent reported higher levels of sociability than those with low moral competence psychological adjustment. The connection between moral competence and sociability may be explained in terms of the orientation of innocence that the morally competent person has when interacting with others. Since the morally upright person is truthful in his/her dealings with others (with no skeleton to hide), he/she develops freedom of interaction with everyone around, thus creating an avenue for sociability.

Generally, past studies support the line of findings of the present study. For example, Farhan et al., (2015) found moral intelligence or competence to be positively related with psychological wellbeing or adjustments among tertiary institution students. Similarly, Khademi et al., (2014) also established a positive connection between moral competence and psychological adjustments. In the same vein, Faramarzi (2014) demonstrated that moral intelligence predicted mental health balance of students.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following conclusions were reached on the analysis of data and its interpretation of findings drawn established that, all the factors, parental relationship, moral competence were the major predictors of psychological adjustment in adolescents. There was positive relationship

between expression of warmth by mothers and dimensions of psychological control except self-esteem. Also, parental warmth shown by fathers was positively correlated to all the dimensions except self-esteem there was weak relationship between parental psychological control and dimensions of psychological adjustment in adolescents. Similarly, Adolescents with high moral competence scored higher in dimensions of psychological adjustment than adolescents with low moral competence

1. Parents should be encouraged to build up moral competence in adolescents which in turns will help in developing high self-esteem in adolescents.
2. Government should inculcate subjects that teach morals into school curriculum.
3. Adolescents in schools should be encouraged to join voluntary organizations and engage in extra-curriculum activities in other to build their moral competence.

REFERENCES

- Arnett, J. J. (1999). Adolescent storm and stress, reconsidered. *American Psychologist*, 54(5), 317–326.
- Barber, B. K. (1996). Parental psychological control: Revisiting a neglected construct. *Child Development*, 67(6), 3296–3319.
- Berk, L. E. (2010). *Development through the lifespan* (5th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.
- Bireda, A. D. (2012). Parental involvement variables predicting academic achievement of African American students. *Educational Research International*, 1(3), 68–82.
- Collins, W. A., & Steinberg, L. (2006). Adolescent development in interpersonal context. In N. Eisenberg (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology* (6th ed., Vol. 3, pp. 1003–1067). Wiley.
- Cummings, E. M. (1995). Security, emotional regulation, and attachment. *Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 31(5), 486–495.
- Daniel, J., & Benjamin, C. (2010). Development of the moral competence questionnaire (MCQ): Validating the dimensions of moral integrity. *Journal of Moral Education*, 39(2), 219–237.
- Davison, C., Williams, K., & Martin, A. (2023). Adolescent identity development and adjustment. *Journal of Adolescent Psychology*, 58(3), 245–267.

- Davison, J., Bunting, B., & Stewart-Knox, B. (2023). The mediating effect of food choice upon associations between adolescent health-related quality of life and physical activity, social media use and abstinence from alcohol. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 21(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12955-023-02129-7>
- Eisenberg, N. (1986). *Altruistic emotion, cognition, and behavior*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Eisenberg, N., & Fabes, R. A. (1998). Prosocial development. In W. Damon (Series Ed.) & N. Eisenberg (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social, emotional, and personality development* (5th ed., pp. 701–778). Wiley.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R.A., Guthrie, I. K., & Reiser, M. (2001). The role of emotionality and regulation in children's social competence and adjustment. *Handbook of Developmental Psychopathology*, 2, 157–181.
- Erickson, E.H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. Norton.
- Fletcher, A.C., Steinberg, L., & Williams-Wheeler, M. (2004). Parental influences on adolescent problem behavior: Revisiting Stattin and Kerr. *Child Development*, 75(3), 781–796.
- Frick, P. J., & Kimonis, E. R. (2008). Callous-unemotional traits and developmental pathways to severe antisocial behavior in youth. In T. P. Beauchaine & S. P. Hinshaw (Eds.), *Child and adolescent psychopathology* (pp. 103–136). Wiley.
- Furlong, M.J., You, S., Renshaw, T.L., Smith, D.C., & O'Malley, M.D. (2013). Preliminary development and validation of the Social Emotional Health Survey for secondary school students. *Social Indicators Research*, 117(3), 1011–1032.
- Ge, X., Conger, R. D., & Elder, G. H. (1996). Coming of age too early: Pubertal influences on girls' vulnerability to psychological distress. *Child Development*, 67(6), 3386–3400.
- Gillham, J. E. (2011). Positive youth development, prevention, and positive psychology: A developmental systems model. In R. M. Lerner et al. (Eds.), *Handbook of life course health development*. Springer.
- Gouws, E., Kruger, N., & Burger, S. (2008). *The adolescent: An educational perspective* (3rd ed.). Heinemann.
- Harlacher, J. E., & Merrell, K. W. (2010). *Strong Kids: A social and emotional learning curriculum for students in grades 3-8*. Pacific Northwest Publishing.

- Hart, D., & Carlo, G. (2005). Moral development in adolescence. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 15(3), 223–234.
- Huebner, E.S., & Gilman, R. (2003). Toward a focus on positive psychology in school psychology. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 18(2), 99–102.
- Inge, S., Vander, M., & Charman, T. (2006). The impact of parenting on adolescent adjustment. *Journal of Family Studies*, 12(4), 367–381.
- Jormsri, P., Kunaviktikul, W., Ketefian, S., & Chaowalit, A. (2005). Moral competence in nursing practice. *Nursing Ethics*, 12(6), 582–594.
- Keung Ma, H. (2012). Moral competence as a positive youth development construct. *International Journal of Adolescent Medicine and Health*, 24(4), 335–344.
- Keyes, C. L. M. (2007). Promoting and protecting mental health as flourishing: A complementary strategy for improving national mental health. *American Psychologist*, 62(2), 95–108.
- Kohlberg, L. (1964). Development of moral character and moral ideology. In M. L. Hoffman & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), *Review of child development research* (Vol. 1, pp. 381–431). Russell Sage Foundation.
- Liu, Y., Ma, F., Huang, H., Guo, X., Chen, C., & Xu, F. (2015). Parental monitoring, parent-adolescent communication, and adolescents' trust in their parents in china. *Plos One*, 10(8), e0134730. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0134730>
- Masse, R., Poulin, C., Dassa, C., Lambert, J., Bélair, S., & Battaglini, A. (1998). The structure of psychological well-being: A validation of the model. *Social Indicators Research*, 45(1–3), 301–317.
- Metzler, A. and Scheithauer, H. (2017). The long-term benefits of positive self-presentation via profile pictures, number of friends and the initiation of relationships on facebook for adolescents' self-esteem and the initiation of offline relationships. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01981>
- Microsoft Encarta Premium. (2009). Definition of morality.
- Offer, D., & Schonert-Reichl, K. A. (1992). Debunking the myths of adolescence: Findings from recent research. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 31(6), 1003–1014.
- Ogunleye, A.J., & Olawa, B.D. (2013). Schizotypal personality, emotional intelligence and moral competence: Implications for Peace in

- Nigeria. Psychology of Social Behaviour Research. PSBR 2013, 1(3): 76-80 DOI: 10.12966/psbr.08.07.2013
- Park, N., & Peterson, C. (2006a). Moral competence and character strengths among adolescents: Links to well-being and academic achievement. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 1(2), 101–111.
- Park, N., & Peterson, C. (2006b). Character strengths and happiness among young children. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 7(3), 323–341.
- Piaget, J. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. International Universities Press.
- Rohner, R.P., & Khaleque, A. (2005). Handbook for the study of parental acceptance and rejection. Rohner Research Publications.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1069–1081.
- Scales, P. C. (1999). Reducing risks and building developmental assets: Essential actions for promoting adolescent health. *Journal of School Health*, 69(3), 113–119.
- Seligman, M. E. P., Ernst, R. M., Gillham, J., Reivich, K., & Linkins, M. (2009). Positive education: Positive psychology and classroom interventions. *Oxford Review of Education*, 35(3), 293–311.
- Shek, D. T. L. (2006). Perceived parental control and psychological adjustment in Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong. *American Journal of Family Therapy*, 34(2), 123–136. <https://doi.org/10.xxxx>
- Si, E. (2023). The significance of digital citizenship and gender in the relationship between social media usage time and self-esteem among adolescents: a secondary analysis. *Children*, 10(9), 1561. <https://doi.org/10.3390/children10091561>
- Singh, D., Gupta, K., & Bakhshi, A. (2021). Parental attachment and psychological wellbeing in adolescents: mediating role of self-esteem. *Indian Journal of Youth and Adolescent Health*, 08(01), 13–17. <https://doi.org/10.24321/2349.2880.202103>
- Smetana, J. G., Campione-Barr, N., & Metzger, A. (2006). Adolescent development in interpersonal and societal contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 57, 255–284.

- Steinberg, L. (2004). Risk taking in adolescence: What changes, and why? *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1021(1), 51–58.
- Suldo, S. M., & Shaffer, E. J. (2008). Looking beyond psychopathology: The dual-factor model of mental health in youth. *School Psychology Review*, 37(1), 52–68.
- Underwood, B., & Moore, B. (1982). Perspective-taking and altruism. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91(1), 143–173.
- Watts, J., Cockcroft, K., & Duncan, N. (2009). *Developmental psychology* (2nd ed.). UCT Press.
- Weinert, F. E. (2001). Concept of competence: A conceptual clarification. In D. S. Rychen & L. H. Salganik (Eds.), *Defining and selecting key competencies* (pp. 45–65). Hogrefe & Huber.
- White, M. A. (2013). Positive education: An Australian perspective. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 30(2), 75–85.
- Wilkinson, R. B., & Walford, W. A. (1998). *Psychological adjustment and well-being*. University Press.

**THE DARK SIDE OF CYBERCRIME: UNVEILING THE
LINK BETWEEN CYBERCRIME, PSYCHOACTIVE
SUBSTANCE USE, AND PSYCHOTIC SYMPTOMS
AMONG NIGERIAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

BY

AJAYI OLUBUKOLA, PhD.

Department of Psychology and Behavioural Studies
Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti
Olubukola.ajayi@eksu.edu.ng

DADA OLUGBENGA DAVID

Department of Psychology Federal University, Oye, Ekiti.
Olugbenga.dada@fuoye.edu.ng

OKPORUBI ONORIODE JOSEPH

Department of Psychology and Behavioural Studies
Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti
Onoriode1759@gmail.com

&

BALOGUN AYODEJI M.

Department of Psychology Federal University Oye, Ekiti
Balogunayodeji887@gmail.com

Correspondence: Department of Psychology and Behavioural Studies
Faculty of the Social Sciences
Ekiti State University

Emails: olubukola.ajayi@eksu.edu.ng, buddex2003@gmail.com

Abstract

Cybercrime, particularly internet fraud ('Yahoo Yahoo'), has become a significant concern in Nigerian universities. This trend is often driven by students' pursuit of financial gain amidst socio-economic challenges such as unemployment and materialistic pressures. While motivations for cybercrime have been widely discussed, the psychological consequences—including substance use and psychotic symptoms—remain underexplored.

This study examines the relationship between cybercrime engagement, psychoactive substance use, and psychotic symptoms among undergraduates at Ekiti State University, Nigeria. Using a cross-sectional survey of 300 students and validated psychometric tools, we found a modest correlation between cybercrime and substance use and a strong prediction of psychotic symptoms by cybercrime involvement. However, substance use did not significantly mediate the relationship between cybercrime and psychosis. These findings suggest that the psychological burden of cybercrime may be substantial and require integrated mental health and behavioral interventions within university settings.

Keywords: Cybercrime, Psychoactive Substance Use, Psychotic Symptoms, University Students, Nigeria

1.0 Introduction

Cybercrime has become a global concern, evolving rapidly with advancements in technology. According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2021), global losses to cybercrime reached over \$6 trillion in 2021, affecting millions of individuals, businesses, and governments. The prevalence of internet fraud, identity theft, phishing, and cyber-enabled financial scams has increased dramatically, especially among youth populations with easy access to digital tools and social media.

In Nigeria, cybercrime has grown into a widespread societal issue, particularly among university students. The Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) reported in 2022 that over 60% of cybercrime suspects arrested were undergraduates, most of whom were involved in fraudulent schemes such as email scams, impersonation, and social engineering tactics. This trend is often referred to as "Yahoo Yahoo," a local term used to describe internet fraud carried out with deceptive emotional appeals and false financial promises.

Several socio-economic and cultural factors contribute to the rise of cybercrime among students. High youth unemployment, limited access to

legitimate economic opportunities, and increasing materialistic pressure from peers and social media have created an environment where fraudulent success is glorified (Oluwadare&Akinwale, 2019). Oluwadare (2020) noted that many students perceive cybercrime as a practical and rewarding alternative to hard work, especially when role models in their communities flaunt wealth acquired through questionable means. These influences not only normalize cybercrime but also obscure its moral and psychological consequences.

Despite the attention given to the rise of cybercrime in Nigeria, much of the research has focused on socio-economic motivations. Little is known about the psychological costs students may bear as a result of engaging in cybercrime. This study attempts to fill that gap by exploring the possible links between cybercrime, the use of psychoactive substances, and the manifestation of psychotic symptoms among Nigerian undergraduates.

Psychoactive Substance Use

Psychoactive substances are chemical compounds that, when consumed, affect the central nervous system and alter brain function, resulting in changes in perception, mood, consciousness, cognition, and behavior (World Health Organization, 2021). These substances can be legal, such as alcohol and prescription medications, or illegal, such as cannabis, codeine mixtures, and amphetamines. While some are used therapeutically, misuse or dependence can lead to significant physical, psychological, and social harm.

Among Nigerian university students, the use of psychoactive substances has become a concerning coping mechanism in response to academic stress, financial hardship, peer influence, and, notably, involvement in illicit activities like cybercrime. Ogunwale and Olaniran (2019) report that students engaged in internet fraud often turn to substances such as cannabis and tramadol to stay awake during long hours of fraudulent online operations, or to suppress feelings of guilt and anxiety associated with criminal behavior. These substances are sometimes viewed not only as tools for cognitive enhancement or emotional regulation but also as part of the social lifestyle adopted by fraud-involved peer groups. This habitual use, however, can worsen emotional instability, impair judgment,

and create a psychological dependence that further complicates academic and personal life.

Psychotic Symptoms

Psychotic symptoms are a cluster of severe mental disturbances characterized by impaired reality testing. These include hallucinations (sensory perceptions without external stimuli), delusions (false, fixed beliefs), disorganized thinking, paranoia, and in some cases, depressive or negative symptoms such as emotional blunting and social withdrawal (American Psychiatric Association, 2022). While psychotic disorders such as schizophrenia are often genetic or neurobiological in origin, psychotic symptoms can also emerge in non-clinical populations due to prolonged exposure to stress, substance use, and psychological trauma.

Within the context of cybercrime, the prolonged engagement in deceitful and morally conflicting behavior may create intense internal conflict, chronic stress, and anxiety, which have been linked to the onset of psychotic-like experiences. Williams (2017) noted that students who maintain double identities and live in fear of exposure or arrest are at increased risk of paranoia and cognitive distortions. Furthermore, substance use—common among cybercrime-involved students—can exacerbate these symptoms by altering brain chemistry and reducing impulse control (Okeke&Chukwudi, 2020). Over time, this psychological pressure cooker can lead to full-blown psychotic episodes or persistent subclinical symptoms that impair functioning and academic performance.

Justification for Study Location

Ekiti State University (EKSU) provides a compelling context for investigating the intersection of cybercrime, substance use, and psychotic symptoms among undergraduates. Located in southwestern Nigeria, the institution serves a socioeconomically diverse student body drawn from both urban and rural backgrounds. As in many Nigerian universities, internet access has become widespread at EKSU, increasing students' exposure to online platforms and the opportunity for digital fraud. Reports of student involvement in "Yahoo Yahoo" and other cybercrime-related activities have been rising on campus, with anecdotal evidence from staff and students pointing to peer pressure, financial desperation,

and a glamorization of cybercriminal lifestyles as major drivers. Additionally, EKSU's relatively high student enrollment and accessible campus environment made it logistically practical for data collection and allowed for a representative sample of the broader undergraduate population in Nigeria. Thus, the university's demographic profile and socio-digital dynamics render it a strategically relevant setting for the present investigation.

Theoretical Framework

This study is underpinned by four key theories that collectively provide a robust framework for understanding how cybercrime, psychoactive substance use, and psychotic symptoms may interrelate among university students in Nigeria.

1. Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) – Ajzen, 1991

The TPB asserts that human behavior is guided by behavioral intentions, which in turn are influenced by three core tenets:

Attitude toward the behavior: the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the behavior in question. For example, a student who believes that cybercrime is a smart way to get rich may develop a positive attitude toward it.

Subjective norms: the perceived social pressure to perform or not perform the behavior. If peers, online influencers, or community figures endorse or participate in cybercrime or drug use, students may feel encouraged to do the same.

Perceived behavioral control: the belief about how easy or difficult it is to perform the behavior. Students with digital literacy and knowledge of online fraud tools may perceive cybercrime as easily achievable and low-risk.

Applied to this study, TPB helps explain how students cognitively rationalize both cybercrime and substance use based on internal beliefs and external influences. It also suggests that addressing intentions, not just actions, is key to prevention.

2. Strain Theory – Agnew, 1992

Agnew's General Strain Theory expands traditional strain models by identifying different forms of strain and how individuals cope with them.

The main tenets include:

- Failure to achieve positively valued goals (e.g., education, wealth, status)
- Removal of positively valued stimuli (e.g., financial support, mentorship)
- Presentation of negative stimuli (e.g., poverty, institutional neglect)

Under these conditions, individuals experience emotional strain such as frustration, anger, or despair. When legitimate means of achieving goals are blocked or unavailable, deviant alternatives like cybercrime and drug use may emerge as coping mechanisms. In the Nigerian university context, where many students face economic hardship, systemic unemployment, and inadequate support, cybercrime becomes a perceived shortcut to success.

The theory also accounts for negative emotional responses like guilt or anxiety, which may explain the psychological burden associated with fraudulent behavior, including the onset of psychotic symptoms.

3. Social Learning Theory – Bandura, 1969

Bandura's Social Learning Theory explains behavior acquisition through social interaction. The major tenets are:

- Observational learning (modeling): individuals learn new behaviors by watching others, especially when the observed behavior appears to be rewarded.
- Reinforcement: behaviors are strengthened when followed by positive outcomes (e.g., money, peer admiration).
- Identification: individuals are more likely to imitate behaviors of people they perceive as similar to themselves or whom they admire.

In the context of cybercrime, students may observe peers, online

personalities, or even celebrities engaging in or benefiting from internet fraud and adopt similar behaviors. Reinforcement, such as the financial rewards and social status that come with cybercrime success, serves to solidify the behavior. Similarly, substance use may be learned through peer groups where such behavior is common and socially accepted. Over time, students internalize these behaviors as normal, desirable, or even necessary.

4. Biological Theories – Dopamine Hypothesis & Genetic Predisposition

The biological perspective emphasizes the physiological and hereditary underpinnings of behavior and mental illness.

The Dopamine Hypothesis suggests that psychotic symptoms are linked to an overactivity of dopamine neurotransmission, particularly in the mesolimbic pathway.

Psychoactive substances, such as cannabis and stimulants, are known to affect dopamine regulation. In vulnerable individuals, this can precipitate hallucinations, paranoia, and disorganized thinking.

Genetic predisposition also plays a role — individuals with a family history of mental illness or with pre-existing neurological vulnerabilities may be more likely to develop psychosis when exposed to chronic stress or substance abuse.

This perspective helps explain how cybercrime-related stress and substance use can contribute to the development of psychotic symptoms, not merely through psychological strain but also through biological dysfunction.

These four theories offer a comprehensive understanding of how Nigerian university students may become involved in cybercrime, how they cope through substance use, and how these processes may lead to psychological distress or psychosis.

Study Aim and Hypotheses

The increasing involvement of Nigerian university students in cybercrime,

commonly known as “Yahoo Yahoo,” presents not only a moral and legal challenge but also a psychological one. While much of the existing literature focuses on the socio-economic drivers of internet fraud, there is limited empirical understanding of the psychological costs incurred by students who engage in these activities. Evidence suggests that such students often experience chronic stress, substance use, and signs of mental health deterioration, including psychotic symptoms, yet this area remains under-investigated in the Nigerian academic context.

Guided by the Theory of Planned Behavior, Strain Theory, Social Learning Theory, and Biological Perspectives, this study aims to bridge this knowledge gap by examining the relationships between cybercrime engagement, psychoactive substance use, and psychotic symptoms among undergraduates. These theories collectively propose that behavioral intentions, social and economic pressures, learned behaviors, and neurobiological vulnerability all contribute to these outcomes. Therefore, the present study seeks to determine whether psychoactive substance use mediates the relationship between cybercrime and psychotic symptoms. The findings are expected to inform targeted psychological interventions and campus-wide behavioral risk management strategies.

Specifically, the study tested the following hypotheses:

1. There is a significant positive relationship between cybercrime engagement and psychoactive substance use.
2. There is a significant positive relationship between psychoactive substance use and psychotic symptoms.
3. Cybercrime engagement significantly predicts psychotic symptoms.
4. Psychoactive substance use mediates the relationship between cybercrime engagement and psychotic symptoms.

Methods

Research Design:

The study utilized a cross-sectional survey design to collect data at a single point in time. This approach was appropriate for exploring relationships among the variables without manipulating them.

Participants and Sampling:

The study population comprised undergraduate students of Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti. A stratified random sampling technique was employed to ensure broad representation across faculties, departments, and academic levels. First, the student population was stratified by faculty, and within each stratum, participants were randomly selected using departmental attendance lists and classroom rosters as sampling frames.

A total of 300 students were selected to participate in the study. This sample size was determined using G*Power software to ensure sufficient power ($\geq .80$) to detect medium effect sizes at a 95% confidence level. Participants were eligible if they (a) were currently enrolled full-time as undergraduates, (b) were aged 18 and above, and (c) provided informed consent to participate. Both male and female students were included, and efforts were made to ensure gender balance and diversity in academic level (100 to 500 level).

Instruments:**1. Internet Fraud Involvement Scale (IFIS)**

The Internet Fraud Involvement Scale (IFIS), adapted from Olowookere and Adebayo (2017), is a 20-item self-report instrument designed to assess the extent of involvement in cybercrime-related behaviors such as phishing, identity theft, and online impersonation. Responses are rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Often). Sample items include: "I have created a fake identity online to deceive others" and "I have received money through fraudulent online means." The IFIS has demonstrated strong internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$) in prior studies involving Nigerian youth populations.

2. Drug Use Disorder Identification Test (DUDIT)

Developed by Berman et al. (2005), the DUDIT is an 11-item screening tool used to detect harmful or dependent patterns of psychoactive substance use. It evaluates frequency, dependence symptoms, and social consequences of drug use. Responses are given on a Likert scale with varying ranges (e.g., 0 = Never to 4 = Daily). It covers both legal and illegal substances, including cannabis, alcohol, prescription drugs, and opioids. The instrument has been validated in multiple cultural contexts and showed good internal reliability in this study (Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$).

3. Community Assessment of Psychic Experiences (CAPE-42)

The CAPE-42 is a 42-item self-report measure developed to assess psychotic-like experiences in non-clinical populations (Stefanis et al., 2002). It evaluates three symptom dimensions: positive (e.g., hallucinations, paranoia), negative (e.g., affective flattening), and depressive (e.g., hopelessness). Each item is rated on a 4-point Likert scale from 1 (Never) to 4 (Almost Always). A sample item includes: "Do you ever feel that people are plotting against you?" The CAPE has been widely used in psychosis research and has demonstrated robust psychometric properties across diverse populations (average $\alpha = .81-.90$).

Procedure and Ethical Approval:

Prior to data collection, ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, in accordance with international standards for research involving human participants.

Data collection took place over a three-week period across multiple faculties. The students were approached in lecture halls, student union buildings, and hostel lounges. Participants were briefed about the purpose of the study, their rights, and the voluntary nature of their participation. Only those who gave informed consent were included in the study.

Each participant was given a questionnaire packet containing the demographic form and three standardized instruments (IFIS, DUDIT, and CAPE-42). On average, the survey took 15 to 20 minutes to complete. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality, participants were instructed not to write their names or matriculation numbers.

All responses were stored securely and used solely for research purposes. Students were also provided with contact information for the university's counseling unit should they experience distress during or after the study.

Results

Table 1

Distribution of socio-demographic data

N = 284	N	%
Gender		
Male	179	63
Female	105	37

The sample for this study consists of 179 (63%) males and 105(37%) females.

Table 2

Bivariate correlation matrix of relationships between age, cybercrime engagement, substance abuse and psychotic symptoms (positive, negative and depressive dimensions)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	Mean	S.D
Age (1)	-						22	2.74
Cybercrime engagement (2)	.10	-					16.70	5.77
Substance abuse (3)	-.18**	.12*	-				4.27	1.44
Positive dimension (4)	.07	.78**	-.08	-			2.51	1.06
Negative dimension (5)	.08	.83**	-.08	.60**	-		3	1.15
Depressive dimension (6)	.06	.86**	-.09	.63**	.60**	-	2.60	31

*P<.01**,p<.05**

Table 2 above showed that there is a positive relationship between cybercrime engagement and depressive dimension of psychotic symptoms EKSU students $r = .86, p < .01$. It was further revealed that cybercrime engagement was positively related with positive dimension of psychotic symptoms $r = .78, p < .01$ and negative dimension of psychotic symptoms $r = .83, p < .01$. Similarly, age was negatively related to substance abuse $r = -.18, p < .01$.

Hypothesis 1

This result was used to test hypothesis one which stated that there is a significant positive relationship between involvement in cybercrime and psychoactive substance abuse. Results of correlation analysis shows that there is a significant positive relationship between cybercrime engagement and psychotic symptoms $r = .12, p < .01$. This indicates that the higher are university students' involvement in cybercrime, the higher are their level of psychoactive substance abuse.

Hypothesis 2

Similarly, results of data analysis presented in table 2 above also tested hypothesis 2 which states that there is a positive relationship between psychoactive substance use and the presence of psychotic symptoms. This hypothesis was not supported in that psychoactive did not have significant relationship with any of the dimensions of psychotic symptoms: positive dimension $r = -.08, p > .05$, negative dimension $r = -.08, p > .05$ and depressive dimension $r = -.09, p > .05$. Therefore, hypothesis two was not supported.

Hypothesis 3

There will be a significant influence of cybercrime engagement on psychotic symptoms among university students

Table 3: Regression analysis showing the influence of cybercrime engagement on psychotic symptoms dimensions

Variable	Positive dimension	Negative dimension	Depressive dimension
	β		
Cybercrime engagement	.78**	.83**	.86**
R^2	.61	.69	.73
F	432.31	616.53**	779.34**

** $p < .01$

Multiple regression summary table in table 3 above showed that cybercrime engagement independently predicted positive dimension $\beta = .78, p < .01$, negative dimension $\beta = .83, p < .01$ and depressive dimension $\beta = .86, p < .01$ of psychotic symptoms. This means an increase in cybercrime engagement predicts an increase in experience of all the dimensions of

psychotic symptoms. This result suggests that students involved in cybercrime are more likely to exhibit psychotic symptoms. Therefore, hypothesis three is supported.

Hypothesis 4

Psychoactive substance use will mediate the relationship between cybercrime involvement and psychotic symptoms among university students.

Table 4: Hierarchical regression summary table showing the mediating role of psychoactive substance abuse in the relationship between cybercrime involvement and psychotic symptoms among university students

Predictors	<i>B</i>	β	T	R^2	ΔR^2	F	p
Model 1							
Cybercrime involvement	.20	.86	27.92**	.73	-	779.34	<.01
Model 2							
Cybercrime involvement	.20	.86	27.72**	.74	.001	388.75	<.01
Substance use	.01	.02	.50				

DV=psychoticsymptoms

The study employed a two-stage hierarchical approach, introducing predictors in the following order: at stage one, cybercrime involvement contributed significantly to the regression model $R^2 = .73$ $F(1, 282) = 779.34, p < .01$). In the second stage, substance use was added to the model as a mediator but did not improve the model nor has an independent influence on psychotic symptoms $B = .02, t = .50, p > .05$ although the model remains significant due the strength to cybercrime involvement in predicting psychotic symptoms. $F(2, 281) = 388.75, p < .01$. This result shows that substance use did not mediate the association between cybercrime involvement and psychotic symptoms among university students. Therefore, hypothesis four

Discussion

This study investigated the psychological consequences of cybercrime among university students by examining the relationships between cybercrime engagement, psychoactive substance use, and psychotic symptoms. It specifically tested four hypotheses to determine the direct and indirect effects of these variables and whether substance use mediated the relationship between cybercrime and psychotic outcomes.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive relationship between cybercrime engagement and psychoactive substance use.

The findings revealed a modest but statistically significant positive correlation between cybercrime and psychoactive substance use. This suggests that students involved in cybercrime are more likely to consume drugs, likely as a strategy to manage the pressure, anxiety, or insomnia linked with fraudulent activity. Ogunwale and Olaniran (2019) found similar results, showing that drug use among cybercriminals is often functional — enhancing alertness and suppressing moral conflict. However, some studies (e.g., Adeleke&Falana, 2020) have shown that drug use may also be a predisposing factor rather than a consequence, indicating the need for longitudinal designs to clarify directionality.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant positive relationship between psychoactive substance use and psychotic symptoms.

Contrary to expectations, the study found no significant direct relationship between substance use and psychotic symptoms in this sample. This finding diverges from previous studies (e.g., Arseneault et al., 2004) that highlight cannabis and stimulant use as risk factors for psychosis. One possible explanation is that the levels of use reported in this sample were not high enough to trigger psychotic symptoms, or that individual resilience and genetic buffering may have played a moderating role. This suggests that while substance use is common, it may not always translate into observable psychopathology unless combined with other stressors or predispositions.

Hypothesis 3: Cybercrime engagement significantly predicts psychotic symptoms.

This hypothesis was strongly supported by the data. Cybercrime engagement significantly predicted all three dimensions of psychotic symptoms (positive, negative, and depressive). These results are consistent with Williams (2017) and Hollis et al. (2019), who report that ongoing deception, stress from double identities, and fear of legal repercussions can cause paranoia, hallucinations, and mood disturbances. From a theoretical standpoint, both Strain Theory and the Dopamine Hypothesis provide viable explanations — one social, the other neurobiological.

Hypothesis 4: Psychoactive substance use mediates the relationship between cybercrime engagement and psychotic symptoms.

This hypothesis was not supported. The mediation analysis showed that while cybercrime was a strong predictor of psychotic symptoms, the indirect path through substance use was statistically insignificant. This implies that the psychological burden of fraud (e.g., guilt, stress, moral dissonance) may have a more direct effect on mental health than drug use does. This challenges assumptions that drug use is the main driver of mental health deterioration among cybercrime-involved students and shifts attention toward ethical stress and identity conflict.

Conclusion and Implications

This study reveals that cybercrime is not only a legal or economic issue but a public mental health concern. Psychotic symptoms are significantly more likely among cybercrime-involved students. Though substance use is present, it does not explain the mental health deterioration.

Implications:

- **Mental Health Services:** Schools should implement early screening and counseling for at-risk students.
- **Policy Reform:** Clear penalties and anti-cybercrime campaigns must be enforced.
- **Education:** Workshops on ethical behavior and coping skills should be introduced into general studies curricula.

References

- Adeleke, A. A., & Falana, B. A. (2020). Drug use as a precursor to youth criminality in Nigeria: A criminological perspective. *African Journal of Social Sciences*, 10(2), 45–59.
- Agnew, R. (1992). Foundation for a general strain theory of crime and delinquency. *Criminology*, 30(1), 47–88.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179–211.
- American Psychiatric Association. (2022). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (5th ed., text rev.). American Psychiatric Publishing.
- Arseneault, L., Cannon, M., Witton, J., & Murray, R. M. (2004). Causal association between cannabis and psychosis: examination of the evidence. *The British journal of psychiatry*, 184(2), 110–117.
- Bandura, A. (1969). Principles of behavior modification. *New York*, 1.
- Berman, A. H., Bergman, H., Palmstierna, T., & Schlyter, F. (2004). Evaluation of the Drug Use Disorders Identification Test (DUDIT) in criminal justice and detoxification settings and in a Swedish population sample. *European addiction research*, 11(1), 22–31.
- Hollis, M., Rogan, J., & Marston, H. (2019). Psychotic symptoms in high-stress environments: The role of deception and substance use. *Psychiatric Quarterly*, 90(2), 203–214. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11126-018-9617-1>
- Ogunwale, A., & Olaniran, F. (2019). Substance abuse as a coping mechanism among Nigerian students involved in cybercrime. *Substance Use & Misuse*, 54(6), 991–1002. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10826084.2018.1549250>
- Okeke, C., & Chukwudi, M. (2020). The neurobiological link between prolonged fraud, substance use, and emerging psychotic symptoms in Nigerian youth. *Journal of Contemporary African Psychology*, 3(1), 78–93.
- Olowookere, B., & Adebayo, S. (2017). Development and validation of the Internet Fraud Involvement Scale. *Nigerian Journal of Psychology*, 25(2), 65–76.
- Oluwadare, M. (2020). The rise of cybercrime in the digital age: A Nigerian perspective. *Journal of African Development*, 25(3), 125–140.
- Oluwadare, M., & Akinwale, O. (2019). Socioeconomic predictors of

- cybercrime participation among Nigerian undergraduates. *African Journal of Criminology and Justice Studies*, 12(1), 101–116.
- Stefanis, N. C., Hanssen, M., Smirnis, N. K., Avramopoulos, D. A., Evdokimidis, I. K., Stefanis, C. N., Verdoux, H., & van Os, J. (2002). Evidence that three dimensions of psychosis have a distribution in the general population. *Psychological Medicine*, 32(2), 347–358. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291701005141>
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2021). Global report on cybercrime and digital fraud. UNODC.
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2022). Drug use in Nigeria: Trends and patterns. UNODC.
- Williams, B. M. (2017). The psychological impact of online deception: A study of university fraud perpetrators. *International Journal of Psychology*, 42(6), 31–44.

Banditry and Socio-Economic Development in Nigeria: A Case Study of Kaduna South

By

ADEOYE Adebayo Oyedokun

PhD Candidate

and

J. M. OLUWALEYE, PhD

Email. monisola.oluwaleye@eksu.edu.ng

Department of Political Science,

Faculty of the Social Sciences,

Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Abstract

Banditry attacks have become thorns that terrorize communities and pose hindrances to socio-economic development in Nigeria, particularly in Kaduna South, Nigeria. The study examines the reasons and implications of banditry attacks on socio-economic development. The study anchored on the theory of structural violence postulated by John Galtung (1969) as a theoretical foundation. The study makes use of primary and secondary data. Primary data employs in-depth key informant interview and secondary data sourced from relevant literature and newspapers. Both primary and secondary data were qualitatively analyzed. Findings reveals that reasons for banditry include unemployment among youths, especially in the Northern part of the country. The study concludes that the federal government's efforts to end banditry is ongoing. It reveals that some politicians make use of banditry for political purposes either to campaign against the government or to terrorize communities so that during election they can deceive citizens that banditry will be addressed after winning the election. The study

recommends that Nigeria's law enforcement agents need to be strengthened for better performance against banditry attacks. By this, banditry imminence attacks can be subdued and there will be security and safety to promote socio-economic development in the society.

1. Introduction

Banditry is one of the major security challenges confronting Nigeria. It manifests in form of shooting and killing, burning houses, cattle rustling, raping and robbing (Usman and Singeh, 2021 in Odalonu, (2023). Akinyetun, (2022) described banditry as a security threat that exposes a democratically governed society to the dilemma of crime that influences the peaceful coexistence of people. The prevalence of banditry in a democratically governed society is a threat to security and the safety of lives and properties. Fear of banditry attacks has restricted the movement of freedom and consequently incapacitated socioeconomic activities in the banditry prone areas in the country. Osasona (2023) opined that banditry as a group of criminals pose putative challenge to human rights, safety and security in society. In the same vein, Okoli and Orinya in Mohammed (2002) noted that violence affects every sphere of Nigerian society. Banditry attacks no doubt pose great danger to national development as all activities within and outside society are affected (Olanipekun; Olaojo and Awoniyi, 2022). Similarly, Ofoma (2023) opined that consistent banditry attacks have negatively impacted the Northwest region and hindered socio-economic activities in such a way that farming has been severely affected, academic activities paralysed, marketing activities are put in abeyance, businesses have ceased thriving and society is experiencing large economic loss as investors are kept off for the fear of banditry attacks. In addition, Ofoma (2023) submitted that banditry influences interrupt the supply of social services and economic activities such as transportation, agricultural production, and businesses. Banditry does not only threatening security and safety in society but also a major threat to economic development as it deters local businesses and foreign investments (Ekene, 2015). In spite of government's efforts in the recruitment of more security agents, banditry continue to become hazard on socio-economic development (Adegoke, 2020).

It is evident that continual banditry attacks have been responsible for epileptic trading activities and disruptions of essential social services particularly in the Northwest Nigeria. This shows that banditry perpetuates underdevelopment. specifically, the activities of banditry in the Nigeria's Fourth Republic Nigerians have manifested in mass killings of innocent Nigerians as well as burning of peoples' houses. This triggers loss of lives and properties, homelessness, loss of employment and socio-economic hardships (Adekoya, 2022). Therefore, this study seeks to

- (I) identify the reasons for banditry in Kaduna South, Nigeria,
- (ii) determine the effects of banditry on socio-economic development in Kaduna South, Nigeria
- (iii) explore the challenges of curbing banditry in Kaduna South, Nigeria
- (iv) proffer solution to banditry attack in Kaduna South, Nigeria

2.0 Literature Review

Conceptual Analysis

Banditry is defined as a group of terrorists who are responsible for terrorizing people and seizing their properties, it can also mean a criminal group or gangs who possess big and small weapons to attack people (Rosenje and Adeniyi, 2021). In the opinion of Egwu, (2016), banditry means a way of stealing cattle and animals from herders or raiding cattle from their ranches. In other words, banditry is conceived as an act of armed robbery or associated violent crimes, such as kidnapping, cattle rustling, or raiding markets or villages which normally entail the use of force, or threat to attack a person or a group of persons to rob, rape or kill them (Okoli & Okpaleke, 2014). Moreover, Shalangwa (2013) defined banditry as the practice of raiding and attacking victims by members of an armed group. However, Shalangwa (2013) described banditry as lawless marauders who hid in the forests and mountains. Similarly, banditry is described as a group of rural outlawed criminal activities that are involved in raiding of villages, kidnappings and cattle rustling for primitive accumulation of wealth (Abdullahi, 2019). From the above various definitions, banditry consists of a group of people who threaten people in

the community by robbing, rapping and killing them. They have no definite destination or residence. Their activities have led to loss of lives and properties and create fear in the community.

Socio-Economic Development

Socio-economic development is defined as the process of positive changes in individual, family and community (Nwakpa, 2021). However, positive changes can happen in a society if there is a well-implemented social policy and economic initiative desired for development (Nwakpa 2021). Nwakpa (2021) emphasized that socio-economic development is usually focused on improvement in individual communities among others. Edeh, 2019 cited in Donatus, Grace and Fidelis, 2022) submitted that the Human Development Index is determined by the Gross Domestic Product in terms of the community's life expectancy, literacy, employment levels and health. However, Udu and Nkwede, 2014 cited in Donatus, Grace and Fidelis, 2022) conceptualized Human Development Index as educational attainment, personal dignity and food security. Socio-economic development depicts improvement in the standard of living of the citizens and the economy of the nation. The indications of the development include improvement in health, life expectancy, employment, literacy level, reduction in poverty, among others.

An overview of Banditry on Socio-Economic Development

Historically, the existence of banditry is traceable to the 19th century in Europe where banditry refers to warriors who fought over the colonizers (Watto, 1994, cited in Ahmad and Jamilu, 2022). It is maintained that bandits like Chuchuel Roto, Herachio, Bernel and Santanon were regarded as bandits who were icons of Mexican. These bandits were referred to as social workers (Watts 1987, in Ahmad & Jamilu, 2022). Meanwhile, in the 21st century banditry is characterized by killing, maiming, destroying properties and cattle rustling (Rufai, 2017, in Ahmad and Jamilu, 2022). Similarly, Egwu (2015) submits that armed banditry has a negative influence on society by establishing division in state-society relations. He identified the cause of banditry to include religion and political affiliations, as in the case of Benue State where some people in society fashioned foreign mercenaries to inflict havoc on a predominantly Christian society. According to Momale (2015), armed banditry involves

different forms of crimes; among which are highway robbery and gang-like invasion of settlements to confiscate wealth and properties (Cheserek, et al. 2012) cited in Mohammed and Abdullahi, (2021). Most scholars see banditry's activities as violent attacks that impede development. Banditry succeeds where the government is weak and unable to carry out the responsibilities of war against criminal banditry, especially where banditry is prevalent in the Middle Belt of Nigeria. Moreover, Akinyetun (2022) identified reasons for banditry as under-governed spaces where the government's control is ineffective and limited. He noted that under-governed spaces characterized by bad governance, weak legitimacy, protracted conflict, and poor leadership makes citizens vulnerable to exploitation by terrorist groups, traffickers, and other criminal elements.

Moreover, he identified large forests areas in Rumah/Kukar Jangarai, Kamuku, Balmo, Katsina, Kaduna, Bauchi, and Kano states are not generally devoid of the government's control but are governed poorly and differently from larger communities. He emphasized that poorly governed territories are surrounded by bandits and other criminal gangs due to their remoteness, which allows for the perpetuation of an array of criminal activities. Furthermore, he revealed that the country's porous borders have triggered smuggling of small arms and light weapons from the Sahel region used by the youths for criminal activities. Other reasons for banditry identified by Akinyetun (2022) include conflicts between pastoralists and farmers, desertification, drought, climate change, cattle rustling, insurgency, and population growth that leads to migration of pastoralists or herdsman. In addition, (Akinyetun, 2022) noted that illegal mining activities in the North West region of the country by the bandits which is common in Niger, Kebbi, Katsina, and Zamfara states, has resulted in conflict over the control of minefields. Such conflicts have led to the deaths of thousands of people. He submitted that the illegal activities are caused by poor governance, poor service delivery, poverty, and high unemployment especially in the Northwest geopolitical zone, which makes the youth susceptible to crimes and criminality. However, studies on banditry especially in the Northwest region adduced that Kaduna, Katsina, Kebbi, Kano, Jigawa, Sokoto and Zamfara states are mostly affected. Similarly, the work of Ojo, Oyewole and Aina, (2023), submitted that Kaduna state has the highest banditry attack in the Northwest region.

It was noted that banditry had been existing in the Northwest region since post-colonial period due to certain factors such as economic inequality, political instability, and ethnic tensions. Meanwhile, during post-colonial period banditry attacks emerged as a result of the collapsed industries and constraint in agricultural productivity which culminated into aggressiveness by giving opportunity to the growth of crimes that caused Northwest region to experience increased incidents of banditry (Ojo, Oyewole and Aina, (2023). Similarly, banditry attacks were perceived as linked to factors of religion, economic inequality, political instability, and ethnic tensions (Agbalajobi 2019). The collapse of industries and the decline in agricultural productivity contributed to a sense of frustration among the populace, providing fertile ground for the growth of criminals.

Scholars have attributed the prevalence of banditry in Nigeria to factors such as the weakness of the Nigerian state in terms of weak institutions, weak Nigerian security agencies, absence of government to govern ungoverned spaces, border porosity, which activated of arms proliferation through smuggling, bad leadership, poverty, unemployment and corruption (Gaye, 2018; Olaniyan and Yahaya ;2016, Suleiman, 2017 and Mustapha, 2019 in Abdussalam and Olayiwola 2022). Also, it is clearly identified that the southern region of Kaduna has been battling with issues of historical and political marginalization coupled with political instability which has activated environmental opportunities for banditry to flourish. Furthermore, Ojo, Oyewole and Aina (2023) posited that armed banditry as an organized group began attacks in the form of cattle-rustling, plundering, kidnapping rapping, and killing. They revealed that the heinous crime was heightened between 2018 and 2020. During the period, about 4, 900 deaths were caused by armed banditry, 10,000 residents' were rendered homeless and economic damages were done by the banditry attacks.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

The study of banditry and socio-economic development in Nigeria anchored on the theory of structural violence. The theory was postulated by John Galtung in 1969. The theory of structural violence explains that society is composed of violent criminals that harm people and that violence in society prevents socio-economic development, when people

are unable to meet their social needs (Bandy, 2019). The theory is relevant to Nigeria's situation where banditry attacks have become endemic and disastrous, thereby endangering the socio-economic activities that can secure substantial development in the country (Global Terrorism Index, 2016). This theory is relevant to Nigeria because the security agents lack advanced weapons, and their security personnel are finding it very difficult to tackle the menace of banditry effectively (Obaji, 2021). In addition, lack of political will among politicians in Nigeria is giving more opportunities for bandits to operate unhindered. The critique of structural violence theory is that the theory fails to address adequately the negative social behaviours or the prominence of inequality. However, the theory is relevant due to the influence of the environment caused by banditry activities on the development of the country.

3. Methodology

The study area was Kaduna South, a local government area in Kaduna Metropolis of Kaduna State, Nigeria. Kaduna South shared boundaries with Plateau and Bauchi States and South with Abuja the Federal Capital Territory. Kaduna South has one Senatorial district and multi-ethnic pre-dominants who are commonly non-Muslims (Suleiman 2011). The choice of Kaduna South for the study is because of incessant banditry attacks in the area. The study employed a mixed-method approach to gain an in-depth insight to the problem of banditry in the community. It adopted purposive and snowball methods of sampling. Purposive is non-probability method utilized effectively by the researcher due to the nature of the study. This means researcher purposively needs information from a well-reliable source, which is relevant to the study. Sample areas include Sabon Layi, Kan Makama Kauru, Buda Kajuru, and Gidan Busa Kachia Local governments. These areas were chosen because they are mostly attacked by banditry. Method of data collection involved key informant interviews with 15 stakeholders within Kaduna South whom the researcher considered knowledgeable to provide rich and valid information on the problem of banditry within the community. The key informants included residents within Kaduna South, community leaders, traders, teachers and local guards. The research instrument was mainly a structured interview guide in line with the objectives of the study. The method of data collection was in-depth interview and data was analyzed qualitatively from the gathered responses.

4.0 Presentation of Data and Discussion

4.1 Reasons for Banditry in Kaduna South, Nigeria.

The following factors for Banditry in Kaduna South, Nigeria were identified:

Unemployment and poverty were identified as major factors for banditry in Kaduna South, Nigeria. One of the respondents, a male trader and community resident who does not want his name to be mentioned posited that “most of the youths are unemployed resulting in poverty in the community. These made the youth to be prone to the criminal activity” (Fieldwork, 2024). This is in line with the submission of Abdulssalam and Olayiwola (2022) who opined that poverty and unemployment are the reasons for banditry. The study also discovered that the reasons for banditry include corruption because of selfish interest of the politicians.

One of the community leaders responded that

most politicians in Kaduna South, as a result of corruption use banditry for political purpose either to campaign against a political candidate for election or use banditry to terrorize communities so that it can be easy for the aspiring politicians to campaign against the worsening security situation of society caused by banditry as an avenue to convince citizens that after winning elections they will address banditry that has been terrorizing society (Fieldwork, 2024).

This is in line with the findings of Abubakar (2019) who opined that politicians are the reasons for banditry that has been terrorizing Nigeria.

Another reason for banditry identified by respondents is bad government.

One of the respondents, male community resident who resides in Kaduna South, Nigeria linked the persistence of banditry in Kaduna South to failure of government to curb the activities (Fieldwork, 2024). This is in consonance with the finding of Akinyetun (2022) who noted that poor

governance has become the reason for the prevalent of banditry in Nigeria. It was also revealed by one of the respondents that the longtime disputes between Hausa farmers and the Fulani herders over land and resources was one of the reasons for banditry especially in Kaduna. This is in line with the submission of Ibrahim (2021) that conflict between Hausa and Fulani herders instigated reason for banditry. Also, one of the respondents submitted that “youths are aggressive because their socio-economic needs are not properly addressed by the government and these youths engaged in banditry so that they can get the attention of the government”. This is in line with the submission of Mohammed (2020) that youths are involved in banditry because their socio-economic needs are not met

4.2 Implication of Banditry on Socio-Economic Development in Nigeria

The following were identified as the implications of banditry on socio-economic development in Kaduna South, Nigeria.

Disruptions of economic activities such as farming, trading and investments, disruption of academic activities and health services as well as vandalization of infrastructure because of banditry attack which has affected development in Kaduna South Nigeria. One of the respondents, a male community trader who does not want his name to be mentioned noted that

banditry within the Kaduna South has severely affected trade and businesses of residents of Kaduna. Many businesses have been suspended; farming activities have been stopped because a lot of residents are fearful of attack (Field Work, 2024).

Similarly, a respondent who is a trader posited that investors are discouraged from coming to the community to establish their investments because of the persistent attack caused by armed banditry in Kaduna South Nigeria. (Fieldwork, 2024). This outcome is in consonance with the submission of scholars who have noted the implication of banditry on

socio-economic development include implication on agriculture and trade, implication on infrastructure, education and health services which have been hampered as a result of banditry attack (Abdussalam, Olayiwola 2022; Abdullahi, Abdulrakib; Nazeef; Zaharadeen and Tirmizhi 2023).

Agriculture is a major source of income in Kaduna State. The State has crops, livestock, and tree crops as means of production. Kaduna being the major producer of Maize, Ginger, Tomato, Rice, Soybean and Sorghum and the livestock in production of Cattle, Sheep, Goat and Chicken population. Similarly, Abdussalam and Olayiwola, (2022) argued that agriculture which also comprises livestock farming as trading activities, which should secure the country's means of national revenue, has been hampered by the banditry attacks on farmers, which has made cultivation and harvest very difficult. Maiharaji, (2023) submitted that these farmers have appeared as beggars. In the same vein, some respondents in Kaduna South who are teachers and formerly farmers revealed that banditry incessant attacks on the farm was the reason for the suspension of their farming activities.

Moreover, it was discovered that the bandits attacked infrastructure. Electric poles that generate electricity in communities were said to be shattered while telecommunication antennas were smashed. One of the community leaders in Kaduna South noted the implication of smashed infrastructure as follows:

most residents cannot make use of effective telecommunication services and the whole communities are in darkness as a result of damaged electric poles by the bandits and this make it easy for bandits to easily attack community residents at nights. The implication of banditry attack is a jeopardy to safety and hinderance on economic development” in Kaduna South Nigeria (Fieldwork, 2024)

This in line with the submission of Solomon (2023) posited that the destroyed infrastructure like telecommunication network has negative

effects on the economy: Fidelis, Obasanmi & Ighata (2014) noted that infrastructure as the basic social services is needed for development. They submitted that the presence of infrastructure can facilitate rapidly the development of the economy. Maria (2022), also, revealed that investment in telecommunications as one of the basic infrastructures that can boost economy of the country (Maria, 2022).

Furthermore, implication of banditry on employment according to the findings indicated that: "Kaduna South is now having shortage of employment opportunity because banditry attacks have posed fear and discouragement on employers from accepting job applications of job-seekers" (Fieldwork, 2024). This is corroborated by Ibrahim (2021) who opined that Kaduna now have low employment opportunities, in spite that Kaduna being home for textile, agro allied industries, automobile assembly plant, furniture, beverage producing industries, oil refinery petrochemical plants. Ekpo and Izge (2023), on the other hand, revealed that many unemployed youths are enticed by money and recruited as bandits.

Moreover, health services as one of the crucial measurements of socio-economic development were also affected by banditry in Kaduna South. Many respondents submitted that continuous banditry attack in Kaduna South had put fear especially on their pregnant women who alternatively seek traditional way of delivery. This is because many maternity hospitals were parts of the target attack of the bandits who aim to reduce population in Kaduna South by either killing the pregnant women or to kidnap them during the delivery (Fieldwork, 2024). Another respondent who does not want his name mentioned said that "patients' health conditions were deteriorated because banditry attack denied them access to quality treatments as many medical practitioners have quit their jobs for their personal safety" (Fieldwork, 2024). In line with the work of Bashar; Abdullahi, Abdulrakib; Nazeef; Zaharadeen and Tirmizhi (2023) who opined that banditry attacks have hindered socio-economic development because of incessant attack of banditry.

Likewise, the prevalence of banditry in Kaduna South, Nigeria has made education difficult to be accessible. One of the respondents who is a

teacher in Kaduna South stated that “a lot of parents have withdrawn their children from schools because of the incessant banditry attacks which contributes hindrance in educational activities” (Fieldwork, 2024). This is in line with the submission of Rosenje, Zubair and Adeniyi (2022) that banditry has led to the collapse of education.

4.3 The Challenges of Curbing Banditry in Kaduna South.

The study identified the challenge of curbing banditry in Kaduna South, Nigeria to consist of the following factors:

Efforts to overcome the problem of banditry in Nigeria has faced some challenges. Among others, the following were identified:

The challenge of logistic was identified as one of the major challenges. One of the security agents in Kaduna State who does not want his name to be mentioned submitted that “many times security agents complain of logistical problems such as lack of fuel or flat tires in moving to areas under attack” (Fieldwork, 2024). Similarly, a local guard posited, “the challenge of insufficiency equipment to combat banditry which has become a problem in Kaduna South, Nigeria”.

A local guard in Kaduna South who does not want his name to be mentioned also submitted that:

during banditry attack in communities' security agents usually wait to receive orders from their superior authorities before moving to the scene of attack but if there is no order to move security agents, there is no intervention to rescue communities (Fieldwork, 2024).

The finding also discovered that during security operations there are unpatriotic agents that disseminate security strategy to the banditry so that they can strike in communities before security agents' intervention (Fieldwork, 2024). This is in consonance with Isah and Musa (2023) who noted that saboteurs among the security agents are giving valuable information to bandits. In addition, corruption was identified by Isah and Musa (2023) as another challenge. They noted that corruption has

become the challenge to curb banditry in Nigeria particularly among notable military officers who are involved in the corrupt practices when it comes to money government set aside for fighting insecurity, banditry and other crimes. Corruption among politicians, high security chiefs and bureaucrats are hinderance to effective move to curb banditry in Nigeria (Sule, Azizuddin & Mat, 2017 cited in Isah and Musa, 2023). For instance, EFCC, 2017 and Sule, Azizuddin & Mat, 2018 cited in Isah and Musa, (2023) submitted that fund allocated to purchase weapons to combat insurgency and banditry were used for 2015 Presidential General Election Campaigns. This revealed that corruption among the bigwigs and security agents in Nigeria is slowing down efforts to curb banditry. In line with the above, the Former Nigeria's National Security Adviser (NSA), Babagana Monguno under the President Buhari Administration revealed that money budgeted for the purchase of arms and ammunition under the past service chiefs were not audited. (Premium Times, March 12, 2021 in Isah and Musa, 2023).

Raimi, Lasisi & Ene, W. Robert, 2019 in Isah and Musa (2023) revealed poor intelligence gathering or information sharing between the security agencies and the government as a challenge to curbing banditry in Nigeria. They conceived poor intelligence gathering strategy or sharing information between the security agencies and the government as lack of coordination, particularly among security agents in any situation requiring intelligence information in the course of addressing insecurity (Schulsky& Schmitt, 2002 in Isah and Musa, 2023)

Many studies submit that unhealthy rivalry among security agents is one of the obstacles to curbing of banditry in Nigeria. For example, the rift between vigilante groups and police, often prevent some of these security agents from performing their functions effectively. In addition, lack of cooperation to respect decision among high ranking security agents contributes to the challenge to curbing banditry (Olaniyi 2005). This rivalry among security agents is transparent particularly among the Nigeria Police Force, vigilante security guards and (NSCDC) Security operatives, rather than exploring avenues of collaboration in security

provision, capacity building and intelligence sharing as is the case with developed nations of the world (Omoigui, 2006 in Isah and Musa, 2023). Moreover, the challenges identified by Alemika and Chukwuma (2003) include poor funding by the government, police harassing local security agents also known as vigilante groups from executing their jurisdictional functions, inadequate arms and operational equipment like flashlights, rain boots, clothes, whistle and uniform.

Border Porosity has been identified as another challenge to curbing banditry in the area under study. Nigeria's border porosity aids illegal migrants infiltration into the country which has led to insurgency and banditry free entrance to Nigeria for criminal activities (El Kaim 2012, De Montclos 2014, Campbell, 2014 and Ahokegh 2013 cited in Isah and Musa, 2023).

Furthermore, political interference was identified as another challenge to curbing the banditry in Nigeria. The politicians have been accused of politicising banditry in Nigeria. Corroborating with the submission of Isah and Musa, (2023) that political interference among the politicians and government contribute to the challenge of curbing banditry in Nigeria. In the same vein, General Sani Abacha submitted that if insurgency lasts in any country more than two weeks, then the government must have hands in it (The Will, May 2015 in Isah and Musa, 2023). Similarly, the former president Goodluck Jonathan said that some of the insurgents are in his government, armed forces, the police and other security agencies (BBCNews, 8 January, 2021 cited in Isah and Musa, 2023). It should be noted that political interference in Nigeria is a significant contribution to the challenge of banditry. Moreover, the findings of Musa and Sarkinnoma (2021) revealed that shortage of sophisticated weapons was responsible for the challenge confronted by the security agencies to curb banditry in Kaduna South.

5. Conclusion

The study discovered that banditry has affected socio-economic development in Kaduna South, Nigeria. The implications include declined agricultural activities, businesses and investments, interrupted education,

and health services as well as vandalized infrastructure. However, the federal government's efforts to end banditry failed because of the selfish interest of politicians who make use of banditry to either campaign against the government. On the other hand, they use it to terrorize communities so that they can use the opportunity of banditry attack to campaign for their political gains during election by assuring Nigerian citizens that if they are elected banditry will be addressed. In order to curb the challenge of banditry the following recommendations are made.

6. Recommendations

- i. Strengthening Nigeria security agents: Nigeria law enforcement agents need to be strengthened for better performance against banditry attacks: Federal government need to strengthen security agents in Nigeria by recruiting more military and police force to be equipped with advanced technological weapons to fight banditry. In addition, security agents should improve their strategies towards intelligence gathering when it comes to investigating or prosecuting banditry crimes
- ii. Establishing community policing: To tackle banditry Nigeria's federal government should establish community policing. The establishment of community policing can help to build trust and better coordinating to work friendly with members of the community towards addressing threats of banditry toward society's security. Community policing can help to gather useful information and the strategy that can deter banditry criminal activities in society and as a way to widen gap security agents and the marginalized community members.
- iii. Government should address the reasons for banditry: Federal government of Nigeria should make efforts to identify and address the reasons for banditry such as poverty, unemployment, illiteracy and socio-economic inequality in society. This can go a long way towards addressing banditry.
- iv. Also, corruption which has eaten deep into the fabric of Nigerian society needs to be addressed by government and policymakers to bring about an improved governance that can help to tackle banditry
- v. Border porosity control should be a priority to the Federal

government: The control of Nigerian border should be improved when subjected to careful monitoring of the security agents. This can be done with the cooperation of security agents in charge of controlling of Nigeria's borders with neighboring countries. With careful border monitoring by the security agents, banditry and the use of weapons can be prevented.

- vi. Conflict resolution: Government and the policymakers can tackle banditry if amnesty can be involved to persuade bandits to put down their weapons for peace to be restored in society. By this banditry attacks can lessen and there will be security and safety which can promote socio-economic development in society.

REFERENCES

- Abdullahi, A. (2019). Rural banditry, regional security, and integration in West Africa. *Journal of Social and Political Sciences*, 2(3), 644-654.
- Abdulssalam, A. A. and Olayiwola R.A. (2022). Impact of Banditry on Rural Development in Kaduna State (2016-2021). Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna, Nigeria. *KIU Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(2) pp.71-80.
- Adegoke, S. G. (2020). Insecurity, Armed banditry and Corruption in Nigeria: The bane of socio-economic underdevelopment. *International Journal of Advanced Academic Studies (IJASS)* 2(1) pp.17-26.
- Adekoya, F. (2022). Nigeria economy gasps for breath as bandits, thieves, Saboteously Siege. *The Guardian* Agbalajobi, D. (2019). Explainer: Factors that foster conflict in Nigeria's Kaduna State. Available at <https://guardian.ng/features/nigerian-economy-gasps-for-breath-as-bandits-thieves-saboteurs-lay-siege/>.
- Ahmad, S.A. and Jamilu, I.M. (2022). Armed Banditry as a Security Challenge in Northwestern Nigeria. *African Journal of Sociological and Psychological Studies (AJOSAPS)* 2(1) pp 45-62
- Akinyetun, T.S. (2021). Banditry in Nigeria: Insights from Situational Action and Situational Crime Prevention Theories. Retrieved from <https://www.accord.org.za/conflict-trends/banditry-in-nigeria-insights-from-situational-action-and-situational-crime-prevention-theories/>

- Alemika, E. E., & Chukwuma, I. C. (2000). *Police-Community Violence in Nigeria*. Centre for Law Enforcement Education. Retrieved from [https://www.google.com/search?q=Alemika+and+Chukwuma+\(2003\)+challenges+of+security+agents+to+curb+banditry&oq=Alemika+and+Chukwuma+\(2003\)+challenges+of+security+agents+to+curb+banditry&gs_lcrp=EgZjaHJvbWUyBggAEEUYOdIBCjQwMTA0ajBqMTWoAgiwAgE&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8](https://www.google.com/search?q=Alemika+and+Chukwuma+(2003)+challenges+of+security+agents+to+curb+banditry&oq=Alemika+and+Chukwuma+(2003)+challenges+of+security+agents+to+curb+banditry&gs_lcrp=EgZjaHJvbWUyBggAEEUYOdIBCjQwMTA0ajBqMTWoAgiwAgE&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8)
- Bandy, X. L. (2019). *Violence: An Interdisciplinary Approach to Causes, Consequences and Cures*. Retrieved from <https://www.wiley.com/en-us/Violence%3A+An+Interdisciplinary+Approach+to+Causes%2C+Consequences%2C+and+Cures-p-9781119240686>
- Bashar, H; Abdullahi, A.F; Nazeef, I. U.; Zaharadeen, M.Y. and Tirmizhi, M. (2023). Bandit and Insurgent Attacks on Health and Education Infrastructure Hinder Access to Primary Healthcare and Education in Nigeria. *International Journal of Social Science Research and Review* 6(6) pp.160-166
- Bashir, U.F. and Mustapha, M.A. (2022). The Impact of Armed Banditry and Kidnapping on Socioeconomic Activities: Case Study of Selected Local Government Areas in Katsina State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Reviews* 12(1) pp.308-322.
- Egwu, S. (2015) The Political Economy of Rural Banditry in Contemporary Nigeria, In Kuna M. J. and Ibrahim, J. (eds) *Rural Banditry and Conflict in Northern Nigeria*. A Publication of Center for Democracy and Development. Retrieved from [https://www.google.com/search?q=Egwu%2C+S.+\(2015\)+The+Political+Economy+of+Rural+Banditry+in+Contemporary+Nigeria%2C+In+Kuna+M.+J.+and+Ibrahim%2C+J.+\(eds\)+Rural+Banditry+and+Conflict+in+Northern+Nigeria.+A+Publication+of+Center+for+Democracy+and+Development.&oq=Egwu%2C+S.+\(2015\)+The+Political+Economy+of+Rural+Banditry+in+Contemporary+Nigeria%2C+In+Kuna+M.+J.+and+Ibrahim%2C+J.+\(eds\)+Rural+Banditry+and+Conflict+in+Northern+Nigeria.+A+Publica](https://www.google.com/search?q=Egwu%2C+S.+(2015)+The+Political+Economy+of+Rural+Banditry+in+Contemporary+Nigeria%2C+In+Kuna+M.+J.+and+Ibrahim%2C+J.+(eds)+Rural+Banditry+and+Conflict+in+Northern+Nigeria.+A+Publication+of+Center+for+Democracy+and+Development.&oq=Egwu%2C+S.+(2015)+The+Political+Economy+of+Rural+Banditry+in+Contemporary+Nigeria%2C+In+Kuna+M.+J.+and+Ibrahim%2C+J.+(eds)+Rural+Banditry+and+Conflict+in+Northern+Nigeria.+A+Publica)

tion+of+Center+for+Democracy+and+Development.&gs_lcrp=EgZjaHJvbWUqBggAEEUYOzIGCAAQRRg70gEINDY1MmowajmoAgIwAgE&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8

- Egwu, S. (2016). The political economy of rural banditry in contemporary Nigeria. In Kuna, M.J and Ibrahim, J (eds.). Rural banditry and conflicts in northern Nigeria, Abuja: Centre for Democracy and Development. Retrieved from [https://www.google.com/search?q=Egwu%2C+S.\(2016\).+The+political+economy+of+rural+banditry+in+contemporary+Nigeria.+In+Kuna%2C+M.+J.+and+Ibrahim%2C+J+\(eds.\).+Rural+banditry+and+conflicts+in+northern+Nigeria%2C+Abuja%3A+Centre+for+Democracy+and+Development.&oeq=Egwu%2C+S.\(2016\).+The+political+economy+of+rural+banditry+in+contemporary+Nigeria.+In+Kuna%2C+M.+J.+and+Ibrahim%2C+J+\(eds.\).+Rural+banditry+and+conflicts+in+northern+Nigeria%2C+Abuja%3A+Centre+for+Democracy+and+Development.&gs_lcrp=EgZjaHJvbWUqBggAEEUYOzIGCAAQRRg70gEINDY1MmowajmoAgIwAgE&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8](https://www.google.com/search?q=Egwu%2C+S.(2016).+The+political+economy+of+rural+banditry+in+contemporary+Nigeria.+In+Kuna%2C+M.+J.+and+Ibrahim%2C+J+(eds.).+Rural+banditry+and+conflicts+in+northern+Nigeria%2C+Abuja%3A+Centre+for+Democracy+and+Development.&oeq=Egwu%2C+S.(2016).+The+political+economy+of+rural+banditry+in+contemporary+Nigeria.+In+Kuna%2C+M.+J.+and+Ibrahim%2C+J+(eds.).+Rural+banditry+and+conflicts+in+northern+Nigeria%2C+Abuja%3A+Centre+for+Democracy+and+Development.&gs_lcrp=EgZjaHJvbWUqBggAEEUYOzIGCAAQRRg70gEINDY1MmowajmoAgIwAgE&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8)
- Ekpo , B. D. ., & Izge, N. H. . (2023). A Re-Assessment of Security and Banditry in Kaduna State . *Kashere Journal of Politics and International Relations*, 1(2). Retrieved from <https://journals.fukashere.edu.ng/index.php/kjpir/article/view/160>
- Fidelis, O. N; Obasanmi, J. & J.A. Ighata (2014). Infrastructural Development and Economic Growth in Nigeria: *Journal of Economics* 5(3):pp.325-332
- Global Terrorism Index (GTI). (2022). "Sub-Sahara Africa emerges as global epicentre of terrorism as global deaths decline". Available at: <https://reliefweb.int/report/world/global-terrorism-index-2022>
- Ibrahim, H.W. (2021). D.e.t.a.i.l.e.d: Effects of banditry, kidnapping in Kaduna. *Vanguard*. Accessed: January 30, 2024. Available at <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2021/05/d-e-t-a-i-l-e-d-effects-of-banditry-kidnapping-in-kaduna/>
- Isah, B. and Musa, K. K. (2023). The Challenges Faced by Law Enforcement and Security Agencies in Curbing Insecurity and Banditry in Nigeria.. *Research Gate* 1(1) pp.117-126.
- Maiharaji, A. (2023). Northern farmers turn beggars as bandits sustain occupation of farms. The *PUNCH* 17 July 2023. Available at <https://punchng.com/northern-farmers-turn-beggars-as->

- bandits-sustain-occupation-of-farms/
 Maria, V. (2023). How does infrastructure support sustainable growth? Available at <https://blogs.worldbank.org/en/digital-development/how-does-infrastructure-support-sustainable-growth#:~:text=Infrastructure%20affects%20growth%20through%20several,production%20of%20goods%20and%20services>
- Mohammed and Abdullahi (2021). Armed banditry and Socio-Economic Development in Zamfara State: The Assessment. *EPRA International Journal of Research and Development (IJRD)* 6(12) pp.1-10
- Mohammed, U.K. (2002). Effects of Banditry on Socio-Economic Development of Niger State. *Lapai International journal of Administration* 5(1) pp.48-67
- Momale, S. B. (2015) Changing methods of Animal Husbandry, Cattle rustling and rural banditry in Nigeria In Kuna M. J. and Ibrahim, J. (eds) *Rural Banditry and Conflict in Northern Nigeria*. A Publication of Center for Democracy and Development.
- Musa, E.U. and Sarkinnoma. Y.S. (2023). Combating Armed Banditry in Southern Kaduna, Nigeria.: An Evaluation of the effectiveness of Security Agencies. *Fuoye Journal of Criminology and Security Studies* Available at. <https://fjcss.fuoye.edu.ng/index.php/fjcss/article/view/20#:~:text=Findings%20suggested%20that%20banditry%20is,Kaduna%20region%20of%20Kaduna%20State>.
- Nwakpa, T.V. (2021). Effects of Herders-crop Farmer's Conflict on the Attainment of Socio-Economic Development in Selected Rural Communities of South-East, Nigeria 2010 - 2020. A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) Degree in Public Administration. Retrieved from <https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&source=web&rct=j&opi=89978449&url=https://www.iosrjournals.org/iosr-jhss/papers/Vol.27-Issue6/Ser-8/D2706082431.pdf&ved=2ahUKEwiIt7KzhP6IAxW8X0EAHWdeAdgQFnoECBkQAQ&usg=AOvVaw2p8YpKZ-uwMdpSeBXKCPBT>

- Obaji, P. (2021). "Why Insurgent and Bandit Attacks are Intensifying in Nigeria" TRT World. Available at: <https://www.trtworld.com/magazine/why-insurgent-and-bandit-attacks-are-intensifying-in-nigeria-46539> [Accessed: May 2024].
- Odalonu, B.H.. (2023). Socioeconomic Effects of the Scourge of Banditry in Niger State, Nigeria. *Innovare Journal of Education* 11(4) pp. 51-61
- Ofoma, V. C. (2023). Effects of Banditry on Socio-economic Development of Northwest Geopolitical Zone of Nigeria. *International Journal of Public Administration Studies*, 3(1) pp. 1-7
- Ojo, J.S., Oyewole, S., and Aina, F. (2023). Forces of Terror Armed Banditry and Insecurity in North-west Nigeria. *Democracy and Security*, 19(4). Retrieved from 319 – 346. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17419166.2023.2164924>
- Okoli, A. C. & Okpaleke, F. N. (2014). Banditry and crisis of public safety in Nigeria: Issues in national security strategies. *European Scientific Journal*, 10(4), 350–62.
- Olanipekun, B., Olajojo and Awoniyi, C.F. (2022). Analysis of the Impact of Armed Banditry on Nigeria's Economic Growth and National Development: Counselling Implications. *Journal of Africa Social Studies* (JASS) 3(1) pp.150-160
- Olufemi J. (2015). Nigerian Spends ₦4.62 trillion on National Security in 5 Years, Yet widespread insecurity remains. *Premium Times*, 2015. Retrieved from <http://www.premiumtimesng.com>
- Olaniyi, R. (2005). Community Vigilantes in Metropolitan Kano 1985-2005. Retrieved from [https://www.google.com/search?q=Olaniyi%2C+R.+\(2005\).+Community+Vigilantes+in+Metropolitan+Kano+1985-2005&oq=Olaniyi%2C+R.+\(2005\).+Community+Vigilantes+in+Metropolitan+Kano+1985-2005&gs_lcrp=EgZjaHJvbWUyBggAEEUYOdIBCDE4MThqMGo3qAIIsAIB&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8](https://www.google.com/search?q=Olaniyi%2C+R.+(2005).+Community+Vigilantes+in+Metropolitan+Kano+1985-2005&oq=Olaniyi%2C+R.+(2005).+Community+Vigilantes+in+Metropolitan+Kano+1985-2005&gs_lcrp=EgZjaHJvbWUyBggAEEUYOdIBCDE4MThqMGo3qAIIsAIB&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8)
- Osasona, T. (2023). The question of definition: Armed banditry in Nigeria's North-West in the context of international humanitarian law. *International Review of the Red Cross* pp.735-749.
- Rosenje, M. and Adeniyi, O. (2021). "The impact of banditry on Nigeria's security in the fourth republic: an evaluation of Nigeria's Northwest". Available at: <https://zjpd.com.ng> [Accessed: 3rd July 2022].

- Shalangwa, M. W. (2013). The nature and consequences of armed banditry in border communities of Adamawa State, Nigeria. M.Sc. thesis submitted to the School of Post-Graduate Studies, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria In Partial Fulfillment Of The Requirements For The Award Of A Master Degree In Sociology. Department Of Sociology Faculty Of Social Sciences Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. Available at <https://kubanni.abu.edu.ng/items/d11c5125-03b6-44bf-bb03-07bd437b16fb>
- Solomon, O. (2023). Banditry: Absence of telecommunication coverage fuels killing in Southern Kaduna (1). Available at <https://punchng.com/banditry-absence-of-telecoms-coverage-fuels-killings-in-southern-kaduna-1/>
- Suleiman, M.D. (2011). *Southern Kaduna: Democracy and the struggle for identity and Independence by Non-Muslim Communities in Northern Nigeria 1999-2011*. Paper Presented at the 34th AFSAAP Conference Flinders University. 25th September 2011. Available at <https://afsaap.org.au/assets/Suleiman.pdf>
- Udu, L.E. & Edeh, J.N. (2019). Implications of Terrorism and Insurgency for Sustainable Socioeconomic Development in Nigeria: *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science* (IOSR-JHSS) 24(5) pp. 18-31.

THE ROLE OF TELECOMMUTING ON EMPLOYEE'S QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AMONG WORKERS IN LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA

By

Bankole Emmanuel Temitope

Department of Psychology & Behavioural Studies

Faculty of the Social Sciences

Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti, Nigeria.

Phone : +2348035245160,

E-mail: temitope.bankole@eksu.edu.ng

ABSTRACT

This research study was design to investigate the effect of telecommuting on the quality of Work-life of employees and their emotional intelligence. A random sample of 100 research participant comprising of 46 males and 54 females participated. A 24 items Work-Related Quality of Work Life Scale by Simon Easton & Darren Van Larr, 2012 was employed to measure Quality of Work Life, The Quick Emotional Intelligence Assessment by Paul Mohapel, 2012 was employed to measure Emotional Intelligence, it consist of 40 items and Telecommuting Assessment Questionnaire, a 37 item scale by Jane Anderson, 2007 was employed to measure employees telecommuting characteristics. Four hypotheses were formulated for testing; Independent T-test and Pearson Product Moment Correlation were used to analyze the hypotheses. Result of Hypothesis one shows $t(98) = .2589$, $P = .001$, hypothesis two showed $(r(100).781, .675, P<0.5)$, hypothesis three showed $t(98) = .894$, $P = .086$ while hypothesis four showed $t(98) = 3.114$, $P<.05$ and hypothesis five showed $(t(98) = 2.271 P<.05)$. In other words, there is a significant relationship between telecommuting, quality of work life and emotional intelligence, sex has a significant effect on quality of work life, while telecommuting has a significant effect on quality of work life and emotional intelligence. It was recommended that organizations should create more working environment accommodating of telecommuting to aid more flexibility among employees.

Keyword : Telecommuting, Emotional intelligence, Work life, employees, flexibility.

INTRODUCTION

One of the major factors impinging on quality of work life (QWL) and development in one's emotional intelligence is work-scheduling. The traditional eight hours per day work hours, has been found not to contribute to high performance on the part of some workers. Some workers either on health grounds or domestic demands cannot put in the required eight (8) hours or not at the scheduled period of the day the organization has fixed. Such workers would engage in more absenteeism sick leave, than normal, thus affecting the productivity of the organization negatively and the development of worker's emotional intelligence. Many companies have found out the initiating programs to help employees balance work with outside needs, pressure and interest can make them realize benefits in increased productivity and reduced turnover. (Business for Social Responsibility, 2005). Telecommuting and Tele-work were coined by Jack Nillesin in 1973 and it was popularized by the author Francis Kinsman in his 1987 book, 'The Telecommuter'. The former refers more specifically to work undertaken at a location that reduces commuting time – inside the home or at some other remote workplace – which is facilitated through a broadband connection and computer or phone lines and possibly, also including the use of a writing instrument paper and the postal system. The latter on the other hand refers to all types of technology – assisted work conducted outside of a centrally located work space, which includes works undertaken in the home. (Wikipedia, 2015). The United States government defines telecommuting as “the ability to do your work at a location other than your 'official duty station', on a routine, regular and recurring basis one or more days in a week. (Woog, 2013), under a telecommuting arrangement, the employee maintains close contacts with co-workers and supervisors via various forms of computer, internet, and communication technology for example, electronic mail, video conferencing and so on.

According to Wikipedia 2015, Quality of work life is a term that has been used to describe the broader job related experience an individual has. Quality of work life (QWL) refers to the favourableness or unfavourableness of a job environment for the people working in an organization. QWL is a way of thinking about people, work and

organizations. It's distinctive elements are:

- A concern about the impact of work on people as well as an organizational effectiveness.
- The idea of participation in organization problem – solving and decision making. (Nadler & Lawler, 1979).

QWL is viewed as that umbrella under which employees feel fully satisfied with the working environment and extend their whole hearted cooperation and support to the management to improve productivity and work environment. An individual's ability to recognize his/her own emotions and that of others is known as emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is the ability of individuals to recognize their own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different feelings and label them appropriately, and to use emotional intelligence to guide thinking and behavior. (Coleman & Andrew, 2008). The term "emotional intelligence" seems to first appear in a 1964 paper by Michael Beldoch and in the 1966 paper by B.L. Cuner entitled. Emotional intelligence and emancipation which appeared in the psych therapeutic journal: practice of child psychology and child psychiatry. The term gained prominence in the 1995 book by the title "Emotional Intelligence" written by the author, psychologist and science journalist: Daniel Goleman. Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as the away of skills and characteristics that drive leadership performance. Employees who telecommute can have their quality of work-life improved and also recognize and put their knowledge of their own emotional intelligence to good use.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1. Can telecommuting influence an employee's quality of work life and improve their emotional intelligence? That is, do employees who telecommute in comparison to those who don't have an improvement to their quality of work life?
2. How well or positively does their understanding of their emotional intelligence affect their quality of work life?

These are the problems this research will attempt to answer

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The aim of this study is to see whether there is any effect of telecommuting

on employees' quality of work life and emotional intelligence. In other words, does it necessarily mean those employees who do not telecommute will have an improved quality of work life than those who

HYPOTHESES

- There will be a significant effect of sex on equality of work life and emotional intelligence of employees.
- There will be a significant positive interaction effect of telecommuting on quality of work life and emotional intelligence of employees.
- There will be significant effect of marital status on quality of work life of employees.
- There will be a significant effect of telecommuting on quality of work life.
- There will be a significant effect of telecommuting on emotional intelligence of employees.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design for this study was the survey type, whereby questionnaires were administered among various respondents. These respondents were selected randomly. The research was carried out in Ikorodu, Lagos State and the questionnaires were distributed among different workers.

RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The research participants for this study were drawn from randomly different workers of various organizations. They consist of (46) males and (54) females, total of 100 workers.

INSTRUMENTS

The instruments used for this study are three sets of questionnaires which are already standardized. They include: The Quick Emotional Intelligence Assessment, Work-Related Quality of Life Scale and the Telecommuting Questionnaire Assessment.

THE QUICK EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ASSESSMENT (QEIA)

The Quick Emotional Intelligence Assessment is a 40-item inventory

developed by Paul Mohapel, to assess the awareness, the understanding and management of emotions. Which are important factors, for the success of an employee. There are four (4) components the inventory assessed. They are;

- (a) Emotional Awareness
- (b) Emotional Management
- (c) Social Emotional Awareness, and
- (d) Relationship Management.

SCORING METHOD

The items are scored directly by adding together the values of the numbers ticked. For examples, if in items 2,4,5,7,8, the numbers ticked are 3,3,4,2,4, the score for the 6 items is $3+3+4+2+4=16$.

PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES

Paul Mohapel provided the psychometric properties of the quick emotional intelligence assessment. Emotional awareness consists of 10 items, measuring how an individual can identify the emotions experienced at any given time. Emotional management consists of 10 items to measure an individual's ability to manage his/her emotions as they occur. Social emotional awareness consists of 10 items, measuring an individual's ability to recognize the emotions of others. Relationship management also consisting of 10 items measures the individual's ability to handle the emotions of himself/herself when in a relationship with others.

RELIABILITY

Mohapel reported a test re-retest reliability co-efficient of 0.97 in an interval of four weeks.

VALIDITY

A validity co-efficient of 0.89 was reported after a concurrent validity test was conducted.

WORK-RELATED QUALITY OF WORKLIFE (WRQoL)

Work-related Quality of life scale was developed by Simon A. Easton and Darren L. Van Laar. It is a 23-item psychometric scale used to gauge the

perceived quality of life of employees as measured through six psychosocial sub-factors. The WRQoL scale is an evidence based measure of quality of working life and provides key information required for assessing employee contentment. The WRQoL factor subscales allows researcher and organization to analyze the most important issues affecting the overall employment experience of employees.

SCORING METHOD

There is direct scoring and reverse scoring of the items. Respondents are required to answer the questions on a 5-point scale comprising of Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree and Strongly Agree. The data is coded such that SD = 1 and SA = 5 i.e. using a 5-point likert scale. The scores of the negatively phrased items are reversed. Questions 7,9,19. The data of this negatively phrased questions are coded such that SD = 5 and SA = 1.

PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES

Simon A. Easton and Darren L. Van Laar provided the psychometrics properties for the sub factors of WRQoL Scale. The six sub factors are

- *General Well-Being (GWB)*
How much you agree you feel generally content with life as a whole. Contains 6 items, with the reliability value of .82
- *Home-Work Interface (HWI)*
How far you agree that the organization understands and tries to help you with pressures outside of work. Contains 3 items, with the reliability value of .82
- *Job and Career Satisfaction (JCS)*
How far you agree that you are generally happy with your ability to do your work. Contains 6 items and has a subscale reliability of .86
- *Control at Work (CAW)*
How far you agree you feel you are involved in decisions that affect you at work. Contains 3 items which has a subscale reliability of .81
- *Working Conditions (WCS)*
The extent you agree that you are happy with conditions in which you work. This factor contains 3 items that had a subscale reliability of .75

- *Stress at Work (SAW)*
How far you feel you agree you experience stress at work. Contains 2 items, has a subscale reliability of .81

VALIDITY

Van Laar, Easton & Bradshaw (2012) reported a 4week interval test-retest reliability coefficient of

- $GWB = .772$, $HWI = .781$, $JCS = .887$, $CAW = .817$, $WCS = .833$, $SAW = .792$, $WRQoL = .874$

TELECOMMUTING ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The Telecommuting Assessment Questionnaire is designed by Joshua Anderson (2009) to assess employees characteristics required for telecommuting, which is to check the employees fulfillment of the working job environment conducive for better performance and flexibility.

SCORING METHOD

The items are scored directly using the Likert 5-point scale, by adding the values of the box ticked in the relevant items stated.

PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES

Anderson J. (2009) provided the psychometric properties. A reliability of 0.85 Cronbach Oupha reliability co-efficient was recorded for this study. The item total correlation was done to ascertain the validity of the instrument. The items all showed are highly reliable and valid.

RELIABILITY

Anderson J. (2009) reported a two-week interval test re-retest reliability co-efficient of 0.70.

VALIDITY

The concurrent validity co-efficient obtained by Anderson (2009) is 0.71

PROCEDURE

The instruments were administered personally to employees at their place of work and some at their residence after developing a good rapport with them.

It took about five weeks for both the administration and collection of the questionnaires and the scores of each participants were submitted and recorded on his/her copy of the questionnaires.

METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

After administration of the questionnaires, the data collected were subjected to statistical analysis. Hypothesis one and three were tested using Independent T-test to compare the means between the related variables i.e. sex, marital status and quality of work life. Hypothesis two was tested used Pearson correlation test, to see the correlation and relationship between the variables, i.e. telecommuting, quality of work life and emotional intelligence. Hypothesis four and five were tested using the Analysis of Variance, to test the difference between the means i.e. the mean scores of telecommuting, quality of work life and emotional intelligence.

RESULTS

This chapter examined the results of data used for this study. Analysis of variance, independent t-test and Pearson correlation were used to test the five generated hypothesis.

HYPOTHESIS ONE

Hypothesis one which states that sex will have a significant effect on quality of work life. The hypothesis was tested using independent t-test.

Table: independent t-test showing the effect of sex on quality of work life.

SEX	N	X	S.D	Df	t	Sig
MALE	47	10.91	2.685	98	.2589	.001
FEMALE	53	9.46	2.880			

The table above shows that sex has a significant effect on quality of work life. $t(98) = .2589, P = .001$

HYPOTHESIS TWO

Hypothesis two which stated that there will be a significant relationship between telecommuting, quality of work life and emotional intelligence

on employees' performance. The hypothesis was tested using Pearson correlation.

Table 2: showing the relationship between telecommuting, quality of work life and emotional intelligence on employee performance.

		telecommuting assessment	quality of work	emotional intelligence
telecommuting assessment	Pearson Correlation	1	.028	.042
quality of work	Pearson Correlation	.028	1	.034
emotional intelligence	Pearson Correlation	.042	.034	1

The result shows that, there is a relationship between telecommuting, quality of work life and emotional intelligence on employee's performance. ($r(100) = .781, .675, P < 0.5$)

HYPOTHESIS THREE

Hypothesis three which stated that there will be a significant effect of marital status on quality of work life of employees.

Table: Using independent t-test, showing the effect of marital status on quality of work life of employees.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	T	Sig
Single	64	381.7857	68.95280	18.42841	98	.894	.086
Married	36	393.5714	67.97365	18.16672			

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	T	Sig
Single	64	381.7857	68.95280	18.42841	98	.894	.086
Married	36	393.5714	67.97365	18.16672			

The results above shows that marital status does not have a significant influence on quality of work life ($t(98) = .894, P = .086$)

HYPOTHESIS FOUR

Hypothesis four which states that telecommuting has a significant effect on the quality of work life of employees.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	T	Sig
High	55	81.767	18.254	2.441	98	3.114	.024
Low	45	68.57	12.345	3.172			

The results show that telecommuting has a significant effect on the quality of work life of employees. The hypothesis is confirmed. ($t(98) = 3.114 P < .05$)

HYPOTHESIS 5

Hypothesis four which states that telecommuting has a significant effect on emotional intelligence.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	t	Sig
High	42	54.56	28.254	4.221	98	2.271	.031
Low	58	64.67	32.345	6.152			

The table above shows that telecommuting has a significant effect on emotional intelligence. ($t(98) = 2.271 P < .05$)

DISCUSSION

The primary objective of this study was to take up the issue of telecommuting and how it can contribute to the better quality of work life of employees, and how their emotional intelligence can help the employee understand his/her self and how in turn it can help provide increased productivity in the general life of the employee and to the organization. The results drawn from the analysis of the data were presented in previous chapters but will be carefully discussed in this chapter.

The first hypothesis states that that sex will have a significant effect on quality of work life and emotional intelligence of employees. The result of the test of this hypothesis supported only the sub factor of control at work that sex will influence. This means that sex will have a significant effect on the control at work among employees. According to Ross and Wright (2015) stated that females because of their positions as homemakers, they tend to have a lower sense of control than their male counterparts. However, in a study by Sarlaksha Ganesh (2008) revealed that masculinity-femininity was not found to be a significant predictor of quality of work life. The result of the t-test used in the research showed that female employees experienced better quality of work life than male employees. Moen, Kelly, & Huang (2008) asserted that control over work time is also particularly important for employees with high demands from both family and/or job, because this enables them to alter schedules in response to needs at home and/or work.

The second hypothesis was based on knowing that telecommuting has a way of influence the performance of employees, through which the hypothesis was accepted saying that there is a significant relationship between telecommuting, quality of work life and emotional intelligence. Scott Boyar, Ph.D., stated that telecommuting can be an excellent option for an employee looking to better balance the time spent working and their time spent with family, in turn stabilizing harnessing the emotional intelligence. In a study of hybrid telecommuters by (Bosua, et al (2012) showed that the relationship between well-being and telecommuting were positive; even just the ability to hybrid telecommute often made workers feel more productive, have better work-life balance, and gain a more positive attitude towards work. Bosua (2012) concluded from their

study that family and work life can be better balanced when working away from the office. Golden, Vega, & Simsek (2006) argued that telecommuting can be viewed as a means of reducing work-family conflicts, because it enables employees to better manage work demands in order to more readily accommodate family needs.

The third hypothesis stated that there will be a significant effect of marital status on the quality of work life of employees. The hypothesis was rejected based on the analysis used. It shows that marital status does not have a significant influence on the quality of work life of employees. However, a recent study on the quality of work life showed that personal factors like marital status correlates with quality of work life. An employee, who is not married, is expected to have a better quality of work life than an employee who is married and have kids.

Testing for hypothesis four revealed that telecommuting will have a significant effect on the quality of work life among employees. This implies that employees who telecommute have a better satisfaction on their jobs than employees who do not telecommute. Employees who telecommute have reported that telecommuting results in improved work quality, better quality of life and a higher job satisfaction (Mayer, 2013).

CONCLUSION

According to the result of this study, we can conclude that:

- Marital status does not have an influence on quality of life
- Sex has a significant influence on quality of work life
- There is a relationship between telecommuting, quality of life and emotional intelligence
- Telecommuting has an influence on quality of work life of employees.

REFERENCES

Akkirman. A. , Harris, D.L. (2005). Organizational communication satisfaction in the virtual workplace. *Journal of Management Development*, 24, 397-409.

- Boyatzis. R., Goleman. D., Rhee. K. (2000). Clustering Competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the emotional competence inventory (ECI). In R. Bar-on and J.D.A. Parker (eds.): handbook of emotional intelligence (pp. 343-362).
- Danna. K., Griffin. R.W. (1999). Health and well being in the workplace: A review and synthesis of the literature. *Journal of management*, 25, 357-384.
- DuBrin. A.J. (1991). Comparison of the job satisfaction and productivity of telecommuters versus in-house employees: A research note on work in progress. *Psychological reports*, 68-1223-1234.
- Fried. Y., Ferris. G.R. (1987). The validity of the job characteristics model: A review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 40(2), 287-322.
- Fritz. M.B.W., Narasimhan. S., Rhee, H.S. (1998). Communication and coordination in the virtual office. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 14(4), 7-28.
- Gajendran, R.S., and Harrison, D.A. (2007). The good, the bad and the unknown about telecommuting. Analysis of psychological mediators and individuals consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6), 1524-1541.
- Golden, T.D, and Fromen. A, (2011). Does it matter where your manager works? Comparing management work mode (traditional, telework, virtual) across subordinate work experience, and outcomes. *Human Relations*, 64(11), 1451-1475.
- Golden, T.D., Verga, J.F., and Simsek, Z. (2006). Telecommuting's differential impact on work-family conflict: Is there no place like home? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 1340-1350.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Hackman, J.R., and Lawler, E.E. (1971), Employee reactions to job characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 55(3), 259-286.
- Hackman, J., and Oldham, G., (1974). *The Job Diagnostic Survey*. New Haren: Yale University.
- Hackman, J.R, and Oldman G.R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 16(2), 250-279.
- Lawler, E.E. (1982). Strategies for improving the quality of work life. *American Psychologist*, 37, 2005, 486-493.

- Loscocco, K.A. and Roschelle, A.N.,(1991). Influences on the Quality work and Non-work life: Two Decades in Review. *Journal of vocational behaviour*, 39, 182-225.
- MacCamn, C; Joseph, D.L.; Newman D.A: Roberts, R.D. (2014). "Emotional Intelligence is a Second-Stratum factor of intelligence: Evidence from hierarchy and bi-factor models". *Emotion* 14:358-374.
- Mayer, D.J., and Salovey, P., (1977). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey and D. Sluyter (Eds.). *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implication for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York. Basic Books.
- Mayer, J.D, Salovey P, Caniso, D.L.; Sitarenids, G. (2001). Emotional Intelligence as a Standard Intelligence Emotional: 232-242.
- Marvis. P.H. and Lawler, E.E., (1984). Accounting for the quality of work life. *Journal off occupational behaviour*. 5, 197-212.
- Oldham. G.R. and Hackman, J.R. (2005). How old characteristics theory happened. In the *Oxford handbook of management theory: The process of theory development*, 151-170.
- Petrides, K.V.; Furnham, A. (2000). "On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. 'Personality and Individual differences', 29: 313-320.
- Petrides, K.V.; Furnham, A. (2001). "Trait emotional intelligence: psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies". *European Journal of Personality*. 15. 425-448.
- Petrides, K.V.; Pita, R., Kokkinaki, F. (2007). " The location of trait emotional intelligence in personality factors space". *British Journal of Psychology* 98: 273-289.
- Pickelt C.L. (2004). Getting a cue: The need to belong and enhanced sensitivity to social cues. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. 30(9), 1095.
- Rau, B.L., and Hyland, M.A.M. (2002). Role Conflict and flexible work arrangements: The effects on applicant attraction. *Personnel Psychology*, 55(1), 111-136.
- Salovey, P; Grewal, D. (2005). "The Science of Emotional Intelligence" *Current directions in psychological science* 14:16.
- Salovey, Peter; Mayer, John; Caniso, David (2004), "Emotional Intelligence". *Theory, Findings and implications; Psychological Inquiry*. pp. 197-215.

- Sardeshmukh, S.R., Sharma D., and Golden T. (2012). Impact of telework on exhaustion and job engagement. A job demands and resources model. *New Technology, Work and Employment*; 27(3), 193-207.
- Shamiri, B., and Salomon, I. (1985). Work-at-home and the quality of working life. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(3), 455-464.
- Sonnentag, S. and Frese, M. (2003). Stress in organizations In I.B. Weiner (Series Ed.) and W.C. Borman, D.R. Ilgen, and R.J. Klimoski (vol. Eds.) *Handbook of psychology* (pp. 453-491). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons.
- Taylor J.C. in Cooper, C.L. and Mumford E. (1979). The quality of working life in western and Eastern Europe. ABP.

A Causality Analysis of Macroeconomic Variables and Industrial growth in Sub-Saharan Africa

Adeyemi Paul Adeniyi¹ and Ajayi Joseph Gbenga²

Department of Economics,
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria.

Paul.sdeyemi@eksu.edu.ng

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0747-8747>

Awe Deborah Folahan

Department of Economics,
Bamidele Olumilua University of Education,
Science and technology, Ikere Ekiti.

Awe.folahan@bouesti.edu.ng

ABSTRACT

The industrial growth in SSA has been far lagged behind among other regions of the world, basically as a result of poor performance of macroeconomic variables in the region. This indicates a strong relationship between macroeconomic indicators and industrial output. Therefore, the study empirically set out to examine the causal relationship between selected macroeconomic variables and industrial growth in Sub-Saharan Africa. The data for this study covered the period between 1986 and 2023 and it was sourced from the World Bank Development Indicator. The study employed both descriptive and inferential statistics. The research made use of descriptive analysis of mean, maximum, minimum standard deviation, skewness and probability to describe the behaviour of the variables of interest in the study. The study also utilized Panel Pairwise granger Causality test to examine the causal relationship between the selected macroeconomic variables and industrial growth in SSA. The result of the study revealed that there is bi-directional relationship between GDP GR, MS, INF, and RINDR. The finding of the study also showed that there is a unidirectional relationship between UNMP, REXCH, RINT and RINDR. In line with the findings of this study, it was recommended that governments of SSA should endeavour to stabilize

exchange rate through appropriate policies in order to encourage investment in SSA and also to give a boost to industrial growth. More so, there is a need for governments of SSA to set on motion the machinery and strategies that can engender the development of industries in SSA so as to mitigate the high level of unemployment in the region.

Keywords: macroeconomic variables, Industrial growth, Panel Pairwise Granger Causality Test and Sub- Saharan Africa.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In most modern economics, the industrial sector serves as the vehicle for the production of goods and services, the generation of employment and the enhancement of incomes. Industrialization is regarded as a veritable channel of attaining the lofty and desirable national goals of improved quality of life for the citizenry. Governments, especially in developing countries, see industrialization as a way of transforming their economies (Ayodele and Falokun 2003). Industrial growth by all intents and purposes is seen as an antidote for economic growth and development. If transformation will take place and the trend of poverty is to be alleviated, rapid industrialization in the African sub-region is an agenda to be pursued. Evidence abound of a fairly strong relationship between economic development and industrial process. Economic growth and development needs structural transformation from low to high productive economic activities. Industrialization is a key factor in this development process. High, rapid and sustained economic growth and development is strongly related to industrialization (Rodrik, 2007).

Macroeconomic variables are the indicators that dictate the trend and the direction of any economy. The goal of macroeconomics is to achieve economic stability of a country. Positive macroeconomic variables stimulate economic growth and create financial stability within an economy. They involve an increased demand for products and services. Macroeconomic variables have a strong and significant relationship with industrial development. There are being considered as the acid test that reflects the health of an economy and the key to determine the behaviour of the manufacturing sector (Papetti *et.al*, 2020). This is an indication that

the problem of the industrial sector in SSA requires a more pragmatic approach that goes beyond policy formulation. It is evident from statistics that between 1981 and 2021, the manufacturing sector which is the most important sub-sector and fulcrum of the industrial sector has been experiencing a downward trend and a terrible setback in terms of growth and value added.

More importantly, the economic performance of SSA countries in terms of economic growth, unemployment, inflation, exchange rate among other macroeconomic indicators has been suggested by some authors as the likely cause of unimpressive performance of the industrial sector of the SSA (Omoteso and Mobolaji, 2014). The fact behind this position is that good macroeconomic outlook portends good reason for the industrial sector to grow. However, this assertion remains with the premise of opinions without meaningful and adequate empirical foundation. Moreover, for industrialisation to be truly inclusive and sustainable it has to play a role in ending poverty in all forms, it must make opportunity accessible to all and distribute its benefits throughout the society (UNIDO, 2017). However, one of the best means to achieve this goal is to optimally harmonize and use macroeconomic indicators positively in order to enhance economic development.

In economic literature, many studies have been carried out on the relationship between macroeconomic variables and industrial growth in country-specific but just only Oyerinde (2019) as a study among the studies reviewed in this work that looked into the nexus between industrial growth and macroeconomic performance in SSA but did not consider the causal relationship between these variables which is the lacuna, this study is attempting to fill.

The rest of the paper is organized in five sections. Section two is devoted to the review of related literature, while section three deals with research methods. Section four presents the results and discussions, while conclusion and recommendations are presented in the last section.

2.0 Empirical Literature

Gokmenoglu, Azim and Taspinar (2015) investigated the relationship

among the oil price, inflation, GDP, and Industrial production in Turkey for period between 1961 and 2012. The Study employed Johansen Cointegration analyses and Granger Causality test as econometric technique. The Johansen cointegration results confirms a long-run relationship among the variables under investigation while Granger Causality test revealed that there is unidirectional relationship from oil price to Industrial production.

Salman, Friendrich and Shukur (2009) used a time series Cointegration approach and Error correction model to examine the relationship between manufacturing firm failure and macroeconomic factor for the Swedish in manufacturing sector using data between 1966 and 2006. The findings of the study showed that in the long run, firms failure has negative impact on the level of industrial activities while GNP and economic openness exhibited positive relationship with real wage rate.

Mlambo and Oshikoya (2001) employed quadrennial panel data regression to investigate the relationship between macroeconomic factors and private investment in Africa using data of 1970 and 1996. The results show that fiscal, financial and monetary policy, macroeconomic uncertainty and trade variables had a significant impact on private investment. Besides, the study also finds that investors are strongly influenced by the underlying political framework and that political stability matters for investment.

Akinlo (2005) used Panel data to analyse the effects of macroeconomic factors on total factor productivity (TFP) in 34 sub-Saharan African countries for the period between 1980 and 2002. The econometric analysis shows that external debt is negatively and significantly related to TFP. Other factors that have significant negative effect include inflation rate, agricultural value added as a percentage of GDP, lending rate, and local price deviation from purchasing power parity. However, our result shows that human capital, export-GDP ratio, credit to private sector as percentage of GDP, foreign direct investment as percentage of GDP, manufacturing value-added as a share of GDP, and liquid liabilities as percentage of GDP have significant positive effect on TFP. More so, the result shows that policies that reduce population growth rate and debt

facilitate greater openness, sound macroeconomic fundamentals, price stability, financial deepening, and greater private participation; would lead to higher TFP in the sub-Saharan region.

Oyebowale and Algarhi (2020) used both Panel ARDL model and Granger Causality test to examine macroeconomic determinants of economic growth among twenty-one (21) African economies. The pooled long-run coefficients indicate that growth rates in exports, government expenditure and gross capital formation have statistically significant positive long-run relationship on economic growth at 1%, 5% and 1% levels respectively; while broad money is not statistically significant among the countries. However, diverse short-run coefficients and error variances differ across the African countries- Congo Republic and South Africa show the most favourable results. The homogenous causality evidence shows bidirectional causality between growth in gross capital formation and economic growth among the African countries; while growth in broad money, growth in exports and growth in government expenditure show no direction of causality with economic growth. Nonetheless, heterogeneous causality evidence differs across the countries- Lesotho, Algeria, Cameroon and Benin show the most favourable causality results from the macroeconomic variables to economic growth.

Oyerinde (2019) investigated the impacts of macroeconomic performance and corruption on the industrial growth of the SSA. Specifically, the study examined the effects of macroeconomic variables such as exchange rate, economic growth, inflation rate and unemployment rate as measures of economic performance in the SSA on the industrial sector growth. Also the quality of institutions' effects on the industrial sector is also investigated using control of corruption as proxy. The study employed Panel Auto-Regressive Distributed Lags (P-ARDL) as appropriate technique for the estimation and the results revealed that both macroeconomic performance and corruption have significant impacts on the industrial sector growth in SSA. Beleke (2020) also examined the effect of macroeconomic indicators on economic performance of selected sub-Sahara African Countries between 1990 and 2017. The study employed four variables: GDP growth rate, Inflation rate,

Monetary policy rate and Exchange rate and panel unit root test using two criteria to test for stationarity, panel cointegration test was also conducted to test for long run cointegration between the variables employed and Generalized Method of Moment method of estimation was employed to check the relationships between the variables. The results of the panel unit root test result from the LLC and IPS methods shows that the order of integrations mixed with some of the variables being stationary at levels (GDPgr and INFL) and first difference (MPR and EXHR) at the same time. The result of Pedroni cointegration test indicated the bivariate long-run cointegration equation between the variables employed. The GMM result revealed that all explanatory variables accounted for 23% variation of Economic performance in SSA.

Pagan and Modak (2014) employed multiple regressions to analyse the impact of macroeconomic variables on GDP growth in India. The study revealed that macroeconomic variables such as savings, investment, economic output, unemployment and employment, and inflation play a crucial role in the economic performance of India.

Adejumo and Ogunbunmi (2018) employed Panel Cointegration and Generalized Method of Moment of Estimation to examine the effect of macroeconomic indicators on economic performance of selected sub-Saharan African Countries between 1990 and 2017. The study made use of four variables: GDP growth rate, inflation rate, monetary policy rate and Exchange rate as macroeconomic indicators. The results of the panel unit root test result from the LLC and IPS methods shows that the order of integrations mixed with some of the variables being stationary at levels (GDPgr and INFL) and first difference (MPR and EXHR) at the same time. The result of the Pedroni cointegration test indicated the bivariate long-run cointegration equation between the variables employed. The GMM result revealed that all explanatory variables accounted for 23% variation of economic performance in SSA.

Agbonrofo and Olusegun(2023) also employed panel data to investigate the effect of monetary policy on the manufacturing sector value added in 24 sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries using annual data from 1995 to 2020. Findings from the study showed that the monetary variables are

time sensitive and heterogeneous in their effects depending on the long or short-run. The study also revealed that interest rate and the exchange rate had statistically significant negative impacts on manufacturing value added in the long-run, only credit to the private sector had no real impact on manufacturing value added in the short and long-run.

Ifionu and Akinpelumi (2015) examined the effect and implication of selected Macroeconomic variables on Money supply (M2) using the application of econometric techniques such as O.L.S., causality test and Cointegration of time series data to estimate the long and short run relationship and causality of the employed variables. The results showed that all variables were stationary at various lags and there exists a long run relationships between variables employed and it was discovered that apart from inflation having an inverse significance with Money supply (M2) and Exchange Rate (EXR), all other variables such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP) were found to have a positive impact on Money Supply.

Okonkwo and Egbulonu (2016) used Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) technique to investigate the effect of interest rate fluctuation on industrial growth in Nigeria. The findings of the study revealed that inverse relationship exist between interest rate and industrial growth in Nigeria, meaning that increase in interest rate will decrease industrial growth and vice versa in Nigeria

David-Wayas et al (2018) employed Ordinary Least Square method to evaluate the impact of some selected variables on manufacturing productivity in between 1981 and 2015. The Study showed that there is existence of a long run relationship between the macroeconomic variables and industrial output in Nigeria. The findings from the study also revealed that there is a negative relationship between exchange rate, government expenditure and manufacturing sector while there is positive relationship between prime lending rate, domestic private investment, foreign direct Investment and manufacturing Sector of Nigerian economy.

Adelowokan, Oduola, and Popoola (2020) used Nonlinear ARDL model to investigate the responsiveness of manufacturing Sector performance to major macroeconomic determinants in Nigeria using data Spanning from 1981 to 2018. The results revealed that the variables like exchange rate,

inflation rate, interest rate except GDP per capita played important roles in influencing manufacturing sector performance in Nigeria. The findings from the study confirm the presence of asymmetric shock on manufacturing performance in Nigeria

Ogbonna (2021) examined the impact of fluctuations of macroeconomic variables such as exchange rate, lending rates and inflation rates on the manufacturing output in Nigeria. The study used descriptive analysis to investigate the relationship between manufacturing output and macroeconomic stability in Nigeria. The findings showed that macroeconomic instability impacted negatively on the manufacturing output.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Model Specification

Panel Pairwise Granger Causality test was used to investigate the causal relationship between selected macroeconomic variables and industrial growth in sub Saharan African countries. The model specification mirrors the work of Oyerinde (2019) with little modification which took its root from the Romer Endogenous growth model. The study attempts to model the granger causal relationship between macroeconomic variables and industrial growth in the selected sub Saharan African countries in relation to each of these variables in pairs and then present the granger causality of each pairs following the works of Nayaran and Smyth (2004) and Detotto and Pulina (2012). Let X represent measures of macroeconomic variables, Y represent measure of industrial growth, and then the causality models in pairs are specified as follows:

$$X_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i X_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j Y_{t-j} + U_{1t} \quad \text{--- 3.1}$$

$$Y_t = \sum_{s=1}^n \mu_s Y_{t-s} + \sum_{m=1}^n \gamma_m X_{t-m} + U_{2t} \quad \text{--- 3.2}$$

X = Macroeconomic Variables ($GDPgr$, Ms , $EXCH$, INF , INT , $UMPr$)

Y = Real Industrial growth rate

Where $Y = RINDR$ = Real Industrial growth rate

$RGDPgr$ = Real GDP growth rate.

MS_2 = Broad Money Supply

$EXCR$ = Exchange Rate

INF = Inflation

INT = Interest Rate

$UMPr$ = Unemployment Rate

u_t = Error Term

3.2 Sources of Data

The data used for this study were secondary in nature and they were sourced from the World Bank Development Indicator. The study made use of time series data spans from 1986 to 2023.

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents and discusses the results of the empirical estimations carried out in the study. The presentation commenced with the descriptive statistics. Thereafter, correlation matrix, Panel unit root test and panel pairwise granger causality test.

4.1: Descriptive Analysis

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics

Variables	UNMP	RINT	RINDR	REXCH	MS	INF	GDPGR
Mean	11.87	2.25	46.41	102.69	33.82	8.13	3.34
Median	7.35	4.31	28.59	100.0	26.65	6.53	3.55
Maximum	33.47	38.98	2020.0	165.99	80.80	98.22	16.31
Minimum	1.41	-93.51	10.96	64.63	11.05	-60.50	-23.98
Std. Dev.	10.16	15.88	165.04	20.71	18.45	1236	4.87
Skewness	0.64	-3.73	11.83	0.63	0.96	1.87	-0.96
Kurtosis	1.893	21.16	141.99	3.189	2.899	27.62	9.625
Jarque-Bera	17.30	2343.95	120930.1	9.75	22.44	3773.39	289.29
Probability	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
Observations	864	864	864	864	864	864	864

Source: Author's Computation (2025)

Table 4.1, showed the descriptive statistics of variables employed in the study for the regression analysis. This is done to know the behaviour of the

variables in relation to mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, variance and skewness. The results from the table 4.1 revealed the highest mean values of (102.69) for REXCH while RINT has the lowest mean values of (-93.51). This is an indication that REXCH has the highest level of data distribution while RINT has the lowest level. The Standard deviation in the study exhibited that INF (1236), RINDR (165.04), REXCH (20.71), MS (18.45) and RINT (15.88) have the higher standard deviation values. This indicates that these variables showed high variability while other variables such as UNMP (10.16) and GDPGR (4.87) have very low standard deviation with low variability. The results from table 4.1 equally showed that RINDR, INF, MS, UNMP and REXCH are positively skewed while RINT and GDPGR are negatively skewed. The estimated Kurtosis statistics of RINT, RINDR, INF, GDPGR and REXCH are greater than 3 which indicates that the distribution of these variables are thicker and therefore implies the presence of heterogeneity issues in the data. However, the Kurtosis statistics of MS and UNMP are less than three which implies that the tails of the distribution for these variables are thinner than the normal distribution. This showed that the data series are not normally distributed. The Jarque- bera values for all the variables pass the significance test at one percent. This indicates that all the series are not normally distributed.

4.1.2 Correlation matrix.

The correlation matrix results are to show the level of interplay among the variables of interest. Basically, this is to avoid multicollinearity in the variables of interest. This aspect presents the results of the association existing among the variables included in the analysis. The result is presented in table 4.1.2 below

Table 4.1.2 Correlation matrix

Variables	UNMP	RINT	RINDR	REXCH	MS	INF	GDPGR
UNMP	1.0000						
RINT	0.150	1.000					
RINDR	0.022	-0.040	1.000				
REXCH	-0.168	-0.154	0.037	1.000			
MS	0.549	0.047	-0.060	-0.329	1.000		
INF	-0.044	0.048	0.032	0.004	-0.120	1.000	
GDPGR	-0.024	-0.177	0.023	-0.212	-0.092	0.029	1.000

Source: Author's Computation (2025)

The study also examined the correlation coefficients among the selected variables to detect potential of multicollinearity problems. However, from the result of the correlation analysis presented in Table 4.1.2, there is no presence of multicollinearity as none of the variables exhibited perfect correlation coefficients. The highest correlation coefficient among the series is 0.549 between money supply and Industrial growth. Since this is within an acceptable range, it is an indication of the absence of a serial correlation problem in the specified model. This is following Kim (2019)'s threshold of possibility of multicollinearity problem when the correlation coefficient exceeds 0.8

Also, these results showed that there a positive association between UNMP and RINT, RINDR and MS with correlation coefficient of 0.150, 0.022 and 0.549 respectively while there is negative association between UNMP and REXCH, INF and GDPGR with correlation coefficient of -0.168, -0.044 and -0.024 respectively. As presented in Table 4.1.2, there is positive association between RINT and variables like MS and INF with the correlation coefficient of 0.047 and 0.048 respectively while the results also exhibited negative relationship between variables like RINDR, REXCH, GDPGR and RINT with correlation coefficient of -0.040, -0.154 and -0.177 respectively. The result also revealed that there is positive association between REXCH, INF, GDPGR and RINDR with correlation coefficient of 0.037, 0.032 and 0.023 respectively while there is negative association between RINDR and MS with correlation coefficient of -0.60. As reported on table 4.1.2, REXCH has positive association with INF with correlation coefficient of 0.004 while maintaining negative association with MS and GDPGR with correlation coefficient of -0.329 and -0.212 respectively. MS also exhibited negative association with INF and positive relationship between INF and GDPGR with correlation coefficient of -0.120 and 0.029 respectively. The overview of the reported correlation coefficient in the table 4.1.2 revealed that there is no likelihood of the presence of multi-collinearity amidst the exploratory variables as shown by the magnitude of the inter relationship between the variables involved.

4.2: Trend Analysis.

Variables	Levin, Lin & Chilt Unit Root				Im, Pesaran and Shin Unit Root Test				
	At Level		At First Difference		At Level		At First Difference		Order of Integration
	t-statistics	P-value	t-statistics	P-value	t-statistics	P-value	t-statistics	P-value	
GDPgr	-2.843	0.0622	-8.7693	0000	-4.5975	0.057	-12.1411	0.000	I(1)
MS	-2.9531	0.0816	-8.6754	0000	-3.6554	0.0601	-10.1697	0.000	I(1)
RINT	-5.4369	0.0277	-----	-----	6.1065	0.0360	-----	-----	I(0)
RINDR	-11.7918	0.000	-----	-----	8.2590	0.000	-----	-----	I(0)
REXCH	2.0175	0.0218	-----	-----	2.2442	0.0124	-----	-----	I(0)
INF	9.7692	0.000	-----	-----	11.1411	0.000	-----	-----	I(0)
UNMP	-71.608	0.00	-----	-----	52.535	0.000	-----	-----	I(0)

Source: Author's Computation (2025)

Table 4.2 presents results of Levin- Lin- Chu (LLC) and Im-Pesaran-Shin (IPS) panel unit root tests conducted in this study. As reported in table 4.2, variables such as RINT, RINDR, REXCH, INF and UNMP are stationary at levels, that is, they are integrated of order zero suggesting that these variables do not retain innovative shock pass on them while variables like MS and GDPGR are made to be stationary at first difference, that is, they are integrated order one, i.e, I(1) which connote that these variables retain innovative shock pass on them only for a short period of time. The panel unit root test results therefore showed that the variables used in this study are integrated of different orders of zero (0) and one (1).

4.3 Pairwise Granger Causality Test

Table 4.3 Pairwise Granger Causality Test

S/N	Null Hypothesis	Observations	F-Statistics	Probability	Remarks
1	GDPGR does not granger RINDR		6.01291	0.0030	Reject
	RINDR does not GDPGR		4.32662	0.0218	Reject
2	UNMP does not granger RINDR		0.12250	0.8848	Accept
	RINDR does not granger UNMP		2.91618	0.0167	Reject
3	RINT does not granger RINDR		8.67736	0.0300	Reject
	RINDR does not granger RINT		0.02558	0.9747	Accept
4	MS does not granger RINDR		9.10165	0.0034	Reject
	RINDR does not granger MS		5.53616	0.0129	Reject
5	INF does not granger RINDR		5.57068	0.0263	Reject
	RINDR does not granger INF		7.12612	0.0398	Reject
6	REXCH does not granger RINDR		1.64916	0.1988	Accept
	RINDR does not granger REXCH		7.54021	0.0239	Reject

Source: Author's Computation (2025)

The table 4.3 presented the result of causality test conducted in this study. The result reported that there is bi-directional relationship between GDPGR, MS, INF and RINDR. This implies that GDPGR, MS and INF granger cause RINDR while RINDR also gives a feedback to the GDPGR, MS and INF. Moreover, the result also revealed that there is uni-directional relationship between UNMP, REXCH, RINT and RINDR. This implies that UNMP, REXCH, RINT granger cause RINDR while RINDR did not give a feedback to the UNMP, REXCH, RINT.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

The study examined the relationship between macroeconomic variables and industrial output in SSA. The results of panel unit root test revealed that the variables like RINT, RINDR, REXCH, and UNMP are stationary at levels while MS and GDPGR are made to be stationary at first difference. The panel unit root test results showed that the variables involved in the study are integrated of order zero and one. The results of Panel Pairwise Granger Causality revealed that there is bidirectional relationship between GDPGR, MS, INF, and RINDR. The results also showed that there is uni-directional relationship between UNMP, REXCH, RINT and RINDR. In

line with the findings of this study, it was recommended that governments of SSA should endeavour to stabilize exchange rate through appropriate policies in order to encourage investment in SSA and to give a boost to industrial growth. More so, there is a need for governments of SSA to set on motion the machinery and strategies that can engender the development of industries in SSA so as to mitigate the high level of unemployment in the region.

References

- Adejumo, M. O. & Ogunbunmi, S.T. (2018). Macroeconomic indicators and economic performance in selected Sub Saharan African Countries: Panel Generalized Method of Moment Approach: *International Journal of Contemporary Research and Review*, 9(12), 21179-21189.
- Adelowokan O., Oduola M.O. & Popoola R. (2020). Macroeconomic determinant of manufacturing sector performance in Nigeria. An asymmetric non-linear approach, *International Journal of Social Sciences*, 10(3), 1-12.
- Adisu A (2019). The effect of macroeconomic variables on Industrial sector output growths of Ethiopia, 8(6), 325-738-
- Agbonrofo H.E. & Olusegun, A.(2023). Manufacturing sector development in Sub Saharan Africa: Does monetary policy matter? *International Journal of Management, Economics and Social Sciences*, 12(2), 133 – 161.
- Akinlo A.E.(2005). Impact of macroeconomic factors on total factor productivity in Sub-Saharan African countries: *World Institute for Development Economics Research, WIDER Research Paper, No.* 2005/39.
- Beleke, D. T.(2020). The impact of macroeconomic factors on manufacturing sector value added in Ethiopia: An application of Bounds Testing Approach to Cointegration: [*Journal of Economics, Business, & Accountancy Ventura*, 23\(1\)](#), 20-35.
- Ifionu, E. & Akinpelumi, O. F.(2015). Macroeconomic variables and money supply in Nigeria: *An International Multidisciplinary Journal, Ethiopia* , 9(4), 288-307.

- Mlambo, K. & Oshikoya, T. (2001). Macroeconomic factors and investment in Africa: *Journal of African Economies*, 10(2), 12–47.
- Okonkwo N. O. & Egbulonu, K.G. (2016). Does interest rate impacted industrial output in Nigeria: *A Paper Presented at the International Conference, Society for Research and Academic Excellence, University of Nigeria, Nsukka*, 1-12.
- Oyebowale, A.Y. & Algarhi, A.S. (2020). Macroeconomic determinants of economic growth in Africa, *International Review of Applied Economics*. 1-25.
- Oyerinde, A.A. (2019). Industrial sector growth, macroeconomic performance, and corruption in sub-Saharan Africa: *SCIENDO*, 64(2), 72-83.
- Pagan, M. D. and Modak, K.C. (2014). Macroeconomic variables and economic growth in India: *UNNAYAN*, 1(1), 14-24.
- Rodrik, D. (2008). The real exchange rate and economic growth. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, Fall, 9(8), 365-412.
- Salman A. C, Frendrichs V. and Shukur (2009). Macroeconomic factors and Swedish Small and Medium sized Manufacturing firm failure, *Centre of Excellence for Science and Innovation Studies, CESIS Electronic Working Paper Series*, paper No 185.

Renewable Energy Consumption and Inclusive Growth in West Africa: The Mediating Role of Institutional Quality

By

Oluwayemisi Kadijat ADELEKE^{1,2}

*¹Department of Economics,
Redeemer's University, Nigeria
E-mail:adelekeolu@run.edu.ng*

*²DePECOS Institutions and Development Research Centre (DlaDeRC),
Nigeria*

and

Kemi Funlayo AKEJU³

*³Department of Economics,
Faculty of the Social Sciences,
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria.
E-mail: kemi.akeju@eksu.edu.ng*

Abstract

This study investigates the individual and interactive effect of institutional quality and renewable energy consumption on inclusive growth in ECOWAS countries. The research is rooted in the exogenous growth theory as it considers technological advancement capability to promote inclusive growth. Inclusive Growth is calculated using the Principal Components Analysis (PCA), while the Praise-Winsten regression along with the panel-corrected standard errors (PCSE) and the feasible generalized least squares (FGLS) was used as the estimation technique for West Africa for the period 2005 to 2022. Our finding shows that renewable energy relates adversely with inclusive growth because of it low use, while having access to clean fuel and the use of cooking technology was positively related to inclusive growth. Also, political institutional quality and economic institutional quality were found to respond positively with inclusive growth. In terms of the interactive effect, having access to clean

fuel, the use of technology for cooking, renewable energy consumption and economic institutional quality had a positive effect on inclusive growth in West Africa. Therefore, investment in infrastructures of renewable energy is needed in the region, as well as policy development that will encourage renewable energy adoption. Also, the regulatory and political terrain of the region should be stabilized, in order to attract investment.

Keywords: Renewable energy, Institutional Quality, Inclusive Growth, Principal component analysis, Prais–Winsten regression.

JEL Classification Codes: *Q42, O42, O43*

INTRODUCTION

Inclusive growth represents economic expansion that addresses social issues, inequality, and distributes rewards more fairly across individuals and regions (Alekhina & Ganelli, 2023; De Schutter, et al., 2023). Today's ambitions for growth revolve around it being encompassing, touching individual's wellbeing and progress (Aslam et al., 2021; Kouton, 2021). A core dimension of inclusive growth is the reduction of pollution and emission which is supported by the renewable energy uses (Amara & Qiao, 2023; Kwakwa, 2023). Renewable energy potential and strength are drivers of equitable growth in Africa, given the present growing consensus on the creation of socially inclusive approaches to fostering economic growth (Hassan et al., 2024).

Although most countries across African region have embraced energy transitioning process via renewable energy, (Agyekum, 2024; Gatete & Dikko, 2024), yet energy access in Africa is impeded by poor technologies, unstable economies and low capacity building (Adedeji et al., 2024; Serem et al., 2024). Energy shortages across Africa's residential and industrial sectors have been found to affect GDP growths as many are without consistent electricity and instead persist in using non-renewable sources of energy. A large majority within ECOWAS region's members simultaneously confront the interconnected difficulties of energy

availability, security, and climate change mitigation, which impedes the region's social, economic, and industrial development (Monyei et al., 2022; Tevenim& Yan, 2022).

Due to the fact that rural communities in West Africa still depends on the use of traditional biomass to meet their energy needs for lighting and cooking, the impoverished across communities dispel disproportionately huge proportion of income on low-quality power and electricity services (Domegni & Azouma, 2022). With notable disparities in wealth across countries, rural and urban communities as well as across various social categories, West Africa has low level of contemporary energy consumption in the world as shared by many emerging nations (Gafa & Egbendewe, 2021; Musah et al., 2020). The ECOWAS environmental policy review indicates that while the region is abundantly endowed with renewable energy resources, the institutional and regulatory framework for implementing these resources is still lacking. This is because there is a dearth of private capital available to spend on renewable energy sector in the region (Musibau et al., 2022; Tevenim & Yan, 2022). For renewable energy adoption and its implementation, a dedication to cutting carbon emissions and economical energy use is essential (Cantarero, 2020; Afshan et al., 2022).

Over the past few years, ECOWAS environmental policy has demonstrated a rising realization that immediate action is necessary to guarantee sufficient producing capacity in the area and to promote conventional and renewable energy sources (Okpanachi et al., 2022), what abounds is the extent at which the quality of institution can spur such productive capacity given the state of corruption, poor government regulations, low level of accountability and political instability in the region. Numerous nations have implemented renewable energy policies and advantageous institutional frameworks, or are in the process of doing so. Only a few nations in ECOWAS have actually taken action to put the regulations into effect due to low government effectiveness. Most nations lack clear accountability for implementing policies pertaining to renewable energy, and only a small number have organizations specifically tasked with this task (Ehanmo & Erhahon, 2024). Additionally, there isn't a clear directive across West African countries to support renewable energy (Ackah & Graham, 2021; Borowski, 2021).

Achieving sustainable inclusive growth is a global concern as many countries especially in West Africa still suffer from widespread inequalities and poverty. Growth advances for all in the society becomes essential (Aslam et al., 2021). The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) clearly show that having a sustainable inclusive growth, empowerment of women and adequate wellbeing is closely related to household use of renewable energy. Country's mode of operation and strength have been found to be largely dependent on the quality of institution (Khan et al., 2020; Wawrzyniak & Doryń, 2020), thus signifying that the implementation and transitioning process into renewable energy use may have close association with the strength, level, and mode of operation of institutions in a country.

Using a dynamic panel data model for the years spanning through 2005 to 2022, this research shed light on the modulating role of institutional quality on the actions of renewable energy on inclusive growth in ECOWAS. This paper contribution to the body of existing literature are; First and foremost, it extends the literature on renewable energy by taking into account its potential to support equitable growth for all households. Furthermore, it discloses the moderating impact of inadequate institutional quality within the ECOWAS for uptake of renewable energy within West Africa. In addition to highlighting the advantages of renewable energy, this study presents a contradictory argument that, limited institutional capacity distorts and affects the expansion of renewable energy in all ECOWAS countries. In showcase that in ECOWAS nations the deployment of renewable energy could increase inclusive growth given good institutional quality and framework as evaluated by the social progress index. Thus, concluding that more investment in environmentally friendly technical advancements and renewable energy sources is necessary for African countries to meet their targets for sustainable development.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Many empirical papers have shown the causal association of the consumption of renewable energy and growth across majority of developed countries, with renewable energy policies being effective and widely used (Chen et al., 2020). Although most developing nations,

particularly those in Africa, have natural resources that can be used to produce renewable energy, most studies have found no close association with renewable energy and growth because the level at which renewable energy is consumed and utilized is too low (Ivanovski et al., 2021; Saidi & Omri, 2020; Shahbaz et al., 2020).

Pata et al., (2024) studied the association within various forms of renewable energy, income, and the quality of the environment in the United States and found that the capacity of all types of renewable energy, as well as wood materials, plant matter or biomass, in addition with economic growth, has bilateral direct relations. Amin et al., (2024) paper on a few ASEAN nations, discovered that both education and renewable energy reduce CO₂ emissions. Using a heterogeneous causality analysis, evidence of bilateral causative association linking the use of renewable energy, carbon emissions, and education was discovered. According to the study's conclusion, in order to maintain environmental sustainability, Countries ought to invest more in renewable energy sources and education sectors and get ready for the R&D of renewable energy sources. Research on inclusive growth demonstrated that it offers policymakers a way to combine social inclusivity and economic success, making it very appealing in a variety of contexts. The literature on renewable energy and its relationship to inclusive growth has examined the various forms of inclusive growth measures with an emphasis on reorganizing the economy to achieve more equitable results. The argument that attaining inclusive growth can combat economic exclusion, lead to prosperity, and lessen pervasive inequality is still being discussed (Samans et al., 2015; van Niekerk, 2020). Nonetheless, there is much debate about attaining sustainable development, improving living conditions, and boosting welfare rather than emphasizing economic growth (Gupta & Vegelin, 2016).

Earlier studies such as Benjamin (2022) focussed on how the use of renewable energy can help promote inclusive growth across Africa region with inclusive growth viewed as a means of fostering job opportunities and mitigating social inequality. According to the study, renewable energy boosts economic growth. It also highlighted that incredible benefits in terms of inclusive growth might be realized if nations like Africa moved to

renewable energy use and supported the transition to a low-carbon environment. Progress in the use of renewable energy was also recorded by studies such as Kouton (2021) which presented a noteworthy improvement in equitable growth in Africa, especially in nations with low levels of equitable growth. According to the report, remarkable increases in inclusive growth could be realized by African nations if they are successful in shifting to renewable energy, particularly by the countries with low levels of inclusive growth.

Research on the quality of institutions has shown that the regulations put in place by national organizations to correct the official and cultural context in which social and economic operations exists are related to the quality of institutions (Salman et al., 2019). One major barrier to a nation's potential is a poor institutional framework, which encourages jurisdictional exploitation and annexation in addition to impeding the development of creative innovations and productive aspects. Prior research has indicated that the state of institutions affects carbon emissions (Karim et al., 2022) and economic growth (Adegboye et al., 2020; Asgharet al., 2020). However, the impact of institutional quality on renewable growth has received less attention (Rahman & Sultana, 2022). The role of effective governance has been found to be a crucial factor of inclusive development. Kwilinski et al. (2023) reported that across 26 European Union nations, evidence of a significance correlation exists between affordable and clean energy and the quality of institutions. The study concluded that nations with weaker institutions should offer transparent and efficient environmental policies. Furthermore, there is a need to increase green investment, initiatives, and incentives for renewable energy-focused projects. In a similar vein, Kamah et al., (2021) found that the quality of a nation institution is crucial in fostering progress on the environment and its sustainability in sub-Saharan Africa. The study considered the mediating action of the institutional quality on the link among sustainability of the environment and equitable growth in the region. According to the study, environmental quality improves as inclusive growth increases rapidly at the beginning than environmental degradation does at the early stages of the association. This indicates that institutional quality may be utilized as a strong, effective framework to prevent negative environmental externalities of inclusive growth.

From evidences from research studies on developed and developing countries, renewable energy forms is significantly impacted by institutional effectiveness, economic growth. This finding offers insightful information about how developing nations can concentrate on strengthening their institutional quality to make them more efficient and free from corruption. This would enable the nations to maintain economic growth while improving their research on energy consumption. The use and adoption of clean energy sources can bring about growth through enabling increased access to economic opportunities, improvement in social equity, and this enables sustainable livelihoods especially for marginalized and the undeserving populations. However, this relationship might be impossible to achieve in the absence of good institutional quality. This is because the quality of institutions plays a vital role acting as a mediator through ensuring efficiency and equitable distribution of clean energy with impact on growth. According to Mitraoul et al (2024), institutional quality is a key mediating factor in the renewable energy and inclusive growth nexus because it will shape how energy policies are designed and implemented in order to achieve development.

METHODOLOGY

This study examined both the individual effect of renewable energy and institutional quality on inclusive growth, and also the interactive effect between renewable energy and institutional quality and inclusive growth in West Africa. The theoretical basis is rooted in the exogenous growth theory because it considers technological advancement as well as sustainability and environmental conditions, alongside effective regulatory frameworks which promotes social inclusion and helps in advancing inclusive growth.

Earlier study of Adewuyi and Awodumi (2017), hammered on the fact that capital requires the use of energy and that the recent growth model has been extended with the addition of renewable energy (Rafindadi and Ozturk, 2016; Maji et al, 2019). However, this study would be using the consumption of renewable energy and access to clean fuel and cooking technology to further extend the debate. Also, the study of Kouton (2020) will be adopted and modified along with the exogenous theory in our model.

In line with literature, gross fixed capital formation and labour force participation would serve as the control variables. This is because in the specification of growth models, labour and capital are key factors that aids growth. Likewise, due to the important effect of institutional quality as a mediating factor between clean energy and inclusive growth, the six governance indicators according to the world governance indicators would be used to capture the quality of institutions.

Therefore, in other to achieve our first objective which is the investigation of the *individual effect of institutional quality and renewable energy consumption on inclusive growth in ECOWAS countries*, the specification for the study is shown below:

Variable name	Measurement	Source	Expectation
Inclusive Growth (INCG)	Inclusive Growth is the dependent variable and it was calculated using the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) with variables that include employment in service, employment in agriculture, employment in industry, access to electricity, people drinking basic water services, country policy and institutional assessment human resource ratings, public resource use equity, social inclusion and equity policies and ratings on social protection.	WDI	N/A
Renewable energy (RENC)	This is the quantity of energy derived from renewable sources out of the total energy	WDI	Positive
Access to clean fuel and technology for cooking. (ACFT)	The population size that uses clean cooking fuels and technology is determined by access to these resources. Kerosene is not considered to be a clean cooking fuel according to WHO rules.	WDI	Positive
Labour Force (LBF)	Adults 15+ economically engaged. They include workers providing labour for goods and services during a period.	WDI	Negative
Gross Fixed Capital formation (GFCF)	Gross fixed capital formation's average annual growth, is presented in constant local currency using the 2015 prices in US dollars as the aggregates basis. It includes road construction, railroads, infrastructure, residences, hospitals, offices, schools, and industrial buildings etc.	WDI	Negative
Institutional Quality Variables (IQ)	Quality of regulations, stability of political power, voice and accountability, government efficacy, the rule of law and the control of corruption	WGI	Positive

Results and Discussion

Table 2 presents the variables' summary statistics examined within the research. The outcome revealed that the average value of inclusive growth was 42.93, minimum value -9.115 and a maximum value 95.047. Thus, implying that inclusive growth is relatively high and closer to the higher end of the range than the lowest. The maximum value of 95.047 implies the period where policies made were inclusive, which led to positive

outcomes while the minimum value shows that in some period, inclusive policies were negative. For renewable energy, the mean value was found to be 69.567, minimum value 34.25 and maximum value 88.5. The implication suggests that in West African region, the use of renewable energy is on the increase and it is anticipated to have a favourable effect on environmental sustainability which affects inclusive growth in the long run. However, for the access to clean fuel and technology for cooking, the average value of 8.65 is relatively low and with minimum value 0.2, maximum value 42.6, implying that not all countries in the region have the access to the clean fuel and cooking technology. Examining all the institutional quality variable, revealed that they all had negative values for average value and the highest maximum and minimum value was 0.55 and -2.48 which is political stability, thus implying that most West African countries experience political instability. The range for institutional quality is between -2.5 and 2.5, with -2.5 being the weakest and 2.5 being the highest, thus the implication is that most West African countries had weak institutional quality.

Table 2: Summary Statistics

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
INCG	234	42.938	27.203	-9.115	95.047
RENC	228	69.567	15.442	34.2	88.5
ACFT	234	8.654	10.814	0.2	42.6
LBF	234	63.592	7.645	46.882	80.649
GFCF	234	20.458	5.860	8.847	52.418
POLS	234	-0.672	0.750	-2.48	0.55
VOA	234	-0.393	0.503	-1.46	0.6
REGQ	234	-0.643	0.332	-1.32	0.1
GOVE	234	-0.844	0.386	-1.81	0.09
ROL	234	-0.726	0.421	-1.61	0.15
COC	234	-0.693	0.389	-1.6	0.06

Source: Author's Compilation

Correlation Analysis

Table 3 presents the correlation matrix to test for multicollinearity amongst the variables. The variables that are starred shows the level of significance and a negative an adverse association among renewable energy, labour force and inclusive growth while availability of clean fuel

and technologies for cooking, gross fixed capital formation, political stability, voice and accountability, regulatory quality, efficacy of government, and the control of corruption was seen to be positively related with inclusive growth. Lastly, all the variables had weak and moderate correlation with inclusive growth and none was strongly correlated because it did not meet the 80% rule.

Table 3: Correlation Matrix

Variables	incg	renc	Acft	Lbf	gfcf	pols	voa	regq	Gove	rol	coc
incg	1										
renc	0.661***	1									
acft	0.617***	0.585***	1								
lbf	0.385***	0.152**	0.199***	1							
gfcf	0.065	-0.124*	0.157***	0.038	1						
pols	0.110*	0.505***	0.091	-0.034	-0.056	1					
voa	0.205***	0.493***	0.349***	0.274***	0.114*	0.488***	1				
regq	0.297***	0.641***	0.525***	0.33***	0.102	0.395***	0.626***	1			
gove	0.349***	0.711***	0.544***	0.273***	0.229***	0.409***	0.669***	0.870***	1		
rol	0.267***	0.628***	0.466***	0.313***	0.135**	0.527***	0.734***	0.877***	0.836***	1	
coc	0.259***	0.654***	0.498***	0.224***	0.173***	0.448***	0.699***	0.851***	0.859***	0.884***	1

Source: Author's Computation. ***, **, * represent statistically significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level

Pre-estimation Test: Cross Sectional Dependence (CSD)

The initial estimation test to be carried out before the Prais-Winsten regression correlated panel test is the cross-sectional dependence, stationarity and cointegration test. The CSD test determines if we have cross sectional dependence among the variables. According to Pesaran (2004) CD test, the null hypothesis can be a weak cross-sectional independence or strict cross-sectional independence (Pesaran, 2015). Thus, the results in table 4 shows that there is cross-sectional reliance across nations since the cross-sectional dependence null hypothesis is considered rejected at 1% and 5% statistically significance levels. As a result, shocks that happen in any of the West African nations can spread quickly to neighbouring other countries. For the panel unit root tests as well, using the second-generation unit root test for variables that have cross sectional dependence, result shows that only rule of law and political

stability are both at the level order considered stationary while all the other variables attained stationarity at first difference level. The Westerlund cointegration test estimated outcome reveals that at the 5% level, no cointegration of the null hypothesis is rejected since cointegration was found across the variables within certain panels.

Table 4: Pre-estimation check

Variable	CSD Statistics	PESCADF		PESCIPS		Westerlund
		Level	1st Diff.	Level	1st Diff.	Statistics
Incg	35.504***	2.416	-15.267***	2.56	-8.205***	-3.668***
Renc	17.742***	1.535	-10.533***	1.089	-6.521***	
Acft	10.009***	1.803	-4.844***	11.582	-2.428***	
Lbf	14.412***	-1.089	-4.978***	-0.459	-5.646***	
Gfcf	3.132***	-0.106	-10.563***	0.531	-6.585***	
Pols	-1.77*	-2.466	-13.744***	-1.561**	-7.837***	
Voa	6.71***	-0.455	-8.521***	-0.216	-5.805***	
Regq	3.309***	1.343	-10.342***	1.023	-6.405***	
Gove	1.848*	-0.129	-14.819***	0.408	-7.897***	
Rol	-0.442	-1.981**	-13.021***	-1.609**	-7.368***	
Coc	5.383***	0.482	-11.715***	0.317	-7.049***	

Source: Author's Compilation

Composite Results for PCSE

Here, the objective is to assess at individual level the impact of renewable energy and institutional quality on inclusive growth within West African countries. The outcome of results from Table 5, shows the main regression result using the PCSE and it's from column {1-3}. Column 1 shows panel level heteroskedastic and correlated across panels (No autocorrelation), while column 2 shows a panel level heteroskedastic (No autocorrelation) and Independent across panels (No autocorrelation).

Across the models, renewable energy consumption was found to lead to a reduction in inclusive growth at the 1% level of significance. Thus suggest; a unit rise of renewable energy consumption led to a reduction in inclusive growth by 1.336. However, the reverse is the case for accessibility to clean fuel and cooking technologies, with a positive relationship found with inclusive growth at a significance level of 1%. Thus, implying that a unit rise in access to clean fuel and cooking enhance improvement in inclusive growth among West African countries by 0.658 across the three models. Labour force and gross fixed capital formation relates adversely within inclusive growth in West Africa but only labour force was found to

besignificant at the level of 1%, but the latter is not significant. The study further revealed that the measure of political stability and corruption control had an adverse and significant effect on inclusive growth at 1% level of significance while regulatory quality and government effectiveness was negative but not significant at any level. Finally, voice and accountability alongside rule of law was discovered to have a positive impact on inclusive growth in West African countries.

Table 5: Composite results (Dep. Var: INCG)

Variables	PCSE		
	Main Regression		
	{1}	{2}	{3}
Constant	161.289*** [0.000]	161.289*** [0.000]	161.289*** [0.000]
RENC	-1.336*** [0.000]	-1.336*** [0.000]	-1.336*** [0.000]
ACFT	0.658*** [0.000]	0.658*** [0.000]	0.658*** [0.000]
LBF	-0.710*** [0.000]	-0.710*** [0.001]	-0.710*** [0.000]
GCFC	-0.2730 [0.214]	-0.2730 [0.122]	-0.2730 [0.151]
POLS	-9.879*** [0.000]	-9.879*** [0.000]	-9.879*** [0.000]
VOA	4.755*** [0.016]	4.755* [0.096]	4.7550 [0.134]
REGQ	-2.679 [0.693]	-2.6790 [0.746]	-2.6790 [0.748]
GOVE	-5.647 [0.406]	-5.647 [0.427]	-5.647 [0.417]
ROL	18.335*** [0.008]	18.335*** [0.007]	18.335*** [0.009]
COC	-30.289*** [0.000]	-30.289*** [0.000]	-30.289*** [0.000]
No. of Obs	228	228	228
R-Squared	0.67	0.67	0.67
Wald Statistics	1791.80***	349.20***	458.87***

Source: Author's Computation. ***, **, * represent statistically significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level

Table 6 reveals the outcome of institutional quality divided into three aspects of political, economic and institutional quality alongside renewable source of energy variables on inclusive growth in West Africa. The outcome from the table below for renewable energy variables were in

keeping with the outcomes obtained in table 5 above. Here, a negative effect was found between the consumption of renewable energy and inclusive growth while access to fuel and cooking technology had favourable effect on inclusive growth in West Africa both at the 1% level of significance. Likewise, the results obtained for gross fixed capital formation and labour force participation and was in line with table 5. Furthermore, political institutional quality and economic institutional quality was found to positively affect inclusive growth in West Africa, while the institutions had a negative but not significant influence on inclusive growth.

Table 6: Composite results (Dep. Var: INCG)

Variables	PCSE		
	Main Regression		
	{1}	{2}	{3}
Constant	142.98*** [0.000]	142.98*** [0.000]	142.98*** [0.000]
RENC	-1.142*** [0.000]	-1.142*** [0.000]	-1.142*** [0.000]
ACFT	0.778*** [0.000]	0.778*** [0.000]	0.778*** [0.000]
LBF	-0.523*** [0.002]	-0.523*** [0.007]	-0.523*** [0.006]
GCFC	-0.1980 [0.400]	-0.1980 [0.287]	-0.1980 [0.309]
PIIQ	7.658*** [0.000]	7.658*** [0.001]	7.658*** [0.001]
EIIQ	9.314** [0.028]	9.313 [0.150]	9.313* [0.098]
IIQ	-0.061 [0.983]	-0.061 [0.990]	-0.061 [0.990]
No. of Obs	228	228	228
R-Squared	0.63	0.63	0.67
Wald Statistics	1927.49***	371.00***	383.05***

Source: Author's Computation. ***, **, * represent statistically significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level

Table 7 reveals the outcome of the interactive effect between renewable energy and institutional quality and its impact on the inclusive growth within West Africa. The study found that the interactive effect between access to fuel and cooking technologies and political institutional quality was found to adversely affect institutional quality in West Africa with a significance of 1% level. Thus, a unit raise in ACPI will lead to a reduction in inclusive growth by 2.226. Likewise, the interactive effect between

renewable energy and economic institutional quality respond negatively to inclusive growth, implying that a unit increase in REEI will lead to a decrease in inclusive growth by 0.334. However, the interactive effect between having access to clean fuel and cooking technology and economic institutional quality exhibited a positive impact on inclusive growth across West Africa at 1% level of significance. Also, the interactive effect between access to clean fuel and technology and institutional quality positively promote inclusive growth in West Africa, whereas other interacting variables were not significant.

Table 7: Composite results (Dep. Var: INCG) - Interactive Effect

Variables	PCSE		
	Main Regression		
	{1}	{2}	{3}
Constant	45.675*** [0.000]	45.675*** [0.000]	45.675*** [0.000]
Repi	-0.005 [0.872]	-0.005 [0.888]	-0.005 [0.916]
Acpi	-2.226*** [0.011]	-2.226*** [0.017]	-2.226*** [0.003]
Reei	-0.334*** [0.000]	-0.334*** [0.000]	-0.334*** [0.001]
Acei	2.387*** [0.012]	2.387** [0.024]	2.387** [0.032]
Riiq	0.1140 [0.118]	0.114 [0.174]	0.114 [0.283]
Acq	2.481* [0.091]	2.481 [0.130]	2.481** [0.054]
No. of Obs	228	228	228
R-Squared	0.25	0.25	0.25
Wald Statistics	806.52***	153.71***	76.64***

Source: Author's Computation. ***, **, * represent statistically significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level

Composite Results: Robustness test using PCSE

Table 8 is the robustness estimation test for this study using the feasible generalized least square (FGLS) technique and it shows that the statistical inferences drawn from the model are accurate and valid. Column 1 to 6 represents IID (Independent) and Heteroscedastic but uncorrelated estimation for the three objectives. This implies that column 1 and 2 represents the robustness check for the first objective, column 3 and 4 represents the robustness check for the second objective and column 5 and 6 represents the robustness check for the third objective.

The outcome of the results is in line with the PCSE main result for this study, as it aligns with the findings that while renewable energy consumption exhibit negative relationship on inclusive growth, access to clean fuel and cooking technology was positively linked with inclusive growth in West Africa. Also, political instability and the control of corrupt practices were found to have adverse effect on inclusive growth while voice and accountability and rule of law were positively linked with inclusive growth. Also, for the second objective where the six institutional variables were categorized into three aspects, it was found that political institutional quality and economic institutional quality had notable and strong effect on inclusive growth in West Africa. Lastly, results showed the robustness test for the interactive effect was in line with what was obtained for the main results, this is because, ACPI and REEI had negative significant effect, while ACEI and ACIQ had positive significant effect on inclusive growth in West Africa.

Table 8: Composite results (Dep. Var: INCG)

Variables	FGLS ESTIMATION					
	Robustness Check					
	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}
Constant	161.28***	167.78***	142.98***	144.40***	45.675***	49.784***
RENC	-1.133***	-1.263***	-1.142***	-1.172***	-	-
ACFT	0.658***	0.830***	0.778***	0.981***	-	-
LBF	-0.711***	-0.858***	-0.523***	-0.581***	-	-
GFCF	-0.273	-0.164	-0.198	-0.027	-	-
POLS	-9.879***	-9.872***	-	-	-	-
VOA	4.755	5.425**	-	-	-	-
REGQ	-2.679	-1.041	-	-	-	-
GOVE	-5.647	-12.103**	-	-	-	-
ROL	18.335***	15.133***	-	-	-	-
COC	-30.289***	-14.597***	-	-	-	-
PIIQ	-	-	7.658***	8.619***	-	-
EIIQ	-	-	9.313*	14.188***	-	-
IIQ	-	-	-0.061	-6.667*	-	-
REPI	-	-	-	-	-0.005	-0.011
ACPI	-	-	-	-	-2.226***	-1.284**
REEI	-	-	-	-	-0.334***	-0.233***
ACEI	-	-	-	-	2.387**	2.542***
RIIQ	-	-	-	-	0.114	-0.0117
ACIQ	-	-	-	-	2.481**	1.258
No. of Obs	228	228	228	228	228	228
Wald Statistics	458.87***	559.09***	383.05***	662.85***	76.64***	234.62***

Source: Author's Computation. ***, **, * represent statistically significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level

DISCUSSION

The study primary goal is on examining the individual effect of renewable energy and institutional quality on inclusive growth in West Africa. Findings revealed that renewable energy had a negative and a noteworthy action on inclusive growth within West African Countries. This is surprising, as renewable energy sources and its usage should help promote inclusive growth in the region. However, this could be as a result of the cost of the initial investments as it relates to technology and infrastructures needed and the fear of job displacements especially for those whose livelihood depend on the traditional energy sector. Likewise, this could occur because people rely heavily on the traditional energy sector as it is easily affordable and accessible. The implication of this result is that it could lead to a slowdown in the economy and further worsens inequalities as a result of unaffordability. Also, high initial costs can limit the poor households from the benefits and further widen inequality.

Similarly, a negative effect might occur between renewable energy and inclusive growth because clean energy in itself does not create growth but it must be linked to productivity which enhances economic activity and leads to income-generating activities. Another reason that could be responsible for the adverse relationship between renewable energy and inclusive growth in west Africa is that in developing regions, the access to energy initially is always limited because the adoption of renewable energy does not necessarily imply availability or improvements in the infrastructure needed. This implies that the use of renewable energy investments might not lead to better income or education in the absence of basic infrastructures. This finding is not in line with the work of Benjamin (2020) and Kouton (2021) as they found a positive relationship between renewable energy and inclusive growth. Likewise, the study of (Ivanovski et al, 2021, Sharbaz et al., 2020 and Saidi & Omi, 2020) found no link between equitable growth and renewable energy.

However, reverse was the case for the access to clean fuel and technology for cooking and inclusive growth, as the study found a positive and significant relationship among them. The implication is that it will lead to better health outcomes as a result of reduction in air pollution, which will enhance productivity and better health quality, thus contributing to

inclusive growth. Similarly, it can lead to development of small businesses in the field of clean energy technologies especially as it relates to production, distribution and services of clean energy. This result lines up with Byaro et al (2024), where a positive relationship was found between access to clean fuel and technology for cooking and health outcomes, which leads to better productivity and inclusive growth.

Furthermore, as it relates to the individual effect of institutional quality and inclusive growth, the outcome of this study revealed that instability in politics and corruption control have adverse effect on the achievement of inclusive growth in West Africa. The implication is that a high level of corruption and instability in the political environment can deter investment opportunities, thus leading to reduced inflow of capital which can hinder economic development. In corrupt environment, subsidies or grants meant for renewable projects can be diverted, thus widening the inequality gap and undermining inclusive growth. Likewise, corruption and corrupt practices weakens regulations via several measures such as unsafe or unreliable installations, which may discourage foreign direct investments in clean energy sources due to perceived regulatory risk, leading to loss of job creation and reduction in inclusive growth. The study of Aisen and Veiga (2011), Acar (2019) and Dirks and Schmidt (2023) is in line with our findings of a negative relationship of political instability and corruption on inclusive growth. However, for voice and accountability and the rule of law, reverse is the case, as they were found to positively affect inclusive growth in West Africa. Our findings are in line with the study of Ozpolat et al (2016) and Olanrewaju et al (2019) which has a positive effect on inclusive growth and shows that institutional quality is the primary motivator for inclusive growth.

Similarly, in the second objective of the study, the six institutional quality variables were divided into three aspects along the renewable energy variables. Findings for the renewable energy was the same as found above. The study found that political institutional quality which is a combination of political stability and voice and accountability has favourable association with inclusive growth. Likewise, Economic institutional quality which consists of the quality of the regulating bodies and measure of government strength and power effectiveness was discovered to have a

favourable impact on inclusive growth. However, the last division which consists of the quality of institution based on measure of rule of law and the level of corruption control by the government was found to be insignificant.

Lastly, in examining the interactive effect between renewable energy variables and institutional quality divided into three aspects, the study found the following; an adverse effect between access to clean fuel and technology for cooking and political institutional quality and inclusive growth. This implies that access to clean fuel and technology for cooking would not affect growth positively, if the political environment and voice and accountability is not well regulated in the economy. Thus, implying that investors would find it difficult to invest their funds in an unstable political environment, where no one is held accountable in the case of violence or losses.

This means that even if political institutions are stable, inequitable or unaccountable in energy governance can lead to an adverse effect on inclusive growth. This occurs as a result of unequal outcomes, when marginalized communities are neglected in the allocation of clean cooking resources. Also, in investments in clean cooking sources, focus might be on infrastructure that is expensive which may not be easily affordable at the community level, rural or poor regions. Therefore, having strong institutions that do not represent marginalized groups can hinder inclusive growth in West Africa.

Likewise, renewable energy consumption and economic institutional quality was seen to exert a reducing effect on inclusive growth in West Africa. This implies that when proper regulatory policies and government effectiveness are not put in place, renewable energy would exhibit no solid and vibrant effect on inclusive growth in the region. Likewise, when institutions are rigid, it may stifle innovation and access to renewable energy which may affect inclusive growth negatively. Another reason for this could be when vested interest dominate the energy market especially during transitioning from traditional energy to clean energy. Likewise, large scale investment projects might be put in place without it being inclusive, if it's not easily accessible, thus further deepening inequality.

This implies that renewable energy investments should not come at the expense of social inclusion and grassroots participation. However, access to clean fuel and technology for cooking when interacted with economic institutional quality and institutional quality which consists with rule of law and control of corruption had a positive effect on inclusive growth in West Africa. The implication is that when interacted together, it leads to economic efficiency and productivity and boosts investors' confidence in the economic and institutional environment in the region.

CONCLUSION

The sustainable development goals (SDG) 7, 8 and 16 which emphasizes on ensuring that everyone has access to affordable and reliable energy, alongside SDG 16 which is on having an effective, accountable and transparent institutions is a necessity to achieving inclusive growth which is SDG 8 is a major concern of this work. Therefore, this objective centres on examining the singular and combined actions of renewable energy and quality of institutions on inclusive growth in West Africa for the period 2005 to 2022. The analysis was done for thirteen (13) West African Countries using the Prais-Winsten regression with panel-corrected standard errors (PCSE) and the feasible generalized least squares (FGLS) for robustness check.

The outcome of the results demonstrated that renewable energy had an adverse effect on inclusive growth, while availability of clean fuel and technology for cooking was positively related to inclusive growth across all the models. Stability in politics and anti-corruption measures was found to affect inclusive growth negatively while voice and accountability and rule of law was found to positively affect inclusive growth. This study concludes in line with findings that there should be investment in infrastructures and accessibility of renewable energy projects regionally, as well as develop regulations that will encourage the utilization of renewable energy and it should be incorporated in the development designs of member countries in West Africa. Also, subsidies and financial incentives should be introduced in order to make access to clean fuel and technology more affordable and accessible for low household income earners. Lastly, the regulatory and political terrain of the region should be stabilized, in order to attract investment.

REFERENCES

- Acar, A. (2019). The Effects of Political Stability on Economic Growth of the Presidential Government System. *International Journal of Economics and Politics Sciences Academic Researches*, 3(9), 18-31
- Ackah, I., & Graham, E. (2021). Meeting the targets of the Paris Agreement: an analysis of renewable energy (RE) governance systems in West Africa (WA). *Clean Technologies and Environmental Policy*, 23, 501-507.
- Adedeji, A. A., Ogunbayo, I., Ajayi, P. I., & Adeniyi, O. (2024). Energy security, governance quality, and economic performance in sub-Saharan Africa. *Next Energy*, 2, 100055.
- Adegboye, F. B., Osabohien, R., Olokoyo, F. O., Matthew, O., & Adediran, O. (2020). Institutional quality, foreign direct investment, and economic development in sub-Saharan Africa. *Humanities and social sciences communications*, 7(1), 1-9.
- Adewuyi A.O., & Awodumi, O.B. (2017). Renewable and non-renewable energy-growth emissions linkages: Review of emerging trends with policy implications. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.*, 69, 275-291.
- Afshan, S., Ozturk, I., & Yaqoob, T. (2022). Facilitating renewable energy transition, ecological innovations and stringent environmental policies to improve ecological sustainability: evidence from MM-QR method. *Renewable Energy*, 196, 151-160.
- Agyekum, E. B. (2024). Is Africa ready for green hydrogen energy takeoff?—A multi-criteria analysis approach to the opportunities and barriers of hydrogen production on the continent. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 49, 219-233.
- Aisen, A., & Veiga, F.J. (2011). How Does Political Instability Affect Economic Growth? IMF Working Paper WP/11/12.
- Alekhina, V., & Ganelli, G. (2023). Determinants of inclusive growth in ASEAN. *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 28(3), 1196-1228.
- Amara, D. B., & Qiao, J. (2023). From economic growth to inclusive green growth: How do carbon emissions, eco-innovation and international collaboration develop economic growth and tackle climate change? *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 425, 138986.

- Amin, N., Shabbir, M. S., Song, H., & Abbass, K. (2024). Renewable energy consumption and its impact on environmental quality: A pathway for achieving sustainable development goals in A S E A N countries. *Energy & Environment*, 35(2), 644-662.
- Asghar, N., Qureshi, D. S., & Nadeem, M. (2020). Institutional quality and economic growth: Panel ARDL analysis for selected developing economies of Asia. *South Asian Studies*, 30(2).
- Asongu, S.A., & Odhiambo, N.M. (2020). Governance, CO₂ Emissions and Inclusive human development in sub-Saharan Africa. *Energy Exploration & Exploitation*, 38(1), 18-36. DOI: 10.1177/0144598719835594
- Benjamin, A. A. (2022). Renewable energy consumption and inclusive growth: Evidence from 20 African countries. *Ann Environ Sci Toxicol* 6(1): 097-104. DOI: 10.17352/aest.000060
- Bhattacharya, M., Paramati, S. R., Ozturk, I., & Bhattacharya, S. (2016). The effect of renewable energy consumption on economic growth: Evidence from top 38 countries. *Applied energy*, 162, 733-741.
- Borowski, P. F. (2021). Significance and directions of energy development in African countries. *Energies*, 14(15), 4479.
- Byaro, M., Mmbaga, N.F., Mafwolo, G. (2024). Tackling energy poverty: Do clean fuels for cooking and access to electricity improve or worsen health outcomes in sub-Saharan Africa? *World Development Sustainability*, 4, 100125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wds.2024.100125>
- Chen, C., Pinar, M., & Stengos, T. (2020). Renewable energy consumption and economic growth nexus: Evidence from a threshold model. *Energy Policy*, 139, 111295.
- Damodar, N. G. (2021). Basic econometrics.
- De Schutter, O., Frazer, H., Guio, A. C., & Marlier, E. (2023). Towards an inclusive economy. In *The Escape from Poverty* (pp. 111-133). Policy Press.
- Dirks, M., & Schmidt, T. (2023). The relationship between political instability and economic growth in advanced economies: Empirical evidence from a panel VAR and a dynamic panel FE-IV analysis. Ruhr Economic Papers, No. 1000, ISBN 978-3-96973-166-6, RWI- Leibniz-Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung, Essen, <https://doi.org/10.4419/96973166>

- Domegni, K. M. S., & Azouma, Y. O. (2022). Productive uses of energy: A solution for promoting energy justice in rural areas in West Africa. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 160, 112298.
- Ehanmo, I., & Erhahon, O. (2024). Legal and Regulatory Pathways for Sub-Saharan Africa's Energy Access and Energy Transition Agenda. In *Energy Regulation in Africa: Dynamics, Challenges, and Opportunities* (pp. 107-129). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.
- Gafa, D. W., & Egbendewe, A. Y. (2021). Energy poverty in rural West Africa and its determinants: Evidence from Senegal and Togo. *Energy Policy*, 156, 112476.
- Gatete, C., & Dikko, H. (2024). Policy Framework and Regulations to Promote Clean Energy and Renewable Energy Transition in ECOWAS Countries. In *Energy Regulation in Africa: Dynamics, Challenges, and Opportunities* (pp. 131-150). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.
- Gupta, J., & Vegelin, C. (2016). Sustainable development goals and inclusive development. *International environmental agreements: Politics, law and economics*, 16, 433-448.
- Inglesi-Lotz, R. (2016). The impact of renewable energy consumption to economic growth: A panel data application. *Energy Econ.*, 53, 58-63.
- Ivanovski, K., Hailemariam, A., & Smyth, R. (2021). The effect of renewable and non-renewable energy consumption on economic growth: Non-parametric evidence. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 286, 124956.
- Kamah, M., Riti, J.S. & Bin, P.(2021). Inclusive growth and environmental sustainability: the role of institutional quality in sub-Saharan Africa. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28, 34885–34901. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-021-13125-z>
- Karim, S., Appiah, M., Naeem, M. A., Lucey, B. M., & Li, M. (2022). Modelling the role of institutional quality on carbon emissions in Sub-Saharan African countries. *Renewable Energy*, 198, 213-221.
- Khan, M. A., Gu, L., Khan, M. A., & Oláh, J. (2020). Natural resources and financial development: The role of institutional quality. *Journal of Multinational Financial Management*, 56, 100641.
- Kouton, J. (2020). The impact of renewable energy consumption on

- inclusive growth: panel data analysis in 44 African countries. *Economic Change and Restructuring*, 1 - 26. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10644-020-09270-z>
- Kouton, J. (2021). The impact of renewable energy consumption on inclusive growth: panel data analysis in 44 African countries. *Economic Change and Restructuring*, 54(1), 145-170.
- Kwakwa, P. A. (2023). Sectoral growth and carbon dioxide emission in Africa: Can renewable energy mitigate the effect? *Research in Globalization*, 6, 100130.
- Kwilinski, A., Lyulyov, O., & Pimonenko, T. (2023). Inclusive economic growth: Relationship between energy and governance efficiency. *Energies*, 16(6), 2511.
- Maji I.K. (2015). Does clean energy contribute to economic growth? Evidence from Nigeria. *Energy Rep.*, 1, 145-150.
- Mтираoui, A., Lazreg, M., & Chemli, L. (2024). Institutional Quality and Economic Growth in the Energy Transition of MENA Countries. *International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy*, 14(6), 605-613. <https://doi.org/10.32479/ijeep.16230>
- Monyei, C. G., Akpeji, K. O., Oladeji, O., Babatunde, O. M., Aholu, O. C., Adegoke, D., & Imafidon, J. O. (2022). Regional cooperation for mitigating energy poverty in sub-Saharan Africa: a context-based approach through the tripartite lenses of access, sufficiency, and mobility. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 159, 112209.
- Musah, M., Kong, Y., Mensah, I. A., Antwi, S. K., & Donkor, M. (2020). The link between carbon emissions, renewable energy consumption, and economic growth: a heterogeneous panel evidence from West Africa. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 27, 28867-28889.
- Musibau, H. O., Shittu, W. O., & Yanotti, M. (2022). Natural resources endowment: What more does West Africa need in order to grow?. *Resources Policy*, 77, 102669.
- Okpanachi, E., Ambe-Uva, T., & Fassih, A. (2022). Energy regime reconfiguration and just transitions in the Global South: Lessons for West Africa from Morocco's comparative experience. *Futures*, 139, 102934.
- Olanrewaju, G.O., Tella, S. A. & Adesoye, B. A. (2019). Institutional Quality, Financial Inclusion and Inclusive Growth: Causality Evidence

- from Nigeria. *Central Bank of Nigeria Economic and Financial Review*, 57(3), 39-60.
- Osabohien, R., Iqbal, B.A., Osabuohien, E.S., Khan, M.K., & Nguyen, D.P. (2022). Agricultural trade, foreign direct investment and inclusive growth in developing countries: evidence from West Africa, *Transnational Corporations Review*, 14 (3), 244-255. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19186444.2021.1936986>.
- Ozpolat, A., Guven, G.G., Ozsoy, F.N., & Bahar, A. (2016). Does Rule of Law Affect Economic Growth Positively? *Research in World Economy*, 7(1), 107-117. doi:10.5430/rwe.v7n1p107
- Pata, U. K., Wang, Q., Kartal, M. T., & Sharif, A. (2024). The role of disaggregated renewable energy consumption on income and load capacity factor: a novel inclusive sustainable growth approach. *Geoscience Frontiers*, 15(1), 101693.
- Rafindadi A.A., & Ozturk I. (2016). Impacts of renewable energy consumption on the German economic growth: Evidence from combined cointegration test. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.*
- Rahman, M. M., & Sultana, N. (2022). Impacts of institutional quality, economic growth, and exports on renewable energy: Emerging countries perspective. *Renewable Energy*, 189, 938-951.
- Saidi, K., & Omri, A. (2020). The impact of renewable energy on carbon emissions and economic growth in 15 major renewable energy-consuming countries. *Environmental research*, 186, 109567.
- Salman, M., Long, X., Dauda, L., & Mensah, C. N. (2019). The impact of institutional quality on economic growth and carbon emissions: Evidence from Indonesia, South Korea and Thailand. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 241, 118331.
- Samans, R., Blanke, J., Corrigan, G., & Drzeniek, M. (2015, September). The inclusive growth and development report 2015. In *Geneva: World Economic Forum* (Vol. 13). Citeseer.
- Serem, C. K., Siele, R. K., & Muiyiwa, S. A. (2024). The Cointegration Between Energy Subsidy and Energy Accessibility in Eastern Africa Countries. *J Bus Econo Stud*, 1(2), 1-6.
- Shahbaz, M., Raghutla, C., Chittedi, K. R., Jiao, Z., & Vo, X. V. (2020). The effect of renewable energy consumption on economic growth: Evidence from the renewable energy country attractive index. *Energy*, 207, 118162.

- Sulaiman, C., & Abdul-Rahim, A.S. (2017). The relationship between CO2 emission, energy consumption and economic growth in Malaysia: a three-way linkage approach. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 24(32), 25204– 25220
- Tevenim, H., & Yan, Q. (2022). Review and assessment of energy policy in the economic community of West African States region. *International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy*, 12(5), 232-242.
- Van Niekerk, A. J. (2020). Inclusive economic sustainability: SDGs and global inequality. *Sustainability*, 12(13), 5427.
- Wawrzyniak, D., & Doryń, W. (2020). Does the quality of institutions modify the economic growth-carbon dioxide emissions nexus? Evidence from a group of emerging and developing countries. *Economic research-Ekonomska istraživanja*, 33(1), 124-144.
- Wooldridge, J. M. (2013). *Introductory Econometrics. A Modern Approach*. 5th ed. Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning Cengage.

The Drivers of Insecurity and the Roles of Security Agents in Nigeria

Babatola, Adeleye Marcus (Ph.D.)

Department of Political Science,
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria
adeleye.babatola@eksu.edu.ng

Abstract

This paper argues that the formation and operation of the security agents is to foster protection of lives and property which has now been characterized with various challenges such that the agency has lost its focus on essentialities. Indeed, this has been one of the major challenges militating against good governance and sustainable development in Nigeria which is a principal road block to socio-political and economic development in the country. However, efforts at ensuring standardization of the security forces and attaining a violent free society characterized by good governance, protection of lives and property, and so on have always been in vain due to the ravaging storm of corruption and other vices that pose further challenges. As a corollary, it is further examined that corruption is a rape of the security and good governance, political institution, and development thus working against societal integration. Hence, it is not uncommon to submit that the security agents have not demonstrated their readiness to act as agents of change which they are said to have been known for. The study employs the use of both primary and secondary sources to generate the needed data for interrogation. The data sources are further reinforced with the administration of oral interviews with relevant stakeholders and members of the public to elicit more information to provide lasting solutions to challenges confronting the security agents in Nigeria.

Keywords: Security Agents, Good Governance, Corruption, and Insecurity.

Introduction

Insecurity is the state of being subject to danger or injury. The anxiety that is experienced when one feels vulnerable and insecure. Ehigiamusoen & Ogbonnaya. (2013) affirms that "above definitions of insecurity as "a state of being not secure, lack of confidence; and for proper understanding of this term, the word 'insecure' which the Advance English Dictionary defines as 'not confident about yourself or your relationships with other people; not safe or protected would be upheld here. This definition further expounds the meaning of the term to include not just the general meaning but it touches the individual person "not being confident about one self." Insecurity is a feeling of uncertainty, a lack of confidence of anxiety about yourself. It can also describe the state of being open to danger or threat. The economy may have you worried about job insecurity. Or maybe it's the insecurity of rocky relationship that keeps you up at night.

Insecurity often stems from childhood experiences, social pressures, or traumatic experiences. It can zap your confidence and cause you to hold yourself back. Overcoming insecurity takes time and effort, but it's possible with self-awareness.

The pride of any government is the attainment of a higher value level of development in such a way that its citizens derive a natural attachment to governance. However, for a nation to be in a phase of development there must be some prerequisites, which include socio-political and economic stability. The gap between the developed and the developing countries is not static or narrow but is continually widening. A large majority of the world's population in developing world lives in a state of poverty. The problems of the urban population, rural stagnation, unemployment, and growing inequalities continue to face less developed countries, to which Nigeria belongs. Hopes of accelerated development are difficult to realize. This gloomy situation is of great concern to stakeholders and the concerned citizenry. Nigeria has not been able to engender meaningful development despite her huge resources' endowment. This has greatly affected her quest to improve the quality of life of her citizens. Poverty, unemployment, and starvation still pervade the nook and cranny of the country. Development is essential and critical to the growth and sustenance of any country.

Several researchers have identified the relationship between security and national development since the end of the Cold War (Nwanegbo and Odigbo, 2013:2:45; Chandler, 2007:1:361). They posited that development can never be achieved in any nation characterized by conflicts and war. Insecurity and national development are like Siamese twins because they are inseparable concepts that affect each other. Insecurity is a major drawback to Nigeria's national development. Security and safety are paramount issues in Nigeria today. According to Omoyibo and Akpomera (2013:1:132), security is a concept that is before the state and that the state exists to provide that service. Security is the state of being protected physically, emotionally, and psychologically as well as from other harm, attack, and terror which could be considered as non-desirable (Kelechi, 2010:1:1). Security can be seen as the assurance of the future well-being and freedom from threat.

The 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria especially affirms that "The security of and welfare of the people shall be the paramount function of government". Regrettably, the government has failed to discharge its duty in this regard. Lately, abduction for ransom has become the new *money-making* venture for kidnappers. This surge in abductions has instilled a pervasive sense of fear and uncertainty among the populace. To successfully enhance meaningful development, effective strategies must be evolved. The level of insecurity in Nigeria needs to be addressed because of its adverse effects on Nigeria's national development. This research study seeks to examine the issue of insecurity and its implication for Nigeria's National development.

Stating the problem of the study, it is believed that the failure of the government to provide a secure and safe environment for lives and properties and the running of businesses and other economic activities has created anger and hostility among the tribal groups (Ewetan & Ese, 2014:1; 46). This has led to ethnic violence, religious violence, and communal clashes in several parts of the nation and has resulted in the destruction of lives and properties, hampered business and economic activities, and stunted the economic growth and development of Nigeria. According to Ogege Sam Omadjohwoefe (2013:1:82), Nigeria as a nation is faced with complex security obstacles which include ethnic crises,

assassination, militancy, kidnapping, and terrorism. The Boko Haram crisis has posed a greater security challenge to Nigeria's growth and national development, most especially in the northern-eastern part of the country. According to Ehigiamusoen & Ogbonnaya. (2013:1:9), several attacks from the lawless Islamic sect have been targeted at the state, institutions, and the civilian population. The current administration of President Bola Hamed Tinubu policy on the subsidy removal on motorist spirit has worsened the living conditions of the Nigerians. The unbearable hardship has resulted in the just concluded ten days protest [August 1-10, 2024] which claimed several life's, many injured, shops looting, and vandalization of properties. This research study will attempt to study the reason why insecurity has stunted the growth and development of the Nigerian economy. These raise the questions as follows: has insecurity negatively impacted Nigeria's national development? Has the government played a significant role in curbing insecurity in Nigeria? Would the curbing of insecurity in Nigeria increase the rate of national development? What are the measures to adopt to eradicate insecurity in Nigeria? These and many others would be addressed in the study.

Furthermore, the objectives of this study are to determine the impact of insecurity on national development, to determine the roles played by the government in curbing insecurity in Nigeria, to examine the effects of curbing insecurity on Nigeria's national development and to determine the measures to adopt to eradicate the problem of insecurity in Nigeria. While the basic assumptions that will guide this research work are as follows: That insecurity has negatively impacted Nigeria's national development. Secondly, that government has played a significant role in curbing insecurity in Nigeria. Also, that curbing of insecurity in Nigeria will increase the rate of national development and measures to eradicate insecurity completely in Nigeria?

Justification for the Study/Significance of Study

As a student of politics and a citizen of Nigeria, the level of insecurity in my country is of great concern. Thus, I have determined to investigate and focus my research work on the causes of insecurity and its impacts on Nigeria's national development. To know if the government has played any significant role in curbing insecurity issues in Nigeria, to investigate the

hindrances to the achievement of curbing insecurity issues by the government, and to provide possible measures to adopt to eradicate insecurity in Nigeria. This research study will theoretically contribute significantly to the contemporary body of academic knowledge. The research study will be significant practically to the military, other security agencies, and Policy makers and also educate and widen the horizon of the citizens on security matters and its effect on their lives and properties. The research study would also provide various ways by which insecurity can be reduced in Nigeria under this democratic dispensation.

Definition of Terms

Insecurity: Achumba (2013:1) defines insecurity from two perspectives. Firstly, insecurity is the state of being open or subject or risk of danger, whereas danger or threat of danger, where danger is the condition of being susceptible to harm or injury. Secondly, insecurity is the state of being exposed to risk or anxiety, where anxiety is a vague unpleasant emotion that is experienced in anticipation of some misfortune.

Development: development is dynamic and multifaceted term it encompasses progress and positive change in different dimensions of life. The process of growth, progress, and improvement in various aspects of human life, societies, economies, or the environment. Others view it from political, economic, and socio-cultural perspectives.

National development: The term “national development” refers to the improvement of a country in all areas, including the political, economic, social, cultural, scientific, and material spheres.

Theoretical framework

The theory adopted for this study is “The Frustration-Aggression Theory”, posits that aggression is often a direct consequence of frustration. When a person's goals are blocked, they experience frustration, which can lead to aggressive behaviors as a response. This theory was initially proposed by John Dollard, Neal Miller, Leon Neal Miller, Leonard Doob, Orval Mowrer, and Robert Sears in 1939.

The frustration-aggression hypothesis states that aggression is a result of frustration. Frustration is any event or stimulus that prevents an individual from attaining a goal and it is accompanying reinforcement quality (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). In general, we can identify five approaches to understanding our aggression: **ethological, psychotherapeutic, social learning, frustration-aggression, and cultural.**

Strength and weakness of the theory.

The frustration-aggression hypothesis is based on the psychodynamic approach. When people are frustrated, they experience a drive to be aggressive toward the object of their frustration, but this is often impossible or inappropriate, so the source of their aggression is [displaced](#) by something or someone else. It uses the concepts of [catharsis](#) (relieving emotional tension) and displacement (unconscious defense mechanism whereby the mind diverts emotions from their original source to a less threatening, dangerous, or unacceptable one to avoid experiencing anxiety). Frustration is a feeling of tension that occurs when our efforts to reach a goal are blocked. According to this theory, proposed by Dollard (1939), frustration often leads to aggression. When our drive to reach a goal is blocked by external factors, we experience frustration, which, in turn, creates an aggressive drive, and this can lead to aggressive behavior. When we express this aggression physically, verbally, or by fantasizing, we experience catharsis, and our emotional tension is reduced.

However, our aggression is not always expressed towards the legitimate target because it could be too dangerous and we risk punishment, or because this target is not available so we displace our aggressive response towards a less dangerous target or one who just happens to be present. This is called displacement. The first to formulate the frustration-aggression hypothesis were the Yale University researchers John Dollard, Leonard Doob, Neal Miller, O. H. Mowrer, and Robert Sears (1939). The group attempted to account for virtually all of human aggression with a few basic ideas in their book, *Frustration and Aggression*. Dollard et al. define frustration as an event instead of an affective state (Breuer, J., Scharkow, M., and Quandt, T. 2015). John Dollard thought about frustration as an unexpected blockage of a goal that someone anticipated

attaining. This characterization of frustration through observable qualities of events and environmental characteristics allows the objective testing and description of its effects rather than relying on subjective self-reported experiences. This is an important differentiation because this definition of frustration is also implied by modifications and reformulations of the frustration-aggression hypothesis.

Applicability of the theory

The theory is suitable for the study because most often people are frustrated to be involved in some questionable adventure such as participating in social vices like: kidnapping, armed robbery, stealing, killing, violence, causing insecurity for society and many more that amount to drivers of insecurity in Nigeria.

DRIVERS OF INSECURITY IN NIGERIA.

The crux of this paper is "insecurity in Nigeria: A threat to national development." Recently, Nigeria has witnessed an unprecedented level of insecurity. However, the nature and trends of insecurity in the country have been worrisome in recent times. This paper examines Insecurity in Nigeria: a threat to national development. It however, focuses on Nigeria experience. Insecurity on the other-hand, is the state of being subject to danger of injury. With the high rate of insecurity in Nigeria, there would not be any form of significant National Development; therefore, this research work tends to identify the causes of insecurity in Nigeria and possibly, proffer solutions to them. The paper adopted qualitative research design and the researcher used descriptive analysis to examine the issues insecurity in Nigeria. The study noted that the causes of insecurity in Nigeria include; kidnapping, militancy, unemployment, fear of distrusted government etc as other factors were looked into. The study found that the alarming level of insecurity in Nigeria has increased the crime rate and terrorists attacks in different parts of the country, leaving unpalatable consequences for the nation's economy and business growth. Though insecurity is not a new thing in Nigeria, the number of security challenges in the country in recent time is alarming. It also revealed that the number of violent crimes such as kidnappings, ritual killings, carjacking, suicide bombings, religious killings, politically-motivated killing and violence, ethnic clashes, armed banditry and others have

increasingly become the regular signature that characterizes life in Nigeria. In conclusion, In order to ameliorate the incidence of crime, the federal government has embarked on criminalization of terrorism by passing the Anti-Terrorism Act in 2011.

The majority of factors that account for insecurity are found within the security agents and society at large. Some of these factors among many will surface for discussion in this paper as indicated below:

The issue of ineffective policing remains one of the major drivers of insecurity in Nigeria. This situation results in the growth of the culture of impunity and absence of risk to perpetrators of violent crimes

The frequent and persistent ethnic conflicts and religious clashes between the two dominant religions (Islam and Christianity) is a major security challenge that confronts Nigeria.

Poverty and Unemployment: This is one of the factors responsible for insecurity.

The attitudinal behavior of our leaders both physical and temporal

Corruption: Corruption is a form of dishonest behavior that has a big impact on everyone. It occurs when an entrusted entity abuses its position of power for its own benefit. Corruption can come in many forms including bribes, double-dealing, and fraud by individuals, businesses, and governments. This has the order of the day in Nigeria.

Abuse of drugs by the youths: Drug abuse and drug menace is the illicit, non-medical use of limited number of substances, most of drugs which have the properties of altering the mental state of a being in ways that are considered by social norms and defined by statute to be inappropriate, undesirable, harmful threatening to the life of the user.

Illegal possession of fire arms: In Nigeria generally, illegal possession of firearms is a serious crime with severe penalties, including imprisonment, as outlined in the Robbery and Firearms (Special Provisions) Act and the Firearms Act. The law defines possession as having control over a gun.

This can include having a firearm in your personal space, like your car or home. You don't have to own or touch the firearm to be in possession. The legal definition also considers your ability to access the firearm. Whenever one is in possession, one might be tempted to use it to cause insecurity and thievery.

Poor parenting: Poor parenting, encompassing actions or neglect that harm a child's development and well-being, can manifest in various ways, including emotional abuse, neglect, and physical harm, leading to negative long-term consequences.

What constitutes poor parenting among others include: Physical, emotional, and sexual abuse and neglect: These are the most serious forms of bad parenting, causing severe and lasting damage. Also, lack of supervision and inconsistent discipline: Failing to monitor a child's behavior and provide guidance can lead to risky situations and behavioral problems.

Prioritizing parental needs over a child's: Parents who neglect their children's needs or use them for their own gain are engaging in poor parenting practices.

Demanding blind obedience and using intimidation: This stifles a child's development of critical thinking and healthy emotional regulation.

Withholding affection and support: A lack of emotional connection and encouragement can negatively impact a child's self-esteem and social skills.

Comparing a child to others: This can damage a child's self-worth and lead to feelings of inadequacy.

Reprimanding a child excessively or in public: This can be damaging to a child's self-confidence and create a fear of making mistakes.

Uninvolved parenting (neglectful parenting): This style is characterized by a lack of responsiveness to a child's needs and demands.

Influence of peer group: Peer group influence, particularly during

adolescence, significantly shapes behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs, impacting everything from academic choices to risky behaviors, and can be both positive and negative.

All these are also ways by which insecurity can be driven into lives of the citizen.

THE ROLES OF SECURITY AGENTS

In Nigeria, the Nigerian Police Force is the primary agency responsible for maintaining law and order, preventing and detecting crime, and protecting life and property. Other security agencies, like the State Security Service (SSS), Defence Intelligence Agency, and National Intelligence Agency, play crucial roles in internal security, counter-terrorism, and intelligence gathering, both within and outside Nigeria. The Nigerian Constitution also empowers the military to support civilian authorities in maintaining law and order during emergencies, and to provide security for the electoral process. Security agents, whether employed by private companies or government agencies, play a crucial role in protecting people, property, and assets by monitoring, patrolling, and responding to threats and emergencies Etuk (2018) posits that one important strategy of violent crime control that has received global recognition is the “stop and search”. This strategy is also documented by Karn (2013) cited in Etuk (2018) observed that stop and search enables the police to allay or confirm suspicions about individuals and detect those suspected of carrying weapons, stolen goods or being equipped for stealing. The Police argue that the use of stop and search strategy disrupts and deters criminal activity, rather than simply detecting it (The Police Foundation, 2012)

Another strategy common to security agencies is patrol. Patrol is typically the largest function in police agencies around the world, and the majority of officers tend to be assigned to general service duties (Bayley, 1992 cited in Telep et al., 2016).

Recently and some years back, it has become increasingly recognized that police agencies can have a beneficial impact on crime and disorder (Lum et al., 2011 cited in Telep et al., 2016). Police patrol officers have likely played a major role in police efforts to effectively address crime as these officers

make up a substantial portion of police resources and are on the front lines responding to crime and citizen concerns on a daily basis. A statement by the Nigeria Police Force spokesman, CSP Jimoh Moshood in Abuja, said that the Inspector General of Police (IGP), Ibrahim Idris directed immediate commencement of stop and search operations across the country to prevent crimes and criminality throughout the yuletide and as well directed all State Police Commands across the country to beef security at flash points, black spots and vulnerable points on major roads and highways across the country. He warned that in order to ensure free flow of traffic and ease movement of travelers, the operation should not be located at areas susceptible to traffic gridlock or vehicular hold-ups (Ikeji, 2017).

However, there are hindrances to security agencies in curbing violent crimes despite all the afore-mentioned roles of the security agents. The government's ineptitude and laxity in dealing with security challenges has posed a problem for the security forces in discharging their duties. Nigeria's borders are porous thereby making it possible for infiltration of mercenaries and arms proliferation into the country. Nigerian security forces are finding it difficult to end insecurity in the country. This was evidenced when almost 400 Nigerian Army personnel detailed to fight Boko Haram in Borno State resigned their appointments under the guise of tactical withdrawal. This has been attributed to lack of training and lack of modern fighting equipment. The Nigerian military has admitted that hundreds of government troops fled from heavy fighting with Boko Haram, but said their apparent escape to neighbouring Cameroon was a "tactical manoeuvre" (Nnenah, 2014 cited in Onyepuemu, 2015). Omotosho and Aderinto (2012) believe that no matter what the effort by the Nigeria Police cannot control crime in society because of inadequacies within the force. Most especially in terms of manpower and training, weapons, technological advancement and other challenges affecting their performance.

Nigeria security challenges impact on sustainable growth and development. Security challenges in any nation constitute threat to lives and properties, hinder business activities and discourage local and foreign investors which invariably slow down economic growth and development.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The finding revealed that the causes of insecurity are the menace of unemployment and poverty, elite exploitation of ethnicity and religious differences, corruption, weak security apparatus, porous border, marginalization and inequality in the country, and bad governance and poor leadership.

Job Creation: As unemployment rate rises so also is the increase in violence and crime making the country insecure. This has been identified by scholars and leaders alike. Also an insecure environment will definitely result in job lose. Government should therefore tackle and arrest youth restiveness by investing on job creation.

Justice Dispensation: The Punch Editorial of July 13th 2011 made a very frantic opinion on the idea of fighting insecurity in Nigeria. In the fight against corruption in the public service and against cultism in the tertiary institutions, the anti-craft agencies and university authorities have often been up against a brick wall in the courts. The courts have been repeatedly blamed for frustrating justice delivery through all manners of injunctions, expert orders, and in some cases, outright acquittals. On this problem, I strongly recommend that the government should through the justice ministry check these excesses and discipline any judge found to collaborate with criminals to stall justice dispensation

Provision of Basic Needs of the Citizens: The basic goals of any civilized society are the survival of security of life and property. These basic goals are not negotiable, no matter who wins or loss in election. Therefore, the ordinary Nigerians must be given protection at all cost through appropriate information, education, mobilization, job opportunity, pressure group formation and legal requirements in our democratic politics.

References

- Abimbola, J. & Adesote, A. (2012). Domestic Terrorism and Boko Haram Insurgency, Issues and trends. Ibadan: Cenren Publications.
- International conference on the Korea Economy 1945-1995. Korea Development Institute, Seoul, December, pp 9-10.

<https://budgit.org/nigerias-rising-insecurity-implications-for-the-nigerian-economy/>

- Achumba. (2013). Securities Challenges in Nigeria and the Implications for Business Activities and Sustainable Development. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, 4(2), 79-99.
- Alabi, M. S. (2020). Security agencies and their primary duties. <https://classbasic.com/2020/09/17/security-agencies-and-their-primary-duties-primary-3/> (Retrieved on 22nd April, 2021).
- Alemika, E. E. O. (1999). Police community relation in Nigeria; what went wrong? Centre for Law Enforcement Education Foundation, Lagos.
- Amsel, A. (1962). Frustrative nonreward in partial reinforcement and discrimination learning: Some recent history and a theoretical extension. *Psychological Review*, 69(4), 306-328.
- Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2002). Human aggression. *Annual review of psychology*, 53(1), 27-51.
- Berkowitz, L. (1958). The expression and reduction of hostility. *Psychological Bulletin*, 55(5), 257.
- Berkowitz, L. (1989). Frustration-aggression hypothesis: examination and reformulation. *Psychological bulletin*, 106(1), 59.
- Berkowitz, L. (1990). On the formation and regulation of anger and aggression: A cognitive-neoassociationistic analysis. *American Psychologist*, 45(4), 494.
- Bettencourt, B., & Miller, N. (1996). Gender differences in aggression as a function of provocation: a meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, 119(3), 422.
- Breuer, J., Scharkow, M., & Quandt, T. (2015). Sore losers? A reexamination of the frustration-aggression hypothesis for colocated video game play. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture*, 4(2), 126.
- Berkowitz, L. (1988). Frustrations, appraisals, and aversively stimulated aggression. *Aggressive behavior*, 14(1), 3-11.
- Beland, D. (2005). The Political Construction of Collective Insecurity: From Moral Panic to Blame Avoidance and Organized Irresponsibility. Center for European Studies, Working Paper Series 126.

- Chandler, D. (2007). The Security-Development Nexus and the Rise of Anti-Foreign Policy. *Journal of International Relations and Development*, 10, 362-386.
- Clark, R. V. (1980). Situational crime prevention: theory and practice. *British Journal of Criminology*, 20(2): 136-147.
- Deutsch, M. (1949). An experimental study of the effects of co-operation and competition upon group process. *Human Relations*, 2(3), 199-231. doi:10.1177/001872674900200301
- Dill, J. C., & Anderson, C. A. (1995). Effects of frustration justification on hostile aggression. *Aggressive Behavior*, 21(5), 359-369.
- Dollard, J., Miller, N. E., Doob, L. W., Mowrer, O. H., & Sears, R. R. (1939). Frustration and aggression.
- Geen, R. G. (1968). Effects of frustration, attack, and prior training in aggressiveness upon aggressive behavior. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 9(4), 316.
- Ehigiamusoen & Ogbonnaya. (2013). Militancy and Bokoharam Insurgency: National Security in Nigeria, Global Security studies. National Institute for Legislative Studies.
- Ewetan.o., & Ese. (2014). Insecurity and Socio-Economic Development in Nigeria. *Journal of Sustainable Development Studies*.
https://www.igi-global.com/dictionary/resilience-psychomotricity-preschool-education/7407#google_vignette
- Justice Chidi (2014). Kidnapping in Nigeria: An Emerging Social Crime and Implication for the Labour Market. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*.
- Kelechi. O. (2010). National Insecurity in Nigeria: Issues and Challenges for Human Capital. Enugu: A Paper Presented at the Annual Lit Organization.
- Kenechukwu, O. (2012). Trends in criminal activities in Enugu state: a ten year empirical evaluation (2000-2009). A dissertation presented to the Institute for Development Studies. University of Nigeria (UNN), Enugu.
- Magahy, B., Scott, D. and Mark P. M. (2009). Defence Corruption Risk in Sub-Saharan Africa: An analysis of data relating corruption in defence establishments to development outcomes, Transparency International UK.
- Moshood, J. O. (2017). Christmas: Police beef up security nationwide.

- Nigeria Police Force, Force Headquarters Abuja. https://npf.gov.ng/information/pressdetails.php?news_id=293 (Retrieved on 23rd September, 2019).
- Odey, P. (2019, January 26). Tricycle operator remanded for allegedly defiling 10-year-old girl. <https://punchng.com/tricycle-operator-remanded-for-allegedly-defiling-10-year-old-girl/> (Retrieved on 23rd September, 2024).
- Oguntunde, P. E., Ojo, O. O., Okagbue, H. I. and Oguntunde, O. A. (2018). Analysis of selected crime data in Nigeria. *Science Direct Journal*, 19: 1242-1249.
- The Nigeria Police Force (2008). Annual report of the Nigeria Police Force, @008. Ikeja, „F“ Department of the Nigeria Police.
- The Police Foundation (2012). The briefing: stop and search. <http://www.london.gov.uk> (Retrieved on 23rd September, 2024).
- Transparency International (2010). Global corruption barometer. <http://www.transparency.org/policyresearch/surveysindices/gcb/2010> (Retrieved on 24th September, 2019).
- Ukoji, V. N. and Okolie-Osemene, J. (2016). A study of crime reporting in Nigeria, 17p. <http://www.nigeriawatch.org.>html> (Retrieved on 20th December, 2024).
- Ukpong, C. (2020, December 11). Akwa Ibom govt reacts to reports of robbery attack in Government House. <https://www.premiumtimesng.com/regional/south-south-regional/430695-akwa-ibom-govt-reacts-to-reports-of-robbery-attack-in-government-house.html>
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2010). The Handbook on the Crime Prevention Guidelines https://www.unodc.org/pdf/criminal_justice/Handbook_on_Crime_Prevention_Guidelines_Making_them_work.pdf (Retrieved on 20th December, 2024).
- Wilson, J. Q. (1983). Crime and the family. *Crime and Public Policy*, 53-68p.
- Woody, C. (2019). These were the 50 most violent cities in the world in 2018. <http://www.businessinsider.com> (Retrieved on 20th December, 2024).

Government Expenditure, Growth and Governance Institutions in Nigerian Fourth Republic

By

Idowu, Omowumi O.¹, Idowu, Olusegun O.², & Akode, T. O.³

^{1,3}*Department of Economics*

Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti, Nigeria.

²*Department of Intelligence and Security Studies*

Afe Babalola University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria.

Correspondence - E-mail: omowumi.idowu@eksu.edu.ng;

talk2wummie@yahoo.com

Tel: +2348038851007

Abstract

Nigeria has witnessed different phases of government, from the First Republic to the Fourth Republic and this goes with different government policies and attendant costs. This study analyzed the relationship between government expenditure, economic growth, and governance in Nigeria. It examined trends in government revenue and expenditure over the years and ascertained the impact of government expenditure and governance on economic growth (before the Fourth Republic (1963-1998) and in the Fourth Republic (1999-2023). Data was collected from the Nigeria Central Bank Statistical Bulletin and the World Development Indicators, and analyzed with the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and Autoregressive Distributive Lags. The result showed that there is no long-run relationship between economic growth, government expenditure, and governance institutions for the period before the Fourth Republic. One, while the short-run estimate for the period before the Fourth Republic (1963-1998) showed that government expenditure was significant and positively impacted growth, the result from the Fourth Republic (1999-2023) showed that government expenditure was negative and insignificant. Two, the impact of governance was positive but insignificant in the period before the Fourth Republic, while governance was significant and negatively impacted growth in the Fourth Republic.

Government should improve on its institutions and ensure effective and proper implementations of funds.

Keywords: Government Expenditure, Growth, Nigerian Fourth Republic

1.0 Introduction

There is no consensus in the literature on the relationship between government expenditure and economic growth. On one hand, Wagner's theory sees government expenditure as an endogenous variable, driven by the national income, and the theory establishes that the causality direction flows from economic growth to government expenditure. On the other hand, public expenditure by the Keynesian school is an exogenous variable that affects economic growth, whose causality direction runs from government expenditure to economic growth. Following the Keynesian point of view, government expenditure is considered an important policy variable to ensure economic growth. An increase in government expenditure increases productivity and profit, and this leads to an increase in aggregate demand and consequently economic growth. Also, the government expends money to (i) supply social goods that cannot be provided by the private sector such as defense, bridges, and roads (ii) improve labour productivity through spending on education and training (iii). Provide subsidies to industries that may need support in their operation or expansion (iv) to ensure redistribution of income and promotion of social welfare. These expenditures are financed majorly from revenue from taxes and borrowings.

Moreover, it is widely believed that government and governance processes act as catalysts for change. Governments lead and establish the requisite structure needed to protect, provide for their people, and ensure sustainable development (Banerji and Sharma, 2022). Governance is a means through which sustainability and sustainable development can be achieved. Governance sustainability encompasses the systems and processes used in governance. It relies on good government. Sustainability can be achieved through how the government carries out its activities and achieving sustainability in the country requires effective

governance that would facilitate decision-making and ensures long-term impacts of government actions and policies on its citizenry. Sustainability thrives more when there are strong governance institutions or structures in place. No government can succeed if there is no bond between the governed and those that govern. These relationships are seen in the country's rule of law, government effectiveness, voice and accountability, control of corruption, regulatory quality, political stability, and absence of terrorism/violence (World Development Indicators Database, 2023). They are indicators of good governance and they are otherwise known as governance indicators.

In recent times, Nigeria has experienced an increase in its expenditure yet the economy faces various challenges. These include inflation, over-dependence on oil, population increase, unemployment, and unprecedented security challenges ranging from kidnapping for ransom, Boko-Haram terrorist attacks, and the Fulani-Herders farmers crisis. In addition, the nation has witnessed different phases of government, from the First Republic to the Fourth Republic and this goes with different government policies and attendant costs. Hence, this study looks at how government expenditure and revenue have increased over the years, with a special focus on the Fourth Republic.

While this study looks at the impact of government expenditure on economic growth before the Fourth republic and in the Fourth republic, it contributes to existing literature in the following ways. First, it uses data to show the relationship among government expenditure, growth, and governance indicators using a correlation matrix. Second, it examines the impact of government expenditure on economic growth before the Fourth Republic and in the Fourth Republic of Nigeria. It also investigates if government expenditure translates to growth in Nigeria for the periods under study. It is expected that findings from this study will serve policy statements for government and policymakers in achieving sustainable democracy.

The paper is divided as follows; section one is the introduction, and section two deals with literature review (theoretical and empirical reviews). Also, section three looks at trends in government size before and

during the Fourth Republic. Section four presents methodology and data analysis, which are done in achieving the aforementioned objectives. Thereafter, discussion of findings from analysis. The fifth section is made up of the conclusion and policy recommendations.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Review

Rostow and Musgrave's theory believed that in the early stage of development, government investment in infrastructure facilities as a fraction of total investment is high. This is because government investment expenditure is necessary to gear up the economy to take off into the middle stage of economic and social development. They believed that over the development period public expenditure shifts from infrastructural facilities to expenditure on health, education, and welfare services. However, the earliest theory on government expenditure is the one by Adolph Wagner popularly known as Wagner's law. This is known as the law of increasing expansion of public and state activities. Wagner's law is a growth-led government expenditure theory (demand-following-response). It states that as the economy grows, the relative size of the public sector (expenditure) will also grow. Wagner believed that social progress leads to increasing activity with a resultant increase in government expenditure. There is an increase in the proportion of government expenditure to national income as per capita income increases. It is the outcome of growing administrative and protective actions of the government in response to more complex legal and economic relations, increased urbanization, and increased cultural and welfare expenditures. In addition to this, is the decentralization of administration and the rise in local bodies' expenditures. The Keynesian approach is an expenditure-led government expenditure theory. An increase in government expenditure increases economic growth through expansionary fiscal policy. As government size increases, production capacity also increases as well as aggregate demand, consequently leading to an increase in economic growth. In this vein, government expenditure is positively related to economic growth.

Another theory of interest is the Peacock-Wiseman Hypothesis, otherwise

known as the displacement effect hypothesis. This was developed by two British economists; Peacock Alan and Wiseman Jack. They thought that a social upheaval like war and natural calamities like famine and drought lead to a permanent upward shift in a way that when things are back to normal, the level assumed will not be the same as the pre-upheaval level. This upward change is referred to as the “displacement effect hypothesis”. This is because these events create new demands on government all leading to maintaining the level of expenditure after social upheavals.

2.2 Empirical Literature

(a). Government expenditure and Growth

Nyasha and Odhiambo (2019) reviewed the relationship between government size (government expenditure) and economic growth ranging from growth-led government expenditure (Wagner's law) to expenditure-led growth government expenditure (Keynesian view). While there were also studies that showed a bi-directional relationship between government expenditure and growth, some studies do not reveal any relationship between growth and government expenditure. Nyasha and Odhiambo concluded that there was no clear-cut relationship between government size and growth. Aluthge, Jibir, and Abdu (2021) used autoregressive distributive lags to analyze the impact of government expenditure on economic growth in Nigeria from 1970 to 2019. The study revealed a positive relationship between capital expenditure and economic growth both in the short and long-run while there was no significant relationship between government recurrent expenditure and economic growth. In contrast to this, a study on the influence of government spending on economic growth in Nigeria from 1981 to 2021 by Udonwa and Effiong (2023) tested the neutrality and non-neutrality of recurrent expenditure. It achieved this by investigating the effects of different government expenditures on monetary policy. Results showed that recurrent expenditure positively impacted growth in Nigeria in the short-run but not significantly in the long-run. Ajayi and Nwogu (2023) investigated the effects of government expenditure on economic growth in Nigeria using the Auto-Regressive Distributive Lag (ARDL) estimation technique for the data between 1985 and 2020. The result from the study showed that there was no significant relationship between government

capital expenditure and growth in Nigeria for the period under study. In line with this, Ndanshau and Mdadila (2023) discovered an insignificant relationship between government size and economic growth nexus in Tanzania for the data between 1967 and 2020. The results from the error correction model showed that government expenditure which was proxied by the ratio of government consumption expenditure to GDP has a negative and insignificant impact on Tanzania's economic growth. Similarly, Buthelezi (2023) studied the long-run impact of government expenditure on economic growth in different states of South Africa. The study used the Vector Error Correction (VEC) model for the data between 1994 and 2021 and discovered that government expenditure was detrimental to growth in these South African states and for the period under study. Another study on the effects of disaggregated government expenditure on economic growth was done in Nigeria by Okonkwo et al (2023) from 1981 to 2021. The study showed a strong and positive impact of government administrative and economic expenditure on Nigeria's economic growth.

(b). Government expenditure, Governance and Growth

Cooray (2009) investigated government expenditure, governance, and economic growth by extending the neo-classical theory of production function in 71 economies. It did this by incorporating two dimensions of the government; size and quality. While government size was proxied by government expenditure, government quality was proxied by governance. Findings revealed that both government size and quality are important factors for economic growth. In addition, Wardhani, Rossieta, and Martani (2017) studied the link between public spending, good governance, and its outcomes, measured by local government performance. It achieved this by looking at the effect of public spending and good governance on local government performance and whether good governance can strengthen the effects of government spending on performance. The study used 1044 observations from local governments in Indonesia from 2009 to 2012. Results obtained revealed a negative impact of government spending on local government performance. Meanwhile, the effect of corruption on economic growth was carried out by Klaus and Niklas (2019) in 175 countries. The importance of this study was drawn from the fact that it used Corruption Perception index (CPI) from 2012 to 2018 as against the

non-comparability of data before 2012 as used by previous studies. The study found that corruption negatively impacted growth through a decrease in foreign direct investment and an increase in inflation.

Moreover, Vajrapatkul (2021) investigated the linkage between government expenditure and growth in 10 ASEAN countries from 1996 to 2018. Results from the fixed effects panel analysis revealed that control of corruption and accountability were positively linked to economic growth, however, regulatory quality was negatively linked to growth. This finding contradicts the findings of Klaus and Niklas (2019). In the same vein, Bai, Jayachandran, Malesky, and Olken (2013) confirmed that economic growth leads to lower corruption. The study investigated whether economic growth reduces corruption in Vietnam by conducting a cross-heterogeneity in the growth rate within Vietnam. However, Emera, and I-Ming (2016) studied the impact of governance on economic growth in 21 MENA countries. The study developed a composite governance index that summarized all the six world governance indicators using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) method. It was observed that the majority of MENA countries achieved a fragile level of growth that has no link with good governance. On the other hand, Mumuni and Njong (2023) examined the impact of public sector spending and governance on economic growth in sub-Saharan African countries. It looked at the role of governance in the causal relationship between government spending and economic growth in SSA. While using the Panel Corrected Standard Error (PCSE) estimation technique for the data between 2002 and 2020, the study discovered that government expenditure did not yield the needed growth outcome. Also, the effect of government education expenditure was insignificant to stimulate growth, while health expenditure was growth-inhibiting. On the other hand, government effectiveness, rule of law, political stability, and absence of terrorism were growth-enhancing for SSA. Hence, good governance can stimulate public sector spending to achieve growth. In line with this, Lopes, Packham, and Walther (2023) studied the effects of governance quality on future economic growth by testing the influence of the six world governance indicators on emerging and developed countries. The emerging economies were five emerging markets popularly known as BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa) and three advanced economies, the United States of America, Germany,

and Japan. The study showed that regulatory quality and the rule of law showed positive and negative impacts on economic growth respectively.

3.0 Brief History and Trends in Government Expenditure in Nigeria

Total expenditure is the sum of capital expenditure, recurrent expenditure, and transfer payment (CBN Statistical Bulletin, 2022). Recurrent expenditure includes interest on debt service, other transfer, and extra-budgetary items, while capital expenditure and transfer payment include capital repayment on debt service, other transfers, and net lending. This section looks at the trends in government expenditure from 1981 to 2022 with data from the Central Bank of Nigeria statistical bulletin and Public Finance Statistics. There are 4 republics in the history of governance in Nigeria. Nigeria became a republic in 1963 with Abubakar Tafawa Balewa as the prime minister or head of government until 1966. There was a crisis after the death of Tafawa Balewa in 1966. There was a short formation of Nigerian states which succeeded the military governments formed after the overthrow of the first republic. This period constituted the second republic, 1979-1983. The third republic was the period between 1990 and 1993. Both the second and third republics were interjected and truncated by military coups. The third republic was truncated by the annulment of the June 12 1993 presidential election. This led to an interim national government which was topped by a coup by General Sanni Abacha in 1993. The Fourth Republic commenced on May 29th, 1999 after a successful election in the same year. Since the 1999 election, there have not been any military interventions against what is happening in neighboring countries like Guinea-Bissau, Niger and Mali. There have been successful general elections in 1999, 2003, 2007, 2011, 2015, 2019, and 2023, making the seventh (7) general elections in the Fourth Republic.

This study could not access data between 1960 and 1978. The second republic which represents the period between 1979 and 1983 was governed by President Shehu Shagari. The last three years of this period revealed a budget surplus except for 1982 which had a deficit of N0.4895billion. This was also accompanied by years of budget deficits in 1986 and 1988 which was due to a high rate of inflation despite the introduction of a structural adjustment programme. Also, the growth in

fiscal deficit was enormous during the SAP years (1986-1994) except in 1987. Inflation did not abate during the stabilization and SAP periods as it permanently maintained two digits. In addition to this are factors such as decreasing oil revenue, rising unemployment, disequilibrium in the balance of payment e.t. c

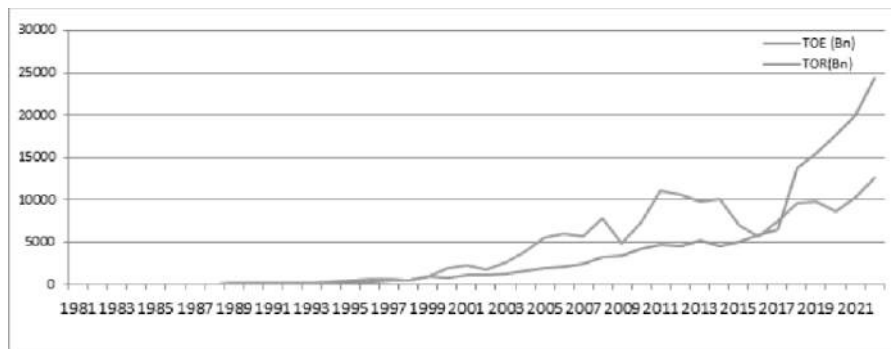


Figure 1: Trends in Government Revenue and Expenditure (1981-2022)

The present Fourth Republic started in 1999 with a total revenue of 949.19 billion and a total expenditure of 947.69 (representing a budget surplus of 1.498 billion). Since then, there has been persistent (though unstable) improvement in government revenue over its expenditure. However, in 2016 there was a drastic fall in government from about N6.912 trillion in 2015 to N5.62 trillion, while government expenditure increased from about N5.0 trillion in 2015 to N5.9 trillion in 2016. This brought about a deficit of N242.2 billion. There was an improvement in government revenue in 2017 to N7.4 trillion leading to a budget surplus of N988 billion. Unfortunately from 2018 to 2022 Nigeria government has been running on deficit.

Table 1: Development in Government Budget (Gap) in the Fourth Republic

Year	Total Revenue (Billion N)	Total Expenditure (Billion N)	Gap
1999	949.1879	947.69	1.4979
2000	1906.16	701.0509	1205.109
2001	2231.6	1017.997	1213.604
2002	1731.838	1018.178	713.6594
2003	2575.096	1225.988	1349.108
2004	3920.5	1504.2	2416.3
2005	5547.5	1919.7	3627.8
2006	5965.102	2038	3927.102
2007	5727.51	2450.897	3276.613
2008	7866.6	3240.82	4625.78
2009	4844.592	3452.991	1391.602
2010	7303.672	4194.577	3109.095
2011	11116.85	4712.062	6404.785
2012	10654.75	4605.3	6049.447
2013	9759.794	5185.318	4574.475
2014	10068.85	4587.385	5481.467
2015	6912.502	4988.864	1923.637
2016	5616.4	5858.558	-242.158
2017	7444.822	6456.698	988.1247
2018	9544.317	13786.94	-4242.62
2019	9819.844	15535.54	-5715.69
2020	8569.223	17557.4	-8988.17
2021	10342.98	19965.04	-9622.06
2022	12586.53	24431.21	-11844.7

Source: Author's (2024)

Government expenditure has been skyrocketing on one hand, from N6,456.698 billion in 2017 to N24,431.21 billion in 2022 (about 278 percent growth). On the other hand, government revenue has been sluggishly increasing with a growth rate of 69.1 percent between 2017 and 2022, from N7444.822 billion to N12586.53 billion. In 2022, Nigeria's total expenditure was about N24.4 trillion (CBN, 2022). With a total

revenue of N12.6 trillion, there was a deficit of 11.84 trillion, which represents about 23.1 percent growth in the budget deficit (from 9.62 trillion in 2021 to 11.84 trillion in 2022).

Government expenditure increased more in the Fourth Republic owing to the high cost of governance. Other factors include inflation, increase in public debt, population, tax revenue e.t.c

Descriptive Analysis of Government Expenditure in the Fourth Republic

This section presents the descriptive statistics of disaggregated government expenditure in Nigeria as depicted in Table 2. Data were collected from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin (2022) and presented from 2000 to 2022 (since the Fourth Republic started in 1999) and with an interval of 8 years. In disaggregated form, government expenditures both in capital and recurrent are expenses on administration, social and community services, economic services, and transfers.

In 2000 total capital expenditure was 234.45 billion naira, out of which almost half (47.6 percent) was expended on economic services. Economic services include expenditure on agriculture, roads and construction, transport and communication, and other economic services. This was followed by administration expenses, 22.8 percent of total capital expenditure for the year 2000. It includes capital expenses on general administration, defense, internal security, and national assembly. Transfer capital expenditures amounted to 46.70 billion naira. On the other hand, expenditure on health, education, and other social community services was 11.9 percent of total capital expenditure.

Table 2: Disaggregated Government Expenditure in the Fourth Republic.

Capital Expenditure in Fourth Republic (Billion N)					
	2000	2008	2016	2022	% change
Administration	53.28	287.10	147.72	789.81	1382.4
Social and community services	27.97	152.17	68.80	377.26	1248.8
Economic services	111.51	504.29	278.95	1369.66	1128.3
Transfers	46.70	17.33	158.14	597.09	1178.6
Total	239.45	960.89	653.61	3133.82	1208.8

Recurrent Expenditure in Fourth Republic (Billion N)					
	2000	2008	2016	2022	% change
Administration	144.53	731.02	1277.00	2456.33	1600
Social and community services	84.79	332.93	775.55	1628.99	1821
Economic services	28.59	313.75	255.78	561.08	1863
Transfers	203.69	739.66	1851.77	6355.90	3020
Total	461.60	2117.36	4160.11	11002.31	2283.5

Source: Author's (2024)

While expenditures on administration, social and community services, and economic services increased in 2008 from what they were in 2000, expenditures on transfers fell from 46.70 billion naira to 17.33 billion naira. More importantly, capital expenditure declined between 2008 and 2016 due to the global economic and financial crisis from mid-2007 to early 2009. However, in 2016 transfers' expenditures increased by about 800 percent, and other expenditures were reduced by about half. By 2022 there were huge increases in all expenses. Much as there was about a 1208.8 percent increase in capital expenditure from 2000 to 2022, expenditure on administration increased greatly from 53.28 billion naira in 2000 to 789.81 billion naira in 2022 (this represents about a 1382.4 percent change).

On the other hand, under recurrent expenditure, all expenses increased tremendously from 2000 to 2022. Transfers recurrent expenditure which has the highest proportion of expenditure in all these years are expenses on both domestic and international debt servicing, pension and gratuities, federal capital territory, contingencies, subventions, and others. It increased from 203.69 billion naira to 6355.90 billion naira. As of 2022, it represents about 57.8 percent of the total recurrent expenditure. This is followed by administration, 22.3 percent of recurrent expenditure in 2022.

In summary, the widening gap between capital and recurrent expenditure is a thing of concern. Recurrent expenditure is increasing continuously as against the capital expenditure and its poor efficiency in the development of the Nigerian economy. These trends in expenditures have resulted in slower growth due to slow progress in infrastructural development needed for inclusive growth and overall development of the country.

4.0 Methodology

4.1 Model Specification

Following the Keynesian expenditure theory, this study expresses economic growth (GDPg) as a function of government expenditure growth.

$$\text{GDPg} = f(\text{GEG}) \dots\dots\dots 1$$

It then includes governance institutions and other controlling variables.

The functional relationship used for this study is specified below:

$$\text{GDPg} = f(\text{GEG}, \text{GII}, \text{GDPPg}, \text{INF}, \text{EDU}, \text{EXTg}) \dots\dots\dots 2$$

The model expressed in linear econometric form is specified below:

$$\text{GDPg}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{GEG}_t + \beta_2 \text{GII}_t + \beta_3 \text{GDPPg}_t + \beta_4 \text{INF}_t + \beta_5 \text{EDU}_t + \beta_6 \text{EXTg}_t + \mu_t \dots\dots\dots 3$$

Where GDPg is gross domestic product growth which is a proxy for economic growth, GEG indicates government expenditure growth, GII is the governance indicator index. The Governance Indicator Index (GII) was computed using Principal Component Analysis (PCA), a statistical tool for data reduction. A PCA was constructed based on six (6) governance indicators: rule of law, regulatory quality, government effectiveness, voice and accountability, control of corruption and political stability, and absence of terrorism/violence. GDPPg refers to GDP per capita growth, INF is inflation, EDU is secondary education enrolment, and EXTg is the external debt growth. β_0 is the intercept, β_i ($i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$) are the partial regression coefficients and μ stochastic or random term which is introduced to take care of the economic growth problems that are not included in the model of this research work. The apriori theoretical expectations about the signs of the estimates of the model parameters are β_i ($i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 5$) > 0 ; $\beta_4 < 0$; $\beta_6 < \text{or} > 0$; $\mu = 0$.

4.2 Description of Variables

Table 3: Measurement and Definition of Variables

Variable	Proxy	Definition	Source of Data
Governance Institutions	Governance Index	The governance index was achieved by computing an index (using Principal Component Analysis) of all six (6) governance Indicators by the World Global Index. They are rule of law, control of corruption, regulatory quality, voice and accountability, government effectiveness and political stability, and absence of terrorism or violence	Detailed documentation of the World Global Index, available at www.govindicators.org World Development Indicators World Bank Data Bank
Growth	GDP growth (annual %)	GDP is the total value added by all resident producers in the economy in addition to taxes but excludes subsidies in the value of the products.	World Development Indicators, World Bank Data Bank.
Government Expenditure	Government Expenditure growth (annual %)	This is the summation of the government's capital, recurrent and transfers for a year. Growth rate = $\frac{GE_{new} - GE_{old}}{GE_{old}} \times \frac{100}{1}$	CBN Statistical Bulletin 2022.
External debt	External debt growth (annual %)	This includes borrowings from multilateral corporation, Paris club, London, promissory notes, bilateral, Euro bond, diaspora bonds. and others. Growth rate = $\frac{EXTDEBT_{new} - EXTDEBT_{old}}{EXTDEBT_{old}} \times \frac{100}{1}$	CBN Statistical Bulletin 2022.
GDPPG	GDP per capita growth (annual %)	GDP per capita is the income per head in a country. It is a measure of a country's standard of living. It is calculated by dividing the gross domestic product by midyear population	World Development Indicators, World Bank Data Bank.
Secondary Education Enrolment	School enrollment, secondary (% gross)	Gross enrollment ratio is the proportion of total enrollment to population of the age group that officially corresponds to the level of education shown (regardless of age).	UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)
Inflation	Inflation, consumer prices (annual %)	This is the measured by the consumer price index that reflects the annual percentage change in the cost to average consumer of acquiring a basket of goods and services that may be fixed or changed per year.	International Monetary Fund, International Financial Statistics and data files.

Source: Author's (2024)

Objective One: Relationships among Governance, Government Expenditure and Growth

Table 4 explains the relationships among variables of interest; governance indicator index (GI), GDP growth (GDPg), Government expenditure growth rate (GEg), domestic debt growth (DODEBTg), External Debt growth (EXTDEBTg), GDP per capita growth (GDPPg), inflation (INF) and secondary education enrollment (SEE).

Table 4: Correlation Matrix

BEFORE THE FOURTH REPUBLIC (1963-1998)							
	GDPG	GEG	GII	GDPPG	EDU	INF	EXTG
GDPG	1.0000						
GEG	0.2318	1.0000					
GII	-0.2139	-0.1133	1.0000				
GDPPG	0.9639***	0.23	-0.1181	1.0000			
EDU	-0.0695	-0.1688	0.25	-0.2007	1.0000		
INF	-0.0164	0.1847	0.4772** *	-0.1691	-0.0361	1.0000	
EXTG	-0.2715	-0.1755	0.2229	-0.3455**	0.4524	-0.0063	1.0000
DURING THE FOURTH REPUBLIC (1999-2023)							
	GDPG	GEG	GII	GDPPG	EDU	INF	EXTG
GDPG	1.0000						
GEG	-0.2225	1.0000					
GII	-0.3819	-0.3770	1.0000				
GDPPG	0.9982***	-0.2264	-0.3734	1.0000			
EDU	0.1111	-0.2380	0.2735	0.0895	1.0000		
INF	-0.1032	0.1751	-0.1167	-0.0727	-0.3948	1.0000	
EXTG	-0.4046**	0.6455***	-0.2200	-0.4073**	-0.1782	-0.0563	1.0000

Source: Author's (2024)

Results from correlation matrix before the Fourth Republic shows that at 1 percent level of significant, GDP per capita growth rate (GDPPg) has a strong positive and significant relationship with economic growth (GDPg). Also, there is a negative but weak relationship between external debt growth rate (EXTg) and GDP per capita growth rate GDPPg. In addition, inflation (INF) shows a mild negative relationship with governance indicators (GII) at a 5 percent level of significance.

Likewise, there is a strong positive and significant relationship between GDP per capita growth rate GDPPg and economic growth GDPg during the Fourth Republic (1999-2023). At a 5 percent level of significant external debt growth rate has a significant and mild negative relationship with economic growth (GDPg) and growth rate in GDP per capita (GDPPg). Meanwhile, at 1 percent level of significant, external debt growth rate (EXTg) has a significant and mild positive relationship is with government expenditure growth rate (GEg).

Summary of Statistics

The summary of statistics in Table 5 shows that the external debt growth rate has the highest mean values of 37.9576 and 31.6307 in both periods (before and during the Fourth Republic). The least means are found with GDP per capita growth (GDPPg) and governance indicators (GII) of -1.1692 and 0.0000 before the Fourth Republic and during the Fourth Republic respectively. For standard deviation, external debt growth (EXTDEBTg) is relatively unstable for both periods (before and during the Fourth Republic) with a standard deviation of 64.8401 and 66.8946 respectively. This means that EXTg shows high variability across time series.

Table 5: Summary of Statistic

Before The Fourth Republic							
	GDPG	GEG	GII	GDPPG	EDU	INF	EXTG
Mean	0.6681	28.8429	-0.3297	-1.1692	7.4717	17.0971	37.9576
Std. Dev.	4.9811	34.0669	0.5793	4.9075	11.0822	20.217	64.8401
Skewness	-0.5044	0.8811	-1.1569	-1.0731	1.0053	1.2378	2.5484
Kurtosis	4.1123	3.4284	2.3418	4.6233	2.2964	3.4711	8.926
Observations	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
During The Fourth Republic							
	GDPG	GEG	GII	GDPPG	EDU	INF	EXTG
Mean	4.8719	17.7455	0	2.2053	30.8228	12.8667	31.6307
Std. Dev.	3.6644	21.8011	0.8932	3.4115	17.4085	4.5582	66.8946
Skewness	0.4728	1.4482	-0.7721	0.5387	-0.8714	0.4975	2.7426
Kurtosis	4.1261	7.7253	2.1224	4.475	2.4606	3.076	13.0158
Observations	25	25	25	25	25	25	25

Source: Author's (2024)

All variables are positively skewed before the Fourth Republic except economic growth (GDPg), governance indicators (GII), and GDP per capita growth rate (GDPPg). Likewise, governance indicators (GII) and secondary education enrolment (EDU) are the only variables that are negatively skewed during the Fourth Republic.

The kurtosis statistics of all the variables are greater than 3 except for the Governance Indicator Index (GII) and secondary education enrolment (EDU) in both periods. This indicates that the distributions of most of the

variables in both periods are thicker than the normal distribution and hence imply the presence of heterogeneity in data.

Ordinary Least Square

(A). Before the Fourth Republic

The result of the stationary test conducted on all the variables (before the Fourth Republic) using the ADF unit root test is presented in table 6. The result shows that all variables are stationary at level $I(0)$, except secondary education enrolment (EDU) and inflation (INF).

Table 6: Unit Root Test

Variables	ADF test Statistics	Critical value @ 5 percent	Prob.	Order of Integration
GDPg	-4.8589	-2.9484	0.0004	$I(0)$
GEG	-5.798	-2.9484	0.0000	$I(0)$
GDPPg	-4.8321	-2.9484	0.0004	$I(0)$
EDU	-7.5509	-2.9511	0.0000	$I(1)$
INF	-5.9156	-2.954	0.0000	$I(1)$
EXTg	-5.5685	-2.9484	0.0000	$I(0)$

Source: Author's computation (2024).

Economic growth (GDPg), Government expenditure growth rate (GEG), GDP per capita growth rate (GDPPg), and External debt growth rate (EXTg) are stationary at level $I(0)$. Secondary education enrolment (EDU) and Inflation (INF) are stationary at first difference $I(1)$.

The Impact of Government Expenditure on Economic Growth

Given the combination of $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ of GDP growth rate (GDPg), Government Expenditure growth rate (GEG), GDP per capita growth rate (GDPPg), education (EDU), inflation (INF), and External Debt growth rate (EXTg), this study proceeds by using ARDL procedures, starting with bound co-integration test for the relationship between government expenditure and economic growth in the Fourth Republic.

Table 7: ARDL Bound Cointegration test

Critical Value Bounds		
Computed-F-statistics 1.8181		
Significance	I0 Bound	I1 Bound
10%	2.12	3.23
5%	2.45	3.61
1%	3.15	4.43

Source: Author's computation (2024).

In table 7, the computed F-statistic of 1.8181 is lesser than the upper bound at 5% significant level (3.61) and also lesser than the lower bound at 5% significant value (2.45). The lower bound is represented as I_0 and the upper bound is represented as I_1 . Hence, we accept the null hypothesis that there is no co-integration that is there is no long-run relationship among variables.

Short-run Estimates of Government Expenditure and Economic Growth before the Fourth Republic

Given the absence of a long-run relationship among variables, the study proceeds in estimating the short-run estimates as presented in Table 8. The short-run autoregressive distributive lag (ARDL) result shows that there is a positive relationship between the previous year's GDP growth rate ($GDPG_{t-1}$) and the current GDP growth rate ($GDPG_t$). It implies that before the Fourth Republic, an increase in GDP growth a year before increases GDP growth in the current year. Also, the result shows that growths in current and previous government expenditures increase the GDP growth in the current year. A percent increase in the growth rates of government expenditure and one year previous year's of government expenditure increases the current GDP growth rate by 0.0009 and 0.009 respectively. In addition, a percent increase in two previous years of governance indicator index increases economic growth by 1.5569. While a percent increase in GDP per capita growth increases current GDP growth by 1.0859, a year previous year of GDP per capita decreases the current GDP growth by 0.7268.

Table 8: Short-run Estimate

Variable	Coefficient	Prob.*
GDPG(-1)	0.612215	0.0107
GDPG(-2)	0.548659	0.0641
GEG	0.009384	0.0020
GEG(-1)	0.00908	0.0315
GEG(-2)	-0.007754	0.0268
GII	0.199541	0.7108
GII(-1)	-0.624887	0.2854
GII(-2)	1.556906	0.0131
GDPPG	1.085857	0.0000
GDPPG(-1)	-0.726767	0.0033
GDPPG(-2)	-0.569874	0.0724
EDU	0.016324	0.3331
EDU(-1)	-0.0456	0.0413
INF	0.0303	0.0027
INF(-1)	-0.0339	0.0065
INF(-2)	0.0254	0.0153
EXTG	0.0013	0.6022
EXTG(-1)	-0.0044	0.0295
EXTG(-2)	-0.0036	0.0406
C	-0.1594	0.4513
R-squared	0.9978	
Adjusted R-squared	0.9947	
F-statistic	327.6991	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.0000	
Durbin-Watson stat	1.8360	

Source: Author's computation (2024).

A percent increase in a year previous of secondary education enrolment decreases the current GDP growth by 0.0456. Moreover, a percent increase in current inflation increases the current GDP growth by 0.0303 and a percent increase in a year previous of inflation decreases the current GDP growth by 0.0339. Meanwhile, current external debt growth does not impact economic growth significantly, but its previous years impact GDP growth negatively. In addition, about 99.8 percent variation in the dependent variable (GDP growth) is explained by the explanatory variables.

(B). Fourth Republic

From table 9, there is no significant relationship between economic growth and previous one year of economic growth, government expenditure growth, inflation, and education.

Table 9: Ordinary Least Square

Variable	Coefficient	Prob.
C	5.3223	0.1314
GDPG ₍₋₁₎	0.2949	0.1657
GEG	-0.0073	0.8924
GII	-2.0992	0.0324
INF	-0.1680	0.4143
EDU	0.0232	0.5653
R-squared	0.4734	
Adjusted R-squared	0.3271	
F-statistic	3.2361**	
Durbin-Watson stat	2.1578	

Source: Author's computation (2024).

Meanwhile, a significant negative relationship is discovered between economic growth and governance indicator index. A percent increase in the governance indicator index decreases the GDP growth by 2.0992. Also, about 47.3 percent variation in the dependent variable (GDP growth) is explained by the explanatory variables.

Diagnostic Tests

The results of the various diagnostic tests for both periods as shown in Table 10 show that the estimated models passed the various confirmation tests.

Table 10: Diagnostic Results

<i>Before the Fourth Republic</i>			
Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey			
F-statistic	1.899861	Prob. F(19,14)	0.1124
Obs*R-squared	24.4985	Prob. Chi-Square(19)	0.1777
Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:			
F-statistic	0.053945	Prob. F(2,12)	0.9477
Obs*R-squared	0.302964	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.8594
Ramsey RESET Test			
	Value	df	Probability
t-statistic	1.428944	13	0.1766
F-statistic	2.041880	(1, 13)	0.1766
<i>The Fourth Republic</i>			
Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey			
F-statistic	0.7906	Prob. F(5, 18)	0.5701
Obs*R-squared	4.3218	Prob. Chi-Square(5)	0.5041
Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:			
F-statistic	0.4077	Prob. F(2,16)	0.7139
Obs*R-squared	1.1640	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.5588
Ramsey RESET Test			
	Value	df	Probability
t-statistic	0.4640	17	0.6486
F-statistic	0.2153	(1, 17)	0.6486

Source: Author's computation (2024).

We accept the null hypotheses of homoscedasticity and the absence of auto-correlation in the error term. The results from Ramsey RESET tests in Table 10 show that the regression models fit the data very well. The three diagnostic tests confirm that our models for the period before the Fourth Republic and in the Fourth Republic are appropriate and well-estimated.

Discussion of Findings

Findings from the study show that before the Fourth Republic, Nigeria experienced a budget surplus except in 1982, 1986, 1988, and 1998 with negligible deficits. Also, there was no time when government expenditure

was the same as its revenue. There was negative growth in government expenditure for some years. Government expenditure fell from 191.2 billion in 1993 to 160.9 billion in 1994, from 947.7 billion in 1999 to 701.1 billion in 2000. These include 2011 and 2013 with negative growth in government expenditure respectively.

Moreover, findings from the correlation matrix revealed that at a 1 percent level of significance, there is a positive relationship between GDP per capita growth (GDPPG) and GDP growth (GDPG) before the Fourth Republic and in the Fourth Republic. It implies that an increase in income per head has a positive relationship with economic growth. In addition, there is a negative relationship between external debt growth and GDP per capita growth. An increase in external debt leads to a decrease in income per head for the period before the Fourth Republic and in the Fourth Republic. While external debt growth has no relationship with economic growth (GDPg) before the Fourth Republic, a negative relationship is found in the Fourth Republic. It means that growth in external debt has an overwhelming negative impact on economic growth in the Fourth Republic. In addition, inflation growth has a negative relationship with the governance indicator index at a 1 percent level of significance. An increase in the general prices of goods and services leads to a decrease in governance institutions. Moreover, external debt growth has a positive relationship with government expenditure growth in the Fourth Republic. Government expenditure increases with an increase in external debt.

The results from the ARDL (before the Fourth Republic) and the OLS (in the Fourth Republic) show that the influence of previous years of governance on economic growth in Nigeria was statistically significant before the Fourth Republic. Governance quality in two years previous, positively impacts economic growth in Nigeria before the Fourth Republic while it negatively impacts economic growth in the Fourth Republic. This implies that good governance is strengthening the “grabbing hands” and weakening the “helping hands” of power in the Fourth Republic. In addition, economic growth during these years (the Fourth Republic) was driven by a commodity boom, hence the proportion of people in poverty is still large despite an increase in GDP. Hence, the economic growth was not inclusive. Also, good governance may not bring about growth if there are

not in place political and economic institutions to facilitate this. This result negates the findings of Mumuni and Njong (2023) in sub-Saharan Africa. The study detected that governance quality was growth-enhancing in sub-Saharan Africa.

Moreover, there is a positive impact of an increase in government expenditure on economic growth before the Fourth Republic. This agrees with Aluthge, Jibir, and Abdu (2021) who discovered a positive relationship between economic growth and capital expenditure in Nigeria from 1970 to 2019, although this relationship was insignificant with recurrent expenditure. However, there is no significant relationship between government expenditure and economic growth in the Fourth Republic. This corroborates the findings of Nyasha and Odhiambo (2019), and Ndanshau and Mdadila (2023) study in Tanzania.

Also, the result shows that education impacts growth positively before the Fourth Republic, while this is found positive in the Fourth Republic but it is not significant. High levels of unemployment, brain drain, and debt are some of the reasons why an increase in education may not translate to growth. Education in this regard acts as a filter than an investment. However, strengthening our educational systems will increase economic growth. The importance of education on growth cannot be over-emphasized. Education provides capabilities and abilities to become economically, socially, and politically productive in society. It will also ensure a peaceful and democratic society. A country's economic growth and governance quality are enhanced by having leaders who are well-educated with the right skills, behavior, and exposure. An educated leadership is a competitive advantage for a country. Uneducated leaders may lack the right initiatives for policy formulation and implementation.

Conclusion

This study established that there is no relationship between government size and economic growth in the Fourth Republic. Also, governance in the Fourth Republic does not translate to growth rather it impedes growth. The importance of education in harnessing growth was observed before the Fourth Republic.

Policy Recommendations

- a. The government should improve on its institutions and ensure effectiveness, accountability, regulatory quality, rule of law, control of corruption, political stability and absence of terrorism.
- b. Public offices should be occupied by well-educated people with the right competencies and exposure, as this will ensure good governance quality and growth.
- c. Education is a tool for good governance and there cannot be a functional education system where a nation's resources and power are not well utilized. Government should provide a functional and quality education system needed for this generation, as the young generations of today are leaders of tomorrow. It should encourage ICT-enhanced education.
- d. The government should provide job opportunities for its citizens, particularly the youth. While this will ensure dividends from education expenditure and the pool of human resources in the country, it will also discourage brain drain.
- e. The government at the central should properly monitor its units for proper implementation of projects, policies, and programs. This will prevent embezzling and diversion of funds

References

- Ajayi, J. A., & Nwogu, M. M. (2023). Effect of government expenditure on economic growth in Nigeria. *FUOYE Journal of Finance and Contemporary Issues*, 4(1), 98-109.
- Aluthge, C., Jibir, A., & Abdu, M. (2021). Impact of government expenditure on economic growth in Nigeria, 1970-2019. *CBN Journal of Applied Statistics*, 12(1), 139-174
- Bai, J., Jayachandran, S., Malesky, E. J., & Olken, B. A. (2013). Does economic growth reduce corruption: Theory and evidence from Vietnam, 1-56 NBER Working paper no 19483
- Buthelezi, E. M. (2023) Impact of government expenditure on economic growth in different states in South Africa. *Cogent Economics & Finance*, 11:1, 2209959, 1-17 DOI: 10.1080/23322039.2023.2209959

- Cooray, A. (2009). Government expenditure, governance and economic growth. *Comparative Economic Studies*, 51 (3), 401-418.
- Emera, N. & I-Ming, C. A. (2016). The impact of governance on economic growth: the case of Middle East and North Africa. *Topics in Middle East and African Economies*, 18(1), 126-144
- Gründler, K., & Potrafke, N. (2019). Corruption and economic growth: New empirical evidence, IFO Working Paper, No. 309, ifo Institute - Leibniz Institute for Economic Research at the University of Munich, Munich
- Lopes, L. E. M., Packham, N., & Walther, U. (2023). The effects of governance quality on future economic growth: An analysis and comparison of emerging market and developed economies. *SN Business Economics*, 3:108
- Mira, R., & Hammadache, A. (2017). Good Governance and Economic Growth: A Contribution to the Institutional Debate about State Failure in Middle East and North Africa. *Asian Journal of Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies*, 11:3, 107-120, DOI: 10.1080/25765949.2017.12023313
- Mumuni, S., & Mom-Njong, A. (2023). ChatGPT: Public sector spending, governance, and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of Economics & Management*, 45, 147- 181. <https://doi.org/10.22367/jem.2023.45.08>
- Ndanshau, M. O., & Mdadila, K. (2023). Government expenditure and economic growth nexus in Tanzania. *Journal of Economic Review*, 11(3), 29-54.
- Nyasha, S., & Odhiambo, N. M. (2019). Government size and economic growth: A Review of International Literature, 1-12 DOI: 10.1177/121582440
- Okonkwo, O., Echeta, D., Ojima, D., & Manasseh, C. O. (2023). Impact of government capital expenditure on the economic growth rate of Nigeria. *Journal of Economics and Allied Research*, 8(1), 335-348
- Poku, K., Opoku E., & Ennin, P. A. (2022) The influence of government expenditure on economic in Ghana: An ARDL approach. *Cogent Economics & Finance*, 10:1, 2160036, DOI: 10.1080/23322039.2022.2160036

- Udonwa, U. E., & Effiong, U. E. (2023). Public spending and economic growth in Nigeria: Assessing recurrent expenditure's neutrality and monetary policy interaction. *South Asian Journal of Social Studies and Economics*, 20(4), 35-52
- Vajrapatkul, A. (2021). The linkage between governance and growth. 3rd conference on future Social Sciences 5-7 March 2021 berlin Germany 74-85
- Wardhani, R., Rossieta, H., & Martani, D. (2017). Good governance and the impact of government spending on performance of local government in Indonesia. *International Journal of Public Sector Performance Management*, 3(1), 77-102.

**LOCAL GOVERNMENT AUTONOMY AS CATALYST FOR
GRASSROOTS DEVELOPMENT: INTERROGATING
INTER-GOVERNMENTAL FISCAL RELATIONS IN NIGERIA.**

OLUFUNMI SOLOMON LIKINYO, Ph.D.

Department of Political Science
Faculty of the Social Sciences
Ekiti State University.
Solomon.likinyo@eksu.edu.ng

IFEYINWA ARUM, Ph.D.

Department of Political Science,
Faculty of the Social Sciences.
Ekiti State University,
Ado Ekiti, Nigria
Ifeyinwa.arum@eksu.edu.ng

ABSTRACT

The nature of inter-governmental relation has eroded the powers and functions of administration of local government in Nigeria. It has subsequently relegated local government system as the third tier government in a federation, to an appendage of state government. This paper proposes to identify the relationships that exist among the three tiers of government since the adoption of the federalism in Nigeria; it examine the character of this relationships on the local government autonomy, fiscal relations and the implications of the inter-relations on local government among others. Different literatures on the topic have been explored as secondary methods of data collection which includes; textbooks, journals, and electronic materials. The research was basically on qualitative, using the analytical research techniques, the paper constructively analyses power-sharing between the federal and sub-national governments. It reviews the legal framework for Local Government that has remained topical issues. System theory was adopted to analyse the issues. The findings revealed that, the system of local governments in Nigeria is appendage of the State Governments and exclusively denied of autonomous status as independent

government. It concludes that local government, as the pivot of grassroots development, should be integrated as an autonomous political entity in a tripartite power-sharing, free from the manipulation of the states and recommends on the bases of the recent judicial verdict that, there is an urgent need to devolve more responsibility and autonomy to local government system to make them function effectively and efficiently as the third tier system of government in Nigeria.

Keywords: *Autonomy, Inter-governmental relations, Fiscal relations, local government, grassroots development.*

Introduction

Federalism in Nigeria is properly situated within constitutional, political and economic development, which have influenced the nature and character as well as the dynamics of inter-governmental relations in both pre and post-independence in Nigeria (Oluwole, 2013). In a federal system of government, there are usually two distinct levels of government. One is the federal or central all-embracing government, and the other is the government of the component parts which is known by such names as state, region or province. Each of these levels of government is assigned distinct functions in the constitution of the country concerned. The sphere of local government is usually accommodated in the state list with the federal government having no constitutional role to play. In the distribution of these functions, that are essentially national in character are assigned to the all-embracing federal or central government under the exclusive list, while the subjects which are deemed to be of regional importance are assigned to the regional, provincial or state governments under the regional/provincial or state list (Andrews, 2012).

One of the main reasons for the creation of local government is to draw government closer to the people in the rural area. The theory of efficiency-service holds the view that local governments exist mainly to ensure that adequate service is provided or delivered at the local or rural area because it has been recognized as a veritable tool or framework for administering local and grassroots' areas and for enhancing overall national development (Andrews, 2012; ALGON, 2012). The practice of local government varies across the globe. Hence, it would be more meaningful if

we have a clear understanding of the concepts. This is very important because of the diverse nature of the underlining theories, structure and operation. In Nigeria for instance, the various governments have tinkered with models since the early 1950s. The divergence in terms of conception, structure and operation can be attributed to a number of philosophy, theories, and objectives underlying the establishment of this tier of government which is concern to decentralize power or functions (Appadorai, 1975).

Historically, Local Government was granted the status of third tier government in the 1976 Reforms, which was understandably meant to strengthen Local Government autonomy by direct participation in the affairs of Local Government Administration in Nigeria. The Reforms was designed to set the record and agenda straight for rapid development of the grass root and also to extricate and restore their powers from the stronghold of State Governments in Nigeria. One of the hallmarks of the 1976 Reforms was the direct funding of Local Government directly from the Federation Accounts to further strengthen its autonomy which eventually marked a turning point in the autonomy of Local Government in Nigeria (Ugwu, 2001).

The 1976 Reforms “form a watershed in the evolution of local government and the development of local administration in Nigeria” thus in effect Local Government autonomy. Despite the provisions of the reforms in local government which was carried out in 1976 to make local government financially autonomous, the new ways were marshalled by the States in controlling the third tier system. However, the 1979 federal constitutions changed local government system from the agency status to equal partners and as a result, all the levels of government derive powers from the same constitution (Kasali, 2013; Oluwole, 2013; and Chiamogu, 2012). Perhaps of more fundamental to the question of L.G autonomy is financial autonomy which has been manipulated by the States to undermine the autonomy of L.G through the instrument of SJLGA as enshrined in the 1999 constitution of Nigeria, section 162 sub-section (6) “into which shall be paid allocation to the local government councils of the state from the Federation Account and from the Government of the state”. This Account is meant to be a mechanism to implement the notion of “fiscal federalism” at the Local Government level in Nigeria (Ugwu, 2001).

From the foregoing, it can be deduced that inter-governmental relations in Nigeria's democratic federalism is grossly unfavorable to the local government as a third tier government. Despite the numerous committees instituted to look into the fiscal relations between the tiers of government, their findings and recommendations have been unsatisfactory by the local government. Fiscal Federalism has engaged various commissions and committees since the colonial era in Nigeria and even today, the issue continues to be in the front burner of national discourse. For instance, the agitation for resource control clearly demonstrates that fiscal federalism is still an unsettled issue and yet it is issue to be resolved if federation should continue (Ozo-Eson, 2005). The provisions of 1979 and 1999 federal constitutions which aim to smoothen the fiscal relationships between the tiers of government, has been continually suppressed, and manipulated through the nefarious activities of most state governments in Nigeria, instance abound where state government hijack the statutory allocation of the local government as well as state government refusal to pay ten percent (10%) of its total internal revenue to the local government (Okoli, 2005).

Statement of Problems

Under the provision of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Local government was established by an act of parliament and derives powers from both the state and federal governments. The encroachment of local finance by the state government has negatively affected the performance of local government in terms of its constitutional responsibilities. The setting up of state and local government joint account committee, local government service commission and other allied agencies at the state level have made local government autonomy a mirage in Nigeria. Different researches have been carried out on the subject matter. However, most of these work have not holistically evaluate the implication of the tripartite relation on local government autonomy. Hence, the paper seeks to examine the nature of local government autonomy as well as the implications of autonomy on inter-governmental relations; the impacts of inter-governmental relations in grassroots development. This research is significant because it will create the attention of government to basic infrastructure at the grassroots and it also throws more light on local government independent and it's relevant

to the state and federal. The findings will help federal government to give attention to the issue of fiscal imbalance among the three levels of government and urgent reforms and review of the revenue sharing formula in Nigeria.

Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is very essential and relevant to evaluate the topic for the purpose of a clearer understanding of the synergy between and among the three tiers of governments under discuss. Despite the fact that, the theoretical underpinning for this work appears eclectically, System Theory among all other theories like; Structural functionalism, theory of integration, theory of federalism and others is still considered more appropriate to address the issue of local government autonomy and intergovernmental relations in Nigeria. System theory is more accurate in elucidating the three levels of governments with three different systems but interconnectivity in terms of administrative activities.

Systems Theory: It was propounded by David Easton (1975) to explain the complimentary activities of the tripartite systems and tiers of government in Nigeria. This theory can be looked at as a unified whole that is made up of interrelated parts of the whole. These parts which compose the units are called sub-systems and they contribute to the affective functioning of the whole and produced output higher than would have been the output of the constituent units were they are to perform independently. The theory emphasis that organization must be a system of interrelated parts of the sub-system which also represent decision units or department of an organization. Thus, the total of the features of the sub-system determines the effectiveness or otherwise of the main systems (Nnabuike and Amobi, 2015).

This theory is applicable to this research as thus; Nigeria as a federation is the system composed of the three levels of government which are the sub-systems. These tiers of government (federal, state and local) must effectively interact and cooperate together to contribute to the effective functioning of the federal system and achieve effective service delivery greater than what should have been the output of each tier were they to perform independently. Hence, the three levels of government are critical

to the survival of the Nigerian federalism, and as such treating local system as appendages or extension of the state and do not represent true federalism and affect local service delivery. This study posited that the systems theory is fully suited to be used in explaining inter-governmental and fiscal relations in Nigeria.

Literature Review

Local Government in Nigeria: Historical Perspectives

In Nigeria, the evolution of local government could be traced to the colonial era, when it functioned under the indirect rule system of the British colonial authority in collecting taxes and maintaining law and order. In attempts to strengthen the local government administration, reforms were initiated and implemented by different administrations (both civil and military) to varying stages of the nation's socio-political development, leading to changes in status, structure, composition and functions. Notably, the 1976 comprehensive reform and subsequent reforms strengthened the position of local government administration nationwide to provide governance at the grassroots level and respond to socio-economic development challenges. In the forward to the guidelines for 1976 L.G Reforms, it was remarked that “the state government continued to encroach upon what would have been the exclusive preserve of local government” (Adeyemo, 2005).

Indeed the 1976 Reforms marked a turning point in the autonomy of Local Government in Nigeria. Corroborating this view point Ugwu (2001) asserted that the Reforms “form a watershed in the evolution of local government development and administration in Nigeria” thus in effect L.G autonomy. It introduced the unified structure across the federation that remains to date, replacing the different structures previously existing in the various states. The reform, in particular, was designed to elevate local government to the third tier of government within the federal structure, introduced significant changes, particularly in the administrative setup, and codified Local Government's functions, finances and operations. The administration of the local government was vested in the local councils, democratically elected. These changes were later enshrined in the 1979 and 1999 Constitutions. As the third tier, Local Government gets statutory

allocation from the Federation Account, consequent on its constitutionally assigned powers and functions. Though the 1999 Constitution guaranteed the existence of democratic local government and provided for its powers and functions, its existence and functions were to be provided for in a law enacted by the state government. The absence of constitutional provisions on the powers, structure, composition (including the conduct of elections).

The literature on Local Government points to Local Government as the lowest level of government. It is regarded in theory and practice as a political entity set up by a national or regional (state) government. It entails the division of the country into smaller units, which act as subordinate authorities to provide governance at the grassroots level through their elected representatives. Local governments are usually created to exercise socio-economic and political functions within a restricted area of jurisdiction according to the law establishing them.

There is the contention that no political system can effectively exercise governance successfully from the centre without distributing powers and responsibilities through decentralisation to subordinate levels of government at the grassroots level. Local government refers to the administrative unit governing a specific area. It operates at the grassroots level, directly engaging with the local population. The primary role of local government is to manage and administer public services and amenities within its jurisdiction and ensure that the community's unique needs are met through localised decision-making. Local governments promote democratic participation, drive economic development at the grassroots level, and serve as the essential link between the central government and the local population. Ahmed (2024) opined that, effective local government could lead to improved service delivery, increased efficiency, and better outcomes for citizens.

Local Government Autonomy

The concept of autonomy in this regards has been a subject of intense debate in recent times, with many scholars and policymakers arguing that it holds the key to national development (Adeyemi, 2024). According to Ojo (2024), local government autonomy is essential for promoting

grassroots development, it enables it to respond effectively to the unique needs of their communities. This is because local government systems are better positioned to solve the peculiar challenges facing their areas and are therefore more capable of planning and implementing projects that address these challenges (Oyediran, 2024). Furthermore, local government autonomy also help to reduce poverty and inequality, as it enables local governments to generate revenue and allocate resources in a manner that is responsive to the needs of their citizens (Akindele, 2024).

The agitation for decentralisation of power among the levels of government has attracted debates from scholars on the concept of autonomy. Scholars have therefore attempted to explain autonomy using the inter-governmental relations institutional structures, fiscal arrangements and political channels. Nwabueze in Adeyemo (2005) observed autonomy as the way “each government operate a solely existence and independence from the control of the other levels of governments” (Adeyemo, 2005). In Nigeria, for instance, the lack of autonomy for local governments has been identified as a major obstacle to national development (Adeyemi, 2024). The over-centralization of power and resources at the federal level has rendered local governments incapability to fulfil their constitutional responsibilities, resulting in lack of basic infrastructure and social amenities in many rural communities (Ojo, 2024). Therefore, granting autonomy to local governments is seen as a catalyst for national development, as it will enable them to take charge of their affairs and respond effectively to the needs of their citizens. This paper argues that local government autonomy is essential for promoting national development and imperative for policymakers to ensure that local governments are granted the autonomy they need to fulfil their constitutional responsibilities.

Inter-governmental Fiscal Relations in Nigeria

Intergovernmental Relations (IGR) is seen as important aspect of activities existing between all types within a federal system. Intergovernmental fiscal relations has attracted lots of research interest in the world, particularly in Nigeria where there are open conflicts, competition, and tussle for tax-related items, power over expenditure and right to revenue collection among the three levels of government. Oluwole

(2013) likened intergovernmental fiscal relations to federalism which suggests a legal arrangement describing the distribution of revenue among the different levels of government in a federal structure. For government to fulfil its constitutional responsibilities of maintaining law and order and providing social amenities that promote citizens well-being, government at all levels imperatively find a revenue base. Bello (2014), opined that in many instances, intergovernmental relations between authorities within and between levels of government are based purely on financial relations. Since 1976, both federal and state governments became statutorily oblique to pass a certain percentage of their revenue to local governments. This has brought with it an unconscious controlling effect on local government finances. Olaopa and Obiyan (2002) stated that the objectives of fiscal relations among units of federation are to;

- i. promote correspondence of sub-national expenditure responsibilities with their financial resources i.e including transfers from the central government.
- ii. Improve autonomy of government incentives for their mobilized revenues of their own.
- iii. Ensure uncompromised macroeconomic management policies of the central government.
- iv. Give sub-national government discretion in appropriate areas in order to increase the efficiency of public spending and improve the accountability of services.

Transfer intergovernmental administration in a simple, transparent and based on objectives, stable and non-negotiated criteria.

Methodology

The paper adopts descriptive analysis with the use of secondary source of data collection to gain an insight into the subject matter which include journal publications, textbooks and internet sources. The techniques for analysis for the data collected were content and thematic analysis. The paper presents four sections of analysis; first, the meaning and concept of inter-governmental relations; second; the nature and impact of inter-governmental relations in the development of grassroots; third, the implications of autonomy on inter-governmental relations; fourth is the

challenges of autonomy and inter-governmental relations and finally, is the recommendation as a way-out of the hindrances of local government administration.

Results and Discussion

The Legal Framework

Nigerian 1999 constitution, section 162 (2) provides the principle of derivation, in the revenue share accruing to the Federation Account from natural resources derivable from Nigeria. However, it did not specify the dichotomy between the offshore and onshore in the Nigeria 1999 constitution. The Guardian (2002, April 5) make us to understand that The Supreme Court decided to exclude the revenue derived from the offshore drilling, that is the resources discovered on the sea while onshore has to do with the mineral resources besides the sea, in the calculation of the revenue attributable to the oil producing states based on the principle of derivation (The Guardian April 5, 2002). The civil society groups and communities in the Niger Delta have agitated for fair share of the past neglect and injustice done to the people of the areas by both the state and multinational oil companies in the exploitation of the oil resources (Atoyebi, Lawal, Adekunjo and Kadiri 2013).

The derivation principle is applied when revenue is generated from natural resources like crude oil, minerals, or other assets within a state's where the resources is located, while the remaining goes to federation account which will be shared among the state. The control of oil and distribution of its benefits among the constituent units of the federation was also challenged by civil society and communities in the Niger Delta (Atoyebi et al, 2013). In the same way, the 774 local governments in the country approached the judiciary over the issue of financial autonomy (Ojo 2014). Extant literature on autonomy laid much premium on the concentration of the federal government on the sub-units ignored the constitutional framework which empowers the federal government to have control of it. This paper bridges the gap by evaluating the constitutional provisions of the levels of government to determine the coordinate and independent relationships. Scholars observed that there was no consensus agreement on revenue sharing formula among the three

levels of government (Ikeji 2011). The scholarly view did not actually capture the implication of inter-governmental relations and revenue sharing formula on federal structure.

Adamolekun (2011), classified the allocation of responsibilities to the levels of government into three: federal-regional-local, federal-local, and regional-local levels. He identifies three approaches for the federal-regional level. The first consists of an exclusive federal list with residual powers vested in the regions; the second was an exclusive list for the regional legislatures; and the third consists of the two lists: an exclusive federal list and a concurrent list consisting of subjects upon which both the federation and the states have authority to make laws. He opined that, any matter that is not found in the exclusive or the concurrent list will be contained in the residual list, which is exclusively reserved for the regional government (Adamolekun 2011). The 1976 provided for a three-tier level of administration, a tripartite sharing of government responsibilities was put in place in Nigeria's 1979 constitution among the federal, state and local governments (Adamolekun 2011).

Local Government and Inter-governmental Relations

Inter-governmental relation is regarded as the relations between and among the different tiers of government in the state (Adamolekun 2011). In other ways, it's the whole idea of interaction between the central government and the sub-national units. Bekink (2006) sees inter-governmental relations as a system of formal and informal principles, structures and institutional arrangements between the different spheres of government. Henry, (2007) described inter-governmental relations as interactions that exist between the three levels of government in a political system. Odoh (2006), enumerates the objectives of inter-governmental relations as follows;

1. To promote peace and harmony among the three levels of government,
2. To enhance the emergence of co-operation in place of competitive federalism,
3. To ensure effective usefulness of human and material resources among the various levels of government,
4. To reinforce the achievement of self-reliant economy.

Although, extant literatures place premium on cooperation between the federal government and the sub-national units, therefore, neglect the relationship (Adamolekun 2011).

Types of Inter-governmental Relations

An inter-governmental relation has been classified into four types as identified by Fritschler and Segal (2016);

1. **Joint policymaking:** This involves the identification of the character of the actors in decision making on issue of inter-governmental relations. In this wise, the actors are bureaucrats and limit the level of decision-making to the operating bureau.
2. **Mutual adjustment:** It implies misunderstanding among the actors on the administrative programs and technicalities on finances. Nevertheless, (Ogu, Agu and Ogbu, 2018).
3. **Innovative conflict:** This type usually ends with cooperation at the beginning. The characteristics are the different sections and subsections of the political system.
4. **Disintegrative conflict:** Disagreement among the levels of government is characterized by disintegrative conflict (Fritschler and Segal 2016). There are different dimension as Jacob and Lipsky's classified intergovernmental relations as; (a) policy analysis; (b) synoptic indicators of the political process; (c) community power studies; (d) schemes of classification.

Apart from the typologies analysed above, there are different systems of relations that exist among the three levels of government, viz-a-vis local-state government relations, and local-federal government relations, local-local government relations are very crucial in federal system of government (Gboyega, 2003) cited in Agagu, (2011). The usurpation of local government power by state or provincial legislative authority in federal system is very pivotal because, it promotes the extension of the ideas across the entire gamut of public administration at the three levels of government (Gboyega, 2003).

Agagu (2011) corroborated that local-federal government relations could take several forms. These includes fiscal relations or implementations of some national programs, one of it is immunization. Local-local

government relations are forms of literal relations. It may take place for the purpose of fostering cooperation and collaborative efforts when there is a common area of concerns.

Implications of Autonomy on Intergovernmental Relations

Local government system is surrounded with many insurmountable controversial, contradictory and unresolved issues in Nigeria. This paper identifies some of the discussed and upheld their sensitivities to the necessary actions. Local government are now seen as appendages of the State in Nigeria. All efforts to rescue the situations which require constitutional reviews were frustrated by the cooperation of the 36 state governors in Nigeria until the recent Supreme Court judgment of the year 2024 on local government autonomy. The judgment seems controversial because of skeptical implementation and the reluctance of the state governors to strictly obey the Supreme Court judgment particularly on local government financial autonomy.

One of the fundamental issues is section 7 which provides for State Joint Local Government Account (SJLGA). The process describes practically as eroded tier of government since their finances are to pass through the State joint Account now made the section very unclear. The disclosure, section 7(1) that, developmental funds, grants and intervention from the Federal to Local Governments should come through the State, further nip the bud of Local Government system in Nigeria. The provision of the federal structures in Nigerian constitution under the three tiers of Federal, State and Local government was violated, use and abuse by the state government while federal tier remains a spectator of local government predicament. (Motunrayo 2019). Besides the issues identified above, some sensitive issues still undermining the constitutional rights of the local government administrations in Nigeria as its x-rayed below;

- The salient issue in Nigeria local government system is the revenue sharing formula which chested out the local governments from acquiring a reasonable share.
- Only 20% of the total accrued revenue from the federation account is considered for local government while the Federal Government and the 36 States ended up taking approximately 80% at the detriment of 774 local governments in Nigeria.

- Nigeria democracy and constitutionalism are at risk of threat of stagnation owing to the negative trends of usurpation of power for local government autonomy.
- Nigeria 1999 constitution made provisions for the system of local government and the existing 774 local governments through the recognition of democratically elected council chairman and ward councilors as legislatures.

Each of the 774 local governments has 'received' not less than 30 billion naira from the Federation Account since 1999 which is amounted to 23. 200 trillion naira and was truly received in quotes because, the bulk of the money goes to the state government while money was only allocating to local government in principles but in practice, spent by the states. Note only that, but there is also nothing to commiserate with the nature of development at the grassroots than, poverty, dilapidated schools and markets, poor health centers, unconnected villages with electricity, deplorable situations of local roads, insecurity among others. With the above challenges at the local government areas in Nigeria, there is need for a reform that can guarantee financial autonomy to local government so that, the statutory responsibility of local government can be carried out respectively.

Local Government Financial Autonomy

The Nigerian experience on local government autonomy focuses on powers and functions of the central or regional government. However, within the Nigerian context, the 1976 reforms gave Nigeria not only the definition of local government, but also the basic rudiments of local government autonomy (Akpan and Ekanem, 2013). It is crucial that there has never been a time local government truly appeared independent of both the state and federal governments, which is the crux of local government autonomy. The search for this system has been a mirage right from the establishment of local government in Nigeria. There have been persistent agitations for local government autonomy as the third tier government in the federation. It is interesting that the lingering issue of local government autonomy was laid to rest by the 2024 Supreme Court ruling on Nigeria local government.

Local Government fiscal autonomy is a product of fiscal federalism

because it operated in the Nigerian federal system. It is the transfer of activities, resources and authority to peripheral levels of government. It also has to do with “disposition of tax powers,” retention of revenue and sharing of collected revenue in accordance with the constitutional responsibilities of all levels of government (Osakwe, 1999). Local governments have always over relied on the federation account. This dependency must be minimized if local government system is being freed and allowed to pursue their goals without being hindered by unexpected instability in their shares of the federal allocation directly (Uche, C. and Uche, O.(2004). The condition of autonomy has slow down the development of local areas and also rendered local government financially incapacitated to focus on the developmental project and service delivery at the grassroots level as local governments financial activities are being regimented by the state governments.

State/Local Government Joint Account in Nigeria

Finance is significant to local governments in transforming the lives of the rural dwellers through rural infrastructural development like construction and maintenance of rural roads, markets, schools, health centres etc. Despite that local government funding in Nigeria is an aspect of fiscal federalism, it has suffered setbacks, this circumventing development at the grassroots. This problem is largely due to lack of financial autonomy, among other factors, such as lack of financial autonomy (Agba, Ocheni and Nnamani, 2013). The State-Local Government Joint Account is a pooled fund where state and local government allocations are combined and managed jointly. However, the problem associated with the joint account system, according to Ojugbelu (2014), are; illegal deduction from the local government statutory allocation; and diversion of local government statutory allocation. There is, according to Otinche (2014), the management of local government fiscal resources between the state and local governments with the creation of the State- Local Government Joint Account has been in crisis. The efficient management of local government finance is constrained by the political impurity of state governors and this has undermined grassroots development, Otinche (2014).

Inter-governmental Relations and Governance

The sustainability of good governance in a federal system is predicated on functional inter-governmental relations. Good governance encompasses a better life and improvement in the quality of life of the citizens. This indicates that the cordial relationships and complementary activities of the three levels of government are keys for good and sustainable government and development. The complementary efforts of all the levels of government in a federal system are crucial for effective and efficient service delivery. According to Ketti (as cited in Heady, 2001), good governance involves “transformation of governance”. It also refers to the responsibilities of the government to the citizens with utmost transparency, accountability and citizens' consultation in the act of governance (Olusadum and Anulika 2017). Grindle (2004) identifies good governance to include: (1) Check and balances in government and decentralisation, (2) Market efficiency, managing decentralisation and transparent budgeting, (3) Services for public transportation and safe water, (4) Strategies for asset creation for the poor and capacity building in the public sector.

The unequal federal structure has led to key issues such as resource control and local government autonomy of resource control, revenue allocation formula, state-local government relations, local government autonomy and rural development among others (Olusadum and Anulika 2017). The issues demands restructuring for the sake of true federalism that can promote good governance not only at the local and state levels but in the entire country. (Olusadum and Anulika 2017).

Grassroots Development

The recognition and importance of local government in the development process is prompted by the imperative to tackle socio-economic problems and to manage grassroots development through provision of basic rural infrastructure (Lawal, 2014). The basic rationale for the establishment of local government is to solve peculiar problems of the people at the grassroots (Nwankwo, 2001). However, it is regrettable that the local governments have been incapacitated to utilise its revenue allocation. Many local governments administration in Nigeria live in penury as a result of financial crises and are incapable to address issues and challenges of services delivery at the grassroots.

Fiscal management and grassroots development are predicated on judicious combination and utilization of financial resources to local government to achieve their set goals by designated authorities with the managerial tools of planning, organizing, directing and controlling, for the benefit and development of the people (Nwankwo, 2001). In Nigeria however, local government system have been rendered a bazaar mentality, poor accounting systems, poor and unreliable data required for planning, political manipulation over local government system, inadequate and poor revenue collection and allocation, greed, unnecessary government interference, lack of direction and corruption among others.

Challenges of Local Government

One of the serious challenges of local government in Nigerian is poor accountability and management. This affects financial obligations of local government councils to cater for staff salaries, community development and service delivery from the money collected as federal allocation to local government (Agba, Stephen & Nnamani, 2014). Some problems have been identified as posing as impediments to the autonomy of councils and which have prevented the councils from performing their constitutional and statutory roles. These are constitutional provisions, political instability, imposition of candidates, financial/ fiscal problems, etc.

Constitutional Provisions: we note the overbearing role exercise by States constitutes a tremendous threat to the autonomy of councils. States issue contradictory rules, instruction, supervisory powers passed down to the councils, some of which are clearly outside the constitutional jurisdictions of councils. Another constitutional problem that has dented the autonomy of councils is in the realm of personnel.

Political Instability: This can be seen from the inability of States to conduct election into councils. It is on record that since the return of democracy in 1999, some States have not organized council's elections. This is abuse of the constitutional provision, which guarantees elections into offices

Political Interference: Another area we should focus our attention to is the persistence suspension or dissolution of councils by State Governors. Governors take pride in suspending elected chairmen and councilors who

fall out of favour with them. The cases of River and Osun State are still generation serious legal controversies and this is as a result of overbearing power of the state government over local government administration in Nigeria. Imposition of candidates by States has become a common feature in councils' election across the country. In election to councils, it's the State governor or party hierarchy that determines the candidates, usually the party in power wins all the positions, and this of course is facilitated through the State Independent Electoral Commission. This also results in suspension of the local government chairmen especially when the successor of the state governor is not in good term with the predecessor. A good example of this is the case of River State between former Nnesome Wike and Governor Siminalaye Fubara.

Fiscal challenges: Another sensitive issue that affects local government development is the continued encroachment of the state on local councils' revenue sources. This is a serious and common incident in many States in Nigeria today. Some states have taken over the financial activities particularly the IGR of local government by competing with councils to collect revenue in motor parks, markets, shops rates etc which is constitutionally within the purview of the local government administration in Nigeria.

Corruption: corruption in the local government from both the political structure and the administrative structure of the local government in Nigeria. The financial crime by the workers at the different sources of IGR to local government has rendered the institution the inability of councils to generate adequate revenue to meet their constitutional responsibilities is also a serious threat to the autonomy of councils. Therefore most councils depend entirely on the monthly allocation from the Federation Account, which clearly is not enough to carry out developmental projects at the local government.

Conclusion

Local government plays significant roles in the promotion of democracy at the grassroots and most importantly, the development of the local areas. It is necessary to enhance the fiscal capacity of the local government to stimulate grassroots development for the fact that, it was established to

decentralize power from the state to the local areas, not only that but also to serve as complimentary efforts to the states in terms of development and in other related areas to the people at the grassroots. However, local governments in Nigeria have been performing below expectation in the provision of essential services to the people due to the lack of autonomy that lingered for many years of her establishment. Local government has been operating as an appendage of the state government for the fact that, it has not really been independent of the state government in terms of financial decision-making and service delivery to the people within its confine. The State-Local Government Joint Account (SJLGA) has placed the local government councils in financial and political bondage and therefore, there is need for local administration to be saved from the clutches of the state authorities. The call for constitutional amendment and political reform is essential to that can put local government in a permanent position of independent of the state or the federal government in their administrative activities that are beyond constitutional provisions. There is need for peaceful coexistence and harmonious relationship between the State and local government in Nigeria and this is only possible when the supreme judgment prevails over the three tiers of governments.

Recommendations

The study suggests from the review above that local government in Nigeria need to be financially independent of the other tiers of government and therefore proffers the ways forward

Local Government should be freed from financial control of the state in to achieve her statutory obligations as the third level of government, there is an urgent need to be freed from the total financial controls of the federal allocations by the State so that the allocation can genuinely go directly to local governments to prevent unnecessary state interference.

The State Joint Local Government Account should be abolished in order to avoid rendering local government less important in the affairs of local administration. Local Government tax power should be incorporated in the constitution that can allow them embark on better internally generated revenue within their spheres of authority to enable them carry out grassroots development. Local government legislative and audit

control should be allowed as well as the strict enforcement of the rules and regulations governing fiscal policy and expenditure at the local government. This serves as minimizing corruption at the local government administration. The Federal and the state Government should be compelled to adhere strictly to the Supreme Court Verdict in order to enhance the grassroots development in the country. Nigeria Government should devolve more responsibility and autonomy to local government system to make them function effectively and efficiently as the third tier system of government in Nigeria. This will enable local government to carry out their statutory obligation to the people at the local government.

References

- Adamolekun, L. (2011), *The Idea of Local Government as Third Tier of Government*, in L., Adamolekun & L., Rowland (eds.) *The New Local Government System in Nigeria* +Ibadan: Heinemann Ltd.
- Adeyemo, D. O. (2005). *Local Government Autonomy in Nigeria: A Historical Perspective*. Journal of Social Sciences. 10(2), 77-87.
- Adeyemo, D. O. (2009). '*Optimising Local Government Finance through Public-Private Partnerships*'. Department of Local Government Studies. Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun-Sate, Nigeria.
- Agagu, A. (2004). *Continuity and Change in Local Government Administration and the Politics of Underdevelopment*. In: Agagu, A. & Ola, R. (eds). Development
- Agagu, A.A. (1999). *Theory and practice of public administration*, Ado-Ekiti: University Press.
- Akindele, S.T., Adeyemo, D.O. and Olaopa, O.R. (1997). "*Theory Building and Local Government: A review of Core Issues*: In D.O. Adeyemo (eds) *Financial and administrative procedure in Nigerian local government Ile-Ife*: Local Government Publication Series.
- Akpan, F&Ekanem, O. (2013). *The Politics of Local Government Autonomy in Nigeria* *European Scientific Journal*, 9 (35), 193-205 Retrieved from www.eujournal.org.
- Agba, M. S., Ocheni, S. and Nnamani, D. O. (2014). Local Government Finance in Nigeria: Challenges and Prognosis for Action in a Democratic Era (1999-2013). *Journal of Good Governance and Sustainable Development in Africa*. 2(1), 84 – 96.

- Agba, M.S., Ocheni, S. and Nnamani, D. O. (2013). *Local Government Finance in Nigeria: Challenges and Prognosis for Action in a Democratic Era* (1999-2013).
- Awka, J'Goshen Publishers. Nwekeaku, C. E. (2007). *Local Government Administrative System: An Introductory and Comparative Approach*. Onitsha: Abbot Books Ltd.
- Bello, M. L. (2014). *Intergovernmental Relations in Nigeria: An Assessment of Its Practice at the Local Government Level*. Journal of Poverty, Investment and Development - An Open Access International Journal. 4, 66 – 76.
- Chiamogu, A. P., Onwughalu, V. C. and Chiamogu, U. P. (2012). *Politics of Inter-Governmental Relations in Nigeria: An Appraisal of Current Issues*. International Journal of Asian Social Sciences. 2(11), 1892-1905.
- Chukwuemeka, E. & Aniche, I. (2016). *Inter-governmental relations and the performance of local government in Nigeria: Diagnosing the elephantine problems*. Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (Oman Chapter) 6(3), 17-36.
- Chuwkuemeka, E., Uguanyi, B. I., Ndubuisi-Okolo, P. and Onuoha, C. E. (2014). *Nigeria Local Government: A Discourse on the Theoretical Imperatives in a Governmental System*. An International Multidisciplinary Journal Ethiopia. 8(2), 305-324.
- Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999). *Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria*. Lagos, Federal Government Press.
- Gboyega, A. (2003) "*Local Autonomy in Federal Polities: The Nigerian Local Government in Historical Perspective*" in Gana, A.L and Egwu, SG. (eds) *Federalism in Africa Volume II: The Imperative of Democratic Development*. Eritrea: Africa World Press.
- Kasali, M. A. (2013). *A sick Federation: Politics of Domination in Intergovernmental Relations in Nigeria under Obasanjo Civilian Administration (1999-2007)*. *Afro Asian Journal of Social Sciences*, 4 (4), pp. 1-23.
- Lawal, O. (2001). *Local Governments as Bastions of Corruption. National Concord*. February Malthouse press. May 7.
- Obiyan, A. S. (2013). *The Federal State in Obasanjo's Nigeria: A Coordinate Relationship or Imperial Order?* In A. S. Obiyan and K. Amuwo

- (eds.), *Nigeria's Democratic Experience in the Fourth Republic Since 1999: Policies and Politics*. Maryland: University Press of America, pp.85-108.
- Obiyan, A. S. (2010). *Federal-States Relations and Nigeria Federalism: Decentralization in Disarray?* In F. Omotoso, A. A. Agagu and O. Abegunde (eds), *Governance, Politics and Policies in Nigeria: An Essay in Honour of Prof. Dipo Kolawole*, Port Novo: Sonoud' Afrique (ESAF), pp. 156-172.
- Ogu Ogechukwu Amina, Agu, Emeka Raphael and Ogbu, Ugonna Chris (2018). *Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations and Service Delivery in Awka-North Local Government Area of Anambra State*. International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, Volume 8, Issue 11, pp311-318.
- Otinche, S. I. (2014). *"Fiscal Policy and Local Government Administration in Nigeria. An Printers*.
- The Nation (2016). How Feasible is Local Government Autonomy? Thursday, Oct. 6, p. 3
- Ojo, J. S. (2014). *An x-ray of Intergovernmental Conflicts and Resource Control in the Fourth Republic*. International Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies. 6(3), 43 – 52.
- Okoli, M. U. (2005). *Local Government Administrative System: An Introductory and Comparative Approach*. Onitsha: Abbot Books Ltd.
- Oluwole, O. E. (2013). *Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations in Nigeria's Fourth Republic: Issues and Challenges*. Covenant University Journal of Politics and International Affairs (CUJPIA). 1(2), 213-234.
- Nnabuife, K. E. and Amobi, D. S. C. (2015). *Management: An Operational Perspective*.
- Nwankwo, B. C. (2003) *"The State of Public Accountability in the Local Government System in Nigeria"* in Ezeani, E. O. (ed) *Public Accountability in Nigeria: Perspectives and Issues*, Enugu: Academic Publishing Company.
- Uche, C.U. and Uche, O.C. (2004). *Oil and the Politics of Revenue Allocation i Nigeria*. Lagos, Dove Publishers.

**The Influence of Marital Status and Job Crafting on
the Work Commitment of Professional Women Workers
(Case-Study: EKSUTH Midwives)**

Damilola A. OSEKITA

Department of Psychology and Behavioural Studies

Faculty of the Social Sciences

Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti; Nigeria.

E- mail: ayodele.osekita@eksu.edu.ng or osekitad@yahoo.com

Phone number: +2347068439720

&

Oluwatosin T. BABASOLA

Department of Psychology and Behavioural Studies

Faculty of the Social Sciences

Department of Psychology and Behavioural Studies

Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti; Nigeria.

E- mail: tomilolatosin1998@gmail.com

+2347030879987

&

Adekunle Yemi AKEREDOLU

Department Of Psychology Behavioural Studies

Faculty of the Social Sciences

Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti

adekunleakeredolupsy@gmail.com

+2347066517576

ABSTRACT

This study examined the influence of marital status and job crafting on the work commitment of EKSUTH midwives. The study also examined the influence of age, religion and ethnicity on work commitment of EKSUTH

midwives. The study employed the *expo-facto* research design. The survey method was employed and data was collected using a well-structured questionnaire. Data collected were analyzed using both the descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. Findings revealed that marital status significantly influenced work commitment among the nurses [$F(2, 288) = 3.320, p < .05$]. Divorced nurses reported higher work commitment than single, married, and separated nurses, suggesting that personal marital status plays a role in work commitment. On the influence of job crafting on work commitment, it was revealed that nurses who engaged in high levels of job crafting reported significantly higher work commitment compared to those with low job crafting levels ($t = 7.416, df = 290, p > .05$), highlighting the positive impact of individual initiative in shaping work commitment. The study also revealed that age significantly influenced work organization among nurses ($F(3, 288) = 6.057, p < .05$). Older nurses in the 56-65 age group reported higher work organization compared to their younger counterparts, implying that experience and age-related factors affect how nurses organize their work. However, religion ($F(2, 289) = 0.174, p > .05$) and ethnicity ($F(2, 289) = 2.593, p > .05$) did not significantly influence work organization among the nurses.

Based on the findings obtained, it was recommended that the hospital management should encourage and support job crafting initiatives among its nursing staff, offer professional development opportunities for younger nurses and maintain a diverse and inclusive workplace.

Keywords: *Marital status, job crafting, work commitment*

Introduction

Globally, the number of women in the work place is increasing (Pareek, 2003). The increasing percentage of women employees in the workplace is also because of the fact that career growth has taken a central role in the lives of many working women. The overall percentage of women participation in the workforce has increased in all the sectors such as private, public and government including armed forces and police, however, the percentage of women representation varies significantly at different levels in the organizations (Rosemary, and Jon, 2010). Most of the time it is evident that the percentage of women employee's decreases as

they climb up the corporate ladder, also a vast percentage of them is at the entry level (Roberts, et al. 2007). This means that career progression is less for women employees.

In most cultures today, the primary role of the woman is still that of a mother (Henk et al. 2013). According to Okeoma (2017), in Nigeria for example, women are seen as fulfilled adults only when they have children and are seen as responsible when they are married and take adequate care of their family. Women all over the world, especially the married ones are not allowed at any given time to place a greater importance on their work rather than to their family (Vasumathi, 2018). Some women i.e. university lecturers, lawyers who are highly educated do not always admit to having a high commitment to work than to their family because they are aware that such attitude or behaviors are deviant (Okeoma, 2017).

Work Commitment

Commitment is simply defined as loyalty and attachment of an individual or group to the organization (Mercurio, 2015). Mowday, Porter, & Steers, (1982) define organizational commitment as the relative strength of employees' identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization; the extent to which they are likely to work on its behalf, and the possibility that they will stay in the organization for the long term. Meta-analytic research demonstrates that committed individuals are less likely to leave the organization, are more likely to be present at work, perform effectively and are regarded as valued assets for the organization (Coetzee, Schreuder & Tladinyane, 2014). According to Richardson, Cook and Hofmeyr (2011), to achieve success with regard to employees' commitment, organizations need ethical leaders, individuals with strong interactive skills and competencies such as fairness and respect, to inspire, motivate and encourage their employees' intention to stay. Employee commitment refers to an affective attachment to and involvement with a particular organization (Nguyen, Felfe & Fookien, 2014). Grant, Dutton and Rosso (2008) indicate that employees are more mobile and thus less dependent on a single organization, which necessitates new ways of addressing their organizational attachment patterns and commitment. According to Grant (2008), Commitment had been used by organizations to predict desired employee behavior in

the areas of performance, absenteeism and emotional attachment. Theoretically, organizational commitment has three components (Meyer and Allen, 1991): affective, continuance and normative:

Affective commitment: the extent to which employees are psychologically and emotionally attached to, identify with, and are involved in the organization.

Continuance commitment: the extent to which employees desire and consciously decide to stay with the organization, which stems from the physical, cognitive and emotional investment they have made in the organization and makes separation from it an unattractive option.

Normative commitment: the extent of employees' sense of obligation to an organization. It appears that employees feel that they ought to stay with an employer because it is morally right to continue to work for the same employer or organization.

Employee commitment is not only the performance of the single parts or units of the organization but the product of all interactions taking place in the organization. Employee commitment is an index to show whether the organization is growing or not coupled with the leadership style adopted which may be influenced or affected by employee commitment, employee empowerment, employee job satisfaction and the type of organizations culture in the organization. Organizational commitment is defined as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organization (Crane and Matten, 2007). According to Porter et al (1974) an attitudinal perspective refers to the psychological attachment or affective commitment formed by an employee in relation to his identification and involvement with the respective organization. Porter, et al (1974) further describes organizational commitment as “an attachment to the organization, characterized by an intention to remain in it; an identification with the values and goals of the organization; and a willingness to exert extra effort on its behalf”. Individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals relate to that of the organization as part of organizational

commitment, therefore it is considered to be the linkage between the individual employee and the organization.

The women's role in the country development is becoming more prominent (Woetzel, 2015). Nowadays, women are not only the backbone of their family but play various roles in other facets of life (Ward, Bernice, Baptist, & Jackson, 2010). According to Bernama (2016), he stated that in Malaysia, men outnumber women at 60:40 in overall labor force gender ratio. At the managerial level, the ratio of men to women stands at 70:30 (Bernama, 2016). Furthermore, the government aims to have 30 percent of the decision-maker among women employees, in both the government and private sectors by the year 2020. The policy to reduce gender imbalance and recognize women's contributions was introduced in 2011. As at June 2016, only 11.5% top corporate sector decision-makers were women (Bernama, 2016). The government, under the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development, has allocated MYR 2.26 billion for the development and operational cost in its effort to encourage women participation in the workforce and entrepreneurship.

Outside the workplace, professional women workers primary support comes from family and friends (Adams, King, & King, 1996). The women multiple roles that encompass a wife and a mother, among others, add to the challenge of work commitment. Work commitment is essentially crucial and influential towards the element of success, performance, productivity, and attendance, which are the deciding factors of an organization accomplishment. An unsubstantiated and shallow perspective lead to men employees receiving a better moral support compared to women employees. Consequently, male employees were deemed more committed to their work than their female counterparts (Ramadoss & Rajadhyaksha, 2012). This circumstance suggests that social support is critical as it influences the employees' work commitment, regardless of gender. Women employees sometimes have to rely on their family assistance in caring for their children when they are required to attend courses or work outstation. In addition, heavy workload is a challenge for women employees as they bear numerous responsibilities towards their family as well. Nowadays, the growing number of dual career couples also led to a family-work conflict (Hill, Yang, Hawkins &

Ferris, 2004). Valk and Srinivasan (2011) emphasize the importance of family support, which enable professional women employees to attain a well-balanced career and family life, thus, enhancing their work commitment. The work-family conflict has a major influence on the behavior and well-being of the employees as well as an impact on their work commitment (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003). The better the support received from family and friends, the higher the organizational commitment will be.

The impact of gender discrimination can be assessed by studying effects of wages, hiring, promotion practices or rated salary raise scales for female employees (Silverstein, & Sayre, 2009). There are stereotypes, which are of the view that the women should be paid less. Men should get priority on women during the whole career of her job. Even in developing countries female employees face the discrimination in pay. They are not given justified pay in comparison to the work they do (Patel, 2013). Gender discrimination is the phenomena that can be observed in every society. Females bear equal burden of work as men do but even then they are paid less than their colleagues (Patel, 2013). Pakistan Social and Living standard Measurement (PSLM) survey (2004-2005) supports the findings of Farooq & Sulaiman (2009) that the females are under paid as compared with their co-men workers.

Discrimination also decreases the employees' organizational commitment. It also affects the job satisfaction. As said by Ensher et al (2001) job satisfaction and organizational commitment is important constituent of employee attitudes and behaviors that can be largely affected by the perceived discrimination. Organizations must follow the steps to decrease the perceived discrimination and increase the commitment of employees towards the organization. Perceived discrimination results in increased work tension at one extreme and at the other it decreased the job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Sanchez & Brock, 1996). When there is discrimination in terms of wages, promotion and recognition, employees' commitment level towards the organization suffers a lot. Employees who face discrimination in terms of compensation, job assignment, promotion, layoff and/or disciplinary actions are most likely to file the grievances than those who face no or zero gender discrimination (Allen & Keaveny, 1985).

When there is a perceived discrimination, professional women workers are more likely to feel the decreased powers and lack the job esteem and show lower organizational commitment. Dost(2002) found moderate level of relationship between glass ceiling and organizational commitment. Therefore, employee commitment towards organization is fairly affected by the glass ceiling. Organizations should develop policies to minimize the glass ceiling practices. They should give proper career advancement opportunities to females in order to retain highly skilled and qualified professional. As quoted by Jawahar & Hemmasi (2006) when organizations do not give proper career advancement opportunities to women employees, they have to face unavoidably loss of competent, capable, skilled, experienced and knowledgeable professionals. Similarly, professional women workers show decreasing organizational commitment when they work in the environment which is highly dominated by the gender bias and men stereotypes (Korabik & Rosin, 1991).

Job Crafting

Job crafting is defined as self-initiated change behaviors that employees engage in with the aim to align their jobs with their own preferences, motives, and passions (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001). According to Job Demands Resources (JDR) model, all job characteristics can be grouped into two overarching categories of job resources and job demands which relate differently to well being and attitudinal outcomes. Job demands are “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and are therefore associated with physiological and/or psychological costs” (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). For e.g. high work pressure, an unfavorable physical environment and emotionally demanding interaction with clients (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Job demands can be challenging or hindering (LePine, et al 2005). Job demands that hamper goal attainment and are associated with negative consequences are called hindering job demands, whereas job demands that require additional effort on the part of employees and can be difficult and stressful but result in positive work outcomes for an individual are called challenging job demands (LePine, et al 2005). Job resources on the other hand refer to

“those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and associated physiological and psychological costs, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development” (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Examples of such job resources include autonomy, performance feedback, skill variety, social support, career opportunities, positive organizational climate etc. (Halbesleben, 2010). This is a kind of proactive approach on the part of employees rather than simply reacting or responding to change in the job (Grant and Ashford, 2008). In other words, job crafting can be regarded as a proactive behavior for altering the boundaries (mental fences i.e. emotional, cognitive, temporal, physical or relational) of the jobs (Lamont and Molnar, 2002). Based on JDR model, Tims et al (2012) defined job crafting as alterations individuals make in their job resources and job demands to better fit their needs and abilities.

Conceptualizing job crafting in terms of job demands and resources is advantageous over other conceptualizations as it cover all aspects of job characteristics which individuals may craft on their jobs (Tims et al 2016). Job crafting is a highly effective way to help employees meet their physical and psychological needs while simultaneously achieving organizational goals (Toyama, Upadyaya, & Salmela-Aro, 2021). Job crafting refers to a process that stimulates individual initiative by encouraging employees to make changes to improve their work. It promotes work engagement and wellbeing, confers organizational benefits and increases good work performance (Amy & Jane, 2001). Moreover, job crafting increases the meaningfulness of work, maintains the positive self-image of employees and enhances their connectivity with others (Jutengren, et al 2020). These changes help employees to define their professional identities and modify their work experiences (Berg, et al 2013). In addition to these changes, involvement in personally meaningful work is related to overall professional engagement and job performance (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). While job crafting may go unnoticed by managers (Zhao & Qiao 2014), professional women workers engaging in crafting behaviors may find their work more meaningful and engaging, leading to better performance overall.

Hypothesis

- There will be significant influence of marital status on work commitment among Eksuth nurses
- There will be significant influence of job crafting on work commitment among Eksuth nurses
- There will not be significant influence of age on work commitment on married women among Eksuth nurses
- There will be significant influence of religion on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses.
- There will be significant influence of ethnicity on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses.

Method**Participants**

Participants for this study included 292 midwives of Ekiti State University Teaching Hospital, Ado-Ekiti. The mean age is 45, while the age range from 20-25, 25-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56-65. The research was carried out in Ekiti State University Teaching Hospital, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria. Midwives were purposively selected across units in the hospital. The participants of the study were drawn from midwives in Ekiti State University Teaching Hospital, Ado-Ekiti using purposive sampling technique. This method was used in order to ensure that the target populations which are the midwives in Eksuth were well represented.

Research Design

The design used in this study is expo-factor research design. Survey research method was adopted where copies of questionnaire were distributed to research participants in order to measure their responses.

Variables

The variables of this study include one dependent variable: work commitment, while the independent variables include: marital status and job crafting, other independent variables in this research include: age, religion, economic status

Measures

Organizational commitment scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1996) was used to measure organizational commitment. It is an 18 item scale with 6 items from each sub-scales: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, in order to determine cross-cultural validity and reliability of the scale. The scale is used to measure an individual's desire to remain focused and attached to his work. Organizational commitment scale is measured through three tools; affective, continuance and normative commitment. All the items are measured using five point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagreed (1) to strongly agreed (5). The reliabilities of all the commitment scales were above .60; affective .67, continuance .53 while normative is .67. The scale also possess convergent validity with cronbach alpha of .67 and discriminant validity with cronbach alpha of .71.

Marital Status

This is the measure of an individual personal relationship in other to know if they are single, married, separated or divorce. Also is also the civil state of being married or unmarried. It will be measured in this study, under the demography.

Job crafting questionnaire developed by Slemp and Vella Brodrick (2013) was used to measure the extent to which employees engaged in the types of activities that were consistent. The questionnaire consist of 15 items that is measured on a 6 point likert scale ranging from (1) Hardly Ever to (6) Very Often. The scale possess good internal consistency, with cronbach alpha of .70, also the questionnaire is rich in reliability. The questionnaire has three sub-scales, with reliability coefficient alpha of task crafting .87, cognitive crafting .89 and relational crafting .83. Lastly, the questionnaire also possess a convergent validity for each sub-scales after they have been correlated with other variables that are theoretically related, convergent validity cronbach alpha of task crafting .81, cognitive crafting .83 and relational crafting .77.

Procedure

The sampling technique that the researcher used for this research was expo-factor technique. Copies of the questionnaires was distributed to

300 midwives in Eksuth, however, 292 was retrievable. The researcher approached prospective respondents and introduced herself to them, explained her mission and assured them of confidentiality of the information provided by their responses. After their consent had been gotten, the researcher administered the questionnaire to the participants. Copies of the questionnaire was personally retrieved by the researcher.

Statistical Analysis

Data obtained from the field were inputted into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 2.0 which is software designed for analysis of social science research data to translate the raw data into frequencies and percentages to help present the data in the form of tables and charts. The hypotheses were tested with various statistical analyses. Hypothesis one was tested using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Hypothesis two was tested using t-test for independent samples, hypothesis three was tested using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), The hypothesis four was tested using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and the hypothesis five was also tested using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): ANOVA was used to examine the influence of marital status and age on work commitment among Eksuth nurses, T-test was used to compare the work commitment of nurses with high levels of job crafting to those with low levels.

Result

Hypothesis one stated that there would be a significant influence of marital status on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. The hypothesis was tested using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Table 1: Summary of One-Way ANOVA showing influence of marital status on work commitment

<i>Source</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Mean Squares</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Groups	1355.751	2	451.917	3.320	<.05
Within Groups	39203.163	288	136.122		
Total	40558.914	291			

Table 1 showed that marital status significantly influenced work

organization among nurses $F(2, 288) = 3.320, p < .05$. Specifically, divorced nurses ($X = 59.5000$) significantly reported higher work commitment than single nurses ($X = 49.6176$), married nurses ($X = 52.6667$) and separated nurses ($X = 53.6364$). The result implies that marital status influenced work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. Thus, hypothesis one is accepted.

Hypothesis two stated that there would be a significant influence of job crafting on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Summary of t-test showing influence of job crafting on work commitment

<i>Job crafting</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Work commitment High	172	55.4477	10.3823	290	7.416	<.05
Low	120	45.8833	11.4717			

Table 2 showed that nurses with high job crafting ($X = 55.4477$) significantly reported higher work commitment than those with low job crafting ($X = 45.8833$), $t = 7.416, df = 290, p > .05$. The result implies that job crafting has significant influence on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. Thus, hypothesis two is accepted.

Hypothesis three stated that there would be a significant influence of age on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. The hypothesis was tested using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary of One-Way ANOVA showing influence of marital status on work commitment

<i>Source</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Mean Squares</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Groups	2407.099	3	802.366	6.057	<.05
Within Groups	38151.815	288	132.472		
Total	40558.914	291			

Table 3 showed that age significantly influenced work organization among nurses $F(3, 288) = 6.057, p < .05$. Specifically, nurses within age group of 56-

65 years ($X = 61.2000$) significantly reported higher work organization than those within 46-55 years ($X = 56.5536$), within 35-45 years ($X = 49.5532$) and within 20-35 years ($X = 50.4526$). The result implies that age influenced work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. Thus, hypothesis three is accepted.

Hypothesis four stated that there would be a significant influence of religion on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. The hypothesis was tested using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Summary of One-Way ANOVA showing influence of religion on work commitment

<i>Source</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Mean Squares</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Groups	48.731	2	24.366	0.174	>.05
Within Groups	40510.183	289	140.174		
Total	40558.914	291			

Table 4 showed that religion did not significantly influence work organization among nurses $F(2, 289) = 0.174, p > .05$. Specifically, Christian nurses ($X = 51.3000$) were not significantly different in work commitment than Muslim nurses ($X = 52.3167$) and those of other religion ($X = 51.5000$). The result implies that religion did not have significant influence work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. Thus, hypothesis four is rejected.

Hypothesis five stated that there would be a significant influence of ethnicity on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. The hypothesis was tested using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Summary of One-Way ANOVA showing influence of ethnicity on work commitment

<i>Source</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Mean Squares</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Groups	715.014	2	357.507	2.593	>.05
Within Groups	39843.900	289	137.868		
Total	40558.914	291			

Results in Table 5 showed that ethnicity did not significantly influence work organization among nurses $F(2, 289) = 2.593, p > .05$. Specifically, Yoruba nurses ($X = 51.0082$) were not significantly different in work commitment compared to Igbo nurses ($X = 53.2093$) and Hausa nurses ($X = 61.8000$). The result implies that ethnicity did not have significant influence work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. Thus, hypothesis five is rejected.

Discussion

Findings obtained in hypothesis one to examine the significant influence of marital status on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses showed that there is a significant influence of marital status on work commitment. From the findings it was revealed that divorced nurses reported higher work commitment than other nurses with different marital orientation while single nurses had the lowest mean score. This result provides some facts that personal life factors, such as marital status, can have a notable impact on how healthcare professionals engage with their work. It suggests that individuals who have experienced significant life events like divorce may bring a different level of commitment to their roles compared to their peers. It could also be due some interplaying factors, such as increased motivation to excel professionally, financial obligations, or changes in personal priorities. This finding reflect the findings of Fitzmaurize (2012) and Ishfaq (2011) on the relationship between marital status and work commitment which revealed that marital status play significant role on job satisfaction. Based on his result, married person have some level of commitment to their job compared to single persons. This could be as a result of their family responsibilities. Similarly, this could also be the reason why divorced individuals scored higher in their job commitment compared to nurses while those that are single had the least mean score. Similar results was obtained by Mrinali (2015) who found that there is a significant difference in normative commitment level between married and unmarried nursing staff in India. The findings emphasized the positive relationship that exists between marital status of the nurses and their commitment to their work. This is also true with the findings of Kaldenberg et al., (1995) whose study discovered that married

dentists exhibit better job commitment attitude compared to unmarried ones. However, this was interlinked with their age and experience.

Hypothesis 2 examined the influence of job crafting on work commitment. Job crafting which involves employees proactively adjusting their roles and tasks appears to significantly influence work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. It was revealed that nurses with high job crafting score significantly higher than those with low job crafting. This implies that when healthcare professionals have the flexibility to tailor their jobs to their strengths and preferences, they are more likely to feel engaged and dedicated to their roles. The result underscores the significance of employee empowerment in healthcare settings. Allowing midwives to have a say in how they structure their tasks and responsibilities can enhance their sense of ownership and commitment to their work. This corroborates the findings of Slemp & Vella (2014) who found a significant relationship between job crafting and work commitment. Similarly Tim & Derks (2013) found that optimal job performance could be achieved through well enhancing positive job crafting through empowerment. In tandem with the findings, Kim (2016) also found that organizations with well planned job crafting will experience better employee performance. This is because when employees are given the autonomy and some level of flexibility to customize their roles, they are more likely to experience higher job satisfaction. Furthermore, Bell and Loftus (1989) similarly demonstrated that job crafting leads to enhanced self-efficacy and individual motivation. This arises from its connection to motivation factors such as accountability, accomplishment, and capability.

Findings in hypothesis three showed that there is a significant influence of age on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. Nurses within age group of 56-65 reported higher work organization than those that are younger. Subsequently, the work organization means score reduces with age. This might indicate that nurses with more years of experience develop better organizational skills or work habits that contribute to increases work organization. The implication is that midwives who are better organized in their work might also exhibit a higher level of commitment. This is partly in line with the findings of Yucel and Bektas (2012) whose study discovered that age differences play certain role on

organizational commitment. It was suggested that the organization should develop strategies to make less experienced staff become more committed to their jobs. In submission to this result, Leszczyńska (2013) showed that age statistically influence job commitment. It further revealed that the level of job commitment of employee increases with age. Similar result was also found by Singh and Gupta (2015). However, on the contrary, Cohen (1993) discovered that organizational commitment and job commitment is influenced by age of employees. However, younger staff proved to be more committed to their jobs compared to older ones. This is because of their curiosity to explore the opportunities that the job tends to offer and in the spirit of making the best of opportunities.

Furthermore, the result showed that there is no significant influence of religion on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses. This is because no significant difference was experienced in the mean score for nurses with different religious affiliations. In other words, regardless of their midwives religious beliefs, midwives at EKSUTH tend to exhibit similar levels of work organization. This also suggests that religion does not play significant influence on work commitment among EKSUTH midwives. This contradicts the findings of Galifanova and Ekizler (2020) who found that religious affiliations influence organizational commitment through work values. As with the findings of Muhammad et al., (2017) noting that religious plays significant role on organizational commitment. This is also in tandem with the fact provided by Duffy (2010) who noted that when individual's religious beliefs align with the values and ethics promoted by their workplace, it often strengthen their commitment to the job.

Lastly, in hypothesis 5 showing the influence of ethnicity on work commitment among EKSUTH nurses, findings showed that ethnicity does not significantly influence work commitment among the nurses. In other words, ethnicity plays no significant influence on job commitment as Yoruba nurses, Igbo and Hausa nurses had similar level of job commitment. This finding is not in line with that of Aaron et al., (2019) who found that ethnicity plays significant role or influences job commitment and suggest the need for supportive mechanism depending on ethnical background. Earley and Mosakowski (2000), suggest that staff that comes from minority ethnic group might not be treated the way they

should because of their background. This finding also contradicts that of Avery (2003) and Cetin who discovered that ethnicity is a major influencing factor when it comes to both organizational and individual job commitment and organizational performance.

Conclusion

This study provides valuable insights into the factors that influence work commitment and work organization among nurses at EKSUTH. Marital status, job crafting, and age appear to be relevant factors, while religion and ethnicity do not significantly impact work commitment and work organization in this healthcare setting and particularly among midwives.

Reference

- Adams, G. A., King, L. A., & King, D. W. (1996). Relationships of Job and Family Involvement, Family, Social Support, and Work-Family Conflict with Job and Life Satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 411-42. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.81.4.411>
- Agnieszka Leszczynska, 2013. "[Selected Social Aspects of Corporate Adaptation to Climate Change,](#)" [Active Citizenship by Knowledge Management & Innovation: Proceedings of the Management, Knowledge and Learning International Conference 2013,, ToKnowPress.](#)
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49(3), 252-276. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1996.0043>
- Allen, N.J. and Meyer, J.P. (1991) A Three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-89. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822\(91\)90011-Z](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-Z)
- Amy Wrzesniewski and Jane E. Dutton, 2001: [Crafting a Job: Revisioning Employees as Active Crafters of Their Work.](#) *AMR*, 26, 179-201. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2001.4378011>
- Avery, D. R. (2003). Reactions to diversity in recruitment advertising--are differences black and white? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(4), 672-679. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.4.672>
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The Job Demands-Resources model:

- State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309–328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115>
- Bell, B. E., & Loftus, E. F. (1989). Trivial persuasion in the courtroom: The power of (a few) minor details. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56(5), 669–679. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.56.5.669>
- Berg, J. M., Dutton, J. E., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2013). Job crafting and meaningful work. In B. J. Dik, Z. S. Byrne, & M. F. Steger (Eds.), *Purpose and meaning in the workplace* (pp. 81–104). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/14183-005>
- Bernama, T. (2016). Port Klang Has Capacity to Handle Almost 20 Million TEUs by 2016. ASEAN Ports Association Malaysia (MAPA).
- Coetzee, M., Schreuder, D., & Tladinyane, R. (2014). Employees' work engagement and job commitment: The moderating role of career anchors. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management/SA Tydskrif vir Menslikehulpbronbestuur*, 12(1) Art. #572, 12 pages. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v12i1.572>
- Cohen, A. (1993) Organizational Commitment and Turnover: A Meta-Analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 1140–1157. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256650>
- Crane, A., & Matten, D. 2007. Business ethics. Managing corporate citizenship and sustainability in the age of globalization (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(5), 603–609. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0037335>
- Duffy, R. D. (2010). Sense of Control and Career Adaptability Among Undergraduate Students. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 18(4), 420–430.
- Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2000). Creating hybrid team cultures: An empirical test of transnational team functioning. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(1), 26–49. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1556384>
- Ennis Jon, Barnes Rosemary, Spenser H. Management of the Repeatedly Suicidal Patient. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*. 1985;30(7):535-538. doi:10.1177/070674378503000712
- Ensher, E. A., Grant-Vallone, E. J., & Donaldson, S. I. (2001). Effects of

- perceived discrimination on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and grievances. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 12(1), 53–72.
- Espen Røysamb^{1,2}, Joar Vittersø³ and Kristian Tambs (2014). The Relationship Satisfaction scale – Psychometric properties. *Norsk Epidemiologi* 24 (1-2): 187-194.
- Farooq, M. and Sulaiman, J. (2009). Gender Earnings Inequality and Discrimination in the Pakistani Labor Market. *The Dialogue*. 4 (3).
- FitzMaurice, Kevin (2011). Transgressing the boundaries of native studies: traces of white. *The Canadian Journal of Native Studies*; 31, 2; *CBCA Complete* pg. 63-76
- Grant, A. M. (2008). The significance of task significance: Job performance effects, relational mechanisms, and boundary conditions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 108–124. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.1.108>
- Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The Dynamics of Proactivity at Work. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 28, 3-34. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2008.04.002>
- Grant, A. M., Dutton, J. E., & Rosso, B. D. (2008). Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. *Academy of Management Journal*, 51(5), 898–918. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2008.34789652>
- Greenhaus, J.H., Collins, K.M. and Shaw, J.D. (2003) The Relation between Work-Family Balance and Quality of Life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63, 510 - 531. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791\(02\)00042-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00042-8)
- Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2010). A meta-analysis of work engagement: Relationships with burnout, demands, resources, and consequences. In A. B. Bakker (Ed.) & M. P. Leiter, *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research* (pp. 102–117). Psychology Press.
- Henk HJ, Paoli CJ, Gandra SR. A Retrospective Study to Examine Healthcare Costs Related to Cardiovascular Events in Individuals with Hyperlipidemia. *Adv Ther*. 2015 Nov;32(11):1104-16. doi: 10.1007/s12325-015-0264-7. Epub 2015 Nov 19. PMID:

26585336; PMCID: PMC4662727.

- Henk, Bill; Marinak, Barbara A.; and Melnick, Steven A., "Measuring the Reader Self-Perceptions of Adolescents: Introducing the RSPS2" (2013). *College of Education Faculty Research and Publications*. 302. https://epublications.marquette.edu/edu_fac/302
- Hill, E. J., Yang, C., Hawkins, A. J., & Ferris, M. (2004). A Cross-Cultural Test of the Work-Family Interface in 48 Countries. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 66(5), 1300–1316. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-2445.2004.00094.x>
- Hüseyin Ekizler & Albina Galifanova, 2020. "[The Effect of Religiosity on Organizational Commitment through Work Values](#)," *Alphanumeric Journal*, vol. 8(2), pages 181-200.
- Hüseyin Ekizler & Albina Galifanova, 2020. "[The Effect of Religiosity on Organizational Commitment through Work Values](#)," *Alphanumeric Journal*, Bahadır Fatih Yildirim, vol. 8(2), pages 181-200.
- Ishfaq Ahmed, 2011. "[Relationship between Motivation and Job Satisfaction: A Study of Higher Educational Institutions](#)," *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, AMH International, vol. 3(2), pages 94-100.
- Jawahar, I. M., & Hemmasi, P. (2006). Perceived Organizational Support for Women's Advancement and Turnover Intentions. *Journal of Women in Management Review*, 21, 643-661. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420610712036>
- Jonathan Woetzel, 2015. "[The Power of Parity: How Advancing Women's Equality can Add \\$12 trillion to Global Growth](#)," *Working Papers id:7570, eSocialSciences*.
- Jordan Aaron, Scott McDougall. (2019). Rock avalanche mobility: The role of path material, *Engineering Geology*, Vol. 257, 105126, ISSN 00137952, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enggeo.2019.05.003>.
- Jutengren, G., Jaldestad, E., Dellve, L., & Eriksson, A. (2020). The Potential Importance of Social Capital and Job Crafting for Work Engagement and Job Satisfaction among Health-Care Employees. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(12), 4272. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17124272>
- Kaldenberg, D., Becker, B., & Zvonkovic, A. (1995). Work and commitment among young professionals: a study of male and female dentists. *Human Relations*, 48(11), 1355-

- 1377.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/001872679504801106>
- Kamala Ramadoss¹ and Ujvala Rajadhyaksh (2012) Gender Differences in Commitment to Roles, Work-family Conflict and Social Support. *Journal of Social Science*. 33(2): 227-233 (2012)
- Kim, J. (2016). Understanding narrative inquiry. SAGE Publications, Inc., <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781071802861>
- Lamont, M., & Molnár, V. (2002). The study of boundaries in the social sciences. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 28, 167–195. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.28.110601.141107>
- Lepine, J. A., Podsakoff, N. P., & Lepine, M. A. (2005). A meta-analytic test of the challenge stressor-hindrance stressor framework: An explanation for inconsistent relationships among stressors and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(5), 764–775. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.18803921>
- Markus Ihalainen, Jolien Schure, Phosiso Sola, (2020). Where are the women? A review and conceptual framework for addressing gender equity in charcoal value chains in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Energy for Sustainable Development*. Vol 55, Pg 1-12, ISSN 0973-0826, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esd.2019.11.003>.
- May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77(1), 11–37. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915892>
- Mercurio, Z. A. (2015). Affective Commitment as a Core Essence of Organizational Commitment: An Integrative Literature Review. *Human Resource Development Review*, 14(4), 389-414. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484315603612>
- Mowday, R., Porter, L. and Steers, R. (1982) *Employee—Organization Linkages: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover*. Academic Press, New York.
- Muhammad, N., et al. (2017) Critical Analysis of the Legal and Infrastructural Frameworks for E-Commerce and Consumer Protection in Nigeria. *The International Journal of Business & Management*, 5, 58-62.
- Obe, B.L., Ward, J., Baptist, S., & Jackson, H.J. (2010). Evidence for Action: Gender Equality and Economic Growth.

- Okeoma John-Paul Okeke (2017). Nigeria Culture: A barrier to the career progress of women in Nigeria. *Global Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol.5, No.5, pp.1-11
- Pareek, U. (2003) *Training Instruments in HRD and OD*. Tata McGraw Hill, Bombay.
- Patel, C. (2013). Use of Multimedia Technology in Teaching and Learning Communication Skill: An Analysis. *International Journal of Advancements in Research & Technology*, 2, 116-123.
- Phuong Nguyen & Jörg Felfe & Insa Fookien, 2014. "[Work conditions as moderators of the relationship between western expatriates commitment and retention in international assignments](#)," *Evidence-based HRM, Emerald Group Publishing Limited, vol. 2(2), pages 145-163.*
- Reimara Valk, Vasanthi Srinivasan, (2011). Work-family balance of Indian women software professionals: A qualitative study, *IIMB Management Review*, Vol. 23, Issue 1, Pages 39-50, ISSN 0970-3896. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iimb.2010.10.010>.
- Richardson, A., Cook, J. & Hofmeyr, K. 2011. How leaders generate hope in their followers. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 35(2):47-66
- Roberts, B. W., Kuncel, N. R., Shiner, R., Caspi, A., & Goldberg, L. R. (2007). The Power of Personality: The Comparative Validity of Personality Traits, Socioeconomic Status, and Cognitive Ability for Predicting Important Life Outcomes. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 2(4), 313-345. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6916.2007.00047.x>
- Rosin, H. M., & Korabik, K. (1991). Workplace variables, affective responses, and intention to leave among women managers. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 64(4), 317-330. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1991.tb00563.x>
- Sanchez, J. I., & Brock, P. (1996). Outcomes of perceived discrimination among Hispanic employees: Is diversity management a luxury or a necessity? *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(3), 704-719
- Allen, R. E., & Keaveny, T. J. (1985). Factors differentiating grievants and nongrievants. *Human Relations*, 38(6), 519-534. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872678503800602>
- Silverstein Michael J. and Sayre Kate. (2009). The female economy. *Harvard business review*. Pg. 1-10.

- Singh, A. and Gupta, B. (2015) Job Involvement, Organizational Commitment, Professional Commitment, and Team Commitment: A Study of Generational Diversity. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 22, 1192-1211. <https://doi.org/10.1108/bij-01-2014-0007>
- Slemp, G. R., & Vella-Brodrick, D. A. (2013). The Job Crafting Questionnaire: A New Scale to Measure the Extent to Which Employees Engage in Job Crafting. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 3, 126-146.
- Slemp, G. R., & Vella-Brodrick, D. A. (2014). Optimising Employee Mental Health: The Relationship between Intrinsic Need Satisfaction, Job Crafting, and Employee Well-Being. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 15, 957-977. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10902-013-9458-3>
- Tikare, Mrinali, 2015. "[A Study of Organizational Commitment with reference to Marital Status of Indian Nursing Staff](#)," *American Journal of Trade and Policy, Asian Business Consortium*, vol. 2(1), pages 19-28.
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2012). Development and validation of the job crafting scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(1), 173-186. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.05.009>
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2013). The impact of job crafting on job demands, job resources, and well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18(2), 230-240. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032141>
- Tims, M., Derks, D., & Bakker, A. B. (2016). Job crafting and its relationships with person-job fit and meaningfulness: A three-wave study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 92, 44-53. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.11.007>
- Upadyaya, K., Toyama, H., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2021). School Principals' Stress Profiles During COVID-19, Demands, and Resources. *Frontiers in psychology*, 12, 731929. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.731929>
- Vasumathi, 2018. "[Work life balance of women employees: a literature review](#)," *International Journal of Services and Operations Management, Inderscience Enterprises Ltd*, vol. 29(1), pages 100-146.
- Wrzesniewski, A. and Dutton, J.E. (2001) Crafting a Job: Revisioning Employees as Active Crafters of Their Work. *Academy of Management Review*, 25, 179-201.

- Yucel, I. and Bektas, C. (2012) Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Demographic Characteristics among Teachers in Turkey: Younger Is Better? *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 1598-1608.
- Zhao, B., & Qiao, X. (2014). The Current Situation and Influencing Factors of College Students' Part-Time Job. *Contemporary Youth Research*, No. 3, 58-63. (In Chinese)